REVIEW

The Role of High-Field Magnetic Resonance Imaging in Parkinsonian **Disorders: Pushing the Boundaries Forward**

Stéphane Lehericy, MD, PhD,¹* David E. Vaillancourt, PhD,² Klaus Seppi, MD,³ Oury Monchi, PhD,⁴ Irena Rektorova, MD, PhD,⁵ Angelo Antonini, MD. PhD.⁶ Martin J. McKeown, MD.⁷ Mario Masellis, MD. PhD.⁸ Daniela Berg, MD.⁹

James B. Rowe, MD, PhD,¹⁰ Simon J. G. Lewis, MD,¹¹ Caroline H. Williams-Gray, MRCP, PhD,¹² Alessandro Tessitore, MD, PhD,¹³ Hartwig R. Siebner, MD,¹⁴

on behalf of the International Parkinson and Movement Disorder Society (IPMDS)-Neuroimaging Study Group

¹Institut du Cerveau et de la Moelle épinière – ICM, Centre de NeuroImagerie de Recherche – CENIR, Sorbonne Universités, Groupe Hospitalier Pitié-Salpêtrière, Paris, France

²Department of Applied Physiology and Kinesiology, Department of Neurology and Centre for Movement Disorders and Neurorestoration, Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, USA

³Department of Neurology, Medical University Innsbruck, Innsbruck, Austria and Neuroimaging Research Core Facility, Medical University Innsbruck, Innsbruck, Austria

⁴Department of Clinical Neurosciences, Department of Radiology, Hotchkiss Brain Institute, University of Calgary, Calgary, AB, Canada 5 First Department of Neurology, School of Medicine, St. Anne's University Hospital, Brain and Mind Research Program, Central European Institute of Technology, Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic

⁶Parkinson and Movement Disorders Unit, istituto di ricovero e cura a carattere scientifico (IRCCS) Hospital San Camillo, Venice and Department of Neurosciences (DNS), Padova University, Padova, Italy

⁷Pacific Parkinson's Research Center, Department of Medicine (Neurology), University of British Columbia Vancouver, BC, Canada ⁸Sunnybrook Health Sciences Centre, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

⁹Department of Neurology, Christian-Albrechts-University of Kiel and Hertie-Institute for Clinical Brain Research, University of Tuebingen,

Tuebingen, Germany

¹⁰Department of Clinical Neurosciences, Cambridge University, and Medical Research Council Cognition and Brain Sciences Unit, Cambridge, UK

¹¹Parkinson's Disease Research Clinic, Brain and Mind Centre, University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia

¹²John Van Geest Centre for Brain Repair, Department of Clinical Neurosciences, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK

¹³Department of Medical, Surgical, Neurological, Metabolic and Aging Sciences, Second University of Naples, Naples, Italy

¹⁴Danish Research Centre for Magnetic Resonance, Centre for Functional and Diagnostic Imaging and Research, Copenhagen University Hospital Hvidovre, Department of Neurology, Copenhagen University Hospital Bispebjerg, Hvidovre, Denmark

*Corresponding author: Dr. Stéphane Lehericy, Institut Cerveau Moelle, CENIR, Hôpital Pitié-Salpêtrière, 47 boulevard de l'Hôpital, 75651 Paris Cedex 13, France; stephane.lehericy@upmc.fr

Funding agencies: S.L. received grants from Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANRMNP 2009, Nucleipark), Direction de l'hospitalisation et de l'offre de soins (DHOS)-Inserm (2010, Nucleipark), France Parkinson (2008), Ecole Neuroscience de Paris, 'Investissements d'avenir' (grant number ANR-10-IAIHU-06 and ANR-11-INBS-0006). D.E.V. reports grants from the National Institutes of Health (R01 NS052318, R01 NS075012). K.S. reports grants from Medical University Innsbruck, grants from Oesterreichische Nationalbank Nationalbank (Austrian Central Bank, Anniversary Fund; project no.: 14174), grants from Austrian Science Fund (Fonds zur Wissenschaftlichen Forschung (FWF): Der Wissenschaftsfonds; project no.: KLI82-B00), grants from the Michael J. Fox Foundation, grants and personal fees from International Parkinson and the Movement Disorder Society, personal fees from Teva, personal fees from Union Chimique Belge (UCB), personal fees from Lundbeck, personal fees from AOP Orphan, personal fees from Roche and personal fees from Abbvie outside the submitted work. O.M. received funding from the Canadian Institutes for Health Research (MOP-81114), the Canada Research Chair in nonmotor symptoms of Parkinson's disease, and the Tourmaline Oil Chair in Parkinson's disease. A.A. received funding from the Neureca Foundation, Horizon2020 Project No. 643706, and from Italian National Research Project No. RF-2009-1530177. He has also received consultancy fees and honoraria for speaker-related activities from AbbVie, Angelini, Acadia, UCB, Zambon, General Electric, Boston Scientific, Medtronic, Mundipharma, and Global Kinetics. M. McKeown received funding from the Mottershead Foundation, the National Parkinson's Foundation, the Parkinson's Society of Canada, and the University of British Columbia / Pacific Parkinson's Research Institute (UBC/PPRI) chair in Parkinson's Research and has received honoraria from Abbvie, Allergan, and Teva for educational seminars. M. Masellis has served as an advisor to Bioscape Medical Imaging contract research organization (CRO), Novartis, and UCB; received honoraria from Novartis; received royalties from Henry

Stewart Talks Ltd.; received an investigator-initiated research grant from Teva; received contract research support from Roche, Axovant, and Novartis; received peer-reviewed research support from Canadian Institutes of Health Research, Ministry of Economic Development and Innovation Research, Innovation and Science (Ontario), Weston Brain Institute, Sunnybrook AFP Innovation Fund, Washington University, Parkinson Society Canada, Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation, Brain Canada, and the Ontario Brain Institute. D.B. received grants from the Michael J. Fox Foundation, Janssen Pharmaceutica N.V., German Parkinson's Disease Association (dPV), Bundesministerium für Wirtschaft und Energie (BMWi), Förderung in der Forschung (BBF), Parkinson Fonds Deutschland gGmbH, UCB Pharma GmbH, TEVA Pharma GmbH, Europe (EU), Novartis Pharma GmbH, and Lundbeck. J.R. is primarily funded by the Wellcome Trust (103838) but has received research grant funding from Astra Zeneca Medimmune. C.W.-G. reports the Patrick Berthoud Trust, the Medical Research Council, the Wellcome Trust, and Parkinson's UK. A.T. has received commercial research support from Allergan. H.R.S. has received honoraria as speaker from Biogen Idec, Denmark A/S, Genzyme, Denmark. and MerckSerono, Denmark and as honoraria as editor from Elsevier Publishers, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, and Springer Publishing, Stuttgart, Germany.

Relevant conflicts of interests/financial disclosures: Nothing to report.

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Received: 6 November 2016; Revised: 22 December 2016; Accepted: 15 January 2017

Published online 28 March 2017 in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com). DOI: 10.1002/mds.26968

Historically, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has contributed little to the study of Parkinson's disease (PD), but modern MRI approaches have unveiled several complementary markers that are useful for research and clinical applications. Iron- and neuromelaninsensitive MRI detect qualitative changes in the substantia nigra. Quantitative MRI markers can be derived from diffusion weighted and iron-sensitive imaging or volumetry. Functional brain alterations at rest or during task performance have been captured with functional and arterial spin labeling perfusion MRI. These markers are useful for the diagnosis of PD and atypical parkinsonism, to track disease progression from the premotor stages of these diseases and to better understand the neurobiological basis of clinical deficits. A current

Parkinson's disease (PD) and other parkinsonian disorders are growing health problems because populations are constantly aging. The positive and differential diagnosis of these diseases is therefore an important challenge for modern neuroimaging techniques. Early diagnosis would allow early therapeutic or preventive strategies as well as a better understanding of the dynamics of lesion deposition in the central nervous system. Early diagnosis includes the identification of the premotor features that precede overt classical symptoms by many years to decades.¹

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the brain now provides complementary techniques that can detect disease-related changes in many brain regions affected by parkinsonian disorders. Current MRI biomarkers in PD fall into several categories. Biomarkers of neurodegeneration include atrophy on structural MRI and probably neuromelanin-sensitive signal changes. The biomarkers of tissue microstructure include diffusion imaging measures. The biomarkers of iron deposition are extracted using R2* measurements and quantitative susceptibility mapping (QSM). The biomarkers of brain function have been used to study the neural correlates of motor and nonmotor symptoms in terms of neural circuits and neurochemistry. These markers have been used to categorize PD patients from healthy controls (HCs) to follow disease progression and to differentiate parkinsonian disorders.

High-Field MRI of Parkinsonism and Its Progression

Diagnosis of PD and Premotor PD Versus Healthy Controls

Magnetic Resonance Imaging Techniques

A number of MRI techniques can now detect changes in the substantia nigra (SN) in PD. Iron

research goal using MRI is to generate time-dependent models of the evolution of PD biomarkers that can help understand neurodegeneration and provide reliable markers for therapeutic trials. This article reviews recent advances in MRI biomarker research at high-field (3T) and ultra high field-imaging (7T) in PD and atypical parkinsonism. © 2017 The Authors. Movement Disorders published by Wiley Periodicals, Inc. on behalf of International Parkinson and Movement Disorder Society.

Key Words: Parkinson's disease; atypical parkinsonism; MRI; iron; neuromelanin; diffusion MRI; fMRI; resting state fMRI; 7T

content can be quantified using iron-sensitive techniques such as the R2* relaxation rate or susceptibilityweighted imaging and QSM, 2 techniques that use information in phase images about variations in the local magnetic field. Nigral changes reflecting increases have been consistently reported in PD at 1.5T and 3T.²⁻⁷ However, PD values overlapped with those of HCs, and a few studies found no changes in PD, limiting its clinical use as disease marker today.8-10 Increased iron content was also reported in symptomatic and asymptomatic leucine-rich repeat kinase 2 (LRRK2) and Parkin mutation carriers.³ Asymptomatic carriers had R2* values in the range of PD values, suggesting that iron deposition may occur early during the preclinical phase of the disease.³ QSM may have higher sensitivity than R2* for delineating PD-related changes in the substantia nigra (SN) pars compacta (SNpc) and better correlate with clinical measures, suggesting a higher potential of QSM as a biomarker of iron-related pathology.11

Recently, a new MRI finding has been described in the SN in PD using iron-sensitive MRI. Controls consistently displayed a hyperintense, ovoid area within the dorsolateral border of the otherwise hypointense SNpc. Histopathological correlation (Fig. 1A)¹² suggested that this dorsolateral nigral hyperintensity (DNH) or nigral hyperintensity corresponded to nigrosome-1, a calbindin-negative subregion in the SNpc.^{13,14} Across studies, the signal loss of DNH had a high sensitivity (79% to 100%) and specificity (84.6% to 100%) to separate PD from HC (Fig. $(1B)^{13-17}$ and may be helpful in differentiating PD from uncertain movement disorders such as drug-induced parkinsonism,¹⁷ essential tremor, and dystonic tremor.¹⁴ DNH signal loss was found in at least $\frac{2}{3}$ of patients with idiopathic rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder (iRBD)¹⁸ (Fig. 1B) and in clinically

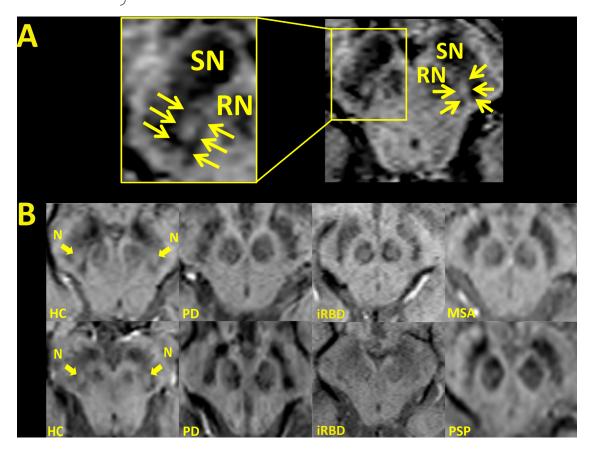


FIG. 1. The dorsolateral nigral hyperintensity. (A) susceptibility-weighted imaging (SWI) image of a healthy control (HC), demonstrating the magnified dorsolateral nigral hyperintensity (DNH) within the right substantia nigra (SN). Yellow arrows mark the DNH in the survey as well as in the magnified illustration. (B) SWI images demonstrating the DNH in two healthy controls, its absence in two patients each with PD and idiopathic rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder (iRBD) as well as its absence in one patient each with multiple system atrophy (MSA) and progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP). RN, red nucleus.

asymptomatic *LRKK2* carriers,¹⁹ suggesting that this sign may assist in the identification of prodromal degenerative parkinsonism.

High-resolution spin echo T1-weighted images are sensitive to the paramagnetic properties of neuromelanin, a pigment that is contained in the SNpc and show the SNpc as an area of high signal intensity (Fig. 2).²⁰ The reduced size and signal intensity of the SN was reported in PD patients using neuromelanin-sensitive imaging with high diagnostic accuracy.²⁰ This technique may help distinguish PD from essential tremor.²¹ Biomarker changes in PD were shown to predominate in the SNpc delineated using neuromelanin-sensitive imaging when compared with T2 imaging.²²

Diffusion weighted imaging is sensitive to microstructural tissue changes that alter the regional diffusion of water molecules. Using diffusion tensor imaging, reduced fractional anisotropy (FA) in the SN was reported, although with a large variability of results across studies.²³ More advanced diffusion modeling approaches including free-water measurements²⁴ or neurite orientation dispersion and density imaging²⁵ may provide more reliable results to distinguish PD patients from HCs. Free water (ie, the fractional volume of unconstrained diffusion) and free-water corrected FA (ie, a measure of the tissue compartment of the voxel) can be extracted from diffusion data using a bitensor model (Fig. 3). Free water in the SN is elevated in PD when compared with HCs, suggesting that this measurement is robust.²⁴ Measuring diffusion changes in the ventrolateral SN is also important to find consistent effects,^{22,26} and this region corresponds with pathology in PD.²⁷ Last, structural connectivity of the SN with the basal ganglia and thalamus is reduced in PD patients as shown using diffusion-based fiber tracking.^{28,29}

Resting-state fMRI (rs-fMRI) using blood oxygen level-dependent contrast (BOLD) has allowed the exploration of brain connectivity between functionally linked cortical regions constituting resting-state networks (RSNs).³⁰ The rs-fMRI in PD showed that dopamine depletion leads to a remapping of cerebral connectivity characterized by decreased coupling in the cortico-striatal sensorimotor network and between the striatum and the brain stem.^{28,31-36} Increased coupling, interpreted as compensatory, was observed in PD in the associative networks^{28,37} and intraregionally

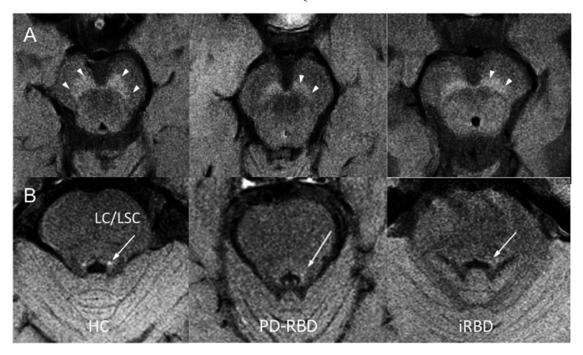


FIG. 2. Neuromelanin imaging. (A) Axial neuromelanin-sensitive T1-w images of the SN and (B) the locus coeruleus/subcoeruleus area (LC/LSC) in a healthy control (HC), a patient with PD with rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder (PD-RBD), and a patient with idiopathic rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder (iRBD). The normal SN (arrowheads) and the locus area (arrows) are visible as areas of high signal intensity. There is a decrease in size and signal intensity of the substantia nigra (SN) and locus area in participants with RBD.

within the primary motor cortex (M1) and the cerebellum.³¹ Connectivity changes were modulated by levodopa.^{33,38} Functional alterations in M1 may be related to prolonged dopaminergic treatment rather than PD per se because alterations were not detected in drug-naïve patients.³³ Changes in functional

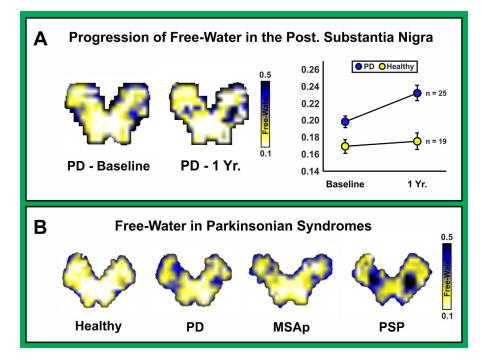


FIG. 3. Diffusion imaging and free water. Free-water values from individual participants and group-level values are shown for PD, multiple system atrophy parkinsonian variant (MSAp), and progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP). (**A**) Progression of free water in an individual patient with PD. Free water is shown in a color scale from yellow = low free water and blue = high free water. It is clear that free water is elevated in the posterior region of the substantia nigra at baseline and becomes further elevated at 1 year of progression (1 Yr.).^{24,212} (**B**) Free-water maps from individual control, PD, MSAp, and PSP participants are shown. Free-water accumulation becomes worse in the PSP participant when compared with the PD and MSAp participants.⁷⁶

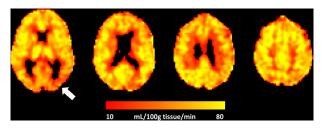


FIG. 4. Pseudocontinuous arterial spin labeling MRI to quantify regional cerebral blood flow in an individual with PD and mild cognitive impairment. Low occipital perfusion is noted (arrow).

connectivity were also detected in asymptomatic LRRK2 G2019S mutation carriers, suggesting that functional changes may occur early during the preclinical phase of the disease, whereas structural changes were not detected in these patients.^{39,40} Last, functional connectivity (FC) mapping within the basal ganglia networks differentiated PD patients from both HCs and other neurodegenerative diseases with high accuracy.^{38,41}

Arterial spin labeling MRI (ASL-MRI) permits the quantification of cerebral tissue perfusion using magnetically labeled protons in arterial blood water as an endogenous tracer.⁴² Studies have shown symmetrical posterior > anterior cortical hypoperfusion in PD involving predominantly the parieto-occipital regions (Fig. 4) and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex.⁴³⁻⁴⁶ The posterior perfusion deficits predominated in PD with versus without dementia.⁴³ ASL perfusion deficits overlapped with fluorodeoxyglucose PET metabolic deficits in PD.⁴⁷

Proton magnetic resonance spectroscopy (¹H-MRS) allows the quantification of changes in brain metabolites that have reported a number of metabolic changes at various levels of the central nervous system in PD.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ In the SN, results were often contradictory probably because of the small size of the structure.⁴⁸ A recent study has shown that MRS detected metabolic changes in the putamen in PD that were reversed by L-dopa therapy, suggesting a possible role of MRS to monitor treatment effects.⁴⁸

Transcranial B-Mode Sonography (TCS)

An alternative method to measure iron-level content is TCS. Increased echogenicity of the SN has been observed in idiopathic PD using TCS and related to increased tissue iron.⁵¹ TCS is highly sensitive for PD and easily applicable, but the method is not entirely specific as SN hyperechogenicity was also detected in other neurodegenerative diseases such as progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP) and corticobasal degeneration.⁵² In HCs (\geq 50 years), SN hyperechogenicity was associated with a more than 20 times increased risk to develop PD within 5 years.⁵³ Thus, TCS can help patient stratification and the identification of individuals at risk. TCS-MRI fusion imaging has shown that the 2 techniques provide complementary findings.⁵⁴ Limitations of TCS include reduced specificity, because SN hyperechogenicity is found in 10% to 15% of the healthy population, and insufficient bone window in more than 10% of the elderly population.

Data Fusion

High-field imaging offers the exciting possibility to fuse information from different modalities. When combining nigral relaxometry with other quantitative MR parameters sensitive to complementary tissue characteristics (ie, multimodal neuroimaging), better discrimination compared with the single markers alone could be achieved.^{55,56} For instance, cortical thinning, rs-fMRI (fractional amplitude of low frequency fluctuations), and mean FA in a set of brain regions were jointly used to accurately discriminate between PD patients and HCs.⁵⁷ Because the importance of combining biomarkers in PD is becoming increasingly recognized,⁵⁸ it is expected that imaging data fusion approaches will become more widespread in the future.

Neural Correlates of Motor and Nonmotor Symptoms in PD

Studies using functional or structural imaging have offered insights into the pathophysiology underlying key symptoms in PD.^{59,60} The effect of dopaminergic medication as well as the influence of genetic polymorphisms have also been investigated. These studies detailed below have confirmed the interaction between the basal ganglia and cortex and suggested that the neurobiological processes in PD reflect the interaction of more complex interconnected neural networks rather than being related to discrete "circuit failures."

Motor Symptoms

PET and fMRI during the performance of motor tasks have provided variable results across studies. A recent quantitative meta-analysis identified consistent functional abnormalities in PD.61 The most consistent abnormality was a relative decrease in motor activation in the posterior motor putamen, globally increasing with the degree of motor impairment.⁶¹ Dopaminergic medication consistently caused a relative increase in putaminal activity. Motor activation also differed between PD patients and HCs in a set of frontoparietal areas, including pre-SMA, M1, and the inferior and superior parietal lobules.⁶¹ However, both increases and decreases in activity were reported for these regions, indicating a complex relationship between altered cortical activation during motor tasks and nigrostriatal dopaminergic denervation. Using rs-fMRI, studies have shown that functional correlations between the striatum and the brain stem correlated with the UPDRS III score in PD.^{36,62} Functional imaging studies have also suggested that different motor phenotypes related may be to distinctive underlying pathophysiology. Cognitively unimpaired akineticdominant PD patients showed decreased FC in the default mode network (DMN; a task-negative network operating across the hippocampal formations, posterior cingulate, and intraparietal sulcus) when compared with tremor-dominant patients and HCs.⁶³ An effective connectivity study suggested that tremor might result from a pathological interaction between the basal ganglia and the cerebellothalamic circuit⁶⁴ arising in the internal globus pallidus and being propagated to the cerebellothalamo-cortical circuit via the motor cortex.⁶⁵

Freezing of Gait (FOG). Although early work examined FOG using an imagined gait paradigm,⁶⁶ more recent studies used a virtual reality approach.⁶⁷⁻⁷¹ These fMRI studies have identified the abnormal interplay that occurs in PD between the motor, basal ganglia, pedunculopontine, and cognitive control networks that would normally coordinate effective automatic movement. Diffusion-based tractography in FOG patients showed reduced connectivity of the pedunculopontine nucleus with the cerebellum, thalamus, and the frontal cortex.⁷²

Levodopa-Induced Dyskinesia. Levodopa-induced dyskinesia (LID) represents a major debilitating side effect of long-term dopaminergic treatment in PD. fMRI has been successfully used to study the impact of aberrant striatal response to levodopa on the motor system in PD patients with LID. Using fMRI during the performance of visuomotor tasks, PD patients with LID off medication showed stronger activation of the SMA and reduced activation of the right inferior frontal gyrus than patients without LID.73 A single fast-acting dose of soluble levodopa triggered an abnormal activation in the pre-SMA and putamen in PD patients with peak-of-dose LID relative to patients without LID,⁷⁴ and abnormal effective connectivity between the pre-SMA and M1.75 This network reorganization in the time period preceding dyskinesias strongly predicted clinical ratings of dyskinesia severity. PD patients with LIDs also expressed alterations in functional coupling between the frontal cortex and putamen in the absence of motor activity.^{76,77} These fMRI studies provided evidence for an aberrant dopaminergic modulation of putaminal activity and cortico-putaminal connectivity as a central abnormality in PD patients with LID. This abnormal cortico-putaminal connectivity may be a promising target for therapeutic brain stimulation⁷ and may be used to screen for the efficacy of new antidyskinetic treatments.

Nonmotor Symptoms

Hyposmia. Hyposmia is a well-established and early nonmotor symptom of $PD^{79,80}$ with a possible role as

a potential biomarker of PD progression and cognitive decline.^{81,82} PD patients with hyposmia, compared with those without hyposmia, showed decreased FC in both olfactory- and non-olfactory-related cortical areas and increased FC in the left anterior/posterior cingulate cortex, with a potential compensatory role.⁸³ Atrophy was also reported in olfactory regions in association with olfactory deficits.⁸⁴

RBD. RBD has shown an incomparable potential as a prodromal PD marker, with an estimated period of 10 to 15 years of progressive neuronal loss before the onset of the core motor symptoms.⁸⁵ This motivated several studies that have investigated the neural correlates of iRBD in recent years.⁸⁶⁻⁹⁰ RBD has been related to the damage of the locus coeruleus-subcoeruleus complex, a region that contains neuromelanincontaining catecholaminergic neurons (Fig. 2B).⁹¹ A reduced neuromelanin signal was observed in patients with PD and RBD⁹¹ as well as those with iRBD (Fig. 2B).⁹² Two recent studies have shown that the nigrostriatal connectivity pattern is altered in patients with iRBD⁹³ and that basal ganglia connectivity measures may differentiate both iRBD and PD from HC.⁹⁴

Depression. Depression in PD may be considered a disease-related dysfunction at the interface between emotional and cognitive processing.⁹⁵ Using different rs-fMRI approaches, an intrinsic dysfunction within the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex has been observed in depressed PD patients.^{96,97} This cortical area has a pivotal role in the prefrontal-limbic network and is also involved in cognition and executive functions.^{98,99} Using rs-fMRI, the role of abnormal connectivity of the amygdala in dysfunctional mood modulation has been emphasized in depressed PD patients.^{100,101} The presence of apathy in PD was associated with a disrupted FC in frontostriatal pathways.^{102,103}

Fatigue. Fatigue is a common and disabling symptom in PD patients.¹⁰⁴ A recent rs-fMRI study has revealed that fatigue was associated with a divergent FC pattern within the sensorimotor and DMN in drug-naïve PD patients.¹⁰⁵ Fatigue severity correlated with connectivity changes, suggesting that an efficient functional interplay between these cortical areas might be necessary to maintain motor performance without the development of fatigue.

Visual Hallucinations. Visual hallucinations are common neuropsychiatric features in more advanced PD. Reduced gray matter was reported in limbic regions in these patients.¹⁰⁶ Although the ability to capture hallucination-related activity using fMRI is restricted,¹⁰⁷ recent work has demonstrated that visual hallucinations seem to arise from an increased engagement

of the DMN with the primary visual system.^{108,109} This is paralleled by a disengaged dorsal attention network (representing regions of the frontal eye fields and superior parietal lobule). The disengagement of the dorsal attention network might indicate a deficient protective mechanism that could help prevent the emergence of hallucinations. These findings may provide the basis of future treatments targeting pathological network activity.¹¹⁰

Autonomic Dysfunction and Pain. Dysautonomic and especially cardiovascular symptoms are frequent and present early in PD.¹¹¹ Abnormal heart rate frequency variability assessed during rapid eye movement sleep in PD correlated with changes in diffusion measures in the medulla oblongata, suggesting that damage in this region underlies cardiac autonomic dysfunction.¹¹² Orthostatic hypotension is also a common and disabling autonomic feature most frequently seen in late-stage PD and is associated with falls and cognitive impairment.^{113,114} In PD patients with cognitive impairment, a larger orthostatic drop in blood pressure correlated with lower posterior cerebral ASL-MRI perfusion, which in turn was associated with visuospatial and attentional deficits on neuropsychological testing.¹¹⁵ MRI also showed that persistent pain in PD was associated with cortical thinning and resting-state functional changes in the frontal, temporal, and insular areas as well as a accumbens-hippocampus disconnection.¹¹⁶

Cognitive Decline

Volumetry and Cortical Thickness. Cognitive decline in PD was associated with greater atrophy in many brain regions, including the frontal, parietal, and temporal areas and substantia innominata. Atrophy is greater in PD with dementia than with mild cognitive impairment (PD-MCI) and accelerates with disease progression.⁶⁰ Impairment in specific domains correlated to both anterior and posterior cortical thinning in PD-MCI.¹¹⁷ Two recent longitudinal MRI studies reported a higher rate of cortical thinning in PD-MCI patients in the SMA/preSMA area, superior temporal gyrus, superior parietal region, and basal forebrain when compared with PD with normal cognition and HCs and the magnitude of cortical thinning correlated with cognitive decline.^{118,119} These results indicate that early MCI in PD is indicative of a faster neurodegeneration process. The findings also suggest that anatomical MRI could be helpful in distinguishing subtypes of MCI that are associated with cortical pathology and subsequent progression to dementia.¹²⁰

White Matter Signal Hyperintensities (WMH). WMH seen on T2, FLuid Attenuated Inversion Recovery (FLAIR), and proton density-weighted MR sequences

most commonly represent cerebral small vessel disease. A large prospective cohort study demonstrated that the presence of more than 2 cardiovascular risk factors was associated with worse UPDRS III motor scores and cognitive impairment and that WMH were associated with worse cognition and postural instability.¹²¹

Task-Based fMRI. A large number of fMRI studies have looked at cognitive deficits in PD using tasks relying on executive processes that solicit frontostriatal pathways.¹²² fMRI studies while performing attentional set-shifting tasks indicated reduced frontostriatal activity in PD.^{123,124} Prefrontal cortex activity in PD patients depended on whether the striatum was neces-sary for the task.^{124,125} Reduced prefrontal-caudate activation was reported in PD-MCI patients off medication during the performance of a set-shifting task¹²⁶ or in drug-naïve PD-MCI patients during the performance of a working-memory task.¹²⁷ Other taskbased fMRI and PET results support the idea that the integrity of medial temporal function is important for preserving cognitive function in PD and may compensate for deficient striatal and prefrontal activation.^{126,128,129} The respective effects of dopamine replacement therapy on the ventral and dorsal striatum in PD was also studied using fMRI. In PD patients, dopamine replacement impaired encoding and facilitation across trials relying on the ventral striatum, whereas it enhanced interference related to assimilating conflicting influences on selection across trials relying on the dorsal striatum.¹³⁰ These studies support the concept that impairments specific to the ventral striatum in PD patients can be explained by the ventral tegmental area dopamine "overdose" hypothesis.^{131,132} In summary, fMRI studies of cognitive deficits in PD have argued for frontostriatal and also temporal lobe deficits at least in some patients, suggesting the involvement of both the nigrostriatal and the mesocortical dopaminergic pathways.

Resting-State fMRI. Resting-state fMRI studies have provided evidence of FC changes both within and between individual RSNs, including particularly the DMN, frontoparietal, salience, and associate visual networks, which seem to be crucial for cognitive performance success in PD. DMN connectivity or its coupling with other networks was disrupted in PD with normal cognition¹³³⁻¹³⁶ although not in all studies,¹³⁷ as well as in PD-MCI¹³⁵ and PD with mild dementia.¹³⁸ In contrast, the occurrence of cognitive deficits in PD was associated with abnormal FC within the frontoparietal network or between this network and other RSNs even after controlling for dopaminergic medication in PD with MCI^{135,139} and dementia.^{138,140} The changes in FC differed in patients with executive and visuospatial/memory deficits. Executive performance was associated with FC in frontoparietal

areas^{139,141,142} and with the nigrostriatal dopaminergic function assessed using DAT.141 The normally existing anticorrelation between the attentional frontoparietal networks and the DMN was decreased in PD-MCI.^{133,139} Decreased memory and visuospatial and executive functions were related to abnormal interactions between the dorsal attentional and the DMN.⁶² In PD-MCI, impaired visuo-spatial functions were related to abnormal FC in the parietal and temporal regions.¹³⁹ FC changes in more posterior regions may be associated with the evolution to dementia as shown in a 3-year longitudinal study.¹⁴² Altogether, these results are consistent with the concept of 2 distinct cognitive syndromes in PD, which include dopaminergically mediated frontostriatal executive impairments and a "posterior cortical syndrome" more frequently associated with the later development of dementia.143,144 Longitudinal studies will have to demonstrate whether these changes may predict cognitive impairment and dementia in early PD.

fMRI in the Study of the Genetic Basis of Cognitive Heterogeneity in PD. Cognitive heterogeneity in PD may be mediated through the common genetic variaof several genes, including catechol-otion methlytransferase (COMT), microtubule-associated protein tau (MAPT), and APOE.¹⁴⁵ The COMT gene (val¹⁵⁸met) polymorphism, which alters the activity of this dopamine-regulating enzyme,¹⁴⁶ has been shown to influence performance on prefrontally based tasks in PD.^{144,147,148} Early PD patients homozygous for the COMT methionine allele when compared with the valine allele showed impaired behavioral performance on executive tasks and a reduced BOLD signal in the frontoparietal networks (Fig. 5).^{149,150} This is likely to reflect reduced dopamine turnover and higher presynaptic dopamine levels in the frontal cortical regions (with lower COMT enzyme activity), as demonstrated using [18F]-dopa PET.¹⁵¹ Moreover, in HCs, val homozygotes had impaired set-formation ability and lower dorsolateral prefrontal cortex activation than met homozygotes, whereas in patients, the opposite relationship was observed.¹⁵² These data suggest a regionally specific effect of COMT on cortical dopamine that modulates executive performance in a disease-specific way. This may be explained by the well-established hypothesis of an inverted U-shaped relationship between frontal dopamine levels and executive cognitive function, with both higher and lower dopamine levels having a detrimental effect on performance depending on the individual's underlying dopaminergic status.¹⁴⁵

A common inversion polymorphism in the *MAPT* gene region with 2 distinct haplotypes, H1 and H2,¹⁵³ is associated with PD risk.¹⁵⁴ The H1 haplotype may also increase the risk of developing dementia in PD,^{155,156} although this association was not found in

all studies.^{157,158} In early PD patients without cognitive impairment, the H1/H1 genotype was associated with subtle impairment of memory recall ability, and fMRI revealed reduced activation of the medial temporal lobe during memory encoding.¹⁵⁹ Hence this genetic variant may be a general modifier of memory function in PD even prior to clinical onset of disease. Another fMRI study showed that the COMT, MAPT, and APOE genotypes had dissociable effects on executive, visuospatial, and memory performance, which were associated with regionally specific changes in cortical BOLD activation in the frontostriatal (COMT). (MAPT),parietal and temporoparietal regions (APOE-ε4).¹⁶⁰

In summary, genetic fMRI studies support the concept of distinct cognitive syndromes in early PD, including a frontally based dysexecutive syndrome reflecting dysfunction in dopaminergic networks and influenced by the *COMT* genotype and a more posterior cortically based cognitive syndrome dependent on age and tau genotype.¹⁴⁵

Parkinsonian Disorders Other Than PD

Multiple system atrophy (MSA), corticobasal degeneration, and PSP are distinct from PD in clinical features, neurobiology, and prognosis. MRI allows differentiating between these disorders from each other and from PD as well as examining their distinctive pathophysiology. On structural images, PSP patients show signs of midbrain and superior cerebellar peduncle atrophy, whereas MSA patients present atrophy and signal changes in the putamen and middle cerebellar peduncle¹⁶¹⁻¹⁶⁵ (see reviews in refs. ^{166,167}). Reliable automated differentiation of parkinsonian syndromes may be obtained by combining brain volumetry and support vector machine classification.¹⁶⁸ A loss of neuromelanin signal may discriminate moderately between PD and atypical parkinsonism.^{169,170} A loss of DNH does not seem to discriminate between PD and other parkinsonian syndromes.^{13,14,16} Patients with PSP and MSA can show discrete putaminal changes using iron-sensitive MRI sequences such that these changes can assist in the differential diagnosis of PD from atypical parkinsonism.¹⁷¹⁻¹⁷⁶

A meta-analysis suggested that diffusion MRI in regions such as the cerebellum and putamen may help distinguish MSA and PSP from PD.¹⁷⁷ Increased freewater values were found in the anterior and posterior SN of all diseases (Fig. 1B).¹⁷⁸ In addition, elevated free-water values were found in the putamen, caudate, and cerebellum for MSA and in the basal ganglia, thalamus, cerebellum, and corpus callosum for PSP.¹⁷⁸ When combining free-water and free-water corrected FA, high predictive accuracy was observed regarding the differential diagnosis among these diseases.¹⁷⁸

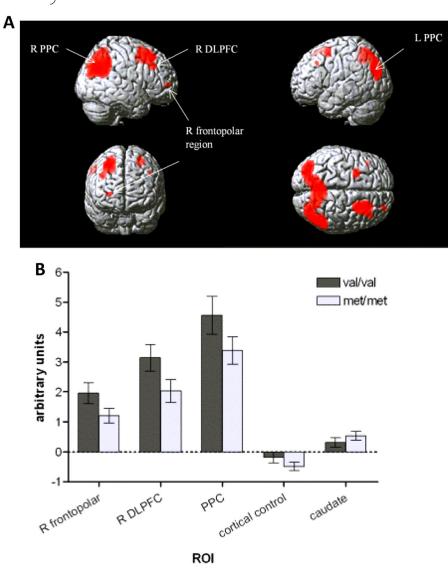


FIG. 5. fMRI blood oxygen level-dependent activation during performance of the Tower of London planning task in a group of patients with early PD stratified by catechol-o-methlytransferase val158met genotype. (**A**) Blood oxygen level-dependent activation during planning versus a control task in the whole cohort rendered onto a canonical brain image (P < .05, false discovery rate correction for whole brain volume). (**B**) Activity in val (n = 16) versus met (n = 15) homozygotes in the regions of interest indicated in (A), showing significant underactivation of the frontoparietal network activated by the planning task in met versus val homozygotes, which was accompanied by an impairment in behavioral performance (not shown), reproduced from ref. ¹⁵⁰. DLPFC, dorsolateral prefrontal cortex; fMRI, functional magnetic resonance imaging; L, left; met, methionine; PPC, posterior parietal cortex; R, right; ROI, region of interest; val, valine.

Motor control studies of patients with PD, MSA, and PSP using fMRI show an abnormal activation of task-related structures.¹⁷⁹ An abnormal fMRI activation was found in the basal ganglia, cerebellum, and cerebrum as well as extensive and widespread volume loss throughout the brain in MSA when compared with PD.¹⁸⁰ Reduced functional activity was found in the contralateral caudate, primary motor and premotor cortex, and ipsilateral putamen in PSP when compared with PD.¹⁸¹ Highly connected cortical regions suffered a disproportionate loss of FC in PSP, which correlated with the regional expression of the gene *MAPT*.¹⁸² Specific changes in the connectivity of the dorsal midbrain and striatum also occurred in PSP, including corticostriatal connections that correlated with disease severity.^{181,183} These results suggest that the magnitude and topology of functional brain networks is changed by PD, PSP, and MSA.

Sensitivity of MRI Markers to Disease Progression

Longitudinal studies using iron-sensitive sequences at 1.5T and 3T have revealed conflicting results. Although some of the studies reported increased nigral R2* over time,^{5,184} no longitudinal changes have been reported by others.^{185,186} It seems that late-stage PD might have lower nigral R2* values than early-stage PD. A possible explanation of this finding may be that consecutive gliosis with neuronal degeneration in latestage PD might lengthen T2 relaxation times within the tissue and thus counteract the increase of relaxation rates.² This could also explain that some authors found no difference in iron content between PD patients and HCs,⁸⁻¹⁰ whereas most studies did.²⁻⁷ Although relaxometry might track disease progression early in the disease process,⁵ available evidence suggests that relaxometry may not be a sufficient staging biomarker by itself.¹⁸⁷ QSM could be a better option, providing a more direct measure of tissue magnetic properties.¹¹ This remains to be demonstrated as QSM measurements had more variability estimated by standard deviation as compared to R2^{*}.¹⁸⁸

Functional and structural MRI can also track the progression of PD and parkinsonism and provide further distinguishable differences between them. Taskbased fMRI has shown progressive functional deterioration in the putamen and M1 in PD patients, but not in HCs.⁷⁷ In the same study, functional deterioration in MSA was exclusively extrastriatal (M1, SMA, and superior cerebellum), whereas PSP had additional reduction in functional activity in the putamen. PD progression can also be tracked by the loss of cortical gyrification. A loss of gyrification was accelerated in early-stage PD (1-5 years), whereas later stages (5 + years) were associated with significantly reduced overall gyrification as well as prominent bilateral reduction in the frontal and parietal areas.¹⁸⁹ In addition, free-water values in the posterior SN were shown to increase with the progression of PD (Fig. 3).²⁴

These findings suggest that distinct markers and rates of disease progression may help distinguish PD, MSA, and PSP. Functional activity levels revealed by fMRI and free-water and FA values derived from diffusion MRI and perhaps iron-sensitive imaging are promising MRI-based markers of the diseases and their progression that may assist clinical assessment and provide more accurate methods of diagnoses.

Ultra-High Field (UHF) Imaging Advantages of UHF MRI

Increased static magnetic field results in an increased signal-to-noise ratio, which can be used to reduce measurement time and improve spatial resolution, and improved tissue contrasts because of increased sensitivity to susceptibility. Advantages of 7T imaging include clear separation between the subthalamic nucleus and the SN,¹⁹⁰⁻¹⁹⁵ and visualization of the medullary lamina separating the 2 segments of the globus pallidus and the putamen¹⁹² and thalamic nuclei using either QSM¹⁹² or optimized T1-weighted acquisition.¹⁹⁶ In the SN, the DNH was initially depicted using T2*w images at 7T,^{12,197,198} and sequences were subsequently optimized at 3T.¹⁵ Using

7T, the lateral boundaries of the SN showed an abnormal shape in PD patients.^{197,199} Evidence also suggested abnormalities in asymptomatic LRRK2 carriers.²⁰ In theory, UHF MRI has the ability to distinguish the loss of function and connectivity of small but critical nuclei such as the subthalamic, the nucleus pedunculopontine nucleus, oculomotor nuclei, or striatal subdivisions.^{200,201} Susceptibility-weighted imaging at 7T has allowed the visualization of cortical laminar structure in the cortex and the cerebellum, 202, 203 an ability that was used to detect atrophy and signal hypointensity in the deep layers of the primary motor cortex of patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.²⁰⁴ Using diffusion-based tractography, the improved reconstruction of basal ganglia and brain stem anatomical connections may be achieved in humans in vivo²⁰⁵ and ex vivo.²⁰⁶ The imaging of nuclei of biological interest such as ²³Na (using specific hardware and coils) or glutamate (using chemical exchange saturation transfer) becomes feasible, but the interest of these techniques is not known in PD. UHF strongly benefits MRS, providing increased chemical specificity, better separation of metabolites such as glutamate and glutamine, and better detection of metabolites with smaller concentrations (eg, gamma-Aminobutyric acid (GABA)). In mild-to-moderate PD, neurochemical profiles were successfully recorded in the SN at 7T, although this study did not show any significant difference with HCs.48 The extent to which the functional changes observed in parkinsonism relate to abnormal neurotransmitters and plasticity is also amenable to investigation by UHF MR spectroscopy. For BOLD fMRI, higher field strength provides increased contrast, resolution, and specificity.207 BOLD fMRI at 7T was able to distinguish activation originating from the subthalamic nucleus and SN.²⁰⁸ It is expected that 7T fMRI will provide improved sensitivity and spatial resolution for imaging basal ganglia and brain stem structures in PD.

It is not yet known whether 7T imaging will allow better separation of PD from atypical parkinsonism, and its role in distinguishing these diseases remains to be determined.

Limitations of UHF MRI

Brain imaging at UHF also comes with specific difficulties and challenges that include B_1 inhomogeneity, increased geometric distortions and artifacts, restrictions because of increased power deposition and specific absorption rate, and less available coils. Most of these challenges have been addressed by technical improvements including appropriate multi transmit and receive coil designs generating a B_1 pattern with improved homogeneity, radiofrequency shimming, pulse sequence optimization, and postprocessing techniques. There are more contraindications because of the presence of implanted metallic devices that are not compatible with UHF systems or have not yet been tested. The 7T systems are expensive and not certified as clinical devices. UHF MR systems still require highly skilled dedicated personnel to be operated efficiently. As a result, UHF MR technology is not yet widely available, but efforts to develop clinical UHF MR systems might change this situation in the coming years.

Future Directions of MRI

During the past 3 decades, MRI has become a wellestablished method that can be used for the diagnostic work-up of parkinsonism in clinical routine, providing specific information that point toward the diagnosis of a neurodegenerative condition.^{166,209} The role of MRI has progressed from excluding symptomatic parkinsonism because of other pathologies to distinguishing PD from atypical parkinsonism based on specific changes in the basal ganglia and infratentorial structures.²¹⁰ A combination of markers may assist in the differential diagnosis of parkinsonism in clinical practice including surface or volume measurements in the brain stem as well as diffusion and iron measurements in the brain stem and basal ganglia. For instance, changes in the putamen and cerebellum on diffusion imaging are not present in typical early-stage PD but represent an atypical parkinsonism.¹⁷⁷ The development of classifiers may also help clinicians to differentiate between these conditions.

Only during the past decade have newer multimodal MRI techniques been applied in patients with PD and atypical parkinsonism and have shown promising results in detecting abnormalities in the SN, nigrostriatal pathway, and outside the nigrostriatal system as summarized in this review. At present, 2 qualitative MRI biomarkers of the SN (DNH and neuromelanin signal changes) seem well enough established to be used in clinical practice in PD. Other quantitative markers are promising, including diffusion imaging using advanced techniques such as free water and iron imaging either using R2* or QSM. However, these techniques are not yet available on conventional scanners, and clinicians lack normative databases.

Quantitative measurements will be useful in tracking the progression of patients in clinical trials and possibly help to personalize patient care. However, quantitative MRI-based PD biomarkers are still insufficiently validated to be incorporated into therapeutic trials. Probably the best candidate biomarkers for clinical trials include iron, neuromelanin, and other quantitative imaging methods such as diffusion imaging and relaxometry. The validity of these biomarkers of neurodegeneration in PD is insufficiently supported by histological correlation studies. Important questions are only beginning to be addressed, such as the following: Do markers change with disease progression? Are they correlated with clinical status? Are they sensitive enough to detect changes in a longitudinal study? What is the temporal evolution of biomarkers? Can MR biomarkers predict responses to treatment?^{74,75,211} Efforts should also be made to harmonize data collection and processing, paving the way for large multicenter cohort studies that use similar inclusion criteria and data analysis. Standardized pulse sequences for quantitative MRI-based markers should yield more consistent results across sites. Last, UHF imaging appears promising in PD but has been insufficiently studied.

References

- 1. Siderowf A, Lang AE. Premotor Parkinson's disease: concepts and definitions. Mov Disord 2012;27:608-616.
- Esterhammer R, Seppi K, Reiter E, et al. Potential of diffusion tensor imaging and relaxometry for the detection of specific pathological alterations in Parkinson's disease (PD). PLoS One 2015; 10:e0145493.
- 3. Pyatigorskaya N, Sharman M, Corvol JC, et al. High nigral iron deposition in LRRK2 and Parkin mutation carriers using R2* relaxometry. Mov Disord 2015;30:1077-1084.
- Martin WR, Wieler M, Gee M. Midbrain iron content in early Parkinson disease: a potential biomarker of disease status. Neurology 2008;70:1411-1417.
- 5. Hopes L, Grolez G, Moreau C, et al. Magnetic resonance imaging features of the nigrostriatal system: biomarkers of Parkinson's disease stages? PLoS One 2016;11:e0147947.
- 6. Du G, Lewis MM, Sen S, et al. Imaging nigral pathology and clinical progression in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2012;27: 1636-1643.
- 7. Azuma M, Hirai T, Yamada K, et al. Lateral asymmetry and spatial difference of iron deposition in the substantia nigra of patients with Parkinson disease measured with quantitative susceptibility mapping. Am J Neuroradiol 2016;37:782-788.
- Dashtipour K, Liu M, Kani C, et al. Iron accumulation is not homogenous among patients with Parkinson's disease. Parkinsons Dis 2015;2015:324843.
- 9. Reimao S, Ferreira S, Nunes RG, et al. Magnetic resonance correlation of iron content with neuromelanin in the substantia nigra of early-stage Parkinson's disease. Eur J Neurol 2016;23: 368-374.
- Aquino D, Contarino V, Albanese A, et al. Substantia nigra in Parkinson's disease: a multimodal MRI comparison between early and advanced stages of the disease. Neurol Sci 2014;35:753-758.
- 11. Du G, Liu T, Lewis MM, et al. Quantitative susceptibility mapping of the midbrain in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2016; 31:317-324.
- 12. Blazejewska AI, Schwarz ST, Pitiot A, et al. Visualization of nigrosome 1 and its loss in PD: pathoanatomical correlation and in vivo 7T MRI. Neurology 2013;81:534-540.
- 13. Reiter E, Mueller C, Pinter B, et al. Dorsolateral nigral hyperintensity on 3.0T susceptibility-weighted imaging in neurodegenerative Parkinsonism. Mov Disord 2015;30:1068-1076.
- Bae YJ, Kim JM, Kim E, et al. Loss of nigral hyperintensity on 3 Tesla MRI of Parkinsonism: comparison with I-FP-CIT SPECT. Mov Disord 2016;31:684-692.
- Schwarz ST, Afzal M, Morgan PS, Bajaj N, Gowland PA, Auer DP. The 'swallow tail' appearance of the healthy nigrosome—a new accurate test of Parkinson's disease: a case-control and retrospective cross-sectional MRI study at 3T. PLoS One 2014;9: e93814.
- 16. Kim JM, Jeong HJ, Bae YJ, et al. Loss of substantia nigra hyperintensity on 7 Tesla MRI of Parkinson's disease, multiple system

atrophy, and progressive supranuclear palsy. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2016;26:47-54.

- 17. Sung YH, Noh Y, Lee J, Kim EY. Drug-induced parkinsonism versus idiopathic parkinson disease: utility of nigrosome 1 with 3-T imaging. Radiology 2016;279:849-858.
- De Marzi R, Seppi K, Hogl B, et al. Loss of dorsolateral nigral hyperintensity on 3.0 tesla susceptibility-weighted imaging in idiopathic rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder. Ann Neurol 2016;79:1026-1030.
- Ceravolo R, Antonini A, Frosini D, et al. Nigral anatomy and striatal denervation in genetic parkinsonism: a family report. Mov Disord 2015;30:1148-1149.
- Castellanos G, Fernandez-Seara MA, Lorenzo-Betancor O, et al. Automated neuromelanin imaging as a diagnostic biomarker for Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2015;30:945-952.
- 21. Reimao S, Pita Lobo P, Neutel D, et al. Substantia nigra neuromelanin-MR imaging differentiates essential tremor from Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2015;30:953-959.
- Langley J, Huddleston DE, Merritt M, et al. Diffusion tensor imaging of the substantia nigra in Parkinson's disease revisited. Hum Brain Mapp 2016;37:2547-2556.
- Schwarz ST, Abaei M, Gontu V, Morgan PS, Bajaj N, Auer DP. Diffusion tensor imaging of nigral degeneration in Parkinson's disease: a region-of-interest and voxel-based study at 3 T and systematic review with meta-analysis. Neuroimage Clin 2013;3:481-488.
- 24. Ofori E, Pasternak O, Planetta PJ, et al. Longitudinal changes in free-water within the substantia nigra of Parkinson's disease. Brain 2015;138:2322-2331.
- 25. Kamagata K, Hatano T, Okuzumi A, et al. Neurite orientation dispersion and density imaging in the substantia nigra in idiopathic Parkinson disease. Eur Radiol 2016;26:2567-2577.
- 26. Vaillancourt DE, Spraker MB, Prodoehl J, et al. High-resolution diffusion tensor imaging in the substantia nigra of de novo Parkinson disease. Neurology 2009;72:1378-1384.
- 27. Kordower JH, Olanow CW, Dodiya HB, et al. Disease duration and the integrity of the nigrostriatal system in Parkinson's disease. Brain 2013;136:2419-2431.
- Sharman M, Valabregue R, Perlbarg V, et al. Parkinson's disease patients show reduced cortical-subcortical sensorimotor connectivity. Mov Disord 2013;28:447-454.
- Zhang Y, Wu IW, Buckley S, et al. Diffusion tensor imaging of the nigrostriatal fibers in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2015; 30:1229-1236.
- 30. Barkhof F, Haller S, Rombouts SA. Resting-state functional MR imaging: a new window to the brain. Radiology 2014;272:29-49.
- Wu T, Long X, Wang L, et al. Functional connectivity of cortical motor areas in the resting state in Parkinson's disease. Hum Brain Mapp 2011;32:1443-1457.
- 32. Wu T, Wang L, Chen Y, Zhao C, Li K, Chan P. Changes of functional connectivity of the motor network in the resting state in Parkinson's disease. Neurosci Lett 2009;460:6-10.
- Esposito F, Tessitore A, Giordano A, et al. Rhythm-specific modulation of the sensorimotor network in drug-naive patients with Parkinson's disease by levodopa. Brain 2013;136:710-725.
- Agosta F, Caso F, Stankovic I, et al. Cortico-striatal-thalamic network functional connectivity in hemiparkinsonism. Neurobiol Aging 2014;35:2592-2602.
- Baudrexel S, Witte T, Seifried C, et al. Resting state fMRI reveals increased subthalamic nucleus-motor cortex connectivity in Parkinson's disease. Neuroimage 2011;55:1728-1738.
- Hacker CD, Perlmutter JS, Criswell SR, Ances BM, Snyder AZ. Resting state functional connectivity of the striatum in Parkinson's disease. Brain 2012;135:3699-3711.
- Helmich RC, Derikx LC, Bakker M, Scheeringa R, Bloem BR, Toni I. Spatial remapping of cortico-striatal connectivity in Parkinson's disease. Cereb Cortex 2010;20:1175-1186.
- Szewczyk-Krolikowski K, Menke RA, Rolinski M, et al. Functional connectivity in the basal ganglia network differentiates PD patients from controls. Neurology 2014;83:208-214.
- Vilas D, Segura B, Baggio HC, et al. Nigral and striatal connectivity alterations in asymptomatic LRRK2 mutation carriers: a magnetic resonance imaging study. Mov Disord 2016;31:1820-1828.

- Helmich RC, Thaler A, van Nuenen BF, et al. Reorganization of corticostriatal circuits in healthy G2019S LRRK2 carriers. Neurology 2015;84:399-406.
- Rolinski M, Griffanti L, Szewczyk-Krolikowski K, et al. Aberrant functional connectivity within the basal ganglia of patients with Parkinson's disease. Neuroimage Clin 2015;8:126-132.
- 42. Wolf RL, Detre JA. Clinical neuroimaging using arterial spinlabeled perfusion magnetic resonance imaging. Neurotherapeutics 2007;4:346-359.
- Kamagata K, Motoi Y, Hori M, et al. Posterior hypoperfusion in Parkinson's disease with and without dementia measured with arterial spin labeling MRI. J Magn Reson Imaging 2011;33:803-807.
- 44. Fernandez-Seara MA, Mengual E, Vidorreta M, et al. Cortical hypoperfusion in Parkinson's disease assessed using arterial spin labeled perfusion MRI. Neuroimage 2012;59:2743-2750.
- Melzer TR, Watts R, MacAskill MR, et al. Arterial spin labelling reveals an abnormal cerebral perfusion pattern in Parkinson's disease. Brain 2011;134:845-855.
- Madhyastha TM, Askren MK, Boord P, Zhang J, Leverenz JB, Grabowski TJ. Cerebral perfusion and cortical thickness indicate cortical involvement in mild Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2015;30:1893-1900.
- Teune LK, Renken RJ, de Jong BM, et al. Parkinson's diseaserelated perfusion and glucose metabolic brain patterns identified with PCASL-MRI and FDG-PET imaging. Neuroimage Clin 2014;5:240-244.
- Emir UE, Tuite PJ, Oz G. Elevated pontine and putamenal GABA levels in mild-moderate Parkinson disease detected by 7 tesla proton MRS. PLoS One 2012;7:e30918.
- 49. Mazuel L, Chassain C, Jean B, et al. Proton MR spectroscopy for diagnosis and evaluation of treatment efficacy in Parkinson disease. Radiology 2016;278:505-513.
- Nie K, Zhang Y, Huang B, et al. Marked N-acetylaspartate and choline metabolite changes in Parkinson's disease patients with mild cognitive impairment. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2013;19: 329-334.
- Berg D, Roggendorf W, Schroder U, et al. Echogenicity of the substantia nigra: association with increased iron content and marker for susceptibility to nigrostriatal injury. Arch Neurol 2002;59:999-1005.
- 52. Berg D, Godau J, Walter U. Transcranial sonography in movement disorders. Lancet Neurol 2008;7:1044-1055.
- 53. Berg D, Behnke S, Seppi K, et al. Enlarged hyperechogenic substantia nigra as a risk marker for Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2013;28:216-219.
- Maskova J, Skoloudik D, Burgetova A, et al. Comparison of transcranial sonography-magnetic resonance fusion imaging in Wilson's and early-onset Parkinson's diseases. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2016;28:87-93.
- Peran P, Cherubini A, Assogna F, et al. Magnetic resonance imaging markers of Parkinson's disease nigrostriatal signature. Brain 2010;133:3423-3433.
- Du G, Lewis MM, Styner M, et al. Combined R2* and diffusion tensor imaging changes in the substantia nigra in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2011;26:1627-1632.
- 57. Bowman FD, Drake DF, Huddleston DE. Multimodal imaging signatures of Parkinson's disease. Front Neurosci 2016;10:131.
- McKeown MJ, Peavy GM. Biomarkers in Parkinson disease: it's time to combine. Neurology 2015;84:2392-2393.
- 59. Niethammer M, Feigin A, Eidelberg D. Functional neuroimaging in Parkinson's disease. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med 2012;2: a009274.
- Delgado-Alvarado M, Gago B, Navalpotro-Gomez I, Jimenez-Urbieta H, Rodriguez-Oroz MC. Biomarkers for dementia and mild cognitive impairment in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2016;31:861-881.
- 61. Herz DM, Eickhoff SB, Lokkegaard A, Siebner HR. Functional neuroimaging of motor control in Parkinson's disease: a metaanalysis. Hum Brain Mapp 2014;35:3227-3237.
- 62. Manza P, Zhang S, Li CS, Leung HC. Resting-state functional connectivity of the striatum in early-stage Parkinson's disease: cognitive decline and motor symptomatology. Hum Brain Mapp 2016;37:648-662.

- 63. Karunanayaka PR, Lee EY, Lewis MM, et al. Default mode network differences between rigidity- and tremor-predominant Parkinson's disease. Cortex 2016;81:239-250.
- Helmich RC, Janssen MJ, Oyen WJ, Bloem BR, Toni I. Pallidal dysfunction drives a cerebellothalamic circuit into Parkinson tremor. Ann Neurol 2011;69:269-281.
- 65. Dirkx MF, den Ouden H, Aarts E, et al. The cerebral network of Parkinson's tremor: an effective connectivity fMRI study. J Neurosci 2016;36:5362-5372.
- 66. Snijders AH, Leunissen I, Bakker M, et al. Gait-related cerebral alterations in patients with Parkinson's disease with freezing of gait. Brain 2011;134:59-72.
- 67. Shine JM, Matar E, Bolitho SJ, et al. Modeling freezing of gait in Parkinson's disease with a virtual reality paradigm. Gait Posture 2013;38:104-108.
- 68. Gilat M, Shine JM, Walton CC, O'Callaghan C, Hall JM, Lewis SJG. Brain activation underlying turning in Parkinson's disease patients with and without freezing of gait: a virtual reality fMRI study. Npj Parkinson's Disease 2015;1:15020.
- 69. Shine JM, Matar E, Ward PB, et al. Exploring the cortical and subcortical functional magnetic resonance imaging changes associated with freezing in Parkinson's disease. Brain 2013;136:1204-1215.
- 70. Shine JM, Matar E, Ward PB, et al. Differential neural activation patterns in patients with Parkinson's disease and freezing of gait in response to concurrent cognitive and motor load. PLoS One 2013;8:e52602.
- Shine JM, Matar E, Ward PB, et al. Freezing of gait in Parkinson's disease is associated with functional decoupling between the cognitive control network and the basal ganglia. Brain 2013;136: 3671-3681.
- 72. Fling BW, Cohen RG, Mancini M, Nutt JG, Fair DA, Horak FB. Asymmetric pedunculopontine network connectivity in parkinsonian patients with freezing of gait. Brain 2013;136:2405-2418.
- 73. Cerasa A, Pugliese P, Messina D, et al. Prefrontal alterations in Parkinson's disease with levodopa-induced dyskinesia during fMRI motor task. Mov Disord 2012;27:364-371.
- 74. Herz DM, Haagensen BN, Christensen MS, et al. The acute brain response to levodopa heralds dyskinesias in Parkinson disease. Ann Neurol 2014;75:829-836.
- 75. Herz DM, Haagensen BN, Christensen MS, et al. Abnormal dopaminergic modulation of striato-cortical networks underlies levodopa-induced dyskinesias in humans. Brain 2015;138:1658-1666.
- Cerasa A, Koch G, Donzuso G, et al. A network centred on the inferior frontal cortex is critically involved in levodopa-induced dyskinesias. Brain 2015;138:414-427.
- Herz DM, Haagensen BN, Nielsen SH, Madsen KH, Lokkegaard A, Siebner HR. Resting-state connectivity predicts levodopainduced dyskinesias in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2016;31: 521-529.
- Obeso I, Cerasa A, Quattrone A. The effectiveness of transcranial brain stimulation in improving clinical signs of hyperkinetic movement disorders. Front Neurosci 2015;9:486.
- 79. Langston JW. The Parkinson's complex: parkinsonism is just the tip of the iceberg. Ann Neurol 2006;59:591-596.
- Haehner A, Boesveldt S, Berendse HW, et al. Prevalence of smell loss in Parkinson's disease—a multicenter study. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2009;15:490-494.
- Bohnen NI, Muller ML, Kotagal V, et al. Olfactory dysfunction, central cholinergic integrity and cognitive impairment in Parkinson's disease. Brain 2010;133:1747-1754.
- 82. Chahine LM, Weintraub D, Hawkins KA, et al. Cognition in individuals at risk for Parkinson's: Parkinson associated risk syndrome (PARS) study findings. Mov Disord 2016;31:86-94.
- Su M, Wang S, Fang W, et al. Alterations in the limbic/paralimbic cortices of Parkinson's disease patients with hyposmia under resting-state functional MRI by regional homogeneity and functional connectivity analysis. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2015;21: 698-703.
- Wattendorf E, Welge-Lussen A, Fiedler K, et al. Olfactory impairment predicts brain atrophy in Parkinson's disease. J Neurosci 2009;29:15410-15413.

- Hawkes CH. The prodromal phase of sporadic Parkinson's disease: does it exist and if so how long is it? Mov Disord 2008;23: 1799-1807.
- Schenck CH, Boeve BF, Mahowald MW. Delayed emergence of a parkinsonian disorder or dementia in 81% of older men initially diagnosed with idiopathic rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder: a 16-year update on a previously reported series. Sleep Med 2013;14:744-748.
- Iranzo A, Tolosa E, Gelpi E, et al. Neurodegenerative disease status and post-mortem pathology in idiopathic rapid-eye-movement sleep behaviour disorder: an observational cohort study. Lancet Neurol 2013;12:443-453.
- Postuma RB, Gagnon JF, Vendette M, Fantini ML, Massicotte-Marquez J, Montplaisir J. Quantifying the risk of neurodegenerative disease in idiopathic REM sleep behavior disorder. Neurology 2009;72:1296-1300.
- Boot BP, Boeve BF, Roberts RO, et al. Probable rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder increases risk for mild cognitive impairment and Parkinson disease: a population-based study. Ann Neurol 2012;71:49-56.
- 90. Scherfler C, Frauscher B, Schocke M, et al. White and gray matter abnormalities in idiopathic rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder: a diffusion-tensor imaging and voxel-based morphometry study. Ann Neurol 2011;69:400-407.
- Garcia-Lorenzo D, Longo-Dos Santos C, Ewenczyk C, et al. The coeruleus/subcoeruleus complex in rapid eye movement sleep behaviour disorders in Parkinson's disease. Brain 2013;136:2120-2129.
- Ehrminger M, Latimier A, Pyatigorskaya N, et al. The coeruleus/ subcoeruleus complex in idiopathic rapid eye movement sleep behaviour disorder. Brain 2016;139:1180-1188.
- Ellmore TM, Castriotta RJ, Hendley KL, et al. Altered nigrostriatal and nigrocortical functional connectivity in rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder. Sleep 2013;36:1885-1892.
- Rolinski M, Griffanti L, Piccini P, et al. Basal ganglia dysfunction in idiopathic REM sleep behaviour disorder parallels that in early Parkinson's disease. Brain 2016;139:2224-2234.
- Aarsland D, Pahlhagen S, Ballard CG, Ehrt U, Svenningsson P. Depression in Parkinson disease—epidemiology, mechanisms and management. Nat Rev Neurol 2012;8:35-47.
- Lou Y, Huang P, Li D, et al. Altered brain network centrality in depressed Parkinson's disease patients. Mov Disord 2015;30: 1777-1784.
- 97. Wen X, Wu X, Liu J, Li K, Yao L. Abnormal baseline brain activity in non-depressed Parkinson's disease and depressed Parkinson's disease: a resting-state functional magnetic resonance imaging study. PLoS One 2013;8:e63691.
- Koenigs M, Grafman J. The functional neuroanatomy of depression: distinct roles for ventromedial and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex. Behav Brain Res 2009;201:239-243.
- 99. Miller EK, Cohen JD. An integrative theory of prefrontal cortex function. Annu Rev Neurosci 2001;24:167-202.
- 100. Sheng K, Fang W, Su M, et al. Altered spontaneous brain activity in patients with Parkinson's disease accompanied by depressive symptoms, as revealed by regional homogeneity and functional connectivity in the prefrontal-limbic system. PLoS One 2014;9: e84705.
- 101. Hu X, Song X, Yuan Y, et al. Abnormal functional connectivity of the amygdala is associated with depression in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2015;30:238-244.
- 102. Skidmore FM, Yang M, Baxter L, et al. Apathy, depression, and motor symptoms have distinct and separable resting activity patterns in idiopathic Parkinson disease. Neuroimage 2013;81:484-495.
- 103. Baggio HC, Segura B, Garrido-Millan JL, et al. Resting-state frontostriatal functional connectivity in Parkinson's disease-related apathy. Mov Disord 2015;30:671-679.
- 104. Friedman JH, Friedman H. Fatigue in Parkinson's disease: a nineyear follow-up. Mov Disord 2001;16:1120-1122.
- 105. Tessitore A, Giordano A, De Micco R, et al. Functional connectivity underpinnings of fatigue in "Drug-Naive" patients with Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2016;31:1497-1505.
- 106. Ibarretxe-Bilbao N, Ramirez-Ruiz B, Junque C, et al. Differential progression of brain atrophy in Parkinson's disease with and

without visual hallucinations. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2010;81:650-657.

- 107. Goetz CG, Vaughan CL, Goldman JG, Stebbins GT. I finally see what you see: Parkinson's disease visual hallucinations captured with functional neuroimaging. Mov Disord 2014;29:115-117.
- 108. Shine JM, Halliday GM, Gilat M, et al. The role of dysfunctional attentional control networks in visual misperceptions in Parkinson's disease. Hum Brain Mapp 2014;35:2206-2219.
- 109. Shine JM, Muller AJ, O'Callaghan C, Hornberger M, Halliday GM, Lewis SJG. Abnormal connectivity between the default mode and the visual system underlies the manifestation of visual hallucinations in Parkinson's disease: a task-based fMRI study. Npj Parkinson's Disease 2015;1:15003.
- Shine JM, O'Callaghan C, Halliday GM, Lewis SJ. Tricks of the mind: visual hallucinations as disorders of attention. Prog Neurobiol 2014;116:58-65.
- 111. Khoo TK, Yarnall AJ, Duncan GW, et al. The spectrum of nonmotor symptoms in early Parkinson disease. Neurology 2013;80:276-281.
- 112. Pyatigorskaya N, Marie M, Valabregue R, et al. Medulla oblongata damage and cardiac autonomic dysfunction in Parkinson's disease. Neurology 2016;87:2540–2545.
- 113. Udow SJ, Robertson AD, MacIntosh BJ, et al. "Under pressure": is there a link between orthostatic hypotension and cognitive impairment in alpha-synucleinopathies? J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2016;87:1311–1321.
- 114. Espay AJ, LeWitt PA, Hauser RA, Merola A, Masellis M, Lang AE. Neurogenic orthostatic hypotension and supine hypertension in Parkinson's disease and related synucleinopathies: prioritisation of treatment targets. Lancet Neurol 2016;15:954-966.
- 115. Robertson AD, Messner MA, Shirzadi Z, et al. Orthostatic hypotension, cerebral hypoperfusion, and visuospatial deficits in Lewy body disorders. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2016;22:80-86.
- 116. Polli A, Weis L, Biundo R, et al. Anatomical and functional correlates of persistent pain in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2016;31:1854-1864.
- 117. Pereira JB, Svenningsson P, Weintraub D, et al. Initial cognitive decline is associated with cortical thinning in early Parkinson disease. Neurology 2014;82:2017-2025.
- 118. Hanganu A, Bedetti C, Degroot C, et al. Mild cognitive impairment is linked with faster rate of cortical thinning in patients with Parkinson's disease longitudinally. Brain 2014;137:1120-1129.
- Mak E, Su L, Williams GB, et al. Baseline and longitudinal grey matter changes in newly diagnosed Parkinson's disease: ICICLE-PD study. Brain 2015;138:2974-2986.
- Rektorova I, Biundo R, Marecek R, Weis L, Aarsland D, Antonini A. Grey matter changes in cognitively impaired Parkinson's disease patients. PLoS One 2014;9:e85595.
- 121. Malek N, Lawton MA, Swallow DM, et al. Vascular disease and vascular risk factors in relation to motor features and cognition in early Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2016;31:1518-1526.
- Hanganu A, Provost JS, Monchi O. Neuroimaging studies of striatum in cognition part II: Parkinson's disease. Front Syst Neurosci 2015;9:138.
- 123. Lewis SJ, Dove A, Robbins TW, Barker RA, Owen AM. Cognitive impairments in early Parkinson's disease are accompanied by reductions in activity in frontostriatal neural circuitry. J Neurosci 2003;23:6351-6356.
- Monchi O, Petrides M, Doyon J, Postuma RB, Worsley K, Dagher A. Neural bases of set-shifting deficits in Parkinson's disease. J Neurosci 2004;24:702-710.
- 125. Monchi O, Petrides M, Mejia-Constain B, Strafella AP. Cortical activity in Parkinson's disease during executive processing depends on striatal involvement. Brain 2007;130:233-244.
- 126. Nagano-Saito A, Habak C, Mejia-Constain B, et al. Effect of mild cognitive impairment on the patterns of neural activity in early Parkinson's disease. Neurobiol Aging 2014;35:223-231.
- 127. Ekman U, Eriksson J, Forsgren L, Mo SJ, Riklund K, Nyberg L. Functional brain activity and presynaptic dopamine uptake in patients with Parkinson's disease and mild cognitive impairment: a cross-sectional study. Lancet Neurol 2012;11:679-687.
- Carbon M, Reetz K, Ghilardi MF, Dhawan V, Eidelberg D. Early Parkinson's disease: longitudinal changes in brain activity during sequence learning. Neurobiol Dis 2010;37:455-460.

- 129. Dagher A, Owen AM, Boecker H, Brooks DJ. The role of the striatum and hippocampus in planning: a PET activation study in Parkinson's disease. Brain 2001;124:1020-1032.
- 130. MacDonald PA, MacDonald AA, Seergobin KN, et al. The effect of dopamine therapy on ventral and dorsal striatum-mediated cognition in Parkinson's disease: support from functional MRI. Brain 2011;134:1447-1463.
- 131. Cools R, Barker RA, Sahakian BJ, Robbins TW. Enhanced or impaired cognitive function in Parkinson's disease as a function of dopaminergic medication and task demands. Cereb Cortex 2001;11:1136-1143.
- 132. Swainson R, Rogers RD, Sahakian BJ, Summers BA, Polkey CE, Robbins TW. Probabilistic learning and reversal deficits in patients with Parkinson's disease or frontal or temporal lobe lesions: possible adverse effects of dopaminergic medication. Neuropsychologia 2000;38:596-612.
- Putcha D, Ross RS, Cronin-Golomb A, Janes AC, Stern CE. Altered intrinsic functional coupling between core neurocognitive networks in Parkinson's disease. Neuroimage Clin 2015;7:449-455.
- 134. Tessitore A, Esposito F, Vitale C, et al. Default-mode network connectivity in cognitively unimpaired patients with Parkinson disease. Neurology 2012;79:2226-2232.
- 135. Amboni M, Tessitore A, Esposito F, et al. Resting-state functional connectivity associated with mild cognitive impairment in Parkinson's disease. J Neurol 2015;262:425-434.
- van Eimeren T, Monchi O, Ballanger B, Strafella AP. Dysfunction of the default mode network in Parkinson disease: a functional magnetic resonance imaging study. Arch Neurol 2009;66:877-883.
- 137. Krajcovicova L, Mikl M, Marecek R, Rektorova I. The default mode network integrity in patients with Parkinson's disease is levodopa equivalent dose-dependent. J Neural Transm (Vienna) 2012;119:443-454.
- 138. Rektorova I, Krajcovicova L, Marecek R, Mikl M. Default mode network and extrastriate visual resting state network in patients with Parkinson's disease dementia. Neurodegener Dis 2012;10: 232-237.
- 139. Baggio HC, Segura B, Sala-Llonch R, et al. Cognitive impairment and resting-state network connectivity in Parkinson's disease. Hum Brain Mapp 2015;36:199-212.
- 140. Borroni B, Premi E, Formenti A, et al. Structural and functional imaging study in dementia with Lewy bodies and Parkinson's disease dementia. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2015;21:1049-1055.
- 141. Lebedev AV, Westman E, Simmons A, et al. Large-scale resting state network correlates of cognitive impairment in Parkinson's disease and related dopaminergic deficits. Front Syst Neurosci 2014;8:45.
- 142. Olde Dubbelink KT, Schoonheim MM, Deijen JB, Twisk JW, Barkhof F, Berendse HW. Functional connectivity and cognitive decline over 3 years in Parkinson disease. Neurology 2014;83: 2046-2053.
- 143. Kehagia AA, Barker RA, Robbins TW. Neuropsychological and clinical heterogeneity of cognitive impairment and dementia in patients with Parkinson's disease. Lancet Neurol 2010;9:1200-1213.
- 144. Williams-Gray CH, Evans JR, Goris A, et al. The distinct cognitive syndromes of Parkinson's disease: 5 year follow-up of the CamPaIGN cohort. Brain 2009;132:2958-2969.
- Collins LM, Williams-Gray CH. The Genetic basis of cognitive impairment and dementia in Parkinson's disease. Front Psychiatry 2016;7:89.
- 146. Chen J, Lipska BK, Halim N, et al. Functional analysis of genetic variation in catechol-O-methyltransferase (COMT): effects on mRNA, protein, and enzyme activity in postmortem human brain. Am J Hum Genet 2004;75:807-821.
- Foltynie T, Goldberg TE, Lewis SG, et al. Planning ability in Parkinson's disease is influenced by the COMT val158met polymorphism. Mov Disord 2004;19:885-891.
- 148. Fallon SJ, Smulders K, Esselink RA, van de Warrenburg BP, Bloem BR, Cools R. Differential optimal dopamine levels for setshifting and working memory in Parkinson's disease. Neuropsychologia 2015;77:42-51.
- 149. Williams-Gray CH, Hampshire A, Barker RA, Owen AM. Attentional control in Parkinson's disease is dependent on COMT val 158 met genotype. Brain 2008;131:397-408.

- 150. Williams-Gray CH, Hampshire A, Robbins TW, Owen AM, Barker RA. Catechol O-methyltransferase Val158Met genotype influences frontoparietal activity during planning in patients with Parkinson's disease. J Neurosci 2007;27:4832-4838.
- 151. Wu K, O'Keeffe D, Politis M, et al. The catechol-Omethyltransferase Val158Met polymorphism modulates frontocortical dopamine turnover in early Parkinson's disease: a PET study. Brain 2012;135:2449-2457.
- 152. Fallon SJ, Williams-Gray CH, Barker RA, Owen AM, Hampshire A. Prefrontal dopamine levels determine the balance between cognitive stability and flexibility. Cereb Cortex 2013;23:361-369.
- 153. Stefansson H, Helgason A, Thorleifsson G, et al. A common inversion under selection in Europeans. Nat Genet 2005;37:129-137.
- 154. Goris A, Williams-Gray CH, Clark GR, et al. Tau and alphasynuclein in susceptibility to, and dementia in, Parkinson's disease. Ann Neurol 2007;62:145-153.
- 155. Seto-Salvia N, Clarimon J, Pagonabarraga J, et al. Dementia risk in Parkinson disease: disentangling the role of MAPT haplotypes. Arch Neurol 2011;68:359-364.
- Williams-Gray CH, Mason SL, Evans JR, et al. The CamPaIGN study of Parkinson's disease: 10-year outlook in an incident population-based cohort. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2013; 84:1258-1264.
- 157. Mata IF, Leverenz JB, Weintraub D, et al. APOE, MAPT, and SNCA genes and cognitive performance in Parkinson disease. JAMA Neurol 2014;71:1405-1412.
- 158. Morley JF, Xie SX, Hurtig HI, et al. Genetic influences on cognitive decline in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2012;27:512-518.
- 159. Winder-Rhodes SE, Hampshire A, Rowe JB, et al. Association between MAPT haplotype and memory function in patients with Parkinson's disease and healthy aging individuals. Neurobiol Aging 2015;36:1519-1528.
- Nombela C, Rowe JB, Winder-Rhodes SE, et al. Genetic impact on cognition and brain function in newly diagnosed Parkinson's disease: ICICLE-PD study. Brain 2014;137:2743-2758.
- Oba H, Yagishita A, Terada H, et al. New and reliable MRI diagnosis for progressive supranuclear palsy. Neurology 2005;64: 2050-2055.
- 162. Righini A, Antonini A, De Notaris R, et al. MR imaging of the superior profile of the midbrain: differential diagnosis between progressive supranuclear palsy and Parkinson disease. Am J Neuroradiol 2004;25:927-932.
- 163. Quattrone A, Nicoletti G, Messina D, et al. MR imaging index for differentiation of progressive supranuclear palsy from Parkinson disease and the Parkinson variant of multiple system atrophy. Radiology 2008;246:214-221.
- Massey LA, Jager HR, Paviour DC, et al. The midbrain to pons ratio: a simple and specific MRI sign of progressive supranuclear palsy. Neurology 2013;80:1856-1861.
- 165. Arabia G, Quattrone A. MRI measurements of brainstem structures in patients with Richardson's syndrome, progressive supranuclear palsy-parkinsonism, and Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2011;26:1575-1576; author reply 1576.
- Lehericy S, Bensimon G, Vidailhet M. Parkinsonian disorders. In: Toga A, ed. Brain Mapping, An Encyclopedic Reference. London, UK: Academic Press, 2015. pp 769–785.
- Berardelli A, Wenning GK, Antonini A, et al. EFNS/MDS-ES/ ENS [corrected] recommendations for the diagnosis of Parkinson's disease. Eur J Neurol 2013;20:16-34.
- 168. Huppertz HJ, Moller L, Sudmeyer M, et al. Differentiation of neurodegenerative parkinsonian syndromes by volumetric magnetic resonance imaging analysis and support vector machine classification. Mov Disord 2016;31:1506-1517.
- Ohtsuka C, Sasaki M, Konno K, et al. Differentiation of early-stage parkinsonisms using neuromelanin-sensitive magnetic resonance imaging. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2014;20: 755-760.
- 170. Matsuura K, Maeda M, Yata K, et al. Neuromelanin magnetic resonance imaging in Parkinson's disease and multiple system atrophy. Eur Neurol 2013;70:77-77.
- 171. Meijer FJ, van Rumund A, Fasen BA, et al. Susceptibility-weighted imaging improves the diagnostic accuracy of 3T brain MRI in

the work-up of parkinsonism. Am J Neuroradiol 2015;36:454-460.

- 172. Haller S, Badoud S, Nguyen D, et al. Differentiation between Parkinson disease and other forms of Parkinsonism using support vector machine analysis of susceptibility-weighted imaging (SWI): initial results. Eur Radiol 2013;23:12-19.
- 173. Barbagallo G, Sierra-Pena M, Nemmi F, et al. Multimodal MRI assessment of nigro-striatal pathway in multiple system atrophy and Parkinson disease. Mov Disord 2016;31:325-334.
- 174. Feng JY, Huang B, Yang WQ, et al. The putaminal abnormalities on 3.0T magnetic resonance imaging: can they separate parkinsonism-predominant multiple system atrophy from Parkinson's disease? Acta Radiol 2015;56:322-328.
- 175. Wadia PM, Howard P, Ribeirro MQ, et al. The value of GRE, ADC and routine MRI in distinguishing Parkinsonian disorders. Can J Neurol Sci 2013;40:389-402.
- 176. Sakurai K, Imabayashi E, Tokumaru AM, et al. Volume of interest analysis of spatially normalized PRESTO imaging to differentiate between Parkinson disease and atypical parkinsonian syndrome. Magn Reson Med Sci 2016;16:16-22.
- 177. Cochrane CJ, Ebmeier KP. Diffusion tensor imaging in parkinsonian syndromes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Neurology 2013;80:857-864.
- 178. Planetta PJ, Ofori E, Pasternak O, et al. Free-water imaging in Parkinson's disease and atypical parkinsonism. Brain 2016;139: 495-508.
- 179. Burciu RG, Chung JW, Shukla P, et al. Functional MRI of disease progression in Parkinson disease and atypical parkinsonian syndromes. Neurology 2016;87:709-717.
- Planetta PJ, Kurani AS, Shukla P, et al. Distinct functional and macrostructural brain changes in Parkinson's disease and multiple system atrophy. Hum Brain Mapp 2015;36:1165-1179.
- 181. Burciu RG, Ofori E, Shukla P, et al. Distinct patterns of brain activity in progressive supranuclear palsy and Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord 2015;30:1248-1258.
- 182. Rittman T, Rubinov M, Vertes PE, et al. Regional expression of the MAPT gene is associated with loss of hubs in brain networks and cognitive impairment in Parkinson disease and progressive supranuclear palsy. Neurobiol Aging 2016;48:153-160.
- Gardner RC, Boxer AL, Trujillo A, et al. Intrinsic connectivity network disruption in progressive supranuclear palsy. Ann Neurol 2013;73:603-616.
- 184. Ulla M, Bonny JM, Ouchchane L, Rieu I, Claise B, Durif F. Is R2* a new MRI biomarker for the progression of Parkinson's disease. A longitudinal follow-up. PLoS One 2013;8: e57904.
- 185. Rossi ME, Ruottinen H, Saunamaki T, Elovaara I, Dastidar P. Imaging brain iron and diffusion patterns: a follow-up study of Parkinson's disease in the initial stages. Acad Radiol 2014;21:64-71.
- Wieler M, Gee M, Martin WR. Longitudinal midbrain changes in early Parkinson's disease: iron content estimated from R2*/MRI. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2015;21:179-183.
- 187. Tuite P. Magnetic resonance imaging as a potential biomarker for Parkinson's disease. Transl Res 2016;175:4-16.
- 188. Santin MD, Didier M, Valabregue R, et al. Reproducibility of R2 * and quantitative susceptibility mapping (QSM) reconstruction methods in the basal ganglia of healthy subjects. NMR Biomed 2016. doi: 10.1002/nbm.3491.
- Sterling NW, Wang M, Zhang L, et al. Stage-dependent loss of cortical gyrification as Parkinson disease "unfolds". Neurology 2016;86:1143-1151.
- Abosch A, Yacoub E, Ugurbil K, Harel N. An assessment of current brain targets for deep brain stimulation surgery with susceptibility-weighted imaging at 7 tesla. Neurosurgery 2010;67: 1745-1756; discussion 1756.
- 191. Eapen M, Zald DH, Gatenby JC, Ding Z, Gore JC. Using highresolution MR imaging at 7T to evaluate the anatomy of the midbrain dopaminergic system. Am J Neuroradiol 2011;32:688-694.
- 192. Deistung A, Schafer A, Schweser F, et al. High-resolution MR imaging of the human brainstem in vivo at 7 Tesla. Front Hum Neurosci 2013;7:710.

- 193. de Hollander G, Keuken MC, Bazin PL, et al. A gradual increase of iron toward the medial-inferior tip of the subthalamic nucleus. Hum Brain Mapp 2014;35:4440-4449.
- Keuken MC, Bazin PL, Crown L, et al. Quantifying interindividual anatomical variability in the subcortex using 7T structural MRI. Neuroimage 2014;94:40-46.
- 195. Keuken MC, Bazin PL, Schafer A, Neumann J, Turner R, Forstmann BU. Ultra-high 7T MRI of structural age-related changes of the subthalamic nucleus. J Neurosci 2013;33:4896-4900.
- Tourdias T, Saranathan M, Levesque IR, Su J, Rutt BK. Visualization of intra-thalamic nuclei with optimized white-matternulled MPRAGE at 7T. Neuroimage 2014;84:534-545.
- 197. Kwon DH, Kim JM, Oh SH, et al. Seven-Tesla magnetic resonance images of the substantia nigra in Parkinson disease. Ann Neurol 2012;71:267-277.
- 198. Cosottini M, Frosini D, Pesaresi I, et al. MR imaging of the substantia nigra at 7T enables diagnosis of Parkinson disease. Radiology 2014:131448.
- 199. Cho ZH, Oh SH, Kim JM, et al. Direct visualization of Parkinson's disease by in vivo human brain imaging using 7.0T magnetic resonance imaging. Mov Disord 2011;26:713-718.
- 200. Keuken MC, Forstmann BU. A probabilistic atlas of the basal ganglia using 7T MRI. Data Brief 2015;4:577-582.
- 201. Alkemade A, Schnitzler A, Forstmann BU. Topographic organization of the human and non-human primate subthalamic nucleus. Brain Struct Funct 2015;220:3075-3086.
- 202. Duyn JH, van Gelderen P, Li TQ, de Zwart JA, Koretsky AP, Fukunaga M. High-field MRI of brain cortical substructure based on signal phase. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2007;104:11796-11801.
- 203. Marques JP, Kober T, Krueger G, van der Zwaag W, Van de Moortele PF, Gruetter R. MP2RAGE, a self bias-field corrected

sequence for improved segmentation and T1-mapping at high field. Neuroimage 2010;49:1271-1281.

- Cosottini M, Donatelli G, Costagli M, et al. High-resolution 7T MR imaging of the motor cortex in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Am J Neuroradiol 2016;37:455-461.
- 205. Lenglet C, Abosch A, Yacoub E, De Martino F, Sapiro G, Harel N. Comprehensive in vivo mapping of the human basal ganglia and thalamic connectome in individuals using 7T MRI. PLoS One 2012;7:e29153.
- 206. Plantinga BR, Roebroeck A, Kemper VG, et al. Ultra-high field MRI post mortem structural connectivity of the human subthalamic nucleus, substantia nigra, and globus pallidus. Front Neuroanat 2016;10:66.
- 207. Ugurbil K, Xu J, Auerbach EJ, et al. Pushing spatial and temporal resolution for functional and diffusion MRI in the Human Connectome Project. Neuroimage 2013;80:80-104.
- 208. de Hollander G, Keuken MC, Forstmann BU. The subcortical cocktail problem; mixed signals from the subthalamic nucleus and substantia nigra. PLoS One 2015;10:e0120572.
- Mueller C, Seppi K, Poewe W. Structural MRI in idiopathic Parkinson's disease and parkinsonism. In: Nahab F, Hattori N, eds. Neuroimaging of Movement Disorders. New York: Springer, 2013:105-128.
- Mahlknecht P, Hotter A, Hussl A, Esterhammer R, Schocke M, Seppi K. Significance of MRI in diagnosis and differential diagnosis of Parkinson's disease. Neurodegener Dis 2010;7: 300-318.
- 211. Ye Z, Altena E, Nombela C, et al. Improving response inhibition in Parkinson's disease with atomoxetine. Biol Psychiatry 2015;77: 740-748.
- 212. Ofori E, Pasternak O, Planetta PJ, et al. Increased free water in the substantia nigra of Parkinson's disease: a single-site and multi-site study. Neurobiol Aging 2015;36:1097-1104.