ORIGINAL RESEARCH ARTICLE



# Retinal dysfunction in Parkinson's disease—results of the extended protocol for photopic negative response (PHNR) full-field electroretinogram (ERG)

Osman Ahmet Polat<sup>®</sup> · Murat Gultekin<sup>®</sup> · Hidayet Sener<sup>®</sup> · Furkan Ozer<sup>®</sup> · Hatice Arda<sup>®</sup>

Received: 30 November 2022 / Accepted: 6 July 2023 © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2023

### Abstract

*Background* We investigated whether the photopic negative response (PhNR) in the electroretinogram (ERG) was affected in Parkinson's disease (PD) patients and whether it was associated with retinal changes on optical coherence tomography (OCT).

*Methods* Thirty-two patients with PD and 31 age and sex-matched healthy controls from a single tertiary centre were included in the study. Hoehn and Yahr scale scores and the presence of REM sleep behaviour were recorded. PhNR, a-wave and b-wave responses in photopic ERG (red on blue background) and retinal layer thicknesses in OCT were obtained.

*Results* The mean age was  $61 \pm 10.4$  in the PD group (female/male: 18/14) and  $60.9 \pm 7$  in the control group (female/male: 18/13). The amplitudes of the PhNR, a- and b-waves in the ERG were significantly decreased in the PD group, but the implicit times were not significantly different. BCVA was significantly correlated with Hoehn and Yahr scores (p < 0.001, r = -0.596). There was a significant correlation between BCVA and a-wave amplitude (p = 0.047, r = -0.251). On OCT analysis, the

M. Gultekin Department of Neurology, Erciyes University Medical

Faculty, Kayseri, Turkey

thickness of the nasal INL was increased, and the temporal and inferior OPL and temporal peripapillary RNFL were decreased in the PD group compared to healthy controls (p=0.032, p=0.002, p=0.016 and p=0.012, respectively).

*Conclusion* This study demonstrated reduced a-wave, b-wave and PhNR-wave amplitudes on ERG measurements in PD patients. These findings suggest that the whole ERG response, not just the PhNR, is attenuated in patient with PD, suggesting a possible involvement of the visual system in the disease.

**Keywords** Photopic negative response · Electroretinography · Optical coherence tomography · Parkinson's disease · ERG

## Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a neurodegenerative disease characterised by loss of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra and associated motor dysfunction. Functional visual impairment and structural retinal changes, particularly in the inner retinal layers, have been reported in PD [1–4]. Degeneration of dopaminergic cells and the deposition of phosphorylated  $\alpha$ -synuclein in the retina, similar to Lewy bodies in the brain, have been shown histologically in patients with PD [5–7]. Deterioration of retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) and the retinal nerve fibre layer (RNFL), which is composed of RGC axons, has been shown

O. A. Polat (⊠) · H. Sener · F. Ozer · H. Arda Department of Ophthalmology, Erciyes University Medical Faculty, Kayseri, Turkey e-mail: osmanahmet@gmail.com

in PD using optical coherence tomography in previous studies [8-10]. In addition, it has been observed that there is a decrease in PERG responses caused by dopaminergic deficiency in the retina [11, 12].

The photopic negative response (PhNR) is a slow negative component of the photopic full-field electroretinogram (ERG) that originates predominantly from the inner retina and mainly from RGCs [13]. To obtain larger responses, the PhNR is recorded with red flashes on a rod-suppressing blue background [14]. The PhNR has been shown to be reduced in glaucoma, optic atrophy, anterior ischaemic optic neuropathy, compressive optic neuropathy, optic neuritis and preclinical Alzheimer's disease [15-18]. Degeneration of melanopsin-expressing, human, intrinsically-photosensitive retinal ganglion cells has been proposed to cause sleep and circadian rhythm disturbances in PD [19]. Rapid eye movement (REM) sleep behaviour disorders are common in PD. In a meta-analysis, the prevalence of REM sleep disorder in PD was estimated to be 42% (95%CI: 37–47%) [20, 21]. In a large series comparing PD patients with and without REM sleep disorder, the Hoehn Yahr score was found to be significantly higher in PD with REM sleep disorder [22]. REM sleep disorder is considered a possible marker of more widespread brainstem pathology [23]. Therefore, it remains to be investigated whether RGC function, as measured by PhNR, is additionally affected in PD patients with REM sleep disorders.

This study aimed to investigate whether PhNR was affected in patients with PD and whether it was associated with retinal changes on optical coherence tomography (OCT). The secondary aim was to compare PhNR and OCT findings between PD patients with and without REM sleep behaviour disorder.

#### Methods

All procedures performed in human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the Erciyes University Local Ethics Committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its subsequent amendments or comparable ethical standards. The study protocol was approved by Erciyes University Local Ethics Committee (No: 2021/566). Written informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

## Participants

Thirty-two PD patients and 31 age and sex-matched healthy controls were included in the study. One eye of each participant was randomly selected for statistical analysis. The PD patients were followed up at the Neurology Department of Erciyes University. The disease severity scores of the PD patients were recorded according to the Hoehn and Yahr scale [24]. The presence of REM sleep behaviour disorder was also recorded by interviewing both the patient and the spouse. The Turkish version of REM sleep behaviour disorder screening questionnaire was used for evaluation [25]. Five points and above on the questionnaire was accepted as positive. All patients were taking medication for PD. Systemic and neurological exclusion criteria for the PD group were: diabetes mellitus, history of a cerebrovascular incident, alcoholism or any other drug abuse, history of severe head trauma, deep brain stimulation, history of malignancy, history of demyelinating disease, severely uncooperative patients, severe head tremor preventing reliable imaging, and use of sedatives. The exclusion criteria for the control group were any systemic disease or medication. Ocular exclusion criteria for both groups were: best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA) less than 0.3 decimal (Snellen), cataract surgery within 6 months, any vitreoretinal surgery, retinal and macular pathology, congenital or acquired optic neuropathy, severe media opacities preventing retinal examination and imaging, history of ocular trauma, and refractive error greater than 6 diopters of spherical equivalent.

## Ophthalmologic examination and imaging

All participants underwent a complete ophthalmologic examination including slit-lamp examination, intraocular pressure (IOP) measurement, refraction, BCVA, fundus examination and OCT. OCT imaging of the macula was performed using a Spectralis OCT (Heidelberg Engineering, Germany). Automatic retinal layer segmentation was performed with the Spectralis software (version 6.3.3.0). The retinal layers included the retinal nerve fibre layer (RNFL), ganglion cell layer (GCL), inner plexiform layer (IPL), inner nuclear layer (INL), outer plexiform layer (OPL), outer nuclear layer (ONL) and retinal pigment epithelium (RPE). The retinal layers were analysed according to the ETDRS subfields, which were central 1 mm, superior, temporal, inferior and nasal subfields between 1 and 3 mm circles. Peripapillary retinal nerve fibre layer (RNFL) thicknesses (global, nasal, temporal, inferonasal, inferotemporal, superonasal and superotemporal) were also measured automatically with the OCT software. Macular and peripapillary retinal layer analysis is shown in Fig. 1.

Electroretinography and photopic negative response

In the present study, protocol for the PhNR (Metrovision Monpack 3, Metrovision, France) was performed according to the approved extended protocol of the International Society for Clinical Electrophysiology of Vision (ISCEV) [14]. Pupils were maximally dilated (7 to 9 mm in diameter) with tropicamide (1%) and phenylephrine hydrochloride (2.5%). After 10 min of adaptation to photopic conditions, a topical anaesthetic (0.5% proparacaine hydrochloride) was applied to the eyes before placement of a single-use unipolar gold-based contact lens active electrode (ERG Jet, Metrovision, Perenchies, France). A reference electrode was placed near each orbital rim, with the skin temporal to the outer canthus used as the reference electrode for the corresponding eye. The stimulus duration was less than 5 ms red (630 nm) flashes  $(1.7 \text{ cd.s/m}^2)$  on a rod-suppressing blue (465 nm) background (8 cd.s/m<sup>2</sup>). The inter-flash



Fig. 1 Segmentation of retinal layers in horizontal scans of the fovea was performed automatically. Mean retinal layer thicknesses were analysed in 5 sectors (temporal, inferior, nasal,

superior and central). Mean peripapillary RNFL thickness was analysed in 6 sectors (superonasal, nasal, inferotemporal, temporal and superotemporal) interval was 500 ms. Electrical signals were amplified 1000 times and digitised. The signal cut-off frequency was between 0.3 Hz and 300 Hz and an average of 100 responses was used. Previous studies have confirmed that this colour combination is a good stimulus for eliciting the PhNR [13, 26]. The amplitudes and implicit times of a-wave, b-wave and PhNR were recorded. The fellow eye was covered during the recording of the corresponding eye.

The first negative wave is referred to as the a-wave and the first positive wave after the a-wave is referred to as the b-wave. The amplitude of the a-wave was measured from the baseline to the negative trough, and the amplitude of the b-wave was measured from the trough of the a-wave to the following peak. After the i-wave, which is the Offpathway derived positive deviation in the descending arm of the b-wave, the negative wave occurring in the 65–75 ms interval was evaluated as the PhNR. The PhNR amplitude was measured from the trough. The implicit times were defined as the time from light onset to wave peak. Figure 2 shows the ERG waveform and its components.

#### Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS software (IBM, version 18). The normality of the data was tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test. The chisquared test was used for comparisons of nominalordinal variables. The Mann-Whitney U test was used for comparisons between independent variables that were not normally distributed. Independent sample t-test was used for normally distributed data. Correlations between parameters were tested using Pearson's test for normally distributed data and Spearman's test for non-normally distributed data. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis was performed with MedCalc (version 20). ROC was performed for the diagnostic value of a-wave, b-wave and PhNR amplitudes in PD and the Area under the curve (AUC) value was obtained. A p-value of less than 0.05 was accepted as the statistical level of significance.

## Results



Thirty-two patients (18 female) with PD and 31 ageand sex-matched healthy controls (18 female) were included in the study. Demographic data, intraocular



Fig. 2 Red-on-blue ERG presentation in a control subject (a) and a PD subject (b). The amplitude of the a-wave was measured from the baseline to the negative trough, and the amplitude of the b-wave was measured from the trough of the a-wave to the following peak. The PhNR amplitude was meas-

ured from baseline to the minimum point in the trough. The implicit time was defined as the time from light onset to wave peak. In these examples, the negative wave 1 is the a-wave, the positive wave 2 is the b-wave and the negative wave 5 is the PhNR

pressure, BCVA, disease duration and Hoehn and Yahr scale scores of the participants are summarised in Table 1. There was no significant difference between groups for sex, age and IOP (p=0.88, p=0.99 and p=0.17, respectively). The mean age was  $61\pm10.4$  in the PD group and  $60.9\pm7$  in the control group. BCVA was significantly decreased in the PD group (p=0.002, Table 1). The disease duration of PD was  $5.1\pm3.6$  years. Hoehn and Yahr scores were significantly higher and REM sleep behaviour frequency was significantly higher in the PD group compared to the control group (p<0.001and p<0.001, respectively, Table 1).

For flash photopic ERGs, the amplitudes of a-, b- and PhNR-waves were significantly reduced in the PD group compared to the control group, but the peak time were not significantly different between groups (Table 2). The median PhNR/b wave ratio was  $-0.43 \pm 0.13$  in the PD group and  $-0.39 \pm 0.24$  in the control group and there was no significant difference between the groups (p=0.514). There was no significant inverse correlation between the wave amplitudes (a, b and PhNR) and the PD duration. There was no significant correlation between Hoehn and Yahr scores and wave amplitudes (a, b and PhNR) in the ERG. BCVA was significantly correlated with Hoehn and Yahr scores in this study indicating worse visual acuity with more severe PD (p < 0.001, r = -0.596). There was a significant correlation between BCVA and a-wave amplitude (p = 0.047, r = -0.251). However, there was no significant correlation between BCVA and b and PhNR amplitude.

In OCT analysis, there were significant differences between the control and PD groups, which were greater thickness in the nasal 1-3 mm INL in PD, and lesser thickness in the temporal and inferior 1-3 mm OPL, and in temporal peripapillary RNFL in PD (p=0.032, p=0.002, p=0.016 and p=0.012, respectively), but the remaining retinal layers and sectors were not significantly different (Supplementary file 1, p > 0.05). The correlations between ERG amplitudes and sectors of retinal layers in OCT were also analysed and statistically the significant results are summarised in Table 3. The other layers and sectors were not significantly different (p<0.01) and are not shown in the table due to the large amount of the data. Correlation plots of a-wave and PhNR are presented in Fig. 3.

ROC analysis was performed to evaluate the diagnostic value of PhNR amplitude in PD and the AUC

<b>Table 1</b> Demographic           data and clinical findings of           participants	Variables	Control	PD	p	
	Gender (F/M)	18/14	18/13	0.88	
	Age (years, mean $\pm$ SD)	$60.9 \pm 7$	$61 \pm 10.4$	0.99	
PD—Parkinson's disease,	IOP (mmHg, mean $\pm$ SD)	$14.6 \pm 2.2$	$13.6 \pm 3.3$	0.17	
F—female, M—male,	BCVA logMAR ( median, min-max)	0 (0-0.2)	0.07 (0-0.5)	0.002	
<i>IOP</i> —intraocular pressure.	Parkinson's Disease Duration (years, mean $\pm$ SD)	_	$5.1 \pm 3.6$	-	
BCVA—best corrected	Hoehn and Yahr Scale (median, mix-max)	0 (0-0)	2 (1-3)	< 0.001	
visual acuity, <i>REM</i> —rapid eve movement	REM sleep behaviour disorder	0/31	13/32	< 0.001	

Table 2 Amplitudes and implicit times of a, b, and PhNR waves in ERG

Variables	CG <i>N</i> =31	PD <i>N</i> =32	р
a wave amplitude ( $\mu V$ , median and 25–75%)	- 32.4 (- 38.5/- 27.2)	- 24.1 (- 30.3/- 20.0)	< 0.001
a wave implicit time (ms, Mean $\pm$ SD)	$15.9 \pm 1.3$	$16.1 \pm 1.7$	0.614
b wave amplitude ( $\mu V$ , median and 25–75%)	110.5 (91.0/147.4)	92.4 (75.5/114.6)	0.011
b wave implicit time (ms, Mean $\pm$ SD)	$32.5 \pm 1.4$	$32.1 \pm 1.8$	0.364
PhNR wave amplitude ( $\mu V$ , median and 25–75%)	- 48.6 (- 62.6/- 39.7)	- 40.2 (- 45.1/- 25.8)	0.001
PhNR wave implicit time (ms, median and 25-75%)	72.3 (70.5/73.1)	70.5 (68.0/73.1)	0.050
PhNR/b wave ratio (Mean $\pm$ SD)	$-0.43 \pm 0.13$	$-0.39 \pm 0.24$	0.514

CG-control group, PD-Parkinson's disease

 Table 3
 Significant correlations between ERG responses and sectors of retinal layers in OCT in all group

Variables/test	r	Р
	0.259	0.041
a wave amplitude—1-INL	- 0.258	0.041
a wave amplitude—t-OPL	- 0.266	0.035
b wave amplitude—i-INL	0.305	0.015
b wave amplitude—ts-pRNFL	- 0.252	0.046
b wave amplitude—t-pRNFL	- 0.261	0.039
PhNR wave amplitude—n-IPL	- 0.316	0.012

A—amplitude, IT—implicit time, c—central 1 mm, s—superior 1–3 mm, i—infeior 1–3 mm, n—nasal 1–3 mm, t—temporal 1–3 mm in ETDRS grid. INL—inner nuclear layer, ONL —outer nuclear layer, OPL—outer plexiform layer, pRNFL —peripapillary retinal nerve fibre layer, RPE—retina pigment epitelium

value was 0.734 (95%CI: 0.608–0.837, p < 0.001) (Fig. 4). The AUC values for a- and b-wave amplitudes were 0.773 (95%CI: 0.650–0.869, p < 0.001) and 0.685 (95%CI: 0.556–0.796, p = 0.006), respectively. The sensitivity, specificity and cut-off values of ERG waves are summarised in Table 4. There was no significant difference in the pairwise comparison of ROC curves (PhNR—a wave p=0.59; PhNR—b wave p=0.51, a-b wave p=0.06).

There was no statistical difference in ERG amplitudes orimplicit times between PD patients with and without REM sleep behaviour disorder (p > 0.05).

#### Discussion

This study found significantly lower amplitudes of the PhNR, a- and b-waves in the red-on-blue ERG in PD patients compared to healthy controls. Pattern ERGs



Fig. 4 ROC curve of a-, b- and PhNR-waves amplitude

have been investigated in PD but PhNR in the ffERG has some advantages over the PERG in that it is less affected by refractive status and media opacities [27, 28]. PD has been associated with reduced scotopic and photopic a- and b-wave amplitudes [29, 30]. In Parkinson's disease, dopaminergic amacrine cells and their plexuses are depleted in the human retina, followed by global dysfunction of the dopaminergic system. Dopaminergic amacrine cells are regulators of horizontal cells and rod-cone coupling. They also modulate ganglion cells [5]. The a-wave originates mainly from cone photoreceptors and some bipolar cells. The b-wave is mainly caused by bipolar cells and their interaction with Müller cells. These cells have dopamine receptors and dopamine modulation [5, 31]. Therefore, reduced dopaminergic activity in PD may result in functional changes in the retina and optic nerve that can be detected by electrophysiological testing [32, 33]. $\alpha$ -Synuclein accumulation in



Fig. 3 Scatter plots showing the relationship between OCT thickness parameters and the amplitudes of a-waves and PhNRs

Table 4ROC analysisresults of ERG wavesamplitudes

Variables	Cut off	Sensitivity	Specificity	Area under curve	Confidence interval (95%)	р
a wave amplitude	- 30.8	0.843	0.645	0.773	0.650-0.869	< 0.001
b wave amplitude	127.8	0.906	0.451	0.685	0.556-0.796	0.006
PhNR amplitude	- 47.7	0.875	0.580	0.734	0.608-0.837	< 0.001

RGCs resembling Lewy bodies in the brain has been demonstrated in PD. RGC a-synuclein accumulation has been suggested to be an in vivo indicator of the severity of brain pathology [6, 7]. We measured PhNR from baseline to trough; the PhNR is mainly derived from RGCs [27]. The decrease in PhNR amplitude in PD patients in our study may be attributed to the loss of RGC cells and function. However, a decrease in the a- and b-wave components will lead to some decrease in the PhNR. A recent study by Mello et al. comparing ffERG scans from PD patients with a control group found a decrease in the amplitudes of the b-wave and the PhNR in PD patients, and the authors suggested that the PhNR might be a potential new biomarker [34]. However, our results did not confirm this. The fact that there was no significant difference in the PhNR/b-wave ratio in our study or in the study by Mello et al.[34], which confirms that PD causes generalised retinal dysfunction.

BCVA was significantly reduced in the PD group compared to the control group. Previous studies have shown alterations in visual acuity, contrast sensitivity, colour discrimination, pupil reactivity, eye movements, motion perception, visual field sensitivity and visual processing speed in PD [28, 35]. Visual dysfunction is attributed to alterations in both the retina and the brain [28]. Retinal electrophysiological studies have supported retinal dysfunction, which may explain the reduced visual function in PD. BCVA was significantly associated with Hoehn and Yahr scores in this study, suggesting that visual acuity is worse with more severe PD. We did not find a significant correlation between BCVA and PhNR amplitude, however, BCVA was negatively correlated with a-wave amplitude.

Previous OCT studies showed structural retinal changes mostly in inner retinal layers in PD, but variable results were reported. Previous meta-analysis studies reported decreased GCL and IPL layer thicknesses is common, but conflicting results exist about other layers of macular RNFL, INL, OPL, ONL and peripapillary RNFL thicknesses [1, 36, 37]. In our study, we found thicker nasal INL, and thinner temporal and inferior OPL in the macula, as in previous reports [38, 39], however, the GCL thickness was not significantly different between PD and control groups. This result might be explained by the patients in the PD group not having high severity scores (Hoehn and Yahr, range 1-3) and ganglion cell loss was not severe enough to cause thinner GCL or subsequent IPL and RNFL. a-synuclein accumulation was also reported in the INL layer [40] and this may explain increased INL thickness. Temporal peripapillary RNFL was significantly reduced in the PD group compared to the control group, which supports previous reports that showed temporal preferential loss patterns in PD patients [8]. Structural parameters with OCT and functional parameters with multifocal ERG have been shown to have some correlation in PD [4]. In this study, significant correlations were found between a, b and PhNR amplitudes and sector OCT layer thickness.

Sleep disorders including REM sleep behaviour disorders are common in PD [19, 41]. Degeneration of the retinal melanopsin system including melanopsin-containing RGCs (ipRGC) is blamed for sleep and circadian rhythm disorders in PD [19, 42]. Melanopsin is a vitamin A-derived photopigment [43]; melanopsin-containing RGCs are intrinsically photosensitive retinal cells that have been shown to be decreased in PD [19]. A previous study that analysed immunotoxin-induced ablation of the ipRGCs in rhesus monkeys reported diminished PhNR amplitudes with red on blue flashes after toxin injection compared with contralateral control eyes [44]. Thus, we compared RGC function with ERG, particularly with PhNR, and retinal layer thicknesses between PD patients with or without REM sleep behaviour disorders and there was no significant difference between the two patient groups. These results suggest that ipRGCs may not make a significant contribution to the PhNR. In the ROC analysis, the AUC value of PhNR was 0.761 and a-wave was 0.773 (Fig. 4). AUC values below 0.5 means poor diagnostic capacity for discriminating subjects with or without disease [45]. A value between 0.7—0.8 is considered acceptable, which means PhNR and a-wave are acceptable tools for discriminating study subjects with PD disease or without [45].

This study had several limitations. First, the PD group consisted of patients with Hoehn and Yahr scores below 3 and there were no patients with severe disease. Second, all the patients were under anti-PD medications, which have been shown to affect ERGs. Since PD medications upregulate dopaminergic activity, it may have a positive effect on ERG amplitudes [12, 46-48]. Nevertheless, our results suggest that patients with PD have generalised retinal dysfunction. Third, other visual functions including colour vision and contrast sensitivity were not evaluated in the study population. The subjective nature of the assessment of REM sleep is a further limitation of this study. The study did not have pupil light reflex data to confirm ipRGC involvement.

In conclusion, the present study provides evidence of reduced a-wave, b-wave and PhNR amplitudes in PD patients. The researchers also performed ROC analysis and found that the a-wave amplitude and PhNR amplitude had acceptable discriminatory ability in distinguishing PD patients from healthy subjects. These findings suggest that the whole ERG response, not just the PhNR, is attenuated in people with PD, suggesting a possible involvement of the visual system in the disease. Further research is needed to better understand the underlying mechanisms and clinical implications of these observations.

Author Contributions Conceptualization was contributed by [OAP, HŞ]; data curation was contributed by [MG, FO]; formal analysis was contributed by [HS]; investigation was contributed by [HS]; methodology was contributed by [HS, HA]; project administration was contributed by [HA]; software was contributed by [HS]; supervision was contributed by [HA]; validation was contributed by [OAP]; visualisation was contributed by [HA]; writing—original draft, was contributed by [OAP, HS]; writing—review and editing was contributed by [MG, FO, HA]. **Funding** The authors declare that no funds, grants, or other support were received during the preparation of this manuscript. The authors have no relevant financial interest to disclose.

**Data statement** The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, Osman Ahmet Polat, upon reasonable request.

### Declarations

**Conflict of interest** No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Ethic approval All procedures performed in human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the Erciyes University Local Ethics Committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. Study protocol was approved by Erciyes University Local Ethics Committee (No: 2021/566).

Informed consent Written informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Statement on the welfare of animals: No animals were used in this research.

**Statement of human rights** All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

**Statement on the welfare of animals** No animals were used in this research.

## References

- Chrysou A, Jansonius NM, van Laar T (2019) Retinal layers in Parkinson's disease: a meta-analysis of spectraldomain optical coherence tomography studies. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 64:40–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.parkr eldis.2019.04.023
- Ahn J, Lee JY, Kim TW, Yoon EJ, Oh S, Kim YK et al (2018) Retinal thinning associates with Nigral dopaminergic loss in de novo Parkinson disease. Neurology 91(11):e1003–e1012. https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.00000 00000006157
- Satue M, Rodrigo MJ, Obis J, Vilades E, Gracia H, Otin S et al (2017) Evaluation of progressive visual dysfunction and retinal degeneration in patients with Parkinson's disease. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 58(2):1151–1157. https:// doi.org/10.1167/iovs.16-20460
- Kaur M, Saxena R, Singh D, Behari M, Sharma P, Menon V (2015) Correlation between structural and functional retinal changes in Parkinson disease. J Neuroophthalmol 35(3):254–258. https://doi.org/10.1097/WNO.00000 00000000240

- Ortuno-Lizaran I, Sanchez-Saez X, Lax P, Serrano GE, Beach TG, Adler CH et al (2020) Dopaminergic retinal cell loss and visual dysfunction in Parkinson disease. Ann Neurol 88(5):893–906. https://doi.org/10.1002/ana.25897
- Ortuno-Lizaran I, Beach TG, Serrano GE, Walker DG, Adler CH, Cuenca N (2018) Phosphorylated alpha-synuclein in the retina is a biomarker of Parkinson's disease pathology severity. Mov Disord 33(8):1315–1324. https:// doi.org/10.1002/mds.27392
- Veys L, Vandenabeele M, Ortuno-Lizaran I, Baekelandt V, Cuenca N, Moons L et al (2019) Retinal alpha-synuclein deposits in Parkinson's disease patients and animal models. Acta Neuropathol 137(3):379–395. https://doi. org/10.1007/s00401-018-01956-z
- La Morgia C, Di Vito L, Carelli V, Carbonelli M (2017) Patterns of retinal ganglion cell damage in neurodegenerative disorders: parvocellular vs magnocellular degeneration in optical coherence tomography studies. Front Neurol 8:710. https://doi.org/10.3389/fneur.2017.00710
- Huang L, Wang C, Wang W, Wang Y, Zhang R (2021) The specific pattern of retinal nerve fiber layer thinning in Parkinson's disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Neurol 268(11):4023–4032. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s00415-020-10094-0
- Ucak T, Alagoz A, Cakir B, Celik E, Bozkurt E, Alagoz G (2016) Analysis of the retinal nerve fiber and ganglion cell—inner plexiform layer by optical coherence tomography in Parkinson's patients. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 31:59–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.parkreldis.2016.07.004
- Tagliati M, Bodis-Wollner I, Yahr MD (1996) The pattern electroretinogram in Parkinson's disease reveals lack of retinal spatial tuning. Electroencephalograph Clin Neurophysiol/Evoked Potentials Section 100(1):1–11. https:// doi.org/10.1016/0168-5597(95)00169-7
- Peppe A, Stanzione P, Pierelli F, De Angelis D, Pierantozzi M, Bernardi G (1995) Visual alterations in de novo Parkinson's disease: pattern electroretinogram latencies are more delayed and more reversible by levodopa than are visual evoked potentials. Neurology 45(6):1144–1148. https://doi.org/10.1212/wnl.45.6.1144
- Rangaswamy NV, Shirato S, Kaneko M, Digby BI, Robson JG, Frishman LJ (2007) Effects of spectral characteristics of ganzfeld stimuli on the photopic negative response (PhNR) of the ERG. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 48(10):4818–4828. https://doi.org/10.1167/iovs.07-0218
- Frishman L, Sustar M, Kremers J, McAnany JJ, Sarossy M, Tzekov R et al (2018) ISCEV extended protocol for the photopic negative response (PhNR) of the full-field electroretinogram. Doc Ophthalmol 136(3):207–211. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10633-018-9638-x
- Asanad S, Felix CM, Fantini M, Harrington MG, Sadun AA, Karanjia R (2021) Retinal ganglion cell dysfunction in preclinical Alzheimer's disease: an electrophysiologic biomarker signature. Sci Rep 11(1):6344. https://doi.org/ 10.1038/s41598-021-85010-1
- Moss HE, Park JC, McAnany JJ (2015) The photopic negative response in idiopathic intracranial hypertension. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 56(6):3709–3714. https://doi. org/10.1167/iovs.15-16586

- Machida S (2012) Clinical applications of the photopic negative response to optic nerve and retinal diseases. J Ophthalmol. https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/397178
- Gotoh Y, Machida S, Tazawa Y (2004) Selective loss of the photopic negative response in patients with opticnerve atrophy. Arch Ophthalmol 122(3):341–346. https://doi. org/10.1001/archopht.122.3.341
- Ortuno-Lizaran I, Esquiva G, Beach TG, Serrano GE, Adler CH, Lax P et al (2018) Degeneration of human photosensitive retinal ganglion cells may explain sleep and circadian rhythms disorders in Parkinson's disease. Acta Neuropathol Commun 6(1):90. https://doi.org/10.1186/ s40478-018-0596-z
- Diaconu S, Falup-Pecurariu O, Tint D, Falup-Pecurariu C (2021) REM sleep behaviour disorder in Parkinson's disease (review). Exp Ther Med 22(2):812. https://doi.org/ 10.3892/etm.2021.10244
- Zhang X, Sun X, Wang J, Tang L, Xie A (2017) Prevalence of rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder (RBD) in Parkinson's disease: a meta and meta-regression analysis. Neurol Sci 38(1):163–170. https://doi.org/10. 1007/s10072-016-2744-1
- Sixel-Döring F, Trautmann E, Mollenhauer B, Trenkwalder C (2011) Associated factors for REM sleep behavior disorder in Parkinson disease. Neurology 77(11):1048– 1054. https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.0b013e31822e560e
- Plazzi G (2004) REM sleep behavior disorders in Parkinson's disease and other Parkinsonian disorders. Sleep Med 5(2):195–199. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sleep.2004.01.003
- Bhidayasiri R, Tarsy D. Parkinson's disease: Hoehn and Yahr scale. Movement disorders: a video Atlas. Springer; 2012. p. 4–5. https://doi.org/10.1007/ 978-1-60327-426-5\_2
- Stiasny-Kolster K, Mayer G, Schafer S, Moller JC, Heinzel-Gutenbrunner M, Oertel WH (2007) The REM sleep behavior disorder screening questionnaire–a new diagnostic instrument. Mov Disord 22(16):2386–2393. https://doi. org/10.1002/mds.21740
- Rufiange M, Dumont M, Lachapelle P (2005) Modulation of the human photopic ERG luminance-response function with the use of chromatic stimuli. Vision Res 45(17):2321–2330. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.visres.2005. 02.010
- Prencipe M, Perossini T, Brancoli G, Perossini M (2020) The photopic negative response (PhNR): measurement approaches and utility in glaucoma. Int Ophthalmol 40(12):3565–3576. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s10792-020-01515-0
- Armstrong RA (2011) Visual symptoms in Parkinson's disease. Parkinsons Dis. https://doi.org/10.4061/2011/ 908306
- Silverstein SM, Demmin DL, Schallek JB, Fradkin SI (2020) Measures of retinal structure and function as biomarkers in neurology and psychiatry. Biomark Neuropsych 2:100018. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bionps.2020. 100018
- Nowacka B, Lubinski W, Honczarenko K, Potemkowski A, Safranow K (2015) Bioelectrical function and structural assessment of the retina in patients with early stages of Parkinson's disease (PD). Doc Ophthalmol 131(2):95– 104. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10633-015-9503-0

- Nguyen-Legros J, Versaux-Botteri C, Vernier P (1999) Dopamine receptor localization in the mammalian retina. Mol Neurobiol 19(3):181–204. https://doi.org/10.1007/ BF02821713
- Nowacka B, Lubiński W, Honczarenko K, Potemkowski A, Safranow K (2015) Bioelectrical function and structural assessment of the retina in patients with early stages of Parkinson's disease (PD). Doc Ophthalmol 131(2):95– 104. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10633-015-9503-0
- Ikeda H, Head G, Ellis CK (1994) Electrophysiological signs of retinal dopamine deficiency in recently diagnosed Parkinson's disease and a follow up study. Vision Res 34(19):2629–2638. https://doi.org/10.1016/0042-6989(94)90248-8
- 34. Mello LGM, Paraguay IBB, Andrade TS, Rocha A, Barbosa ER, Oyamada MK et al (2022) Electroretinography reveals retinal dysfunction in Parkinson's disease despite normal high-resolution optical coherence tomography findings. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 101:90–95. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.parkreldis.2022.06.018
- 35. Polo V, Satue M, Rodrigo MJ, Otin S, Alarcia R, Bambo MP et al (2016) Visual dysfunction and its correlation with retinal changes in patients with Parkinson's disease: an observational cross-sectional study. BMJ Open 6(5):58. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2015-009658
- Huang L, Zhang D, Ji J, Wang Y, Zhang R (2021) Central retina changes in Parkinson's disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Neurol 268(12):4646–4654. https:// doi.org/10.1007/s00415-020-10304-9
- Zhou WC, Tao JX, Li J (2021) Optical coherence tomography measurements as potential imaging biomarkers for Parkinson's disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Eur J Neurol 28(3):763–774. https://doi.org/10.1111/ ene.14613
- Garcia-Martin E, Larrosa JM, Polo V, Satue M, Marques ML, Alarcia R et al (2014) Distribution of retinal layer atrophy in patients with Parkinson disease and association with disease severity and duration. Am J Ophthalmol 157(2):470–8 e2. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajo.2013.09.028
- Albrecht P, Muller AK, Sudmeyer M, Ferrea S, Ringelstein M, Cohn E et al (2012) Optical coherence tomography in parkinsonian syndromes. PLoS ONE 7(4):e34891. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0034891
- Bodis-Wollner I, Kozlowski PB, Glazman S, Miri S (2014) alpha-synuclein in the inner retina in parkinson disease. Ann Neurol 75(6):964–966. https://doi.org/10. 1002/ana.24182

- Breen DP, Vuono R, Nawarathna U, Fisher K, Shneerson JM, Reddy AB et al (2014) Sleep and circadian rhythm regulation in early Parkinson disease. JAMA Neurol 71(5):589–595. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaneurol.2014. 65
- Joyce DS, Feigl B, Kerr G, Roeder L, Zele AJ (2018) Melanopsin-mediated pupil function is impaired in Parkinson's disease. Sci Rep 8(1):7796. https://doi.org/10. 1038/s41598-018-26078-0
- Provencio I, Rodriguez IR, Jiang G, Hayes WP, Moreira EF, Rollag MD (2000) A novel human opsin in the inner retina. J Neurosci 20(2):600–605. https://doi.org/10.1523/ JNEUROSCI.20-02-00600.2000
- 44. Ostrin LA, Strang CE, Chang K, Jnawali A, Hung LF, Arumugam B et al (2018) Immunotoxin-induced ablation of the intrinsically photosensitive retinal ganglion cells in rhesus monkeys. Front Neurol 9:1000. https://doi.org/10. 3389/fneur.2018.01000
- Mandrekar JN (2010) Receiver operating characteristic curve in diagnostic test assessment. J Thorac Oncol 5(9):1315–1316. https://doi.org/10.1097/JTO.0b013e3181 ec173d
- 46. Popova E (2014) Role of dopamine in distal retina. J Comp Physiol A Neuroethol Sens Neural Behav Physiol 200(5):333–358. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s00359-014-0906-2
- Popova E, Kostov M, Kupenova P (2016) Effects of dopamine D(1) receptor blockade on the ERG b- and d-waves during blockade of ionotropic GABA receptors. Eye Vis 3:32. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40662-016-0064-4
- Ikeda H, Head GM, Ellis CJ (1994) Electrophysiological signs of retinal dopamine deficiency in recently diagnosed Parkinson's disease and a follow up study. Vis Res 34(19):2629–2638. https://doi.org/10.1016/0042-6989(94)90248-8

**Publisher's Note** Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.