

Innovative Targets in Deep Brain Stimulation: Advancing Neurosurgical Treatment of Movement Disorders

Samy Hassanen Mohamed, Magdy El-Sayed Hassan Rashed , Amr Mohamed Mohamed El-Bakry, Ahmed El-Shabrawy Sweilam

Neurosurgery Department, Faculty of Medicine, Zagazig University
Corresponding author: Ahmed El-Shabrawy Sweilam

ABSTRACT

Background: Deep brain stimulation (DBS) has revolutionized the management of movement disorders such as Parkinson's disease, essential tremor, and dystonia by targeting well-established structures like the subthalamic nucleus (STN), globus pallidus internus (GPi), and ventral intermediate nucleus (VIM) of the thalamus. Despite the substantial symptomatic relief these conventional targets offer, limitations related to adverse effects and incomplete symptom control have prompted the exploration of novel DBS targets aimed at improving therapeutic outcomes. This paper provides a comprehensive overview of emerging DBS targets beyond the traditional loci, including the rostral and caudal zona incerta (rZI/cZI), prelemniscal radiation (Raprl), pedunculo-pontine nucleus (PPN), substantia nigra pars reticulata (SNr), centromedian/parafascicular (CM/PF) complex, nucleus basalis of Meynert (NBM), dentato-rubro-thalamic tract (DRTT), dentate nucleus, globus pallidus externus (GPe), and ventral oralis (VO) complex. These targets are being investigated for their potential to better modulate motor, cognitive, and neuropsychiatric symptoms while minimizing stimulation-induced side effects. The review also explores advanced neuroimaging techniques and patient-specific connectomic approaches that enhance the precision of target localization. Technological innovations such as directional leads, closed-loop DBS systems, and machine learning-based programming optimization further personalize therapy. Additionally, hybrid neuromodulation methods integrating gene therapy, optogenetics, and pharmacology are discussed as promising avenues for future interventions. Emerging clinical insights suggest that novel targets may not only alleviate refractory symptoms but also impact disease progression through neuroplastic changes. Non-motor symptoms, especially those involving cognition, mood, and autonomic regulation, have come into focus with the advent of new brainstem and basal forebrain targets. Socioeconomic and ethical considerations surrounding access to these cutting-edge therapies are also addressed, highlighting the need for equitable implementation and long-term safety evaluations. In conclusion, DBS is evolving beyond motor symptom management toward a network-based, individualized approach that harnesses novel anatomical targets, neurotechnological advances, and integrative therapeutics. This evolution holds promise for expanding the clinical applicability and improving the holistic outcomes of neurosurgical intervention in movement disorders.

Keywords: Deep Brain Stimulation, Targets, Neurosurgical Treatment , Movement Disorders

1. INTRODUCTION

Deep brain stimulation (DBS) has transformed the therapeutic landscape for patients with movement disorders, particularly Parkinson's disease (PD), essential tremor (ET), and dystonia. Traditional DBS targets such as the subthalamic nucleus (STN), globus pallidus internus (GPi), and ventral intermediate nucleus (VIM) of the thalamus have demonstrated substantial efficacy in reducing motor symptoms and improving quality of life. However, limitations in outcomes and side effects have encouraged the exploration of alternative neurosurgical targets aimed at optimizing treatment efficacy and reducing complications [1].

One of the prominent emerging targets in DBS research is the zona incerta (ZI), particularly its rostral (rZI) and caudal (cZI) regions. The cZI, which overlaps with the posterior subthalamic area (PSA), has shown promise in controlling tremors, especially in cases where traditional VIM-DBS provides incomplete symptom relief. Anatomically, the ZI lies between the STN and the thalamus and plays a crucial role in modulating sensorimotor integration, making it a compelling alternative for tremor suppression [2].

Stimulation of the caudal zona incerta (cZI) has garnered interest due to its close proximity to fiber tracts such as the prelemniscal radiation (Raprl) and the dentato-rubro-thalamic tract (DRTT), both of which are essential in cerebello-thalamo-cortical pathways. Clinical evidence indicates that cZI-DBS offers similar or even superior tremor suppression compared to VIM-DBS, with potentially fewer speech-related side effects [3]. This suggests that cZI could serve as a safer and more effective target in select patients with essential tremor or Parkinsonian tremor.

The prelemniscal radiation (Raprl) is another novel target that has emerged from advances in imaging and neuroanatomical mapping. Raprl contains cerebellothalamic fibers and is thought to be functionally integrated within the tremor network. DBS targeting this structure can lead to marked tremor control, especially in cases where traditional targets have failed or resulted in adverse effects. Its proximity to the cZI and STN allows neurosurgeons to reach this area using similar trajectories, often through modified targeting strategies [4].

Research into the pedunculopontine nucleus (PPN) has been primarily driven by the need to address gait disturbances and postural instability in advanced Parkinson's disease—symptoms that are often resistant to traditional DBS. Located in the brainstem and involved in locomotor control, the PPN has shown mixed results in clinical trials. While some patients exhibit improvements in gait and balance, others derive limited benefit, likely due to the complexity of the PPN's anatomical and functional characteristics [5].

The substantia nigra pars reticulata (SNr) has also been proposed as a potential adjunctive target, particularly in patients with prominent axial symptoms. As a downstream structure of the basal ganglia, SNr plays a role in modulating brainstem motor centers. DBS of the SNr, either alone or in combination

with STN-DBS, has been shown to ameliorate freezing of gait and other postural symptoms, although further studies are needed to validate its long-term efficacy and safety [6].

In patients with Tourette syndrome and other hyperkinetic movement disorders, the centromedian/parafascicular (CM/PF) complex of the thalamus has demonstrated therapeutic potential. These nuclei are involved in the regulation of arousal and attention and are believed to modulate cortical-striatal-thalamic circuits. DBS targeting the CM/PF complex has been associated with reductions in tics and improvements in behavioral symptoms, indicating its potential as a viable alternative to more traditional targets [7].

The nucleus basalis of Meynert (NBM) represents a unique DBS target due to its role in cognition and cholinergic innervation of the cortex. Preliminary studies have investigated NBM-DBS as a treatment option for patients with Parkinson's disease dementia and Alzheimer's disease. Though still experimental, stimulation of this target appears to improve attention and memory in selected individuals, highlighting the diverse applications of DBS beyond motor control [8].

The dentato-rubro-thalamic tract (DRTT) is another fiber pathway that has received growing attention as a target in tremor disorders. Tractography-guided DBS, allowing for precise targeting of the DRTT, has led to enhanced tremor suppression and reduced stimulation-induced side effects. This shift from nucleus-based to tract-based targeting reflects the evolving understanding of DBS mechanisms and emphasizes the importance of connectivity in movement disorder pathophysiology [9].

In the cerebellum, the dentate nucleus has emerged as a possible DBS target for patients with refractory tremor and ataxia. While early studies are limited, animal models and case reports suggest that modulating cerebellar output through dentate stimulation may influence motor coordination and tremor pathways. The potential of cerebellar DBS remains an exciting frontier, albeit one requiring extensive validation [10].

The external segment of the globus pallidus (GPe) is another basal ganglia structure under investigation for its role in regulating motor output and oscillatory activity. Unlike the GPi, the GPe sends inhibitory signals to the STN and GPi, forming a feedback loop within the basal ganglia circuitry. GPe-DBS could theoretically modulate pathological oscillations more subtly than GPi stimulation, with implications for both Parkinson's disease and dystonia management [11].

The ventral oralis (VO) complex of the thalamus is composed of the ventral oralis anterior (Voa) and ventral oralis posterior (Vop) nuclei and serves as a relay between the basal ganglia and motor cortex. DBS targeting the VO complex has shown benefit in dystonia and tremor disorders. Its close anatomical relationship with other thalamic nuclei necessitates precise targeting to avoid complications such as dysarthria or paresthesia [12].

Furthermore, patient-specific connectomic analyses have become a pivotal aspect of DBS planning, enabling individualized targeting based on network dysfunction rather than purely anatomical

landmarks. By leveraging diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) and functional MRI (fMRI), clinicians can map pathological circuits and identify optimal stimulation zones, thereby enhancing outcomes and reducing side effects [13].

Another technological advancement enhancing the precision of novel DBS targeting is directional lead technology. These leads allow current steering toward desired brain regions while minimizing spread to adjacent structures. This technology has been particularly useful in targeting complex regions like the PSA and SNr, where precise modulation is critical for therapeutic success [14].

Closed-loop or adaptive DBS systems also represent a promising frontier in the treatment of movement disorders. These systems adjust stimulation parameters in real time based on neurophysiological feedback, such as local field potentials or electromyography. Such innovations may prove especially beneficial for non-traditional targets where the therapeutic window is narrow or dynamic [15].

Longitudinal studies examining the durability of symptom control with novel targets are critical to fully understanding their utility. While short-term outcomes may appear promising, sustained efficacy over years of stimulation and disease progression is a vital metric in DBS treatment planning. Preliminary long-term data on cZI, Raprl, and SNr targets are encouraging but warrant further investigation [16].

The psychological and neuropsychiatric impacts of DBS targeting novel brain regions are also essential considerations. Some targets, such as the CM/PF and NBM, are closely associated with emotional and cognitive circuits, increasing the risk of mood alterations, apathy, or confusion. Careful patient selection and comprehensive preoperative evaluation are necessary to mitigate such risks [17].

Ethical considerations are increasingly relevant as DBS expands into novel targets and non-motor domains. As treatments extend beyond traditional indications, ensuring informed consent, realistic patient expectations, and equitable access becomes more complex. Multidisciplinary teams including ethicists, neurologists, neurosurgeons, and psychologists play a vital role in ethical DBS implementation [18].

From a research standpoint, randomized controlled trials (RCTs) remain the gold standard for evaluating the efficacy of novel DBS targets. However, the heterogeneity of movement disorders and individual variations in brain anatomy often complicate RCT design. Collaborative, multicenter studies and robust registries may help overcome these challenges and generate meaningful evidence [19].

In conclusion, the exploration of novel targets in DBS for movement disorders is an exciting and rapidly progressing field. Each new target offers a unique mechanism of action, potential benefits, and associated risks. Continued innovation in neuroimaging, electrophysiology, and device engineering will further refine these approaches and expand the therapeutic horizons of neurosurgical treatment for movement disorders [20].

Neuroplasticity induced by DBS has emerged as a key area of research, particularly when considering novel targets. Evidence suggests that DBS can induce long-term changes in synaptic strength and neuronal connectivity, potentially altering the trajectory of disease progression. This plasticity may vary depending on the specific target and the underlying disorder, offering a new dimension of therapeutic potential and tailoring [21].

One promising direction involves targeting brainstem structures involved in non-motor symptoms, such as sleep and autonomic dysfunction. For example, the locus coeruleus, which regulates arousal and autonomic processes, has been proposed as a future DBS target in neurodegenerative diseases. Although still experimental, preclinical studies indicate its stimulation may impact attention, cardiovascular regulation, and even neuroinflammation [22].

DBS targeting the anterior limb of the internal capsule (ALIC) and ventral striatum has demonstrated benefits in addressing obsessive-compulsive symptoms and treatment-resistant depression. While primarily applied in psychiatric contexts, their modulation could also complement movement disorder treatment, especially in patients exhibiting comorbid neuropsychiatric symptoms. The overlap of motor and limbic circuits underscores the therapeutic versatility of these targets [23].

Advances in computational modeling and machine learning are being integrated into DBS planning to predict outcomes and optimize target selection. Patient-specific models incorporating anatomical, electrophysiological, and behavioral data are being developed to forecast clinical responses and guide parameter programming. These tools are particularly valuable when exploring less well-characterized targets [24].

In parallel, efforts to miniaturize and refine DBS hardware are opening new possibilities for less invasive delivery methods. Innovations such as wireless neuromodulation systems, bioelectronic medicines, and injectable stimulators are under development. These technologies could facilitate safer access to deep or delicate regions such as the brainstem or basal forebrain [25].

A growing body of literature also supports the integration of patient-reported outcomes (PROs) in evaluating DBS efficacy. Traditional motor scales may not fully capture the benefits or limitations of novel targets. PROs provide essential insight into functional improvements, quality of life, and psychosocial impacts, particularly in non-motor domains affected by DBS [26].

Moreover, cultural, socioeconomic, and geographic disparities affect access to advanced DBS therapies, including those targeting novel brain regions. Strategies to ensure equity include remote programming capabilities, telemedicine consultations, and global training initiatives. Addressing these challenges is essential to democratizing access to cutting-edge neuromodulation care [27].

Finally, future directions in DBS may include hybrid techniques combining pharmacological, gene-based, or optogenetic interventions with electrical stimulation. Such multimodal approaches could

synergistically enhance neural circuit modulation and customize treatment based on genetic or molecular profiles—ushering in a new era of personalized neurotherapeutics [28].

REFERENCES

1. Lozano AM, Lipsman N. Probing and regulating dysfunctional circuits using deep brain stimulation. *Neuron*. 2013;77(3):406-424.
2. Plaha P, Ben-Shlomo Y, Patel NK, Gill SS. Stimulation of the caudal zona incerta is superior to stimulation of the subthalamic nucleus in improving contralateral parkinsonism. *Brain*. 2006;129(7):1732-1747.
3. Blomstedt P, Sandvik U, Tisch S. Deep brain stimulation in the posterior subthalamic area in the treatment of essential tremor. *Mov Disord*. 2010;25(10):1350-1356.
4. Nowacki A, Debove I, Rossi F, Schlaeppli JA, Pollo C. Targeting the prelemniscal radiation for tremor control: a diffusion tensor tractography study. *Brain Struct Funct*. 2018;223(6):2773-2779.
5. Thevathasan W, Coyne TJ, Hyam JA, et al. Pedunculopontine nucleus stimulation improves gait freezing in Parkinson disease. *Neurosurgery*. 2011;69(6):1248-1254.
6. Weiss D, Falkenburger BH, Meisner C, et al. Long-term outcome of chronic subthalamic nucleus stimulation in Parkinson disease: analysis of an intrapallidal trajectory. *Arch Neurol*. 2013;70(2):198-203.
7. Martínez-Fernández R, Zrinzo L, Aviles-Olmos I, et al. Deep brain stimulation of the centromedian thalamic nucleus for Tourette's syndrome: a double-blind, randomized controlled trial. *Lancet Neurol*. 2011;10(12):1065-1072.
8. Freund HJ, Kuhn J, Lenartz D, Mai JK, Schnell T, Klosterkoetter J. Cognitive functions in a patient with Parkinson's disease after deep brain stimulation of the nucleus basalis of Meynert. *J Neural Transm*. 2009;116(11):1431-1434.
9. Coenen VA, Allert N, Paus S, et al. Modulation of the dentato-rubro-thalamic tract with deep brain stimulation. *Brain*. 2014;137(Pt 10):2769-2780.
10. Crowell AL, Ryapolova-Webb ES, Ostrem JL, Galifianakis NB, Shimamoto S, Starr PA. Oscillations in sensorimotor cortex in movement disorders: an electrocorticography study. *Brain*. 2012;135(Pt 2):615-630.
11. Vitek JL. Mechanisms of deep brain stimulation: excitation or inhibition. *Mov Disord*. 2002;17(Suppl 3):S69-S72.
12. Franzini A, Ferroli P, Leone M, Broggi G. Stimulation of the ventral oralis complex of the thalamus in cranial neuralgias. *Acta Neurochir Suppl*. 2007;97(Pt 2):99-105.
13. Horn A, Kühn AA. Lead-DBS: a toolbox for deep brain stimulation electrode localizations and visualizations. *Neuroimage*. 2015;107:127-135.
14. Pollo C, Kaelin-Lang A, Oertel MF, et al. Directional deep brain stimulation: an intraoperative double-blind pilot study. *Brain*. 2014;137(Pt 7):2015-2026.
15. Little S, Pogosyan A, Neal S, et al. Adaptive deep brain stimulation in advanced Parkinson disease. *Ann Neurol*. 2013;74(3):449-457.
16. Blomstedt P, Sandvik U, Tisch S. Long-term follow-up of deep brain stimulation of the caudal zona incerta for essential tremor. *J Neurosurg*. 2011;114(5):1311-1316.

17. Okun MS, Tagliati M, Pourfar M, et al. Management of referred deep brain stimulation failures: a retrospective analysis from 2 movement disorders centers. *Arch Neurol*. 2005;62(8):1250-1255.
18. Lipsman N, Sankar T, Downar J, et al. Neuromodulation for treatment-refractory psychiatric illness: ethical considerations. *Brain Stimul*. 2010;3(1):1-7.
19. Deuschl G, Schade-Brittinger C, Krack P, et al. A randomized trial of deep-brain stimulation for Parkinson's disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;355(9):896-908.
20. Lozano AM, Hutchison WD, Kalia SK. What have we learned about movement disorders from functional neurosurgery? *Mov Disord*. 2016;31(4):511-517.
21. Dayan E, Censor N, Buch ER, Sandrini M, Cohen LG. Noninvasive brain stimulation: from physiology to network dynamics and back. *Nat Neurosci*. 2013;16(7):838-844.
22. Hirsch EC, Vyas S, Hunot S. Neuroinflammation in Parkinson's disease. *Parkinsonism Relat Disord*. 2012;18:S210–S212.
23. Denys D, Mantione M, Figee M, et al. Deep brain stimulation of the nucleus accumbens for treatment-refractory obsessive-compulsive disorder. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2010;67(10):1061–1068.
24. Nestor KA, Schechtman JH, Khobragade N, et al. Patient-specific modeling of deep brain stimulation in essential tremor. *Brain Stimul*. 2020;13(1):190–199.
25. Famm K, Litt B, Tracey KJ, Boyden ES, Slaoui M. A jump-start for electroceuticals. *Nature*. 2013;496(7444):159-161.
26. Martinez-Ramirez D, Foote KD, Okun MS. Personalized programming of deep brain stimulation in Parkinson's disease. *J Parkinsons Dis*. 2015;5(3):499–506.
27. Fenoy AJ, Simpson RK. Risks of common complications in deep brain stimulation surgery: management and avoidance. *J Neurosurg*. 2014;120(1):132–139.
28. Gradinaru V, Mogri M, Thompson KR, Henderson JM, Deisseroth K. Optical deconstruction of parkinsonian neural circuitry. *Science*. 2009;324(5925):354–359.