

Oculomotor Training Improves Vision & Symptoms

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7 **Oculomotor Training for Poor Pursuits Improves Functional Vision Scores and**

8 **Neurobehavioral Symptoms**

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Abstract

Smooth pursuit eye movements (SPEM) are critical to humans' ability to see and interact with the world. However, limitations exist in the assessment of oculomotor training designed to improve SPEM. The purpose of this study was to determine if participants with pre-determined poor SPEM improved via a standardized oculomotor training program. A secondary objective was to accurately quantify change in SPEM using eye tracking. A third objective was to examine participants' neurobehavioral symptoms before and after oculomotor training using the Neurobehavioral Symptom Inventory (NSI). Participants were randomly assigned to the control or intervention group. The intervention group engaged in 10 minutes of oculomotor training daily for 5 days. Results revealed significant interactions between groups. SPEM metrics showed improved tracking abilities (on-target, predictive and latent) for the intervention group. The NSI showed significant reduction in all neurobehavioral factors and of a total summation of symptoms. Future research should consider examination of eye movement metrics for saccades and gaze stability using this oculomotor training program.

Keywords: *Functional vision, oculomotor training, smooth pursuit eye movements*

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35 **Acronyms**

- 36 CG Control group
- 37 CRT Choice reaction time
- 38 CSP Circular smooth pursuit
- 39 DRT Discriminate reaction time
- 40 FVEQ Functional Vision EyeQ
- 41 HS Horizontal saccades
- 42 HSP Horizontal smooth pursuit
- 43 IG Intervention group
- 44 NSI Neurobehavioral Symptom Inventory
- 45 MST Middle superior temporal
- 46 MT Middle temporal
- 47 SPEM Smooth pursuit eye movement
- 48 PSP Progressive Supranuclear Palsy
- 49 VSP Vertical smooth pursuit
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Introduction

Smooth pursuit eye movements (SPEM) are critical to our ability to see, process and respond to our environment. The purpose of SPEM is to stabilize the image of a moving object on the fovea. The fovea is used to see the image in detail and with high acuity, therefore where objects are moving, such as watching a ball in flight or a car in motion, smooth pursuit eye movements are used to see the ball and car in detail and to judge the speed of such objects to account for follow-on motor responses. By trying to stabilize the target on the fovea, SPEM is continually translating signals and converting deviations from the ideal trajectory into compensatory eye movements (Thier & Llg, 2005). Hence, SPEM is deeply integrated in the eye-brain connection. Eye movements, such as SPEM, have brain-related anatomical circuits that make distinct contributions to the eye movement and ultimately to action. SPEM are mediated by a cerebro-ponto-cerebellar pathway (Thier & Llg, 2005). The cerebral cortex contains several frontal and parietooccipital areas that have distinct roles in generating SPEM. Visual area middle temporal (MT) is a visual motion processor that contributes to smooth pursuit by extracting retinal motion of the target. Lesions in this area have resulted in an inability to track targets within the confines of the motion scotoma (Dursteler & Wurtz, 1988). SPEM are also foreseen by the middle superior temporal (MST) area that represents an object in motion in world-centered coordinates (Llg, Schumann & Thier, 2004). A lesion in the MST causes and directional error; lowered speed toward the side of the lesion (Wong 2008).

The cerebellum uses at least two areas for processing signals relevant to smooth pursuit: the flocculus–paraflocculus complex; and the posterior vermis. Lesions in the cerebellum show mild deficits in horizontal and vertical pursuits in both directions and Vestibular Ocular Reflex (VOR) cancellation if the lesion is unilateral in the VPF. Bilateral lesions of the flocculus and

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74 VPF result in severe deficit in horizontal and vertical pursuits in both directions and VOR
75 cancellation. Lesions in the vermis region of the cerebellum result in ipsiversive horizontal
76 smooth pursuits. Lesions in the fastigial nucleus result in deficits in the contraversive horizontal
77 pursuit (Wong, 2008). Lesions starting from the medial vestibular nucleus also affect the VOR
78 because the pursuit and the VOR share similar pathways from this point forward. Hence
79 resulting symptoms tend to overlap.

80 When a person can effectively use their eyes to smooth pursuit then follow on, cognitive
81 processes are enabled. For example, effective tracking of a car allows the person to determine
82 speed, time-to-interception and ultimately decision making such as when to cross the road. Such
83 activities facilitate the integration of head movements into smooth-pursuit behaviors and the
84 coordination of perception and action (Ilg, Schumann & Thier, 2004). As a person ages, smooth
85 pursuit performance often declines. This decline is commonly tied to the cerebellar disease and
86 drugs that effect the nervous system (Leigh & Zee, 2000).

87 Optimization and repair of smooth pursuits can be enhanced using oculomotor training.
88 Eye movement training is based on neuroplasticity, which is the foundation of the rehabilitation.
89 Eye movement training has been used to improve those with clinical conditions who display poor
90 performance, as well as to those trying to achieve elite performance in sport. Oculomotor
91 training, including pursuit training, has been shown to be successful in improving various
92 clinical conditions including gait functions (Kwon-Young Kang, & Kyung-Hoon Yu, 2016);
93 macular degeneration (Janssen & Verghese, 2016); progressive retinitis pigmentosa (Yoshida et
94 al., 2014); cognitive function, depression and functional ability (Eksteen & Wyk, 2015),
95 mitigation of tunnel vision (Ivanov, Mackeben, Vollmer, Martus, Nguyen & Trauzettel-
96 Klosinski, 2016) and Progressive Supranuclear Palsy (PSP; Zampieri & Di Fabio, 2009).

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97 Additionally, training specific to pursuit eye movements has been successful in mitigating spatial
98 neglect following a stroke (Hill, Coats, Halstead, & Burke, 2015; Kerkhoff, Bucher, & Brasse,
99 2014). Eye movement training has shown to improve performance in elite level personnel as
100 well. Zupan, Arata, Wile and Parker (2006) used eye movement training to improve Airforce
101 fighter pilot's reaction time, near-far focusing and number of saccades.

102 The current state of eye movement interventions has been created using clinically
103 relevant principles of neuroscience, neurology, motor learning and rehabilitation. However,
104 limitations exist in the sensitivity and specificity of the eye movement outcome measures from
105 such interventions. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine if participants with pre-
106 determined poor pursuits improved via a standardized oculomotor training program. A secondary
107 objective was to accurately quantify change in SPEM using eye tracking. A third objective was
108 to examine a participants' neurobehavioral symptoms before and after oculomotor training using
109 the Neurobehavioral Symptom Inventory (NSI; Cicerone, 1995).

110 **Methodology**

111 **Participants**

112 A total of 92 participants were considered for inclusion in this study. The Intervention
113 Group (IG) included 46 participants who completed the "EyeQ Trainer" exercises and no other
114 oculomotor training. The Control Group (CG) included 46 participants who no engaged in no
115 oculomotor training at all. Participants were between the ages of 12-68 years ($M = 41$, $SD = 22$).
116 Participants in the IG were between the ages of 12-58 ($M = 35$, $SD = 23$). There were 13 males
117 (28%) and 33 females (72%) in the IG. In the CG there were 24 males (52%) and 22 females
118 (48%). Participants were recruited through RightEye clinical providers.

119 **Apparatus**

120 Testing and training interventions were carried out on the same apparatus. Stimuli were
121 presented using the RightEye tests on a Tobii I15 vision 15” monitor fitted with a Tobii 90 Hz
122 remote eye tracker and a Logitech (model Y-R0017) wireless keyboard and mouse. The
123 participants were seated in a stationary (non-wheeled) chair that could not be adjusted in height.
124 They sat in front of a desk in a quiet, private room. Participants’ heads were unconstrained. The
125 accuracy of the Tobii eye tracker was 0.4° within the desired headbox of 32 cm × 21 cm at 56 cm
126 from the screen. For standardization of testing, participants were asked to sit in front of the eye
127 tracking system at an exact measured distance of 56 cm which is the ideal positioning within the
128 headbox range of the eye tracker.

129 **Oculomotor Testing Tasks.** Pre and post-tests were conducted using the same set of
130 oculomotor tasks, collectively called “Functional Vision EyeQ”. These tasks included three
131 smooth pursuit tests, 2 saccade tests, one fixation test, two reaction time tests.

132 *Pursuit Tests:* Three types of pursuit tests were run. A Circular Smooth Pursuit (CSP),
133 Horizontal Smooth Pursuit (HSP) and Vertical Smooth Pursuit (VSP). Participants were asked to
134 “follow the dot, on the screen, as accurately as possible with their eyes”. The dot was 0.2 degrees
135 in diameter and moved at a speed of 25 degrees of visual angle per second. The tests were taken
136 with a black background with white dot and lasted 20s. The diameter of movement of the CSP
137 circle was 20 degrees.

138 *Self-Paced Saccade Tests* (for more details see Hunfalvai, Roberts, Murray, Tyagi, Kelly
139 & Bolte, 2019): In the Horizontal Saccade (HS) test, participants were asked to look at a
140 countdown of three, two, one in the center of the screen before moving their eyes back and forth
141 between two dots. Their goal was to ‘target each dot’ on the left and right of the screen as
142 quickly and accurately as possible. The targets were 10 cm apart and 1 cm in diameter. The tests

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143 were taken with a black background with white dots and lasted 10 seconds. The protocol for the
144 Vertical Saccade (VS) test was the same as that for the HS test. However, the VS test was in a
145 vertical plane.

146 *Fixation Test:* In the Fixation Test (FS), participants were asked to look at three different
147 optotypes for seven seconds each with a three second break between. Optotype 1 was a cross the
148 size of one-degree of visual angle. Optotype 2 was a circular dot, of one-degree in size. Optotype
149 3 was a small four-point diamond, that is 3 cm in size on the edge. The tests were taken with a
150 white background with black dots and lasted a total of 30-seconds, including the breaks.

151 *Reaction Time Tests:* Two reaction time tests were given; a Choice Reaction Time test
152 (CRT) and Discriminate Reaction Time test (DRT; see Lange, Hunfalvay, Murray, Roberts,
153 Bolte, 2018). In brief, the CRT test, the participant viewed three stimuli and was asked to
154 provide one of three responses. In the DRT test, the participant viewed three stimuli and was
155 required to respond to only one stimulus.

156 **The Functional Vision EyeQ Score (FVEQ):** includes a linear combination of saccade,
157 pursuit, fixation and reaction time oculomotor variables. A total of 58 metrics make up the
158 model. Weights range from 0.1 to 13% across metrics.

159 **Oculomotor Training Tasks.** Training exercises took 5 minutes and were conducted
160 twice a day, once in the morning and once in the evening, for a total of five days. The training
161 exercises assigned took participants through a series of exercises including: Down-gaze Central
162 No-No, Up-gaze Central No-No, Down Right-Diagonal Saccades followed by Upward Pursuit,
163 and Down Left-Diagonal Saccades followed by Upward Pursuit. For Down-gaze Central No-No,
164 participants are asked to tilt their head to the top line and then back to center, when they see the
165 target presented on screen. They were required to repeat the process, each time the target

166 jumped. For Up-gaze Central No-No, participants are asked to move their head one time to the
167 bottom line and then back to the center, when they see the target presented on screen. They were
168 asked to repeat the process, each time the target jumped.

169 **Procedure**

170 Participants were pre-selected via the clinical provider database if they met the following
171 criteria: (1) they had pursuit eye movements that were in the bottom 25th percentile compared to
172 age-matched controls and (2) if they had less than 30 days since their last visual assessment.

173 ****Table 1 about here****

174 The nature of the study was explained to the participants, and they were provided with a written
175 University approved informed consent to participate. The study was conducted in accordance
176 with the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki. The study protocols were approved by the
177 Institutional Review Board of East Carolina University. Following informed consent,
178 participants were asked to complete a pre-screening test. Participants were excluded from the
179 study if they reported past head injury, any neurological condition, or static visual acuity of
180 greater than 20/400. Participants were also excluded if they were unable to pass a 9-point
181 calibration sequence. Following pre-screening, participants completed the Neurobehavioral
182 Symptom Inventory (NSI) and then took the “Functional Vision EyeQ” series of tests. Once
183 testing was complete, they were randomly assigned to the oculomotor training (IG) or to the CG.
184 The IG did the RightEye “EyeQ Trainer” exercises and no other interventions. The CG did not
185 do the RightEye “EyeQ Trainer” exercises nor any other intervention. After training was
186 complete the participant returned for a post-test “Functional Vision EyeQ” and completed the
187 NSI and debriefing of the study.

188 **Data Analysis**

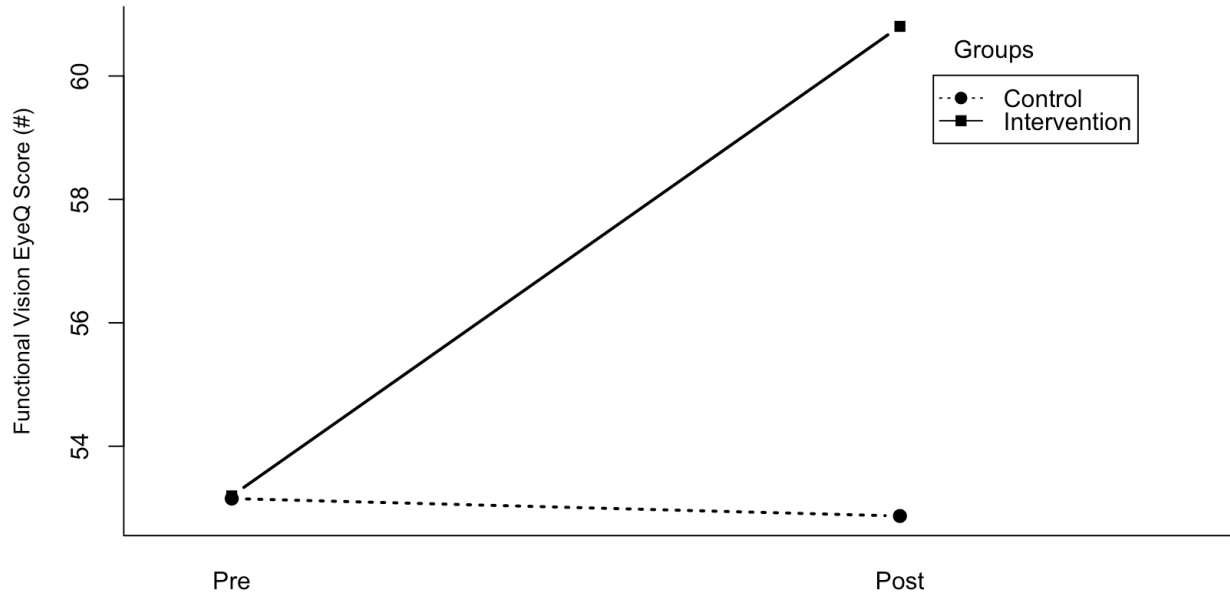
189 Separate 2 (Group) x 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVAs were used to determine
190 differences in RightEye Test Metrics: “Functional Vision EyeQ” Score (#), latent, predictive and
191 on-target smooth pursuit percentages between the two Groups (Control and Intervention) and
192 over Time (Pre and Post Assessments). The NSI similarly analyzed (2 (Group x 2 (Time)
193 ANOVA) using the dependent variables of Q23, which asked participants to “rate your overall
194 symptoms.” Total Score and the 4-Factor scoring approach (Vestibular, Somatosensory,
195 Cognitive, and Affective; Dretsch, et al., 2016). The 4-Factors included vestibular ($n = 3$),
196 somatosensory ($n = 7$), cognitive ($n = 4$) and affective ($n = 6$). As well as a summated total score
197 of 22 factors. We used simple effects post hoc test for significant main effects and interactions.

198 **Results**

199 *Functional Vision EyeQ Score*

200 The ANOVA results for the “Functional Vision EyeQ” Score (Figure 1) demonstrated a
201 non-significant main effect for Group (Intervention, Control) ($p = .344$); however there was a
202 significant main effect for Time (Pre, Post), $F(1, 90) = 4.00, p = .048, \eta^2_g = .01$ and more
203 importantly a significant interaction (Group x Time), $F(1, 90) = 4.65, p = .034, \eta^2_g = .01$. Simple
204 effects revealed a slight decrease in the “Functional Vision EyeQ” Score for control from pre
205 (53.15) to post (52.87); however, the intervention group’s score increased from pre (53.20) to
206 post (60.80) (See Table 2).

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Pre Vs Post Assessment - Metric Values

208 **Figure 1:** Pre and Post Assessment Functional Vision EyeQ Scores for Control and Intervention
209 groups.

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****Table 2 about here****

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On-Target Smooth Pursuit (%)

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On-Target Smooth Pursuit (Figure 2) demonstrated a non-significant main effect for Group

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(Intervention, Control) ($p = .776$) and non-significant main effect for Time (Pre, Post), ($p =$

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0.253); however there was a significant interaction (Group x Time), $F(1, 90) = 4.29, p = .041, \eta^2_g$

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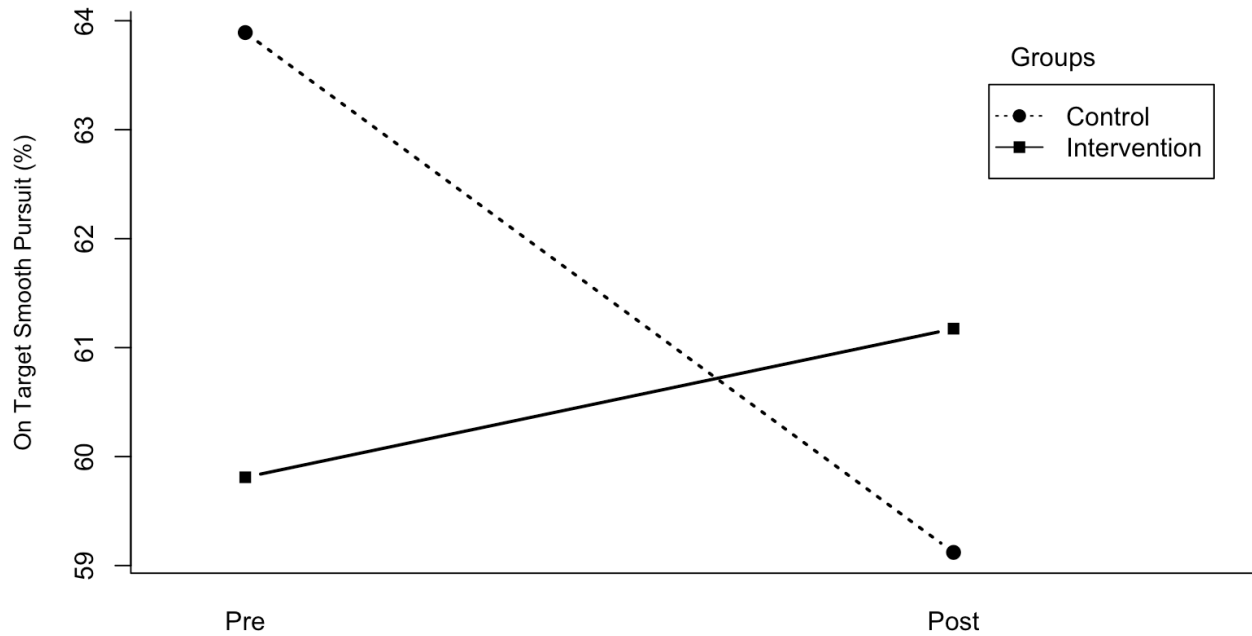
$= .01$. Simple effects revealed a decrease in On-Target Smooth Pursuit for control from pre

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(63.89) to post (59.12); however, the intervention group's metric value increased from pre

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(59.81) to post (61.17).



Pre Vs Post Assessment - Metric Values

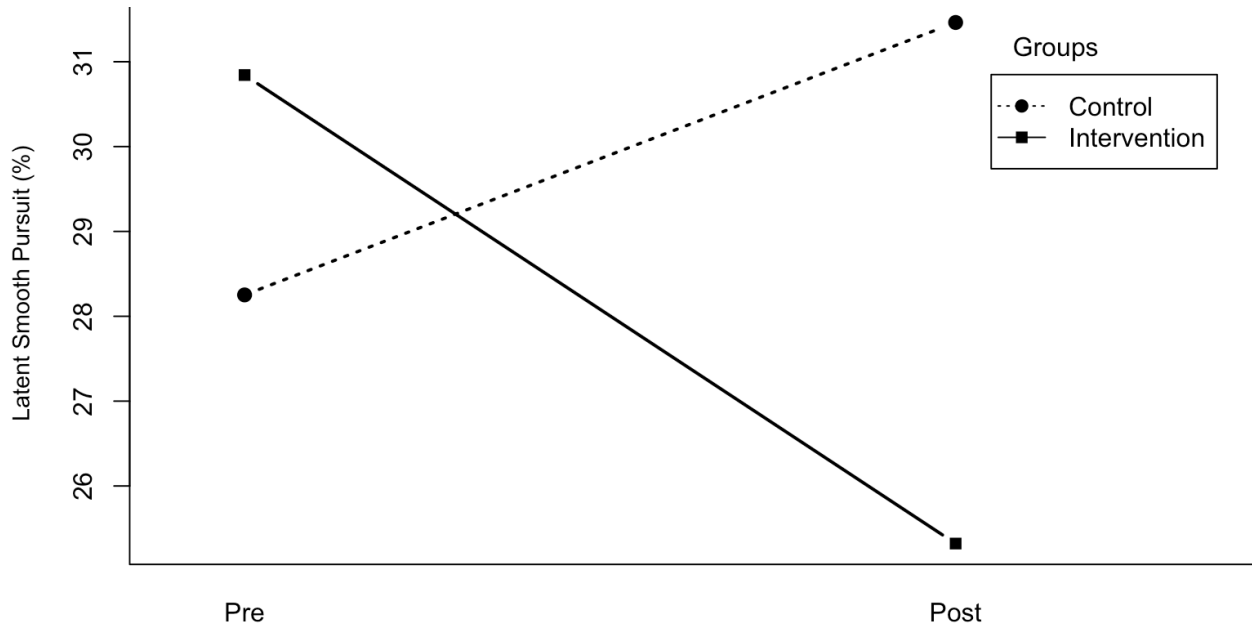
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219 **Figure 2:** Pre and Post Assessment On-Target Smooth Pursuit (%) Scores for Control and
 220 Intervention groups.

221 *Latent Smooth Pursuit Metric*

222 Latent Smooth Pursuit (%), Figure 3) demonstrated a non-significant main effect for
 223 Group (Intervention, Control) ($p = .604$) and non-significant main effect for Time (Pre, Post), (p
 224 $= .564$); however there was a significant main effect for Interaction (Group x Time), $F(1, 26) =$
 225 $4.87, p = .036, \eta^2_g = .05$. Simple effects revealed an increase in the Latent Smooth Pursuit (%)
 226 for control from pre (28.25) to post (31.46); however, the intervention group's metric value
 227 decreased from pre (30.84) to post (25.32).

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Pre Vs Post Assessment - Metric Values

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229 **Figure 3:** Pre and Post Assessment Latent Smooth Pursuit (%) Scores for Control and

230 Intervention groups.

231 *Predictive Smooth Pursuit (%)*

232 Predictive Smooth Pursuit (Figure 4) demonstrated a non-significant main effect for Group

233 (Intervention, Control) ($p = .865$); however there was a significant main effect for Time (Pre,

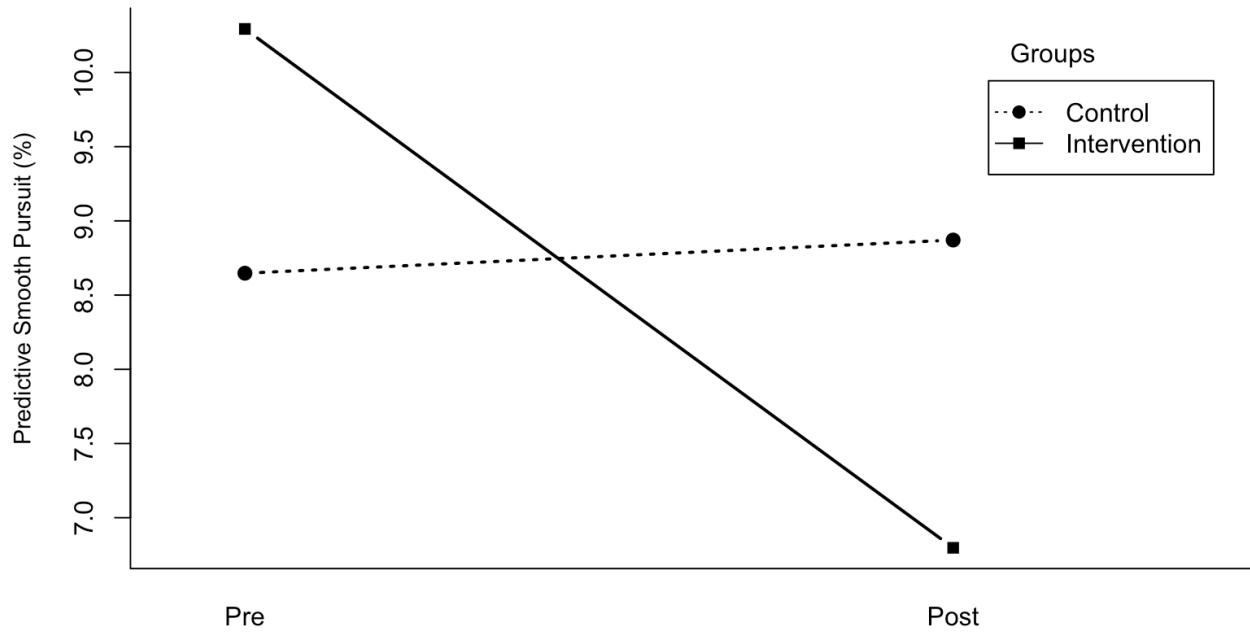
234 Post), $F(1, 94) = 5.65, p = .019, \eta^2_g = .01$ and a significant interaction (Group x Time), $F(1, 94)$

235 $= 7.30, p = .008, \eta^2_g = .02$. Simple effects revealed an increase in the Predictive Smooth Pursuit

236 for control from pre (8.65) to post (8.87); however, the intervention group's metric value reduced

237 from pre (10.29) to post (6.80) (See Table 2).

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Pre Vs Post Assessment - Metric Values

239 **Figure 4:** Pre and Post Assessment Predictive Smooth Pursuit (%) Scores for Control and

240 Intervention groups.

241 *Neurobehavioral Symptom Inventory (NSI)*

242 For the NSI, the findings were similar across all the total score and the 4-factor scoring

243 approach (See Table 3 and 4). Specifically, the total score analysis indicated a main effect for

244 Time, $F(1, 94) = 1595.28, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .944$, for Group, $F(1, 94) = 17.22, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .943$,

245 but more interesting was a significant effect for the interaction of Time x Group, $F(1, 94) =$

246 $2433.82, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .963$. Similarly, the Vestibular [$F(1, 94) = 221.96, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .702$;

247 $F(1,94) = 351.632, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .789$], Somatosensory [$F(1,94) = 898.44, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .905$;

248 $F(1,94) = 1208.77, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .230$], Cognitive [$F(1,94) = 127.89, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .576$; (1,94)

249 $= 106.318, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .149$], and Affective factors [$F(1,94) = 103.83, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .525$;

250 $F(1,94) = 137.49, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .682$] demonstrated significant main effect for Time and Group

251 Comparisons, respectively. In addition, there was a significant interaction of Time x Group for

252 all factors: Vestibular ($p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .789$), Somatosensory ($p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .912$), Cognitive test

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253 ($p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .730$); Affective ($p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .682$). Lastly, results for overall symptom change
 254 (Q23), before and after analysis showed a main effect for Time, $F(1,94) = 52.39$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 =$
 255 $.650$ and for Group, $F(1,94) = 20.68$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .548$; however, more importantly a
 256 significant Time x Group interaction, $F(1,94) = 34.27$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .548$ analysis.

257 **Table 3:** NSI itemized scores for each Group (Intervention/Control) and by Time (Pre/Post)

	Intervention		Control	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Dizzy	2.78 (0.89)	1.60 (0.68)	2.56 (1.013)	2.56 (1.19)
Balance	2.36 (1.21)	0.71 (0.77)	2.76 (0.74)	3.16 (0.76)
Poor Coordination	3.17 (0.60)	0.76 (0.67)	2.2 (0.75)	2.4 (0.80)
Headaches	3.36 (0.57)	1.00 (0.63)	1.4 (1.21)	1.58 (1.48)
Nausea	2.63 (0.60)	1.36 (0.48)	1.6 (1.37)	1.6 (1.37)
Vision Problems	3.39 (0.49)	1.04 (0.59)	2.42 (1.23)	2.24 (0.79)
Sensitivity to light	2.08 (0.91)	3.5 (0.50)	1.4 (1.37)	1.2 (1.17)
Hearing Difficulties	1.71 (0.58)	1.06 (0.85)	0.64 (0.82)	0.84 (1.18)
Sensitivity to Noise	1.84 (0.69)	1.19 (0.54)	0.8 (0.75)	0.8 (0.80)
Numbness	1.89 (0.60)	1.19 (0.61)	0.62 (0.53)	0.62 (0.53)
Change in taste or smell	1.76 (0.87)	1.28 (0.75)	0.62 (0.53)	0.62 (0.53)
Loss of Appetite	2.36 (0.48)	1.23 (0.67)	0.64 (0.52)	0.84 (0.76)
Poor Concentration	2.26 (0.90)	0.63 (0.48)	1.6 (0.49)	1.8 (0.40)
Forgetfulness	2.19 (1.02)	2 (0.89)	1.4 (0.49)	1.4 (0.49)
Difficulty Making Decisions	2.56 (0.62)	1.80 (0.65)	1.42 (0.83)	1.42 (0.83)
Slowed Thinking	2.30 (0.66)	1.47 (0.98)	1.42 (0.53)	1.8 (0.75)

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Fatigue	2.15 (0.63)	1.58 (0.49)	1.78 (.73)	1.78 (.73)
Difficulty Falling Asleep	2.84 (0.78)	1.89 (1.10)	2.76 (0.98)	2.76 (0.98)
Feeling Anxious	2.21 (0.69)	1.65 (0.87)	1.02 (0.14)	1.22 (0.41)
Feeling Depressed	2.10 (0.97)	1.17 (0.73)	0.78 (0.73)	0.8 (0.40)
Irritability	1.63 (1.040)	1.06 (0.85)	1 (0)	1.38 (0.49)
Poor Frustration	2.15 (1.11)	0.86 (0.80)	1.24 (1.02)	1.44 (0.83)

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259 **Table 4:** NSI Q23, Total, and 4-Factor Mean (SD) scores for each Group (Intervention/Control)

260 and by Time (Pre/Post)

	Intervention		Control	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Q23 Symptom	2.60 (0.61)	0.71 (0.80)	2.42 (0.83)	2.22 (0.78)
Total Score	53.23 (5.27)	28.71 (5.54)	31.88 (12.10)	34.46 (11.49)
Vestibular	8.32 (1.31)	3.08 (1.29)	7.52 (2.39)	8.12 (2.47)
Somatosensory	18.39 (1.43)	9.17 (1.88)	8.66 (6.41)	8.86 (6.18)
Cognitive	9.32 (1.57)	5.91 (1.91)	5.84 (2.12)	6.42 (1.90)
Affective	13.10 (3.38)	8.23 (2.56)	8.58 (2.24)	9.38 (2.33)

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Discussion

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The primary purpose of this study was to determine if a series of oculomotor exercises

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improved participants who had poor SPEM. Results revealed that the FVEQ score significantly

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improved. This score includes three types of eye movements – SPEM, saccades and fixations.

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Each is weighted in accordance to a linear combination of oculomotor variables. A significant

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267 positive change in this score reveals an overall improvement in oculomotor behavior.
268 Improvement in the FVEQ score is further supported by a significant reduction in overall
269 symptoms as shown on the NSI. The total score revealed statistically significant differences for
270 main effects (group, time) and more importantly for the interaction of group and time. The
271 results reveal that participants who engaged in the eye movement training had an overall
272 reduction in symptoms using the 4-Factor analysis. Furthermore, when specifically asked to rate
273 their overall symptoms pre and post, the results were consistent with the NSI total score. Adding
274 further validation to the belief that participants “felt better” after engaging in oculomotor
275 training. The FVEQ score, total NSI score and Overall Symptoms question (Q23), collectively
276 reveal a broad improvement not only in the oculomotor variables, but also in self-reported
277 symptoms. This is a critical link in intervention research. In other words, it is important to show
278 oculomotor change, however, from a participants’ perspective it is perhaps more important that
279 the changes in oculomotor behavior have ‘real life’ impact to their quality of life and activities of
280 daily living.

281 A secondary objective of this study was to accurately and specifically quantify change in
282 SPEMs using eye tracking. The eye tracking technology employed in this study allowed for
283 specific location recording of SPEM in relation to the target. Results revealed a significant
284 interaction between the groups in all three SPEM metrics (on-target, latent and predictive).
285 Although no main effects were found for the IG all metrics were trending in the right direction.
286 Results showed a reduction in latent and predictive SPEM and an increase in on-target SPEM. In
287 contrast, the CG, without any intervention, showed increases in poor SPEM behavior. This was
288 seen by increases in latent and predictive SPEM and decrease (4.77%) in on-target SPEM. This
289 finding was important in two respects. First, if no oculomotor training is engaged in when a

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290 person has poor SPEM they continue to decline. Second, if oculomotor training is engaged in
291 this stops the decline and moves the SPEM behavior in a desirable, improved, direction.

292 A third objective of this study was to examine a participants' neurobehavioral symptoms
293 before and after oculomotor training using the Neurobehavioral Symptom Inventory (NSI;
294 Cicerone, 1995). In addition to the total NSI score and Overall Symptoms question (Q23), the
295 analysis revealed significant differences in all 4-factors. The first factor, classified as Vestibular
296 consisted of questions relating to dizziness, poor balance and coordination. VOR, fixations and
297 pursuits are all in the functional class of eye movements that stabilize gaze and keep images
298 steady on the retina (Leigh & Zee, 2015). Therefore, lesions in brain areas associated with these
299 eye movements will result in neurobehavioral symptoms for factor 1: Vestibular. Vestibular
300 symptoms are affected by poor pursuits if there is a brain lesion starting from the level of the
301 medial vestibular nucleus because vestibular and pursuit pathways are shared from this point
302 forward (Wong, 2008). VOR and gaze stability (fixations) also affect vestibular related
303 neurobehavioral symptoms. Therefore, future research should look to specifically examine eye
304 movement metrics related to vestibular symptoms when engaged in this eye movement training
305 protocol.

306 The second factor, classified as Somatosensory consisted of questions relating to headaches,
307 nausea, vision, sensitivity to light and noise, numbness, changes in taste. Results for
308 Somatosensory factors were also highly significant. The third factor classified as Cognitive
309 consisted of questions relating to poor concentration, forgetfulness, difficulty making decision
310 and slowed thinking. Results obtained from the NSI revealed significant main effects and
311 interactions for the Cognitive factor. Hence, future research should look to examine metrics

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312 related to saccades when engaged in this eye movement training protocol. Saccades are
313 associated with a variety of Cognitive and Somatosensory neurobehavioral symptoms.

314 The fourth factor classified as Affective consisted of questions relating to fatigue, difficulty
315 falling asleep, feeling anxious, feeling depressed, irritability, poor frustration. Results obtained
316 from the NSI revealed significant main effects and interactions for the Affective factor.
317 Emotional lability, including increased frustration, impulsiveness and a quickness to anger have
318 been linked to frontal lobe areas of the brain that are also associated with saccadic eye
319 movements. Yoshida and colleagues (2012) observed that eye movement training that consisted
320 of various eye movements (e.g. fixations, pursuits and binocular training) showed remarkable
321 decreases in other eye movements (e.g. saccades). Hence the neurological pathways for some
322 eye movements overlap. The resulting neurobehavioral symptoms may also overlap, especially if
323 that symptom is of a broad nature, such as a brain “fog”.

324 In conclusion, this study examined the pre and post score of SPEMs in relation to an eye
325 movement training protocol. Results showed improvements in SPEMs as well as decline in the
326 CG who did not engage in oculomotor training. Furthermore, the NSI confirmed that the eye
327 movement training reduced neurobehavioral symptoms significantly. Future research should
328 examine other eye movements in relation to this oculomotor training regime.

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