



Unraveling Tourette's Syndrome: Genetic and Environmental Interactions, Diagnosis Challenges, and Emerging Treatments

Eirini Karagianni¹, Dimitrios Karakoulas²

¹MSc, University of West Attica

²MSc, Phd Candidate, National Technical University of Athens

ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Published Online:
18 July 2024

Corresponding Author:
Eirini Karagianni

The human neural system constitutes the central control mechanism of the organism, overseeing the vast majority of human functions and their coordination. Neurological disorders disrupt its harmonious functioning, and as anticipated, it is imperative to investigate the underlying causes and devise appropriate interventions. Tourette's syndrome exemplifies a neuropsychiatric disorder, the full understanding of which remains elusive. The causative factors are shrouded in ambiguity, with evidence suggesting a convergence of both genetic and environmental elements. The multifaceted origins of Tourette's syndrome manifest in a spectrum of symptoms, ranging from mild to severe. This complexity, compounded by its comorbidity with disorders such as Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) and Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD), complicates its diagnosis. Treatment modalities for the syndrome are diverse. While pharmacological treatment has proven considerably effective, it often comes with attendant side effects. In cases presenting mild symptoms, behavioral training techniques offer relief, whereas in instances of more severe manifestations, a neurosurgical procedure known as deep brain stimulation has recorded success.

KEYWORDS: neurological disorder, Tourette's syndrome, tic, behavioral therapy, brain stimulation.

1. INTRODUCTION

The human nervous system serves as the foundational pillar of the organism, upon which the execution of all primary functions depends. Initially, it endows the individual with voluntary motion capabilities. Moreover, it orchestrates the activities of the organs and endocrine glands, modulating their operations in response to both the physiological needs of the organism and external environmental conditions (homeostasis). These functions are critically integral to its survival. Concurrently, the nervous system is accountable for the execution of higher-order physiological functions, such as memory, cognition, critical reasoning, and learning. Essentially, it shapes and defines an individual's personality.

Neurological disorders pertain to those conditions that impact the functioning of the nervous system. Given our understanding of the myriad functions it serves, it is evident that neurological disturbances can have profound

implications for the organism, necessitating meticulous study to identify potential management strategies. This paper will delve into Tourette's syndrome, a neurological disorder that has been the subject of numerous studies. Initially, a brief historical overview of the syndrome's discovery will be presented, followed by an analysis of its defining features and the behaviors they precipitate. Lastly, potential intervention methods will be discussed.

2. HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Tourette Syndrome is named after Georges Gilles de la Tourette¹ (1857-1904), a French neurologist whose research was instrumental in identifying the syndrome. In 1884, he published an article analyzing various motor disorders he believed to be related. Within this article, he referenced a young patient of Jean-Martin Charcot (1825-1893), a prominent French neurologist based in Paris.

¹ Georges Gilles de la Tourette (1857-1904) was a French neurologist who conducted pivotal studies on Tourette Syndrome. He was a pupil of the French neurology professor

Jean-Martin Charcot (1825-1893), who named the syndrome in honor of de la Tourette's contributions (Gilson, 2012).

“Unraveling Tourette's Syndrome: Genetic and Environmental Interactions, Diagnosis Challenges, and Emerging Treatments”

Prompted by this case, he concluded his article with a promise of a forthcoming paper detailing case studies from Paris, where an increasing number of cases were emerging. True to his word, in 1885, he released another article describing nine patient cases who exhibited involuntary movements, echolalia, coprolalia, and the production of peculiar sounds without any volitional control (Lajonchere et al., 1996).

Despite the significant work of Georges Gilles de la Tourette, Tourette Syndrome was predominantly recognized as a psychiatric disorder and treated accordingly. Its recognition as a neuropsychiatric disorder, meaning a neurological condition affecting an individual's behavior, only emerged in 1970 when the Shapiro² couple conducted landmark studies that deepened the understanding of the syndrome's characteristics, thereby paving new pathways for its management (Gilson, 2012).

3. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SYNDROME

The Tourette syndrome typically manifests between the ages of 7 and 10, though its onset can occur as early as 2 years old or as late as 18 years of age. The condition is believed to have both genetic and non-genetic components (Kurlan et al., 2002). A familial linkage of cases has been observed, indicating a hereditary connection. Research has shown that it is more likely to occur within family members, yet a specific responsible gene has not been identified (Eldridge et al., 1977). Genetic studies have pinpointed potential chromosomal regions associated with Tourette syndrome in various families (Zhang et al., 2002). However, specific genes or mutations tied to its pathogenesis have not been discerned, categorizing it among diseases caused by multiple different genes. Two such genes are the SLITRK1 gene on chromosome 13 (Abelson et al., 2005) and the HDC gene on chromosome 15 (Ercan-Sencicek et al., 2015). The potential association of the syndrome with an autoimmune response of the body is also currently under investigation (Singer et al., 2005).

An intriguing twin study highlighted another dimension of the syndrome linked to non-genetic factors. There was a 53% concordance rate in the manifestation of the disorder in monozygotic (identical) twins, but only an 8% concordance for dizygotic (fraternal) twins participating in the study (Price, 1985). The influence of environmental factors in the onset of the syndrome is now considered undeniable and is of significant interest. In many cases, these specific factors can even be eliminated, offering a potential tool in its mitigation. The most prominent of these factors are prenatal, such as maternal stress during pregnancy, smoking, infections, fetal hypoxia, and also stressful events during childhood (Novotny et al., 2018). Some research has linked

Tourette syndrome with infants born prematurely, those who were underweight, or cases where complications arose during childbirth. However, other studies have failed to establish a connection with these specific variables (Brander et al., 2018).

The mechanism by which the aforementioned factors culminate in the manifestation of the syndrome is as follows: they adversely affect the basal ganglia and their harmonious operation, which subsequently results in dysfunction of neurotransmitters. This is responsible for the appearance of the characteristic tics of the syndrome, as well as the symptoms of other disorders that co-occur with Tourette (Mink, 2001). Specifically, children diagnosed with Tourette syndrome may also present with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), obsessive-compulsive disorder, learning difficulties, depression, and anxiety disorders (Du et al., 2010; Freeman et al., 2000; Hirschtritt et al., 2015).

4. BEHAVIORAL ASPECTS

The diagnosis of Tourette's syndrome is based on symptoms and the patient's medical and familial history. It is characterized by both motor and vocal tics, either simple or more complex, which often impact the individual's social adaptation.

According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders of the American Psychiatric Association, 4th edition (DSM-IV criteria, 1994), simple motor tics affect a single muscle or a group of muscles. These include blinking, head turning, shoulder shrugging, uncontrollable limb movements, and intense foot stamping. More complex motor tics consist of more coordinated movements that might be socially inappropriate, such as rude gestures, mimicking movements (echopraxia), reverse stepping or a specific sequence of steps while walking, unusual postures or bending, and even movements that could harm the individual or those around them.

In the same manual, simple vocal tics encompass uncomplicated sounds without coherence, such as coughing, whistling, or throat clearing. In the case of more complex vocal tics, the patient articulates words or phrases that are meaningful, and in many instances, they are profane (coprolalia). The patient might also repeat something heard from others (echolalia) or repeatedly echo their own words (palilalia).

In 2013, the American Psychiatric Association's Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders 5th edition (DSM-V, 2013) established diagnostic criteria for Tourette's Syndrome. A patient can be diagnosed if they have experienced one or more tics over a specific period, without

² Arthur K. Shapiro (1923-1995), a psychiatrist, and Elaine Schlaffer Shapiro (1925-present), a psychologist of American descent, significantly advanced the understanding of

Tourette Syndrome through their studies. They played a pivotal role in its recognition as a neurological disorder (Gilson, 2012).

necessarily being present simultaneously. The initial manifestation lasts for more than a year, and the diagnosis is made before the individual reaches the age of 18 (Cath et al., 2011). Particular attention must be given to the diagnosis, as Tourette's Syndrome is characterized, as previously mentioned, by high comorbidity with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) and Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD). Still, the presence of the latter does not presuppose the existence of the former. Also, it is essential to rule out the association of symptoms with the intake of medication or other causes, such as Restless Leg Syndrome, where the patient feels an uncontrollable urge to move their legs.

5. TREATMENT APPROACHES

Although there is no cure for Tourette syndrome, specific medications can alleviate symptoms. This intervention becomes imperative when tics lead to the patient's social isolation, emotional distress, self-harm, or academic impediments. Notable symptom suppression has been recorded with the administration of neuroleptic antipsychotic drugs, such as haloperidol and pimozide, which inhibit dopamine action in the body by blocking its receptors (Sandor et al., 1990). However, their side effects induce discomfort in patients and reluctance towards medication adherence, as they can cause drowsiness, weight gain, and depression. This has prompted the medical community to seek alternative drugs with similar efficacy but fewer side effects. The use of aripiprazole has shown promising results in this direction, proving to be highly effective in treating tics without the severe side effects associated with other antipsychotic drugs (Kastrup, 2005). In children exhibiting comorbidity with Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), it has been observed that α_2 -adrenergic drugs, such as clonidine, are more appropriate. Nonetheless, they are not devoid of significant side effects, including dizziness and mood swings (Schahill et al., 2001; Leckman, 1991).

Behavioral therapies have been instrumental in reducing the symptoms of Tourette syndrome, and they are the preferred approach in cases where the syndrome's symptoms are relatively mild, but the side effects of medication are pronounced. Habit reversal training (HRT) comprises five essential techniques: awareness training, development of a competing response, contingency management, relaxation training, and generalization of skills. Exposure and Response Prevention (ERP) is a form of behavioral therapy in which patients are trained to confront their fears and find alternative ways to vent other than through tics. Lastly, the Comprehensive Behavioral Intervention for Tics (CBIT) educates patients about their tics and teaches them specific strategies aimed at their reduction (Novotny, 2018).

In recent years, neurosurgical intervention has been employed in extremely severe cases of patients suffering from

Tourette syndrome who do not respond to the aforementioned treatments. This specific technique is called Deep Brain Stimulation (DBS) and modifies brain function in targeted areas using electrical current. The outcomes of this technique are quite promising, but its use is primarily limited to adolescents and adults, with limited data available for children. According to the American Academy of Neurology, patients who have severe manifestations of Tourette syndrome and are resistant to other forms of treatments may benefit from DBS. However, it is emphasized that patient selection must be careful to avoid side effects (Pringsheim et al., 2019).

6. CONCLUSIONS

Tourette syndrome is a neuropsychiatric disorder, which manifests as repeated motor and vocal tics. Motor tics involve repetitive movement of one or more muscles, while vocal tics pertain to the repetition of sounds, words, or phrases, echolalia (repeating the words or phrases of others), palilalia (repeating one's own words or phrases), and even coprolalia (uttering socially inappropriate words, especially swearing). Up to this point, there is less literature on Tourette syndrome compared to other neurological disorders, for example, Down syndrome. The scientific community, accepting the challenge of acquiring knowledge related to this, enriches the literature daily with new research. There has already been a significant leap in recognizing it as a neuropsychiatric disorder. This was a pivotal point in finding the causes of the syndrome, which, to this day, remain not fully mapped out. A hereditary cause has been identified, pinpointing specific chromosomal regions and some combinations of genes associated with it, though without a definitive answer.

Another challenge lies in the diagnosis of the syndrome, with the multitude of different symptoms and the comorbidity with other syndromes, such as Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) and Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD), making timely and accurate diagnosis difficult.

The most recent challenge presented is the treatment of Tourette's syndrome, which also necessitates a personalized approach. There are pharmacological interventions available that ameliorate symptoms but unfortunately come with several side effects. Non-pharmacological methodologies revolve around behavioral learning techniques, wherein the individual gains insights into the triggers of their tics, confronts their fears and anxiety, and endeavors to control and manage their symptoms. The most radical, yet not exhaustively researched, therapeutic approach is neurosurgical intervention using a technique termed Deep Brain Stimulation (DBS). Its objective is to modify brain functionality in specific regions of the brain via electrical currents. It has yielded relatively optimistic results

“Unraveling Tourette's Syndrome: Genetic and Environmental Interactions, Diagnosis Challenges, and Emerging Treatments”

in adolescents and adults, offering hope for further advancements in the future and an increase in its success rate.

The path toward a comprehensive understanding of Tourette's syndrome and its treatment strategies has already been paved, and each day we progress toward a brighter future and the healing of those afflicted by it.

REFERENCES

1. Abelson, J. F., Kwan, K. Y., O’Roak, B. J., Baek, D. Y., Stillman, A. A., Morgan, T. M. et al. (2005). Sequence variants in SLITRK1 are associated with Tourette's syndrome. *Science*, 310, 317-320.
2. American Psychiatric Association. (1994). *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (4th ed.) (DSM-IV). Text Revision*. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association.
3. American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (5th ed) (DSM-V)*. Arlington, USA: American Psychiatric Publishing.
4. Brander, G., Rydell, M., Kuja-Halkola, R., Fernández de la Cruz, L., Lichtenstein, P., Serlachius, E. et al. (2018). Perinatal risk factors in Tourette's and chronic tic disorders: a total population sibling comparison study. *Molecular Psychiatry*, 23, 1189–1197.
5. Cath, D. C., Hedderly, T., Ludolph, A. G., Stern, J. S., Murphy, T., Hartmann, A. et al. (2011). European clinical guidelines for Tourette syndrome and other tic disorders. Part I: assessment. *European Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 20(4), 155–71.
6. Du, J. C., Chiu, T. F., Lee, K. M., Wu, H. L., Yang, Y. C., Hsu, S.Y. et al. (2010). Tourette syndrome in children: An updated review. *Pediatrics & Neonatology*, 51, 255-264.
7. Eldridge, R., Sweet, R., Lake, R., Ziegler, M., Shapiro, A.K. (1977). Gilles de la Tourette's syndrome: clinical, genetic, psychologic, and biochemical aspects in 21 selected families, *Neurology*, 27, 115-124.
8. Ercan-Sencicek, A. G., Stillman, A. A., Ghosh, A. K., Bilguvar, K., O’Roak, B. J., Mason, C. E. et al. (2010). L-histidine decarboxylase and Tourette's syndrome. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 362, 1901-1908.
9. Freeman, R. D., Fast, D. K., Burd, L., Kerbeshian, J., Robertson, M. M. et al. (2000). An international perspective on Tourette syndrome: Selected findings from 3500 individuals in 22 countries. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology*, 42, 436-447.
10. Gilson, F. (2012). Gilles de la Tourette: The history of the man and his illness; a medical historical study. *Tijdschrift voor Psychiatrie*, 54 (7), 427-36.
11. Hirschtritt, M.E., Lee, P.C., Lee Pauls, D.L., Dion, Y., Grados, M. A. et al. (2015) Lifetime prevalence, age of risk, and genetic relationships of comorbid psychiatric disorders in tourette syndrome. *JAMA Psychiatry*, 72, 325-333.
12. Kastrup A., Schlotter W., Plewnia C., Bartels M. (2005). Treatment of tics in tourette syndrome with aripiprazole. *The Journal of Clinical Psychopharmacology*, 25, 94–96.
13. Kurlan, R., Como, P.G., Miller, B., Palumbo, D., Deeley, C., Andresen, E.M. et al. (2002). The behavioral spectrum of tic disorders: a community-based study. *Neurology*, 59, 414-420.
14. Lajonchere, C., Nortz, M., Finger, S. (1996). Gilles de la Tourette and the discovery of Tourette syndrome. *Archives of neurology*, 53 (6), 567-74.
15. Leckman, J. F., Hardin, M. T., Riddle, M. A., Stevenson, J., Ort, S. I. et al. (1991). Clonidine treatment of Gilles de la Tourette syndrome. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 48, 324-328.
16. Mink, J.W. (2001). Basal ganglia dysfunction in Tourette's syndrome: a new hypothesis. *Pediatric Neurology*, 25 (3), 190-8.
17. Novotny, M., Valis, M., Klimova, B. (2018). Tourette Syndrome: A Mini-Review. *Frontiers in Neurology*, 9, 139.
18. Price, R.A., Kidd, K.K., Cohen, D.J., Pauls, D.L., Leckman, J.F. (1985). A twin study of Tourette syndrome. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 42, 815-820.
19. Pringsheim, T., Okun, M. S., Muller-Vahl, K. et al. (2019). Practice guidelines recommendations summary: treatment of tics in people with Tourette syndrome and chronic tic disorders. *Neurology*. 92 (19), 896–906.
20. Sandor, P., Muisi, S., Moldofsky, H., Lang, A. (1990). Tourette syndrome: a followup study. *The Journal of Clinical Psychopharmacology*, 10, 197–199.
21. Scahill, L., Chappell, P. B., Kim, Y. S., Schultz, R. T., Katsovich, L. et al. (2001) A placebo-controlled study of guanfacine in the treatment of children with tic disorders and ADHD. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 158, 1067-1074.
22. Singer, H.S., Hong, J.J., Yoon, D.Y., Williams, P.N. (2005). Serum autoantibodies do not differentiate PANDAS and Tourette syndrome from controls. *Neurology*, 65 (11), 1701–1707.
23. Zhang, H., Leckman, J. F., Pauls, D. L., Tsai, C. P., Kidd, K. K., Campos, M. R. et al. (2002). Genomewide scan of hoarding in sib pairs in which both sibs have Gilles de la Tourette syndrome. *The American Journal of Human Genetics*, 70, 896-904.