OPEN





The most widely read and highly cited peer-reviewed neurology journal The Official Journal of the American Academy of Neurology

Neurology Publish Ahead of Print

DOI: 10.1212/WNL.0000000000200384

Longitudinal Cognitive Changes in Genetic Frontotemporal Dementia Within the GENFI Cohort

This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 (CC BY), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Neurology® Published Ahead of Print articles have been peer reviewed and accepted for publication. This manuscript will be published in its final form after copyediting, page composition, and review of proofs. Errors that could affect the content may be corrected during these processes.

Author(s):

Jackie M. Poos, MSc.^{1,2}; Amy MacDougall, PhD³; Esther van den Berg, PhD¹; Lize C. Jiskoot, PhD^{1,2}; Janne M. Papma, PhD¹; Emma L. van der Ende, PhD¹; Harro Seelaar, MD PhD¹; Lucy L. Russell, PhD²; Georgia Peakman, MSc.²; Rhian Convery, MSc.²; Yolande A.L. Pijnenburg, MD PhD⁴; Fermin Moreno, MD PhD⁵; Raquel Sanchez-Valle, PhD⁶; Barbara Borroni, MD⁷; Robert Laforce, Jr, MD PhD⁸; Marie-Claire Doré, PhD⁸; Mario Masellis, MD PhD⁹; Maria Carmela Tartaglia, MD¹⁰; Caroline Graff, MD PhD¹¹; Daniela Galimberti, PhD^{12,13}; James Rowe, FCRCP PhD¹⁴; Elizabeth Finger, MD¹⁵; Matthis Synofzik, MD^{16,17}; Rik Vandenberghe, MD PhD¹⁸; Alexandre Mendonça, MD PhD¹⁹; Pietro Tiraboschi, MD²⁰; Isabel Santana, MD PhD²¹; Simon Ducharme, MD²²; Christopher Butler, FRCP PhD²³; Alexander Gerhard, MRCP MD^{24,25}; Johannes Levin, MD^{26,27,28}; Adrian Danek, MD²⁶; Markus Otto, MD²⁹; Isabelle Le Ber, MD PhD^{30,31,32}; Florence Pasquier, MD PhD^{33,34,35}; John van Swieten, MD PhD¹; Jonathan D. Rohrer, FRCP PhD² on behalf of Genetic FTD Initiative (GENFI)

Corresponding Author:

Jonathan D. Rohrer, j.rohrer@ucl.ac.uk

Affiliation Information for All Authors: 1. Department of Neurology, Erasmus MC University Medical Center, Rotterdam, Netherlands; 2. Dementia Research Centre, Department of Neurodegenerative Disease, UCL Institute of Neurology, Queen Square, London, UK; 3. Department of Medical Statistics, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK; 4. Department of Neurology, Alzheimer Center, Amsterdam University Medical Center, Amsterdam Neuroscience, Amsterdam, The Netherlands; 5. Cognitive Disorders Unit, Department of Neurology, Donostia University Hospital, San Sebastian, Gipuzkoa, Spain; 6. Alzheimer's disease and Other Cognitive Disorders Unit, Neurology Service, Hospital Clínic, Institut d'Investigacións Biomèdiques August Pi I Sunyer, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain; 7. Centre for Neurodegenerative Disorders, Neurology Unit, Department of Clinical and Experimental Sciences, University of Brescia, Brescia, Italy; 8. Clinique Interdisciplinaire de Mémoire, Département des Sciences Neurologiques, Université Laval, Québec, Canada; 9. Sunnybrook Health Sciences Centre, Sunnybrook Research Institute, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada; 10. Tanz Centre for Research in Neurodegenerative Diseases, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada; 11. Department of Geriatric Medicine, Karolinska University Hospital-Huddinge, Stockholm, Sweden; 12. University of Milan, Centro Dino Ferrari, Milan, Italy; 13. Fondazione IRCCS Ca' Granda, Ospedale Policlinico, Neurodegenerative Diseases Unit, Milan, IT; 14. Department of Clinical Neurosciences, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom; 15. Department of Clinical Neurological Sciences, University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario Canada; 16. Department of Neurodegenerative Diseases, Hertie-Institute for Clinical Brain Research and Center of Neurology, University of Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany; 17. German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), Tübingen, Germany; 18. Laboratory for Cognitive Neurology, Department of Neurosciences, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium; 19. Faculty of Medicine, University of Lisbon, Lisbon, Portugal; 20. Fondazione Istituto di Ricovero e Cura a Carattere Scientifico Istituto Neurologica Carlo Besta, Milano, Italy; 21. Faculty of Medicine, University of Coimbra, Coimbra, Portugal; 22. Department of Psychiatry, McGill University Health Centre, McGill University, Montreal, Québec, Canada; 23. Department of Clinical Neurology, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom; 24. Divison of Neuroscience & Experimental Psychology, Faculty of Medicine, Biology and Health, University of Manchester, Manchester, United Kingdom; 25. Departments of Geriatric Medicine and Nuclear Medicine, Essen University Hospital, Essen, Germany; 26. Department of Neurology, Ludwig-Maximilians-University, Munich, Germany; 27. German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), Munich, Germany; 28. Munich Cluster for Systems Neurology (SyNergy), Munich, Germany; 29. Department of Neurology, University of Ulm, Ulm; 30. Sorbonne Université, Paris Brain Institute – Institut du Cerveau – ICM, Inserm U1127, CNRS UMR 7225, AP-HP - Hôpital Pitié-Salpêtrière, Paris, France; 31. Centre de référence des démences rares ou précoces, IM2A, Département de Neurologie, AP-HP - Hôpital Pitié-Salpêtrière, Paris, France; 32. Département de Neurologie, AP-HP - Hôpital Pitié-Salpêtrière, Paris, France; 34. Inserm 1172, Lille, France; 35. CHU, CNR-MAJ, Labex Distalz, LiCEND Lille, France

Equal Author Contribution:

Contributions:

Jackie M. Poos: Drafting/revision of the manuscript for content, including medical writing for content; Major role in the acquisition of data; Study concept or design; Analysis or interpretation of data Amy MacDougall: Analysis or interpretation of data

Esther van den Berg: Drafting/revision of the manuscript for content, including medical writing for content; Study concept or design; Analysis or interpretation of data

Lize C. Jiskoot: Drafting/revision of the manuscript for content, including medical writing for content; Major role in the acquisition of data; Analysis or intepretation of data

Janne M. Papma: Drafting/revision of the manuscript for content, including medical writing for content; Study concept or design; Analysis or interpretation of data

Emma L. van der Ende: Major role in the acquisition of data

Harro Seelaar: Major role in the acquisition of data

Lucy L. Russell: Major role in the acquisition of data; Analysis or interpretation of data

Georgia Peakman: Major role in the acquisition of data Rhian Convery: Major role in the acquisition of data

Yolande A.L. Pijnenburg: Major role in the acquisition of data

Fermin Moreno: Major role in the acquisition of data

Raquel Sanchez-Valle: Major role in the acquisition of data

Barbara Borroni: Major role in the acquisition of data

Robert Laforce, Jr: Major role in the acquisition of data Marie-Claire Doré: Major role in the acquisition of data

Mario Masellis: Major role in the acquisition of data

Maria Carmela Tartaglia: Major role in the acquisition of data

Caroline Graff: Major role in the acquisition of data Daniela Galimberti: Major role in the acquisition of data

James Rowe: Major role in the acquisition of data Elizabeth Finger: Major role in the acquisition of data

Matthis Synofzik: Major role in the acquisition of data Rik Vandenberghe: Major role in the acquisition of data

Alexandre Mendonça: Major role in the acquisition of data

Pietro Tiraboschi: Major role in the acquisition of data

Isabel Santana: Major role in the acquisition of data Simon Ducharme: Major role in the acquisition of data Christopher Butler: Major role in the acquisition of data Alexander Gerhard: Major role in the acquisition of data Johannes Levin: Major role in the acquisition of data Adrian Danek: Major role in the acquisition of data Markus Otto: Major role in the acquisition of data Isabelle Le Ber: Major role in the acquisition of data Florence Pasquier: Major role in the acquisition of data John van Swieten: Major role in the acquisition of data

Jonathan D. Rohrer: Drafting/revision of the manuscript for content, including medical writing for content; Major role in the acquisition of data; Study concept or design; Analysis or interretation of data

Figure Count:

3

Table Count:

3

Search Terms:

[29] Frontotemporal dementia, [201] Memory, [205] Neuropsychological assessment, [206] Executive function, [208] Attention

Acknowledgment:

We thank the research participants and their families for their contribution to the study.

Study Funding:

Several authors of this publication are members of the European Reference Network for Rare Neurological Diseases - Project ID No 739510. Jonathan Rohrer is supported by the Miriam Marks Brain Research UK Senior Fellowship, MRC Clinician Scientist Fellowship (MR/M008525/1) and has received funding from the NIHR Rare Disease Translational Research Collaboration (BRC149/NS/MH) and both the MRC UK GENFI grant (MR/M023664/1) and the JPND GENFI-PROX grant (2019-02248). Jackie Poos, Lize Jiskoot, Emma van der Ende, Janne Papma, Harro Seelaar and John van Swieten's contributions to this work were supported by the Bluefield Project, the Dioraphte Foundation [grant numbers 09-02-00], the Association for Frontotemporal Dementias Research Grant 2009, The Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO) (grant HCMI 056-13-018), ZonMw Memorabel (Deltaplan Dementie, (project numbers 733 050 103 and 733 050 813), JPND PreFrontAls consortium (project number 733051042); Jackie Poos was additionally supported by a Fellowship award from Alzheimer Nederland (WE.15-2019.02); Janne Papma received additional funding outside

this submitted work from ZonMw and Alzheimer Nederland; Fermin Moreno's contributions to this work were supported by the Tau Consortium; Raquel Sanchez-Valle's contributions to this work were supported by the ISCIII grant (PI20/00448); Barbara Borroni received funding outside this submitted work in the last 36 months from the JPND consortium, the Italian Ministry of Healthy and the Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation (ADDF). Mario Masellis' contribution to this work was funded by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research. He additionally received funding outside the submitted work in the last 36 months from the Ontario Brain Institute, Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation (ADDF), Brain Canada, Weston Brain Institute, Roche, Washington University, Axovant and Alector. Carmela Tartaglia has received funding from the National Institute of Health (NIH). Caroline Graff's contribution to this work was supported by (1) a co-fund from the Swedish Research council and JPND grant GENFI-PROX (2019-02248), (2) a co-fund from the Swedish Research Council and JPND grant PrefrontALS (2015-02926), (3) the Swedish Research Council (2018-02754), (4) the Schörling Foundation and Swedish FTD Initiative, (5) the Swedish Alzheimer foundation, (6) the Swedish Brain Foundation, (7) the Region Stockholm ALF project, (8) Karolinska Institutet Doctoral and StratNeuro grants, (9) the Swedish Dementia foundation. James Rowe's contribution to this work was supported by the National Institute for Health Research and the Medical Research Council. He received additional funding outside the submitted work in the last 36 months from the Wellcome Trust, Parkinsons UK, Alzheimer Research UK, PSP Association, Evelyn Trust, Janssen, Lilly and AstraZeneca. Elizabeth Finger's contribution to this work was supported by the Canadian Institutes for Health Research. In addition, she received funding in the last 36 months from the Physician's Services Incorporated Foundation. Matthis Synofzik's contribution to this work was supported by the JPND GENFI-PROX grant via DLR/DFG 01ED2008B. Rik Vandenberghe received funding outside this submitted work in the last 36 months from a clinical trial agreement with AbbVie, Roche, Alector, UCB, Johnson & Johnson, the Flemish Research Foundation and Bijzonder Onderzoeksfonds KU Leuven. Alexandre Mendonça received funding outside the submitted work for FMUL: BEYOND BETA-AMYLOID - Deciphering Early Pathogenic Changes in Alzheimer's Disease, FCT (2018-2022), and RADAR-AD: Remote Assessment of Disease And Relapse – Alzheimer's Disease (2020-2022). Simon Ducharme received funding from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research: Neurosciences, Mental Health and Addiction, the FRQS Junior 2 Clinician Scientist Award, the Ministère de l'Économie et de l'Innovation (Brouillette Operational Grant) and JPND. Chris Butler's contributions to this work were supported by the Medical Research Council. In addition he received funding in the last 36 months from the Alzheimer's Association. Alexander Gerhard's contributions to this work were supported by the Medical Research Council UK. Johannes Levin's contributions to this work were supported by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) under Germany's Excellence Strategy within the framework of the Munich Cluster for Systems Neurology (EXC 2145 SyNergy – ID 390857198). Adrian Danek received funding from Advocacy for Neuroacanthocytosis Patients. Markus Otto received funding outside the submitted work in the last 36 months from BMBF, Boeheringer Ingelheim, Alector and Axon. Isabelle Le Ber has received funding in the last 36 months from JPND.

Disclosures:

J. Rohrer has received consulting fees from UCB, AC Immune, Astex Pharmaceuticals, Biogen, Takeda and Eisai. He is part of the Medical Advisory Board for Alector, Arkuda Therapeutics, Wave Life Sciences and Prevail Therapeutics. R. Sanchez-Valle has received consulting fees from Wave Pharmaceuticals and Ionis-Biogen and from Roche diagnostics, Janssen for educational activities. She is member of the Data Safety Monitoring Board for Wave Pharmaceuticals and Ionis-Biogen. B. Borroni has received consulting fees from Alector and Wave Pharmaceuticals. She has a pending patent on non-invasive brain stimulation. M. Masellis' has received compensation for royalties from Henry

Stewart Talks Ltd., consulting fees from Arkuda Therapeutics, Ionis, Alector, Biogen and Wave Life Sciences, personal fees for educational activities from Alector and Arkuda Therapeutics and travel fees from Alector Pharmaceuticals. M. C. Tartaglia has received consulting fees from Roche. C. Graff has received consulting fees from Studentlitteratur 238 SEK 2020 and reimbursement for travel and lodging from University of Pennsylvania for attending KOL-meeting October 2019. J. Rowe has received consulting fees from Asceneuron, Biogen, UCB, SV Health and Astex. He has provided expert testimony in private non-commercial medicolegal case reports. He is part of an Advisory Board for several non-commercial academic institutions. In addition, he is Chief Scientific Advisor to Alzheimers Research UK, Guarantor of Brain, Trustee PSP Association, Trustee Darwin College, and Associate Director of the Dementias Platform UK. E. Finger has received consulting fees for the AAN annual meeting speaker and course director honorariums. She is member of the Data Safety Monitoring Board for the Lithium trial, PIE. Huey (trial funded by peer reviewed grants from ADDF). In addition she is scientific advisory board member for Vigil Neuroscience, Denali Therapeutics and an advisory panel for Biogen. M. Synofzik has received consulting fees from Janssen Pharmaceuticals, Ionis Pharmaceuticals and Orphazyme Pharmaceuticals. He received support from the Movement Disorders Society for travel. R. Vandenberghe has received consulting fees from CyTox. He is member of the Data Safety and Monitoring Board of AC Immune. I. Santana has received consulting fees from Biogen and Roche – Biogen, personal fees for presentations from Biogen and she is part of the Data Safety Monitoring Board for Novo Nordisk. S. Ducharme has received consulting fees from Innodem Neurosciences and personal fees from Sunovion Eisai. J. Levin has received consulting fees from Bayer Vital, Roche and Biogen. He is part of the Advisory Board for Axon Neurosciences and has received compensation for duty as part-time CMO from Modag. In addition he has received author fees from Thieme medical publishers and W. Kohlhammer GmbH medical publishers as well as non-financial support from Abbvie. A. Danek has received consulting fees from three hospitals in Switzerland, and personal fees from the German court of law for medico-legal opinion. M. Otto has received consulting fees from Biogen, Axon and Roche. He is part of the Advisory Board for Axon. I. Le Ber has received consulting fees from Alector Prevail Therapeutics and personal fees from MDS. She is also part of the Data Safety Monitoring Board for Alector Prevail Therapeutics.

Handling Editor Statement:

Abstract

Background and Objectives: Disease-modifying therapeutic trials for genetic frontotemporal dementia (FTD) are underway, but sensitive cognitive outcome measures are lacking. The aim of this study was to identify such cognitive tests in early stage FTD by investigating firstly, cognitive decline in a large cohort of genetic FTD pathogenic variant carriers, and secondly, whether gene-specific differences are moderated by disease stage (asymptomatic, prodromal and symptomatic).

Methods: *C9orf72*, *GRN* and *MAPT* pathogenic variant carriers as well as controls underwent a yearly neuropsychological assessment covering eight cognitive domains, as part of the Genetic FTD Initiative (GENFI), a prospective multicenter cohort study. Pathogenic variant carriers were stratified

according to disease stage using the global CDR® plus NACC FTLD score $(0, 0.5 \text{ and } \ge 1)$. Linear mixed-effects models were used to investigate differences between genetic groups and disease stages, as well as the three-way interaction between time, genetic group and disease stage.

Results: 207 *C9orf72*, 206 *GRN*, 86 *MAPT* pathogenic variant carriers and 255 controls were included. *C9orf72* pathogenic variant carriers performed lower on attention, executive function and verbal fluency from CDR plus NACC FTLD 0 onwards, with relatively minimal decline over time regardless of the CDR plus NACC FTLD score (i.e., disease progression). The cognitive profile in *MAPT* pathogenic variant carriers was characterized by lower memory performance at CDR plus NACC FTLD 0, with decline over time in language from the CDR plus NACC FTLD 0.5 stage onwards, and executive dysfunction rapidly developing at CDR plus NACC FTLD ≥1. *GRN* pathogenic variant carriers declined on verbal fluency and visuoconstruction in the CDR plus NACC FTLD 0.5 stage, with progressive decline in other cognitive domains starting at CDR plus NACC FTLD >1.

Discussion: We confirmed cognitive decline in the asymptomatic and prodromal stage of genetic FTD. Specifically, tests for attention, executive function, language and memory showed clear differences between genetic groups and controls at baseline, but the speed of change over time differed depending on genetic group and disease stage. This confirms the value of neuropsychological assessment in tracking clinical onset and progression and could inform clinical trials in selecting sensitive endpoints for measuring treatment effects as well as characterizing the best time window for starting treatment.

Introduction

Frontotemporal dementia (FTD) is a common cause of dementia, often presenting at a young age with devastating effects on daily living¹. The typical cause of FTD is neurodegeneration of the frontal and temporal lobes resulting in behavioural disturbances (behavioural variant FTD (bvFTD)), and/or language impairment (primary progressive aphasia (PPA))^{2, 3}. FTD is highly heritable and is

autosomal dominantly inherited in up to \sim 30% of cases. The most common causes are pathogenic variants in the microtubule-associated protein tau (*MAPT*), progranulin (*GRN*), or chromosome 9 open reading frame 72 (*C9orf72*) genes⁴. Deficits in executive function, language and social cognition are often predominant, but may vary in severity and progression due to the heterogeneous nature of the disease $^{1-3,5}$.

Research into genetic FTD has shown that disease pathology emerges years before symptom onset⁶⁻¹³. Initiating disease-modifying interventions at this early stage of the disease may have the most profound effect because neuronal loss is minimal and cognitive functions are still preserved¹⁴. It is therefore important to identify sensitive clinical instruments that can signal disease onset and track disease progression. Furthermore, identifying such instruments for this early stage of the disease is also important because they can be used as clinical endpoints in upcoming therapeutic trials.

Gene-specific cognitive decline during the presymptomatic period has been demonstrated by both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies^{6, 10, 15-26}. For example, previous reports have shown decline in memory^{17, 19, 20, 26}, language^{17, 20, 23} and social cognition^{17, 19, 20} in *MAPT* pathogenic variant carriers, decline in attention^{15, 16, 19, 20} and executive function^{15, 16, 18, 20} in *GRN* pathogenic variant carriers and a decline in social cognition in *C9orf72* pathogenic variant carriers^{22, 24, 25}. However, other studies on genetic FTD failed to find these results^{13, 21, 26, 27}.

To date, most studies investigating cognitive decline in presymptomatic genetic FTD have had a small sample size, a limited number of yearly follow-ups, and/or did not include all three major causes of genetic FTD. Furthermore, most studies split their sample of pathogenic variant carriers either according to the artificial boundary of presymptomatic *versus* symptomatic, or according to estimated years to symptomatic onset. As a result, none of the studies fully highlight the complexity of the disease trajectory²⁸.

Larger international cohort studies with longer follow-up time are crucial to identify cognitive markers that signify disease onset at the earliest stage and can measure changes during disease progression. In addition, clinical instruments for disease severity, such as the Clinical Dementia

Rating (CDR)® scale plus National Alzheimer's Coordinating Center (NACC) frontotemporal lobar degeneration (FTLD) module²⁹, could stratify pathogenic variant carriers and provide valuable insight into cognitive decline during the different stages of the disease per genetic group.

This study aims to investigate longitudinal cognitive decline in genetic FTD pathogenic variant carriers. We performed a 5-year follow-up study in which we investigated baseline and longitudinal differences on neuropsychological test performance between *C9orf72*, *GRN*, *MAPT* pathogenic variant carriers and control participants, and stratified pathogenic variant carriers according to the CDR® NACC FTLD global score.

Methods

Participants

Data was included from the fifth GENFI data freeze in which participants from confirmed genetic FTD families were recruited in 24 centres across Europe and Canada between 30th January 2012 and 31th May 2019. Pathogenic variant carriers were included in this study if they performed at least one or more neuropsychological assessment(s). A total of 207 C9orf72, 206 GRN and 86 MAPT pathogenic variant carriers and 255 pathogenic variant negative family members (who served as control group) were included. 109 C9orf72, 112 GRN and 60 MAPT pathogenic variant carriers, and 154 controls had completed at least one follow-up visit (Table 1). Pathogenic variant carriers were divided into three categories based on the CDR® plus NACC FTLD global score at baseline: 0, 0.5 and ≥1. Of those with a CDR plus NACC FTLD global score of ≥1, 51 C9orf72, 27 GRN and 21 MAPT pathogenic variant carriers met diagnostic criteria for bvFTD², 16 GRN and three C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers met criteria for PPA³ and 8 C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers met criteria for FTD with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (FTD-ALS)³⁰. 10% of *C9orf72*, 8% of *GRN* and 8% of MAPT pathogenic variant carriers progressed from CDR category 0 to 0.5, and 4% of C9orf72, 2% of GRN and 4% of MAPT pathogenic variant carriers progressed to \geq 1. 6% of C9orf72, 16% of GRN and 20% of MAPT pathogenic variant carriers progressed from CDR category 0.5 to ≥ 1 . (eTable 1).

Standard Protocol Approvals, Registrations, and Patient Consents

All GENFI sites had local ethical approval for the study and all participants gave written informed consent.

Procedures

Participants underwent a yearly standardized clinical assessment including the CDR® plus NACC FTLD and a comprehensive neuropsychological test battery covering attention and processing speed (WMS-R Digit span forward³¹; Trail Making Test (TMT) part A³²; WAIS-R Digit Symbol test³¹; D-KEFS Color-Word Interference Test colour and word naming³³), executive function (WMS-R Digit span backward³¹; TMT part B³²; D-KEFS Color-Word Interference Test ink naming³³), language (modified Camel and Cactus Test³⁴; Boston Naming Test (short 30 item version)³¹), verbal fluency (category fluency ³¹; phonemic fluency³⁵), memory encoding (Free and Cued Selective Reminding Test (FCSRT) immediate free and total recall²⁶), memory recall (FCSRT delayed free and total recall; Benson Complex Figure recall), social cognition (Facial Emotion Recognition Test²⁴), and visuoconstruction (Benson Complex Figure copy). Previous studies have shown that verbal fluency can involve both language and executive function processes and, therefore we included it as a separate domain^{36, 37}. The Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE³⁸) measured global cognitive functioning. *Statistical analysis*

Statistical analyses were performed using Stata version 14.2 and R version 4.0.4. We compared continuous demographic data between groups with two-way ANOVAs and a chi-square test for sex. The significance level was set at p<0.05 (2-tailed) across all comparisons.

All neuropsychological data were standardized to Z-scores (i.e., raw score – mean score controls at baseline/ standard deviation controls at baseline). Z-scores for tests with reaction times (i.e. TMT and D-KEFS Color-Word Interference Test) were inversed so that lower Z scores indicate worse performance. Cognitive domains were calculated by averaging the mean Z-scores of the neuropsychological tests in that domain. Only the FCSRT total recall was included in the memory

domains, as the free recall scores are a part of the total recall scores. The memory encoding, social cognition and visuoconstruction domains are represented by only one test.

As this is a prospective cohort study, not all pathogenic variant carriers had completed all study visits which resulted in missing data. We used linear mixed-effects models for each cognitive domain to examine whether differences existed between C9orf72, GRN, MAPT pathogenic variant carriers and controls in cognitive decline since baseline. This type of model allows for the analysis of longitudinal data with unbalanced time points and missing data³⁹. Age and years of education were included in all models as covariates. In each model a different cognitive outcome was used as the dependent variable and we specified the following fixed effects: time since baseline in years, gene group, CDR category at baseline, age at baseline, years of education, the two-way interactions between time and group, time and CDR category, and gene group and CDR category and the three-way interaction between time, group and CDR category. We included random intercepts for participants who were nested within families, but not random slopes as this did not improve model fit. A natural cubic splines model did not improve model fit. We performed post-hoc pairwise comparisons in intercepts and slopes between genetic groups within CDR categories. Results are shown as a difference between pathogenic variant group and the control group, or a different pathogenic variant group if stated. The letter β indicates an estimated difference in z-score at baseline, β_1 indicates a difference in change over time (slope). An example of the model and its outputs is shown in eAppendix 1 in the Supplement.

Data Availability

Anonymized data not published within this article will be made available upon reasonable request from any qualified investigator.

Results

Demographics

There were more females in CDR categories 0 and 0.5, and more males in CDR category ≥ 1 for C9orf72 ($\chi^2(2)=9.8$, p=0.007) and MAPT ($\chi^2(2)=6.6$, p=0.036) pathogenic variant carriers (Table 2).

We found differences in age at baseline between gene groups (F(3, 744)=5.6, p<0.001) and between CDR categories (F(2, 744)=91.4, p<0.001) (Table 2). Post-hoc pairwise comparisons revealed that C9orf72 and GRN pathogenic variant carriers were older than MAPT pathogenic variant carriers (all $p\le0.02$) and controls (all p<0.001), and each CDR category represented older pathogenic variant carriers than the categories with a lower CDR category (all $p\le0.008$). We found differences between CDR categories in years of education at baseline (F(2, 744)=8.8, p<0.001), with CDR category ≥ 1 having had less years of education than the other categories (all p<0.03) (Table 2). There was an interaction effect between gene group and CDR category on MMSE at baseline (F(4, 742)=4.3, p=0.002). Post-hoc simple main effects illustrated a difference in MMSE at baseline between CDR categories in all three gene groups, and a difference in MMSE at baseline between gene groups in CDR category ≥ 1 . Descriptive and neuropsychological data at baseline are reported in Table 2 and eTable 2 in the Supplement.

Baseline and longitudinal results for each cognitive domain were as follows (Tables 2 and 3, Figures 1 and 2, and summarized in Figure 3):

Attention

We found strong evidence for differences in the attention domain between CDR categories $(\chi^2(2)=23.2, p<0.001)$ and between gene groups $(\chi^2(3)=26.0, p<0.001)$ at baseline. *C9orf72* ($\beta=-2.2, SE=0.14, p<0.001$), GRN ($\beta=-2.2, SE=0.16, p<0.001$) and MAPT ($\beta=-1.1, SE=0.21, p<0.001$) pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category ≥ 1 all performed worse than controls, with both C9orf72 ($\beta=-1.1, SE=0.23, p<0.001$) and GRN ($\beta=-1.2, SE=0.25, p<0.001$) pathogenic variant carriers performing worse than MAPT pathogenic variant carriers. C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category 0 also performed worse at baseline than GRN ($\beta=-0.3, SE=0.13, p=0.010$) and MAPT ($\beta=-0.4, SE=0.16, p=0.030$) pathogenic variant carriers, and controls ($\beta=-0.4, SE=0.11, p<0.001$; Figure 1A). In addition, we found an interaction effect between time and gene group ($\chi^2(3)=37.1, p<0.001$). All gene groups with CDR category ≥ 1 declined over time compared to controls (C9orf72: $\beta_1=-0.3, SE=0.07, p<0.001$; GRN: $\beta_1=-0.4, SE=0.10, p<0.001$; MAPT: $\beta_1=-0.3, SE=0.09, p=0.004$).

There was some weak evidence that *C9orf72* pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category 0 declined over time compared to controls (β_1 =-0.4, SE=0.11, p=0.086; Figure 1A).

Executive function

We found strong evidence for differences on the executive function domain between CDR categories $(\chi^2(2)=27.2, p<0.001)$, and between gene groups $(\chi^2(3)=23.3, p<0.001)$ at baseline. A similar profile was seen in all gene groups with CDR category ≥ 1 performing worse at baseline than controls $(C9orf72: \beta=-3.1, SE=0.25, p<0.001; GRN: \beta=-3.2, SE=0.23, p<0.001; MAPT: \beta=-1.7, SE=0.29, p<0.001)$, and C9orf72 ($\beta=-1.0$, SE=0.32, p=0.003), and GRN ($\beta=-1.1$, SE=0.35, p=0.002) pathogenic variant carriers performing worse than MAPT pathogenic variant carriers (Figure 1B). C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category 0 also performed worse than GRN ($\beta=-0.4$, SE=0.17, p=0.016) and MAPT ($\beta=-0.6$, SE=0.23, p=0.012) pathogenic variant carriers, and controls ($\beta=-0.5$, SE=0.15, p<0.001), and GRN pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category 0.5 performed worse than controls ($\beta=-0.7$, SE=0.25, p=0.006). We found interaction effects between time and gene group ($\chi^2(3)=24.7, p<0.001$), time and CDR category ($\chi^2(2)=25.8, p<0.001$) and time, gene group and CDR category ($\chi^2(4)=18.6, p=0.001$). MAPT pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category ≥ 1 demonstrated steeper decline over time than ($\beta_1=-C9orf72$ ($\beta_1=-0.5$, SE=0.14, p=0.002) and GRN pathogenic variant carriers ($\beta_1=-0.5, SE=0.17, p=0.005$) and controls ($\beta_1=-0.6, S=0.12, p<0.001$) (Figure 1B).

Language

Language differed between CDR categories ($\chi^2(2)$ =96.7, p<0.001) and between gene groups ($\chi^2(3)$ =21.5, p<0.001) at baseline. Again, all gene groups with CDR category \geq 1 performed worse than controls (C9orf72: β =-3.2, SE=0.28, p<0.001; GRN: β =-2.9, SE=0.31, p<0.001; MAPT: β =-5.0, SE=0.41, p<0.001) at baseline, but in this case MAPT pathogenic variant carriers performed worse than C9orf72 (β =-1.7, SE=0.34, p=0.002) and GRN (β =-1.3, SE=0.33, p=0.009) pathogenic variant carriers (Figure 1C). We also found interaction effects between time and gene group ($\chi^2(3)$ =104.8,

p<0.001), time and CDR category ($X^2(2)$ =14.0, p=0.001) and time, gene group and CDR category ($X^2(4)$ =25.5, p<0.001). MAPT pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category 0.5 (β_1 =-0.5, SE=0.17, p=004) and \geq 1 (β_1 =-0.5, SE=0.15, p=0.003) as well as C9orf72 (β_1 =-0.6, SE= 0.11, p<0.001) and GRN (β_1 =-1.3, SE=0.14, p<0.001) pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category \geq 1 declined over time compared to controls. In CDR category \geq 1, GRN pathogenic variant carriers demonstrated steeper decline over time than C9orf72 (β_1 =-0.7, SE=0.17, p<0.001) and MAPT (β_1 =-0.0.9, SE=0.20, p<0.001) pathogenic variant carriers (Figure 1C).

Verbal fluency

For verbal fluency we found strong evidence for differences between CDR categories ($\chi^2(2)$ =40.0, p<0.001) at baseline. All gene groups with CDR category \geq 1 performed worse than controls (C9orf72: β =-1.8, SE=0.12, p<0.001; GRN: β =-1.6, SE=0.14, p<0.001; MAPT: β =-1.3, SE=0.18, p<0.001), with C9orf72 performing worse than MAPT pathogenic variant carriers (β =-0.5, SE=0.19, p=0.018; Figure 1D). In CDR category 0, C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers performed worse than controls (β =-0.3, SE=0.09, p=0.003) and GRN pathogenic variant carriers (β =-0.3, SE=0.11, p=0.002). We found an interaction effect between time and gene group ($\chi^2(3)$ =14.5, p<0.002). C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category \geq 1 (β ₁=-0.2, SE=0.05, p=0.004) and GRN pathogenic variant carriers with CDR categories 0.5 (β ₁=-0.2, SE=0.08, p=0.013) and \geq 1 (β ₁=-0.2, SE=0.07, p=0.015) declined over time compared to controls (Figure 1D).

Memory – immediate recall

For immediate recall, we found strong evidence for differences between CDR categories ($\chi^2(2)=51.4$, p<0.001), and between gene groups ($\chi^2(3)=40.2$, p<0.001) at baseline. All gene groups with CDR category ≥ 1 performed worse than controls (C9orf72: $\beta=-2.7$, SE=0.32, p<0.001; GRN: $\beta=-5.5$, SE=0.40, p<0.001; MAPT: $\beta=-4.3$, SE=0.51, p<0.001), with MAPT performing worse than C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers ($\beta=-1.7$, SE=0.56, p=0.003) and GRN pathogenic variant carriers

performing worse than *C9orf72* (β =--3.0, SE=0.47, p<0.001) and *MAPT* pathogenic variant carriers (β =-1.2, SE=0.62, p=0.032; Figure 2A).

Memory – delayed recall

For delayed recall, we also found evidence for differences between CDR categories ($\chi^2(2)$ =36.9, p<0.001), and between gene groups ($\chi^2(3)$ =10.4, p=0.015), at baseline. Again, all gene groups with CDR category \geq 1 performed worse than controls (C9orf72: β =-2.0, SE=0.21, p<0.001; GRN: β =-2.8, SE=0.27, p<0.001; MAPT: β =-2.7, SE=0.35, p<0.001), with GRN (β =-0.9, SE=0.32, p=0.007) and MAPT (β =-0.8, SE=0.38, p=0.033) performing worse than C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers. MAPT pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category 0.5 (β =-0.8, SE=0.36, p=0.021) performed worse than controls and C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers (β =-0.9, SE=0.42, p=0.023). In addition, there was some weak evidence indicating that MAPT pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category 0 performed worse than controls (β =-0.4, SE=0.21, p=0.081; Figure 2B). None of the groups declined significantly over time.

Social cognition

We found strong evidence for differences between CDR categories ($\chi^2(2)=35.7$, p<0.001) at baseline on social cognition. All gene groups with CDR category ≥ 1 performed worse than controls (C9orf72: $\beta=-2.6$, SE=0.19, p<0.001; GRN: $\beta=-2.3$, SE=0.23, p<0.001; MAPT: $\beta=-1.9$, SE=0.28, p<0.001), with GRN performing worse than MAPT pathogenic variant carriers ($\beta=-0.7$, SE=0.33, p=0.033; Figure 2C). C9orf72 ($\beta=-0.7$, SE=0.24, p=0.001) and GRN ($\beta=-0.7$, SE=0.25, p=0.001) pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category 0.5 also performed worse at baseline than controls. We found interaction effects between time and gene group ($\chi^2(3)=21.3$, p<0.001) and time, CDR category and gene group ($\chi^2(4)=16.3$, p<0.003). GRN pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category ≥ 1 showed steeper decline over time compared to controls ($\beta_1=-0.5$, SE=0.13, p=<0.001), C9orf72 ($\beta_1=-0.7$, SE=0.16, p<0.001) and MAPT ($\beta_1=-0.3$, SE=0.17, p=0.049) pathogenic variant carriers and MAPT pathogenic

variant carriers with CDR category ≥ 1 showed steeper decline over time compared *C9orf72* pathogenic variant carriers (β_1 =-0.3, SE=0.16, p=0.047; Figure 2C).

Visuoconstruction

We found differences between gene groups on visuoconstruction ($\chi^2(3)$ =11.0, p=0.012) at baseline. All gene groups with CDR category \geq 1 performed worse than controls (C9orf72: β =-2.0, SE=0.22, p<0.001; GRN: β =-1.6, SE=0.26, p<0.001; MAPT: β =-0.9, SE=0.32, p=0.004), with C9orf72 (β =-1.2, SE=0.33, p=0.002) and GRN (β =-1.0, SE=0.36, p=0.008) performing worse than MAPT pathogenic variant carriers. GRN pathogenic variant carriers with CDR category 0.5 (β ₁=-0.5, SE=0.23, p=0.050) showed steeper decline over time than controls (Figure 2D).

Discussion

This study demonstrated gene-specific baseline differences and decline over a 5-year time period in a large cohort of genetic FTD pathogenic variant carriers that was moderated by the CDR plus NACC FTLD global score. C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers performed lower on attention, executive function, and verbal fluency from CDR plus NACC FTLD 0 onwards, with relatively minimal decline over time compared to other genetic groups regardless of the CDR plus NACC FTLD score (i.e., disease progression). The cognitive profile in MAPT pathogenic variant carriers was characterized by early impaired memory (already at CDR plus NACC FTLD 0.5), with language decline starting at CDR plus NACC FTLD 0.5, and executive dysfunction developing rapidly at CDR plus NACC FTLD ≥1. GRN pathogenic variant carriers showed no differences or decline compared to controls at CDR plus NACC FTLD 0, but verbal fluency and visuoconstruction started to decline at CDR plus NACC FTLD 0.5. GRN pathogenic variant carriers showed the most rapid decline compared to the other groups in language and social cognition from CDR plus NACC FTLD ≥1 onwards. The results from this study confirm cognitive decline in the asymptomatic and prodromal stages of genetic FTD and hold potential for upcoming therapeutic trials by 1) identifying the most sensitive cognitive measures to track disease progression and treatment effects, and (2) identifying the speed of change over time, thereby providing insight into the best time-window to start disease-modifying treatment.

Asymptomatic C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers performed worse at baseline than controls on attention/mental processing speed, executive function and verbal fluency. In the prodromal stage, social cognition was also lower at baseline, whereas at the fully symptomatic stage all cognitive domains were lower at baseline. There was no decline over time in the asymptomatic stage or prodromal stage, but attention/mental processing speed, language and verbal fluency declined over time in the symptomatic stage, although less rapidly than in other gene groups. The other cognitive domains remained relatively stable, and of note, there were signs of possible practice effects for memory and social cognition. This is largely in line with previous studies demonstrating widespread cognitive impairment in C9orf72 pathogenic variant carriers with relatively minimal decline over time^{5, 40, 41}. It is further corroborated by the fact that the neurodegenerative process associated with the C9orf72 pathogenic variant is widespread, with neurodegeneration in the frontal and temporal cortices but also in more posterior cortical, subcortical and cerebellar regions^{40, 42}. Interestingly, this group performed lowest compared to the other groups on a wide range of neuropsychological tests, specifically tests for attention/mental processing speed and executive function, at the asymptomatic stage. Although these performances were not at an 'impaired' level (i.e. Z-score \leq -2), these deficits might represent the earliest signs of neurodegeneration with very slow decline over time. Alternatively, the lack of decline over time in all three disease stages raises the intriguing possibility that these deficits are not merely preclinical signs of FTD as a result of early neurodegeneration, but might be indicative of a neurodevelopmental disorder in C9orf72 which at a certain age is superimposed by additional neurodegeneration. This hypothesis has been suggested by several previous studies that found gray and white matter deficits and connectivity disruption as well as psychiatric conditions and cognitive deficits many years before the estimated age of symptom onset without evidence of disease progression over time^{43, 44}. Future studies should focus on ascertaining early-life radiological and clinical assessments to test this hypothesis.

In *MAPT* pathogenic variant carriers, there was a trend towards lower memory performance than controls at baseline in the asymptomatic stage, which became significant at the prodromal stage. All

cognitive domains were lower than controls at baseline in the symptomatic stage. There was no decline over time in the asymptomatic stage, but language declined from the prodromal stage onwards. In addition, attention/mental processing speed, executive function and social cognition declined progressively during the symptomatic stage. These results confirm that the first changes for this group occur in cognitive functions that are strongly associated with the temporal lobe, an area that already shows early degeneration in presymptomatic MAPT pathogenic variant carriers⁶. Several previous studies have demonstrated that episodic memory impairment is a distinct feature in MAPTrelated FTD, even in presymptomatic pathogenic variant carriers 19, 20, 26. Strikingly, we demonstrated lower memory performance in asymptomatic and prodromal pathogenic variant carriers but with practice effects over time that disappeared at the fully symptomatic stage only. A likely explanation for these practice effects is that the same items for memory tests were used at all time points, stressing the need for the use of tests that have multiple versions with different stimuli in longitudinal cohort studies. The lower performance and decline seen in the language domain was largely driven by the BNT, a test that strongly depends on the semantic memory system⁴⁵. This is unsurprising given that semantic memory is strongly associated with the anteromedial temporal lobe, an area known to deteriorate early and progressively in MAPT-associated FTD²⁶. Deficits in semantic memory have been described as a key symptom in MAPT pathogenic variant carriers in a more progressed disease stage⁵, but our results illustrate that the first changes occur at a much earlier stage, suggesting that semantic tests might be a good candidate to serve as a sensitive endpoint in upcoming therapeutic trials of MAPT-associated FTD. Only at a later progressed stage, when atrophy spreads from the temporal to frontal areas of the brain, impairment in cognitive functions that are typically associated with bvFTD develops, such as executive function and social cognition ^{22, 46}.

There were no cross-sectional differences between asymptomatic *GRN* pathogenic variant carriers and controls at baseline, and there was no decline over time in this stage. In the prodromal stage, pathogenic variant carriers performed worse than controls on executive function and social cognition, and they declined over time on verbal fluency and visuoconstruction. All cognitive domains were lower than controls at baseline in the symptomatic stage, and they showed progressive decline over

time on attention/mental processing speed, verbal fluency, language and social cognition. This is in line with previous studies showing minimal changes in grey and white matter but also cognition in presymptomatic GRN pathogenic variant carriers, often with fast progressive decline after symptom onset^{5, 20}. Although in our study no change over time was detected in the asymptomatic stage, GRN pathogenic variant carriers performed worse on executive function and social cognitive tasks at the prodromal stage suggesting some decline between these stages. Possible explanations could be that the asymptomatic pathogenic variant carriers were too far from symptom onset, and/or that the timewindow between these stages where these changes occur is relatively short. Interestingly, verbal fluency declined progressively in the prodromal period indicating an early deficit in specifically verbal fluency. This could be interpreted as an early sign of pathogenic variant carriers developing nfvPPA, a clinical phenotype that is often seen in GRN pathogenic variant carriers⁴². However, verbal fluency measures are also known to strongly depend on executive function³⁷, a cognitive domain known to deteriorate in bvFTD⁴⁶. Surprisingly, visuoconstruction also declined in the prodromal stage, whereas this is considered to be relatively spared in FTD². However, most visuoconstructive tasks also strongly depend on executive functions such as planning, organizing and keeping overview⁴⁷. It seems, therefore, more likely that these tasks were influenced by impaired executive function rather than a pure impairment in language and visuoconstruction per se.

This is to our knowledge the first study to longitudinally investigate a large cohort of all three major causes of genetic FTD over a 5-year period. A major strength of this study is the use of the CDR plus NACC FTLD to stratify pathogenic variant carriers from asymptomatic to prodromal and fully symptomatic (i.e., $0, 0.5, \ge 1$). Most previous studies have stratified pathogenic variant carriers as either presymptomatic or symptomatic according to whether they fulfilled diagnostic criteria for FTD syndromes, but this does not fully grasp the clinical trajectory of FTD. Importantly, the cognitive profile between the presymptomatic and symptomatic phase has not been well-characterized. Some other studies have used estimated years to symptom onset based on mean family age at onset, but a recent paper demonstrated that the correlations between age at symptom onset and mean family age at symptom onset were weak for C9orf72 and GRN pathogenic variant carriers, indicating that this might

not be a reliable proxy²⁸. By stratifying according to CDR plus NACC FTLD, we have provided insight into cognitive decline during different disease stages. There are, however, a few limitations to this study. Firstly, the sample size at the CDR plus NACC FTLD 0.5 stage was smaller than the other stages, which probably influenced the statistical power in this specific group. Secondly, due to ongoing recruitment within GENFI, participants varied in the number of completed visits resulting in missing data at later time points. Therefore, we analyzed the data with linear mixed-effects model as these models allow for unbalanced time points and missing data³⁹. We could not use a non-linear mixed effects model (e.g. natural cubic splines) due to the limited number of follow-up visits. However, similar to what has been performed in studies of familial AD⁴⁸, non-linear models might be more suitable for the analysis of clinical progression in FTD. Future studies with longer follow-up should therefore investigate the use of non-linear models in analyzing clinical disease progression in FTD. Thirdly, we did not take progression over time on the CDR plus NACC FTLD into account, but stratified groups according to their global score at baseline. Future research should investigate the cognitive trajectories of progressors compared to non-progressors on the CDR plus NACC FTLD more in depth. Importantly, individual trajectories demonstrated high variability between individuals in each group. A possible explanation for this inter-individual variability could be that some individuals with a CDR plus NACC FTLD global score of 0 might be closer to symptom onset than others. Similarly, individuals with a CDR plus NACC FTLD score of 0.5 or ≥1 at baseline might vary in time since progression to that CDR category (i.e. individuals that had a global score of 0.5 for several years at inclusion will likely progress faster than individuals that progressed to a score of 0.5 more recently). Validation in other cohorts such as ALLFTD or DINAD is warranted. Fourthly, practice effects were strikingly visible for the FCSRT and Facial Emotion Recognition Test stressing the need for different test versions in the former, but more sensitive tasks for emotion recognition (e.g. the use of morphed facial expressions²²) and social cognition in general. Lastly, in the interpretation of the memory – immediate recall, social cognition and visuoconstruction results it should be taken into account that they were represented by only a single cognitive test, and those individual tests might not be a representation of the entire cognitive domain.

To conclude, we provide evidence for gene-specific cognitive decline in the prodromal stage of genetic FTD. Specifically tests for attention/mental processing speed, executive function, language and memoryshowed clear differences between gene groups and controls at baseline, but the speed and nature of change over time differed depending on 1) the gene group and 2) the CDR plus NACC FTLD global score. These results confim the value of neuropsychological assessment in tracking disease progression and could inform upcoming clinical trials in selecting sensitive endpoints for measuring treatment effects as well as in characterizing the best time window for starting treatment.



WNL-2022-200571_sup -- <u>http://links.lww.com/WNL/B987</u>

WNL-2022-200571_coinvestigator_appendix --http://links.lww.com/WNL/B988

References

- 1. Seelaar H, Rohrer JD, Pijnenburg YA, Fox NC, van Swieten JC. Clinical, genetic and pathological heterogeneity of frontotemporal dementia: a review. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2011;82:476-486.
- 2. Rascovsky K, Hodges JR, Knopman D, et al. Sensitivity of revised diagnostic criteria for the behavioural variant of frontotemporal dementia. Brain 2011;134:2456-2477.
- 3. Gorno-Tempini ML, Hillis AE, Weintraub S, et al. Classification of primary progressive aphasia and its variants. Neurology 2011;76:1006-1014.
- 4. Lashley T, Rohrer JD, Mead S, Revesz T. An update on clinical, genetic and pathological aspects of frontotemporal lobar degenerations. Neuropathology and applied neurobiology 2015;41:858-881.
- 5. Poos JM, Jiskoot LC, Leijdesdorff SMJ, et al. Cognitive profiles discriminate between genetic variants of behavioral frontotemporal dementia. Journal of Neurology 2020;267:1603-1612.
- 6. Rohrer JD, Nicholas JM, Cash DM, et al. Presymptomatic cognitive and neuroanatomical changes in genetic frontotemporal dementia in the Genetic Frontotemporal dementia Initiative (GENFI) study: a cross-sectional analysis. Lancet Neurol 2015;14:253-262.
- 7. Jiskoot LC, Panman JL, Meeter LH, et al. Longitudinal multimodal MRI as prognostic and diagnostic biomarker in presymptomatic familial frontotemporal dementia. Brain 2018;142:193-208.
- 8. van der Ende EL, Meeter LH, Poos JM, et al. Serum neurofilament light chain in genetic frontotemporal dementia: a longitudinal, multicentre cohort study. The Lancet Neurology 2019:18:1103-1111.
- 9. Panman JL, Jiskoot LC, Bouts M, et al. Gray and white matter changes in presymptomatic genetic frontotemporal dementia: a longitudinal MRI study. Neurobiol Aging 2019;76:115-124.
- 10. Benussi A, Gazzina S, Premi E, et al. Clinical and biomarker changes in presymptomatic genetic frontotemporal dementia. Neurobiology of aging 2019;76:133-140.
- 11. Mutsaerts HJMM, Mirza SS, Petr J, et al. Cerebral perfusion changes in presymptomatic genetic frontotemporal dementia: a GENFI study. Brain 2019;142:1108-1120.
- 12. Cash DM, Bocchetta M, Thomas DL, et al. Patterns of gray matter atrophy in genetic frontotemporal dementia: results from the GENFI study. Neurobiology of aging 2018;62:191-196.
- 13. Dopper EGP, Rombouts SARB, Jiskoot LC, et al. Structural and functional brain connectivity in presymptomatic familial frontotemporal dementia. Neurology 2014;83:e19-e26.
- 14. Tsai RM, Boxer AL. Therapy and clinical trials in frontotemporal dementia: past, present, and future. Journal of neurochemistry 2016;138:211-221.
- 15. Barandiaran M, Estanga A, Moreno F, et al. Neuropsychological features of asymptomatic c. 709-1G> A progranulin mutation carriers. Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society 2012;18:1086-1090.
- 16. Barandiaran M, Moreno F, de Arriba M, et al. Longitudinal neuropsychological study of presymptomatic c. 709-1G> A progranulin mutation carriers. Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society 2019;25:39-47.
- 17. Cheran G, Wu L, Lee S, et al. Cognitive indicators of preclinical behavioral variant frontotemporal dementia in MAPT carriers. Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society 2019;25:184-194.
- 18. Hallam BJ, Jacova C, Hsiung G-YR, et al. Early neuropsychological characteristics of progranulin mutation carriers. Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society: JINS 2014;20:694.
- 19. Jiskoot LC, Dopper EG, Heijer T, et al. Presymptomatic cognitive decline in familial frontotemporal dementia: A longitudinal study. Neurology 2016;87:384-391.
- 20. Jiskoot LC, Panman JL, van Asseldonk L, et al. Longitudinal cognitive biomarkers predicting symptom onset in presymptomatic frontotemporal dementia. Journal of neurology 2018;265:1381-1392.

- 21. Papma JM, Jiskoot LC, Panman JL, et al. Cognition and gray and white matter characteristics of presymptomatic C9orf72 repeat expansion. Neurology 2017;89:1256-1264.
- 22. Jiskoot LC, Poos JM, Vollebergh ME, et al. Emotion recognition of morphed facial expressions in presymptomatic and symptomatic frontotemporal dementia, and Alzheimer's dementia. Journal of neurology 2021;268:102-113.
- 23. Moore K, Convery R, Bocchetta M, et al. A modified Camel and Cactus Test detects presymptomatic semantic impairment in genetic frontotemporal dementia within the GENFI cohort. Applied Neuropsychology: Adult 2021:1-8.
- 24. Russell LL, Greaves CV, Bocchetta M, et al. Social cognition impairment in genetic frontotemporal dementia within the GENFI cohort. Cortex 2020;133:384-398.
- 25. Franklin HD, Russell LL, Peakman G, et al. The Revised Self-monitoring Scale Detects Early Impairment of Social Cognition in Genetic Frontotemporal Dementia Within the GENFI Cohort. 2021.
- 26. Poos JM, Russell LL, Peakman G, et al. Impairment of episodic memory in genetic frontotemporal dementia: A GENFI study. Alzheimer's & Dementia: Diagnosis, Assessment & Disease Monitoring 2021;13:e12185.
- 27. Bertrand A, Wen J, Rinaldi D, et al. Early cognitive, structural, and microstructural changes in presymptomatic C9orf72 carriers younger than 40 years. JAMA neurology 2018;75:236-245.
- 28. Moore KM, Nicholas J, Grossman M, et al. Age at symptom onset and death and disease duration in genetic frontotemporal dementia: an international retrospective cohort study. The Lancet Neurology 2020;19:145-156.
- 29. Miyagawa T, Brushaber D, Syrjanen J, et al. Utility of the global CDR® plus NACC FTLD rating and development of scoring rules: Data from the ARTFL/LEFFTDS Consortium. Alzheimer's & Dementia 2020:16:106-117.
- 30. Brooks BR, Miller RG, Swash M, Munsat TL, World Federation of Neurology Research Group on Motor Neuron D. El Escorial revisited: revised criteria for the diagnosis of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Amyotroph Lateral Scler Other Motor Neuron Disord 2000;1:293-299.
- 31. Morris JC, Weintraub S, Chui HC, et al. The Uniform Data Set (UDS): Clinical and Cognitive Variables and Descriptive Data From Alzheimer Disease Centers. Alzheimer Disease & Associated Disorders 2006;20:210-216.
- 32. Corrigan JD, Hinkeldey NS. Relationships between parts A and B of the Trail Making Test. Journal of clinical psychology 1987;43:402-409.
- 33. Delis DC, Kaplan E, Kramer J, den Buysch HO, Noens ILJ, Berckelaer-Onnes IA. D-KEFS: Delis-Kaplan executive function system: color-word interference test: handleiding: Pearson, 2008.
- 34. Moore K, Convery R, Bocchetta M, et al. A modified Camel and Cactus Test detects presymptomatic semantic impairment in genetic frontotemporal dementia within the GENFI cohort. Applied Neuropsychology: Adult 2020:1-8.
- 35. Tombaugh TN, Kozak J, Rees L. Normative data stratified by age and education for two measures of verbal fluency: FAS and animal naming. Archives of clinical neuropsychology 1999;14:167-177.
- 36. Shao Z, Janse E, Visser K, Meyer AS. What do verbal fluency tasks measure? Predictors of verbal fluency performance in older adults. Frontiers in psychology 2014;5:772.
- 37. Whiteside DM, Kealey T, Semla M, et al. Verbal fluency: Language or executive function measure? Applied Neuropsychology: Adult 2016;23:29-34.
- 38. Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. "Mini-mental state": a practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. Journal of psychiatric research 1975;12:189-198.
- 39. Cnaan A, Laird NM, Slasor P. Using the general linear mixed model to analyse unbalanced repeated measures and longitudinal data. Stat Med 1997;16:2349-2380.
- 40. Mahoney CJ, Downey LE, Ridgway GR, et al. Longitudinal neuroimaging and neuropsychological profiles of frontotemporal dementia with C9ORF72 expansions. Alzheimers Res Ther 2012;4:41.

- 41. Khan BK, Yokoyama JS, Takada LT, et al. Atypical, slowly progressive behavioural variant frontotemporal dementia associated with C9ORF72 hexanucleotide expansion. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2012;83:358-364.
- 42. Rohrer JD, Warren JD. Phenotypic signatures of genetic frontotemporal dementia. Curr Opin Neurol 2011;24:542-549.
- 43. Lee SE, Sias AC, Mandelli ML, et al. Network degeneration and dysfunction in presymptomatic C9ORF72 expansion carriers. Neuroimage Clin 2017;14:286-297.
- 44. Lulé DE, Müller H-P, Finsel J, et al. Deficits in verbal fluency in presymptomatic C9orf72 mutation gene carriers—a developmental disorder. Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry 2020;91:1195-1200.
- 45. Kaplan E, Goodglass H, Weintraub S. Boston naming test: Pro-ed, 2001.
- 46. Piguet O, Hodges JR. Behavioural-variant frontotemporal dementia: An update. Dementia & neuropsychologia 2013;7:10.
- 47. Freeman RQ, Giovannetti T, Lamar M, et al. Visuoconstructional problems in dementia: contribution of executive systems functions. Neuropsychology 2000;14:415.
- 48. Kinnunen KM, Cash DM, Poole T, et al. Presymptomatic atrophy in autosomal dominant Alzheimer's disease: A serial magnetic resonance imaging study. Alzheimer's & dementia 2018;14:43-53.



Tables and Figures

Table 1. Cumulative frequency of the number of participants at each yearly follow-up. Abbreviations: *C9orf72* = chromosome 9 open reading frame 72; *GRN* = progranulin; *MAPT* = microtubule-associated protein tau.

	Year								
	1	2	3	4	5				
C9orf72	207	109	105	34	0				
GRN	206	112	72	31	3				
MAPT	86	60	40	11	1				
Controls	255	154	105	34	1				



Table 2. Demographics and neuropsychological data per genetic group and FTLD CDR global score category at baseline. Values are represented as mean Z-score compared to controls (standard deviation) unless otherwise specified. Abbreviations: C9orf72 = chromosome 9 open reading frame 72; GRN = progranulin; MAPT = microtubule-associated protein tau; CDR® plus NACC FTLD = Clinical Dementia Rating scale plus National Alzheimer's Coordinating Center Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration; y = years; MMSE = Mini-Mental State Examination.

		C9orf72			GRN			MAPT		Controls
Demographic data										
CDR® NACC FTLD category	0	0.5	≥1	0	0.5	≥1	0	0.5	≥1	0
n	109	32	66	129	31	46	48	14	24	255
Sex ratio f:m	64:45	20:12	24:42	84:45	16:15	23:23	29:19	10:4	8:16	145:110
Age, y	44.0	47.7	62.2	45.9	51.8	63.6	39.3	45.7	57.3	45.3
	(11.6)	(10.7)	(8.9)	(12.2)	(13.2)	(7.9)	(10.5)	(12.6)	(10.2)	(12.8)
Education, y	14.3 (3.0)	14.3 (2.6)	13.2	14.7 (3.4)	14.0 (4.0)	11.9	14.4 (3.4)	13.5 (2.4)	13.7 (3.9)	14.4 (3.3)
			(3.7)			(3.3)				
MMSE	28.9 (3.1)	28.8 (2.0)	23.7	29.0 (3.9)	27.8 (5.8)	20.2	29.5 (0.8)	28.2 (2.3)	23.7 (6.7)	29.2 (2.2)
			(6.1)			(7.6)				
CDR® plus NACC FTLD sum of	0.0 (0.0)	1.1 (0.8)	10.9	0.0 (0.0)	1.0 (0.8)	9.2 (5.8)	0.0(0.0)	1.1 (0.8)	9.3 (5.5)	0.0 (0.1)
boxes			(5.5)							
	Neuropsychological data									
Language	-0.2 (1.0)	-0.3 (1.3)	-3.1	0.1 (0.6)	-0.5 (1.4)	-3.1	-0.1 (0.8)	-0.7 (1.2)	-4.1 (3.3)	-
			(2.7)			(2.4)				
Attention	-0.3 (0.8)	-0.3 (1.0)	-2.7	-0.0 (0.6)	-0.4 (1.2)	-2.9	0.2(0.7)	-0.1 (0.9)	-1.5 (1.4)	-
			(1.7)			(2.0)				
Verbal fluency	-0.2 (0.8)	-0.3 (0.9)	-2.0	0.1 (0.8)	-0.1 (0.9)	-1.8	0.1 (0.8)	0.1 (1.0)	-1.4 (1.2)	-
			(0.9)			(1.0)				
Executive function	-0.4 (1.1)	-0.4 (1.2)	-3.3	-0.0 (0.7)	-0.6 (1.9)	-3.5	0.1 (0.8)	-0.2 (0.9)	-1.9 (1.8)	-
			(1.9)			(2.1)				
Memory – immediate recall	-0.5 (1.8)	-0.8 (2.3)	-3.3	0.1 (0.7)	-0.7 (2.3)	-5.7	0.0 (1.1)	-0.9 (2.6)	-5.2 (4.0)	-
			(4.0)			(5.5)				
Memory – delayed recall	-0.3 (0.9)	-0.1 (1.2)	-2.6	-0.0 (0.7)	-0.5 (1.6)	-3.3	-0.1 (1.1)	-0.8 (2.3)	-4.3 (3.0)	-
			(2.6)			(3.4)				
Social cognition	-0.1 (1.0)	-0.7 (1.3)	-3.1	0.1 (1.1)	-0.7 (1.4)	-2.8	0.1 (0.8)	-0.5 (1.2)	-2.2 (2.1)	-
			(2.2)			(1.9)				

Visuoconstruction	-0.1 (1.2)	-0.2 (1.6)	-2.3	0.2 (0.8)	0.2 (1.0)	-1.9	-0.2 (0.9)	-0.2 (0.9)	-1.3 (2.7)	-
			(2.9)			(3.2)				



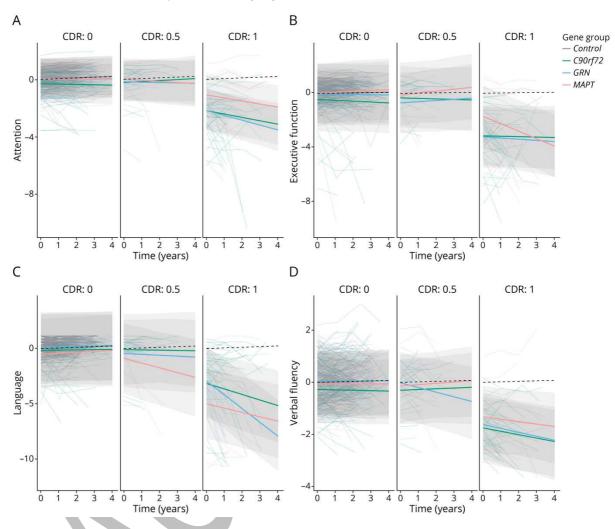
Table 3. Slopes and confidence interval stratified by genetic group and CDR plus NACC FTLD global score for each cognitive domain. Abbreviations: C9orf72 = chromosome 9 open reading frame 72; GRN = progranulin; MAPT = microtubule-associated protein tau; CDR® plus NACC FTLD = Clinical Dementia Rating scale plus National Alzheimer's Coordinating Center Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration

	C9orf72								
CDR plus NACC FTLD	0 0.5					≥1			
	β	95%CI		β	95%	CI	β	95%	CI
Language	0.02	-0.09	0.14	-0.03	-0.37	0.32	-0.50	-0.70	-0.30
Attention	-0.03	-0.10	0.05	0.07	-0.15	0.29	-0.24	-0.36	-0.11
Verbal fluency	-0,01	-0.07	0.04	0.03	-0.14	0.19	-0.13	-0.22	-0.04
Executive function	-0.07	-0.16	0.02	-0.04	-0.31	0.23	-0.03	-0.20	0.14
Memory - immediate recall	0.26	0.11	0.40	0.45	0.06	0.84	-0.01	-0.25	0.24
Memory - delayed recall	0.14	0.05	0.23	0.14	-0.09	0.37	0.00	-0.16	0.16
Social cognition	0.06	-0.06	0.17	0.14	-0.15	0.43	0.20	0.00	0.40
Visuoconstruction	-0.07	-0.25	0.11	-0.13	-0.58	0.32	0.02	-0.25	0.28
					GRN				
CDR plus NACC FTLD		0			0.5			≥1	
	β	95%	CI	β	95%	CI	β	95%CI	
Language	0.05	-0.04	0.14	-0.08	-0.39	0.23	-1.24	-1.51	-0.97
Attention	0.02	-0.04	0.07	-0.03	-0.22	0.17	-0.34	-0.52	-0.16
Verbal fluency	0.00	0.04	0.05	-0.18	-0.33	-0.03	-0.15	-0.28	-0.02
Executive function	-0.01	-0.08	0.06	0.09	-0.16	0.33	-0.09	-0.32	0.15
Memory - immediate recall	0.06	-0.05	0.17	0.17	-0.17	0.52	-0.24	-0.64	0.17
Memory - delayed recall	0.05	-0.02	0.12	-0.03	-0.24	0.18	-0.06	-0.32	0.20
Social cognition	0.09	0.00	0.18	0.11	-0.16	0.39	-0.47	-0.70	-0.23
Visuoconstruction	-0.09	-0.23	0.05	-0.45	-0.88	-0.02	-0.13	-0.48	0.23
	MAPT								
CDR plus NACC FTLD		0			0.5			≥1	
	β	95%	CI	β	95%	CI	β		
Language	0.08	-0.06	0.22	-0.43	-0.76	-0.10	-0.39	-0.67	-0.10
Attention	-0.01	-0.09	0.08	-0.08	-0.28	0.13	-0.21	-0.39	-0.04
Verbal fluency	0.00	-0.07	0.07	0.05	-0.10	0.21	-0.09	-0.23	0.04
Executive function	0.07	-0.04	0.17	0.14	-0.12	0.41	-0.55	-0.77	-0.33
Memory - immediate recall	0.02	-0.15	0.18	0.19	-0.20	0.57	-0.06	-0.46	0.34
Memory - delayed recall	0.03	-0.07	0.13	0.07	-0.16	0.31	-0.16	-0.41	0.09
Social cognition	0.08	-0.05	0.21	0.20	-0.12	0.52	-0.13	-0.37	0.12
Visuoconstruction	0.04	-0.17	0.25	0.11	-0.36	0.58	0.20	-0.17	0.58
	Controls								
	β					95%CI			
Language	0.06					-0.02		0.13	
Attention	0.05				0.00		0.10		
Verbal fluency	0.02				-0.02		0.05		
Executive function	0.02					-0.0		0.08	
Memory - immediate recall	0.00				-0.1	1	0.22		

Memory - delayed recall	0.05	-0.01	0.10
Social cognition	0.04	-0.03	0.12
Visuoconstruction	0.13	0.04	0.12

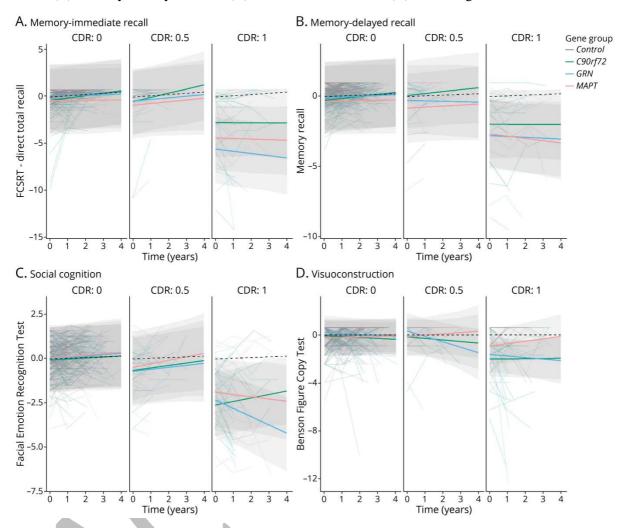


Figure 1. Linear mixed effects models displaying longitudinal trajectories in composite domain z-score stratified by the CDR plus NACC FTLD for *C9orf72*, *GRN* and *MAPT* pathogenic variant carriers and healthy controls. Models are displayed per cognitive domain: (**A**) attention, (**B**) executive function, (**C**) verbal fluency, and (**D**) language.



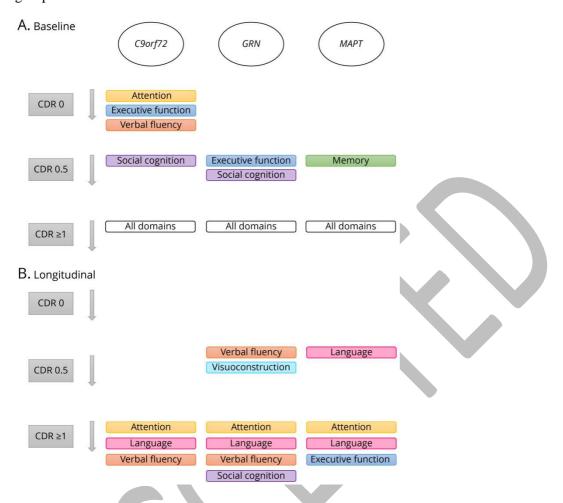
Abbreviations: *C9orf72* = chromosome 9 open reading frame 72; *GRN* = progranulin; *MAPT* = microtubule-associated protein tau; CDR = Clinical Dementia Rating scale plus National Alzheimer's Coordinating Center Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration.

Figure 2. Linear mixed effects models displaying longitudinal trajectories in composite domain z-score stratified by the CDR plus NACC FTLD for *C9orf72*, *GRN* and *MAPT* pathogenic variant carriers and healthy controls. Models are displayed per cognitive domain: (**A**) memory – immediate recall, (**B**) memory – delayed recall, (**C**) visuoconstruction, and (**D**) social cognition.



Abbreviations: *C9orf72* = chromosome 9 open reading frame 72; *GRN* = progranulin; *MAPT* = microtubule-associated protein tau; CDR = Clinical Dementia Rating scale plus National Alzheimer's Coordinating Center Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration.

Figure 3. Summary of (A) cross-sectional and (B) longitudinal differences between each genetic group and controls.



Abbreviations: *C9orf72* = chromosome 9 open reading frame 72; *GRN* = progranulin; *MAPT* = microtubule-associated protein tau; CDR = Clinical Dementia Rating scale plus National Alzheimer's Coordinating Center Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration.



Longitudinal Cognitive Changes in Genetic Frontotemporal Dementia Within the GENFI Cohort

Jackie M. Poos, Amy MacDougall, Esther van den Berg, et al. Neurology published online April 28, 2022 DOI 10.1212/WNL.000000000200384

This information is current as of April 28, 2022

Updated Information & including high resolution figures, can be found at:

Services http://n.neurology.org/content/early/2022/04/27/WNL.0000000000200

384.full

Subspecialty Collections This article, along with others on similar topics, appears in the

following collection(s):

Attention

http://n.neurology.org/cgi/collection/attention

Executive function

http://n.neurology.org/cgi/collection/executive_function

Frontotemporal dementia

http://n.neurology.org/cgi/collection/frontotemporal_dementia

Memory

http://n.neurology.org/cgi/collection/memory

Neuropsychological assessment

http://n.neurology.org/cgi/collection/neuropsychological_assessment

Permissions & Licensing Information about reproducing this article in parts (figures, tables) or in

its entirety can be found online at:

http://www.neurology.org/about/about_the_journal#permissions

Reprints Information about ordering reprints can be found online:

http://n.neurology.org/subscribers/advertise

Neurology ® is the official journal of the American Academy of Neurology. Published continuously since 1951, it is now a weekly with 48 issues per year. Copyright Copyright © 2022 The Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. on behalf of the American Academy of Neurology.. All rights reserved. Print ISSN: 0028-3878. Online ISSN: 1526-632X.

