



Language deficits in primary lateral sclerosis: cortical atrophy, white matter degeneration and functional disconnection between cerebral regions

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Abstract

Background Primary lateral sclerosis (PLS) is traditionally regarded as a pure upper motor neuron disorder, but recent cases series have highlighted cognitive deficits in executive and language domains.

Methods A single-centre, prospective neuroimaging study was conducted with comprehensive clinical and genetic profiling. The structural and functional integrity of language-associated brain regions and networks were systematically evaluated in 40 patients with PLS in comparison to 111 healthy controls. The structural integrity of the arcuate fascicle, frontal aslant tract, inferior occipito-frontal fascicle, inferior longitudinal fascicle, superior longitudinal fascicle and uncinate fascicle was evaluated. Functional connectivity between the supplementary motor region and the inferior frontal gyrus and connectivity between Wernicke's and Broca's areas was also assessed.

Results Cortical thickness reductions were observed in both Wernicke's and Broca's areas. Fractional anisotropy reduction was noted in the aslant tract and increased radical diffusivity (RD) identified in the aslant tract, arcuate fascicle and superior longitudinal fascicle in the left hemisphere. Functional connectivity was reduced along the aslant track, i.e. between the supplementary motor region and the inferior frontal gyrus, but unaffected between Wernicke's and Broca's areas. Cortical thickness alterations, structural and functional connectivity changes were also noted in the right hemisphere.

Conclusions Disease-burden in PLS is not confined to motor regions, but there is also a marked involvement of language-associated tracts, networks and cortical regions. Given the considerably longer survival in PLS compared to ALS, the impact of language impairment on the management of PLS needs to be carefully considered.

Keywords Primary lateral sclerosis · Language · Frontotemporal dementia · MRI · Neuropsychology

Abbreviations

AF Arcuate fascicle
 ALS Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis

ALSFRS Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis functional rating scale
 ASO Antisense oligonucleotide
 BOLD Blood-oxygen-level-dependent (BOLD) signal
 CIFTI CIFTI “grayordinate” file format
 CT Cortical thickness
 CSD Constrained spherical deconvolution
 DWI Diffusion-weighted imaging
 ECAS Edinburgh Cognitive and Behavioural ALS Screen
 ELQ Emotional Lability Questionnaire
 EPI Echo-planar imaging
 FA Fractional anisotropy
 FC Functional connectivity
 fMRI Functional MRI
 fODF Fibre orientation distribution function
 FOV Field of view

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FSL	FMRIB's Software Library
FTD	Frontotemporal dementia
GM	Grey matter
HADS	Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale
HC	Healthy controls
IFO	Inferior occipito-frontal fascicle
ILF	Inferior longitudinal fascicle
IR-SPGR	Inversion recovery prepared spoiled gradient recalled echo
IQR	Interquartile range
LH	Left hemisphere
LMN	Lower motor neuron
ML	Machine learning
MND	Motor neuron disease
MNI152	Montreal Neurological Institute 152 standard space
NIV	Non-invasive ventilation
PEG	Percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy
PLS	Primary lateral sclerosis
PT	Physiotherapy
RD	Radial diffusivity
RH	Right hemisphere
RIG	Radiologically inserted gastrostomy
ROI	Region of interest
rs-fMRI	Resting-state functional MRI
SC	Structural connectivity
SD	Standard deviation
SE-EPI	Spin-echo echo-planar imaging
SLF	Superior longitudinal fascicle
T	Tesla
T1w	T1-weighted imaging
TE	Echo time
TI	Inversion time
TR	Repetition time
UF	Uncinate fascicle
UMN	Upper motor neuron
VR	Voxel resolution
WM	White matter

Introduction

While frontotemporal dysfunction is a well-recognised clinical facet of ALS [1–4], cognitive manifestations of PLS are less well characterised. PLS is traditionally conceptualised as a “pure” upper motor neuron disorder, a view increasingly challenged by case series describing cognitive deficits [5, 6]. Larger PLS studies have recently highlighted that comorbid cognitive and behavioural manifestations are not uncommon [5–7], and more recently, a number of imaging studies have captured extensive frontotemporal, cerebellar and subcortical grey matter (GM) involvement [8, 9]. The most commonly described neuropsychological alterations in PLS

include executive dysfunction, apathy, language deficits and deficits in social cognition [5–7], albeit specific domains are seldom evaluated in detail in dedicated prospective studies.

In light of the relative paucity of post-mortem studies [10], most of which focus on spinal and motor cortex involvement, computational neuroimaging is the most commonly utilised tool to characterise patterns of neurodegeneration in PLS [11]. Early PLS studies have primarily centred on the evaluation of corpus callosum, corticospinal tract and primary motor cortex pathology [12–14] and later studies have increasingly characterised intra- and inter-hemispheric disconnection [15–18]. Pre- and supplementary motor cortex involvement and brainstem alterations [17, 19] have been gradually characterised, and the most recent studies have revealed selective thalamic and amygdalar involvement as well [20–22]. Thalamic nuclei relay a number of corticocortical and corticobasal networks [23] mediating specific cognitive processes. The preferential degeneration of thalamic and amygdalar nuclei are likely contributors to the widespread neurocognitive changes observed clinically. While the hallmark clinical manifestations of PLS are progressive spasticity and pseudobulbar affect, recent studies also confirmed considerable cerebellar degeneration in PLS [8]. Albeit the physiological role of the cerebellum is typically merely associated with coordination and balance, its physiological role in mediating cognitive, emotional and behavioural processes and vulnerability in MNDs is increasingly recognised [8, 24]. Pseudobulbar affect is one of the commonest non-motor manifestation of PLS which is traditionally linked to cortico-medullary disconnection, but cerebellar and serotonergic factors are also thought to contribute [14, 25–28].

In ALS, genotype-associated cognitive and behavioural profiles are well recognised especially in association with *C9orf72* [29–32]. The high incidence and distinctive subtypes of cognitive phenotypes in ALS led to the development of classification schemes [33]. Disease-specific screening instruments [34–36] have been developed and validated to screen for neuropsychological (NP) deficits in the most commonly affected domains in ALS to trigger comprehensive NP assessments if required. More importantly, the survival and management implications of comorbid dementia have been extensively studied in ALS, but not in PLS. In ALS, there is a high incidence of comorbid cognitive and behavioural deficits [6, 37] and apathy [36] which are known to impact on adherence to medications, engagement with supportive interventions (PT/NIV/PEG), fall prevention strategies, participation in clinical trials and survival [38, 39]. Despite the compelling practical relevance of comorbid neuropsychological deficits, patients with PLS are not routinely screened for cognitive deficits and the radiological substrate of cognitive change in PLS remains poorly characterised. Our objective therefore is the systematic evaluation of the

integrity of language-associated cortical regions, relevant white matter (WM) tracts and the connectivity of relevant circuits. Accordingly, a prospective multimodal neuroimaging study has been carried out with 3D T1-weighted (T1w), diffusivity and functional MRI data and detailed clinical and genetic profiling.

Methods

Ethics approval

In accordance with the Ethics Approval of this research project by Beaumont Hospital, Dublin, all participants gave informed consent.

Participants

A total of 151 participants, 40 patients with PLS and 111 healthy controls (HC), were enrolled in this study. The demographic and clinical profiles of the two cohorts are summarised in Table 1. Age, sex, approximate date of symptom onset, symptom onset to scan interval, handedness,

education, smoking history, BMI and site of disease onset were systematically recorded on the day of the scan, and the following instruments were also administered to all patients with PLS: (1) the ALS functional rating scale (ALSFERS-r), the Edinburgh Cognitive and Behavioural ALS Screen (ECAS) [35], the Frontal Systems Behavior Scale (FrSBe), the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) and the Emotional Lability Questionnaire (ELQ) [40] were uniformly administered. Healthy controls were unrelated to patients with PLS and had no family history of neurological disease. All subjects with PLS had “definite” PLS according to the new diagnostic criteria [41]. Participants with comorbid neuroinflammatory, neurovascular or psychiatric conditions and subjects who could not tolerate MRI scanning due to claustrophobia were excluded. Subjects with incidental radiological findings, such as hydrocephalus, meningiomas and previous strokes, were also excluded.

Genetics

Participating patients with PLS underwent whole exome sequencing, as described previously [6]. Thirty-three ALS-associated genetic variants based on the ALS online

Table 1 The demographic and clinical profile of the study population

	PLS patients	HC	<i>t</i> test [W] ⁺⁺ /Chi-square [C2] ⁺⁺⁺
Total number of subjects (missing data sets for CT/DWI ⁺ /rs-fMRI)	40 (0/0/11)	111 (0/2/0)	n.a
Age [y, mean ± SD]	61.95 ± 10.21	59.36 ± 10.66	W: <i>t</i> (71.20) = 1.36, <i>p</i> = 0.18
Sex, F/M	15/25	57/56	C2: $\chi^2(1, N = 141) = 1.50, p = 0.22$
Handedness, R/L	36/4	106/7	C2: $\chi^2(1, N = 141) = 0.20, p = 0.66$
Years of education [y, mean ± SD]	12.38 ± 3.32	14.68 ± 3.52	W: <i>t</i> (72.29) = − 3.72, <i>p</i> < 0.001*
Symptom duration [y, mean ± SD]	9.2 ± 5.7		
ELQ score—mean SD	12.34 ± 14.91		
ALSFERS-r—mean ± SD	33.88 ± 5.05		
ECAS total abnormal scores <i>n</i> (%)	9 (22.5%)		
ALS specific	9 (22.5%)		
ALS non-specific	6 (15%)		
Language	11 (27.5%)		
Verbal fluency	9 (22.5%)		
HADS mean (SD) total	8.1 (5.6)		
HADS mean (SD) anxiety	5.0 (4.1)		
HADS mean (SD) depression	3.2 (2.4)		
ELQ laughing	5.6 (7.4) abnormal: 31%		
ELQ crying	4.0 (6.2) abnormal: 25%		

ALSFERS amyotrophic lateral sclerosis functional rating scale, CT cortical thickness, DWI diffusion-weighted imaging, ECAS Edinburgh Cognitive and Behavioural ALS Screen, ELQ Emotional Lability Questionnaire, F female, HADS Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale, HC healthy controls, L left-handed, M male, PLS primary lateral sclerosis, R right-handed, rs-fMRI resting-state functional magnetic resonance imaging, SD standard deviation, y years

⁺⁺Welch two-sample *t* tests were performed to test differences of age and years of education between all PLS vs. HC,

⁺⁺⁺Chi-square tests were performed to test differences of sex and handedness frequencies between all PLS vs. HC

*Significant at an alpha level of *p* ≤ 0.05

database [42] and 70 hereditary spastic paraplegia (HSP)-associated genetic variants [43] were considered. Patients were also screened for hexanucleotide repeat expansion (HRE) in *C9orf72* using repeat-primed polymerase chain reaction (PCR) as previously described [44].

Neuroimaging

A 3 Tesla Philips Achieva platform was used for MR data acquisition. FLAIR images were acquired to identify incidental neurovascular or neuroinflammatory changes. FLAIR images were acquired axially with an Inversion Recovery Turbo Spin Echo (IR-TSE) sequence: TR/TE = 11,000/125 ms, TI = 2800 ms, FOV = 230 × 183 × 150 mm and spatial resolution = 0.65 × 0.87 × 4 mm. Three input raw-MR data sets were interrogated quantitatively in this study: 3D structural T1-weighted (T1w) images, diffusion-weighted images (DWI) and resting-state functional MRI (rs-fMRI). A 3D Inversion Recovery prepared Spoiled Gradient Recalled echo (IR-SPGR) sequence was used to acquire T1-weighted data with a field of view (FOV) of 256 × 256 × 160 mm, 160 sagittal slices with no interslice gap, flip angle (FA) = 8°, voxel resolution (VR) = 1 mm isotropic, SENSE factor = 1.5, TR/TE = 8.5/3.9 ms and TI = 1060 ms. A spin-echo echo-planar imaging (SE-EPI) pulse sequence with a 32-direction Stejskal–Tanner diffusion encoding scheme was used to acquire DWI data with a FOV = 245 × 245 × 150 mm, 60 axial slices with no interslice gaps, FA = 90°, VR = 2.5 mm isotropic, SENSE factor = 2.5, TR/TE = 7639/59 ms, dynamic stabilisation and spectral presaturation with inversion recovery (SPIR) fat suppression. An echo-planar imaging (EPI) sequence was implemented to evaluate fluctuations of the blood-oxygen-level-dependent (BOLD) signal at rest with eyes closed: a total of 220 volumes were acquired with a FOV = 233 × 233 × 120 mm, 30 axial slices with no interslice gap, FA = 90°, VR = 2.875 × 2.875 × 4 mm isotropic, SENSE factor = 2.5 and TR/TE = 2000/35 ms.

Cortical thickness estimation of Broca's and Wernicke's areas

3D T1w structural data were used for cortical thickness (CT) estimations in Broca's and Wernicke's areas. FreeSurfer's [45] "recon_all" pipeline was utilised for pre-processing including bias corrections, brain extraction, normalisation and generation of 2D cortical surface representations [46, 47]. Resulting surface data were subsequently converted into "CIFTI" file format with the help of Ciftify [48] which relies on Workbench [49] tools. Data were also input into the standard "fsl_anat" pipeline of FMRIB's Software Library (FSL) [50] which encompasses bias correction, brain extraction and non-linear registration to the MNI152 2mm standard space. Resulting transformation matrices were

subsequently used for image co-registration of DWI and functional data. A region-of-interest (ROI) label for "Broca's area" was generated by merging the "pars opercularis" and "pars triangularis" labels of the Desikan–Killiany (DK) atlas [51]. Wernicke's area was approximated based on the "banks of the superior temporal sulcus" of the DK atlas—incorporating parts of the superior temporal gyrus and posterior middle temporal gyrus [52]. While language functions are physiologically lateralised to the left hemisphere in right-handed people and in the majority of left-handed people [53, 54], metrics were also retrieved from the right hemisphere for further analyses.

Tractography of language-associated white matter tracts

Raw diffusion-weighted (DWI) data were used to generate tract-wise diffusivity values as a proxy of structural connectivity (SC). Pre-processing took place in MRtrix3 [55], including noise [56] and Gibbs's Ringing artifacts removal [57], as well as motion, eddy current [58] and bias field corrections [59]. The integrity of the six most relevant language fibre tracts was appraised in each hemisphere: the arcuate fascicle (AF), inferior occipito-frontal fascicle (IFO), inferior longitudinal fascicle (ILF), superior longitudinal fascicle (SLF), uncinate fascicle (UF) [60, 61] as well as the frontal aslant tract (FAT) connecting the supplementary motor region/lateral superior frontal gyrus with the inferior frontal gyrus [62] (Fig. 1). Intraoperative brain stimulation and previous tractography studies have consistently highlighted the role of FAT in a variety of speech processes and language functions including speech initiation, sentence generation, verbal fluency, lexical decisions, orofacial movement coordination and speech inhibition [62]. The TractSeg pipeline [63] was implemented to dissect AF, IFO, ILF, SLF and UF which relies on a neural network approach for the accurate segmentation of individual DWI data sets. TractSeg outputs three separate fibre bundles for SLF (SLF I, SLF II and SLF III) which were merged into a single SLF map. To estimate fibre orientation distribution (fODF) in each voxel and peaks of the spherical harmonic function, the constrained spherical deconvolution (CSD) approach of MRtrix3 [55] was used. The main advantage of CSD stems from its accuracy in crossing fibres regions [64–66]. Output fODFs were normalised [67] and spherical harmonic peaks retrieved to be fed into TractSeg. For frontal aslant tract segmentation, the relevant labels of the Glasser atlas [68] were utilised as end-ROIs [62]. The labels and DW images were aligned to the high-resolution T1w data and tractograms calculated between each pair of ROIs using a probabilistic algorithm to generate 5000 streamlines per tract, using the analogue options and parameters for estimating fODF and tractography as for TractSeg. The 12 tractograms were subsequently

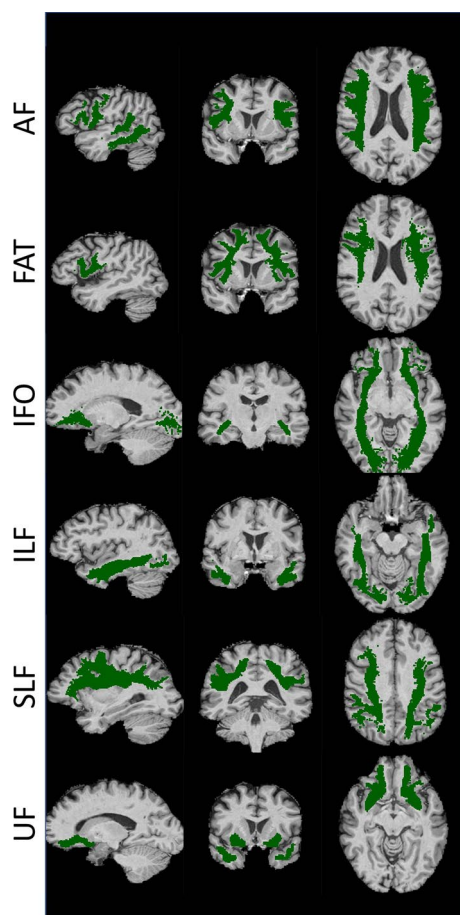


Fig. 1 Tractography of six language-associated tracts: arcuate fascicle (AF), frontal aslant tract (FAT), inferior occipito-frontal fascicle (IFO), inferior longitudinal fascicle (ILF), superior longitudinal fascicle (SLF) and uncinate fascicle (UF)

mapped onto track-weighted images implementing the track density imaging (TDI) method [69], where each streamline contributes a value of unity to the final track-weighted output map. These maps were binarised using a threshold of at minimum two streamlines per voxel. With the resulting binarised maps, the mean radial diffusivity (RD) and fractional anisotropy (FA) of each tract were estimated.

Functional connectivity between Broca's and Wernicke's areas and along the frontal aslant tract

Functional connectivity (FC) was estimated between Broca's and Wernicke's areas as well as between the supplementary motor region/lateral superior frontal gyrus and the inferior frontal gyrus. Rs-fMRI data were pre-processed using FSL's FEAT pipeline which includes brain extraction, intensity normalisation and slice time correction. Head-motion artifacts were corrected using FSL's ICA-based Automatic

Removal Of Motion Artifacts (ICA- AROMA) [70]. Confounding effects of WM and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) were regressed out. The resulting pre-processed functional images were transformed into MNI152 2mm standard space for subsequent group comparisons: First, linear co-registration of the native high-resolution data was performed using 6 degrees of freedom (DOFs), followed by non-linearly warping into standard space using 12 DOFs. FC was calculated in Matlab R2021b (The Mathworks, Natick, USA), using the CoSMoMPPA [71] and FieldTrip [72] toolboxes and defined as Fisher z-transformed Pearson's correlation between the time courses of the ROIs.

Statistical modelling

RStudio (R version 4.2.2) was used for statistical inferences. Differences in means of age and education between patients (aggregating across subgroups) and HC were examined using Welch two-sample *t* tests. Sex and handedness ratios were compared using Chi-square testing. To test differences in neuroimaging metrics between patients and HC, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) omnibus test was implemented, correcting for the confounding effects of age, sex, handedness and years of education. To account for multiple comparisons, for CT and FC, we considered *p* values below $0.05/2 = 0.025$ as significant (correcting for two ROIs); for WM tractography, we considered *p* values below $0.05/6 = 0.008$ as significant, correcting for the number of tracts evaluated (6).

Data availability

Statistical outputs and additional data processing details can be requested from the corresponding author. Individual patient clinical and neuroimaging data cannot be made available due to institutional regulations and departmental policies.

Results

Subjects

In total, data from 40 PLS patients and 111 HC were evaluated. While complete structural, diffusivity and fMRI data were available from the majority of subjects, 11 patients with PLS had no rs-fMRI data and 2 healthy controls out of the 111 healthy subjects had no diffusion-weighted data available (Table 1). Welch two-sample *t*-testing indicated adequate matching for age [$t(71.20) = 1.36$, $p = 0.18$]; however, PLS patients had significantly fewer years of education [$t(72.29) = -3.72$, $p < 0.001$]. As indicated above, education was included as a covariate in our statistical models.

Chi-square testing revealed no significant differences in sex distributions [$X^2(1, N = 141) = 1.50, p = 0.22$] and distributions of handedness [$X^2(1, N = 141) = 0.20, p = 0.66$] between the study groups. Patients with PLS tested negative for GGGGCC hexanucleotide expansions in *C9orf72* and the panel of HSP and ALS-associated genetic variants.

Cortical thickness

To assess cortical thickness differences of language-associated regions between PLS and HC, we used analysis of variance (ANOVA), corrected for age, sex, handedness and years of education. CT differences were evaluated in two regions of interest (ROIs), Broca's and Wernicke's areas. To correct for multiple comparisons with regard to the two ROIs, we adjusted the alpha level $p < 0.05/2 = 0.025$. Results are illustrated in Fig. 2, and the details of the statistical comparisons are presented in Table 2. Significantly reduced cortical thickness was detected in Broca's area in patients with PLS compared to controls [$F(1, 147) = 49.11, p < 0.001$]. The thickness of the right-hemispheric equivalent of Broca's area was also significantly lower in PLS [$F(1, 147) = 53.46, p < 0.001$]. Wernicke's area also exhibited significantly lower CT in PLS compared to controls [$F(1, 147) = 36.13, p < 0.001$], as well as in its right-hemispheric equivalent [$F(1, 147) = 3.80, p < 0.001$]. These findings suggest that both Broca's and Wernicke's areas are affected in PLS, which is, however, not specific to the left hemisphere since similar atrophy was also detected in the equivalent brain regions in the right hemisphere.

White matter microstructure alterations

To evaluate differences in white matter (WM) integrity in language-associated tracts between PLS and HC, we used ANOVA, correcting for age, sex, handedness and years of education. We contrasted differences in radial diffusivity (RD) and fractional anisotropy (FA) in 6 language-associated tracts on each hemisphere: (1) arcuate fascicle (AF), (2) frontal aslant tract (FAT), (3) inferior occipito-frontal fascicle (IFO), (4) inferior longitudinal fascicle (ILF), (5) superior longitudinal fascicle (SLF) and (6) uncinate fascicle (UF). To correct for multiple comparisons investigating these six tracts, we adjusted the alpha level $p < 0.05/6 = 0.008$. We illustrate the results of these comparisons in Fig. 3 and provide statistical details in Table 2. In the left hemisphere, significantly lower FA [$F(1, 143) = 14.06, p < 0.001$] and higher RD [$F(1, 143) = 28.90, p < 0.001$] was identified in the aslant tract in patients with PLS. Additionally higher RD was detected in the AF [$F(1, 147) = 19.85, p < 0.001$], and the SLF [$F(1, 147) = 19.10, p < 0.001$]. In the right hemisphere, reduced FA was identified in the frontal aslant tract [$F(1, 143) = 16.20, p < 0.001$] and SLF [$F(1, 147) = 10.23, p = 0.002$] in patients with PLS compared to controls. Additionally, higher RD was detected in all investigated tracts with the exception of the SLF [$F(1, 147) = 2.58, p = 0.11$]. These findings indicate that language-associated tracts, the frontal aslant tract in particular, are affected in PLS in both hemispheres, and RD is more sensitive than FA in detecting white matter integrity alterations.

Fig. 2 Cortical thickness differences between patients with PLS (PLS) and healthy controls (HC). *Statistically significant group differences

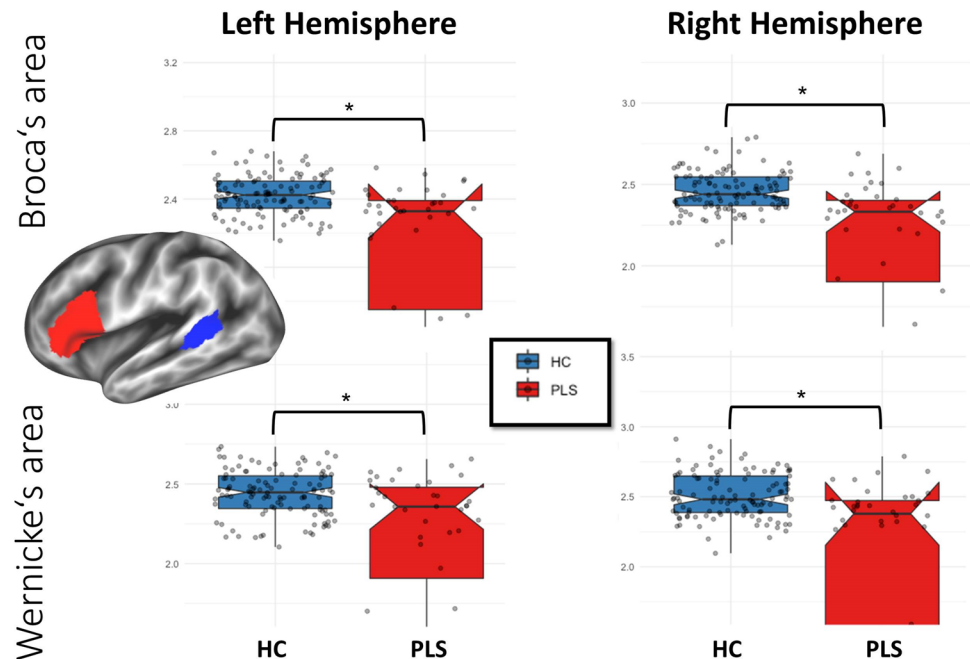


Table 2 Statistical details of radiological comparisons

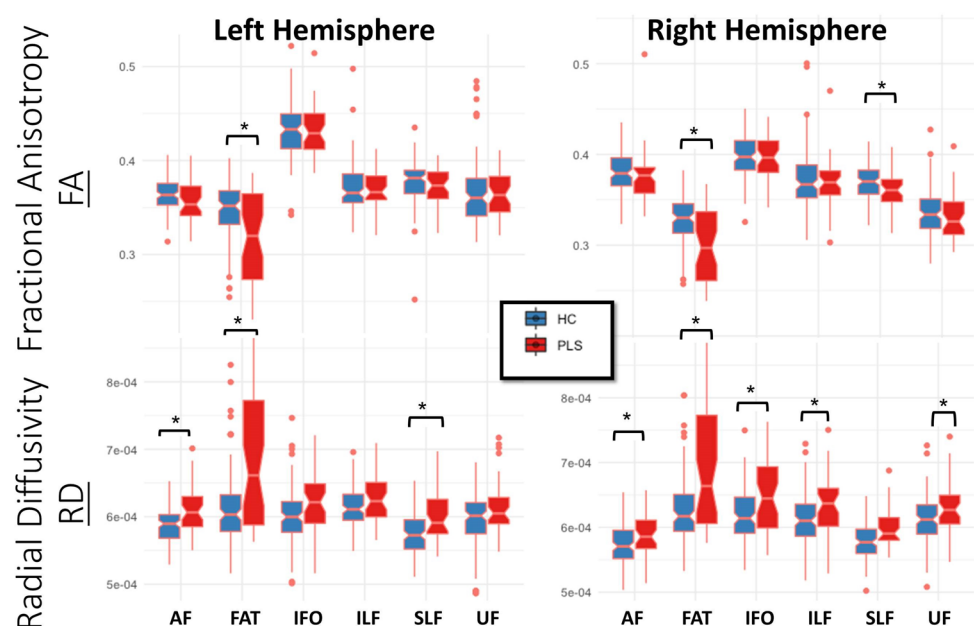
Neuroimaging metric	General linear model, testing main effect “neuroimaging metric”					
	Left hemisphere			Right hemisphere		
	Sum square	F value	p value	Sum square	F value	p value
Cortical thickness						
Broca’s area	2.066	49.11	< 0.001*	2.66	53.46	< 0.001*
Wernicke’s area	2.644	36.13	< 0.001*	3.80	43.41	< 0.001*
Fractional anisotropy						
Arcuate fascicle	1.48e−3	4.89	0.03	4.90e−4	0.85	0.36
Aslant tract	1.68e−2	14.06	< 0.001*	1.47e−2	16.20	< 0.001*
Inferior occipito-frontal fascicle	9.00e−5	0.13	0.72	1.80e−4	0.34	0.56
Inferior longitudinal fascicle	1.00e−5	0.01	0.92	4.40e−4	0.47	0.49
Superior longitudinal fascicle	1.87e−3	4.31	0.04	6.78e−3	10.23	0.002*
Uncinate fascicle	1.50e−4	0.17	0.68	2.50e−4	0.46	0.50
Radial diffusivity						
Arcuate fascicle	1.40e−8	19.85	< 0.001*	6.92e−9	8.87	0.003*
Aslant tract	1.39e−7	28.90	< 0.001*	1.44e−7	33.57	< 0.001*
Inferior occipito-frontal fascicle	1.08e−8	6.87	0.01	2.71e−8	19.84	< 0.001*
Inferior longitudinal fascicle	4.51e−9	5.20	0.024	1.59e−8	12.03	< 0.001*
Superior longitudinal fascicle	2.03e−8	19.11	< 0.001*	4.87e−9	2.58	0.11
Uncinate fascicle	5.84e−9	4.83	0.023	1.19e−8	11.88	< 0.001*
Functional connectivity						
Broca’s–Wernicke’s areas	0.003	0.07	0.79	0.07	1.72	0.19
Aslant tract: source-to-target	0.33	8.27	0.005*	0.306	6.22	0.014*

Radiological differences between individuals with PLS patients and healthy controls

*Bold font indicate significant p values at the corrected alpha levels (for CT and FC: $p < 0.05/2 = 0.025$, correcting for two ROIs for WM analyses: $p < 0.05/6 = 0.008$, correcting for six tracts)

ANOVA analysis of variance, CT cortical thickness, FC functional connectivity, PLS primary lateral sclerosis, ROI region of interest, WM white matter

Fig. 3 Fractional anisotropy (FA) and radial diffusivity (RD) differences between patients with PLS (PLS) and healthy controls (HC) in the arcuate fascicle (AF), frontal aslant tract (FAT), inferior occipito-frontal fascicle (IFO), inferior longitudinal fascicle (ILF), superior longitudinal fascicle (SLF) and uncinate fascicle (UF) *Statistically significant group differences



Functional connectivity

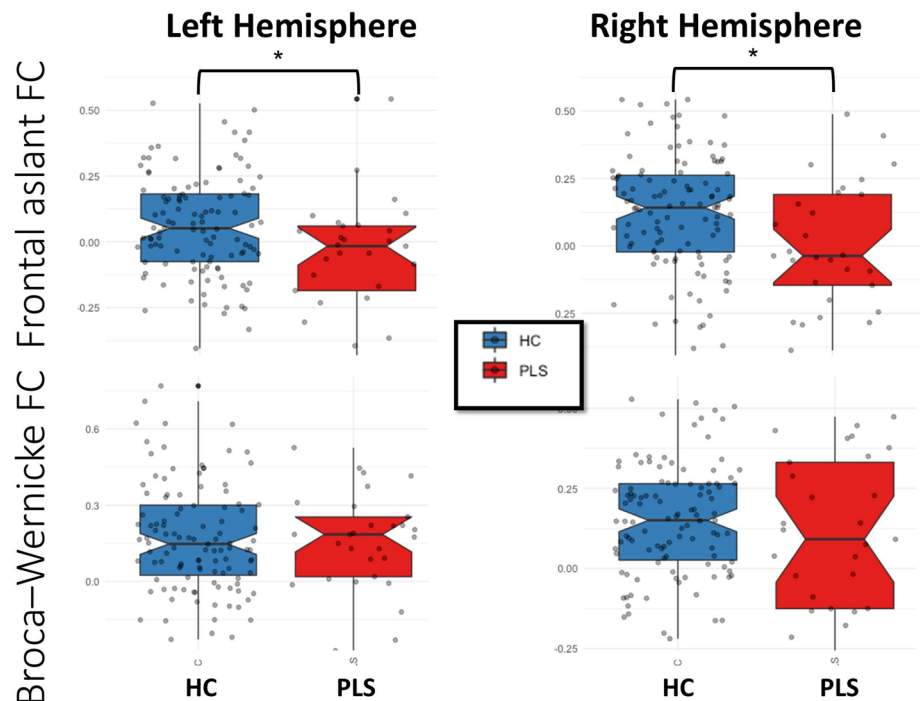
Functional connectivity (FC) differences in language-associated circuits between PLS and HC were explored using ANOVA, correcting for age, sex, handedness and years of education. Differences in partial correlations of BOLD time courses were evaluated between two ROI pairs in each hemisphere: (1) between Broca's and Wernicke's areas and their equivalents in the right hemisphere, and (2) between supplementary motor area/lateral superior frontal gyrus and the inferior frontal gyrus, i.e. along the frontal aslant tract. Please note that the confounding effects of WM and CSF time courses were regressed out. To correct for multiple comparisons investigating the two circuits, the alpha level was adjusted to $p < 0.05/2 = 0.025$. The outcomes of the comparisons are illustrated in Fig. 4, and statistical details are provided in Table 2. Reduced functional connectivity was detected along the frontal aslant tract in patients with PLS both in the left [$F(1, 134) = 8.27, p = 0.005$] and right [$F(1, 134) = 6.22, p = 0.014$] hemispheres. Functional connectivity between Broca's and Wernicke's areas was not reduced in the left [$F(1, 134) = 0.07, p = 0.789$] or right hemispheres [$F(1, 134) = 1.72, p = 0.192$]. These findings demonstrate functional disconnection between the supplementary motor region and the inferior frontal gyrus along the aslant tract in both hemispheres.

Discussion

Our data indicate that brain regions mediating a variety of language functions under physiological circumstances are heavily affected in PLS. We detected not only cortical thickness reductions in both Wernicke's and Broca's areas but also structural connectivity changes in the frontal aslant tract, arcuate and superior longitudinal fascicles of the left hemisphere. Furthermore, decreased functional connectivity was identified between the supplementary motor region and the inferior frontal gyrus.

Our study benefits from a multimodal, structural, functional approach and our findings based on raw DWI and rs-fMRI data are consistent. For example, we detect FA reductions and increased RD in the frontal aslant tract (Fig. 3) suggestive of impaired structural connectivity and we also detect decreased functional connectivity between the supplementary motor region and the inferior frontal gyrus (Fig. 4) suggestive of impaired functional integrity along the aslant tract. The appraisal of multiple diffusivity metrics, instead of just assessing FA, is also beneficial, as radial diffusivity alterations capture the involvement of more tracts than by assessing FA alone (Fig. 3). The impact of sexual dimorphism and education on brain morphology is well recognised both in healthy individuals and ALS [73, 74]; therefore, sex and education have been incorporated in all of our statistical models. Interestingly, the majority of imaging changes are relatively symmetric and cortical thickness alterations, and structural and functional connectivity changes were also

Fig. 4 Functional connectivity differences between patients with PLS and healthy controls (HC) *Statistically significant group differences



noted in the right hemisphere. Broca's area atrophy in MNDs have previously been associated with hexanucleotide expansions in *C9orf72* [75], and also noted in PLS [6]. In this study we demonstrate Broca's area atrophy in PLS patients who tested negative for *C9orf72* HREs and also identify Wernicke's area cortical thickness reductions. While PLS is not associated with frank semantic deficits clinically, the radiological changes underline the rationale for thorough neuropsychological testing beyond cursory screening for cognitive deficits. In view of that caveats of pursuing direct clinico-radiological correlations [76], we have intentionally only performed descriptive radiological analyses. Neuropsychological deficits in MNDs should not be linked to a single grey or white matter metric as these typically stem from the dysfunction of multi-synaptic networks [23] including cortical, subcortical and white matter components [77, 78].

While our data demonstrate widespread frontotemporal change and the involvement of long association fibres, the exact chronology of motor and extra-motor involvement is not entirely clear. The majority of participants have a relatively long symptom duration; therefore, it remains to be established if frontotemporal change in PLS is a late-stage secondary phenomenon or if it preceded motor cortex involvement. The post-mortem literature of PLS with regard to extra-motor involvement is relatively scarce. The few longitudinal imaging studies in PLS also primarily focus on motor connectome degeneration [17, 19, 79], but there is imaging evidence of relatively early and progressive frontotemporal involvement in PLS [11–13]. Interestingly, studies of “probable” PLS, i.e. cohorts with a symptom duration less than 4 years, do not typically capture frontotemporal change, but identify primary motor cortex changes, suggesting that motor cortex and corticospinal tract degeneration likely precedes frontotemporal disease burden expansion [80, 81].

There are a number of misconceptions around PLS, one of which is that it is a relatively benign clinical entity, which is only true in comparison to ALS [82]. While PLS carries a better prognosis than ALS [83, 84], it does exhibit a relentlessly progressive clinical and radiological progression. Another misconception around PLS is that it is a clinically homogeneous condition with stereotyped clinical symptoms and clinical trajectory. The findings of this study highlight that despite unifying clinical symptomatology (spasticity, gait impairment, pseudobulbar affect), patients with PLS may exhibit varying degree of cognitive or behavioural change and that PLS may be more heterogeneous clinically than previously thought. Disease heterogeneity in universally recognised in ALS and the prognostic and survival implications of cognitive change in ALS have been extensively studied [39]. In general, prognostic indicators and predictive markers have been extensively studied in ALS and much less so in PLS [85–88]. The recognition of clinical heterogeneity in ALS inspired cluster analyses of large data sets

[89–91] to identify unique phenotypes with distinctive radiological, clinical and genetic profiles. Furthermore, given the relatively high incidence of cognitive change in ALS, sub-phenotypes have been defined based on the impairment in specific domains [33]. In PLS, terminology such as “PLS-plus” or “PLS-FTD” has been previously coined, but no uniformly utilised or defined based on psychometric measures. The appraisal of extra-motor involvement and detection of cognitive change is not merely an academic pursuit. The practical implications of cognitive change have been widely studied in ALS, and there is ample evidence that frontotemporal dysfunction impacts on compliance with assistive devices [92], adherences to therapies, may impact on caregiver burden and influence end-of-life decisions. It is also conceivable that marked frontotemporal change has ramifications for clinical trial participation. Clinical experience suggests that logopenic and agrammatic speech may be mistaken for apathy or depression and pseudobulbar affect mistaken for disinhibition [25]. Accordingly, raising awareness of language deficits may be useful for early screening for these manifestations, triggering expert assessments and interventions by speech pathologists or speech and language therapists.

From a radiological perspective, extra-motor disease burden in ALS is very well characterised [93–100], including presymptomatic extra-motor changes [1, 31, 101], and the identified anatomical patterns are often linked to the distribution of pathological TDP-43 [102, 103]. Radiological descriptions in ALS complement the wealth of neuropsychology studies, which typically detect executive dysfunction, language deficits, memory impairment, disinhibition, apathy and deficits in social cognition [34, 36, 39, 100, 104, 105]. Study designs in ALS are likely transferable to future PLS studies and there are obvious methodological lessons from existing ALS papers, such as the nuanced characterisation of cognitive change, assessment of longitudinal profiles and the study of the practical implications of frontotemporal dysfunction with regard to survival, decision making and adherence to MDT interventions.

ALS and PLS share a number of core clinical and radiological features, including corticospinal tract involvement, corpus callosum degeneration, brainstem and cerebellar atrophy [8, 106]. The reliable distinction of early-stage upper motor neuron predominant ALS from PLS on clinical grounds can be challenging, hence the minimum symptom duration criterion of subsequent diagnostic criteria for PLS. Given their overlapping radiological signatures [83], machine learning frameworks had difficulty reliably distinguishing ALS from PLS based on cerebral MRI data alone [107]. While individual subject classification into diagnostic, phenotypic or prognostic categories is a relatively new field of MND research, a multitude of statistical approaches have been successfully trialled to date [78, 108, 109]. From a

methodological perspective, imaging studies in PLS primarily rely on structural and diffusivity data [11, 18], sometimes rs-fMRI is incorporated [15, 16] in the protocols, but unlike in ALS, paradigm-based or motor imagery fMRI is seldom utilised [110, 111]. MR spectroscopy is also underutilised in PLS, despite its potential to reveal early metabolic changes, possibly preceding structural degeneration [112].

This study is not without limitations. Only cross-sectional analyses have been conducted; therefore, the longitudinal evolution of pathological change in language-associated areas cannot be inferred from these data; the chronology of motor and language involvement also remains to be established. Another shortcoming of this study is that no *post-mortem* data are available for the anatomical alignment of histopathology and imaging data which would be an important cross-validation step. Notwithstanding these limitations, our clinical and imaging data demonstrate that pathology in PLS is not confined to motor regions and that multiple language-associated brain regions are significantly affected. Unlike in ALS, where the impact of cognitive deficits has been widely studied, the practical ramifications of neuropsychological deficits in PLS remain to be evaluated, so that multidisciplinary care can be tailored to individual patient profiles. The traditional view of PLS as a relatively “benign”, clinically homogeneous, “motor-system only” disease needs to be urgently challenged and frontotemporal disease-burden needs to be comprehensively characterised both in vivo and post-mortem.

Conclusions

PLS should no longer be regarded as pure UMN disorder with the exclusive involvement of the primary motor cortex and the descending corticospinal tracts. Our data add to the accruing clinical and neuroimaging evidence that PLS is a multi-system disorder with considerable frontotemporal, subcortical and cerebellar involvement.

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Declarations

Conflicts of interest The authors have no financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

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