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### 25 Abstract

26 Children lay the foundation for later academic achievement by acquiring core mathematical 27 abilities in the first school years. Neural reorganization processes associated with individual 28 differences in early mathematical learning, however, are still poorly understood. To fill this 29 research gap, we followed a sample of 5-6-year-old children longitudinally to the end of second 30 grade in school (age 7-8 years) combining magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) with 31 comprehensive behavioral assessments. We report significant links between the rate of 32 neuroplastic change of cortical surface anatomy, and children's early mathematical skills. In particular, most of the behavioral variance (about 73%) of children's visuospatial abilities was 33 34 explained by the change in cortical thickness in the right superior parietal cortex. Moreover, 35 half of the behavioral variance (about 55%) of children's arithmetic abilities was explained by the change in cortical folding in the right intraparietal sulcus. Additional associations for 36 37 arithmetic abilities were found for cortical thickness change of the right temporal lobe, and the 38 left middle occipital gyrus. Visuospatial abilities were related to right precentral and 39 supramarginal thickness, as well as right medial frontal gyrus folding plasticity. These effects 40 were independent of other individual differences in IQ, literacy and maternal education. Our 41 findings highlight the critical role of cortical plasticity during the acquisition of fundamental 42 mathematical abilities.

43 Keywords: mathematical learning; visuospatial quantity processing; arithmetic; parietal
44 cortex; brain development; gray matter

# **Highlights:**

46	•	MRI study of cortical plasticity during first years of formal math instruction
47	•	Right superior parietal thickness change was related to visuospatial processing
48	•	Right intraparietal sulcus folding plasticity was related to early arithmetic
49	•	Left occipital, and right fronto-temporal regions showed further associations
50	•	Results link cortical plasticity to basic math learning

# 51 **1. Introduction**

Mathematical abilities are crucial for everyday life, enabling us to find the right page in a book,
schedule appointments or do financial transactions. Moreover, early mathematical skills are
among the strongest predictors of academic achievement (Duncan et al., 2007).

55 Infants as young as 6 months already show an intuitive sense for magnitude (Dehaene, 2011; 56 Xu and Spelke, 2000). This visceral understanding of numerosity increases in precision over 57 development (Lipton and Spelke, 2003), eventually enabling preschoolers to perform 58 approximate addition (Barth et al., 2006, 2005) and subtraction (Slaughter et al., 2006) based 59 on visuospatial representation of magnitude. However, children acquire the skills needed for 60 exact symbolic arithmetic not until it is formally taught in school (Barth et al., 2005). During 61 these developmental trajectories individuals show marked variability in growth of knowledge 62 (Brown et al., 2003; Cockcroft, 1982).

63 Mature mathematical problem-solving involves working memory, cognitive control, attention, 64 memory, visual processing, and numerical cognition (Menon, 2015). Importantly, 65 developmental studies highlight a specific association between visuo-spatial processing, 66 including visuo-spatial working memory, and emerging mathematical performance (Bull et al., 2008). This relationship, however, decreases quickly already during the first two 67 68 years of school (De Smedt et al., 2009). A possible explanation for this change might be a 69 shift from initially relying on visuo-spatial representations of magnitude and problem-70 solving strategies like finger counting (Rasmussen and Bisanz, 2005) to verbal retrieval 71 strategies (De Smedt et al., 2009).

72 Considering this the heterogenous nature of mathematical problem-solving, it is not 73 surprising that a diverse range of brain regions has been associated with its development, 74 including prefrontal cortex (PFC; Rivera et al., 2005; Cho et al., 2011; Evans et al., 2015) and 75 the medial temporal lobe (MTL; Rivera et al., 2005; Cho et al., 2011; Supekar et al., 2013; Qin et al., 2014), ventral temporal-occipital cortex (VTOC; Evans et al., 2015; Rivera et al., 2005),
encompassing a putative number-form area (Nemmi et al., 2018), temporo-parietal regions
including the angular and supramarginal gyri (AG, SMG; Peters et al., 2016; Peters and De
Smedt, 2018; Price et al., 2013) and posterior parietal cortex (PPC; Rivera et al., 2005; Cantlon
et al., 2006; Menon, 2010; Qin et al., 2014), including the intraparietal sulcus (IPS; Cantlon et al., 2006; Emerson and Cantlon, 2015; Jolles et al., 2016a; Schel and Klingberg, 2017).

82 Importantly, previous studies demonstrate characteristic structural and functional changes 83 within these regions while mathematical competence refines, both in terms of visuospatial 84 magnitude processing and arithmetic abilities. In line with accounts of a ventro-temporal region 85 specialized for the processing of numerals in adults (Hannagan et al., 2015; Yeo et al., 2017), 86 differential functional connectivity between the VTOC and the IPS emerges already at three 87 years of age, before children encounter formal mathematical education (Nemmi et al., 2018). 88 Further, gradual increases in mathematical ability are associated with increasing functional 89 connectivity of numeral-selective areas to parietal and prefrontal regions during early 90 adolescence (Nemmi et al., 2018). Moreover, activation of prefrontal regions decreases during 91 development, reflecting reduced reliance on working memory and attentional resources. At the 92 same time, involvement of the IPS, SMG and anterior AG increases (Rivera et al., 2005), 93 follows a regionally specific pattern: activation during numerical problem solving increases 94 linearly in ventral IPS, anterior AG and the posterior SMG from child- to adulthood, reflecting 95 the specialization of these areas for mathematical processing with time and experience (Chang 96 et al., 2016; Rivera et al., 2005). Activation in anterior segments of the SMG, in contrast, peaks 97 in adolescence before declining again towards adulthood (Chang et al., 2016).

In adults, the IPS and also the PPC are associated with representing and manipulating symbolic as well as non-symbolic magnitude (Piazza et al., 2007, 2006, 2004) and mental arithmetic (Knops et al., 2009; Menon et al., 2000; Venkatraman et al., 2005). Due to their specific involvement in symbolic numerical processing as compared to processing of non-symbolic visual magnitude (Peters et al., 2016), AG and SMG have been linked to the retrieval of
arithmetic and numerical fact knowledge from long-term memory (Peters and De Smedt, 2018).
In line with this notion, activity in AG and SMG has been shown to correlate with arithmetic
expertise in adults (Grabner et al., 2007), a pattern that has also been found in adolescents (Price
et al., 2013).

In six year old children, both first mathematical abilities and visuospatial working memory are
associated with cortical thickness of the anterior portion of the right IPS (Schel and Klingberg,
2017). In line with this, the longitudinal change in parietal gray matter volume, alongside
ventro-temporal and prefrontal regions, predicts longitudinal gain in mathematical competence
in children between 7 and 14 years of age (Evans et al., 2015).

112 Specific brain areas have been linked to visuo-spatial magnitude processing at a preschool age 113 (Cantlon et al., 2006) and mathematical development at a school age (Evans et al., 2015; Qin 114 et al., 2014; Rivera et al., 2005). However, little is known about the neural correlates of 115 emerging mathematical abilities during the first years of formal instruction in school. This is a 116 substantial research gap, since, during this time, children move from approximate to exact 117 calculation (Cho et al., 2011). Therefore, we investigated changes of cortical surface anatomy 118 in children at the transition from kindergarten to second grade and related them to their 119 mathematical performance. Recent evidence supports the notion that arithmetic and 120 visuospatial magnitude processing, two important components of mathematical competence, 121 are indeed supported by distinct cognitive processes. Specifically, Georges et al. (2017) found 122 that arithmetic problem-solving abilities - but not visuospatial magnitude processing abilities -123 relate strongly to spatially-organized representations of number. In line with this, we expect 124 different components of numerical cognition to be supported by different brain structures, 125 reflected by relationships between structural change and early mathematical ability.

Links between distinct developmental trajectories of cortical anatomical measures and variableperformance with respect to higher cognitive functioning have been revealed in previous work

128 (Raznahan et al., 2011; Schnack et al., 2015). For instance, Schnack et al. (2015) related faster 129 rates of left-sided cortical thinning from child- to early adulthood with higher intelligence. 130 Changes in cortical surface morphometry may be traced back to cellular processes affecting the 131 cortical cytoarchitecture, like neuro-, glio- and synaptogenesis, synaptic pruning or progressive 132 growth of deep cortical white matter (Natu et al., 2018; Zatorre et al., 2012). Therefore, 133 systematic associations between behavior and the brain's surface-based trajectories might 134 indicate changes in terms of efficiency of brain networks relevant for higher cognitive 135 functioning (Bullmore and Sporns, 2012).

136 It is noteworthy that classical voxel-based morphometry analyses capture information of grey 137 matter volume only, thus conflating information from distinct morphometric properties. 138 Specifically, cortical volume is a composite of the thickness of the cortical ribbon and the area 139 of its surface. This areal expansion, in turn, is reflected by degree and shape of cortical 140 convolutions (Raznahan et al., 2011). Specifically, sustained growth of the outer cortical 141 surface driven by continued maturation of neurons and their connectivity (Budday et al., 2015a; 142 Richman et al., 1975) gives rise to a greater number of cortical folds and deeper sulci. Thus, 143 while previous work focusing either on gray matter volume or cortical thickness cannot 144 disentangle differences driven by cortical thickness and folding (Mechelli et al., 2005), our goal 145 was to go beyond these traditional indices and further explore gyrification, cortical folding 146 regularity and sulcus depth.

All analyses were controlled for prominent behavioral correlates in order to be able to draw specific conclusions about cortical development and mathematical ability. To this end, measures assessing reading and spelling ability, sociodemographic status, non-verbal IQ, handedness, sex and age served as covariates in the statistical models. Given that deficits in literacy and mathematical development are reported to frequently co-occur (Dirks et al., 2008; Moll et al., 2014), familial risk of developing dyslexia was also taken into account in the current work.

154 The aim of the current work was to identify distinct anatomical correlates of individual 155 differences in two important subcomponents of early mathematical skill, i.e., visuo-spatial 156 magnitude processing and arithmetic abilities. We expected to find associations between 157 early visuo-spatial magnitude processing abilities and structural reorganization processes 158 within the IPS and the PPC, given their involvement in visuo-spatial imagery, and within 159 prefrontal regions supporting visuospatial working memory (Formisano et al., 2002; 160 Klingberg, Forssberg, & Westerberg, 2002; Kwon, Reiss, & Menon, 2002)". Further, we 161 expected to find associations between arithmetic processing and regions known to represent numerical information, i.e. the IPS and the PPC, and the hippocampus as a 162 163 region involved in arithmetic fact retrieval.

- 164 **2. Materials and Methods**
- 165 *2.1.Participants*

166 Children were recruited from the Leipzig metropolitan area between 2012 and 2013. Initial data 167 acquisition and screening for neurological, psychiatric, hearing or vision disorders took place 168 between 2012 and 2013. Follow-up sessions were conducted between 2015 and 2016. Twenty-169 eight native German, monolingual children completed the study (15 female; age range at 170 kindergarten: 5 years, 0 months – 6 years, 0 months; mean  $\pm$  SD: 5 years, 6 months  $\pm$  6 months; 171 age range at second grade in school: 7 years, 11 months – 8 years, 11 months; mean  $\pm$  SD: 8 172 years, 5 months  $\pm$  5 months). Fifty-four other children participated but were excluded from 173 further analysis because they received a diagnosis of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder 174 (n=4) or developmental dyslexia (n=9, both determined based on parental questionnaire), did 175 not have complete datasets (i.e., did not comply with the experimental procedures in a training 176 session, were unable to attend follow-up sessions, or exhibited imaging data corrupted by 177 artifacts, n=22), did not complete all psychometric tests (n=3), scored below the 20th percentile 178 rank of the population performance in standardized and age-normed reading or spelling tests

(n=12) or performed below the 20th percentile in a standardized math test (clinical cases of developmental dyscalculia, n=3). One additional child had to be excluded due to an experimental error during psychometric testing. None of the remaining children scored below 85 on average in two non-verbal IQ tests. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Leipzig, Germany. Written informed consent was obtained from parents and children gave verbal informed assent.

# 185 2.2. Psychometric assessment

186 Children's mathematical ability at the end of second grade in school was quantified using the 187 Heidelberg computation test (HRT; Haffner et al., 2005). The HRT includes two subscales. The 188 first subscale quantifies children's early arithmetic abilities with subtests requiring simple 189 addition and subtraction, solving simple equations and performing greater-or-smaller-than 190 comparisons. The second subscale assesses children's visuospatial skills, providing a composite 191 score of tasks that require children to estimate the length of line-drawings and the number of 192 cubes needed for cube structures, to count shapes in a visual array, to connect spatially 193 scrambled numerals in ascending order and to extract the rule determining the sequence of a 194 given row of numbers.

195 All children underwent additional psychometric assessment at both kindergarten and school 196 age. At kindergarten age, we assessed children's non-verbal intelligence using the Wechsler 197 preschool and primary scale of intelligence (Wechsler et al., 2009) and their handedness 198 (Oldfield, 1971). At the end of second grade, we assessed children's spelling accuracy focusing 199 on writing after dictation of words in the German spelling test (Stock and Schneider, 2008). We 200 also examined reading fluency based on number of words correctly read within 1 minute as part 201 of the German Salzburg test of reading and spelling (Moll and Landerl, 2010). Non-verbal 202 intelligence was assessed using the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for children (WISC-IV; 203 Petermann and Petermann, 2011).

The highest level of education (4-point scale ranging from 0 = no degree to 3 = German 'Abitur' [high school diploma / A level]) and vocational qualification (5-point scale ranging from 0 =no qualification to 4 = German 'Habilitation' [postdoctoral academic qualification]) was obtained from each parent and/or primary caregiver using a questionnaire. In the final sample, maternal education ranged from 2 to 7 (mean  $\pm$  SD = 4.43  $\pm$  0.51).

210

# 211 2.4. MRI data acquisition

212 At kindergarten age, a training session using a mock scanner was conducted to familiarize 213 children with the MRI procedure and to maximize compliance. In a subsequent session, 214 scanning was performed on a 3 T Siemens TIM Trio magnetic resonance scanner (Siemens AG, 215 Erlangen, Germany) with a 12 channel radio-frequency head coil. T1 maps were acquired using 216 the magnetization-prepared 2 rapid acquisition gradient echo (MP2RAGE, Marques et al., 217 2010) method with the following parameters: TR = 5000ms; TI1/TI2 = 700/2500ms; TE =218 2.82ms; FOV =  $250 \times 219 \times 188$ mm; voxel size = 1.3mm<sup>3</sup>; GRAPPA factor = 3. 219 A second MRI session was performed at the end of second grade on the same scanner upgraded 220 to a 3T Prisma system, using a 64 channel head coil and an MP2RAGE sequence with parameters TR = 5000ms; TI1/TI2 = 700/2500ms; TE = 2.01ms; FOV = 256x240x176mm; 221

- 222 voxel size = 1.0 mm<sup>3</sup>; GRAPPA factor = 2.
- 223 Please note that we also acquired diffusion-weighted MRI as well as resting-state fMRI
- 224 for both timepoints, but after quality control these data were only available for a subset
- 225 of our final sample (diffusion-weighted MRI: n=24; resting-state fMRI: n=16).
- 226 2.5.MRI preprocessing and analysis

227 Initially, T1-weighted (T1) brain images of both time points were visually inspected to exclude 228 corrupted data caused by imaging artifacts such as ghosting, Gibbs artifact or diffuse image noise along the phase-encoding direction induced by excessive motion in the scanner. All 229 230 participants that were retained for further analysis had an overall image quality of at least 231 86% (weighted image quality rating provided by CAT12) at both timepoints. Subsequently, 232 brain images extracted using Freesurfer (Version 5.3.0. were 233 http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu/). After spatially normalizing the images to a pediatric 234 template derived from 82 children aged 4.5-8.5 years (Fonov et al., 2009) in Montreal 235 Neurological Institute (MNI) stereotactic space, a common group template based on all 236 individual T1 images in MNI space from both timepoints was created with the Advanced 237 Normalization Tools (ANTs; Avants et al., 2010, 2011).

238 Using the Computational Anatomy Toolbox (CAT12, http://www.neuro.uni-jena.de/cat/) for 239 SPM12 (www.fil.ac.uk/spm/) in Matlab R2017b (The Mathworks, Inc., Natick, MA, USA), T1 240 data in template space were segmented into gray and white matter. For segmentation, SPM 241 relies on anatomical priors provided as tissue probability maps. Since the tissue priors provided 242 as a standard are derived from adult data, we replaced them with custom tissue probability 243 maps. These maps were derived from the common group template of both timepoints to account 244 for the anatomical details of our developmental sample, following the methodology described 245 in Cafiero et al. (2018). Probabilistic maps of the individual tissue types were created using 246 FSL's fast (Zhang et al., 2001). Tissue probabilities were normalized to sum to one. Finally, all 247 maps were resampled to a resolution of 1.5mm isotropic and smoothed using a 35mm FWHM 248 kernel, to approximate the resolution and smoothness of SPM's default anatomical priors. 249 Additionally, gray and white matter maps created this way were also used to replace the default 250 DARTEL template. During segmentation, surface-based maps of cortical thickness (CT), 251 gyrification index (GI; Lüders et al., 2006), cortical folding regularity (CF; Yotter et al., 2011) 252 and sulcus depth (SD) were extracted for each participant. Thickness data were smoothed with a 15mm FWHM kernel, and folding, gyrification and sulcus depth data were smoothed with a
20mm FWHM kernel, in accordance with the matched-filter theorem.

255 We performed a region of interest (ROI) based analysis focused on areas previously linked to 256 mathematical processing in adults and children to examine the relation between developmental 257 changes in measures of cortical surface morphometry and early mathematical ability. ROIs 258 included the bilateral IPS (Chang et al., 2016; He et al., 2014; Masataka et al., 2007), AG, 259 SMG, hippocampus (HIP), dorso-lateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC), ventral temporal-occipital 260 cortex (VTOC), and bilateral visual word form area (VWFA). ROIs were derived from a multi-261 modal parcellation (MMP) of brain areas (Glasser et al., 2016) comprising 180 cortical regions 262 per hemisphere (Supplementary Table S1, Figure 1a). In order to obtain participant-specific 263 surface-based masks, the MMP (Glasser et al., 2016) was first spatially aligned with each 264 child's MNI-T1 volumetric image and then mapped to the individual surface using the 'Map 265 volume (Native Space) to individual surface' function in CAT12. The resulting ROIs in 266 individual surface space were then used to mask the individual, smoothed CT, GI, SD and CF 267 maps and extract participant-specific ROI means of all measures for both timepoints. To 268 quantify the raw cortical change from kindergarten to second grade in school, the extracted 269 mean values of timepoint 1 (kindergarten) were subtracted from the respective means derived 270 from timepoint 2 (school), creating measures of  $\Delta_{CT}$ ,  $\Delta_{GI}$ ,  $\Delta_{CF}$  and  $\Delta_{SD}$  for each participant and 271 each ROI. Based on these difference measures, the relative change rate  $R_0$  (Schnack et al., 272 2015) for each quantity Q was computed as

273 
$$R_Q = \left(\frac{\Delta_Q}{(Age_{time\ 2} - Age_{time\ 1}) \times \frac{Q_{time\ 1} + Q_{time\ 2}}{2}}\right) \times 100$$

These relative change rates include not only the raw anatomical change but also control for the individual variance of measures at time point 1 and 2.

Additionally, we performed whole-brain analyses in order to make sure not to overlook effects outside of our pre-defined ROIs. To this end, we created an additional set of individual 278 templates for each child (Cafiero et al., 2018), based on the respective individual T1 MNI 279 images using ANTs. The purpose of using individual templates was to ensure optimal alignment 280 of data for both timepoints. The individual T1-images were spatially aligned to the respective 281 child's template before segmentation and the surface-based measures were extracted as 282 explained above. For each child, whole-brain maps of relative change rates ( $R_{CT}$ ,  $R_{GI}$ ,  $R_{CF}$  and 283  $R_{SD}$ ) as basis for whole-brain statistical analyses were computed following the formula above 284 (Schnack et al., 2015).

# 285 2.6. Experimental design and statistical analysis

MRI measurements and psychometric assessment were obtained from children once at
kindergarten, before they underwent formal mathematics instruction, and again approximately
2 years and 11 months later at the end of second grade.

Correlations between sociodemographic and psychometric measures within each time point as
well as across time, when suitable, were computed using R-3.3.1 (R Core Team, 2016).

291 ROI-wise partial correlations of the z-transformed relative change rates  $R_{CT}$ ,  $R_{GI}$ ,  $R_{CF}$  and  $R_{SD}$ 292 and HRT subscales were computed using R-3.3.1 (R Core Team, 2016). Confounding variables 293 included in the models were age at time 1, sex, handedness, non-verbal IQ at time 2, maternal 294 education, spelling accuracy, reading speed, and familial risk of developing dyslexia. 295 Additionally, to investigate the relation between brain maturation and the subscales of the test 296 in a specific fashion, we added the respective other subscale score as a covariate. Further, as 297 anatomical change measures correlate highly with size of measures at time 1, mean CT, GI, 298 CF and SD of the respective hemisphere were used as covariates when analyzing  $R_{CT}$ ,  $R_{GI}$ , 299  $R_{\rm CF}$  and  $R_{\rm SD}$  respectively. To control for multiple comparisons in the ROI-based analysis, we 300 used the Holm-Bonferroni method (Holm, 1979) at an unadjusted level of 0.05, accounting 301 for number of ROIs (14) and number of HRT subscales (2). Consequently, the initial critical 302 α level was set to 0.0018.

- 303 Whole-brain correlations of individual relative change and math test (HRT) subscales were
- 304 computed in SPM12. These correlations were corrected for the same confounding variables
- 305 stated above. Clusters were considered significant and reported when exceeding a voxel-level
- 306 threshold of p < 0.001 (uncorrected), with family-wise-error (FWE) correction for multiple
- 307 spatial comparisons at the cluster level (p < 0.05).

Demographics	kindergarten	end of second grade
Ν	28	<sup>d</sup>
Age <sup>a</sup>	5;6±6	8;5±5
Sex <sup>b</sup>	13/15	<sup>d</sup>
Maternal education <sup>c</sup>	4.43±0.51	<sup>d</sup>
Handedness <sup>e</sup>	58.11±44.63	<sup>d</sup>
Psychometrics		
Non-verbal IQ <sup>f</sup>	104.61±11.54	113.64±11.83
Arithmetic abilities <sup>g</sup>	_h	69.64±23.17
Visuospatial abilities <sup>i</sup>	h	77.00±20.00
Spelling accuracy <sup>j</sup>	_h	52.39±24.33
Reading speed <sup>k</sup>	_h	63.71±24.96

308	Table 1.	Demograp	hic info	rmation	and psy	chometric	test scores.
		· · · · · · · · · ·					

<sup>a</sup>mean age: years; months  $\pm$  standard deviation

<sup>b</sup>male/female

 $^{\circ}$ questionnaire-derived, combined score of mother's school education (4-point scale: no degree – 0 points; German 'Abitur' [high school diploma / A level] – 3 points) and vocational qualification (5-point scale: no qualification –

0 points; German 'Habilitation' [postdoctoral academic qualification] – 4 points); mean  $\pm$  standard deviation <sup>d</sup> data were identical for both timepoints

<sup>e</sup> laterality quotient (LQ): mean  $\pm$  standard deviation; scores range from -100 (left handed) to 100 (right handed), left-handedness: LQ < -28, i.e. the first decile value; right-handedness: LQ > 48, i.e. the first decile value; ambidexterity: -28 < LQ < 48

 $^{\rm f}$  mean  $\pm$  standard deviation; average normed IQ score is 100 with a standard deviation of  $\pm\,15$ 

 $^{g}$  percentile ranks: mean  $\pm$  standard deviation; subscale of standardized math test (HRT) comprising addition, subtraction, solving simple equation and greater-or-smaller-than-comparison tasks

<sup>h</sup> data were only available at second timepoint

<sup>i</sup> percentile ranks: mean  $\pm$  standard deviation; subscale of standardized math test (HRT) comprising tasks assessing length and magnitude estimation, counting, and numerical rule extraction abilities

<sup>j</sup> percentile ranks: mean ± standard deviation; writing after dictation

<sup>k</sup> percentile ranks: mean ± standard deviation; number of words correctly read within 1 minute

# 309 **3. Results**

310 Information on participants and their performance in psychometric testing is provided in Table

311 1. There were no significant correlations between any of the sociodemographic and

312 psychometric measures for each time point, as well as across time (Supplementary Tables S2,

313 S3 and S4).

In the ROI-based analysis, we found a significant negative correlation of change rate in cortical folding regularity and the arithmetic ability subscale within the right IPS ( $R^2(16) = 0.55$ , p = 0.0004, Figure 1b). No significant correlations were observed between any other ROI and measure (Supplementary Table S5).



319 Figure 1. Region-of-interest (ROI) analysis. (a) Only right-hemispheric ROIs are depicted, 320 but bilateral ROIs were used in the analysis. IPS = intraparietal sulcus; SMG = supramarginal gyrus; AG = angular gyrus; VTOC = ventral temporal-occipital cortex; VWFA = visual word 321 form area; DLPFC = dorso-lateral prefrontal cortex; HIP = hippocampus. (b) A significant 322 323 negative correlation (blue) was found between the residual mean  $R_{CF}$  within the right IPS and 324 the residual arithmetic ability score (p < 0.05, family-wise-error corrected for the number of 325 behavioral measures and ROIs). (b) The scatterplot denotes the association of residualized change in cortical folding regularity and z-scored arithmetic test score after accounting for age 326 327 at kindergarten, sex, handedness, non-verbal IQ at the end of second grade, maternal education, spelling accuracy, reading speed, familial risk of developing dyslexia, visuospatial performance 328 329 score, and mean CF at kindergarten age. The shaded area surrounding the regression line shows 330 the 95% confidence interval.  $R_{\rm CF}$  = change rate of cortical folding regularity.

The whole-brain analysis revealed significant relations between cortical change rates and mathematical test subscales (Table 2, Figure 2). Specifically, change in cortical thickness was negatively correlated with arithmetic abilities in the right temporal pole (TP;  $R^2(16) = 0.52$ , p = 0.0330) as well as left middle occipital gyrus (MOG;  $R^2(16) = 0.52$ , p = 0.0300) and positively correlated with visuospatial abilities in clusters in the right superior parietal cortex (SPL;  $R^2(16)$ = 0.73, p < 0.0010), two clusters within the right supramarginal gyrus (SMG;  $R^2(16) = 0.40$ , p 337 = 0.0440;  $R^2(16) = 0.45$ , p = 0.0480), and right postcentral gyrus ( $R^2(16) = 0.51$ , p = 0.0060).

338 Additionally, change in cortical folding regularity was negatively correlated with visuospatial

skills in the right middle frontal gyrus (MFG;  $R^2(16) = 0.47$ , p = 0.0340).

340

# **Table 2. Cluster results of the whole brain vertex wise analysis.**

Location		Coord	inates		Size <sup>a</sup>	<b>R</b> <sup>2</sup>	Р
		X	Y	Z			
Arithmetic	abilities						
$R_{\rm CT}$							
	R temporal pole	50	14	-24	321	0.52	0.0330
	L middle occipital gyrus	-40	-84	4	318	0.52	0.0300
Visuospatia	l abilities						
$R_{\rm CF}$							
	R middle frontal gyrus	29	20	45	376	0.47	0.0340
$R_{\rm CT}$							
	R superior parietal	17	-66	54	576	0.73	0.0010
	cortex						
	R postcentral gyrus	58	-14	41	452	0.51	0.0060
	R supramarginal gyrus	56	-46	23	297	0.40	0.0440
		57	-41	39	291	0.45	0.0480
<sup>a</sup> size in vertice	es; $R_{\rm CT}$ = change in cortical thick	ness; R <sub>CF</sub>	= change	in cortical	l folding regul	arity.	





343 Figure 2. Whole-brain analysis results. Overview of clusters denoting significant partial correlations. 344 Residual arithmetic score was significantly and negatively correlated (blue) with residual  $R_{CT}$  within a 345 cluster in the right temporal pole and middle occipital gyrus (top row). Residual visuospatial abilities 346 were significantly and positively associated (red) with residual  $R_{\rm CT}$  in clusters within the right superior 347 parietal cortex, postcentral gyrus, and superior marginal gyrus (mid row). Residual visuospatial abilities 348 were also negatively correlated with residual  $R_{\rm CF}$  within a cluster in the right middle frontal gyrus 349 (bottom row). The color bar depicts the proportion of explained variance within each cluster in terms of 350 the determinant of covariation  $(R^2)$ , overlaid on the inflated cortical surfaces. Scatterplots show associations of the z-scored, maximal R<sup>2</sup> value of each residual cluster and the respective residual 351 352 behavioral test score after removing the effects of age at kindergarten, sex, handedness, non-verbal IQ 353 at the end of second grade, maternal education, spelling accuracy, reading speed, familial risk of 354 developing dyslexia, the respective other subscale of the standardized math test, and hemispheric mean 355 value of investigated morphometric measure at kindergarten age. Shaded areas surrounding regression 356 lines depict the respective 95% confidence level intervals. All reported results are significant at a level 357 of p < 0.05 (family-wise-error corrected).  $R_{\rm CT}$  = relative change rate of cortical thickness;  $R_{\rm CF}$  = relative 358 change rate of cortical folding regularity; MOG = middle occipital gyrus; TP = temporal pole; SMG = 359 supramarginal gyrus; postCG = postcentral gyrus; SPC = superior parietal cortex; MFG = middle frontal 360 gyrus.

#### 361 **4. Discussion**

362 In this study, we examined changes in cortical anatomy associated with emerging individual 363 differences in mathematical ability of typically developing children. In contrast to previous 364 studies, we focused on the trajectory from kindergarten to school when children start 365 undergoing formal mathematical education. We correlated the change in various measures of 366 cortical surface morphometry occurring between 5 and 8 years of age with performance on a 367 standardized, age-normed math test. Our analyses revealed a significant negative correlation 368 between change rate of cortical folding regularity and symbolic arithmetic processing in the 369 right IPS. Further, cortical thickness change was negatively correlated with arithmetic 370 performance in the right temporal pole and the left middle occipital gyrus. Moreover, we 371 detected significant positive associations between visuospatial magnitude processing and rate 372 of cortical thickness change of the right superior parietal lobe, right supramarginal gyrus and 373 right postentral gyrus. Additionally, we found a significant negative correlation between 374 visuospatial magnitude processing score and change of cortical folding regularity of the right 375 MFG.

376 Classical analyses of gray matter volume via voxel-based morphometry cannot disentangle 377 differences driven by cortical thickness and folding regularity (Mechelli et al., 2005). Hence, 378 going beyond volumetric measures, an examination of cortical surface development as provided 379 in our study may give more detailed and specific insights into the intricate relationship between 380 brain maturation and emerging mathematical cognition.

Cortical thickness changes may be related to processes affecting the cortical cytoarchitecture, like neuro-, glio- and synaptogenesis as well as synaptic pruning (Zatorre et al., 2012). More recent evidence also suggests that decreases in cortical thickness during development are a marker of progressive growth of deep cortical white matter (Natu et al., 2018). The spatial and

385 temporal progression of these maturational processes follows highly heterogenous patterns 386 throughout the cortex (Huttenlocher and Dabholkar, 1997). Cortical folding during 387 development is driven by physical forces induced by continued growth of outer cortical layers, 388 as neurons form new synaptic connections (Budday et al., 2015b, 2015a). Consequently, the 389 cortical surface expands more quickly than the underlying tissue, creating compression forces 390 that ultimately lead to surface buckling (Richman et al., 1975). Thus, a likely explanation may 391 be that cortical folding changes reflect myelination and synaptic remodeling (Blanton et al., 392 2001). Nevertheless, future investigations are necessary to validate the neurobiological 393 underpinnings of differential development of cortical surface regularity.

394 Our ROI analysis highlights the link between right IPS folding and mathematical ability. 395 Comparable to our observation for the right MFG, we found a negative association between the 396 change in folding regularity of the right IPS and arithmetic performance. This is in line with 397 the known key role of this region for typical and atypical numerical cognition. Specifically, 398 Cantlon et al. (2006) demonstrate right-lateralized parietal activation related to processing of 399 magnitude in 4-year-old children. Further, Emerson & Cantlon (2015) identify the right IPS 400 as the sole region to continuously exhibit number-selective responses in four- to nine-year-401 old children, emphasizing its developmentally stable involvement in numerical 402 processing. This finding is in agreement with reports of age-invariant adaptation effects 403 to numerical magnitude across development (Vogel et al., 2015). Moreover, children and 404 adolescents with low mathematical competence show higher involvement of the right IPS than 405 individuals with high competence when performing simple arithmetic tasks, indicating greater 406 reliance on magnitude processing strategies that rest on basic quantity representations in the 407 parietal cortex (De Smedt et al., 2011; Price et al., 2013). In contrast to the continuous pattern 408 of number-selective responses within the right IPS, number-related neural activity in left 409 parietal regions increases from childhood until adolescence (Vogel et al., 2015).

410 Longitudinal evidence suggests an association between these left-lateralized age-related 411 changes and the refinement of numerical skills in terms of discrimination acuity (Emerson 412 and Cantlon, 2015). Further during typical development, the involvement of left parietal 413 regions for symbolic mathematical operations increases over time (Rivera et al., 2005), 414 reflecting its functional specialization for memory-based arithmetic processing (Piazza et al., 415 2007). In the light of these findings, our results suggest that **initial stages of** mathematical 416 learning are related to more mature intracortical synaptic connectivity of the right, but not the 417 left, IPS. This process might refine basic magnitude processing strategies, thus strengthening 418 the elementary representations of quantity.

419 Beyond our ROI results, the whole-brain analyses suggest that the rate of neuroplastic change 420 in a region associated with semantic knowledge (Amalric and Dehaene, 2016; Menon, 2015), 421 the right temporal pole, plays an important role for early mathematical development. In 422 particular, cortical thickness change was negatively associated with math performance. The 423 right anterior temporal pole is a multimodal association area known to integrate conceptual 424 information that is distributed across different brain regions (Patterson et al., 2007). In line with 425 this, the children in our study learned first basic mathematical concepts in the period under 426 investigation. Mastering these concepts requires integrating knowledge of number facts, 427 relations between magnitudes and arithmetic principles (Dowker, 2013). Given that, over 428 development, the temporal pole steadily declines in cortical thickness (Ducharme et al., 2016; 429 Fjell et al., 2015), the association between reduced change and high arithmetic performance 430 suggested by our results may indicate a slower trajectory of cortical thinning. This might point 431 to a more sustained build-up of new connections in the right temporal memory system during 432 mathematical learning.

The only effect in the left hemisphere obtained from our analyses was a significant negativecorrelation of cortical thickness change rate and arithmetic abilities within the middle occipital

435 gyrus. Located within the visual association cortex (Brodmann area 18), this region is 436 commonly associated with early stages of visual processing like stereotactic vision (Fortin et 437 al., 2002) and simple pattern recognition (Marcar et al., 2004). Given that mathematical 438 education in school is primarily based on visually presented mathematical problems, this effect 439 might reflect a result of increased visual training specifically related to the visual numerical 440 form. The typical developmental trajectory of such low-level sensory regions follows a linear 441 decrease in thickness (Ducharme et al., 2016), such that the current result may potentially 442 indicate a slower rate of cortical thinning due to this increased visual training in better 443 performing children.

444 The right superior parietal lobe contributes to approximate calculation already in preschool 445 children (Cantlon et al., 2006) and supports exact symbolic calculation in adults (Knops et al., 446 2009). Our findings complement these data by suggesting a fundamental contribution of 447 superior parietal lobe plasticity for the transition from approximate to exact calculation by 448 refining visuospatial magnitude processing skills. Within the age range under investigation 449 here, cortical thickness increases in parietal regions before subsequently declining later in life 450 (Ducharme et al., 2016; Shaw et al., 2008). The positive association between thickness change 451 and mathematical ability might therefore suggest that increased synaptogenesis supports 452 mathematical learning in the first school years.

453 Cytoarchitectonic subdivisions of the right supramarginal gyrus have been shown to exhibit 454 heterogenous patterns of activation across development of arithmetic problem solving skills 455 from primary school-age until adulthood (Chang et al., 2016). Our findings add to these results, 456 pointing towards a positive association between cortical thickness change and visuo-spatial 457 magnitude processing already at the transition between kindergarten and second grade in 458 school. Supramarginal cortical thickness typically decreases following a linear trajectory from 459 childhood until adulthood (Ducharme et al., 2016). Thus, the clusters detected in the current 460 analysis likely point towards accelerated cortical thickness change potentially driven by 461 increases in cortical white matter, supporting the development of visuo-spatial magnitude 462 processing abilities. It is noteworthy, however, that these associations were not revealed in our 463 ROI analyses but only in the whole brain contrast. A reason for this discrepancy may be that 464 we choose a rather large ROI combining SMG subregions PFop, PF, and PFm, while the whole 465 brain analysis revealed two confined clusters partly located in PF. Thus, computing the mean 466 cortical folding regularity across this combined region possibly concealed the relationship 467 between behavior and cortical change indeed present in its subcomponents.

468 Somewhat unexpected, our analyses additionally revealed a positive association between 469 visuospatial processing skills and cortical thickness change of the right lateral postcentral gyrus. 470 This region is associated with cortical thinning over development (Ducharme et al., 2016). 471 While the exact role of this region for numerical cognition is still elusive, there is evidence that 472 functional connectivity between the right postcentral gyrus and the left angular gyrus, a key 473 region associated with verbal mathematical fact retrieval, significantly increases after intensive 474 math tutoring in children (Jolles et al., 2016b). Further, it is the locus of somatosensory regions 475 that have been suggested to impact the allocation of attention in visual space (Balslev et al., 476 2013). In line with this, our findings suggest a link between visuospatial processing ability and 477 more rapid growth of cortical white matter indicated by increased rates of cortical thinning.

Further, our results show that better visuospatial performance was negatively associated with change in the regularity of cortical folding within the right MFG, a region consistently activated in calculation tasks with higher working memory demands (Menon, 2000). Changes in the regularity of cortical folding are assumed to be linked to the persistent growth of superficial cortical layers driven by the formation of new intracortical synaptic connections (Budday et al., 2015b, 2015a). Children with higher mathematical ability might thus exhibit more mature intracortical synaptic connectivity in the right MFG. 485 In a recent study, Nemmi et al. (2018) demonstrated that the right number-form area shows 486 specific functional connectivity to the right IPS already at three years of age. Differential 487 connectivity to parietal and prefrontal regions associated with gains in mathematical ability, 488 however, emerged only later around 12-14 years of age. In line with this tentative 489 developmental trajectory, our analyses did not reveal associations between mathematical 490 abilities and surface plasticity of the VTOC from kindergarten to second grade in school. Future 491 studies are needed to examine the relationship between structural changes of this region and 492 mathematical ability in older children who encounter more challenging mathematical concepts 493 in higher grades.

494 Despite providing insights into associations between cortical surface plasticity and individual 495 behavioural performance, it is impossible to derive definite conclusions about the exact role of 496 localized cortical changes for cognitive functioning from the current data. For instance, the 497 parietal cortex including the IPS is known to be involved in a multitude of different cognitive 498 mechanisms beyond core mathematical processing, including non-spatial working memory 499 and executive functioning (see Culham and Kanwisher, 2001 for a review). Even within the 500 domain of magnitude processing, animal work suggests distinct neural processing stages 501 within this region (Nieder et al., 2006). Thus, it is not clear which aspects involved in the 502 complex cognitive functions investigated here the observed changes support. Still, our 503 results guide the formation of hypotheses for future longitudinal work disentangling these 504 specific contributions of individual areas to mathematical cognition.

A number of methodological limitations have to be considered. First, it is important to stress that the results presented here are correlational. Consequently, the current analysis cannot disentangle the extent to which brain maturational processes induce changes in individual abilities from the extent to which mathematical and visuo-spatial training re-shapes the cortical structure. Second, considering the known importance of the ROIs under investigation for 510 mathematical processing, the null results reported here need to be interpreted with caution. 511 Third, the scanner upgrade between time point 1 and time point 2 might bias findings if there 512 is an interaction between upgrade and an individual factor which correlated with math skill 513 development. Fourth, our selection of atlas ROIs was based on insights from single 514 studies and thus might be prone to individual variance, given the lack of an appropriate 515 meta-analysis quantifying functional development of arithmetic and visuospatial 516 magnitude processing in children from kindergarten to second grade in school. Last, 517 given the limited sample size, spatial detection of relatively small significant clusters as 518 reported here might be sensitive to subtle methodological variations. Hence, the results from 519 this work await confirmation in larger follow-up studies.

520 In conclusion, the present study provides evidence that cortical surface morphometry changes 521 are linked to mathematical learning during the first years of formal instruction. A series of 522 whole brain analyses highlights the importance of regions associated with working memory 523 and semantic memory processes, such as the right middle frontal gyrus, the right precentral 524 gyrus, and the right temporal pole. Furthermore, our results emphasize the role of surface 525 reorganization within the right superior parietal lobe, supporting visuospatial processing, and 526 within the right intraparietal sulcus as a crucial area for numerical magnitude processing. Thus, 527 we identify early cortical surface plasticity as an important structural correlate of emerging 528 arithmetic abilities during the first years of school.

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# 797 Supplementary materials

# 799 Supplementary Table S1. Definition of cortical regions of interest.

Regions of interest	Atlas labels <sup>a</sup>		
left / right intraparietal sulcus (IPS)	L_IPS1_ROI, L_MIP_ROI /, R_IPS1_ROI, R_MIP_ROI		
left / right supramarginal gyrus (SMG)	L_PFop_ROI, L_PF_ROI, L_PFm_ROI / R_PFop_ROI, R_PF_ROI, R_PFm_ROI /		
Left / right angular gyrus (AG)	L_PGp_ROI, L_PGi_ROI, L_PGs_ROI / R_PGp_ROI, R_PGi_ROI, R_PGs_ROI /		
left / right hippocampus	L_H_ROI / R_H_ROI		
left / right dorso-lateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC)	L_9p_ROI, L_p9-46v_ROI, L_46_ROI, L_a9- 46v_ROI, L_9-46d_ROI, L_9a_ROI / R_9p_ROI, R_p9-46v_ROI, R_46_ROI, R_a9- 46v_ROI, R_9-46d_ROI, R_9a_ROI		
left / right ventral temporal-occipital cortex (VTOC)	L_TE1p_ROI / R_TE1p_ROI		
left / right visual word form area (VWFA) L_VVC_ROI / R_VVC_ROI			
BA=Brodmann area; <sup>a</sup> Glasser et al. (2016), retrieved 09/01/2016 from https://balsa.wustl.edu/study/show/RVVG; if several areas are given,			

they were combined to form the final region of interest.

# 803 Supplementary Table S2. Correlations between covariates for time point 1. Note that

804 none of the correlations reaches significance after adjusting for multiple comparisons with alpha = 0.05.

806

	Sex	Handedness	Maternal education	Familial risk of developmental dyslexia	IQ at time point 1
Age at time point 1	r= -0.36;	r= 0.13;	r= 0.06;	R= -0.16;	r= -0.05;
	p= 0.0555	p=0.5050	p=0.7755	p=0.4274	p=0.7985
Sex		r= -0.05;	r= -0.02;	r= 0.13;	r= -0.13;
		p=0.8133	p=0.9066	p=0.5200	p=0.4988
Handedness			r= -0.14;	r= -0.02;	r=0.00;
			p=0.4906	p=0.9190	p=0.9986
Maternal education			-	r=0.29;	r = 0.36;
				p=0.1310	p=0.0622
Familial risk of				•	r = 0.32;
developmental					p=0.0957
dyslexia					-

# 

Supplementary Table S3. Correlations between covariates for time point 2. Note that none of the correlations reaches significance after adjusting for multiple comparisons with alpha = 0.05. 

	Sex	Handed- ness	Maternal education	Familial risk of dyslexia	IQ at time point 2	Spelling accuracy	Reading speed	Arithme- tic abilities	Visuo- spatial abilities
Age at time point 2	r=-0.13 p= 0.5246	r=0.14; p= 0.4624	r=0.14; p= 0.4806	r=-0.38; p= 0.0476	r= 0.10; p= 0.6097	r=-0.24; p= 0.2279	r=0.16 p= 0.4089	r=-0.27; p= 0.1581	r=0.05 p= 0.8159
Sex		r= -0.05; p=0.8133	r= -0.02; p=0.9066	r= 0.13; p=0.5200	r= 0.18; p=0.3566	r= 0.02; p=0.9263	r= -0.43; p=0.0208	r= -0.18; p=0.3555	r= -0.02; p=0.9348
Handed- ness			r= -0.14; p=0.4906	r= -0.02; p=0.9190	r= 0.17; p=0.3984	r= -0.15; p=0.4333	r= 0.06; p=0.7797	r= 0.30; p=0.1224	r=0.07; p=0.7287
Maternal education				r= 0.29; p=0.1310	r= 0.27; p=0.1673	r= 0.16; p=0.4164	r= 0.26; p=0.1878	r= 0.23; p=0.2448	r= 0.51; p=0.0057
Familial risk of dyslexia					r= 0.23; p=0.2463	r= 0.01; p=0.9691	r= -0.28; p=0.1470	r= 0.39; p=0.0424	r= 0.55; p=0.0023
IQ at time point 2						r= -0.14; p=0.4892	r= -0.11; p=0.5911	r= 0.17; p=0.3930	r= 0.24; p=0.2254
Spelling accuracy							r= 0.31; p=0.1114	r= 0.47; p=0.0114	r= 0.19; p=0.3264
Reading speed								r= 0.25; p=0.1926	r= 0.23; p=0.2422
Arithme- tic abilities									r= 0.55; p=0.0023

# **Supplementary Table S4. Correlations across time.** Significant correlations (alpha < 0.05) are marked in bold font and with \*.

- 816

	Age at time point 2		IQ at time point2
Age at time	r= 0.51;	IQ at time point1	r= 0.33;
point 1	p=0.0054*		p= 0.0827

# 818 Supplementary Table S5. Results of the ROI analyses. Significant effects are marked in

 $\label{eq:static} italic and bold. \ To \ control \ for \ multiple \ comparisons, \ only \ results \ with \ a \ p < 0.0018 \ (corrected$ 

for 14 ROIs and 2 math test subscales) are considered significant. TE1p = VTOC

	Arithmetic abilities		Visuo-spatial abilities			Arithmetic abilities		Visuo- spatial abilities	
	<b>R</b> <sup>2</sup>	Р	<b>R</b> <sup>2</sup>	Р	-	<b>R</b> <sup>2</sup>	Р	<b>R</b> <sup>2</sup>	Р
<b>R</b> СТ									
L IPS	0.06	0.3273	0.01	0.6751	R IPS	0.00	0.9574	0.05	0.3703
L HIPP	0.00	0.9674	0.09	0.2165	R HIPP	0.00	0.9937	0.01	0.6859
L DLPFC	0.00	0.9390	0.00	0.8517	R DLPFC	0.00	0.9516	0.02	0.5986
L VTOC	0.05	0.3639	0.00	0.8709	R VTOC	0.02	0.5922	0.06	0.3405
L VWFA	0.00	0.8960	0.06	0.3168	R VWFA	0.02	0.5826	0.11	0.1870
L SMG	0.00	0.8414	0.05	0.3880	R SMG	0.03	0.5263	0.08	0.2477
L AG	0.00	0.9302	0.03	0.4867	R AG	0.01	0.7384	0.06	0.3217
RCF									
L IPS	0.08	0.2598	0.08	0.2659	R IPS	0.55	0.0004	0.00	0.9913
L HIPP	0.07	0.2964	0.00	0.7900	R HIPP	0.37	0.0070	0.04	0.4290
L DLPFC	0.09	0.2247	0.01	0.6798	R DLPFC	0.05	0.3659	0.00	0.9862
L VTOC	0.09	0.2138	0.01	0.6345	R VTOC	0.07	0.2917	0.00	0.9913
L VWFA	0.05	0.3594	0.08	0.2461	R VWFA	0.03	0.4802	0.07	0.2844
L SMG	0.01	0.7741	0.01	0.7311	R SMG	0.02	0.6273	0.02	0.5849
LAG	0.03	0.4983	0.00	0.9903	R AG	0.15	0.1152	0.07	0.2968
$R_{ m GI}$									
L IPS	0.11	0.1863	0.00	0.8486	R IPS	0.03	0.5195	0.03	0.4820
L HIPP	0.07	0.2866	0.02	0.5509	R HIPP	0.01	0.7183	0.01	0.7698
L DLPFC	0.07	0.3042	0.00	0.9460	R DLPFC	0.11	0.1752	0.03	0.4769
L VTOC	0.26	0.0307	0.03	0.5010	R VTOC	0.00	0.8141	0.10	0.2132
L VWFA	0.04	0.4444	0.00	0.8855	R VWFA	0.10	0.2008	0.01	0.7156
L SMG	0.13	0.1396	0.01	0.7301	R SMG	0.03	0.4974	0.00	0.8224
LAG	0.05	0.3563	0.07	0.2810	R AG	0.04	0.4414	0.00	0.8115
R <sub>SD</sub>									
L IPS	0.06	0.3369	0.01	0.6912	R IPS	0.15	0.1090	0.05	0.3709
L HIPP	0.15	0.1165	0.01	0.6868	R HIPP	0.08	0.2451	0.04	0.4159
L DLPFC	0.01	0.7443	0.00	0.9886	R DLPFC	0.15	0.1105	0.13	0.1474
L VTOC	0.00	0.8179	0.02	0.5908	R VTOC	0.07	0.2919	0.00	0.9768
L VWFA	0.11	0.1867	0.01	0.7767	R VWFA	0.01	0.6585	0.01	0.7106
L SMG	0.04	0.4560	0.05	0.3763	R SMG	0.01	0.7248	0.07	0.3068
L AG	0.00	0.9240	0.06	0.3408	R AG	0.01	0.7139	0.01	0.7195

 $R_{\text{CT}}$  = change in cortical thickness;  $R_{\text{CF}}$  = change in cortical folding regularity;  $R_{\text{GI}}$  = change in gyrification;  $R_{\text{SD}}$  = change in sulcus depth; L = left hemisphere; R = right hemisphere; IPS = intraparietal sulcus; HIPP = hippocampus; DLPFC = dorso-lateral prefrontal cortex; VTOC = ventral temporal-occipital cortex; VWFA = visual word form area; SGM = supramarginal gyrus; AG = angular gyrus; R<sup>2</sup> = determinant of covariation.