

**Understanding the neural basis of episodic amnesia in logopenic  
progressive aphasia: a multimodal neuroimaging study**

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**ABSTRACT**

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3 Logopenic progressive aphasia (LPA) is a neurodegenerative disorder characterised by  
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5 profound naming and sentence repetition disturbances, attributable to  
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7 disproportionately left-sided temporo-parietal atrophy. Accumulating evidence  
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9 suggests, in addition to language impairments, the presence of stark verbal and  
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11 nonverbal episodic memory impairments in LPA. The neurocognitive bases of such  
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13 impairments, however, remain to be clarified. Here, we characterised episodic memory  
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15 disruption and its corresponding grey and white matter correlates in the LPA syndrome.  
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19 Nineteen LPA patients were contrasted with 23 matched typical Alzheimer’s disease  
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21 (AD) patients and 31 healthy Controls on standardized verbal and nonverbal episodic  
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23 delayed recall measures. Participants further underwent structural magnetic resonance  
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25 and diffusion-weighted imaging. Significant verbal memory deficits were evident in  
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27 both patient groups, with LPA patients performing at an intermediate level to AD and  
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29 Controls. For nonverbal memory, however, LPA performance was indistinguishable  
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31 from that of AD, with both groups displaying marked impairments relative to Controls.  
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36 Whole-brain voxel-based morphometry analyses revealed significant left temporo-  
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38 parietal and left hippocampal atrophy in the LPA group. Covariate analyses showed  
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40 that verbal and nonverbal amnesia in LPA correlated with grey matter integrity of  
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42 bilateral frontoparietal and left medial temporal lobe regions. Notably, the common  
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44 regions underpinning verbal and nonverbal memory dysfunction in LPA were the left  
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46 orbitofrontal cortex and bilateral angular gyri in the inferior parietal cortex. The  
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48 bilateral angular gyri, along with prefrontal and hippocampal regions further emerged  
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50 as disease-general correlates of verbal and nonverbal memory performance. Alterations  
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52 in mean diffusivity in structural connections between the left angular gyrus and medial  
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54 temporal lobes were further associated with verbal memory performance in all  
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## Amnesia in Logopenic Progressive Aphasia

1 participants. Our findings reveal, for the first time, the presence of pervasive memory  
2 impairments in LPA mediated by degeneration of a distributed prefrontal-hippocampal-  
3 parietal network, and disrupted parieto-hippocampal structural connectivity.  
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9 *Keywords:* Primary Progressive Aphasia; Alzheimer’s disease; episodic memory;  
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11 angular gyrus; hippocampus  
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## 1. INTRODUCTION

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3 Logopenic progressive aphasia (LPA) is a rare clinical syndrome whose prototypical  
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5 features include markedly reduced spontaneous speech in the context of phonological  
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7 errors, word-finding, sentence repetition, and sentence comprehension difficulties  
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10 (Gorno-Tempini et al., 2008; Gorno-Tempini et al., 2011). Semantic comprehension  
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12 and grammatical processing abilities, by contrast, are relatively spared in early stages  
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14 of the syndrome (Gorno-Tempini et al., 2008; Gorno-Tempini et al., 2004). The unique  
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16 clinical profile of LPA is attributable to a breakdown in multiple cognitive processes  
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18 such as verbal working memory, lexical retrieval, and phonological processing, which  
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20 collectively support spontaneous speech, naming, and repetition abilities (Henry &  
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22 Gorno-Tempini, 2010; Leyton, Piguet, Savage, Burrell, & Hodges, 2012). On the  
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24 neuroanatomical level, the locus of atrophy in LPA is predominantly centred on the left  
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26 inferior parietal cortex, left lateral temporal and posterior perisylvian cortical regions  
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28 (around the left inferior/middle/superior temporal gyri) (Gorno-Tempini et al., 2008;  
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30 Krishnan et al., 2017; Leyton et al., 2012; Rohrer et al., 2010; Teichmann et al., 2013),  
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32 further affecting underlying white matter connectivity between these regions  
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34 (Galantucci et al., 2011). By contrast, evidence for early involvement of the medial  
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36 temporal lobes (MTL) and hippocampi in LPA is mixed, with some studies pointing to  
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38 their relative integrity (Teichmann et al., 2013; Win et al., 2017), while others  
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40 demonstrate early degradation of left-lateralized MTL/hippocampal regions (Gorno-  
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42 Tempini et al., 2004; Rohrer et al., 2013). Pathologically, the majority of LPA patients  
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44 harbour abnormal levels of cortical  $\beta$ -amyloid burden, pathognomic of Alzheimer's  
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46 disease (AD), at levels which are comparable to those seen in individuals with the  
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48 typical amnesic presentation of AD (Chare et al., 2014; Grossman, 2010; Leyton et al.,  
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50 2011; Rohrer, Rossor, & Warren, 2012). Together, this has led to the  
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1 reconceptualization of LPA as an atypical variant of AD, presenting predominantly  
2 with language dysfunction (Ahmed, de Jager, Haigh, & Garrard, 2012).  
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7 Based on these underlying patterns of neurodegeneration, a common assumption is that  
8 LPA is primarily a disorder of language, while the cardinal feature of typical AD is that  
9 of episodic memory dysfunction. Counter to this view, however, is the observation of  
10 significant episodic memory impairments early in the LPA disease trajectory, across  
11 verbal (Piguet, Leyton, Gleeson, Hoon, & Hodges, 2015; Win et al., 2017) and  
12 nonverbal (Piguet et al., 2015; Ramanan et al., 2016) delayed recall measures.  
13 Moreover, the severity of episodic amnesia in LPA is comparable to that observed in  
14 typical AD, particularly when nonverbal episodic delayed recall measures are employed  
15 (Ramanan et al., 2016). These objective memory deficits in LPA are complemented by  
16 subjective patient-reports (Magnin et al., 2013) and carer-reports (Ramanan et al., 2016)  
17 of everyday memory difficulties. Based on this emerging evidence, we suggest that in  
18 parallel with canonical language disturbances, LPA can also be conceptualised as an  
19 amnesic syndrome.  
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41 The observation of verbal and nonverbal episodic memory impairments in LPA raises  
42 important questions regarding the candidate neurocognitive mechanisms driving these  
43 deficits. From a cognitive standpoint, it is reasonable to propose that episodic memory  
44 deficits in LPA arise largely due to gross lexical processing impairments characteristic  
45 of this syndrome. A recent study supports this proposal by demonstrating an association  
46 between verbal episodic delayed recall impairments and lexical retrieval performance  
47 in LPA, attributable to a common neural substrate centred on the left middle temporal  
48 gyrus (Win et al., 2017). The left middle temporal gyrus is well established as a lexical  
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processing hub in the perisylvian language network (reviewed by Gow, 2012) and appears particularly vulnerable in early stages of LPA (Gorno-Tempini et al., 2008). While the lexical retrieval deficit offers a parsimonious account of verbal episodic memory dysfunction in LPA, it does not accommodate findings of non-verbal memory impairments on tasks which circumvent lexical retrieval demands (e.g., Butts et al., 2015; Piguet et al., 2015; Ramanan et al., 2016). As such, the core mechanisms underlying episodic memory dysfunction in LPA remain unclear.

The objectives of the present study were twofold. First, we aimed to characterise episodic memory performance across verbal and non-verbal domains in LPA compared to typical AD patients, matched across multiple demographic, clinical, and cognitive variables. In line with recent reports (Piguet et al., 2015; Ramanan et al., 2016), we predicted verbal and nonverbal episodic memory impairments in LPA relative to healthy Controls, comparable to that observed in typical AD. Second, we sought to establish the underlying grey and white matter correlates of episodic memory dysfunction in LPA and AD, employing an *a priori* hypothesis-driven approach based on the canonical profiles of neural degeneration in each syndrome. We were particularly interested in a modulating role of the left inferior parietal cortex in episodic memory dysfunction in LPA, given (i) its strong structural and functional connections with the MTL memory network (reviewed by Ramanan, Piguet, & Irish, 2018), and (ii) early disruption of its white matter connectivity with the MTL in LPA (Gorno-Tempini et al., 2008; Tu, Leyton, Hodges, Piguet, & Hornberger, 2016). Using convergent grey and white matter neuroimaging approaches, the current study represents the first formal characterisation of the neural underpinnings of episodic memory dysfunction in LPA.

## 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

We report how we determined our sample size, all data exclusions, all inclusion/exclusion criteria, whether inclusion/exclusion criteria were established prior to data analysis, all manipulations, and all measures in the study.

### 2.1. Participants

A total of 73 participants were recruited through FRONTIER, the frontotemporal dementia research group at the Brain and Mind Centre, the University of Sydney, Australia. Nineteen patients with a clinical diagnosis of LPA (Gorno-Tempini et al., 2011) who presented with early anomia, and difficulties with word-finding and sentence repetition were included. Twenty-three patients with a clinical diagnosis of probable AD with predominantly amnesic presentation were included (McKhann et al., 2011). Atypical variants of AD such as Posterior Cortical Atrophy or dysexecutive variants of AD were excluded.

Diagnoses were established by consensus among a multidisciplinary team comprising a senior neurologist (J.R.H.), a clinical neuropsychologist, and an occupational therapist based on comprehensive clinical and neuropsychological assessment, and structural neuroimaging. Disease severity was established using the Clinical Dementia Rating Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration Sum of Boxes score (CDR-FTLD SoB; Knopman et al., 2008). In addition, the CDR-FTLD Memory subdomain score was used as a metric of clinician-rated memory impairment in patients. Carers completed the Cambridge Behavioural Inventory – Revised (CBI-R; Wear et al., 2008) as an index of behavioural changes in the patient.



## Amnesia in Logopenic Progressive Aphasia

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Thirty-one healthy control participants were selected through a research volunteer panel and local community clubs and were matched to patient groups for age, sex, and education. All controls scored 88 or above on the Addenbrooke's Cognitive Examination – Revised (ACE-R: Mioshi, Dawson, Mitchell, Arnold, & Hodges, 2006) – a global index of cognitive functioning that assesses orientation, memory, verbal fluency, language, and visuospatial processing. All controls scored 0 on the CDR-FTLD SoB measure. Exclusion criteria for all participants included history of cerebrovascular disease, significant head injury, drug and alcohol abuse, other primary neurological, psychiatric, or mood disorders, and limited English proficiency.

All participants or their Person Responsible provided written informed consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. This study was approved by the South Eastern Sydney Local Health District and the University of New South Wales ethics committees.

### **2.2. General neuropsychological assessment**

Participants underwent a comprehensive neuropsychological assessment including tests of language, executive function, and memory. Overall cognitive functioning was measured using the ACE-R total score (Mioshi et al., 2006). The language subscale of the ACE-R provided a global impression of language performance across single word and sentence comprehension and repetition, reading, writing, and naming subtests. Targeted assessments of naming, single word repetition and word comprehension from the Sydney Language Battery (SYDBAT: Savage et al., 2013) were further administered. Each of the SYDBAT subtests have a maximum score of 30 with demonstrated sensitivity to language impairments in Primary Progressive Aphasia

1 subtypes (Savage et al., 2013). Executive dysfunction was assessed using the time  
2 difference between parts B and A of the Trail Making Test (TMT B-A: Reitan, 1958).  
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4 Forward and backward digit span tests were used as indices of auditory attention and  
5 working memory, respectively (Wechsler, 1997). Verbal letter fluency (F, A, S) tests  
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7 were used to measure word generation and controlled word retrieval abilities (Strauss,  
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9 Sherman, & Spreen, 2006). Finally, visuo-constructional abilities were assessed using  
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11 the Copy score from the Rey-Osterrieth Complex Figure test (ROCF: Osterrieth, 1944).  
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### 19 **2.3. Episodic memory assessments**

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22 Episodic memory was assessed across verbal and nonverbal domains in keeping with  
23 previous studies (Irish, Piguet, Hodges, & Hornberger, 2014; Ramanan et al., 2016).  
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25 First, overall memory performance was indexed using the memory subcomponent from  
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27 the ACE-R (max score = 26), which comprises immediate recall, retrograde memory,  
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29 and learning, delayed recall and recognition of a Name and Address (see Irish et al.,  
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31 2016).  
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39 Verbal episodic memory was assessed using the Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test  
40 (RAVLT: Schmidt, 1996). Participants learn 15 words over five consecutive acquisition  
41 trials (max score on each trial = 15) followed by a filled 30-minute delay, after which  
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43 delayed recall and recognition are assessed (max score for each = 15). The main score  
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45 of interest here was the delayed recall score (max score = 15, hereafter, referred to as  
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47 verbal delayed recall score). For visualization purposes, this score was expressed as a  
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49 percentage [(raw score / max score) \* 100].  
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1 Nonverbal episodic memory was assessed using the delayed recall component of the  
2 ROCF test (Osterrieth, 1944). Here, participants are required to copy a complex figure  
3 comprising multiple elements (Copy trial: max score = 36) and must reproduce the  
4 figure from memory following a delay of 3 minutes (max score for delayed recall = 36).  
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6 To control for executive and visuo-constructional demands, a percentage retained score  
7 was calculated [(delayed recall score / copy score) \* 100, hereafter, referred to as  
8 nonverbal delayed recall score] and this score formed the main score of interest for  
9 nonverbal memory. The recognition component of the ROCF test was not administered  
10 in this study.  
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### 24 **2.4. Image acquisition**

26 Seventy-one participants (18 LPA, 23 AD, 30 Controls) underwent a structural MRI of  
27 the brain using a 3T Philips MRI scanner with standard quadrature head coil (eight  
28 channels). Whole-brain T<sub>1</sub>-weighted images were acquired using the following  
29 sequences: coronal acquisition, matrix 256 x 256 mm, 200 slices, voxel size = 1 mm<sup>3</sup>,  
30 echo time/repetition = 2.6/5.8 ms, flip angle  $\alpha=8^\circ$ . Fifty-eight participants additionally  
31 underwent diffusion-weighted MRI. Two sets of whole-brain echo planar images were  
32 acquired with 32 non-collinear gradient directions, matrix 96 x 96 mm, 55 slices, voxel  
33 size = 2.5 mm<sup>3</sup>, repetition time/echo time/inversion time: 8400/68/90 ms, b-value =  
34 1000 s/mm<sup>2</sup>, field of view = 240 x 240 mm.  
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### 51 **2.5. VBM analyses**

52 Voxel-based morphometry (VBM) analyses were conducted using FSL (FMRIB  
53 Software Library: <https://fsl.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl/fslwiki>) according to a standardized pre-  
54 processing pipeline involving brain extraction (Smith, 2002), tissue segmentation  
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1 (Zhang, Brady, & Smith, 2001), and non-linear registration methods (Andersson,  
2 Jenkinson, & Smith, 2007a, 2007b) to align brain-extracted images to the Montreal  
3 Neurological Institute (MNI) standard space. Following image pre-processing, whole-  
4 brain general linear models were employed to investigate grey matter intensity  
5 differences between groups (corrected for Family-Wise Error at  $p < .005$ ). Correlations  
6 were then performed to investigate relationships between grey matter intensity and  
7 episodic memory performance (corrected for False Discovery Rate at  $p < .05$ ). Finally,  
8 inclusive masking analyses were used to determine common neural correlates of  
9 episodic memory within (*i.e.*, disease-specific) and between (*i.e.*, disease-general)  
10 patient groups. Full details of image pre-processing and VBM analyses are provided in  
11 Supplementary Methods.  
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29 It should be noted that all VBM correlation analyses were conducted combining each  
30 patient group with the Control group (*i.e.*, LPA and Controls, AD and Controls),  
31 allowing increased statistical power in detecting disease-specific associations. An  
32 important concern to address in this regard is whether group distributions due to an  
33 underlying bimodal distribution (*i.e.*, different modes for patients vs. Controls) explain  
34 emergent correlation findings. To ensure that an underlying bimodal distribution did  
35 not drive the correlation results, we first combined each patient group with the Control  
36 group and inspected the modes for both verbal and nonverbal delayed recall  
37 performance (in line with similar methods by Bertoux et al., 2014). Importantly, across  
38 these contrasts, a single mode that was different from the combined group's mean  
39 verbal and nonverbal delayed recall score underlay the distribution (see Supplementary  
40 Table 1 for details). These findings were further corroborated by visual inspection of  
41 histogram distributions, which revealed the presence of a single, distinct peak  
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1 suggesting a unimodal distribution underlying each combined patient-Control group  
2 performance on both verbal and nonverbal memory measures. Together, this suggests  
3 that the emergent findings in the VBM correlation analyses are not attributable to the  
4 presence of underlying group differences between patient and Control test performance.  
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## 10 11 **2.6. Diffusion Tensor Imaging analyses**

12 Diffusion weighted imaging data were available for 58 participants (15 LPA, 19 AD,  
13 24 Controls). Briefly, Tract-Based Spatial Statistics (TBSS: Smith et al., 2006) were  
14 run in FSL to perform a skeleton-based analysis of white matter fractional anisotropy  
15 (FA). Diffusion weighted images for each participant were corrected for eddy-currents  
16 and co-registered using non-linear registration (FNIRT: Andersson et al., 2007a,  
17 2007b) to MNI standard space using their respective 3D T<sub>1</sub>-weighted structural MR  
18 image. Following this, tensor models were fit to diffusion weighted images, and FA  
19 maps for participants were generated, which were averaged to produce a group mean  
20 FA image. General linear models were employed to examine white matter intensity  
21 differences between groups (corrected for Family-Wise Error at  $p < .005$ ). Full details  
22 of image pre-processing and Diffusion Tensor Imaging analyses are provided in  
23 Supplementary Methods.  
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## 46 **2.7. Probabilistic tractography**

47 To complement the TBSS analyses, we further sought to delineate specific white matter  
48 microstructural changes in the structural connections between the left angular gyrus  
49 (AG) in the inferior parietal cortex and the left MTL/hippocampus. The rationale for  
50 examining structural connectivity between these particular regions was based on i)  
51 causal evidence demonstrating critical roles for both regions in episodic memory  
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1 retrieval (see Berryhill, 2012; Nadel & Moscovitch, 1997; Ramanan & Bellana, 2019;  
2 Ramanan et al., 2018), ii) the emergence of both left AG and left hippocampus in our  
3 VBM atrophy and correlation analyses for the LPA group, iii) prior knowledge of tract  
4 anatomy (Catani, Howard, Pajevic, & Jones, 2002) demonstrating structural  
5 connectivity between the left AG (particularly, the ventral AG or area PGp; Caspers et  
6 al., 2011) and the left MTL (particularly, the parahippocampal gyrus/posterior  
7 hippocampus) via the inferior longitudinal fasciculus (ILF) (Caspers et al., 2011;  
8 Rushworth, Behrens, & Johansen-Berg, 2006; Uddin et al., 2010), and iv) prior  
9 evidence for early disruption of structural integrity of the left ILF in LPA (Tu et al.,  
10 2016).

11 For probabilistic tractography analyses, seed and target region, along with waypoint  
12 and exclusion masks were first defined in MNI space. The seed region mask comprised  
13 the left ventral AG, defined from the Jülich histological atlas implemented in FSL. The  
14 target region mask comprised the left posterior hippocampus. This was further used as  
15 a ‘waypoint’ mask, instructing the algorithm to only retain streamlines that passed  
16 through this point. Finally, a right-hemisphere mask and a bilateral frontal lobe mask  
17 were employed as exclusion masks. All masks were linearly transformed from MNI  
18 space to each subject’s native space for probabilistic tractography.

19 Probabilistic tractography was initiated from all voxels within the diffusion space seed  
20 mask while considering fibre pathway restrictions posed by the waypoint and exclusion  
21 masks. The resultant fibre tract was normalised, thresholded and the following indices  
22 of overall microstructural integrity of the white matter connectivity were computed:

- 23 i. Fractional anisotropy (FA)

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- ii. Mean diffusivity (MD) – indicating average molecular diffusion along the three eigenvectors of the tensor, with higher values indicating a higher mean diffusivity.

The extracted tractmetric values for all participants were subsequently used to examine group differences. Finally, associations between tractmetric values and verbal and nonverbal episodic delayed recall measures were examined. Full details of probabilistic tractography analyses are provided in Supplementary Methods.

## 2.8. Tract-of-no-interest approach

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To validate the probabilistic tractography correlational analyses, we further employed a ‘tract-of-no-interest’ approach using a control white matter tract hypothesized to not play a substantive role in episodic delayed recall. For this, a mask was created for the left corticospinal tract (running caudally from the precentral gyrus to the cerebral peduncle) based on the Johns Hopkins University white matter tractography atlas, integrated into FSLview (Hua et al., 2008). Similar to the above analyses, FA and MD values for this tract were extracted and correlated with episodic memory performance.

## 2.9. Statistical analyses

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Data were analysed using RStudio v3.3.0. For all behavioural data, Shapiro-Wilk tests were first used to assess normality of distributions. For normally-distributed continuous variables (e.g., age of disease onset), group differences were examined using *t*-tests and ANOVAs, with Sidak correction for *post-hoc* comparisons for ANOVA outputs. Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney tests were used to examine group differences on non-normally distributed continuous variables (e.g., disease severity). For categorical variables (e.g., sex), Chi-square tests were used. Group differences on episodic memory

1 performance were examined using ANOVA with Sidak correction for *post-hoc*  
2 comparisons. The alpha level to determine statistical significance was set at  $p < .05$  or  
3 below. Effect sizes for all ANOVA statistics are denoted using partial eta-squared  
4 values ( $\eta_p^2$ ), while Cohen's  $d$  values denote effect sizes of *post-hoc* LPA-AD  
5 comparisons. All  $F$ -statistics,  $p$ -values, and  $\eta_p^2$  values are indicated in the respective  
6 tables. Two-tailed Pearson's correlations were administered to examine associations  
7 between verbal/nonverbal episodic memory and performance on neuropsychological  
8 tests separately for LPA and AD groups. Due to the large number of correlations  
9 undertaken, all  $p$ -values for correlation analyses were corrected for multiple  
10 comparisons using Benjamini-Hochberg (false-discovery rate) method to control for  
11 Type-I error (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995).  
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29 For statistical analysis of probabilistic fibre tracking metrics, group differences were  
30 assessed using ANOVAs with Sidak *post-hoc* corrections. Associations between  
31 episodic delayed recall measures and tract metrics were examined using two-tailed  
32 Pearson's correlation coefficients, employing a conservative alpha of  $p \leq .01$  to control  
33 for Type-I error. Given the relatively small sample sizes for the probabilistic  
34 tractography analyses for both LPA ( $N = 15$ ) and AD ( $N = 19$ ) groups, correlations were  
35 computed combining each patient group with the Control group (*i.e.*, LPA and Controls,  
36 AD and Controls) to increase statistical power. Importantly, there was no evidence for  
37 the presence of a bimodal distribution underpinning each combined patient-Control  
38 group performance on both verbal and nonverbal delayed recall performance  
39 (Supplementary Table 1), suggesting that the findings emerging from the correlation  
40 analyses could not simply be attributed to group differences.  
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## 2.10. Data availability

The ethical requirement to ensure patient confidentiality precludes public archiving of our data. Researchers who would like to access the raw data should contact the corresponding author who will liaise with the ethics committee that approved the study, and accordingly, as much data that is required to reproduce the results will be released to the individual researcher. The code used for this project has been made available for review on the Open Science Framework website (<https://osf.io/c5azm/>). No part of the study procedures or analyses were preregistered prior to the research being undertaken.

## 3. RESULTS

### 3.1. Demographic and clinical variables

Demographic, clinical, and neuropsychological scores for all participants are presented in Table 1. The LPA, AD, and Control groups did not differ in terms of sex distribution ( $p = .47$ ), age ( $p = .38$ ), and education ( $p = .24$ ). Importantly, the LPA and AD groups were matched for age at disease onset ( $p = .77$ ), disease severity (CDR-FTLD SoB:  $p = .34$ ), and clinician-indexed memory impairment (CDR-FTLD Memory subdomain) ( $p = .18$ ). LPA and AD groups were further comparable on carer-reported changes in behaviour and memory (CBI-R total:  $p = .62$ , and CBI-R memory component:  $p = .50$ ). Significant group effects were noted on the ACE-R total score, with both patient groups performing significantly lower relative to Controls (both  $p$  values  $< .001$ ). Importantly, no significant differences were evident between patient groups for global cognitive function on the ACE-R ( $p = .42$ ).

### 3.2. Neuropsychological test performance

1 Formal neuropsychological testing revealed characteristic cognitive profiles in the LPA  
2 and AD groups (Table 1). Relative to Controls, LPA patients displayed marked  
3 impairments on global measures of language function, as well as on targeted tests of  
4 naming, comprehension, repetition, executive function, sustained attention, working  
5 memory, verbal fluency, and visuo-constructional abilities (all  $p$  values  $< .001$ ).  
6  
7 Similarly, the AD group displayed canonical impairments on global tests of memory  
8 and language, as well as specific tests of naming, comprehension, executive function,  
9 sustained attention, working memory, verbal fluency, and visuo-constructional abilities  
10 relative to the Control group (all  $p$  values  $< .001$ ). Direct comparisons of the patient  
11 groups revealed disproportionate impairment of single word repetition in the LPA  
12 relative to the AD group ( $p = .006$ ), consistent with the clinical phenotype of LPA. On  
13 all other neuropsychological test measures, the LPA and AD groups performed  
14 comparably (all  $p$  values  $\geq .07$ ). These cognitive profiles are in keeping with earlier  
15 descriptions of LPA (Butts et al., 2015; Magnin et al., 2013) and AD (Graham, Emery,  
16 & Hodges, 2004; Hutchinson & Mathias, 2007; Ramanan et al., 2017).  
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### 44 **3.3. Episodic memory assessment**

#### 45 **3.3.1. Delayed recall performance**

46 Group differences on episodic memory tests are displayed in Fig. 1 and Table 2.  
47 Significant group effects were observed for verbal (RAVLT 30-mins delayed recall:  $p$   
48  $< .001$ ) and nonverbal (ROCF % retained:  $p < .001$ ) delayed recall. Irrespective of  
49 modality, LPA and AD groups performed significantly poorer relative to Controls (all  
50  $p$  values  $< .01$ ). While LPA patients outperformed the AD group on the verbal delayed  
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1 recall measure ( $p = .03$ ), no significant difference was observed between patient groups  
2 for nonverbal delayed recall ( $p = .51$ ). Together, these findings corroborate previous  
3 reports of disrupted memory performance in LPA relative to healthy Controls  
4 (Ramanan et al., 2016; Win et al., 2017).  
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11 [INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE]  
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### 21 **3.3.2. Correlations with neuropsychological task performance**

22 No significant correlations emerged between verbal or nonverbal episodic recall and  
23 neuropsychological test performance, including targeted neuropsychological  
24 assessments of language, in LPA (all  $p$  values  $> .1$ ) or AD (all  $p$  values  $\geq .08$ )  
25 (Supplementary Table 2).  
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### 34 **3.4. VBM analyses**

#### 35 **3.4.1. Group differences in grey matter intensity**

36 Group differences in grey matter intensity are presented in Supplementary Table 3 and  
37 Supplementary Fig. 1. Relative to Controls, the LPA group displayed reduced grey  
38 matter intensity predominantly in left posterior temporoparietal regions including the  
39 left AG and supramarginal gyri, bilateral inferior/middle/superior temporal gyri (left >  
40 right), bilateral temporal poles (left > right), and the left hippocampus (across the  
41 longitudinal axis). These patterns are in keeping with previous descriptions of LPA  
42 (Gorno-Tempini et al., 2004; Rogalski et al., 2014). By contrast, the AD group  
43 displayed widespread bilateral atrophy including the hippocampi, medial and lateral  
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temporal and parietal, and prefrontal regions, in line with previous descriptions (Karas et al., 2004; Moller et al., 2013).

Direct comparisons between patient groups failed to reveal any significant clusters at  $p < .005$  corrected for Family-Wise Error.

### **3.4.2. Grey matter correlates of delayed recall performance**

Associations between episodic delayed recall performance and regions of significant grey matter intensity decrease in patient groups relative to Controls are displayed in Fig. 2 and 3, Table 3, and Supplementary Tables 4 and 5.

[INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE]

#### **3.4.2.1. LPA group**

Verbal episodic memory performance in LPA correlated with grey matter intensity in the left hippocampus, bilateral posterior parietal (including AG), lateral temporal, medial and lateral prefrontal regions (Supplementary Table 4; Fig. 2). By contrast, nonverbal episodic memory correlated with reduced grey matter intensity in the bilateral AG and frontal poles, left orbitofrontal cortex, and left precuneus (Supplementary Table 5, Fig. 3).

Irrespective of modality, episodic memory performance in the LPA group was associated with grey matter intensity reduction in the bilateral AG, left orbitofrontal cortex and left postcentral gyrus (Supplementary Fig. 2 and Supplementary Table 6).

[INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE]

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3 **3.4.2.2. AD group**

4 Verbal delayed recall performance in AD was associated with grey matter intensity in  
5 bilateral medial and lateral temporal structures, bilateral posterior parietal (including  
6 AG), medial and lateral prefrontal regions, as well as bilateral insular cortices and  
7 paracingulate gyri (Supplementary Table 4; Fig. 2). By contrast, nonverbal episodic  
8 delayed recall was associated with reduced grey matter intensity in the bilateral AG and  
9 frontal poles, right posterior cingulate cortex, and left middle temporal gyrus  
10 (Supplementary Table 5, Fig. 3).  
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24 Episodic memory impairments (regardless of modality) in AD correlated with reduced  
25 grey matter intensity in the bilateral AG, left inferior/middle/superior temporal gyri,  
26 left insular cortex, and right frontal pole (Supplementary Fig. 2 and Supplementary  
27 Table 6).  
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46 **3.4.2.3. Disease-general neural correlates**

47 Across LPA and AD groups, verbal delayed recall impairments were associated with  
48 reduced grey matter intensity in the left hippocampus, bilateral AG, bilateral frontal  
49 poles, bilateral inferior/middle/superior temporal gyri, and the left middle frontal gyrus  
50 (Table 3, Fig. 4). Nonverbal episodic memory impairments were commonly associated  
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with reduced grey matter intensity in the bilateral AG, right frontal pole, and left orbitofrontal cortex in both patient groups (Table 3, Fig. 4).

### 3.5. Diffusion tensor imaging analyses

#### 3.5.1. Group differences in FA

Characteristic patterns of FA decrease relative to Controls were observed in LPA and AD (Supplementary Table 7). LPA patients displayed predominantly left-lateralized FA reduction in the inferior and superior longitudinal fasciculi, inferior fronto-occipital fasciculus, and forceps major bundles. By contrast, the AD group displayed widespread bilateral FA reductions in the cingulum bundle, superior and inferior longitudinal fasciculi, inferior fronto-occipital fasciculi, and forceps major bundles. Together, these patterns are in keeping with earlier descriptions of FA reductions in LPA (Tu et al., 2016) and AD (Agosta et al., 2011; Villain et al., 2008).

Direct comparisons between patient groups failed to reveal any significant clusters at  $p < .005$  corrected for Family-Wise Error.

[INSERT FIGURE 5 HERE]

### 3.6. Probabilistic fibre tracking analyses

#### 3.6.1. Group differences in tract-of-interest microstructure

Fig. 5A depicts an exemplar 2D/3D reconstructed left AG-hippocampal complex inferior longitudinal fasciculus (ILF) tract from the probabilistic tractography analyses of a single healthy Control subject. Group differences for tract metrics for the tract-of-interest are displayed in Supplementary Table 8. Both patient groups displayed significantly higher MD relative to the Control group (all  $p$  values  $< .01$ ), indicating

1 reduced microstructural integrity in the tract-of-interest. Importantly, no significant  
2 differences were noted between LPA and AD groups on this index ( $p > .1$ ). No  
3  
4 significant group differences emerged on the FA metric for the tract-of-interest ( $p > .1$ ).  
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9 For the tract-of-no-interest (i.e., left corticospinal tract), the AD group demonstrated  
10 increased MD ( $p = .02$ ), relative to the Control group. No other significant group  
11 differences emerged on tract metrics for the tract-of-no-interest (all  $p$  values  $> .1$ ).  
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### 17 18 19 **3.6.2. Correlations between tract-of-interest metrics and episodic memory**

20 Fig. 5B-5C displays significant correlations that emerged between tract metrics from  
21 the modelled left AG-hippocampal ILF tract and episodic delayed recall measures for  
22 the LPA and AD contrasts.  
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29 For the LPA contrast, significant correlations were found between verbal delayed recall  
30 performance and the MD metric (Fig. 5B:  $r = -.38$ ;  $p = .01$ ), but not FA ( $r = .01$ ;  $p > .1$ ).  
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32 By contrast, no significant correlations emerged between either FA or MD metrics and  
33 nonverbal episodic recall performance (both  $r$  values  $\leq -.29$ ; both  $p$  values  $> .07$ ).  
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39 Similarly, for the AD contrast, significant correlations emerged between verbal delayed  
40 recall performance and the MD metric (Fig. 5C:  $r = -.52$ ;  $p < .001$ ) but not the FA metric  
41 ( $r = -.09$ ;  $p > .1$ ). No significant correlations emerged between either FA or MD metrics  
42 and nonverbal episodic recall performance (both  $r$  values  $\leq -.17$ ; both  $p$  values  $> .1$ ).  
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### 51 **3.6.3. Correlations between tract-of-no-interest metrics and episodic memory**

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Finally, in line with our predictions, no significant correlations emerged between either episodic delayed recall measure and any of the tract metric values in the tract-of-no-interest (i.e., left corticospinal tract) for either contrasts (LPA: all  $r$  values  $\leq$  - .24; all  $p$  values  $>$  .1; AD: all  $r$  values  $\leq$  - .22; all  $p$  values  $>$  .1).

#### 4. DISCUSSION

Mounting evidence suggests the presence of marked verbal and nonverbal episodic memory impairments in LPA. To our knowledge, this is the first study to explore the grey and white matter underlying neural correlates of these memory impairments in LPA in contrast with typical AD. Verbal memory deficits in LPA were observed at an intermediate level between typical AD and healthy Controls, reflecting a gradation of memory impairment across the AD-LPA spectrum. Despite previous suggestions that verbal episodic memory impairments in LPA manifest due to prominent language and lexical retrieval disturbances characteristic of this syndrome (Win et al., 2017), our correlation analyses failed to reveal significant associations between verbal episodic memory performance and a confrontational naming/lexical retrieval task. Moreover, our observation of prominent nonverbal episodic memory dysfunction in LPA suggests that language impairment is not the primary mechanism underpinning memory disturbance in this syndrome. In fact, on a test of delayed nonverbal memory that circumvents language demands, LPA patients were indistinguishable from matched cases of typical AD. Finally, objective memory impairments in LPA were corroborated by clinician-indexed and carer-reported difficulties, again of a comparable magnitude as that reported in the AD group. Collectively, these findings indicate a pervasive memory impairment in LPA evident not only on objective neuropsychological tests but manifest in the everyday activities of LPA patients.



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2 To further understand the origins of memory dysfunction in LPA, we conducted  
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4 multimodal neuroimaging analyses exploring grey and white matter contributions to  
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6 task performance. Considering first the grey matter patterns of atrophy, our VBM  
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8 analyses revealed that in addition to left perisylvian atrophy, our LPA cohort  
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10 demonstrated significant left hippocampal atrophy. The hippocampus, however, was  
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12 implicated only for verbal episodic memory performance in our covariate analyses. By  
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14 contrast, the left inferior parietal cortex was found to correlate with episodic memory  
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16 dysfunction in LPA, irrespective of modality, suggesting an important modulating role  
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18 of parietal regions in the genesis of memory dysfunction in this syndrome (Casaletto et  
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20 al., 2017; Krishnan et al., 2017). Notably, we also found evidence of left orbitofrontal  
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22 cortex involvement in episodic memory dysfunction in LPA. This finding was  
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24 surprising as orbitofrontal and prefrontal regions are typically affected later in the LPA  
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26 disease course (Rohrer et al., 2013). The emergence of the orbitofrontal regions in our  
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28 VBM analyses may reflect differences in the disease severity of our LPA cohort relative  
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30 to previous reports (Teichmann et al., 2013; Win et al., 2017). Nevertheless, our  
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32 findings reveal pervasive episodic memory impairments in LPA (Eikelboom et al.,  
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34 2018), attributable to erosion of large-scale predominantly left-sided brain networks  
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36 implicated in language and memory processing.  
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48 Turning our attention to the AD group, our covariate analyses pointed to grey matter  
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50 intensity decrease in bilateral medial temporal, inferior parietal, and prefrontal regions  
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52 as driving episodic memory dysfunction, with the notable involvement of the posterior  
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54 cingulate cortex. Episodic memory dysfunction has long been heralded as the cognitive  
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56 signature of typical AD, traditionally thought to reflect early MTL dysfunction  
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(Dickerson & Eichenbaum, 2010). Recent evidence, however, suggests that in addition to MTL damage, network-wide degeneration of the posterior cingulate, inferior parietal, lateral temporal, and prefrontal cortices gives rise to the hallmark amnesic profile in AD (Desgranges et al., 2002; Irish et al., 2016; Irish et al., 2014; Ramanan et al., 2019). The emergence of inferior parietal and prefrontal regions as common substrates of memory dysfunction in LPA and AD, further reinforces the importance of regions beyond the MTL in supporting episodic memory processes and highlights a specific vulnerability of parietal cortical nodes of the episodic memory network across the AD spectrum.

To complement the grey matter VBM analyses, indices of white matter microstructural integrity were employed to further understand how disruption of structural connectivity between nodes of the core memory network contributes to episodic amnesia in LPA and AD. In both patient groups, large-scale degeneration of subcortical pathways that connect parieto-occipital, frontal, and lateral temporal/MTL regions was evident. In keeping with the LPA clinical phenotype, these disruptions were largely left-lateralized reflecting subcortical disconnections from parietal to frontotemporal regions, along the perisylvian language pathway (Galantucci et al., 2011; Tu et al., 2016). Long-range fibres such as the ILF have been shown to relay information between parieto-occipital and temporal lobes facilitating successful lexical retrieval and episodic memory processing (Herbet, Zemmoura, & Duffau, 2018). Unlike LPA, however, our typical AD cohort displayed diffuse white matter damage to bilateral subcortical fibre tracts. Unique to AD was the disruption of the cingulum bundle, which runs medially to the ILF to connect the MTL with an important posterior cortical memory hub – the posterior cingulate cortex (Catani et al., 2002). The posterior cingulate cortex holds a

1 topologically central role in anchoring multiple structural brain networks (Hagmann et  
2 al., 2008) and its degeneration in AD has been uniquely linked to deficits in episodic  
3 recollection and related constructive endeavours (Irish, Addis, Hodges, & Piguet, 2012;  
4 Irish et al., 2015; Ramanan et al., 2019).  
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11 Considering next how structural white matter alterations impact memory performance  
12 in LPA, our probabilistic tractography analyses isolated a subsection of the ILF that has  
13 been well described in the past to form structural connections between the left AG and  
14 left MTL regions (Caspers et al., 2011; Rushworth et al., 2006; Uddin et al., 2010).  
15  
16 Interestingly, associations between tract integrity and memory performance were  
17 restricted to verbal episodic recall performance in both patient groups. This finding  
18 resonates with the proposal that the left ILF supports communication between areas  
19 specialized for processing verbal content (Kelley et al., 1998). Our results therefore  
20 suggest an important role for subcortical white matter tract degeneration in the origin  
21 of episodic memory dysfunction in LPA and AD. Structural and functional connections  
22 between the MTL and inferior parietal cortex play an important mediating role in the  
23 service of successful episodic recollection (Gilmore, Nelson, & McDermott, 2015;  
24 Ramanan et al., 2019; Vincent et al., 2006). While the left ILF was implicated in both  
25 LPA and AD, we tentatively speculate as to the temporal origins of microstructural  
26 damage to this tract. Our cross-sectional design precludes the direct examination of  
27 evolution of disease pathology along white matter tracts, however, we suggest that  
28 typical AD pathology propagates from the MTL back to the parietal cortex (Khan et al.,  
29 2014), whereas the LPA syndrome may unfold in the converse direction with MTL  
30 hypometabolism emerging as secondary to the downstream propagation of pathology  
31 from the temporoparietal cortex. Whether the ILF represents a preferential subcortical  
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1 pathway for the encroachment of pathology in LPA is an important question to address  
2 via longitudinal studies incorporating multimodal grey and white matter neuroimaging  
3 metrics.  
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9 The findings reported here should be interpreted in relation to a number of  
10 methodological considerations. First, our relatively modest sample size of LPA patients  
11 reflects the rarity of this syndrome, and constrained our tractography analyses, whereby  
12 we were unable to examine within group correlations due to concerns of reduced  
13 statistical power. Next, the verbal and nonverbal episodic memory measures used in the  
14 current study differed considerably on administration and scoring procedures, number  
15 of learning trials provided and the length of filled delay, possibly amounting to both  
16 measures tapping into different aspects of episodic memory. Importantly, these  
17 measures were chosen as they are included as part of routine neuropsychological  
18 assessment in our clinic. Despite both tests being widely adopted and standardized  
19 indices of episodic memory, future studies will benefit from the inclusion of  
20 comprehensive episodic memory measures with verbal and nonverbal components that  
21 are comparable on administration, methodological, and scoring procedures. A good  
22 example of this is the Hopkins Verbal Learning Test – Revised and its visual  
23 counterpart, the Brief Visual Memory Test – Revised. Both measures are  
24 methodologically similar and involve a series of verbal or visual items presented over  
25 three repeated trials, a delayed recall test following a 25-minute delay, and a recognition  
26 test (Strauss et al., 2006). Future studies should consider the usage of methodologically  
27 comparable measures providing a comprehensive impression of cross-modal memory  
28 performance in patients with neurodegenerative syndromes. Further, a majority of our  
29 LPA patients have not yet come to autopsy and have no pathological confirmation.  
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## Amnesia in Logopenic Progressive Aphasia

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Related to this, our LPA patients may represent a more clinically advanced cohort in relation to previous studies. It will be important to replicate and extend these findings in a larger group of LPA patients at different stages of disease severity. Moreover, longitudinal investigations charting the evolution of memory impairments over time, and their respective neural bases, will be invaluable. In light of recent suggestions for heterogenous cognitive and atrophy profiles within homogenously classified LPA cohorts (Leyton et al., 2015), future studies may benefit from examining whether episodic memory deficits in LPA represent a unifying factor across distinct endophenotypes of this syndrome.

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Despite these caveats, our findings hold a number of important clinical implications, which warrant attention. The presence of verbal and nonverbal episodic memory dysfunction in LPA runs counter to its conceptualisation as primarily a disorder of language and may unwittingly predispose a clinician to confer a diagnosis of typical AD with language features. This risk is further increased when such memory impairments arise in the context of positive amyloid profiles on PET-ligand neuroimaging. The differential diagnosis of LPA from other primary progressive aphasia hinges on distinguishing between distinct language profiles (Gorno-Tempini et al., 2011), yet classification based on language performance produces false positive rates, as high as 14%, in distinguishing LPA from other primary progressive aphasia (Savage et al., 2013). By contrast, the early presence of nonverbal episodic amnesia, in the context of other primary progressive aphasia, appears to be unique to LPA (Ramanan et al., 2016), suggesting that conjunctive reliance on language and episodic memory performance may significantly improve the accurate diagnosis of LPA. Future work tracking the emergence of memory disturbances at the earliest stages of the

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syndrome employing longitudinal approaches in conjunction with PET-ligand neuroimaging will prove particularly informative in this regard.

In conclusion, the current findings demonstrate the presence of stark verbal and nonverbal episodic memory deficits in LPA reflecting the degeneration of medial temporal, inferior parietal and prefrontal cortical regions, as well as disrupted white matter connectivity between inferior parietal and MTL regions. Our findings suggest that the current heuristic of diagnosing LPA predominantly based on language impairments fails to account for the inherent variability in cognitive profiles displayed across the disease trajectory. We suggest that adopting a multidimensional approach to understanding cognitive trajectories in LPA will greatly improve diagnosis and management of this syndrome.

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## 17 **7. Competing interests**

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19 The authors report no competing interests.  
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## 25 **Supplementary material**

26  
27 One supplementary file with supplementary methods, eight supplementary tables, and  
28 two supplementary figures.  
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**Table 1.** Demographic, clinical, and general neuropsychological assessment performance for all groups.

	LPA	AD	Controls	Magnitude of group effect <sup>‡</sup>	of LPA vs. AD (p value and effect size)
<i>N</i>	19	23	31		
Sex (M: F)	8:11	12:11	11:20	$\chi^2 = 4.4; p = .47$	
Age (years)	69.6 (7.40)	69.5 (8.0)	71.6 (2.2)	$F = .9; p = .38; \eta_p^2 = .02$	.82; $d = .01$
Education (years)	13.5 (3.6)	12.5 (2.8)	12.2 (1.8)	$F = 1.4; p = .24; \eta_p^2 = .03$	.60; $d = .31$
Age of disease onset (years)	62.3 (7.7)	61.6 (8.1)	-	$t = -.28; p = .77$	.77; $d = .09$
Disease severity (CDR-FTLD SoB)	5.1 (3.3)	3.9 (2.5)	-	$W = 130.5; p = .34$	.34; $d = .76$
Clinician-rated memory impairment (CDR-FTLD Memory subscore)	.5 (.5)	.6 (.3)	-	$W = 201; p = .18$	.18; $d = -.25$
CBI-R Total (%)	19.9 (11.8)	16.1 (9.9)	3.0 (3.0)	$F = 25; p < .001; \eta_p^2 = .43$	.62; $d = .35$



## Amnesia in Logopenic Progressive Aphasia

CBI-R Memory (%)	42.6	37.3	6.2 (6.8)	$F = 45.1; p .50; d = .3$
	(17.4)	(17.5)		$< .001; \eta_p^2 = .58$
ACE-R total (100)	71.6	76.6	95.3	$F = 72.8; p .42; d =$
	(11.2)	(7.5)	(3.3)	$< .001; \eta_p^2 = .67 \quad -.55$

### *Neuropsychological*

#### *tests*

ACE-R memory	16.6 (5.5)	15.8	24.0	$F = 47.3; p .53; d = .19$
total (26)		(2.7)	(1.8)	$< .001; \eta_p^2 = .57$
ACE-R language	20.2 (3.6)	22.7	25.4	$F = 29.6; p .20; d =$
total (26)		(2.3)	(0.7)	$< .001; \eta_p^2 = .45 \quad -.85$
SYDBAT Naming	18.3 (7.2)	22.3	26.6	$F = 22.3; p .27; d =$
(30)		(3.1)	(2.3)	$< .001; \eta_p^2 = .39 \quad -.75$
SYDBAT	26.3 (1.8)	26.4	29.1	$F = 15.3; p .64; d =$
Comprehension		(2.7)	(1.3)	$< .001; \eta_p^2 = .31 \quad -.04$
(30)				
SYDBAT	28.9 (0.9)	29.5	29.7	$F = 5.1; p < .01; .006; d =$
Repetition (30)		(0.9)	(0.6)	$\eta_p^2 = .12 \quad -.67$
TMT B-A (secs)	167.8	124.4	48.5	$F = 7.9; p < .001; .79; d =$
	(189.1)	(70.6)	(25.3)	$\eta_p^2 = .21 \quad -.32$
Digit span forward	7.6 (1.9)	9.3 (1.8)	11.1	$F = 17.4; p .07; d =$
(16)			(2.1)	$< .001; \eta_p^2 = .33 \quad -.92$
Digit span	4.7 (1.7)	5.2 (1.9)	7.4 (2.2)	$F = 12.6; p .49; d =$
backward (16)				$< .001; \eta_p^2 = .26 \quad -.28$

## Amnesia in Logopenic Progressive Aphasia

Letter fluency (FAS total)	25.7 (11.6)	29.6 (12.2)	45.5 (11.7)	$F = 19.8$ ; $p < .001$ ; $d = .36$
ROCF copy (36)	26.6 (7.9)	24.4 (10.4)	32.5 (2.9)	$F = 8.7$ ; $p < .001$ ; $d = .24$ $\eta_p^2 = .20$

*Note.* For all tests/variables, maximum scores reported in brackets; For all groups, mean and standard deviation reported; For magnitude of group effect,  $p$ -values and  $\eta_p^2$  values, along with the accompanying  $t/W/F$  values reported; †For all  $F$ -statistics,  $df_{\text{numerator}} = 2$  and  $df_{\text{denominator}} = 70$ ; For all statistical outputs, exact  $p$  and  $\eta_p^2$  values reported; For all *post-hoc* comparisons, exact  $p$  values reported; all  $p$  values bolded if below  $p < .05$ ; effect size for between patient *post-hoc* comparison calculated using Cohen's  $d$ ; LPA = Logopenic Progressive Aphasia; AD = Alzheimer's disease; CDR-FTLD SoB = Clinical Dementia Rating - Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration Sum of Boxes; CBI-R = Cambridge Behavioural Inventory – Revised; ACE-R = Addenbrooke's Cognitive Examination - Revised; SYDBAT = Sydney Language Battery; TMT B-A = time difference between parts B and A of the Trail Making Test; ROCF = Rey-Osterrieth Complex Figure.

**Table 2.** Delayed episodic memory performance across participant groups

	LPA	AD	Controls	Magnitude of group effect <sup>‡</sup>	LPA vs. AD value and effect size)	vs. <i>d</i>
Verbal delayed recall (%)	36.4 (26.9)	18.2 (19.5)	67.0 (20.4)	$F = 40.8; p < .001;$ $\eta_p^2 = .54$	<b>.03;</b> = .79	<i>d</i>
Nonverbal delayed recall (%)	36.1 (24.0)	31.0 (19.7)	54.7 (13.8)	$F = 11.6; p < .001;$ $\eta_p^2 = .25$	<b>.51;</b> = .23	<i>d</i>

*Note.* For magnitude of group effect,  $F$ ,  $p$ , and  $\eta_p^2$  values are reported; <sup>‡</sup>For all  $F$ -statistics,  $df_{\text{numerator}} = 2$  and  $df_{\text{denominator}} = 69$ ; For all *post-hoc* comparisons, exact  $p$  values reported; all  $p$  values bolded if below  $p < .05$ ; effect size for between patient *post-hoc* comparison calculated using Cohen's  $d$ ; Verbal delayed recall was indexed using the Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test 30-minute recall percent score while nonverbal delayed recall was measured using the Rey Osterrieth Complex Figure percentage retained score. LPA = Logopenic Progressive Aphasia; AD = Alzheimer's disease.

**Table 3.** Voxel-based morphometry results indicating grey matter regions commonly implicated in LPA and AD groups for episodic delayed recall performance

Contrast	Regions	Side	Number of voxels	Peak MNI coordinates		
				<i>x</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>z</i>
Verbal delayed recall	Hippocampus, amygdala, temporal fusiform cortex, inferior/middle/superior temporal gyrus	Left	1,777	-26	-6	-50
	Inferior/middle/superior temporal gyrus, supramarginal gyrus	Right	791	-58	-36	-14
	Lateral occipital cortex, angular gyrus	Right	461	42	-74	12
	Angular gyrus	Left	428	-56	-60	24
	Occipital pole	Right	145	36	-94	6
	Orbitofrontal cortex, insular cortex	Left	119	-38	22	-4
	Temporal fusiform cortex	Right	107	28	-26	-34
	Frontal pole	Right	104	22	56	16
	Frontal pole	Left	100	-18	54	-20

## Amnesia in Logopenic Progressive Aphasia

	Medial frontal cortex,	Right	90	4	52	-24
	frontal pole					
	Superior temporal gyrus	Left	83	-66	-30	14
	Precentral gyrus,	Left	80	-18	-26	60
	postcentral gyrus					
	Middle frontal gyrus	Left	75	-28	-4	48
	Inferior temporal gyrus	Right	56	52	-50	-16
Nonverbal	Frontal pole	Right	175	22	52	4
delayed						
recall						
	Angular gyrus	Right	86	52	-60	28
	Orbitofrontal cortex	Left	79	-48	32	-14
	Central opercular	Left	66	-54	-20	22
	cortex, postcentral					
	gyrus					
	Angular gyrus	Left	65	-40	-58	40

*Note.* Verbal delayed recall was assessed using the Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test 30-minute recall percent score and nonverbal delayed recall was indexed using the Rey Osterrieth Complex Figure percentage retained score. All clusters reported using voxel-wise contrasts corrected using False Discovery Rate at  $p < .05$ . Age is included as a covariate in all contrasts. MNI, Montreal Neurological Institute; LPA = Logopenic Progressive Aphasia; AD = Alzheimer's disease.

**Fig. 1.** Episodic memory performance for all groups on the verbal and nonverbal delayed recall measures. Boxes depict distribution of data with lower and upper end of the box depicting the inter-quartile range respectively. The bolded horizontal lines depict the median score while whiskers depict the variability outside the upper and lower quartiles. Verbal delayed recall assessed via the Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test 30-minute recall percent score and nonverbal delayed recall assessed using the Rey Osterrieth Complex Figure percentage retained score; LPA = Logopenic Progressive Aphasia; AD = Alzheimer's disease.

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**Fig. 2.** Regions of significant grey matter intensity decrease that correlate with verbal delayed recall performance in LPA and AD. Correlation analyses in both contrasts were run in a combined patient-Control group (*i.e.*, LPA and Controls, and AD and Controls). Coloured voxels indicate regions that emerged significant in the voxel-based morphometry analyses at  $p < .05$  corrected for False Discovery Rate with a cluster threshold of 100 contiguous voxels. All clusters reported at  $t \geq 3.1$  (see Supplementary Table 4 for magnitude of  $t$ -values for each cluster). Age was included as a covariate in the analyses. Clusters are overlaid on the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) standard brain with  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates reported in MNI standard space. L = Left; LPA = Logopenic Progressive Aphasia; AD = Alzheimer's disease.

**Fig. 3.** Regions of significant grey matter intensity decrease that correlate with nonverbal delayed recall performance in LPA and AD. Correlation analyses in both contrasts were run in a combined patient-Control group (*i.e.*, LPA and Controls, and AD and Controls). Coloured voxels indicate regions that emerged significant in the voxel-based morphometry analyses at  $p < .05$  corrected for False Discovery Rate with a cluster threshold of 100 contiguous voxels. All clusters reported at  $t \geq 3.37$  (see Supplementary Table 5 for magnitude of  $t$ -values for each cluster). Age was included as a covariate in the analyses. Clusters are overlaid on the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) standard brain with  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates reported in MNI standard space.

L = Left; LPA = Logopenic Progressive Aphasia; AD = Alzheimer's disease.



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**Fig. 4.** Inclusive masking results indicating disease-general brain regions associated with verbal and nonverbal episodic delayed recall performance. Inclusive masks were derived from correlation analyses run in a combined patient-Control group (*i.e.*, LPA and Controls, and AD and Controls), separately for verbal and nonverbal episodic delayed recall performance. Coloured voxels indicate regions that emerged significant in the voxel-based morphometry analyses at  $p < .05$  corrected for False Discovery Rate. All clusters reported at  $t \geq 3.10$  (see Supplementary Table 4 and 5 for magnitude of  $t$ -values for each cluster). Age was included as a covariate in the analyses. Clusters are overlaid on the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) standard brain with  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates reported in MNI standard space. L = Left; LPA = Logopenic Progressive Aphasia; AD = Alzheimer's disease.

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**Fig. 5.** Correlations between extracted ILF tractmetrics and verbal episodic delayed recall measures for both patient groups. Upper panel shows an exemplar 2D/3D reconstruction of the modelled left angular gyrus-hippocampal inferior longitudinal fasciculus (ILF) tract for a single Control subject, with indications of the neuroanatomical position of the angular gyrus and hippocampus relative to the modelled tract. Lower panel indicates significant correlations (Pearson's *r* coefficients and *p*-values) that emerged between MD values for the extracted ILF and episodic delayed recall measures for LPA and Control participants combined, where higher tractmetric values indicate greater white matter microstructural damage; MD values are measured in  $\text{mm}^2/\text{sec} \times 10^{-3}$ ; Verbal delayed recall was assessed using the Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test 30-minute delayed recall score (expressed as percentage) and nonverbal delayed recall score was assessed using the Rey Complex Figure Test 3-minute percentage retained score; L = Left; R = Right; MD, mean diffusivity; LPA = Logopenic Progressive Aphasia; AD = Alzheimer's disease.

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## **Author contributions**

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**John R. Hodges:** Resources; Writing – Review & Editing.

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