

Network-selective vulnerability of the human cerebellum to Alzheimer's disease and frontotemporal dementia

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Abstract

Neurodegenerative diseases are associated with distinct and distributed patterns of atrophy in the cerebral cortex. Emerging evidence suggests that these atrophy patterns resemble intrinsic connectivity networks in the healthy brain, supporting the network-based degeneration framework where neuropathology spreads across connectivity networks. An intriguing yet untested possibility is that the cerebellar circuits, which share extensive connections with the cerebral cortex, could be selectively targeted by major neurodegenerative diseases. Here we examined the structural atrophy in the cerebellum across common types of neurodegenerative diseases, and characterised the functional connectivity patterns of these cerebellar atrophy regions. Our results showed that Alzheimer's disease and frontotemporal dementia are associated with distinct and circumscribed atrophy in the cerebellum. These cerebellar atrophied regions share robust and selective intrinsic connectivity with the atrophied regions in the cerebral cortex. These findings for the first time demonstrated the selective vulnerability of the cerebellum to common neurodegenerative disease, extending the network-based degeneration framework to the cerebellum. Our work also has direct implications on the cerebellar contribution to the cognitive and affective processes that are compromised in neurodegeneration as well as the practice of using the cerebellum as reference region for ligand neuroimaging studies.

Keywords: intrinsic connectivity; cerebellum; neurodegeneration; selective vulnerability

Introduction

Common neurodegenerative diseases are associated with progressive and circumscribed atrophy in the cerebral cortex, with distinct anatomical distributions. In Alzheimer's disease (AD), neuropathology predominantly targets the bilateral posterior cingulate cortices, precuneus, and hippocampus, whereas frontotemporal dementia (FTD) affects the frontal and temporal lobes of the brain (Braak and Braak, 1991; Rosen *et al.*, 2002). Importantly, the cerebral atrophy in neurodegeneration have been shown to resemble the anatomical patterns of intrinsic connectivity networks in healthy brains, such as the default mode and salience networks (Greicius *et al.*, 2004; Seeley *et al.*, 2009). As revealed by functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), these networks feature spontaneous, temporally synchronous, spatially distributed neural activities, which presumably result from direct or indirect anatomical connections (Beckmann *et al.*, 2005; Damoiseaux, 2006; Fox *et al.*, 2005; Vincent *et al.*, 2007). The anatomical similarity between the atrophy patterns in neurodegeneration and intrinsic connectivity networks in health provided the first empirical evidence in living humans that neurodegenerative diseases represent organized large-scale network breakdowns and neuropathology spreads along trans-synaptic connections (Seeley *et al.*, 2009). This "network-based degeneration" framework holds important clinical implications, in elucidating disease-specific profiles and developing imaging markers for diagnosis and disease monitoring.

So far, research on common neurodegenerative diseases has primarily focused on the cerebral cortex. However, connectivity network architecture extends beyond the cerebral cortex, notably, to the cerebellum via topographically-organized connections (Schmahmann, 2001). Structurally, the cerebellum is connected to the cerebral cortex via poly-synaptic fiber connections; these connections are organized topographically that different parts of the cerebellum are connected to distinct cerebral regions (Buckner, 2013; Kelly and Strick, 2003). Functionally, most cerebral intrinsic connectivity networks can be mapped onto the cerebellum using functional connectivity analyses (Buckner and Krienen, 2011; Habas *et al.*, 2009). Such topographically-organized connectivity between the cerebrum and the cerebellum led to an intriguing possibility, that

neurodegeneration could target distinct cerebellar regions within the same intrinsic connectivity network.

Nonetheless, the role of the cerebellum in major neurodegenerative diseases has received little attention. This oversight might be due to the notion that cerebellar degeneration is classically associated with ataxia, a symptoms that is typically absent in AD and FTD. Recent clinical and neuroimaging studies in human, however, have provided compelling evidence that the cerebellum is broadly involved in cognition, language and emotion (Baumann *et al.*, 2014; Schmahmann and Sherman, 1998; Schmahmann, 2001). Hence, cerebellar changes might not necessarily lead to motor symptoms, but rather compromise cognitive and affective functions. This notion is indirectly corroborated by our recent findings, showing that sporadic bvFTD patients have substantial cerebellar changes, particularly in the anterior lobules and the posterior crus (Tan *et al.*, 2014). It is thus an imperative task to characterize pathological changes in the cerebellum accompanying neurodegenerative diseases, and further their relationship with cerebral degeneration.

The current study addresses this issue by systematically mapping the atrophy patterns in the cerebellar and cerebral cortices across four common types of neurodegenerative diseases: Alzheimer's disease (AD) and the three FTD subtypes (behavioural variant FTD – bvFTD; semantic dementia – svPPA; progressive nonfluent aphasia – nfvPPA). To explore the mechanisms underlying the cerebral atrophy, we mapped the anatomical patterns of cerebellar and cerebral atrophy onto known intrinsic connectivity architecture in healthy brains. Furthermore, we investigated whether the amount of cerebellar atrophy correlated with the cerebral atrophy across patients within each diagnosis group. We hypothesised that i) different clinical groups would show distinct patterns of cerebellar atrophy; ii) the anatomical patterns and the extents of cerebellar and cerebral atrophy within each group would be related as predicted by intrinsic connectivity architecture in healthy brains.

Methods

Case Selection

A total of 217 participants took part in this study. Patients were recruited in a consecutive fashion from the FTD Research Clinic, FRONTIER, in Sydney, resulting in a sample of 56 AD, 38 bvFTD, 30 nfvPPA, 29 svPPA and 64 elderly controls. All FTD patients met current consensus criteria for bvFTD (Rascovsky *et al.*, 2011) and svPPA and nfvPPA (Gorno-Tempini *et al.*, 2011) showing the progressive neuropsychiatric and/or cognitive decline characteristic of this dementia subset. More specifically, bvFTD patients met criteria for probable bvFTD by showing behavioural disinhibition, apathy, and loss of empathy, as well as a decline in functional abilities. svPPA patients had surface dyslexia, as well as impaired naming, single-word comprehension and object knowledge, while having spared repetition and speech production. nfvPPA patients had apraxia of speech or agrammatism, as well as complex sentence comprehension problems, while showing intact single-word comprehension and object knowledge. All patients also met criteria of atrophy localised to frontal and/or temporal lobes as well as perisylvian areas via an MRI visual atrophy rating scale (XXX). AD patients met diagnostic criteria for Alzheimer's disease (Dubois *et al.*, 2007) by having significant episodic memory problems as reported by the patient or carer, which was corroborated by neuropsychological verbal and non-verbal episodic memory testing (RAVLT, Rey figure, Doors & People test) as well as medial temporal lobe atrophy on visual atrophy rating scale (XXX). Diagnosis for all patients was established by consensus among a senior neurologist (JRH) and neuropsychologists based on clinical investigations, cognitive assessment, carer interviews, and evidence of atrophy on structural neuroimaging. Patients were excluded when symptom onset was sudden or other significant neurological or psychiatric symptoms were present. No patients were included in the bvFTD group who manifested any ALS symptomology or were C9orf72 positive. A group of 64 healthy elderly adults were recruited as controls. Testing and scanning was conducted at the first clinic visit of each patient, however patients were followed-up at 12-month intervals for disease management purposes which also confirmed their additional diagnoses. Based on this database, we selected participants who are best matched for age and gender across the disease and control groups, resulting in the final cohort for this study (34 AD, 33 bvFTD, 27 nfvPPA, 27 svPPA and 34 controls).

Ethics Statement

Ethics approval was obtained from the Human Research Ethics Committee of South Eastern Sydney/Illawarra Area Health Service (HREC 10/126, 10/092 & 10/022). Research was conducted following the ethos of the Declaration of Helsinki. Written consent, either from patient or family, was obtained for each participant in the study.

Test Selection

The Addenbrooke's Cognitive Examination Revised (ACE-R) and the Cambridge Behavioural Inventory Revised (CBI-R) were selected on the basis of their high sensitivity, specificity and feasibility for screening cognitive and neuropsychiatric symptoms, respectively.

The ACE-R is a test that detects early cognitive impairment with 94% sensitivity and 89% specificity (Mioshi *et al.*, 2006) and has been well validated across various neurodegenerative diseases. The participant works through a battery of items designed to reveal levels of functioning across five subscales: attention & orientation, memory, fluency, language and visuospatial cognition. The total possible score is 100, with higher scores denoting more preserved cognitive abilities. Scores below 88 are indicative of cognitive impairment (Mioshi *et al.*, 2006).

The CBI-R is a 45-item carer questionnaire mapping the neuropsychiatric topography of the participant and any material impact on daily life. Each item, a given behaviour, is ascribed a frequency rating (0-4) – 0 indicating no impairment, 1 a rare occurrence (a few instances per month), 2 a repeated occurrence (a few instances per week), 3 a daily occurrence, and 4 a constant occurrence. The CBI-R stands corroborated by the Neuropsychiatric Inventory (NPI) as an effective measure of neuropsychiatric symptoms (Wedderburn *et al.*, 2008). The maximum score is 180, signifying absolute behavioural and psychological dysfunction (Results are reported herein as percentages, for simplicity). Thus higher scores in CBI-R indicate greater impairment, in contrast with grading of ACE-R scores.

Statistical analyses on demographics and neuropsychology

Data were analysed using SPSS19.0 (IBM Corp., Chicago, Ill., USA). Demographic (age, gender, years of education) and clinical (disease duration, FRS Rasch score, ACE-R total score and CBI total scores) variables were checked for normality of distribution by Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Variables revealing normal distribution (age, education, FRS Rasch) were compared across groups via one-way ANOVAs followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests whereas variables with non-normal distributions (gender, disease duration, CDR sum of boxes, ACE-R total and CBI-R total) were assessed via Chi-square, Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests.

Imaging acquisition

Subjects were scanned using a 3T Philips MRI scanner. T1-weighted acquisition: coronal orientation, matrix 256x256x200, 1x1 mm² in-plane resolution, slice thickness 1 mm, TE/TI = 2.6/5.8 ms.

Imaging preprocessing and analysis

T1-weighted images were segmented into grey and white matter using VBM8 toolbox in SPM8. The output images were visually inspected for each participant to ensure accurate segmentation (see sFig. 3 for representative images). The grey matter images were further normalized into Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) space (affine + nonlinear), modulated (non-linear only), and smoothed with an 8mm full-width at half-maximum Gaussian kernel. These resulting images were subsequently entered into a second-level, random-effects voxel-based morphometry analysis to perform a two sample t-test to identify differences between each disease group and healthy controls. The group-difference maps were evaluated with a peak height threshold [family-wise error (FWE)-corrected $p < 0.05$] (sFig. 1).

The cerebellum was processed using the spatially unbiased infratentorial template (SUIT) toolbox specifically developed for the cerebellum (Diedrichsen, 2006). Compared with the standard whole-brain atlases, the high resolution atlas used by SUIT preserves the anatomical detail of the

cerebellum and provides more accurate spatial registration (Diedrichsen, 2006). The cerebellum was first isolated using a stepwise Bayesian algorithm that estimates the likelihood of each voxel belong to the cerebellum, normalised to the MNI space with the high resolution probability cerebellum template in SUIT (affine + nonlinear), modulated, and smoothed with a 2mm full-width at half-maximum Gaussian kernel. These resulting images were subsequently entered into a second-level, random-effects voxel-based morphometry analysis to perform a two-sample t-test to identify between-group differences in the cerebellum. Here, we compared the differences between each of the four disease groups and the healthy controls (four group-comparisons; Fig 1), as well as between the four disease groups (six group-comparisons; sFig. 2). Group-differences in the cerebellum were not detected at the threshold used for the cerebrum (FWE-corrected $p < 0.05$). Hence, a more lenient threshold was used: a peak height threshold ($p < 0.001$ or $p < 0.005$), and cluster extend (FWE-corrected $p < 0.05$).

Age and gender were included as covariates in all group comparisons. As total GM or TIV were corrected during the preprocessing step “modulation – non-linear only” in VBM8 and SUIT. Note the modulation step (to correct for local expansion or contraction) was implemented by dividing the partial volume maps by the Jacobian of the warp field, therefore correcting for global brain size differences. TIV was therefore not included as a covariate in the statistical model. Disease severity as quantified by FRS was included as an additional covariate in all comparisons between disease groups.

These group-difference maps were then compared with each of the intrinsic connectivity networks as defined in the Yeo and the Buckner atlas for the cerebrum and the cerebellum, respectively (Buckner and Krienen, 2011; Yeo *et al.*, 2011); the spatial similarity was assessed by goodness-of-fit scores (GOF) according to the following formula, and summarised in Table 2.

$$GOF = (V_{in} - V_{out}) / (V_{in} + V_{out}), \text{ where}$$

V_{in} : Probability of voxels in the group-difference map to be inside of the connectivity network;

V_{out} : Probability of voxels in the group-difference map to be outside of the connectivity network.

Permutation tests were used to test whether the GOF scores of the top-matching network are significantly higher than the rest. Here, group comparisons were performed on randomly-selected

subsets of 20 patients to derive the GOF scores. This process was repeated 50 times for each disease group and statistical significance between the top and second ranking networks was examined with Mann-Whitney U Test (Table 2).

Seed-based functional connectivity

For each type of neurodegenerative diseases, we selected the peak atrophy regions within the relevant networks in the cerebral and the cerebellar cortex for AD, bvFTD, nfvPPA and svPPA, respectively (Table 3). As the result, the clusters peaks of group difference maps at the left angular gyrus (AG), the right anterior insula (AI), the left inferior frontal gyrus (IFG) and the left inferior temporal gyrus (ITG) were used as the cerebral seeds, whereas the peaks of group difference maps at the left Crus I, the left VI, the right Crus I and the left IV-V were used as the cerebral seeds, for AD, bvFTD, nfvPPA and svPPA, respectively.

The intrinsic connectivity of these seeds was examined using resting state fMRI data from 468 'related' Q1-Q6 subjects (R468), acquired by the human connectome project (WU-Minn HCP Data – 500 Subjects; age 22-35 and 59% female). The preprocessing pipeline of HCP resting state dataset has been described in details in the original publication (Glasser *et al.*, 2013; Smith *et al.*, 2013). Briefly, structural images were corrected for MR gradient nonlinearity distortion, and registered to the MNI space using an initial linear (FLIRT) and non-linear (FNIRT) registration in FSL. Functional images were corrected for spatial distortions, realigned to compensate for subject motion, co-registered to the structural images, smoothed with 2 mm FWHM and mapped onto the standard space. The output is a standard set of time series in every subject, with spatial correspondence of 2 mm average surface vertex and subcortical volume voxel spacing. Lastly, FIX (FMRIB's ICA-based X-noisifier) was applied to this set of time series to remove non-neural artefact signals (Smith *et al.*, 2013). FIX combines independent component analysis and hierarchical fusion of classifier to identify spatiotemporal components that mostly reflect artefacts in the data; commonly used noise regressors, such as white matter and cerebrospinal fluid timeseries, were included to assist classification (Salimi-Khorshidi *et al.*, 2014). The timeseries of identified noise components, as well as the 24 confound timeseries derived from the motion

estimation, were subsequently removed from the fMRI data; 24 motion-related timeseries include the 6 rigid-body parameter timeseries, their backwards-looking temporal derivatives, plus all 12 resulting regressors squared) (Satterthwaite *et al.*, 2013; Smith *et al.*, 2013).

The use of nuisance signal regression is still an outstanding issue for connectivity analyses (Smith *et al.*, 2013). To ensure our results are not sensitive to the choice of this preprocessing step, we examined functional connectivity either with or without additional regressions. Using the workbench 1.0 software, seed-based functional connectivity maps were generated for each of the 468 subjects, based on (1) correlation with regression of the mean grey timecourse (MGT) and (2) full correlation between the seeds and every other voxels in the brain (Smith *et al.*, 2013). The regression of MGT, the average timecourse of grey matter voxels and vertices, represents a less aggressive form of global signal regression (Smith *et al.*, 2013). Then, group-level statistical analyses were performed on the 468 individual functional connectivity maps to derive the intrinsic connectivity networks. The spatial similarity between these intrinsic connectivity networks were then measured by (Pearson) spatial cross-correlation. Since the results from the two connectivity maps were quantitatively similar (Table 3), only the MGT-regressed connectivity maps were displayed in the Results (Fig. 2).

Structural correlation between the cerebral and cerebellar seed regions

To assess the atrophy at the peak atrophy regions that were used as the seeds in the preceding analyse, we created 6-mm sphere ROIs that were centred at the peak coordinates (Table 3, grey rows). The mean grey matter volumes of these ROIs were extracted from the structural image of each patient. The associations between the cerebral and cerebellar ROIs were examined via (Pearson) correlation. One-tailed tests were used, as we had prior hypotheses that the atrophy severity of the cerebral and cerebellar ROIs within the same, targeted networks would be positively

correlated. Post hoc residual normality tests were performed on these correlation analyses in SPSS. In all cases, the residuals conformed to a Gaussian distribution and no outlier was detected.

Results

Demographics and clinical profiles

To establish the atrophy profiles across several common neurodegenerative syndromes, we screened our clinical database for patients diagnosed with AD, bvFTD, svPPA and nfvPPA, and healthy controls, who are best matched for age and gender (Table 1). The resultant four groups have no significant difference in gender or years of education ($p > 0.1$ for all). Age was not significantly different between most groups ($p > 0.1$), except that the nfvPPA group showed significantly older age as compared to the bvFTD and svPPA groups ($p < 0.05$). Since the nfvPPA group does not differ from the control group in age, we opted to include all patients, rather than exclude the older ones and reduce the sample size. A longer disease duration was found in svPPA compared to AD and nfvPPA ($p < 0.05$) but no other difference was found across groups. On the CDR assessments, patients with nfvPPA scored higher than all patient groups ($p < 0.05$) and patients with bvFTD scored significantly worse in comparison to AD and svPPA ($p < 0.01$). As expected, all patient groups performed significantly worse in comparison to controls in ACE-R and CBI assessments ($p < 0.01$). For the ACE-R, svPPA cases performed worse in comparison to all other groups ($p < 0.05$ for all). A poorer performance was also seen in AD and nfvPPA compared to bvFTD ($p < 0.05$). For the CBI scores, the svPPA cohort performed significantly worse in comparison to nfvPPA ($p < 0.01$) but both svPPA and nfvPPA cohorts performed significantly better in comparison to bvFTD cases ($p < 0.01$), with nfvPPA also performing better in comparison to AD ($p < 0.01$). Significant differences were seen in the FRS Rasch score in AD, svPPA and nfvPPA in comparison to bvFTD ($p < 0.01$) as well as in svPPA compared to AD and nfvPPA ($p < 0.05$).

Distinctive patterns of cerebellar atrophy in the AD and FTD

AD and FTD subtypes are associated with significant and anatomically-distinct atrophy in the cerebellum. Compared to age-matched healthy controls, patients with AD showed significant atrophy in the bilateral Crus I (Fig. 1A, sTable 1; $p < 0.001$ for voxel height, FWE-corrected $p < 0.05$ for cluster extent). On the other hand, the cerebellar atrophy in bvFTD was located at the anterior and superior portion of the cerebellum, with peak atrophied regions in lobule VI, predominantly on the left (Fig. 1B, sTable 1; $p < 0.001$ for voxel height, FWE-corrected $p < 0.05$ for cluster extent). In svPPA and nvPPA groups, the threshold used above did not detect cerebellar atrophy. A lenient statistical threshold for voxel height ($p < 0.005$) revealed bilateral atrophy in lobules IV-V and IX in svPPA, and Crus I in nvPPA (Fig. 1C,D, sTable 1, FWE-corrected $p < 0.05$ for cluster extend). Next, we examined whether the cerebellar changes are different between these common neurodegenerative disorders. We found the cerebellar atrophy was more severe in AD than FTD subtypes (sFig. 2; FWE-corrected $p < 0.05$ for cluster extent). Specifically, patients with AD presented greater atrophy in the right and left Crus I than patients with bvFTD and nvPPA, respectively. On the other hand, no cerebellar regions were found to show greater atrophy in FTD subtypes than AD. In addition, no significant differences in the cerebellar cortex were identified between the three FTD subtypes.

Cerebellar atrophy patterns reflect cerebro-cerebellar intrinsic connectivity

If the cerebellar atrophy in neurodegenerative diseases results from the spread of neuropathology across interlinked networks, these atrophied regions in the cerebellum should belong to the same large-scale intrinsic connectivity networks as the corresponding cerebral atrophied regions. To test this hypothesis, we compared the atrophy maps against established cerebral and cerebellar atlas based on resting state connectivity (Buckner and Krienen, 2011; Yeo *et al.*, 2011). It has been well recognized that the cerebral atrophy patterns in AD and bvFTD resemble the default mode network anchored by bilateral angular gyrus, precuneus and posterior cingulate cortex, and the salience network anchored by bilateral anterior insula and anterior cingulate cortex, respectively (Greicius *et*

al., 2004; Seeley *et al.*, 2009) (sFig. 1). Consistent with these previous findings, the cerebral atrophy patterns in AD and bvFTD showed the highest matching scores with the default mode network and salience network in the connectivity network atlas, respectively (Table 2; sFig. 1). When we applied a similar analysis in the cerebellum, the cerebellar atrophy pattern matched the best with the cerebellar counterparts of the default mode network and salience network, respectively (Figs. 1A,B, overlaid on the 7-network atlas; Table 2), suggesting that the neurodegeneration in AD and bvFTD follows large-scale cerebro-cerebellar intrinsic connectivity patterns as identified in healthy brains.

The intrinsic connectivity networks underlying cerebral atrophy are less studied and established for nvPPA and svPPA (Farb *et al.*, 2013; Guo *et al.*, 2013; La Joie *et al.*, 2013; Seeley *et al.*, 2009). Nonetheless, we observed a similar pattern in nvPPA, where the atrophied areas best matched the same intrinsic connectivity networks, the frontoparietal network, in both the cerebrum and the cerebellum (Fig. 1C, Table 2). For svPPA, although the limbic network shares high spatial similarity with the cerebral atrophy pattern, its matching with the cerebellar atrophy pattern was poor, suggesting the neurodegenerative process in svPPA might follow different mechanisms between the two brain regions (Fig. 1D, Table 2).

Shared intrinsic connectivity patterns between cerebral and cerebellar atrophy regions

To further validate the cerebro-cerebellar connectivity-based degeneration hypothesis, we adopted a seed-based analytical strategy commonly used in the cerebrum (Guo *et al.*, 2013; Seeley *et al.*, 2007; Zhou *et al.*, 2012). We examined whether the peak atrophied regions in the cerebral and the cerebellar cortices share similar intrinsic connectivity patterns in healthy brains (see Methods for details; Table 3, grey rows).

Intrinsic connectivity network seeded at the left AG, the peak cerebral atrophy region in AD (black circle in Fig. 2A, top row), encapsulates bilateral angular gyrus, middle temporal gyrus, precuneus and dorsal medial prefrontal cortex (DMPFC). Additionally, Crus I and II in the cerebellum also showed high connectivity to the angular gyrus seed (Fig. 2A). Intriguingly, the network seeded at

left Crus I, the peak cerebellar atrophy region in AD, resembles this angular gyrus-seeded network, with bilateral angular gyrus, middle temporal gyrus, precuneus and DMPFC being the most connected cerebral regions (Fig. 2A, bottom row; Table 3, spatial cross-correlation = 0.61). Similarly, seeding either in the cerebrum or the cerebellum, peak atrophy regions in bvFTD generated networks encompassing ACC, bilateral anterior insula, temporoparietal junction, as well as lobules VI and VIII (Fig. 2B; Table 3, spatial cross-correlation = 0.57); peak atrophy regions in nfvPPA show robust, shared connectivity in inferior frontal gyrus, intraparietal sulcus, DMPFC, as well as Crus I and lobule VIII (Table 3, cross-correlation = 0.60). In svPPA, however, cerebral and cerebellar atrophy regions appeared to have different intrinsic connectivity patterns (Table 3, cross-correlation = 0.08).

Correlated cerebral and cerebellar atrophy within the relevant connectivity networks.

Finally, based on the network-based generation framework, the severity of degeneration should be correlated between the cerebrum and the cerebellum within the same connectivity networks. We tested this hypothesis with correlational analyses on structural atrophy. In AD, grey matter volume at the peak atrophy region in Crus I was significantly correlated with grey matter volume at the angular gyrus ($r=0.38$, $p=0.01$), but not the anterior insula ($r=0.08$, $p=0.32$; Fig. 3A). On the other hand, in bvFTD, grey matter volume at the peak atrophy region in lobule VI was significantly correlated with grey matter volume at the anterior insula ($r=0.34$, $p=0.02$), but not the angular gyrus ($r=-0.05$, $p=0.38$; Fig. 3B). We did not find significant correlation between the cerebral and the cerebellar atrophy severity in nfvPPA and svPPA, although there was a trend in nfvPPA ($p=0.06$).

Discussion

Our findings showed that neurodegenerative syndromes are associated with distinct patterns of atrophy in the cerebellum. These cerebellar atrophy regions shared robust intrinsic connectivity with the atrophy regions in the cerebral cortex, as revealed by seed-based functional connectivity

analyses on healthy brains. These results suggested that the network-selective vulnerability could underlie the pathogenesis of neurodegeneration in both the cerebral and cerebellar cortices. We report here that the cerebellar subregions targeted by AD are within the Crus I/II, and the ones by bvFTD are within lobule VI. Previous studies in healthy adults have classified Crus I/II and lobule VI as the cerebellar counterparts of the default mode network and the salience network, respectively (Buckner and Krienen, 2011; Habas *et al.*, 2009; Krienen and Buckner, 2009). Hence, our observations are consistent with previous research on the cerebral cortex that AD targets the default mode network and bvFTD targets the salience network (Seeley *et al.*, 2009; Zhou *et al.*, 2010). These results provide strong support that neurodegenerative processes spread across intrinsic connectivity networks in the brain, and further extend this network-based framework to the cerebellum.

To our knowledge, our study is the first to systematically examine cerebellar atrophy in relation to intrinsic brain networks across common neurodegenerative diseases. The cerebellum is generally regarded as being spared in AD - often serving as a control tissue or a reference region in imaging studies (Dukart *et al.*, 2010; Smith *et al.*, 1997). However, pathological insults in the cerebellum have been widely reported in AD by earlier pathology studies (Braak *et al.*, 1989; Chen *et al.*, 2010; Dickson *et al.*, 1990; Fukutani *et al.*, 1996; Ishii *et al.*, 1997; Joachim *et al.*, 1989; Mattiace *et al.*, 1990; Wegiel *et al.*, 1999), which oddly became scanty in the more recent literature. On the other hand, the importance of the cerebellum is gaining increasing traction in the field of FTD, fuelled by studies that have found structural changes and neuropathological lesions in the cerebellum in patients carrying the c9ORF72 mutation (Mahoney *et al.*, 2012; Whitwell *et al.*, 2012). The cerebellar changes do not appear to be specific to c9ORF72 mutation though: They have since been documented in cohorts of sporadic bvFTD, particularly in the anterior lobules and the crus (Tan *et al.*, 2014), similar to our connectivity results. These findings clearly suggest that caution is warranted to regard the cerebellum as a control or reference region in neurodegenerative conditions, as atrophy in the regions emerges as much more pervasive as previously thought. Future studies should address the impact of those cerebellar changes on ligand neuroimaging and how this can be accounted to avoid biased results.

More importantly, our results demonstrate how network-based framework has become a powerful framework for understanding the mechanisms of neurodegeneration. Not only on a systems level where the anatomical distributions of cerebral atrophy in neurodegenerative diseases resemble intrinsic connectivity networks in healthy brains (Seeley *et al.*, 2009), but also on a molecular level where pathogenic proteins (eg. amyloid, tau, TDP-43) could misfold and aggregate into self-propagating agents for the spread of disease (Jucker and Walker, 2013). Hence, evidence is converging that the connectivity-based, network-specific mechanisms underlie the origin and progression of neurodegenerative diseases. Under this network-based framework, involvement of the cerebellum should be no surprise. Earlier tracing studies have well documented the topographically-organized connections between the cerebellum and the cerebrum, including prefrontal cortex, via the cerebro-cerebellar-thalamo circuits (Haines and Dietrichs, 1984; Haines *et al.*, 1997; Siwek and Pandya, 1991). Recent functional neuroimaging studies further mapped functional connectivity networks in the cerebral cortex onto distinct cerebellar regions (Buckner and Krienen, 2011; Habas *et al.*, 2009). Together with these structural and functional studies, our results underscore the importance of dissecting the anatomical subdivisions of the cerebellum in elucidating its function and vulnerability to neuropathology. Furthermore, other subcortical structures strongly connecting to the targeted cerebral regions could potentially be vulnerable to neurodegeneration. For example, there has been increasing evidence that the basal ganglia contribute to symptomology in neurodegeneration along with the cortical changes (Shepherd, 2013). Future study could take a similar approach for the whole brain to establish a complete depiction of neural network changes in neurodegeneration.

This cerebro-cerebellar connectivity is critical for the understanding the clinical pathological correlates in neurodegenerative diseases. Indeed, historically the cerebellum has been associated with coordination and motor symptoms. However, more recent evidence suggests that somatosensory regions occupy only a relatively small proportion of the cerebellum, with almost one-half of the cerebellum involved in cognitive control and the default mode networks (Buckner and Krienen, 2011). Functional imaging studies have highlighted the role of Crus I in working memory and connectivity studies have corroborated this by demonstrating that the cerebellar Crus

I/II are the major cerebellar regions coupled to the default network (Buckner and Krienen, 2011; Krienen and Buckner, 2009). The current study shows peak atrophy in Crus I being associated with the default mode network targeted in AD, and the cerebellar lobule VI with the salience network in bvFTD. The presence of cerebellar degeneration raises intriguing questions on the cerebellar contribution to the cognitive and affective symptoms in these patients, who have no or very subtle motor symptoms. More likely, if taken an integrative view of the brain function, the integrity of the entire circuit, that encompasses the relevant cerebral and cerebellar cortices, as well as subcortical structures, is the key to support healthy mental states. This is clearly speculation at this stage, and future studies addressing these issues are evidently needed.

Despite these significant findings in AD and bvFTD, results for the nvPPA and svPPA groups were less robust. Indeed, a more lenient threshold was needed to detect cerebellar atrophy in nvPPA and svPPA (Fig. 1). The weaker statistical significance could be due to the smaller sample sizes of the nvPPA and svPPA groups. Alternatively, it might reflect that the cerebellum is less affected in nvPPA and svPPA than AD and bvFTD, although a direct comparison of FTD subtypes did not show significant differences (sFig. 2). One could speculate that the observed differences could be due to stronger anatomical connections between the cerebrum and the cerebellum, which might lead to a higher susceptibility of cerebellar atrophy. Clearly this anatomical connectivity needs to be further investigated. In AD and bvFTD, atrophy in strongly connected cortical regions such as the parietal and prefrontal cortices might cause greater cerebellar atrophy, leading to the clear relationship between cerebellar atrophy and connectivity. On the other hand, the anterior temporal lobe, the targeted cerebral regions in svPPA, might not share strong connections with the cerebellum, resulting in much weak relationship. This possibility, however, remains a speculation; investigations of the cerebellar changes in the language variant, particularly svPPA, are warranted in future studies employing bigger sample sizes.

Limitations and future directions

Despite these promising findings there were several limitations to our findings. The effects of cerebellar atrophy as measured by sMRI were moderate in our study, compared to the atrophy in the cerebrum. This moderate effect, however, might not necessarily reflect the degree of cerebellar atrophy or pathology in AD and FTD. Standard sMRI technique could be suboptimal for measuring the structure of the cerebellum due to its high neuronal density. The human cerebellum contains more than half of all the neurons within the brain within less than 10% of its volume, resulting in the densely-packed and highly-convoluted cerebellar cortex. Hence, future studies using high-resolution sMRI and fMRI could provide valuable insights into the structural and functional vulnerability of the cerebellum and other subcortical structures in much finer details. High-resolution neuroimaging could also enhance the ability to investigate the relationship between the degenerative processes in the cerebrum and the cerebellum. Our results provide preliminary evidence that the severity of cerebral and cerebellar atrophy are selectively correlated within the same intrinsic connectivity networks (Fig. 3). However, the correlations we detected were only moderate ($r = 0.3\sim 0.4$). To fully address this notion of co-atrophy, these analyses should be further investigated by neuroimaging studies that offer improved spatial resolution and account for other confounding factors. Finally, our study did not address the contribution of cerebellar lesion to clinical profiles in AD and FTD and did not allow to confirm the findings in pathologically confirmed cases. Future studies combining high-resolution cerebellum imaging and comprehensive neuropsychology assessments could advance our understanding of the neural correlates of cognitive and behavioural symptoms in neurodegeneration.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Statistical maps of structural atrophy in the cerebellum in (A) AD, (B) bvFTD, (C) nvPPA and (D) svPPA, and their overlays with the Buckner 7-network atlas. (E) The corresponding 7-network atlas in the cerebrum (only left hemisphere is shown). $p < 0.001$ (AD & bvFTD) or 0.005 (nvPPA & svPPA) for peak height and FWE-corrected $p < 0.05$ for spatial extent. Purple regions in the cerebellum are all part of the salience network, as the visual network, color coded as dark purple, does not have a cerebellar counterpart (Buckner and Krienen, 2011).

Fig. 2. Intrinsic connectivity patterns of cerebral (top row) and cerebellar (bottom row) atrophy regions in AD (A) and bvFTD (B). Seed regions are signified by yellow arrowhead. Additional anatomical landmarks are signified by white/grey arrowheads to assist visual inspection.

Fig. 3. Correlation between cerebral and cerebellar atrophy in patients with AD (A) and bvFTD (B). Grey matter volumes from the cerebral and cerebellar seed regions for the default mode network and salience network are plotted against each other. Significant correlations (Bonferroni-corrected for multiple comparisons) are plotted in black and non-significant correlations are plotted in grey.

Table 1

	AD (N=34)	bvFTD (N=33)	nfvPPA (N=27)	svPPA (N=27)	Controls (N=34)
Gender (M:F)	19: 15	19: 14	11: 16	18:9	16:18
Age (yrs)	62 ± 6	61 ± 7 ^f	67 ± 10	61 ± 5 ^f	64 ± 5
Education (yrs)	13 ± 3	12 ± 3 ^a	13 ± 3	12 ± 3	13 ± 3
Disease duration (yrs)	3 ± 3	3 ± 2	3 ± 2	4 ± 3 ^{c, f}	N/A
CDR	3.9 ± 2.2	6.4 ± 3.6 ^d	1.9 ± 2.1 ^{d, e}	3.3 ± 2.7 ^{e, f}	N/A
FRSRasch score	1.0 ± 1.4 ^e	0.6 ± 0.5	0.4 ± 0.5 ^e	1.5 ± 1.3 ^{e, d, f}	N/A
ACE-R Total	67.2 ± 18.0 ^b	76.7 ± 11.7 ^{b, c}	76.5 ± 14.8 ^{b, c}	61.6 ± 18.2 ^{b, c, e, g}	95.4 ± 3.4
CBI Total	21.7 ± 13.4 ^b	37.1 ± 15.8 ^{b, d}	12.4 ± 11.0 ^{b, d, e}	25.6 ± 16.7 ^{b, e, g}	3.0 ± 2.9

^ap < 0.05 compared to Controls

^bp < 0.01 compared to Controls

^cp < 0.05 compared to AD

^dp < 0.01 compared to AD

^ep < 0.01 compared to bvFTD

^fp < 0.05 compared to nfvPPA

^gp < 0.01 compared to nfvPPA

Table 2. GOF scores between atrophy patterns and top two best-matching intrinsic connectivity networks (ICN).

		AD		bvFTD		nfvPPA		svPPA	
		#ICN	GOF	#ICN	GOF	#ICN	GOF	#ICN	GOF
7 Network Parcellation	Cerebellum								
	No. 1	7**	0.47	4**	0.44	6*	0.56	2**	0.42
	No. 2	6	0.32	2	0.16	7	0.34	5	0.23
	Cerebrum								
	No. 1	7**	0.56	4**	0.54	6**	0.66	5**	0.86
	No. 2	3	0.32	7	0.40	4	0.51	7	0.11
17 Network Parcellation	Cerebellum								
	No. 1	17*	0.57	8*	0.46	17**	0.78	15	0.70
	No. 2	14	0.47	13	0.37	8	0.20	11	0.68
	Cerebrum								
	No. 1	17**	0.65	8**	0.65	12*	0.81	9**	0.91
	No. 2	14	0.53	10	0.45	8	0.63	17	0.53

To avoid naming confusions, intrinsic connectivity networks are labelled here by the numbers used in the original atlas. For the visual displays of these networks, see Fig. 1E for the 7-network parcellation atlas, and the Fig. 11A in Buckner et al, 2011 for the 17-network parcellation atlas. The 7 network: 1, Visual; 2, Somatosensory; 3, Dorsal attention; 4, Salience; 5, Limbic; 6, Frontoparietal; 7, Default. The 17 network: 1,2, Visual; 3,4, Somatosensory; 5,6, Dorsal attention; 7,8, Salience; 9,10, Limbic; 11-13, Frontoparietal; 14-17, Default. Networks that match significantly better than the rest are signified with ** $p < 0.001$ and * $p < 0.01$.

Table 3. Cross correlation between the cerebral and cerebellar peak atrophy regions seeded intrinsic connectivity networks.

Cerebellar \ Cerebral	AD <i>L AG</i>	bvFTD <i>R AI</i>	nfvPPA <i>L IFG</i>	svPPA <i>L ITL</i>
AD <i>L CRUS I</i>	0.61 / 0.51	-0.34 / -0.04	0.37 / -0.03	0.06 / -0.14
bvFTD <i>L VI</i>	-0.34 / 0.23	0.57 / 0.73	0.16 / 0.27	-0.36 / -0.32
nfvPPA <i>R CRUS I</i>	0.36 / 0.36	-0.16 / 0.25	0.60 / 0.46	-0.19 / -0.17
svPPA <i>L IV-V</i>	0.29 / 0.36	-0.13 / 0.19	0.00 / 0.12	0.08 / 0.18

Results are shown for both connectivity measures: correlation with MGT regression / functional correlation.