

1 Neurodevelopmental effects of genetic frontotemporal 2 dementia in young adult mutation carriers

3 Elizabeth Finger,¹ Rubina Malik,² Martina Bocchetta,³ Kristy Coleman,¹ Caroline Graff,^{4,5}
4 Barbara Borroni,⁶ Mario Masellis,⁷ Robert Laforce,⁸ Caroline V. Greaves,³ Lucy L. Russell,³
5 Rhian S. Convery,³ Arabella Bouzigues,³ David M. Cash,³ Markus Otto,⁹ Matthis Synofzik,^{10,11}
6 James B. Rowe,¹² Daniela Galimberti,^{13,14} Pietro Tiraboschi,¹⁵ Robert Bartha,^{16,17} Christen
7 Shoesmith,¹ Maria Carmela Tartaglia,¹⁸ John C. van Swieten,¹⁹ Harro Seelaar,²⁰ Lize C. Jiskoo,¹⁹
8 Sandro Sorbi,²⁰ Chris R. Butler,²¹ Alexander Gerhard,^{22,23} Raquel Sanchez-Valle,²⁴ Alexandre de
9 Mendonça,²⁵ Fermin Moreno,²⁶ Rik Vandenberghe,²⁷ Isabelle Le Ber,^{28,29,30} Johannes Levin,³¹
10 Florence Pasquier,^{32,33,34} Isabel Santana,³⁵ Jonathan D. Rohrer³ and Simon Ducharme³⁶ on behalf
11 of the Genetic FTD Initiative, GENFI

12 Abstract

13 While frontotemporal dementia (frontotemporal dementia) has been considered a
14 neurodegenerative disease that starts in mid-life or later, it is now clearly established that cortical
15 and subcortical volume loss is observed more than a decade prior to symptom onset and
16 progresses with aging. To test the hypothesis that genetic mutations causing frontotemporal
17 dementia have neurodevelopmental consequences, we have examined the youngest adults in the
18 GENFI cohort of pre-symptomatic frontotemporal dementia mutation carriers who are between
19 the ages of 19 and 30y. Structural brain differences and improved performance on some
20 cognitive tests was found for *MAPT* and *GRN* mutation carriers relative to familial non-carriers,
21 while smaller volumes were observed in *C9orf72* repeat expansion carriers at a mean age of 26y.
22 The detection of such early differences supports potential advantageous neurodevelopmental
23 consequences of some frontotemporal dementia causing genetic mutations. These results have
24 implications for design of therapeutic interventions for frontotemporal dementia. Future studies
25 at younger ages are needed to identify specific early pathophysiologic or compensatory processes
26 in the neurodevelopmental period.

1 **Author affiliations:**

2 1 Department of Clinical Neurological Sciences, University of Western Ontario, London, ON,
3 Canada

4 2 Schulich School of Medicine & Dentistry, Graduate Program in Neuroscience, University of
5 Western Ontario, London, Ontario, Canada

6 3 Dementia Research Centre, Department of Neurodegenerative Disease, UCL Queen Square
7 Institute of Neurology, University College London, London, UK

8 4 Karolinska Institutet, Department NVS, Division of Neurogeriatrics, Stockholm, Sweden

9 5 Unit for Hereditary Dementia, Theme Aging, Karolinska University Hospital-Solna Stockholm
10 Sweden

11 6 Centre for Neurodegenerative Disorders, Neurology Unit, Department of Clinical and
12 Experimental Sciences, University of Brescia, Brescia, Italy

13 7 Campbell Cognitive Neurology Research Unit, Sunnybrook Research Institute, Toronto, ON,
14 Canada

15 8 Clinique Interdisciplinaire de Mémoire, Département des Sciences Neurologiques, CHU de
16 Québec, Faculté de Médecine, Université Laval, Québec, Canada

17 9 Department of Neurology, University Hospital Ulm, Ulm, Germany

18 10 Division Translational Genomics of Neurodegenerative Diseases, Hertie Institute for Clinical
19 Brain Research (HIH), University of Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany

20 11 German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), Tübingen, Germany

21 12 Department of Clinical Neurosciences and Cambridge University Hospitals NHS Trust and
22 Medical Research Council Cognition and brain Sciences Unit, University of Cambridge,
23 Cambridge, UK

24 13 Department of Biomedical, Surgical and Dental Sciences, University of Milan, Milan, Italy

25 14 Fondazione IRCCS Ca' Granda, Ospedale Maggiore Policlinico, Milan, Italy

26 15 Fondazione IRCCS Istituto Neurologico Carlo Besta, Milano, Italy

- 1 16Department of Medical Biophysics, The University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario,
2 Canada
- 3 17 Centre for Functional and Metabolic Mapping, Robarts Research Institute, The University of
4 Western Ontario, London, Ontario, Canada
- 5 18 Toronto Western Hospital, Tanz Centre for Research in Neurodegenerative Disease, Toronto,
6 ON, Canada
- 7 19 Department of Neurology and Alzheimer center, Erasmus Medical Center Rotterdam, the
8 Netherlands
- 9 20 Department of Neuroscience, Psychology, Drug Research and Child Health, University of
10 Florence, Florence, Italy
- 11 21 Department of Clinical Neurology, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK
- 12 22 Division of Neuroscience and Experimental Psychology, Wolfson Molecular Imaging Centre,
13 University of Manchester, Manchester, UK
- 14 23 Departments of Geriatric Medicine and Nuclear Medicine, University of Duisburg-Essen,
15 Germany
- 16 24 Neurology Department, Hospital Clinic, Institut d'Investigacions Biomèdiques, Barcelona,
17 Spain
- 18 25 Faculty of Medicine, University of Lisbon, Lisbon, Portugal
- 19 26 Hospital Universitario Donostia, San Sebastian, Spain
- 20 27 Laboratory for Cognitive Neurology, Department of Neurosciences, KU Leuven, Leuven,
21 Belgium
- 22 28 Sorbonne Université, Paris Brain Institute – Institut du Cerveau – ICM, Inserm U1127, CNRS
23 UMR 7225, AP-HP - Hôpital Pitié-Salpêtrière, Paris, France
- 24 29 Centre de référence des démences rares ou précoces, IM2A, Département de Neurologie, AP-
25 HP - Hôpital Pitié-Salpêtrière, Paris, France.
- 26 30 Département de Neurologie, AP-HP - Hôpital Pitié-Salpêtrière, Paris, France

1 31 Neurologische Klinik und Poliklinik, Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität, Munich; German
2 Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), Munich; Munich Cluster of Systems
3 Neurology, Munich, Germany

4 32 Univ Lille, Lille, France

5 33 Inserm 1172, Lille, France

6 34 CHU, CNR-MAJ, Labex Distalz, LiCEND, Lille, France

7 35 Neurology Department, Centro Hospitalar e Universitário de Coimbra, Portugal

8 36 Department of Neurology and Neurosurgery, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada

9

10 Correspondence to: Dr Elizabeth Finger

11 Parkwood Institute, St. Joseph's Health Care, PO Box 5777, Stn B, London, ON N6A 4V, UK

12 E-mail: Elizabeth.Finger@lhsc.on.ca

13

14 **Running title:** Neurodevelopmental effects of genetic FTD

15

16 **Keywords:** frontotemporal dementia; MAPT; GRN; C9orf72; neurodevelopment

17 **Abbreviations:** ANCOVA = analyses of covariance; CBI-R = Cambridge Behavioural
18 Inventory Questionnaire-Revised; *C9orf72* = chromosome 9 open reading frame 72; GENFI =
19 Genetic Frontotemporal dementia Initiative; *GRN* = granulin gene; *MAPT* = microtubule
20 associated protein tau gene; ROI = region of interest; TBV = total brain volume; TIV = total
21 intracranial volume

22 **Introduction**

23 Frontotemporal dementia is a devastating progressive neurodegenerative disease that is highly
24 heritable and currently incurable. Frontotemporal dementia is the second most common young-
25 onset neurodegenerative dementia, most commonly diagnosed in individuals in their 40s to 60s.
26 However, symptoms can start decades before full clinical diagnostic criteria are met, with some

1 individuals diagnosed as young as in their 20s.¹ Nearly a decade ago the first international
2 cohort studies of patients with genetic frontotemporal dementia and their adult biological family
3 members were launched which have enabled detailed study of the pre-symptomatic window
4 comparing at-risk frontotemporal dementia mutation carriers to their biologically related non-
5 carriers. These studies have delineated the symptom onset and main features of the course of the
6 most common genetic causes of frontotemporal dementia: *MAPT*, *C9orf72* and *GRN*.²⁻⁴ Several
7 symptoms and biomarkers that change as pre-clinical mutation carriers approach their age of
8 expected onset have also been identified, including apathy,⁵ brain atrophy and connectivity,⁶ and
9 rising CSF NFL levels.⁷ Interestingly, several of these recent studies have observed group
10 differences between pre-symptomatic mutation carriers vs. non-carriers in brain structure even at
11 the time of first assessment.⁸ While frontotemporal dementia has been considered a
12 neurodegenerative disease that starts in mid-life or later, it is now clearly established that cortical
13 and subcortical volume loss is observed more than a decade prior to symptom onset^{2,3} and
14 progresses with aging.⁹ These emergent findings raise a major question for the field of
15 frontotemporal dementia: is genetic frontotemporal dementia a neurodevelopmental disorder?

16 Neurodevelopmental disorders refer to conditions that affect the development of the nervous
17 system with manifestations in childhood. The brain is known to have a long and complex
18 development and maturation period, extending up to the third decade of life.¹⁰ Several lines of
19 research point in the direction of a possible neurodevelopmental effect of frontotemporal
20 dementia-causing mutations. *MAPT*, *C9ORF72* and *GRN* genes all have high penetrance and are
21 expressed in the prenatal period.¹¹⁻¹⁵ While studies using knockout and transgenic mouse models
22 to study *GRN*, *MAPT* and *C9orf72* have typically normal or only subtle phenotypes in the
23 neurodevelopmental period and early life stages, each of these three main genes associated with
24 FTD have roles that are likely active during neurodevelopment including microtubule
25 stabilization, neurite outgrowth and stabilization (*MAPT*),^{16,17} lysosomal function and regulation
26 of inflammation (*GRN*, *C9orf72*).¹⁸⁻²⁰ Moreover, there are scattered clues in the human literature
27 pointing towards potential neurodevelopmental consequences. Higher rates of childhood
28 dyslexia and other language related learning disabilities were observed in patients who develop
29 Primary Progressive Aphasia (the majority of which are language subtypes of frontotemporal
30 dementia), and their first-degree relatives.²¹ In a small series of pre-symptomatic carriers of
31 *MAPT* mutations, impairments in performance on frontal executive tasks were observed several

1 decades before expected symptom onset, prompting the authors to raise a neurodevelopmental
2 hypothesis for this form of genetic frontotemporal dementia.²² In pre-symptomatic *MAPT*
3 mutation carriers, mesial temporal lobe atrophy was observed in 20% of participants in their
4 30s.²³ In a family carrying a *GRN* mutation, abnormal white matter connectivity was detected in
5 *GRN* presymptomatic mutation carriers whose average age was 37y compared to non-carriers
6 (mean age 43y).²⁴ Furthermore, increased prevalence of psychotic disorders, including typical
7 age-of-onset schizophrenia (teens to 20s), has been reported in offspring of *C9orf72* repeat
8 expansion carriers.²⁵

9 Clues from other neurodegenerative diseases further support the hypothesis that
10 pathophysiologic changes in some mid and late-life neurodegenerative diseases may occur
11 decades before the appearance of clinical symptoms and diagnosis, and possibly during early
12 brain development. In Huntington's disease, another neurodegenerative disorder with mid-life
13 symptom onset, the KIDS-HD and CHANGE-HD studies have identified multiple differences in
14 brain structure in youth mutation carriers at 6 and 7 years of age, who have CAG repeat lengths
15 predictive of adult-onset disease.²⁵ Some of these effects are likely a direct result of the
16 pathogenic effects of the mutation, including smaller intracranial volumes, while others which
17 may represent compensatory changes, such as striatal hypertrophy and increased basal ganglia
18 functional connectivity.^{26,27} Intriguing questions have been raised of whether genetic mutations
19 causing some mid-life onset disorders like Huntington's disease or spinocerebellar ataxia persist
20 not only because their deleterious effects occur after the age of reproduction, but also because
21 they may confer early life advantages.^{28,29} This hypothesis is further supported by study of young
22 carriers of the Huntington gene expansions who show enhanced cognitive performance³⁰ and
23 reduced anxiety and depression compared to familial non-carriers.³¹ Neurodevelopmental effects
24 of the Huntington's gene CAG repeat expansion recently have been confirmed during human
25 embryonic brain development as early as 13 weeks gestation.³² These included mislocalized
26 junctional complexes and of the mutant protein huntingtin, abnormal neuroprogenitor cell
27 polarity and differentiation, and altered mitosis and cell cycle progression.³² This represents
28 perhaps the strongest evidence to date of the neurodevelopmental effects of a hereditary adult-
29 onset neurodegenerative disorder.

30 In the Genetic Frontotemporal dementia Initiative (GENFI) cohort, in comparison to non-carriers
31 from the same families, mutation carriers reported subtle changes in mood and behaviour at the

1 time of the baseline assessments, independent of age.³³ In the absence of pediatric research data
2 on mutation carriers, we evaluated data from the youngest adult GENFI participants, those
3 between the ages of 19 and 29y, to explore whether changes in symptoms, cognition or brain
4 structure may be present during neurodevelopment (up through the third decade of life). In this
5 age range, we consider neurodegenerative changes to be unlikely to confound findings as the
6 mean expected years to disease onset is approximately 30 years, a time-frame well before the
7 two years prior to phenotype conversion when increases in biomarkers of neurodegeneration
8 such as neurofilament light chain are elevated in mutation carriers.⁷ The objectives of the
9 present study were to determine whether young adults between the ages of 19 and 29 who carry
10 frontotemporal dementia causing gene mutations show differences compared to familial age-
11 matched non-carriers in: 1) brain structure as measured by cortical and subcortical volumes and
12 cortical thickness and 2) functional outcomes as indexed by behavioural and cognitive
13 assessments.

14 **Materials and methods**

15 **Participants**

16 Young adults between the ages of 18 and 29 years inclusive who enrolled in the GENFI multi-
17 centre cohort study were included. The GENFI consortium includes research centres across
18 Europe and Canada (<http://genfi.org.uk/>) and enrolls adults with known pathogenic mutations in
19 the *GRN* or *MAPT* genes or with a pathogenic expansion in the *C9orf72* gene (greater than 30
20 repeats). The cohort is comprised of symptomatic mutation carriers, pre-symptomatic mutation
21 carriers, and non-mutation carriers from the same families. The majority (~71%) of at-risk family
22 members in the GENFI study were not aware of their genetic status at the time of the
23 assessments. Baseline data from the presymptomatic young adults' first GENFI assessments
24 were included, including participant and informant clinical scales of behavioural and cognitive
25 symptoms and magnetic resonance imaging. Presymptomatic (unaffected) designation was made
26 by the local GENFI site physicians based on participants considered not to be showing signs of
27 frontotemporal dementia and not meeting consensus criteria for behavioural variant
28 frontotemporal dementia, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, nonfluent primary progressive aphasia,
29 semantic variant primary progressive aphasia, corticobasal syndrome or other dementia. The data

1 analyzed below represent that available from GENFI data freeze #5 (2012-2019). This includes
2 participants from Phase 1 (GENFI1; 2012-2015), and phase 2 (GENFI2; 2015-2019) of GENFI.
3 Data are presented in ways to ensure continued blinding of participants' genetic status. Mutation
4 carriers were compared with non-carriers of the same gene group (e.g. *MAPT* mutation carriers
5 vs. non-carriers from *MAPT* mutation families) for all analysis to reduce potential confounds
6 related to language and family differences.

7 Written informed consent was obtained from all participants. The study was approved by the
8 local ethics committee for each of the GENFI sites.

9 **Neuroimaging**

10 Participants completed volumetric T1-weighted MRI acquired with the GENFI protocol with a
11 1.1-mm isotropic resolution on a 3T scanner (Siemens Trio, Siemens Skyra, Siemens Prisma,
12 Philips Achieva, GE Discovery MR750) or 1.5T scanner (Siemens, GE). Pre-processing of
13 volumetric MRI scans was performed as previously reported,³⁴ including visual QC checks, bias
14 field correction and whole brain parcellated using the geodesic information flow algorithm.³⁵ We
15 combined regions of interest to calculate the volumes of the whole brain (total brain volume
16 which includes all gray and white matter), lobes or regions (gray matter in frontal, temporal,
17 parietal, occipital, cingulate and insula), subcortical structures including the amygdala,
18 hippocampus, thalamus, and basal ganglia (caudate + pallidum + putamen), as well as
19 cerebellum³⁶ and total CSF (ventricles and non-ventricular CSF). The cingulate and insula were
20 included as specific regions as they are known to be amongst the earliest regions affected in
21 many forms of FTD.^{2,37} Left and right volumes were summed, and total intracranial volume
22 (TIV), which includes all gray matter, white matter and CSF, was computed with SPM12 v6470
23 (Statistical Parametric Mapping, Wellcome Trust Centre for Neuroimaging, London, UK)
24 running under Matlab R2014b (Math Works, Natick, MA, USA) (Malone et al., 2015). T1-
25 weighted MRI were also processed for vertex-wide cortical thickness analysis with Civet 2.1
26 (<http://www.bic.mni.mcgill.ca/ServicesSoftware/CIVET-2-1-0-Introduction>) through the Cbrain
27 platform.³⁸ All outputs were visually inspected for quality control.

28 **Behavioural and Cognitive Measures**

29 **Symptoms**

1 Clinicians completed the GENFI Symptom Scales with participants and their study informant to
2 evaluate the presence of symptoms across the following five domains: behavioural,
3 neuropsychiatric, cognitive, language, and motor. The presence and severity of each symptom
4 was indicated using a 5-point Likert scale (0=absent, 0.5=questionable/very mild, 1=mild,
5 2=moderate, 3=severe). Symptom ratings of questionable/very mild, mild, moderate, severe were
6 coded as *symptom endorsement* and absent coded as *symptom absent*.

7 **Cambridge Behavioural Inventory Questionnaire-Revised (CBI-R)³⁹**: Study informants use a
8 5-point Likert scale to indicate whether participants demonstrate symptoms in the following
9 domains: memory and orientation, everyday skills, self-care, abnormal behaviour, mood, beliefs,
10 eating habits, sleep, stereotypic and motor behaviours, and motivation. Symptom reports reflect
11 endorsement 4 weeks prior to the assessment, with higher scores indicate greater frequency of
12 symptoms.

13

14 **GENFI Neuropsychology Battery**

15 The GENFI Neuropsychology Battery, comprised of tests as previously reported,² was
16 administered to all participants. This included the following tests and indices: Digit Span
17 Forward (maximum number of consecutive digits correctly produced, Digit Span Backward
18 (maximum), Digit symbol (from the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale), Boston Naming Test
19 (30 item), Verbal Fluency (Animals), Verbal fluency (Letter), Block design (correct trials,
20 timed), Free and Cued Selective Reminding Test (FCSRT), D-KEFS Color-Word Interference
21 Task (CWIT: total *errors* and *time* to completion), Mini-Social Cognition and Emotion
22 Assessment (MiniSEA) comprised of the Faux-pas Test and Facial Recognition Task, Benson
23 Figure Copy, Recall, and Recognition, Logical Memory Tests (subset of Wechsler Memory
24 Scale).

25 **Statistical Analysis**

26 **Neuroimaging**

27 ANCOVAs examining interactions and main effects of genetic status (carrier vs. non-carrier) x
28 sex x scanner type (vendor, model and field strength), with age at time of scan and TIV as

1 covariates were conducted on global and regional brain volumes. Given the sample sizes
2 available, only main effects of genetic status significant after controlling for sex, scanner type,
3 age and TIV are reported. Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple tests was used to control
4 for multiple comparisons using $p < 0.05$ for the false discovery rate.⁴⁰ For regions showing main
5 effects of genetic status and genetic status x scanner type interactions, the potential impact of
6 scanner specific effects was examined and results qualified as detailed below. Additional
7 sensitivity analysis including only patients with 3T MRI scans were performed for all contrasts.
8 Voxel-wise cortical thickness analyses were performed in SurfStat using general linear models,
9 controlling for the effects of age, sex and scanner site. We tested for group contrasts (genetic
10 carriers versus controls - $Y = intercept + b_1Sex + b_2Scanner + b_3Age + b_4GeneticStatus + error$)
11 and for the age by genetic status interaction ($Y = intercept + b_1Sex + b_2Scanner + b_3Age +$
12 $b_4GeneticStatus + b_5Age*GeneticStatus + error$). Analyses were performed separately for each
13 genetic group and results were corrected with false discovery rate < 0.05 .

14

15

16 **GENFI Symptom Scales**

17 Due to skewing of scores, as most symptoms were not endorsed by many participants, chi-
18 squared tests were used to examine mutation group level differences in each of the five symptom
19 domains. Specifically, separate tests were used to detect differences in frequency of symptoms
20 for each domain between carriers versus non-carriers for each of the three gene groups.

21 **GENFI Neuropsychology Battery and Cambridge Behavioural Inventory-** 22 **Revised**

23 A series of one-way analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) with genetic status (carrier, non-
24 carriers) as the independent variable, and age and sex as covariates were used to detect
25 differences between mutation carriers and non-carriers on neuropsychology measures common in
26 GENFI 1 and GENFI 2. For variables unique to the GENFI 1 and GENFI 2 cohorts, separate
27 GENFI 1 or GENFI 2 analyses were performed and are presented in Supplementary Table 1.
28 Years of education was not included in the main analysis to avoid obscuration of potential
29 neurodevelopmental effects on cognition that could have also affected scholastic achievement,

1 but, where applicable, secondary sensitivity analyses were conducted with years of education as
2 an additional covariate. The dependent measures included scores on Digit Span Forward, Digit
3 Span Backward, Digit Symbol, Boston Naming Test, Verbal Fluency Animals, Verbal Fluency
4 Letter, Block Design, and CBI-R. The dependent variables unique to GENFI1 included
5 immediate and delayed scores on the logical memory tests, and for GENFI 2 included Benson
6 Figure Recall, Benson Figure Recognition, FCSRT Free Recall, FCSRT Total, FCSRT Delayed
7 Free Recall, CWIT Errors, CWIT Time, and MiniSEA Total. Given the available sample sizes,
8 only main effects of genetic status, after controlling for sex and age, are reported. Observations
9 greater than +/- 3 standard deviations were deemed outliers. One outlier was detected on the
10 Block Design measure and one on the verbal fluency task; removal of these outliers did not
11 affect the statistical results.

12 **Data availability**

13 The raw data of this project is part of GENFI. De-identified participant data can be accessed on
14 reasonable request to Elizabeth.Finger@lhsc.on.ca and genfi@ucl.ac.uk.

15

16 **Results**

17 **Participants**

18 Ninety-two young adults in GENFI met the inclusion criteria for the study and were designated
19 as presymptomatic (unaffected) by their local site physicians. The FTLD-CDR global rating was
20 0 for all but 5 who had ratings of 0.5, two of whom were mutation carriers and three were non-
21 carriers. MRI scans passing quality checks were available from 85 of the 92 young adult GENFI
22 participants from Data Freeze 5 (Table 1). Fifty-two percent were mutation carriers (41 non-
23 carriers, 44 carriers). Amongst the mutation carriers, there were 17 *C9orf72*, nine *MAPT*, and 16
24 *GRN* carriers. The mean age at time of participation was 25 years (range 19-29), and mean level
25 of education was 14 years (range 8-18). All of these young adults were designated as unaffected/
26 presymptomatic participants by the site physicians. The FTLD-CDR global rating for all was 0
27 for except for five participants with ratings of 0.5, three were mutation carriers and two were
28 non-carriers. There were no significant differences in age at time of scan or sex distribution

1 comparing the mutation carriers vs. non-carriers for each of the three gene groups. *MAPT*
2 carriers had more years of education than the *MAPT* non-carriers ($M_{\text{carriers}}=15.5$ y (SD 1.5) $M_{\text{non-}}$
3 carriers 14.1y (SD 1.7), $P < 0.05$).

4 Behavioural and cognitive data were available from 91 young adult GENFI participants from
5 data freeze 5 (Table 2), of which 49% were mutation carriers, and 51% were mutation non-
6 carriers. Again it was observed that the *MAPT* carriers had more years of education than the
7 *MAPT* non-carriers ($M_{\text{carriers}}=15.2$ y (SD 2.0) $M_{\text{non-carriers}}=14.3.6$ y (SD 1.9), $P = 0.05$). There were
8 no other statistically significant differences in age, years of education, handedness, or sex
9 between carriers and non-carriers within, and collapsed across, the three genetic groups.

10 ***C9orf72***

11 **MRI Analysis**

12 Young adult *C9orf72* repeat expansion carriers had significantly smaller total brain volumes ($P <$
13 0.005 ; partial eta squared (η^2_p) =0.50) and thalamic volumes ($P < 0.005$; η^2_p =0.45) in
14 comparison to *C9orf72* non-carriers (Table 1). No differences were observed for TIV or total
15 CSF volumes. Mean volumes were non-significantly lower in carriers relative to non-carriers in
16 all of the remaining regions apart from the caudate. There were no significant genetic status x
17 scanner or genetic status x sex interactions. There was no significant difference in vertex-wide
18 cortical thickness between expansion carriers and non-carriers.

19 **Behavioural and Cognitive Assessments**

20 No statistically significant differences between carriers and non-carriers were found in symptom
21 frequencies across all domains (Supplementary Table 1). No significant differences between
22 *C9orf72* repeat expansion carriers vs. non-carriers were observed in the other behavioural scales
23 or cognitive tasks (Table 2 and Supplementary Tables 1-3).

25 ***MAPT***

26 **MRI Analysis**

1 Young adult *MAPT* mutation carriers had larger TIV than non-carriers. There were no
2 significant differences in brain or CSF volumes between young adult *MAPT* carriers and non-
3 carriers when TIV was adjusted for. There was no significant difference in vertex-wide cortical
4 thickness between *MAPT* mutation carriers and non-carriers.

5 **Behavioural and Cognitive Assessments**

6 *MAPT* mutation carriers performed better than non-carriers on verbal fluency (letter)
7 performance ($F_{18,6}$, $P < 0.001$) and digit span forward ($F=5.8$, $P < 0.05$) (Figure 1). Sensitivity
8 analyses, adding education as a covariate and adding site as a variable retained the significant
9 main effect of genetic status on both verbal fluency ($P < 0.001$) and digit span forward ($P <$
10 0.05).

11 No statistically significant differences between carriers and non-carriers were found for the CBI-
12 R or in GENFI symptom list endorsement frequencies across all domains (Table 2 and
13 Supplementary Tables 2 and 3).

14 ***GRN***

15 **MRI Analysis**

16 *GRN* mutation carriers were found to have significantly larger TIV and cingulate volume ($P <$
17 0.01 ; $\eta^2_p = 0.48$) relative to non-carriers when adjusted for TIV (Table 1). There were no other
18 significant differences once scanner type interactions were accounted for, including no
19 significant difference in vertex-wide cortical thickness between *GRN* mutation carriers and non-
20 carriers.

21 **Behavioural and Cognitive Assessments**

22 *GRN* mutation carriers performed better on the digit symbol task than non-carriers ($F=4.459$, $P <$
23 0.05) (Figure 2). Sensitivity analyses adding education covariate and adding site as a variable
24 supported the pattern of findings ($P = 0.07$). No statistically significant differences in symptom
25 frequencies across all domains were found between *GRN* mutation carriers and non-carriers. No
26 statistically significant differences between carriers and non-carriers were found in symptom
27 frequencies across all domains (Table 2 and Supplementary Tables 2 and 3).

28

1 **MRI sensitivity analyses**

2 Sensitivity analyses conducted for all three gene groups including only participants with 3T MRI
3 scans (n = 82) demonstrated the same pattern of significant and non-significant imaging findings
4 as reported above.

5 **Discussion**

6 These data demonstrate early effects of *MAPT*, *C9orf72* and *GRN* mutations on brain structure
7 and function, detectable in the third decade of life. The presence of structural differences nearly
8 30 years prior to expected symptom onset, at ages when the frontal lobes are still maturing
9 suggests there are neurodevelopmental consequences of some forms of genetic frontotemporal
10 dementia. The regions and patterns of volumetric differences varied according to the gene, with
11 hints of potentially advantageous consequences early in life for *MAPT* and *GRN* mutations.

12 Patients with FTD due to *C9orf72* repeat expansions most commonly develop behavioural
13 variant frontotemporal dementia or amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, though can present with a non-
14 fluent primary progressive aphasia or corticobasal syndrome phenotype.² In young adult *C9orf72*
15 repeat expansion carriers, the findings of reduced total brain and thalamic volumes are in line
16 with studies of older symptomatic and presymptomatic frontotemporal dementia cohorts.
17 Thalamic atrophy is a predominant structural change in symptomatic patients with *C9orf72*
18 associated frontotemporal dementia, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, or frontotemporal
19 dementia/amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.⁴¹⁻⁴⁵ The current findings extend prior findings in older
20 presymptomatic *C9orf72* expansion carriers of expanded 3rd ventricular volumes approximately
21 14 years prior to expected symptom onset⁸ and a subgroup analysis of *C9orf72* repeat expansion
22 carriers 40 years of age or younger that identified differences in thalamic volumes.⁴⁶ Indications
23 that an alternate pathophysiologic process could drive these early structural differences is found
24 in non-human models of *C9orf72* during the neurodevelopmental period, where the repeat
25 expansion is associated with multiple cellular level effects including impaired axonal genesis,
26 cellular motility and increased neuronal apoptosis.⁴⁷ Whether the smaller thalamic and total brain
27 volumes are due to early hallmark frontotemporal dementia pathology causing atrophy or due to
28 neurodevelopmental effects of *C9orf72* on other critical processes is not yet known given the
29 lack of brain tissue evaluations available at these younger ages. However, the preserved TIV

1 with smaller total brain volumes and smaller thalamic volumes would favor volume loss and
2 early neurodegeneration.

3 While informants' reports of neuropsychiatric symptoms in *C9orf72* expansion carriers vs. non-
4 carriers did not reach significance, a prior family history study identified a higher prevalence of
5 what are traditionally considered neurodevelopmental disorders including autism and
6 schizophrenia (hazard ratios of 2.7 and 4.9 respectively).²⁵ In other another cohort, a
7 retrospective inquiry and chart review of *C9orf72* expansion carriers vs. non-carriers reported
8 some increase in behavioural traits, including a fixed pattern of behaviours, excessive buying and
9 obsessive physical exercise in the years prior to frontotemporal dementia conversion,⁴⁸ though
10 Lee et al.⁴⁹ found no differences in behavior or psychiatric histories between carriers and non-
11 carriers at a mean age of 43y. The lack of neuropsychiatric symptom differences in the present
12 study relative to these prior reports may be due to the prospective symptom ascertainment in our
13 sample, at a time when the majority of participants and their informants were unaware of their
14 genetic status. Other potential reasons for the lack of detection of reported behavioural symptoms
15 in the current study in comparison to findings from Devenney et al.²⁵ and Gossink et al.⁴⁸ may
16 reflect differences between a clinical sample vs. research sample. Specifically, participants who
17 enroll in ongoing clinical research studies requiring multiple assessments and MRI scans are less
18 likely to have significant psychiatric disorders at time of participation. Finally, the
19 neuropsychiatric symptom rating scales used were broad, but did not probe each domain in
20 detail, and thus a more detailed elicitation of potentially relevant symptoms using tools sensitive
21 to subclinical phenomenon such prodromal psychosis or autistic traits may be more sensitive in
22 pre-symptomatic states. These measures, as well as assessment of potential enrollment biases and
23 differences within GENFI families between research participants and non-participants have been
24 added to the GENFI-3 protocol.

25 Affected patients with *GRN* mutations most commonly present with behavioural variant
26 frontotemporal dementia, though the other frontotemporal dementia clinical subtypes including
27 nonfluent primary progressive aphasia and corticobasal syndrome have been reported.⁵⁰ In
28 contrast to the smaller brain volumes observed in the young adult *C9orf72* expansion carriers,
29 larger total intracranial and cingulate cortex volumes were observed in *GRN* mutation carriers vs
30 familial non-carriers, the latter in particular a region commonly atrophied early in the course of
31 symptomatic *GRN* frontotemporal dementia.^{3,51} Cognition was generally preserved in the *GRN*

1 young adult carriers and was better than non-carriers on the digit-symbol task, one measure of
2 processing speed. While larger brain volumes in young adult *GRN* mutation carriers may appear
3 unexpected, youth carrying the Huntingtin gene mutation have larger volumes of the striatum
4 relative to familial non-carriers, prior to accelerated atrophy.⁵² We cannot yet comment on rates
5 of change from this cross-sectional analysis, but delineation of the trajectories of these regions
6 will be possible with further longitudinal data collection in the young adult GENFI participants.
7 Of note, given that in this age range gray matter structures undergo a normative period of volume
8 reduction as part of the maturation process,⁵³ a finding of larger volume can reflect abnormal
9 maturational processes that are advantageous or disadvantageous. Larger brain volumes have
10 been reported prior to atrophy in *presenilin 1* mutation carriers.⁵⁴ The findings of generally
11 preserved cognitive performance and the lack of atrophy in young adult *GRN* mutation carriers
12 fit with recent data from large international cohorts that indicate changes in brain volume and
13 NFL levels start within a few years' proximity to overt conversion to symptomatic genetic
14 frontotemporal dementia,^{6,7,55,56} in which the average age of diagnosis is ~61 years.¹ Our findings
15 of preserved cognition and brain volumes in *GRN* carriers support optimism that a window of
16 opportunity exists in adult pre-symptomatic participants in which potential mitigation of low
17 *GRN* levels in *GRN* carriers might delay or prevent subsequent neurodegeneration. The
18 identification of hypertrophy of the relevant cingulate region in young adult *GRN* carriers
19 suggests examination of such regions for potential early advantageous or compensatory cellular
20 responses during neurodevelopmental phases may hold promise to identify new critical pathways
21 and therapeutic targets.

22 Like *GRN* mutation carriers, *MAPT* mutation carriers also had larger TIV relative to non-carriers.
23 While symptomatic and older presymptomatic *MAPT* carriers commonly show behavioural or
24 language-related deficits and atrophy in anterior temporal regions,^{2,3,57-60} the young adult *MAPT*
25 mutation carriers showed no other structural brain differences and performed as well or better
26 than familial non-carriers on cognitive tests and informant-based symptom ratings. These
27 findings are generally consistent with those from the entire GENFI cohort and from independent
28 cohorts of *MAPT* carriers where mean brain volumes did not differ between pre-symptomatic
29 mutation carriers vs. controls,⁶¹ though in some a small subset of presymptomatic carriers had
30 lower volumes. Specifically, in an independent cohort of *MAPT* presymptomatic carriers with a
31 mean age 40y, mean brain volumes did not differ from those of non-carriers, though frequency

1 maps identified 20% of *MAPT* carriers in their 30s as having lower mesial temporal volumes.²³
2 Similarly, in a GENFI study examining different atrophy patterns in *MAPT* mutation carriers,
3 84% of presymptomatic *MAPT* carriers were categorized as normal brain volume (mean age of
4 38 y), while ~16 percent were assigned to temporal or frontotemporal atrophy subtype.⁶²
5 Notably, group assignment was highly stable during longitudinal follow up (range 1-5 years). In
6 a subset analysis, 6 presymptomatic mutation carriers with CDR 0, mean age 39y, showed
7 smaller volumes in anterior temporal and frontal regions.⁶³ Longitudinal observations of young
8 *MAPT* carriers are required to examine whether higher brain volumes may be present at younger
9 ages, as observed in Huntingtin mutation carriers,⁵² and in this study in young adult *GRN*
10 mutation carriers. Additionally, larger cohorts that enable modeling of the different *MAPT*
11 mutation types during neurodevelopmental periods are needed given the heterogeneous clinical
12 presentations and neuroimaging patterns associated with different *MAPT* variants.^{23,62}

13 The finding that *MAPT* carriers were rated as having more education and better cognitive
14 performance than *MAPT* non-carriers was an unpredicted finding, though the Tau-4R-P301L
15 *MAPT* mouse transgenic shows early life enhanced memory performance and increased long
16 term potentiation in the hippocampus.⁶⁴ The higher educational attainment with aspects of
17 improved cognitive performance, coupled with larger TIV in young *MAPT* carriers, suggests the
18 possibility of antagonistic pleiotropy, where early advantageous consequences of a mutation
19 come with later adverse effects such as poorer repair capacity in middle and old age.^{28,65} In two
20 small cohorts of *MAPT* presymptomatic mutation carriers with different mutation types, elevated
21 tau tracer binding was observed in most of the pre-symptomatic patients in their 40s-60s.^{66,67}
22 However, the youngest carrier, who was ~ 30 years prior to estimated disease onset, showed no
23 tau tracer binding. We suggest that together the evidence supports the likely presence of cellular
24 advantageous or compensatory processes which delay such accumulation of pathologic tau
25 aggregations early in neurodevelopmental periods and which represent an understudied
26 opportunity for new therapeutic development. Given the limited sample size, this intriguing
27 result of potential early life advantages with gradual accumulation of pathology only reaching a
28 threshold to cause atrophy or functional changes close to mid-life requires replication before
29 further interpretation.

30 Limitations of the present study include the relatively small sample size for comparison of
31 cognitive performance, particularly given differences in language and education levels. Due to

1 the relatively small number of participants per family for the majority of GENFI participants,
2 including some with no other participating family members, the study lacked power to include
3 family and site as variables in the primary analysis, though site related variance was included in
4 post-hoc sensitivity analysis of cognitive findings. The finding of total brain volumetric
5 differences in the *C9orf72* expansion carriers but lack of significant differences in cortical
6 thickness may indicate that differences in both subcortical gray matter and white matter regions
7 are present and contribute to the observed volumetric differences. In *GRN* carriers the absence of
8 changes in cortical thickness in the cingulate cortex may reflect differential power of the ROI vs.
9 voxel-wise approaches to detect differences or that volume is influenced by factors other than
10 cortical thickness, such as surface area.

11 In summary, this examination of the youngest adults from families with genetic frontotemporal
12 dementia identifies early brain volume loss in *C9orf72* mutation carriers <30 years of age,
13 increased TIV and early hypertrophy of the anterior cingulate in young adult *GRN* carriers, and
14 increased TIV with relatively normal brain structure and enhanced cognitive performance in
15 young adult *MAPT* carriers. These results support long raised speculations and hypotheses about
16 potential neurodevelopmental origins of some forms of frontotemporal dementia, and identify
17 structural changes in young adult mutation carriers, some of which may have early advantages
18 but deleterious consequences later in life. Longitudinal follow up and establishment of younger
19 cohorts will enable further essential prospective comparison of structural and functional
20 trajectories in mutation carriers with familial non-carriers, as well as examination of mutation
21 specific effects, to uncover key neurodevelopmental changes that may set the stage for or delay
22 the onset of frontotemporal dementia.

23 **Acknowledgements**

24 We thank the GENFI research participants for their contribution to the study.

25 **Funding**

26 This project was supported by Canadian Institutes of Health Research as part of a Centres of
27 Excellence in Neurodegeneration grant, and by Canadian Institutes of Health Research operating
28 grants (327387; 452843; 70797). The Dementia Research Centre is supported by Alzheimer's
29 Research UK, Alzheimer's Society, Brain Research UK, and The Wolfson Foundation. This

1 work was supported by the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) Queen Square
2 Dementia Biomedical Research Unit and the University College London Hospitals Biomedical
3 Research Centre, the Leonard Wolfson Experimental Neurology Centre (LWENC) Clinical
4 Research Facility, and the UK Dementia Research Institute, which receives its funding from UK
5 DRI Ltd, funded by the UK Medical Research Council, Alzheimer's Society and Alzheimer's
6 Research UK. This work was also supported by the MRC UK GENFI grant (MR/M023664/1),
7 the Italian Ministry of Health (CoEN015 and Ricerca Corrente), the Alzheimer's Society grant
8 (AS-PG-16-007), the Bluefield Project and the JPND GENFI-PROX grant (2019-02248). MB is
9 supported by a Fellowship award from the Alzheimer's Society, UK (AS-JF-19a-004-517).
10 MB's work was also supported by the UK Dementia Research Institute which receives its
11 funding from DRI Ltd, funded by the UK Medical Research Council, Alzheimer's Society and
12 Alzheimer's Research UK. JDR is supported by the Miriam Marks Brain Research UK Senior
13 Fellowship and has received funding from an MRC Clinician Scientist Fellowship
14 (MR/M008525/1) and the NIHR Rare Disease Translational Research Collaboration
15 (BRC149/NS/MH). JBR is funded by the Wellcome Trust (103838) and the National Institute for
16 Health Research Cambridge Biomedical Research Centre. This work was funded by the
17 Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) under Germany's
18 Excellence Strategy within the framework of the Munich Cluster for Systems Neurology (EXC
19 2145 SyNergy – ID 390857198). RV's work is supported by the Mady Browaeys Fonds voor
20 Onderzoek naar Frontotemporale Degeneratie. Several authors of this publication (JCvS, MS,
21 RSV, AD, MO, RV, JDR) are members of the European Reference Network for Rare
22 Neurological Diseases (ERN-RND) - Project ID No 739510.

23 **Competing interests**

24 The authors report no competing interests.

25 **Supplementary material**

26 Supplementary material is available at *Brain* online.

27

28

1 **Appendix 1**

2 **List of GENFI consortium authors**

3 Aitana Sogorb Esteve, Carolin Heller, David L. Thomas, Emily G. Todd, Jennifer Nicholas,
4 Hanya Benotmane, Henrik Zetterberg, Imogen J. Swift, Kiran Samra, Rachelle Shafei, Carolyn
5 Timberlake, Thomas Cope, Timothy Rittman, Alberto Benussi, Enrico Premi, Roberto
6 Gasparotti, Silvana Archetti, Stefano Gazzina, Valentina Cantoni, Andrea Arighi, Chiara
7 Fenoglio, Elio Scarpini, Giorgio Fumagalli, Vittoria Borracci, Giacomina Rossi, Giorgio
8 Giaccone, Giuseppe Di Fede, Paola Caroppo, Pietro Tiraboschi, Sara Prioni, Veronica Redaelli,
9 David Tang-Wai, Ekaterina Rogaeva, Miguel Castelo-Branco, Morris Freedman, Ron Keren,
10 Sandra Black, Sara Mitchell, Rosa Rademakers, Jackie Poos, Janne M. Papma, Lucia Giannini,
11 Rick van Minkelen, Yolande Pijnenburg, Benedetta Nacmias, Camilla Ferrari, Cristina Polito,
12 Gemma Lombardi, Valentina Bessi, Michele Veldsman, Christin Andersson, Hakan Thonberg,
13 Linn Öijerstedt, Vesna Jelic, Paul Thompson, Tobias Langheinrich, Albert Lladó, Anna
14 Antonell, Jaume Olives, Mircea Balasa, Nuria Bargalló, Sergi Borrego-Ecija, Ana Verdelho,
15 Carolina Maruta, Catarina B. Ferreira, Gabriel Miltenberger, Frederico Simões do Couto, Alazne
16 Gabilondo, Ana Gorostidi, Jorge Villanua, Marta Cañada, Mikel Tainta, Miren Zulaica, Myriam
17 Barandiaran, Patricia Alves, Benjamin Bender, Carlo Wilke, Lisa Graf, Annick Vogels, Mathieu
18 Vandenbulcke, Philip Van Damme, Rose Bruffaerts, Koen Poesen, Pedro Rosa-Neto, Serge
19 Gauthier, Agnès Camuzat, Alexis Brice, Anne Bertrand, Aurélie Funkiewiez, Daisy Rinaldi,
20 Dario Saracino, Olivier Colliot, Sabrina Sayah, Catharina Prix, Elisabeth Wlasich, Olivia
21 Wagemann, Sandra Loosli, Sonja Schönecker, Tobias Hoegen, Jolina Lombardi, Sarah Anderl-
22 Straub, Adeline Rollin, Gregory Kuchcinski, Maxime Bertoux, Thibaud Lebouvier, Vincent
23 Deramecourt, Beatriz Santiago, Diana Duro, Maria João Leitão, Maria Rosario Almeida, Miguel
24 Tábuas-Pereira, Sónia Afonso.

25

1 **References**

- 2
- 3 1. Moore KM, Nicholas J, Grossman M, et al. Age at symptom onset and death and disease
4 duration in genetic frontotemporal dementia: an international retrospective cohort study. *Lancet*
5 *Neurol.* Feb 2020;19(2):145-156. doi:10.1016/S1474-4422(19)30394-1
- 6 2. Rohrer JD, Nicholas JM, Cash DM, et al. Presymptomatic cognitive and neuroanatomical
7 changes in genetic frontotemporal dementia in the Genetic Frontotemporal dementia Initiative
8 (GENFI) study: a cross-sectional analysis. *Lancet Neurol.* Mar 2015;14(3):253-62.
9 doi:10.1016/S1474-4422(14)70324-2
- 10 3. Cash DM, Bocchetta M, Thomas DL, et al. Patterns of gray matter atrophy in genetic
11 frontotemporal dementia: results from the GENFI study. *Neurobiol Aging.* Feb 2018;62:191-196.
12 doi:10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2017.10.008
- 13 4. Rosen HJ, Boeve BF, Boxer AL. Tracking disease progression in familial and sporadic
14 frontotemporal lobar degeneration: Recent findings from ARTFL and LEFFTDS. *Alzheimers*
15 *Dement.* Jan 2020;16(1):71-78. doi:10.1002/alz.12004
- 16 5. Malpetti M, Jones PS, Tsvetanov KA, et al. Apathy in presymptomatic genetic
17 frontotemporal dementia predicts cognitive decline and is driven by structural brain changes.
18 *Alzheimers Dement.* Jun 2021;17(6):969-983. doi:10.1002/alz.12252
- 19 6. Jiskoot LC, Panman JL, Meeter LH, et al. Longitudinal multimodal MRI as prognostic
20 and diagnostic biomarker in presymptomatic familial frontotemporal dementia. *Brain.* Jan 1
21 2019;142(1):193-208. doi:10.1093/brain/awy288
- 22 7. Rojas JC, Wang P, Staffaroni AM, et al. Plasma Neurofilament Light for Prediction of
23 Disease Progression in Familial Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration. *Neurology.* May 4
24 2021;96(18):e2296-e2312. doi:10.1212/WNL.0000000000011848
- 25 8. Tavares TP, Mitchell DGV, Coleman K, et al. Ventricular volume expansion in
26 presymptomatic genetic frontotemporal dementia. *Neurology.* Oct 29 2019;93(18):e1699-e1706.
27 doi:10.1212/WNL.0000000000008386

- 1 9. Le Blanc G, Jette Pomerleau V, McCarthy J, et al. Faster Cortical Thinning and Surface
2 Area Loss in Presymptomatic and Symptomatic C9orf72 Repeat Expansion Adult Carriers. *Ann*
3 *Neurol.* Jul 2020;88(1):113-122. doi:10.1002/ana.25748
- 4 10. Bethlehem RAI, Seidlitz J, White SR, et al. Brain charts for the human lifespan. *Nature.*
5 Apr 2022;604(7906):525-533. doi:10.1038/s41586-022-04554-y
- 6 11. Caillet-Boudin ML, Buee L, Sergeant N, Lefebvre B. Regulation of human MAPT gene
7 expression. *Mol Neurodegener.* Jul 14 2015;10:28. doi:10.1186/s13024-015-0025-8
- 8 12. Atkinson RA, Fernandez-Martos CM, Atkin JD, Vickers JC, King AE. C9ORF72
9 expression and cellular localization over mouse development. *Acta Neuropathol Commun.* Sep
10 25 2015;3:59. doi:10.1186/s40478-015-0238-7
- 11 13. Daniel R, Daniels E, He Z, Bateman A. Progranulin (acrogranin/PC cell-derived growth
12 factor/granulin-epithelin precursor) is expressed in the placenta, epidermis, microvasculature,
13 and brain during murine development. *Dev Dyn.* Aug 2003;227(4):593-9.
14 doi:10.1002/dvdy.10341
- 15 14. Daniel R, He Z, Carmichael KP, Halper J, Bateman A. Cellular localization of gene
16 expression for progranulin. *J Histochem Cytochem.* Jul 2000;48(7):999-1009.
17 doi:10.1177/002215540004800713
- 18 15. Olszewska DA, Lonergan R, Fallon EM, Lynch T. Genetics of Frontotemporal Dementia.
19 *Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep.* Dec 2016;16(12):107. doi:10.1007/s11910-016-0707-9
- 20 16. Denk F, Wade-Martins R. Knock-out and transgenic mouse models of tauopathies.
21 *Neurobiol Aging.* Jan 2009;30(1):1-13. doi:10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2007.05.010
- 22 17. Shahani N, Brandt R. Functions and malfunctions of the tau proteins. *Cell Mol Life Sci.*
23 Oct 2002;59(10):1668-80. doi:10.1007/pl00012495
- 24 18. Yin F, Banerjee R, Thomas B, et al. Exaggerated inflammation, impaired host defense,
25 and neuropathology in progranulin-deficient mice. *J Exp Med.* Jan 18 2010;207(1):117-28.
26 doi:10.1084/jem.20091568
- 27 19. Huang M, Modeste E, Dammer E, et al. Network analysis of the progranulin-deficient
28 mouse brain proteome reveals pathogenic mechanisms shared in human frontotemporal dementia

- 1 caused by GRN mutations. *Acta Neuropathol Commun.* Oct 7 2020;8(1):163.
2 doi:10.1186/s40478-020-01037-x
- 3 20. Smeyers KM, Hutting KH. Congenital unilateral absence of the vas deferens with
4 ipsilateral renal agenesis encountered during laparoscopic totally extraperitoneal inguinal hernia
5 repair in an adult patient: A case report. *Ann Med Surg (Lond).* Jun 2021;66:102449.
6 doi:10.1016/j.amsu.2021.102449
- 7 21. Rogalski E, Johnson N, Weintraub S, Mesulam M. Increased frequency of learning
8 disability in patients with primary progressive aphasia and their first-degree relatives. *Arch*
9 *Neurol.* Feb 2008;65(2):244-8. doi:10.1001/archneurol.2007.34
- 10 22. Geschwind DH, Robidoux J, Alarcon M, et al. Dementia and neurodevelopmental
11 predisposition: cognitive dysfunction in presymptomatic subjects precedes dementia by decades
12 in frontotemporal dementia. *Ann Neurol.* Dec 2001;50(6):741-6. doi:10.1002/ana.10024
- 13 23. Chu SA, Flagan TM, Staffaroni AM, et al. Brain volumetric deficits in MAPT mutation
14 carriers: a multisite study. *Ann Clin Transl Neurol.* Jan 2021;8(1):95-110.
15 doi:10.1002/acn3.51249
- 16 24. Borroni B, Alberici A, Premi E, et al. Brain magnetic resonance imaging structural
17 changes in a pedigree of asymptomatic progranulin mutation carriers. *Rejuvenation Res.* Jun
18 2008;11(3):585-95. doi:10.1089/rej.2007.0623
- 19 25. Devenney EM, Ahmed RM, Halliday G, Piguet O, Kiernan MC, Hodges JR. Psychiatric
20 disorders in C9orf72 kindreds: Study of 1,414 family members. *Neurology.* Oct 16
21 2018;91(16):e1498-e1507. doi:10.1212/WNL.0000000000006344
- 22 26. Nopoulos PC, Aylward EH, Ross CA, et al. Smaller intracranial volume in prodromal
23 Huntington's disease: evidence for abnormal neurodevelopment. *Brain.* Jan 2011;134(Pt 1):137-
24 42. doi:10.1093/brain/awq280
- 25 27. Tereshchenko AV, Schultz JL, Bruss JE, Magnotta VA, Epping EA, Nopoulos PC.
26 Abnormal development of cerebellar-striatal circuitry in Huntington disease. *Neurology.* May 5
27 2020;94(18):e1908-e1915. doi:10.1212/WNL.0000000000009364

- 1 28. Eskenazi BR, Wilson-Rich NS, Starks PT. A Darwinian approach to Huntington's
2 disease: subtle health benefits of a neurological disorder. *Med Hypotheses*. 2007;69(6):1183-9.
3 doi:10.1016/j.mehy.2007.02.046
- 4 29. Yu F, Sabeti PC, Hardenbol P, et al. Positive selection of a pre-expansion CAG repeat of
5 the human SCA2 gene. *PLoS Genet*. Sep 2005;1(3):e41. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.0010041
- 6 30. Schultz JL, Saft C, Nopoulos PC. Association of CAG Repeat Length in the Huntington
7 Gene With Cognitive Performance in Young Adults. *Neurology*. May 11 2021;96(19):e2407-
8 e2413. doi:10.1212/WNL.00000000000011823
- 9 31. Reasoner EE, van der Plas E, Al-Kaylani HM, et al. Behavioral features in child and
10 adolescent huntingtin gene-mutation carriers. *Brain Behav*. Jul 2022;12(7):e2630.
11 doi:10.1002/brb3.2630
- 12 32. Barnat M, Capizzi M, Aparicio E, et al. Huntington's disease alters human
13 neurodevelopment. *Science*. Aug 14 2020;369(6505):787-793. doi:10.1126/science.aax3338
- 14 33. Tavares TP, Mitchell DGV, Coleman KK, et al. Early symptoms in symptomatic and
15 preclinical genetic frontotemporal lobar degeneration. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. Sep
16 2020;91(9):975-984. doi:10.1136/jnnp-2020-322987
- 17 34. Bocchetta M, Todd EG, Peakman G, et al. Differential early subcortical involvement in
18 genetic FTD within the GENFI cohort. *Neuroimage Clin*. 2021;30:102646.
19 doi:10.1016/j.nicl.2021.102646
- 20 35. Cardoso MJ, Modat M, Wolz R, et al. Geodesic Information Flows: Spatially-Variant
21 Graphs and Their Application to Segmentation and Fusion. *IEEE Trans Med Imaging*. Sep
22 2015;34(9):1976-88. doi:10.1109/TMI.2015.2418298
- 23 36. Diedrichsen J, Verstynen T, Schlerf J, Wiestler T. Advances in functional imaging of the
24 human cerebellum. *Curr Opin Neurol*. Aug 2010;23(4):382-7.
25 doi:10.1097/WCO.0b013e32833be837
- 26 37. Seeley WW, Crawford R, Rascofsky K, et al. Frontal paralimbic network atrophy in very
27 mild behavioral variant frontotemporal dementia. *Arch Neurol*. Feb 2008;65(2):249-55.
28 doi:10.1001/archneurol.2007.38

- 1 38. Sherif T, Rioux P, Rousseau ME, et al. CBRAIN: a web-based, distributed computing
2 platform for collaborative neuroimaging research. *Front Neuroinform.* 2014;8:54.
3 doi:10.3389/fninf.2014.00054
- 4 39. Wear HJ, Wedderburn CJ, Mioshi E, et al. The Cambridge Behavioural Inventory
5 revised. *Dementia and Neuropsychologia.* 2008;2(2):102-107.
- 6 40. Benjamini Y, Hochberg Y. Controlling the False Discovery Rate: A Practical and
7 Powerful Approach to Multiple Testing. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B*
8 *(Methodological).* 1995;57(1):289-300. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2517-6161.1995.tb02031.x
- 9 41. Bocchetta M, Gordon E, Cardoso MJ, et al. Thalamic atrophy in frontotemporal dementia
10 - Not just a C9orf72 problem. *Neuroimage Clin.* 2018;18:675-681.
11 doi:10.1016/j.nicl.2018.02.019
- 12 42. Bocchetta M, Iglesias JE, Neason M, Cash DM, Warren JD, Rohrer JD. Thalamic nuclei
13 in frontotemporal dementia: Mediodorsal nucleus involvement is universal but pulvinar atrophy
14 is unique to C9orf72. *Hum Brain Mapp.* Mar 2020;41(4):1006-1016. doi:10.1002/hbm.24856
- 15 43. Floeter MK, Bageac D, Danielian LE, Braun LE, Traynor BJ, Kwan JY. Longitudinal
16 imaging in C9orf72 mutation carriers: Relationship to phenotype. *Neuroimage Clin.*
17 2016;12:1035-1043. doi:10.1016/j.nicl.2016.10.014
- 18 44. Sha SJ, Takada LT, Rankin KP, et al. Frontotemporal dementia due to C9ORF72
19 mutations: clinical and imaging features. *Neurology.* Sep 4 2012;79(10):1002-11.
20 doi:10.1212/WNL.0b013e318268452e
- 21 45. Schonecker S, Neuhofer C, Otto M, et al. Atrophy in the Thalamus But Not Cerebellum
22 Is Specific for C9orf72 FTD and ALS Patients - An Atlas-Based Volumetric MRI Study. *Front*
23 *Aging Neurosci.* 2018;10:45. doi:10.3389/fnagi.2018.00045
- 24 46. Bertrand A, Wen J, Rinaldi D, et al. Early Cognitive, Structural, and Microstructural
25 Changes in Presymptomatic C9orf72 Carriers Younger Than 40 Years. *JAMA Neurol.* Feb 1
26 2018;75(2):236-245. doi:10.1001/jamaneurol.2017.4266
- 27 47. Yeh TH, Liu HF, Li YW, et al. C9orf72 is essential for neurodevelopment and motility
28 mediated by Cyclin G1. *Exp Neurol.* Jun 2018;304:114-124.
29 doi:10.1016/j.expneurol.2018.03.002

- 1 48. Gossink F, Dols A, Stek ML, et al. Early life involvement in C9orf72 repeat expansion
2 carriers. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. Jan 2022;93(1):93-100. doi:10.1136/jnnp-2020-325994
- 3 49. Lee SE, Sias AC, Mandelli ML, et al. Network degeneration and dysfunction in
4 presymptomatic C9ORF72 expansion carriers. *Neuroimage Clin*. 2017;14:286-297.
5 doi:10.1016/j.nicl.2016.12.006
- 6 50. Le Ber I, Camuzat A, Hannequin D, et al. Phenotype variability in progranulin mutation
7 carriers: a clinical, neuropsychological, imaging and genetic study. *Brain*. Mar 2008;131(Pt
8 3):732-46. doi:10.1093/brain/awn012
- 9 51. Whitwell JL, Boeve BF, Weigand SD, et al. Brain atrophy over time in genetic and
10 sporadic frontotemporal dementia: a study of 198 serial magnetic resonance images. *Eur J*
11 *Neurol*. May 2015;22(5):745-52. doi:10.1111/ene.12675
- 12 52. van der Plas E, Langbehn DR, Conrad AL, et al. Abnormal brain development in child
13 and adolescent carriers of mutant huntingtin. *Neurology*. Sep 3 2019;93(10):e1021-e1030.
14 doi:10.1212/WNL.0000000000008066
- 15 53. Coupe P, Catheline G, Lanuza E, Manjon JV, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging I.
16 Towards a unified analysis of brain maturation and aging across the entire lifespan: A MRI
17 analysis. *Hum Brain Mapp*. Nov 2017;38(11):5501-5518. doi:10.1002/hbm.23743
- 18 54. Fortea J, Sala-Llonch R, Bartres-Faz D, et al. Increased cortical thickness and caudate
19 volume precede atrophy in PSEN1 mutation carriers. *J Alzheimers Dis*. 2010;22(3):909-22.
20 doi:10.3233/JAD-2010-100678
- 21 55. Staffaroni AM, Cobigo Y, Goh SM, et al. Individualized atrophy scores predict dementia
22 onset in familial frontotemporal lobar degeneration. *Alzheimers Dement*. Jan 2020;16(1):37-48.
23 doi:10.1016/j.jalz.2019.04.007
- 24 56. Meeter LH, Dopper EG, Jiskoot LC, et al. Neurofilament light chain: a biomarker for
25 genetic frontotemporal dementia. *Annals of Clinical and Translational Neurology*.
26 2016;3(8):623-636. doi:https://doi.org/10.1002/acn3.325
- 27 57. Hakkinen S, Chu SA, Lee SE. Neuroimaging in genetic frontotemporal dementia and
28 amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. *Neurobiol Dis*. Nov 2020;145:105063.
29 doi:10.1016/j.nbd.2020.105063

- 1 58. Whitwell JL, Jack CR, Jr., Boeve BF, et al. Voxel-based morphometry patterns of
2 atrophy in FTLN with mutations in MAPT or PGRN. *Neurology*. Mar 3 2009;72(9):813-20.
3 doi:10.1212/01.wnl.0000343851.46573.67
- 4 59. Staffaroni AM, Goh SM, Cobigo Y, et al. Rates of Brain Atrophy Across Disease Stages
5 in Familial Frontotemporal Dementia Associated With MAPT, GRN, and C9orf72 Pathogenic
6 Variants. *JAMA Netw Open*. Oct 1 2020;3(10):e2022847.
7 doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.22847
- 8 60. Seelaar H, Papma JM, Garraux G, et al. Brain perfusion patterns in familial
9 frontotemporal lobar degeneration. *Neurology*. Jul 26 2011;77(4):384-92.
10 doi:10.1212/WNL.0b013e3182270456
- 11 61. Panman JL, Jiskoot LC, Bouts M, et al. Gray and white matter changes in
12 presymptomatic genetic frontotemporal dementia: a longitudinal MRI study. *Neurobiol Aging*.
13 Apr 2019;76:115-124. doi:10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2018.12.017
- 14 62. Young AL, Bocchetta M, Russell LL, et al. Characterizing the Clinical Features and
15 Atrophy Patterns of MAPT-Related Frontotemporal Dementia With Disease Progression
16 Modeling. *Neurology*. Aug 31 2021;97(9):e941-e952. doi:10.1212/WNL.0000000000012410
- 17 63. Dominguez-Vivero C, Wu L, Lee S, et al. Structural Brain Changes in Pre-Clinical FTD
18 MAPT Mutation Carriers. *J Alzheimers Dis*. 2020;75(2):595-606. doi:10.3233/JAD-190820
- 19 64. Boekhoorn K, Terwel D, Biemans B, et al. Improved long-term potentiation and memory
20 in young tau-P301L transgenic mice before onset of hyperphosphorylation and tauopathy. *J*
21 *Neurosci*. Mar 29 2006;26(13):3514-23. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5425-05.2006
- 22 65. Jones JH. The Force of Selection on the Human Life Cycle. *Evol Hum Behav*. Sep 1
23 2009;30(5):305-314. doi:10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2009.01.005
- 24 66. Levy JP, Bezgin G, Savard M, et al. 18F-MK-6240 tau-PET in genetic frontotemporal
25 dementia. *Brain*. Oct 19 2021;doi:10.1093/brain/awab392
- 26 67. Wolters EE, Papma JM, Verfaillie SCJ, et al. [(18)F]Flortaucipir PET Across Various
27 MAPT Mutations in Presymptomatic and Symptomatic Carriers. *Neurology*. Sep 7
28 2021;97(10):e1017-e1030. doi:10.1212/WNL.0000000000012448

1

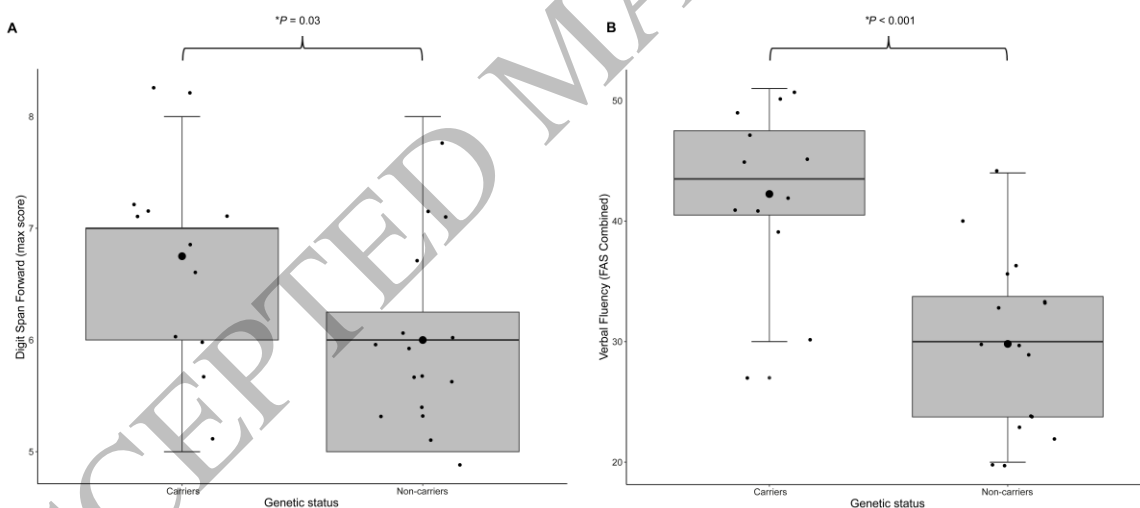
2 **Figure legends**

3 **Figure 1 Main effect of genetic status on cognitive performance in young adult *MAPT***
4 **mutation group.** *MAPT* mutation carriers show enhanced performance on **A)** digit span forward
5 and **B)** verbal fluency in comparison to non-carriers. Small black circles represent individual
6 scores; large black circles represent group means.

7

8 **Figure 2 Main effects of genetic status on cognitive performance in the young adult *GRN***
9 **mutation group.** *GRN* mutation carriers show enhanced performance on digit symbol in
10 comparison to non-carriers. Small black circles represent individual scores; large black circles
11 represent group means.

12



13

14

15

16

Figure 1
159x66 mm (5.5 x DPI)

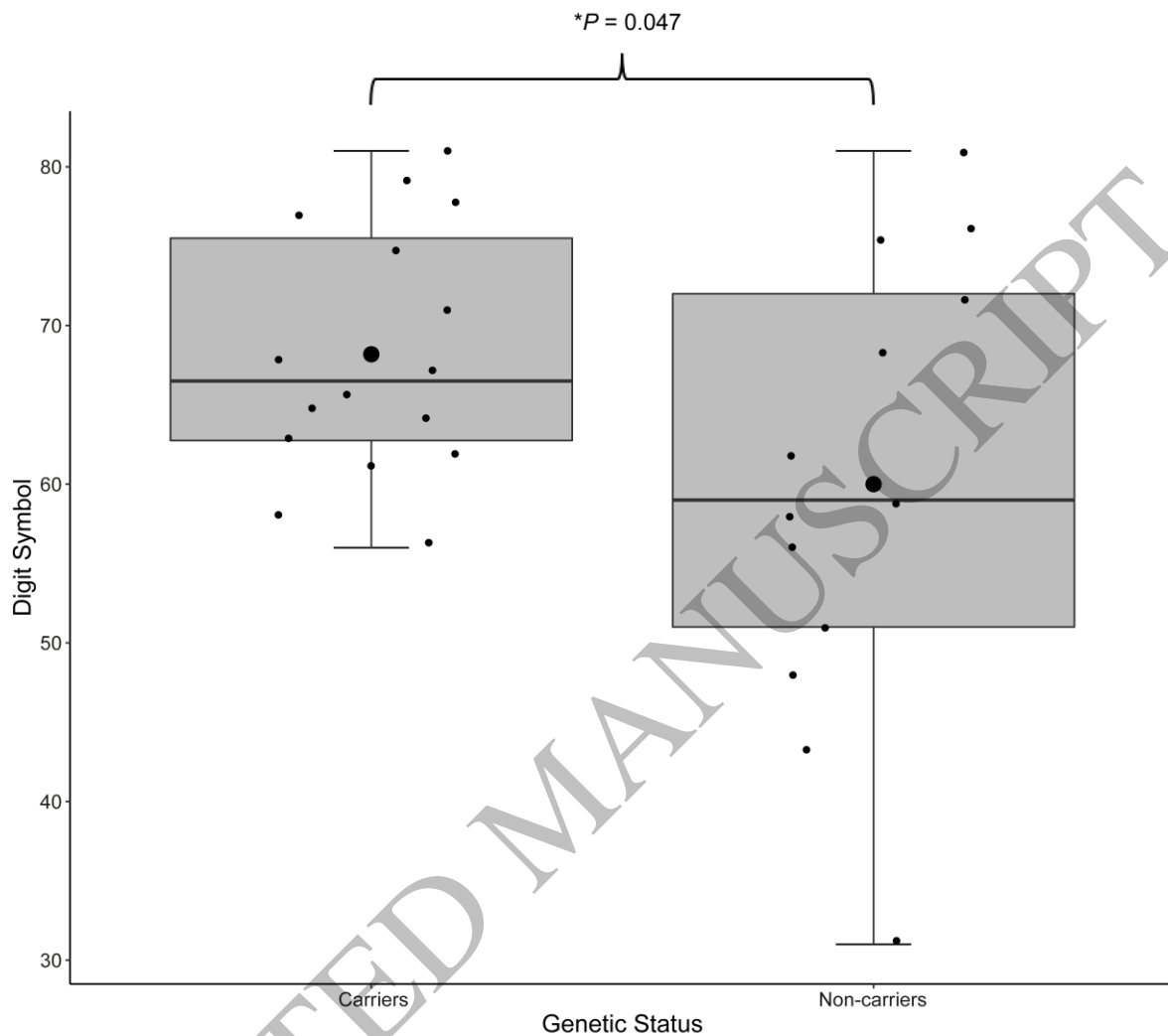


Figure 2
159x141 mm (5.5 x DPI)

1
2
3
4

1 **Table 1 MRI volumetric analysis of mutation carriers versus non-carriers**

	Total	Carrier	Non-carrier	C9orf72 carriers	C9orf72 non-carriers	C9orf72 contrasts	MAPT carriers	MAPT non-carriers	MAPT contrasts	GRN carriers	GRN non-carriers	GRN contrasts
N	85	44	41	17	15	–	11	13	–	16	13	–
Age (SD)	25.7 (2.9)	25.7 (3.2)	25.8 (2.6)	25.9 (3.3)	25.8 (2.1)	$F = 0.01, P = 0.95$	24.8 (3.7)	25.8 (3.6)	$F = 0.38, P = 0.54$	25.9 (2.68)	25.9 (2.27)	$F = 0.1, P = 0.9$
Education, years (SD)	14.35 (2.23)	14.6 (2.1)	14.1 (2.3)	14.0 (2.45)	14.4 (2.20)	$F = 0.23, P = 0.63$	15.5 (1.5)	14.1 (1.7)	$F = 4.9, P = 0.04^*$	14.6 (1.9)	13.6 (3.0)	$F = 1.3, P = 0.26$
Mean age of onset in family		56.1 (6.7)	55.4 (8.4)	55.3 (7.9)	58.2 (6.3)		54.3 (6.6)	52.7 (4.8)		58.1 (5.2)	54.9 (12.1)	
Handedness						$\chi^2 = 1.4, P = 0.23$			$\chi^2 = 4.1, P = 0.04$			$\chi^2 = 0.06, P = 0.81$
Right	73	37	36	16	12		8	13		13	11	
Left	12	7	5	1	3		3	0		3	2	
Sex						$\chi^2 = 0.13, P = 0.72$			$\chi^2 = 0.24, P = 0.63$			$\chi^2 = 0.17, P = 0.68$
Male	40	21	19	9	7		7	7		5	5	
Female	45	23	22	8	8		4	6		11	8	
Brain volumes												
TIV ^a				1390903	1450461	$F = 1.73, P = 0.21$	1501219	1375417	$F = 9.88, P = 0.01^{**}$	1437451	1373921	$F = 6.77, P = 0.03^{**}$
Total brain				1166301	1205228	$F = 15.02, P = 0.001^{**}$	1201246	1206018	$F = 0.08, P = 0.79$	1123944	1143427	$F = 4.48, P = 0.06$
Total CSF				249971	241656	$F = 1.52, P = 0.23$	250306	244399	$F = 0.55, P = 0.47$	232339	222586	$F = 1.45, P = 0.24$
Frontal lobes				185756	192530	$F = 2.81, P = 0.11$	192501	186598	$F = 1.44, P = 0.26$	180518	182866	$F = 0.32, P = 0.58$
Temporal lobes				125657	131026	$F = 3.95, P = 0.07$	132589	130117	$F = 0.00, P = 0.98$	123905	123288	$F = 1.78, P = 0.21$
Parietal lobes				95994	99841	$F = 0.17, P = 0.69$	99570	97354	$F = 1.52, P = 0.25$	93592	95352	$F = 0.68, P = 0.43$
Occipital lobes				73183	77445	$F = 0.96, P = 0.34$	75198	76833	$F = 0.08, P = 0.78$	72467	73832	$F = 0.24, P = 0.64$
Cingulate				30155	30789	$F = 0.39, P = 0.54$	31106	31461	$F = 0.11, P = 0.75$	29934	28600	$F = 9.91, P = 0.009^{**}$
Insula				11545	11838	$F = 0.79, P = 0.39$	12207	11332	$F = 1.71, P = 0.23$	11177	11694	$F = 0.21, P = 0.65$
Cerebellum				104739	107168	$F = 0.03, P = 0.87$	112314	115886	$F = 0.16, P = 0.70$	105285	106223	$F = 0.82, P = 0.39$
Amygdala				3471	3528	$F = 0.12, P = 0.74$	3678	3566	$F = 0.46, P = 0.52$	3499	3527	$F = 16.41, P = 0.002$
Hippocampus				7679	7902	$F = 0.09, P = 0.77$	8190	8199	$F = 0.39, P = 0.55$	7880	8036	$F = .00, P = 0.98$
Thalamus				10975	12045	$F = 12.3, P = 0.003^{**}$	11256	13011	$F = 4.81, P = 0.06$	11561	10838	$F = 41.85, P < 0.001$
Basal ganglia				20487	20650	$F = 0.11, P = 0.74$	19650	21116	$F = 4.19, P = 0.08$	19203	20015	$F = 2.10, P = 0.18$

2 TIV = total intracranial volume. Brain volume contrasts indicate main effect of genetic status when controlling for age, TIV, sex and scanner
3 type. Mean volumes in mm³, corrected for age at visit and TIV mm³.

4 * $P < 0.05$.

1 **Bolded values significant after FDR correction and accounting for scanner effects. For non-bolded imaging contrasts with significant *P*-values,
 2 scanner effects preclude conclusion about group differences.
 3 *TIV contrast controlled for age, sex and scanner type.
 4

5 **Table 2 Demographics, Behavioural and Cognitive Assessments of GENFI Young Adult Mutation Carriers versus Non-**
 6 **carriers**

	Total	Carriers	Non-carriers	<i>C9orf72</i> Carriers	<i>C9orf72</i> non-Carriers	<i>C9orf72</i> contrasts	MAPT Carriers	MAPT non-carriers	MAPT contrasts	GRN carriers	GRN non-carriers	GRN contrasts
GENFI1 + GENFI2												
N	92	45	47	17	18	–	12	16	–	16	13	–
Age (SD)	25.5 (2.9)	25.7 (3.1)	25.4 (2.8)	25.8 (3.3)	25.9 (2.2)	<i>t</i> = 0.13, <i>P</i> = 0.90	24.9 (3.6)	25.0 (3.1)	<i>t</i> = 0.06, <i>P</i> = 0.95	25.8 (2.55)	25.0 (3.17)	<i>t</i> = 0.8, <i>P</i> = 0.46
Education, Yrs (SD)	14.2 (2.3)	14.6 (2.2)	13.8 (2.5)	14.0 (2.5)	14.1 (2.6)	<i>t</i> = 0.07, <i>P</i> = 0.95	15.2 (2.0)	13.6 (1.9)	<i>t</i> = 2.01, <i>P</i> = 0.05	14.7 (1.99)	13.6 (3.01)	<i>t</i> = 1.10, <i>P</i> = 0.28
Mean age of onset in family, Yrs (SD)	55.6 (7.7)	55.8 (6.9)	55.4 (8.4)	53.2 (13.3)	59.2 (6.3)	<i>t</i> = 1.7, <i>P</i> = 0.09	53.4 (7.1)	51.8 (4.9)	<i>t</i> = 0.73, <i>P</i> = 0.47	58.1 (5.2)	54.9 (12.1)	<i>t</i> = 1.0, <i>P</i> = 0.34
Handedness						<i>t</i> = 1.0, <i>P</i> = 0.33			<i>t</i> = 1.3, <i>P</i> = 0.21			<i>t</i> = 0.23, <i>P</i> = 0.82
Right	79	37	42	16	15	–	9	15	–	13	11	–
Left	13	7	6	1	3	–	3	1	–	3	2	–
Sex						<i>t</i> = 0.49, <i>P</i> = 0.63			<i>t</i> = 0.22, <i>P</i> = 0.83			<i>t</i> = 0.39, <i>P</i> = 0.70
Male	48	24	24	8	10	–	5	6	–	11	8	–
Female	44	21	23	9	8	–	7	10	–	5	5	–
Neuropsych, Mean (SD)												
Digit Span Forward				6.6 (1.1)	6.7 (1.1)	<i>F</i> = 0.04, <i>P</i> = 0.84	6.8 (0.9)	6.0 (0.9)	<i>F</i> = 5.8, <i>P</i> = 0.03*	7.1 (0.1)	6.5 (1.1)	<i>F</i> = 2.5, <i>P</i> = 0.13
Digit Span Backward				5.1 (0.9)	5.1 (1.7)	<i>F</i> = 0.02, <i>P</i> = 0.90	5.4 (1.2)	4.8 (1.1)	<i>F</i> = 1.91, <i>P</i> = 0.18	5.2 (1.1)	4.9 (1.2)	<i>F</i> = 1.0, <i>P</i> = 0.32
Digit Symbol				60.3 (7.3) ^a	61.8 (15.2)	<i>F</i> = 0.2, <i>P</i> = 0.69	66.7 (11.0)	60.4 (10.9)	<i>F</i> = 1.81, <i>P</i> = 0.19	68.2 (7.8)	60.0 (14.5)	<i>F</i> = 4.5, <i>P</i> = 0.047*
Boston Naming				27.4 (1.8)	27.5 (2.2)	<i>F</i> = 0.02, <i>P</i> = 0.90	27.5 (1.9)	27.9 (1.6)	<i>F</i> = 0.28, <i>P</i> = 0.60	27.4 (1.)	27.7 (1.6)	<i>F</i> = 0.3, <i>P</i> = 0.58
Verbal Fluency (Animals)				22.7 (4.5)	24.9 (7.3)	<i>F</i> = 1.5, <i>P</i> = 0.24	22.4 (4.7)	23.1 (8.9)	<i>F</i> = 0.06, <i>P</i> = 0.82	25.8 (5.14)	23.5 (5.2)	<i>F</i> = 1.4, <i>P</i> = 0.26
Verbal Fluency (FAS)				35.1 (10.5)	41.1 (12.1)	<i>F</i> = 2.1, <i>P</i> = 0.16	42.3 (7.5)	29.8 (7.2)	<i>F</i> = 18.6, <i>P</i> = 0.0003*	37.4 (14.1)	42.8 (9.3)	<i>F</i> = 1.3, <i>P</i> = 0.26
Block Design				50.1 (17.7) ^a	56.0 (9.2)	<i>F</i> = 1.4, <i>P</i> = 0.25	57.4 (10.8)	54.0 (11.5)	<i>F</i> = 0.62, <i>P</i> = 0.44	57.6 (10.4)	52.7 (15.2)	<i>F</i> = 1.1, <i>P</i> = 0.31
CBI				3.2 (3.5) ^b	3.6 ^b (5.2)	<i>F</i> = 0.1, <i>P</i> = 0.79	2.75 (5.4)	5.9 (8.3)	<i>F</i> = 1.6, <i>P</i> = 0.22	3.7 (4.2) ^b	3.5 (5.1) ^b	<i>F</i> = 0.01, <i>P</i> = 0.94

7 **P* < 0.05. Significant results bolded. Independent sample *t*-tests or one-way analyses of covariance were used to discern group differences for
 8 relevant variables. *F* statistics indicate main effects of genetic status.

9 ^aOne data-point missing (*C9orf72* expansion carrier).

10 ^bData-points missing (*C9orf72*: 2 carriers, 2 non-carriers; GRN: 1 carrier, 1 non-carrier).

11