bodies and Alzheimer's disease
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1	ABSTRACT
2	

3	Patterns of progressive cortical thinning in dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB)					
4	remains poorly understood. We examined spatiotemporal patterns of cortical thinning					
5	and subcortical atrophy over 12 months in DLB (n=13), compared to Alzheimer's					
6	disease (AD) (n=23) and healthy controls (HC) (n=33). Rates of temporal thinning in					
7	DLB were relatively preserved compared to AD. Volumetric analyses subcortical					
8	changes revealed that the AD group demonstrated significantly increased					
9	hippocampal atrophy (-5.8%) relative to the HC (-1.7%; p<0.001) and DLB groups (-					
10	2.5%, p=0.006). Significant lateral ventricular expansion was also observed in AD					
11	(8.9%) compared to HC (4.3%; p<0.001), and DLB (4.7%; p=0.008) at trend level.					
12	There was no significant difference in subcortical atrophy and ventricular expansion					
13	between DLB and HC. In the DLB group, increased rates of cortical thinning in the					
14	frontal and parietal regions were significantly correlated with decline in global					
15	cognition (MMSE) and motor deterioration (UPDRS3) respectively. Overall, AD and					
16	DLB are characterized by different spatiotemporal patterns of cortical thinning over					
17	time. Our findings warrant further consideration of longitudinal cortical thinning as a					
18	potential imaging marker to differentiate DLB from AD.					
19 20 21	Keywords: Dementia, Alzheimer's disease, Lewy bodies, MRI, neuroimaging, atrophy					

1. INTRODUCTION

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3 Dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB) is the second leading cause of degenerative 4 dementia in older people after Alzheimer's disease (AD), accounting for up to 15% of 5 cases confirmed at autopsy [1–3]. Because low sensitivity for the diagnosis for DLB 6 remains a problem [4], there is a need for the development of reliable imaging 7 markers to help distinguish DLB from other subtypes of dementia. 8 9 Cortical thickness is increasingly recognized as a more precise parameter of age-10 associated decline in grey matter compared to the voxel-based morphometry (VBM) 11 technique [5,6]. In a previous study, we found a greater extent of cortical thinning in 12 the AD group affecting predominantly temporo-parietal areas whereas DLB was 13 characterized with cortical thinning in posterior structures [7]. This finding is 14 consistent with a growing literature of reduced global atrophy in DLB compared to 15 AD [8], while the preservation of the medial temporal lobe in DLB has been 16 incorporated as a supportive feature in the revised criteria for the diagnosis of DLB 17 [9]. 18 As with our previous investigation, the majority of imaging studies in DLB has been 19 cross-sectional, and no study to date has investigated the longitudinal progression of 20 cortical thinning in DLB. To address this gap in the present literature, our aim in this 21 study was to compare the progression of cortical thickness over a 12-month period in 22 AD and DLB, and similarly aged healthy controls (HC). Based on earlier cross-23 sectional findings [8], we hypothesized that DLB would have significantly lower rates 24 of cortical thinning compared to AD, particularly in the temporal lobe.

2. METHODS

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2.1. Subjects, assessment and diagnosis

3	36 subjects with probable AD [10] and 35 with probable DLB [9] were recruited from
4	a community dwelling population of patients referred to local Old Age Psychiatry,
5	Geriatric Medicine or Neurology Services as previously described [11]. Subjects
6	underwent clinical and neuropsychological evaluations at baseline and follow-up at 1
7	year. Thirty-five similarly aged control subjects were recruited from relatives and
8	friends of subjects with dementia or volunteered via advertisements in local
9	community newsletters. For the purpose of the present study, we included only
10	subjects with MRI assessments from both baseline and 1-year follow-up. Of the 36
11	AD subjects, 25 were included after 11 were unable to participate in the follow-up
12	assessment. Of the 35 DLB subjects, 14 were included after 12 declined to participate
13	as they or their caregivers felt they were too unwell and 9 subjects had died. However
14	there were no significant differences in age, gender, educational level, UPDRS III,
15	NPI, or cognitive scores between the DLB subjects who dropped out and the DLB
16	subjects who were included in the present study (Table 2). Of the 35 HC subjects, 33
17	were included in the present analyses after 2 declined to participate due to other
18	reasons. The research was approved by the local ethics committee. All subjects or,
19	where appropriate, their nearest relative, provided written informed consent. At
20	baseline and follow-up assessments, global cognitive measures included the
21	Cambridge Cognitive Examination (CAMCOG) [12], which incorporates the Mini-
22	Mental State Examination (MMSE) [13] in addition to a number of subscales
23	assessing domains including orientation, language, memory, attention, praxis,
24	calculation, abstract thinking and perception. Visuospatial memory was assessed with
25	the Brief Visuospatial Memory Test (BVMT) [14]. Motor parkinsonism was

transformation, segmentation of the subcortical white matter and deep grey matter

volumetric structures, intensity normalization, tessellation of the grey matter/white

matter boundary, automated topology correction, and surface deformation to

23

24

1	optimally place the grey matter/white matter and grey matter/cerebrospinal fluid
2	(CSF) boundaries. The cortical thickness is calculated as the closest distance from the
3	grey/white matter boundary to the grey/CSF boundary at each vertex. All surface
4	models in our study were inspected for accuracy and manual corrections were
5	performed in the event of tissue misclassification / white matter errors. However, 3
6	subjects (2 AD, 1 DLB) still had extensive pial/white matter surface errors and were
7	excluded. The dataset for all subsequent analyses comprised of 33 HC, 23 AD, and 13
8	DLB.
9	
10	Subsequently, for the longitudinal processing, an unbiased within-subject template
11	space [21] was created using robust, inverse consistent registration [22]. Several
12	processing steps, such as skull stripping, Talairach transformations, atlas registration,
13	as well as spherical surface maps and parcellations were then initialized with common
14	information from the within-subject template, significantly increasing reliability and
15	statistical power [23]. The cortical thickness maps were smoothed using a 15-mm full
16	width at half maximum Gaussian kernel to reduce local variations in the
17	measurements.
18	In addition, the following volumetric measures at both time-points were automatically
19	obtained using Freesurfer: total intracranial volume, lateral ventricles, and 7
20	subcortical structures including the thalamus, caudate, putamen, pallidum,
21	hippocampus, amygdala, and the nucleus accumbens.
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2.4. Statistical analyses

24 Demographic and clinical measures

1	Statistical analyses were performed with the STATA13 (http://www.stata.com/)				
2	software. The distribution of continuous variables was tested for normality using the				
3	Skewness-Kurtosis test and visual inspection of histograms. Parametric data were				
4	assessed using either t-tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA) for continuous				
5	variables. For non-parametric data, Kruskal-Wallis was used. χ^2 tests were used to				
6	examine differences between categorical measures. For each test statistic, a two-tailed				
7	probability value of < 0.05 was regarded as significant.				
8					
9	Cortical thickness comparisons				
10	For each hemisphere, vertex-wise comparisons of percent change of cortical thickness				
11	(PcCTh) among the subject groups were performed using the longitudinal two stage				
12	general linear model in Freesurfer [23]. The PcCTh was the dependent factor and the				
13	diagnostic group was the independent factor. Additionally, we examined the				
14	correlations of PcCTh with cognitive decline (baseline score – follow-up score. To				
15	assess the involvement of PcCTH in disease severity, we assessed correlations with				
16	change scores of the UPDRS. In all imaging analyses, age and gender were included				
17	as nuisance covariates, and Family Wise Error (FWE) cluster-wise correction using				
18	Monte Carlo simulations with 10,000 iterations were applied to correct for multiple-				
19	comparisons [24].				
20					
21	Longitudinal atrophy of subcortical structures				
22	To reduce the number of comparisons, we derived a total volume for each structure by				
23	combining the volumes from both hemispheres. For each subject, we first calculated				
24	the absolute difference in volumes between both times [(volume follow-up - volume				
25	$_{baseline}$)], before dividing by the volume at baseline [(volume $_{follow-up}$ – volume $_{baseline}$) /				

1	volume baseline] to quantify the amount of atrophy with respect to baseline, before
2	multiplying by 100 to derive a percentage change score: [(volume follow-up - volume
3	$_{baseline}$) / volume $_{baseline}$] * 100%. Subsequently, group differences in percentage change
4	of subcortical volumes were tested with analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)
5	controlling for age, gender, and the average of total intracranial volumes at both time-
6	points. Post-hoc Tukey-Kramer pairwise comparisons were subsequently tested
7	between each group.
8	
9	3. Results
10	Subject characteristics
11	The demographic and clinical data for dementia and control subjects are summarized
12	in Table 1. Subject groups were well matched for age, gender, and educational level,
13	and there was no difference in inter-scan intervals among all subject groups (p=0.21).
14	As expected, the DLB group had significantly higher UPDRS scores than the AD and
15	HC groups at both time-points. Functional ability (BADLS) was similar in DLB and
16	AD (p=0.23). Disease duration was comparable in both DLB (52.2 months) and AD
17	(51.8 months; p=0.96), and the proportion of subjects on cholinesterase inhibitors was
18	also similar (p=0.23). There were no significant differences in changes of NPI
19	(p=0.50), CogFluct (p=0.52), between DLB and AD.
20	
21	Longitudinal analyses of cognitive decline in DLB and AD
22	AD and DLB did not differ on global cognitive measures such as MMSE and
23	CAMCOG at baseline or follow-up. Although both DLB and AD performed poorer
24	over time, the decline in global cognition did not differ between groups. BVMT

The anatomical results for the vertex-wise correlational analyses are displayed in

1	Figure 2; Table e-2; controlled for age and gender and FWE Monte Carlo cluster-wise				
2	corrected. In the DLB group, increased PcCTH in the left frontal lobe was				
3	significantly correlated with decline in MMSE scores, CAMCOG Orientation and				
4	Expressive Language performances. Decline in UPDRS was also significantly				
5	correlated with increased rates of thinning in the right superior parietal region. In the				
6	AD group, increased PcCTH in the bilateral frontal regions were significantly				
7	correlated with decline in BVMT scores. No significant correlations between rates of				
8	cortical thinning and cognitive decline were demonstrated in the HC group.				
9					
10	Longitudinal comparisons of subcortical atrophy and ventricular expansion				
11	Table 3 and Figure 3 show the percentage change in subcortical volumes between				
12	baseline and follow-up. After Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons, the AD				
13	group demonstrated significantly increased longitudinal hippocampal atrophy (-5.8%)				
14	relative to the HC (-1.7%; p<0.001) and DLB groups (-2.5%, p=0.006). Significant				
15	lateral ventricular expansion was also observed in AD (8.9%) compared to HC (4.3%;				
16	p<0.001), and DLB (4.7%; p=0.008) at trend level. There was no significant				
17	difference in subcortical atrophy and ventricular expansion between DLB and HC.				
18					
19	4. Discussion				
20	Previous longitudinal studies in DLB have focused on the assessment of global brain				
21	measures such as whole brain atrophy rates, yielding somewhat conflicting results.				
22	O'Brien and colleagues found no significant differences in whole brain atrophy rates				
23	between AD and DLB [25]. In contrast, another study with pathological confirmation				
24	of diagnosis revealed significantly greater global atrophy rates in AD compared to				
25	DLB [26]. To our knowledge, this is the first study to evaluate the topographical				

1	differences in the progression of cortical thinning between DLB and AD. The main				
2	findings are: (i) DLB and AD are characterized by distinct spatial and temporal				
3	patterns of cortical thinning. Consistent with our a priori hypothesis, the temporal				
4	lobe showed significantly greater cortical thinning in AD compared to DLB over the				
5	follow-up period; (ii) regional cortical thinning over time was correlated with				
6	cognitive decline in both AD and DLB groups; (iii) significantly greater loss of				
7	hippocampal volume and lateral ventricular expansion over 1 year was also observed				
8	in the AD group.				
9					
10	Firstly, the present longitudinal findings should be interpreted in light of the baseline				
11	comparison [7]. Compared to similarly aged HC, we have previously reported that				
12	AD was characterized by cortical thinning in the temporo-parietal cortices extending				
13	into the frontal lobes while a milder degree of cortical thinning in the parietal regions				
14	was evident in DLB. Furthermore, cortical thickness of the left temporal lobe was				
15	relatively preserved in DLB compared to AD at baseline. As such, it is noteworthy				
16	that our present longitudinal study has revealed a similar spatial pattern of accelerated				
17	thinning in the cortical regions that were already thinner in AD compared to HC and				
18	DLB at baseline.				
19					
20	At present, the longitudinal progression of cortical thinning in DLB is relatively				
21	unknown. Moreover, the cellular mechanisms through which alpha-synuclein				
22	pathology - the characteristic hallmark of Lewy body disease - contributes to				
23	neurodegeneration remains poorly understood [27]. Increasing in vitro evidence also				
24	suggests that alpha-syunclein is not a direct causative factor of neurodegeneration.				
25	Rather, it triggers a series of secondary molecular processes that eventually leads to				

1	neuroinflammation, disruption of neurotransmitters, and eventually cell loss [27,28].
2	Consistent with this view, we found no differences in the rates of regional cortical
3	thinning between DLB and HC over 12 months. Although it is possible that our
4	negative finding might represent a Type-II error due to the relatively small sample
5	size of DLB (n=13) and short duration of follow-up (1 year), corroborative evidence
6	have come from previous studies. A larger study has found similar global and
7	regional brain atrophy rates in pathologically confirmed DLB (n = 20) and HC (n =
8	15) subjects over a long follow-up period of 2 years [29]. In addition, using a
9	Boundary Shift Integral method, Whitwell and colleagues (2007) also reported
10	minimal global atrophy rates in DLB ($n = 9$) compared to HC ($n = 25$). Similar
11	patterns of atrophy rates have also been reported in subjects with Parkinson's disease
12	(PD), another Lewy body disease [30,31]. These convergent findings, despite
13	methodological differences and sampling (clinical and autopsy confirmation), support
14	the view that alpha-synuclein pathology – a major constituent of Lewy bodies – has
15	limited direct involvement in cerebral atrophy. This notion is also consistent with
16	evidence demonstrating a strong correlation between hippocampal atrophy and $\beta\text{-}$
17	amyloid plaques and neurofibrillary tangles but not synuclein pathology [32].
18	
19	Compared to AD, DLB was characterized by a significantly slower rate of temporal
20	thinning compared to AD. It is well-established that the relative preservation of the
21	MTL in DLB compared to AD is recognized as the most consistent structural MRI
22	finding at the cross-sectional level [8], and is in keeping with the different
23	neuropsychological profiles of both groups. Considered with our baseline observation
24	of reduced temporal thickness in AD [7], the present findings extend the literature by
25	elucidating the differential trajectories of temporal thinning in both conditions over

1 time, thereby validating the inclusion of medial temporal lobe preservation as a 2 supportive biomarker for the clinical diagnosis of DLB [9]. While the diagnostic 3 value of FP-CIT for DLB has been established to be the "gold standard" in the clinical 4 community [33], there are clinical benefits to be gained with multimodal imaging (i.e. 5 integrating SPECT and MRI in conjunction). In terms of improving accuracy in 6 differential diagnosis, MRI striatal volumetric data have been combined with occipital 7 perfusion SPECT to distinguish subjects with mild DLB from subjects with mild AD 8 with a high degree of sensitivity and specificity [34]. 9 10 The clinical implications of cortical thinning in DLB are still poorly understood. Our 11 correlational analyses of the UPDRS change scores among the DLB subjects revealed 12 a significant association between increased thinning in the superior parietal cortex and 13 greater motor deterioration. Our findings are in accord with recent VBM studies 14 demonstrating significant atrophy of the parietal cortex in PD subjects presenting with 15 freezing of gait compared to PD subjects without freezing symptoms [35,36]. In 16 addition, white matter hyperintensities in the parietal lobe has been linked to impaired 17 balance and postural support [37]. Taken together, these findings fits within the 18 framework that the superior parietal lobe is part of the motor system involved in 19 sensorimotor integration. 20 The frontal lobe was also involved with cognitive decline in the DLB group. 21 Increased thinning in the superior frontal regions was associated with greater decline 22 in MMSE, an index of global cognition. In addition, increased thinning in the left 23 rostral middle frontal regions was correlated with both the orientation and language 24 components of the CAMCOG assessment. Similarly, reductions in prefrontal volumes 25 have been correlated with attentional deficits [38]. Despite the small sample size in

1 our study, the potential of the frontal lobe as a plausible biomarker for cognitive 2 impairment in DLB should be established further in a larger cohort of DLB subjects. 3 4 Increased cortical thinning over 1 year in AD relative to HC was found in the 5 temporo-parietal areas extending to the frontal regions. Our results are thus in 6 agreement with earlier studies demonstrating that AD is associated with progressive 7 loss of whole brain volumes, particularly in the medial temporal structures [25]. 8 Increased rates of cortical thinning were also found in the precuneus and the isthmus 9 of the cingulate gyrus. Both structures are involved in the default mode network, 10 which has been found to be impaired in AD [39]. Indeed, the precuneus has been 11 implicated in episodic memory [40] while the posterior cingulate projects strongly to 12 the enthorinal and parahippocampal cortices, both of which are among the earliest 13 sites of pathological changes in AD [41]. 14 15 Consistent with the differential patterns of progressive cortical thinning in AD and 16 DLB, our longitudinal analyses of subcortical changes also revealed significantly 17 faster atrophy in the AD group, particularly in the hippocampus, and the thalamus 18 albeit at trend level. The finding of increased ventricular expansion in AD compared 19 to HC and DLB also agrees with previous studies [42]. 20 21 The major strengths of the study include the comprehensive neuropsychological 22 assessment and a well-characterized group of probable DLB and AD patients. In 23 addition, all the groups were matched for age, gender, and educational level. The 24 longitudinal design, a rarity in the DLB imaging literature, allowed us to address 25 unanswered questions related to the progression and clinical implications of cortical

1 thinning in Lewy body dementia. Some potential limitations of this study include the 2 lack of neuropathological verification of AD and DLB, as subject groups were based 3 on clinical diagnosis, though this is an inherent limitation of all ante-mortem imaging 4 studies. Furthermore, we have previously demonstrated good agreement between 5 clinical and pathological diagnosis using the consensus clinical diagnostic method 6 adopted here [43]. Attrition of subjects is also a common drawback in longitudinal 7 studies. Less than half (n=14) of the originally recruited DLB subjects (n=35)8 returned for a follow-up assessment due to disease progression including 9 deaths. 9 However, they did not differ from those who were unable to complete the 12-month 10 assessment (n=21) in age or measures of global cognition, neuropsychiatric features 11 or motor parkinsonism (Table 2). Finally, to minimize the number of comparisons 12 between the DLB, AD and HC groups, we have summed the left and right 13 hemispheric measures of each subcortical structure. Although there is no evidence to 14 indicate systematic laterality of subcortical changes in AD and DLB, our combined 15 volumes for each structure might have resulted in a loss of potential information about 16 asymmetrical disease-related changes. 17 18 5. Conclusion 19 In accordance with our hypothesis, faster thinning over 1 year was found in the 20 temporal lobe in AD relative to DLB. Besides validating the inclusion of the medial 21 temporal lobe as a supportive biomarker in the revised diagnostic criteria for DLB, 22 our findings also highlight the clinical utility of longitudinal cortical thinning as a 23 complementary imaging marker to differentiate DLB from AD. Greater cortical 24 thinning could exert deleterious effects on global cognitive decline and was associated 25 with increasing motor severity in DLB. However, our finding of similar rates of

1 cortical thinning in DLB and HC underscores the ongoing need to develop other 2 surrogate biomarkers of disease progression in DLB. 3 4 Acknowledgements 5 This work was supported by the Sir Jules Thorn Charitable Trust, the NIHR 6 Biomedical Research Unit in Dementia and the Biomedical Research Centre awarded 7 to Cambridge University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust and the University of 8 Cambridge, and the NIHR Biomedical Research Unit in Dementia and the Biomedical 9 Research Centre awarded to Newcastle upon Tyne Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust 10 and the Newcastle University. Elijah Mak was in receipt of a Gates Cambridge PhD 11 studentship. 12 13 **Contributions** 14 Elijah Mak formulated the research question, performed the statistical analyses, 15 interpreted the results, and wrote the manuscript. 16 Li Su and Guy Williams assisted with the interpretation of the results, and provided 17 comments and additional suggestions for revisions of the draft. 18 Rosie Watson, recruited and assessed study participants, assisted with the 19 interpretation of the results, and reviewed the manuscript. 20 Michael Firbank designed the imaging protocol, assisted with the interpretation of the 21 results, and reviewed the manuscript. 22 Andrew Blamire obtained funding for the project, designed the imaging protocol, 23 undertook routine quality assurance on the MR system, assisted with the 24 interpretation of the results, and reviewed the manuscript.

- 1 John O'Brien obtained funding for the project, designed the imaging protocol,
- 2 assisted with recruitment of study participants, assisted with the interpretation of the
- 3 results, and reviewed the manuscript.
- 4 All authors approved the final manuscript.

6 **Disclosures**

- 7 Elijah Mak has no conflict of interests.
- 8 Li Su has no conflict of interests.
- 9 Guy Williams has no conflict of interests.
- 10 Rosie Watson has no conflict of interests.
- 11 Andrew Blamire has no conflict of interests.
- 12 Michael Firbank has no conflict of interests.
- John O'Brien has acted as a consultant for GE Healthcare, Lilly, TauRx and Cytox.

				MAK 18
	HC	DLB	AD	p value
n	33	13	23	
Gender (m:f)	20:13	12:1	13:10	$\chi^2 = 5.28, 0.07^{\$}$
Age (yrs)	76.7 ± 5.3	77.0 ± 8.3	76.5 ± 5.4	$F_{2,68}=0.03, p=0.97^*$
Education (yrs)	11.8 ± 2.6	10.6 ± 1.9	11.3 ± 3.8	$p=0.16^{k}$
Disease duration (mths)		52.2 ± 20.4	51.8 ± 26.5	$p=0.96^{\dagger}$
ChEI (%)		76.92	91.30	$\chi^2 = 1.44$, p=0.23\\$
BADL		17.41 ± 10.17	14.09 ± 7.87	$p=0.23^{\text{w}}$
UPDRS				-
Baseline	1.9 ± 1.8	27.7 ± 8.0	4.7 ± 4.1	p<0.01 ^k
Follow-up	2.1 ± 2.0	32.6 ± 13.2	5.7 ± 4.8	p<0.01 ^k
Change	-0.2 ± 2.0	-4.9 ± 8.4	-1.0 ± 2.4	p=0.09 ^w
NPI Total				-
Baseline		21.1 ± 16.8	19.4 ± 12.4	p=0.81 ^w
Follow-up		24.8 ± 14.9	19.7 ± 15.0	$p=0.30^{w}$
Change		-3.7 ± 17.4	-0.3 ± 11.8	$p=0.50^{t}$
CogFluct				-
Baseline		8.1 ± 3.4	2.8 ± 3.6	p<0.01 ^w
Follow-up		7.8 ± 5.4	1.8 ± 3.3	p<0.01 ^w
Change		-0.1 ± 4.4	1.0 ± 4.6	$p=0.52^{t}$
MMSE				
Baseline	29.2 ± 0.9	21.3 ± 6.3	20.9 ± 4.0	$p=0.80^{\dagger}$
Follow-up	29.2 ± 0.9	19.8 ± 5.8	18.8 ± 4.2	$p=0.60^{\dagger}$
Change	-0.1 ± 1.0	2.6 ± 2.9	2.0 ± 3.2	$P=0.63^{\dagger}$
CAMCOG				
Baseline	97.8 ± 3.3	69.9 ± 18.0	69.2 ± 11.3	$p=0.90^{\dagger}$
Follow-up	98.6 ± 2.8	66.8 ± 17.9	62.2 ± 14.4	$p=0.42^{\dagger}$
Change	-0.8 ± 2.50	5.8 ± 10.8	7.0 ± 10.2	$p=0.74^{\dagger}$
BVMT-Total				
Baseline	18.9 ± 6.7	6.23 ± 6.7	4.2 ± 2.7	$p = 0.51^{w}$
Follow-up	21.9 ± 5.8	7.8 ± 7.7	5.2 ± 2.6	p=0.51 w
Change	-3.0 ± 5.3	-0.1 ± 4.5	-1.0 ± 2.7	a †
_				$p=0.48^{\dagger}$
Interscan interval (days)	370.9 ± 13.3	379.1 ± 18.8	379.6 ± 17.8	$p=0.21^{k}$

- 1 Table 1. Demographics, clinical and neuropsychological measures.
- 2 Values expressed as Mean \pm 1SD. \S χ 2– DLB, AD, Controls; *ANOVA HC, DLB,
- 3 AD. ^k Kruskal-Wallis test. ^w Wilcoxon rank-sum test AD and DLB. † Student's t-
- 4 test AD and DLB. Abbreviations: DLB = dementia with Lewy bodies; AD =
- 5 Alzheimer's disease; HC = Healthy control; UPDRS III = Unified Parkinson's
- 6 Disease Rating Scale, Part III; NPI Total = Neuropsychiatry Inventory; CogFluct =
- 7 Cognitive Fluctuation Scale; MMSE = Mini-Mental State examination; CAMCOG =

1 Cambridge Cognitive Examination; BADLS = Bristol Activities of Daily Living

2 Scale.

3 4

	DLB	DLB	P value	5 6
	dropped-out	returned		7
n	21	14		8
				9
Gender (m:f)	14:7	13:1	$\chi^2=3.3, 0.07$	10 ^{1§} 11 12
Age (yrs)	79.1 ± 6.2	77.2 ± 8.0	p=0.43 [†]	13 14 15
Education (yrs)	11.0 ± 3.0	10.5 ± 1.9	p=0.69 ^w	16 17
UPDRS	25.1 ± 12.3	27.2 ± 7.9	p=0.58 [†]	18 19 20
NPI Total	21.4 ± 18.1	21.5 ± 16.1	p=0.70 ^w	21 22 23
CogFluct	4.6 ± 3.3	8.4 ± 3.4	p<0.01 [†]	24 25 26
MMSE	19.7 ± 4.7	21.2 ± 6.0	p=0.42 [†]	27 28
CAMCOG	66.2 ± 14.0	69.9 ± 17.3	p=0.49 [†]	29 30 31 32

33 34

Table 2. Demographics and clinical characteristics of DLB subjects.

35

- 36 Values expressed as Mean \pm 1SD
- 37 [§] γ2– Chi-Square test; ^w Wilcoxon rank-sum test. † Student's t-test.
- 38 Abbreviations: DLB = dementia with Lewy bodies; UPDRS III = Unified Parkinson's
- 39 Disease Rating Scale, Part III; NPI Total = Neuropsychiatry Inventory; CogFluct =
- 40 Cognitive Fluctuation Scale; MMSE = Mini-Mental State examination; CAMCOG =
- 41 Cambridge Cognitive Examination.

Subcortical structures &	Percentage of change ^a			Group comparisons of longitudinal subcortical atrophy b		
lateral ventricle	нс	DLB	AD	AD vs HC	DLB vs HC	AD vs DLB
Thalamus	-0.87%	-2.01%	-2.41%	0.001*	0.06	0.82
Caudate	-1.47%	-3.77%	-3.20%	0.23	0.21	0.93
Putamen	-0.39%	-0.30%	-0.82%	0.80	0.99	0.82
Pallidum	-0.04%	-0.58%	0.20%	0.97	0.52	0.45
Hippocampus	-1.70%	-2.51%	-5.76%	<0.001**	0.90	0.006**
Amygdala	-2.41%	-6.25%	-4.80%	0.17	0.11	0.84
Accumbens	-0.33%	-1.00%	-2.05%	0.87	0.94	0.76
Lateral ventricle	+ 4.29%	+ 4.70%	+ 8.91%	<0.001**	0.990	0.008*

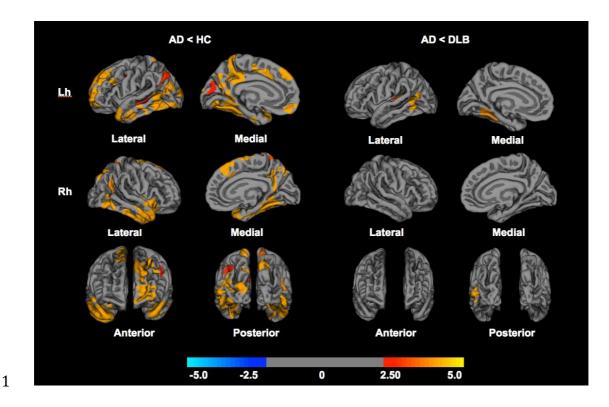
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Table 3. Comparisons of longitudinal atrophy in subcortical structures and

- 3 lateral ventricle expansion between groups.
- ^a Percentage of change in volumes between baseline and follow-up, measured
- 5 according to baseline.
- 6 b Group-comparisons were performed with ANCOVA, correcting for age, gender and
- 7 the average total intracranial volume, followed by post-hoc Tukey-Kramer pairwise
- 8 comparisons.
- 9 * Significant difference at standard threshold of p < 0.05 without correction for
- multiple comparisons.
- ** Significant difference between groups after Bonferroni correction for multiple
- 12 comparisons.
- Abbreviations: DLB, dementia with Lewy bodies; AD, Alzheimer's disease; HC,
- 14 Healthy control.

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2 Figure 1. Vertex-wise comparisons of progressive cortical thinning between (A)

- 3 AD and HC, (B) AD and DLB. Results were corrected using family-wise error
- 4 correction with Z Monte Carlo simulation (10,000) iterations and thresholded at a
- 5 corrected P value of 0.01 (Z=2.0). Age and sex were included as nuisance covariates.
- 6 The color bar shows the logarithmic scale of p values ($-\log_{10}$).
- 7 Abbreviations: DLB = dementia with Lewy bodies; AD = Alzheimer's disease; HC =
- 8 healthy controls; Lh = left hemisphere; Rh = right hemisphere.

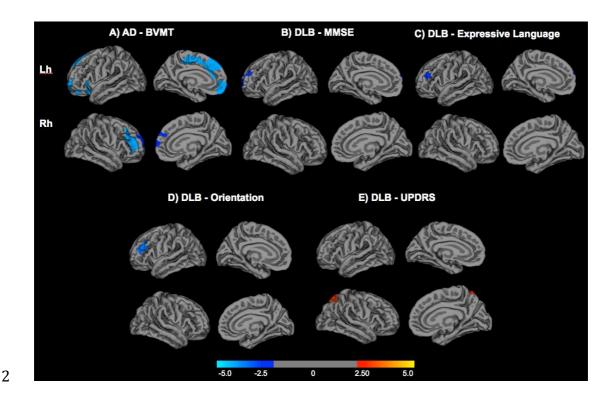


Figure 2. Vertex-wise correlations between percent of cortical thinning and

longitudinal decline in (A) BVMT total scores in AD, (B) MMSE in DLB, (C)

CAMCOG-Expressive Language in DLB, (D) CAMCOG-orientation scores in

DLB, **(E) UPDRS progression in DLB**. Results were corrected using family-wise

error correction with Z Monte Carlo simulation (10,000) iterations and thresholded at

a corrected P value of 0.01 (Z=2.0). The color bar shows the logarithmic scale of p

values ($-\log_{10}$). Abbreviations: DLB = dementia with Lewy bodies; AD = Alzheimer's

disease; Lh = left hemisphere; Rh = right hemisphere; MMSE = Mini-Mental State

examination; CAMCOG = Cambridge Cognitive Examination; BVMT = Brief

Visuospatial Memory Test; UPDRS = Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale.

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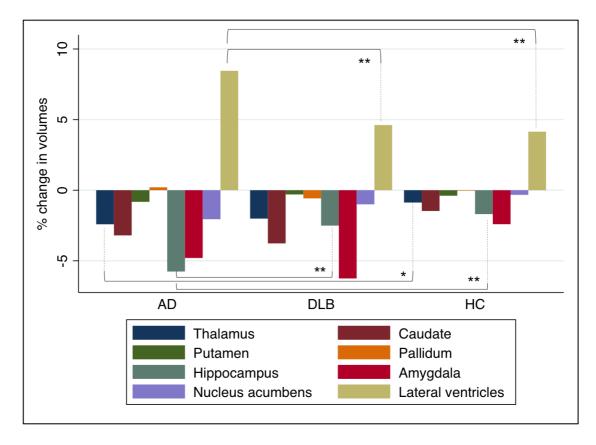
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Figure 3. Longitudinal atrophy in subcortical structures and lateral ventricle

- 4 expansion.
- * Significant difference at standard threshold of p < 0.05 without correction for
- 6 multiple comparisons.
- 7 ** Significant difference between groups after Bonferroni correction for multiple
- 8 comparisons.
- 9 Abbreviations: DLB, dementia with Lewy bodies; AD, Alzheimer's disease; HC,
- 10 Healthy control.

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