

# Attentional compensation in neurodegenerative diseases: the model of premanifest Huntington's disease mutation carriers

Lorna Le Stanc, Marine Lunven, Maria Giavazzi, Agnes Sliwinski, Pierre Brugieres, Katia Youssov, Anne-Catherine Bachoud-Lévi, Charlotte Jacquemot

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- 1 Research Article
- 2 Attentional compensation in neurodegenerative diseases: the model of
- 3 premanifest Huntington's disease mutation carriers
- 4 Abbreviated title: Attentional compensation in Huntington's disease
- 5 Lorna Le Stanc<sup>1, 2, 3</sup>
- 6 Marine Lunven <sup>1, 2, 3</sup>
- 7 Maria Giavazzi <sup>1, 2, 3</sup>
- 8 Agnès Sliwinski <sup>1, 2, 3, 4</sup>
- 9 Pierre Brugières <sup>5</sup>
- 10 Katia Youssov <sup>1, 2, 3, 4</sup>
- 11 Anne-Catherine Bachoud-Lévi <sup>1, 2, 3, 4</sup>
- 12 Charlotte Jacquemot <sup>1, 2, 3</sup>
- 13
- 14 1-Département d'Études Cognitives, École normale supérieure, PSL University, 75005 Paris,
  15 France
- 16 2-Université Paris-Est Créteil, Faculté de Médecine, 94000, Créteil, France

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- 1 3- Inserm U955, Institut Mondor de Recherche Biomédicale, Equipe E01 NeuroPsychologie
- 2 Interventionnelle, 94000, Créteil, France
- 3 4-AP-HP, Centre de référence Maladie de Huntington, Service de Neurologie, Hôpital Henri
- 4 Mondor-Albert Chenevier, 94000 Créteil, France
- 5 5-AP-HP, Service de Neuroradiologie, Hôpital Henri Mondor-Albert Chenevier, 94000 Créteil,
- 6 France.
- 7 Correspondence to:
- 8 Charlotte Jacquemot
- 9 Laboratoire de NeuroPsychologie Interventionnelle, Département d'Études Cognitives,
- 10 École normale supérieure
- 11 29 rue d'Ulm
- 12 75005 Paris, France
- 13 E-mail: <u>charlotte.jacquemot@ens.fr</u>
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# 1 Abstract

2 The ability of the brain to actively cope with neuropathological insults is known as neural 3 compensation. It explains the delayed appearance of cognitive symptoms in neurodegenerative diseases. In contrast to the neural signature of compensation, its cognitive counterpart is largely 4 5 unknown due to the difficulty of identifying cognitive dysfunctions concealed by compensation 6 mechanisms. We combined computational modelling and neuroanatomical analysis to explore 7 cognitive compensation. We used Huntington's disease (HD) as a genetic model of 8 neurodegenerative disease allowing to study compensation in premanifest mutation carriers 9 (preHDs) free from overt cognitive deficits despite incipient brain atrophy.

10 Twenty preHDs, 28 HD patients and 45 controls performed a discrimination task. We 11 investigated the processes underlying cognitive compensation using drift diffusion models. 12 They assume that the discrimination process relies on the accumulation of evidence at a certain 13 rate and terminates when a response threshold is reached.

14 HD patients' performances were lower than controls' and explained by a higher response 15 threshold and a lower accumulation rate compared to controls. PreHDs performed similarly to 16 controls but had a response threshold between those of controls and HD patients. This nascent 17 increase in response threshold predicted the accumulation rate, which was faster than controls. 18 This suggests that the higher accumulation rate conceals the nascent deficit in response 19 threshold corroborating the capacity of the brain to resist neuropathological insults in preHDs. 20 The higher accumulation rate was associated with parietal hypertrophy in mutation carriers, and 21 with higher hippocampal volumes in preHDs suggesting that cognitive compensation may rely 22 on attentional capacities.

# 1 Significance statement

2 Enhancing mechanisms compensating brain degeneration in neurodegenerative diseases might 3 allow to delay their onset and progression. Yet, the cognitive mechanisms of compensation 4 remain to be identified. In order to explore this issue, we used Huntington's disease as a genetic 5 model of neurodegenerative diseases and combined computational modelling (drift diffusion 6 models) and neuroanatomical data analysis. In the early stage of the disease, before the 7 appearance of overt cognitive symptoms, we showed the involvement of the left superior 8 parietal cortex and hippocampus in maintaining normal behavioural performances. This 9 suggests that attention is used to compensate for brain atrophy early in the disease. This work 10 describes promising means of measuring and understanding compensation mechanisms in 11 neurodegenerative diseases and might help developing new therapies.

# 12 Keywords

13 Premanifest, Huntington's disease, Attention, Cognitive compensation, Drift diffusion models

# 14 Abbreviations

- 15 DDMs = Drift Diffusion Models
- 16 earlyHDs = Huntington's disease patients at an early stage of the disease
- 17 preHDs = participants with premanifest Huntington's disease

# 1 Introduction

2 Brain atrophy precedes intellectual deterioration in neurodegenerative diseases (Tabrizi et al., 3 2009). Normal behaviour is maintained until the pathological load becomes too great, leading 4 to the appearance of clinical symptoms (Papoutsi et al., 2014; Gregory et al., 2018; Soloveva 5 et al., 2018). The ability of the brain to actively cope with neuropathological insults underlies 6 the cognitive reserve, which depends on lifetime intellectual activities and environmental 7 factors. It is based on the brain's capacity to increase the efficiency of an existing vet 8 deteriorating network (neural reserve) and/or to recruit other regions when performing a task 9 (neural compensation) (Barulli and Stern, 2013; Soloveva et al., 2018). Neurodegenerative diseases do not affect all brain parts and functions equally and simultaneously; some cognitive 10 11 functions may compensate for others impacted earlier. Whereas the concept of compensation 12 is widely accepted (Papoutsi et al., 2014; Gregory et al., 2018), the cognitive functions 13 underlying it are still unknown mainly because methods for studying and measuring them are 14 lacking.

15 Assessing cognitive dysfunction concealed by cognitive compensation requires the 16 identification and the disentanglement of underlying cognitive dysfunction and compensation 17 mechanisms. Generally, neurodegenerative diseases remain undiagnosed until disease 18 manifestation - a point at which it is difficult to study cognitive compensation since 19 compensation mechanisms are no longer effective. Huntington's disease is an inherited, 20 monogenetic (expanded CAG repeat in the huntingtin gene), dominant, and fully penetrant 21 neurodegenerative disease (Tabrizi et al., 2011). Individuals with more than 40 CAG repeats 22 will develop the disease. This allows for identifying premanifest Huntington's disease gene 23 carriers (preHDs) before the clinical onset of the disease and motor, cognitive and psychiatric 24 deterioration (Ross et al., 2019). Therefore, Huntington's disease is a particularly well-suited

neurodegenerative model for studying compensation mechanisms from genetic diagnosis to
 onset of overt clinical manifestations (Tabrizi et al., 2011; Malejko et al., 2014; Gregory et al.,
 2018).

4 In this study, we used drift diffusion models (DDMs) (Ratcliff and Mckoon, 2008; Mulder et 5 al., 2014) to decipher cognitive dysfunction from compensation mechanisms that we would 6 otherwise be unable to study separately (Wiecki et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016; Anders et al., 7 2017). DDMs unravel the different steps of the decision process when having to choose between 8 two alternatives (A or B). They rely on the hypothesis that one needs to accumulate a certain 9 amount of sensory evidence in order to decide between the two alternatives. The amount of 10 evidence accumulated and its rate of accumulation are obtained by fitting the distributions of 11 responses (alternative A or B) and response time combined.

12 We applied DDMs to preHDs without overt cognitive symptoms, patients at an early stage of 13 Huntington's disease (earlyHDs), and controls. PreHDs perform at least as well as healthy participants in most cognitive tasks, despite displaying incipient atrophy of the striatum 14 15 (Snowden et al., 2002; Tabrizi et al., 2009; Stout et al., 2012) and functional changes (Feigin et al., 2006; Klöppel et al., 2009; Wolf et al., 2012) suggesting the deployment of compensation 16 17 mechanisms in most cognitive domains. Yet, language impairments have been reported in 18 preHDs in small cohorts of participants (de Diego Balaguer et al., 2008; Németh et al., 2012; 19 Hinzen et al., 2018). We therefore designed a language discrimination task in which participants 20 were asked to decide whether two pseudowords were identical or different. This task relies on 21 an automatic linguistic process that does not require any learning procedure (Näätänen et al., 22 1997; Dehaene-Lambertz and Baillet, 1998). We first analysed behavioural data, assuming that 23 preHDs would not show overt deficits whereas earlyHDs should have some, assuming that their 24 compensation mechanisms would no longer be effective. We then used DDMs to identify

- 1 subclinical deficits and cognitive compensation mechanisms in preHDs. Finally, in order to
- 2 explore the correlation between cognitive compensation mechanisms and brain structure, we
- 3 assessed the neuroanatomical correlates of these mechanisms.

## 1 Materials and methods

#### 2 Participants and clinical assessment

3 We recruited 93 native French-speaking participants between December 2013 and July 2017. 4 Forty-eight were Huntington's disease mutation carriers evaluated with the Unified Huntington's Disease Rating Scale (Huntington Study Group, 1996), the Mattis Dementia 5 6 Rating Scale (Mattis, 1976), forward digit span and categorical fluency. Twenty-eight were at 7 an early stage of the disease (earlyHDs; stages I and II of the classification based on the total 8 functional capacity score of the Unified Huntington's Disease Rating Scale), and the other 20 9 were at the premanifest stage (preHDs; total functional capacity score of 13 and total motor 10 score below five (Tabrizi et al., 2009) and no overt cognitive deficits (Ross et al., 2019)). Forty-11 five were healthy participants recruited as controls and matched with the earlyHDs and preHDs 12 for demographic variables, such as sex, handedness, years of education, and age (all p > 0.05). 13 The two mutation carrier groups were also matched for demographic variables (all p>0.05) except for age (p < 0.05). The participants had no neurological or psychiatric disorders other than 14 Huntington's disease in the mutation carriers. The demographic and clinical description of 15 16 participants are summarised Table 1 and Table 2.

This study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (2008). Participants were recruited from a clinical biomarker study (NCT01412125) in outpatients approved by the ethics committee of Henri Mondor Hospital (Créteil, France). Participant inclusion ended when 45 valid brain MRI scans had been obtained from mutation carriers. All participants gave written informed consent and were tested at Henri Mondor Hospital or at the Ecole normale supérieure (Paris, France).

#### 1 Table 1. Demographic and clinical data for participants

	controls	preHDs	earlyHDs
Number of participants	45	20	28
Number of MRI scans	_	20	26
Sex	26F / 19M	13F / 7M	16F / 12M
Handedness	38R / 7L	19R / 1L	25R / 3L
Age in years	45.4±6.1	41.4±10.3	49.6±11.4
Education in years	13.4±2.1	14.1±2.4	13.1±3.2
Number of CAG repeats	—	43±2.5	45.3±4.8
Total Functional Capacity score	—	13±0	11.7±1
Total Motor Score		0.6±1.2	27.5±11.2
Burden score	—	297.1±86.1	444.4±110.2
Estimated age from onset	—	8.4±10.1	—
Mattis Dementia Rating Scale		141.8±2.8	132.9±9.1

preHDs: premanifest participants; earlyHDs: Huntington's disease patients at an early stage of the
disease; number of CAG repeats: pathological threshold > 35; Burden Score= (CAG-35.5) x age;
Estimated age from onset = age diagnosis estimation – age, with age diagnosis estimation = 21.54 +
exp(9.556 - (0.146 x number of cag repeats)) (Langbehn et al., 2004); Mattis Dementia Rating Scale:
pathological score below 136/144; F: female; M: male; R: right; L: left; mean±standard deviation.

7

# 8 Experimental design

9 We designed a language discrimination task, using pseudowords, in which participants had to
10 determine whether two pseudowords were identical or different (Fig. 1A).



# 2 Figure 1. Discrimination task and hierarchical drift diffusion model.

3 (A) Participants heard two pseudowords (A and X) separated by the 100 ms and had to decide whether 4 they were identical or not. The response time (RT) is the sum of the non-decision time (Ter) and the 5 decision processes (Td): RT=Ter+Td. (B) Example of the trajectory of the drift diffusion model for a 6 "same" trial in which the correct response was delivered. Two decision boundaries (0 and a) represent 7 the "same" and "different" decisions. The drift rate, v, represents the rate of evidence accumulation. The 8 diffusion process starts between the two boundaries at zr (= 0.5 if not biased toward one of the 9 alternatives) and continues until it reaches one of the two boundaries. The predicted response time is the 10 sum of the durations of the diffusion process called decision time and the non-decision time 11 encompassing stimulus pre-processing and motor planning and execution.

1 The pseudowords had one to three syllables and zero to two consonant clusters. Items consisted 2 of a pair of pseudowords presented 100 ms apart. The two pseudowords were identical in half 3 the items and differed by a single consonant (e.g. /tiplysk/ and /tipuysk/) in the other half. The 4 location of the consonant that differed was varied between trials to prevent expectation. Twelve 5 items were presented per number of syllables (one to three), consonant cluster (0 to two) and 6 type of trial ("same/different"), resulting in 216 trials in total. A female native French speaker 7 (the last author) pronounced the pseudowords for the recording, with each pseudoword lasting 8 1030±165 ms.

9 The participants sat in a quiet room, in front of an Apple MacBook Pro (AZERTY keyboard), 10 wearing headphones adjusted for hearing comfort. They were asked to press the "s" key labelled 11 "P" for "pareil" (same) if the two sequences were identical, or the "l" key labelled "D" for 12 "différent" (different) if they differed. The experiment began with a training session of four 13 trials with feedback, followed by the experimental trials without feedback. Response 14 ("same/different"), accuracy (correct or incorrect response) and response time were recorded after each item. The response triggered the presentation of the next trial, 1000 ms later. The 15 16 task lasted less than 10 minutes in total. Except for the training session, trials were randomized 17 within two blocks separated by a break.

#### 18 Statistical analyses of behavioural data

#### 19 Clinical cognitive assessment

We analysed the effect of group on the forward digit span, categorical fluency and Unified
Huntington's Disease Rating Scale cognitive scores using ANOVAs with group as a between-

participants factor and age as a covariate to control for the difference in age between the
 mutation carrier groups.

### 3 Analyses of response times and accuracy

The training trials were not included in the analyses. Trials in which participants withdrew temporarily from the experiment and answered before the end of the trial item were removed, resulting in a 0.06% loss of data. Accuracy analyses were run on the remaining trials after calculating the mean accuracy by subject. Response time analyses were run on correct trials (3.9% loss) lasting more than 150 ms (8.1% loss) and after logarithmic transformation to ensure a normal distribution.

We analysed the effect of group on mean accuracy using a linear model and response time using a linear mixed effects model (models that can deal with unbalanced data sets and missing data contrary to ANOVAs). We focused on three group comparisons of interest: preHDs/controls, earlyHDs/controls and preHDs/earlyHDs using the package "multicomp" with single-step correction from R version 3.4.0. We included age as a covariate in both analyses. In the response time analyses, the maximum random structure allowing convergence without over fitting included participant and item as random intercepts.

#### 17 Model fit and selection

We used DDMs (Ratcliff and Mckoon, 2008; Mulder et al., 2014) to analyse the mechanisms underlying the forced decision between "same" and "different". These models assume that sensory evidence is accumulated at a certain speed, called the drift rate (v), up to a response threshold (a) triggering the motor response. Accumulating evidence takes time. It is a noisy process requiring multiple evidence samples to extract information from the stimulus before

1 enough evidence is collected to make a decision. The time required for non-decisional 2 processes, such as stimulus processing, motor preparation and execution, is captured in the non-3 decision time (Ter). The a priori bias towards one of the alternatives is called the relative bias 4 (zr) (Fig. 1 B). These four parameters (v, a, Ter and zr) are obtained by fitting the distribution 5 of responses ("same" or "different") and the corresponding response time at each trial. In our 6 task, the participant hears two pseudowords. First, the acoustic information is transformed into 7 neural information (stimulus processing). Then, the phonological distance between them is 8 assessed in the brain at a certain speed (drift rate of evidence accumulation). According the 9 participant's conservatism, the amount of evidence required to decide will be more or less 10 elevated (response threshold). Once the decision is taken, the participant presses the corresponding key (motor preparation and execution). 11

12 We used Bayesian hierarchical DDMs (Wiecki et al., 2013), currently the most efficient method 13 for dealing with small numbers of observations (Ratcliff and Childers, 2015). This approach assumes that individual parameter estimates are random samples of group-level distributions. 14 It provides probability distributions for parameters, called posterior distributions, rather than 15 16 single-value estimates. Data were cleaned as in behavioural analyses, but Bayesian hierarchical 17 DDMs use both correct and incorrect responses and response times without logarithmic 18 transformation. We assumed the same absolute drift rate value for both answers ("same" and 19 "different"), allowing for a possible relative bias.

We tested two variants of the Bayesian hierarchical DDMs, with different group-levelparameters.

In the first model (full model), each parameter had three group-level distributions, corresponding to the three groups of participants (controls, preHDs, earlyHDs). The second model (parsimonious model), assumed that only the response threshold and drift rate had

different group-level distributions. Using the recommended procedures to fit and assess model
convergence (Wiecki et al., 2013) (Supplementary Methods 1), we selected the parsimonious
model; as the full one did not capture any additional data patterns (Supplementary Methods 2
and Supplementary Table 1).

#### 5 Analysis of model parameters

6 We analysed the effect of group on the parameters with group-level distributions: response 7 threshold and drift rate. The hierarchical structure of the model violates the independence 8 assumption of classical frequentist statistics. Bayesian statistics were used for direct 9 comparisons of group posterior distributions. Bayesian probabilities are denoted *P(hypothesis)* 10 and express the probability of a hypothesis being true. As a mock example, we can test the hypothesis that earlyHDs have a higher drift rate than controls ( $P(v_{earlyHDs} > v_{controls})$ ). A 11 12 probability of 0.95 would indicate that there is 95% chance that it is true, while a probability of 13 0.05% would indicate that there is 95% chance that earlyHDs have instead a lower drift rate 14 compared to controls ( $P(v_{earlvHDs} > v_{controls}) = 1 - P(v_{earlvHDs} < v_{controls})$ ). A probability of 0.5 would 15 indicate that both hypotheses (higher or lower drift rate) are equally probable.

# 16 Statistical analysis of structural imaging data

Forty-six brain MRI scans were obtained within about three months of behavioural data acquisition in gene carriers (20 preHDs and 26 earlyHDs). They were compared with 30 scans from external healthy participants (imaging controls), matched with the mutation carriers for age and sex ( $46.1 \pm 13.9$  years old, 15 females). We first studied the differences in subcortical and cortical structure between the mutation carriers and imaging control groups. We then

studied the relationship between brain structure and the behavioural measures (response time,
 accuracy, drift rate and response threshold) for the mutation carriers.

# 3 MRI acquisition and preprocessing

Three-dimensional T1-weighted structural scans were acquired with a MP-RAGE sequence on
a Siemens symphony 1.5 Tesla whole-body scanner (Henri Mondor Hospital, Paris, France)
with a 12-channel head coil (TR=2400 ms, TE=3.72 ms, TI=1000 ms, FA=8°, FOV=256\*256
mm<sup>2</sup>, 1-mm isotropic voxel, slice thickness=1 mm, no inter-slice gap, 160 sagittal sections).

8 MRI scans were preprocessed with Freesurfer (http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu/) (Fischl et 9 al., 2002). The procedure included the removal of non-brain tissue, normalization of the 10 intensity of the grey/white matter boundary, automated topology correction, and surface 11 deformation. The following subcortical structures were automatically segmented: thalamus, 12 caudate, putamen, pallidum, hippocampus, amygdala and the nucleus accumbens. Cortical 13 thickness (in mm) was calculated as the shortest distance between the grey/white matter 14 boundary and the pial surface at each vertex across the cortical mantle (Fischl and Dale, 2000). 15 All reconstructed data were visually checked for segmentation accuracy by a neuropsychologist 16 (ML) trained to brain structural segmentation analysis and reviewed by an expert neurologist 17 blinded to participants genetical status. The spherical cortical thickness data for all subjects 18 were mapped onto an "average" subject by surface-based registration methods (Fischl et al., 19 1999), to match morphologically homologous cortical locations between subjects. We used a 20 10 mm full-width at half-maximum Gaussian kernel to smooth maps of cortical thickness.

#### 1 Neuroanatomical differences between groups

2 We analysed the neuroanatomical differences between imaging controls, preHDs and 3 earlyHDs.

For each subcortical volume normalized to the total intracranial volume, we performed an
ANOVA, with group as a main effect and age as covariate. ANOVA's *p*-values were divided
by seven to correct for multiple comparisons on the seven subcortical structures (Bonferroni
correction).

In the cortex, vertex-wise comparisons of cortical thickness values between groups were performed in Freesurfer with generalised linear models, with cortical thickness as the dependent variable, group as the predictive factor, and age as covariates. At each vertex, *F*-statistics were calculated to test the hypothesis of a difference in cortical thickness for each group comparison (two-tailed test). We corrected for multiple comparisons by family-wise error cluster-based correction, using Monte Carlo simulations with 10,000 iterations.

#### 14 Relationship between brain structure and behavioural measures in mutation carriers

We explored the relationship between the neuroanatomical structure and behavioural measures
(mean accuracy, mean response time, drift rate and response threshold) in mutation carriers
depending on the disease stage (preHDs or earlyHDs).

For each subcortical structure/measure combination, we fitted a linear model with the measure as the dependant variable, the subcortical volume normalized to the intracranial volume and disease stage as predictive variables, and age as covariate. We tested the interactions between disease stage and the subcortical volume. *P*-values were Bonferroni-corrected for multiple comparisons over the seven subcortical structures. If the interaction was not significant, the

disease stage was removed from the analysis before testing the effect of the volume on the given
 measure.

3 In the cortex, we fitted one generalised linear model for each measure with the cortical thickness 4 as the dependant variable, the measure and the disease stage as predictive variables, and age as 5 covariates. At each vertex, F-statistics were calculated to test the hypothesis of an interaction 6 between cortical thickness and disease stage. We corrected for multiple comparisons by family-7 wise error cluster-based correction, using Monte Carlo simulations with 10,000 iterations. If 8 there was no cluster with a significant interaction, the disease stage was removed from the 9 analysis before testing the hypothesis of the non-null relationship (two-tailed test) between the 10 measure and the cortical thickness. The analyses described being conservative, we performed 11 one-tailed test (t-statistics) testing the hypothesis of a positive or negative relationship. We 12 report the results in the supplementary material (Supplementary Fig. 1 and Supplementary 13 Table 2).

Finally, in order to locate preHDs and earlyHDs compared to healthy participants in the significant clusters, we used the clusters identified by the generalised linear model analyses as regions of interest, from which we extracted cortical thickness values for imaging controls and mutation carriers. We tested for differences in cortical thickness between preHDs and imaging controls and earlyHDs and imaging controls by performing an ANOVA on the mean cortical thickness for each significant cluster.

# 1 Results

#### 2 Analysis of behavioural data

#### **3** Clinical cognitive assessment

4 ANOVAs showed significant main effects of group (controls, preHDs, earlyHDs) for the 5 forward digit span, the categorical fluency and each cognitive scores of the Unified 6 Huntington's Disease Rating Scale. Tukey's post-hoc analyses revealed that the earlyHDs were 7 impaired on each test compared to preHDs and controls (all p<0.05), whereas preHDs 8 performances were similar to controls (all p>0.05) (Table 2).

# 9 Analysis of response times and accuracy

10 EarlyHDs were less accurate and slower than controls and preHDs ([earlyHDs/controls] 11 accuracy:  $\beta$ =-0.011±0.002, 95%CI=[-0.015,-0.007], t=-6.8, p<0.001; response time: 12  $\beta$ =0.060±0.007, 95%CI=[0.044,0.076], z=8.7, p<0.001. [earlyHDs/preHDs] accuracy:  $\beta$ =-13 0.006±0.001, 95%CI=[-0.008,-0.004], t=-5.9, p<0.001; response time:  $\beta$ =0.032±0.004, 14 95%CI=[0.022,0.042], z=7.5, p<0.001). By contrast, preHDs performed as well as controls 15 (accuracy:  $\beta$ =0.001±0.002, 95%CI=[-0.004,0.005], t=0.3, p=0.97; response time:  $\beta$ =-16 0.003±0.008, 95%CI=[-0.021,0.015], z=-0.4, p=0.93) (Fig. 2A-B).

#### 1 Table 2. Cognitive assessment

	Descriptive statistics		Group comparisons			
	controls*	preHDs	earlyHDs	preHDs/controls	earlyHDs/controls	preHDs/earlyHDs
Forward digit span	6 4+1	6 5+1 3	5 6+1	[-0.7, 0.7] n=0.99	[-1.4,-0.1],	[0.01,1.5],
i oi wurd digit spun	0.1-1	0.0-1.0	5.0±1	[ 0.7,0.7], p 0.55	<i>p</i> =0.016	<i>p</i> =0.0454
Catagorical fluonay	22 9-19 1	27.6±7.1	5±7.1 21.8±9.1	[-2.6,9.5], <i>p</i> =0.37	[-16.7,-5.5],	[8.5,20.7],
Categorical fidency	55.8±0.1	37.0±7.1			<i>p</i> <0.001	<i>p</i> <0.001
	75 (122.8		26.5+16	[-23.1,7.8],	[-51.0,-23.1],	[13.8,45.0],
verbal fluency	/3.0±22.8	±22.8 68.3±22.9 30		<i>p</i> =0.47	<i>p</i> <0.001	<i>p</i> <0.001
	02 (11) 2		48.6±13.7	[-18.5,1.0],	[-38.9,-21.6],	[11.9,31.3],
Stroop colour	83.6±11.2	/5./±14		<i>p</i> =0.09	<i>p</i> <0.001	<i>p</i> <0.001
	47.5 10.5	47.2 + 10.2	20.0+12		[-21.0,-7.0],	[5.2,20.9],
Stroop interference	47.5±10.5	47.2±10.2	29.9±12	[-8.9,7.0], <i>p</i> =0.96	<i>p</i> <0.001	<i>p</i> <0.001
C( 1	1047-160	00.4+15.0	((7)10.0	[-18.4,4.8],	[-45.3,-24.7],	[16.7,39.7],
Stroop word	104./±16.8	J4./±16.8 98.4±15.8 66./±12	66./±12.3	<i>p</i> =0.35	<i>p</i> <0.001	<i>p</i> <0.001
Symbol digit	10 5 5 5 5	54.11.1	20 5 5 0		[-23.7,-11.4],	[14.1,27.3],
modalities Test	49.5±/./	54±11.1	28./±/.8	[-3.5,9.9], <i>p</i> =0.50	<i>p</i> <0.001	<i>p</i> <0.001

Forward digit span, categorical fluency and Unified Huntington's Disease Rating scale cognitive scores.
Descriptive statistics report mean±standard deviation for each group. Group comparisons report Tukey's
post-hoc test [95% confidence interval], *p*-value for each group comparison when there was a main
effect of group. preHDs: premanifest participants; earlyHDs: Huntington's disease patients at an early
stage of the disease; \* Cohort of controls restricted to 27 participants.

7

#### 8 Analysis of model parameters

9 The group probability distribution (posterior estimates) of response threshold and drift rate are 10 displayed in Figure 2C and 2D. The results are schematically represented Figure 2E. The 11 earlyHDs had a higher response threshold ( $P(a_{earlyHDs}>a_{controls})=0.98$ ) and a lower drift rate than 1 controls ( $P(v_{earlyHDs} < v_{controls})=1$ ). EarlyHDs therefore needed to accumulate more evidence to 2 discriminate between "same" and "different", and they accumulated it slower than the other 3 groups.

4 The response threshold for preHDs was between earlyHDs' ( $P(a_{preHDs} < a_{earlyHDs})=0.80$ ) and 5 controls' ( $P(a_{preHDs} > a_{controls})=0.83$ ). PreHDs' drift rate was higher than both controls 6 ( $P(v_{preHDs} > v_{controls})=0.99$ ) and earlyHDs ( $P(v_{preHDs} > v_{earlyHDs})=1$ ), indicating faster evidence 7 accumulation.

Post-hoc, we fit a Bayesian linear model (Goodrich et al., 2020) to predict the drift rate based on the response threshold and the group. Age was used as a covariate. The effect of response threshold on the drift rate was positive ( $\beta$ =0.29,  $P(\beta>0)$ =0.98) and similar for earlyHDs and controls ( $P(\beta_{earlyHDs}>\beta_{controls})$ =0.46). The effect of response threshold was stronger in preHDs ( $\beta_{preHDs}$ =0.76,  $P(\beta_{preHDs}>0)$ =1, interaction  $P(\beta_{preHDs}>\beta_{controls})$ =0.99). This indicates that an increase in response threshold predicted an increase in drift rate which is similar in controls and earlyHDs but stronger in preHDs (Fig. 2F).



# Figure 2. Results of behavioural

# data analyses.

Boxplots of (A) Accuracy and (B) Response time (s) for each group. In boxplots, the middle hinge corresponds to the median, the lower and upper hinges correspond respectively to the first and third quartiles. The whiskers extend from the hinge to the largest value no further than 1.5\*interquartile range of the hinge. Diamonds represent the means, \*\*\*: p<0.001, ns: nonsignificant. (C) Group probability distribution (posterior estimates) of the response threshold, a, and (D) drift rate, v. Bayesian probabilities are reported. (E) Schematic representation of model parameters for each group. (F) Relationship between the drift rate (y-axis) and the response threshold (*x*-axis). Points represent individual values, lines and shades around them represent the linear fit and the confidence interval. Controls are represented in grey, premanifest participants (preHDs) in blue and Huntington's disease patients at an early stage of the disease (earlyHDs) in red.

# 1 Analysis of structural imaging data

# 2 Neuroanatomical differences between groups

There was a main effect of group on the volumes of caudate, putamen, accumbens, pallidum and thalamus (all *p*-values<0.05) (Fig. 3A). On these structures, Tukey's post-hoc analyses revealed that earlyHDs had a lower grey matter volume than imaging controls and preHDs (all *p*-values<0.05). PreHDs also displayed atrophy relative to imaging controls (all *p*-values<0.05) except in the thalamus (*p*=0.99). There was no main effect of group on the volumes of the hippocampus and amygdala (all *p*-values>0.05).

9 EarlyHDs showed a cortical thinning in the left angular gyrus, the left occipital superior cortex,
10 the right caudal part of the middle frontal cortex and the right lateral occipital lobe relatively to
11 imaging controls (Fig. 3B, Table 3). EarlyHDs also had a thinner right lateral occipital cortex
12 than preHDs (Fig. 3C, Table 3). Cortical thickness was similar in preHDs and imaging controls.



#### 2 Figure 3. Neuroanatomical differences between groups

3 (A) Boxplots of the subcortical differences between groups. For representational purposes, volumes 4 normalized by the total intracranial volume (tiv) are multiplied by 100 for all structures and by an 5 additional 10 for the accumbens. In boxplots, the middle hinge corresponds to the median, the lower and 6 upper hinges correspond respectively to the first and third quartiles. The whiskers extend from the hinge 7 to the largest value no further than 1.5\*inter-quartile range of the hinge. \*: p < 0.05, ns: non-significant. 8 Imaging controls are represented in grey, premanifest participants (preHDs) in blue and Huntington's 9 disease patients at an early stage of the disease (earlyHDs) in red. (B) Cortical maps of differences 10 between earlyHDs and imaging controls. Each cluster is represented in a different colour and identify a 11 significant thinner cortex in earlyHDs compared to imaging controls. Blue: left angular gyrus, purple: 12 left occipital superior, orange: right lateral occipital, yellow: right caudal middle frontal. (C) Cortical 13 maps of differences between earlyHDs and controls. The cluster identifies a significant thinner cortex 14 in earlyHDs compared to imaging controls. Yellow: right lateral occipital. In the cortical maps of panels 15 (B) and (C), light grey represents gyrus and dark grey represents sulcus.

#### 1

# 2 Table 3. Cortical thickness differences between groups

Cortical	Cluster size	MNI coordinates		Cluster-wise	
region	(mm <sup>2</sup> )	(x	у	z)	<i>p</i> -value
earlyHDs < imaging	ng controls				
L angular gyrus	68.16	-29	-50	37	0.02050
L occipital superior	206.24	-23	-85	27	0.00020
R lateral occipital	63.40	28	-83	14	0.02560
R caudal middle frontal	76.32	39	21	45	0.01600
earlyHDs < preHDs					
R lateral occipital	102.15	31	-87	13	0.00610

3 L: left; R: right; preHDs: premanifest participants; earlyHDs: Huntington's disease patients at an early

4 stage of the disease.

#### 5

#### 6 Relationship between brain structure and behavioural measures in mutation carriers

#### 7 Accuracy

8 Lower mean accuracies were predicted by lower accumbens volumes (p=0.005) independently 9 of the diseases stage (no interaction, p=0.15). There was no significant cortical clusters 10 associated with the mean accuracy (for one-tailed test see Supplementary Fig. 1A, 11 Supplementary Table 2).

### 12 Reaction times

Slower mean reaction times were predicted by lower volumes of the accumbens, the putamen,
 the thalamus, the hippocampus and the pallidum (all *p*-values<0.05) independently of the</li>
 disease stage (no interactions, all *p*-values>0.05)

Slower mean reaction times were also associated to a thinner cortex in clusters located in the
left lateral and superior occipital cortex extending to the precuneus, and the right occipital
cortex (all *p*-values<0.05), independently of the disease stage (no significant clusters with</li>
interaction, all *p*-values>0.05) (Supplementary Fig. 1B, Supplementary Table 2).

8 In all these significant cortical clusters, earlyHDs had a thinner cortex compared to imaging 9 controls (all *p*-values<0.001) while there was no difference between preHDs and imaging 10 controls (all *p*-values>0.05).

11 Drift rate

Lower drift rates were predicted by lower volumes of the accumbens, putamen and pallidum (all *p*-values<0.05) independently of the disease stage (no interactions, all *p*-values>0.05). In contrast, there was an interaction with the disease stage in the hippocampus (t(41)=-3.2, *p*=0.0026): a higher volume of the hippocampus predicted a higher drift rate in preHDs (t(41)=3.31, *p*=0.002) but not in earlyHDs (t(41)=-0.85, *p*=0.40) (Fig. 4A-B).

Lower drift rates were also associated to a thinner cortex in clusters located in in the left superior
parietal cortex and the right superior temporal gyrus (all *p*-values<0.05), independently of the</li>
disease stage (no significant clusters with interaction, all *p*-values>0.05) (Fig. 4C-D).

In these two significant cortical clusters, earlyHDs had a thinner cortex compared to imaging controls (all *p*-values<0.001) while there was no significant difference between preHDs and imaging controls (all *p*-values>0.05). Yet, preHDs tended to have a thicker cortex compared to imaging controls. Post-hoc, we identified two preHDs close to clinical onset with a negative estimated age from onset (Langbehn et al., 2004) (all other preHDs had a positive estimated

age from onset) and a close to threshold total motor score of four (Tabrizi et al., 2009) (all other preHDs had a total motor score of one or zero). When we removed these two participants, we found that the preHDs had a thicker cortex in the left superior parietal cluster ( $\beta$ =0.12, 95%CI=[0.001,0.24], p<0.05) (Fig. 4E).

5 Response threshold

6 There was neither significant relationships between the neuroanatomical structure (subcortical 7 and cortical) and the response threshold nor significant interaction with the disease stage (all p-8 values >0.05).



#### 1 Figure 4. Relationship between brain structure and drift rate.

2 (A) Hippocampus (yellow). X and Z are MNI coordinates of the sagittal and coronal views. A: anterior, 3 P: posterior, R: right, L: left. (B) Relationship between the hippocampus volume normalized by the total 4 intracranial volume (tiv) (x-axis) and the drift rate (y-axis). For representational purposes, the x-axis is 5 multiplied by 100. (C) Cortical maps of significant clusters with a positive correlation between the 6 cortical thickness and the drift rate. Light grey represents gyrus and dark grey represents sulcus. Yellow: 7 left superior parietal cluster (152.71 mm<sup>2</sup>, MNI coordinates: [-34, -55, 59]); Orange: right superior 8 temporal cluster (112.72 mm<sup>2</sup>, MNI coordinates: [63, -16, -1]). The black squares identify the cluster 9 containing the data displayed in panels (D) and (E). (D) Relationship between the mean cortical 10 thickness in the yellow cluster of interest (panel (C)) (x-axis) and the drift rate (y-axis). (E) Boxplots of 11 the mean cortical thickness in the yellow cluster (panel (C)). In boxplots, the middle hinge corresponds to the median, the lower and upper hinges correspond relatively to the first and third quartiles. The 12 13 whiskers extend from the hinge to the largest value no further than 1.5\*inter-quartile range of the hinge. 14 \*: p<0.05, \*\*\*: p<0.001. Imaging controls are represented in grey, premanifest participants (preHDs) in 15 blue and Huntington's disease patients at an early stage of the disease (earlyHDs) in red. In (B) and (D), 16 points represent individual values, lines and shades around them represent the linear fit and the 17 confidence interval. The blue squares represent the two preHDs identified as closest to the disease onset.

# 1 Discussion

2 In this study, we aimed to identify the mechanism underlying cognitive compensation in 3 neurodegenerative diseases using Huntington's disease as a model. To address this issue, we 4 used DDMs to gain insight into the decision processes involved in a language discrimination 5 task (Fig. 1). As expected, analyses of behavioural performances based on accuracy and 6 response times showed an absence of impairment in preHDs relative to controls (Fig. 2A-B). 7 However, analyses of DDMs parameters highlighted a different profile in preHDs, with a 8 nascent increase in response threshold predicting a faster drift rate of evidence accumulation 9 (Fig. 2C-F). This faster rate of evidence accumulation presumably accounts for the observed 10 compensation, by maintaining response times and accuracy at values similar to those of 11 controls. In contrast, earlyHDs displayed impairment in both behavioural and DDMs analyses, 12 suggesting that compensatory mechanisms were absent or insufficient to counterbalance the 13 decline in these individuals. Both a higher response threshold and a slower rate of evidence 14 accumulation resulted in lower accuracy and longer response times in this group (Fig. 2). As 15 previously reported (Tabrizi et al., 2009), striatal atrophy was observed not only in earlyHDs 16 but also in preHDs (Fig. 3A), while only earlyHDs presented a cortical thinning (Fig. 3). In 17 preHDs, the spared thalamus (Fig. 3A), the relationship between the drift rate and both the 18 volume of the hippocampus (Fig. 4B) and the superior parietal cortical hypertrophy, (Fig. 4E) 19 suggest that the compensatory mechanism might be based on an increase in attention allocation.

A higher response threshold leads to more cautious and slower decision-making in perceptual decisions. In our task, the response threshold increased across disease stages suggesting a gradient of impairment during disease progression (Fig. 2C). Forstmann *et al.* (2010) showed that the flexible variation of the DDMs response threshold depended on the strength of the connections between the cortex and striatum inhibiting the subthalamic nucleus. The indirect

1 pathway from the striatum to the thalamus through the external globus pallidus and subthalamic 2 nucleus is more strongly affected in earlyHDs than in preHDs (André et al., 2010). Stimulation 3 of the subthalamic nucleus in patients with Parkinson's disease results in more impulsive 4 choices and a decrease in response threshold (Cavanagh et al., 2011). According to the André 5 et al. model (André et al., 2010), disruption of the indirect pathway and a decrease in the number 6 of white matter fibres extending between the striatum and the cortex (Marrakchi-Kacem et al., 7 2013; Poudel et al., 2014) in Huntington's disease increase inhibition of the subthalamic 8 nucleus. This may account for the higher response threshold in mutation carriers and could 9 explain why we did not find neuroanatomical correlates of the response threshold. Diffusion 10 MRI data would be needed to further investigated this hypothesis.

11 This increase in response threshold might be expected to alter behavioural performances, as 12 was observed in earlyHDs. However, the preHDs performed similarly to controls (Fig. 2A-B). 13 We hypothesise that the higher drift rate in preHDs is a compensatory mechanism that preserves normal accuracy and response times (Fig. 2E). The association between the increase in response 14 15 threshold and the increase of the drift rate of accumulation is consistent with compensation 16 between these two processes (Fig. 2F). The stronger relationship in preHDs compared to earlyHDs and controls, together with the inability of earlyHDs to maintain normal behavioural 17 18 performances, are consistent with models assuming that compensation mechanisms become 19 less effective as the disease progresses and the pathological load increases, leading to 20 observable cognitive impairments (Papoutsi et al., 2014; Gregory et al., 2018). Drift rate may 21 therefore constitute a measurable cognitive marker of compensation.

Imaging seems appropriate to reveal neural compensation mechanisms. Indeed, active compensation mechanisms may depend on either an increase in the activity of a deficient network or the recruitment of alternative networks with available resources (Barulli and Stern,

1 2013). Both have been observed in preHDs, where functional imaging studies show changes in 2 BOLD responses in task-dependent regions, despite similar behavioural performances to 3 controls (Klöppel et al., 2009; Wolf et al., 2012). Although changes in connectivity, structure, 4 or activation can provide information about the link between the disease and neural 5 reorganisation, this link may be pathological rather than compensatory if not correlated to better 6 performances (Papoutsi et al., 2014; Soloveva et al., 2018). Here, we observed left superior 7 parietal cortex hypertrophy in preHDs (Fig. 4E). In addition, an increase in cortical thickness 8 was associated with better performances (shorter response times, better accuracy, and higher 9 drift rates) (Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplementary Table 2, Fig. 4C-D), strengthening the 10 hypothesis of a successful compensation. Hyperactivation of the superior parietal cortex has 11 been associated with motor compensatory mechanisms (Feigin et al., 2006). In a post-hoc 12 analysis, the two preHDs closest to disease onset did not present this pattern of cortical 13 thickening, further supporting the hypothesis of a compensatory mechanism failing as the 14 pathological load increases. Previous studies on Alzheimer's disease (Fortea et al., 2010) and 15 Huntington's disease (Nopoulos et al., 2010) have reported a preclinical stage of hypertrophy 16 preceding atrophy in patients with symptoms. This may reflect an experience-dependent 17 increase in neural volume (Luders et al., 2009; Suh et al., 2019) due to attempts to compensate 18 for the dysregulation of brain regions and the striatum.

Drift rate is linked to attention in healthy subjects (Mulder et al., 2014) and patients with attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder (Ziegler et al., 2016). Individuals with higher attentional capacities accumulate evidence faster in a noisy perceptual decision task (Nunez et al., 2015). Here, independently of the disease stage, drift rate correlated positively with cortical thickness in the left superior parietal and the right superior temporal cortex – regions which are associated with a better ability to sustain attention (Fig. 4C-D) (Fan et al., 2005; Kristensen et al., 2013; Mitko et al., 2019). This suggests that mutation carriers with better attentional

1 capacities have higher drift rates. Within this attentional network, the hippocampus plays a role 2 in maintaining high-resolution representations in working memory when a complex and precise 3 representation is required (Yonelinas, 2013), especially in online perception (Córdova et al., 4 2019). The content of working memory automatically modulates attention by gating the 5 information matching its content into awareness (Soto et al., 2008). In preHDs, a larger 6 hippocampal volume predicted a higher drift rate (Fig. 4B). This raises the possibility that 7 preHDs use the hippocampus to tune their attention to relevant stimulus features (fined-grained 8 representation of pseudowords in our task), increasing information extraction and leading to 9 faster rate of evidence accumulation. The structural modification (hypertrophy) (Fig. 4E) 10 observed in preHDs suggests a daily-used mechanism not limited to our task. In contrast, 11 hippocampal volume is not related to drift rate in earlyHDs. This suggests that attentional tuning 12 allowing for drift rate adjustment is no longer efficient as the disease proceeds. The inability of 13 earlyHDs to recruit sufficient additional attentional resources is consistent with their brain 14 atrophy and the pattern of attention impairment observed in this disease. In our cohort, both the 15 right caudal part of the middle frontal cortex and the thalamus are atrophied in earlyHDs, but 16 spared in preHDs (Fig. 3). These structures are key components of the attentional network (Fan 17 et al., 2005; Corbetta et al., 2008). The literature reports that preHDs are minimally affected in 18 this domain, whereas earlyHDs present a wide range of attentional deficits (e.g. sustained 19 attention (Hart et al., 2012)). The atrophy of earlyHDs in the left angular gyrus, a key structure 20 involved in phonological discrimination (Jacquemot et al., 2003), has been previously reported 21 (Macdonald et al., 1997). This might also prevent them from biasing their attention to fine 22 grained phonological features present in our task.

Despite this study's small cohort size, DDMs detected differences between preHDs and controls
 and identified cognitive processes that may underlie compensation mechanisms in a language
 discrimination task. This demonstrates the added value of DDMs, combined with language

1 relatively, to classical neuropsychological tests, which rarely detect differences in preHDs, 2 other than in cohorts of hundreds of participants (Paulsen et al., 2004; Tabrizi et al., 2009). 3 Here, the use of a linguistic task was motivated by studies showing the sensitivity of language 4 in detecting subtle disorders in small cohorts of preHDs (de Diego Balaguer et al., 2008; 5 Németh et al., 2012; Hinzen et al., 2018). The duration of the task and its simplicity 6 (pseudoword discrimination) make it easily adaptable and transferable to other languages. 7 Showing the generality of the drift rate as a marker of compensation, and of attention allocation 8 increase as a compensatory mechanism in preHDs would require assessing other cognitive 9 domains. Structural imaging provides a hint into the attentional network. Yet, studying the 10 functional correlates of the drift rate in Huntington's disease would provide a greater 11 understanding of online allocation of attentional resources as a compensatory mechanism. 12 Focusing on the role of the superior parietal cortex and hippocampus seems promising in 13 Huntington's disease but would need to be replicated in other neurodegenerative diseases and 14 studied over time.

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# 1 Figure legends

#### 2 Figure 1. Discrimination task and hierarchical drift diffusion model.

3 (A) Participants heard two pseudowords (A and X) separated by the 100 ms and had to decide 4 whether they were identical or not. The response time (RT) is the sum of the non-decision time 5 (Ter) and the decision processes (Td): RT=Ter+Td. (B) Example of the trajectory of the drift 6 diffusion model for a "same" trial in which the correct response was delivered. Two decision 7 boundaries (0 and a) represent the "same" and "different" decisions. The drift rate, v, represents 8 the rate of evidence accumulation. The diffusion process starts between the two boundaries at 9 zr (= 0.5 if not biased toward one of the alternatives) and continues until it reaches one of the10 two boundaries. The predicted response time is the sum of the durations of the diffusion process 11 called decision time and the non-decision time encompassing stimulus pre-processing and 12 motor planning and execution.

13

#### 14 Figure 2. Results of behavioural data analyses.

Boxplots of (A) Accuracy and (B) Response time (s) for each group. In boxplots, the middle hinge corresponds to the median, the lower and upper hinges correspond respectively to the first and third quartiles. The whiskers extend from the hinge to the largest value no further than 1.5\*inter-quartile range of the hinge. Diamonds represent the means, \*\*\*: p<0.001, ns: nonsignificant. (C) Group probability distribution (posterior estimates) of the response threshold, a, and (D) drift rate, v. Bayesian probabilities are reported. (E) Schematic representation of model parameters for each group. (F) Relationship between the drift rate (*v*-axis) and the

response threshold (*x*-axis). Points represent individual values, lines and shades around them
 represent the linear fit and the confidence interval. Controls are represented in grey, premanifest
 participants (preHDs) in blue and Huntington's disease patients at an early stage of the disease
 (earlyHDs) in red.

#### 5 Figure 3. Neuroanatomical differences between groups

6 (A) Boxplots of the subcortical differences between groups. For representational purposes, 7 volumes normalized by the total intracranial volume (tiv) are multiplied by 100 for all structures 8 and by an additional 10 for the accumbens. In boxplots, the middle hinge corresponds to the 9 median, the lower and upper hinges correspond respectively to the first and third quartiles. The 10 whiskers extend from the hinge to the largest value no further than 1.5\*inter-quartile range of 11 the hinge. \*: p < 0.05, ns: non-significant. Imaging controls are represented in grey, premanifest 12 participants (preHDs) in blue and Huntington's disease patients at an early stage of the disease 13 (earlyHDs) in red. (B) Cortical maps of differences between earlyHDs and imaging controls. 14 Each cluster is represented in a different colour and identify a significant thinner cortex in 15 earlyHDs compared to imaging controls. Blue: left angular gyrus, purple: left occipital superior, 16 orange: right lateral occipital, yellow: right caudal middle frontal. (C) Cortical maps of 17 differences between earlyHDs and controls. The cluster identifies a significant thinner cortex 18 in earlyHDs compared to imaging controls. Yellow: right lateral occipital. In the cortical maps 19 of panels (B) and (C), light grey represents gyrus and dark grey represents sulcus.

#### 1 Figure 4. Relationship between brain structure and drift rate.

2 (A) Hippocampus (vellow). X and Z are MNI coordinates of the sagittal and coronal views. A: 3 anterior, P: posterior, R: right, L: left. (B) Relationship between the hippocampus volume 4 normalized by the total intracranial volume (tiv) (x-axis) and the drift rate (y-axis). For 5 representational purposes, the x-axis is multiplied by 100. (C) Cortical maps of significant 6 clusters with a positive correlation between the cortical thickness and the drift rate. Light grey 7 represents gyrus and dark grey represents sulcus. Yellow: left superior parietal cluster (152.71 8 mm<sup>2</sup>, MNI coordinates: [-34, -55, 59]); Orange: right superior temporal cluster (112.72 mm<sup>2</sup>, 9 MNI coordinates: [63, -16, -1]). The black squares identify the cluster containing the data 10 displayed in panels (D) and (E). (D) Relationship between the mean cortical thickness in the 11 vellow cluster of interest (panel (C)) (x-axis) and the drift rate (y-axis). (E) Boxplots of the 12 mean cortical thickness in the yellow cluster (panel (C)). In boxplots, the middle hinge 13 corresponds to the median, the lower and upper hinges correspond relatively to the first and 14 third quartiles. The whiskers extend from the hinge to the largest value no further than 1.5\*interquartile range of the hinge. \*: p < 0.05, \*\*\*: p < 0.001. Imaging controls are represented in grey, 15 16 premanifest participants (preHDs) in blue and Huntington's disease patients at an early stage 17 of the disease (earlyHDs) in red. In (B) and (D), points represent individual values, lines and 18 shades around them represent the linear fit and the confidence interval. The blue squares 19 represent the two preHDs identified as closest to the disease onset.

# 1 Table legends

#### 2 Table 1. Demographic and clinical data for participants

preHDs: premanifest participants; earlyHDs: Huntington's disease patients at an early stage of
the disease; number of CAG repeats: pathological threshold > 35; Burden Score= (CAG-35.5)
x age; Estimated age from onset = age diagnosis estimation – age, with age diagnosis estimation
= 21.54 + exp(9.556 - (0.146 x number of cag repeats)) (Langbehn et al., 2004); Mattis
Dementia Rating Scale: pathological score below 136/144; F: female; M: male; R: right; L: left;
mean±standard deviation.

9

#### 10 Table 2. Cognitive assessment

Forward digit span, categorical fluency and Unified Huntington's Disease Rating scale cognitive scores. Descriptive statistics report mean±standard deviation for each group. Group comparisons report Tukey's post-hoc test [95% confidence interval], *p*-value for each group comparison when there was a main effect of group. preHDs: premanifest participants; earlyHDs: Huntington's disease patients at an early stage of the disease; \* Cohort of controls restricted to 27 participants.

17

18 Table 3. Cortical thickness differences between groups

L: left; R: right; preHDs: premanifest participants; earlyHDs: Huntington's disease patients atan early stage of the disease.