

1 Bilingualism's effects on resting state functional connectivity in mild cognitive
2 impairment

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4 Running title: Bilingualism and rs-FC in MCI

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17

18 Abstract

19 Background: Bilingualism is considered a cognitive reserve (CR) factor, due to the delay
20 in the onset of dementia in bilinguals compared to monolinguals. Two neural mechanisms
21 have been suggested to underlie CR: neural reserve and neural compensation. However,
22 it is still unclear how bilingualism contributes to these mechanisms. Methods: In this
23 study, we used cognitive tests, functional connectivity (FC), regional homogeneity, and
24 fractional amplitude of low-frequency fluctuation (fALFF) measures to study resting-
25 state brain patterns in a sample of bilingual and monolingual subjects with mild cognitive
26 impairment (MCI). Results: We found no significant differences between the groups in
27 age, sex, education, or cognitive level, but bilinguals showed higher FC than
28 monolinguals between the posterior part of the superior temporal gyrus and the
29 precuneus, positively correlated with Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) scores,
30 and higher fALFF in the thalamus bilaterally. Conclusions: Our results suggest that
31 bilingualism may act as a CR factor that protects against dementia through neural
32 compensation.

33

34 Impact statement

35 Recent investigations suggest that neural compensation is one of the cognitive reserve
36 mechanisms underlying the protection of bilingualism against dementia. Although brain
37 changes in functional connectivity have been proposed as evidence of this mechanism,
38 no study has directly used functional connectivity to study neural compensation in
39 bilingualism. Our findings show that MCI bilinguals manifest higher resting state
40 functional connectivity than monolinguals between the language network and the
41 precuneus, supporting the involvement of neural compensation in the protection of
42 bilingualism against dementia. Moreover, we found bilingualism effects in the
43 spontaneous activity of the thalamus, a region related to atrophy in dementia.

44 Keywords: bilingualism; mild cognitive impairment; resting-state; functional
45 connectivity; cognitive reserve; fMRI

46 INTRODUCTION

47 Cognitive reserve (CR) refers to the mechanisms underlying the discrepancy between a
48 person's level of brain pathology and his/her cognitive performance, which would be
49 expected to match this pathology. Bilingualism has been proposed as one of the
50 experience-based factors that contribute to CR, based on previous evidence showing that
51 bilinguals exhibit the clinical manifestations of dementia four to five years later than
52 monolinguals (Woumans et al., 2015).

53 In order to investigate the neural mechanisms of this supposed protective effect of
54 bilingualism against dementia, some neuroimaging research has focused on patients with
55 this condition. Thus, a first study found that bilinguals with the same cognitive level as
56 monolinguals had more brain atrophy indicative of pathology in specific temporal areas
57 that are normally used to distinguish dementia patients from controls (Schweizer et al.,
58 2012). Similar results have been found in subjects suffering from mild cognitive
59 impairment (MCI) (Marin-Marín et al., 2019; Costumero et al., 2020). In a recent
60 investigation, bilinguals showed reduced parenchymal volume and gray matter (GM)
61 volume in areas related to atrophy in dementia (Costumero et al., 2020). Crucially, this
62 study also found longitudinal differences: during a seven-month follow-up, monolinguals
63 lost more parenchyma and had more cognitive deterioration than bilinguals. Regarding
64 white matter (WM) disintegration, bilinguals and monolinguals with MCI showed
65 different patterns of atrophy in a diffusion tensor imaging study. Bilinguals showed
66 higher WM integrity in the parahippocampal cingulum and uncinate fasciculus, but lower
67 integrity in the fornix, all of which are fibers associated with language and memory
68 (Marin-Marín et al., 2019).

69 When investigating the neural basis of CR, two brain mechanisms have been described:
70 neural reserve and neural compensation. On the one hand, neural reserve refers to the
71 efficiency and resilience of pre-existing cognitive networks that may be capable of
72 maintaining cognitive function despite brain pathology (Stern, 2012; Barulli and Stern,
73 2013). Several investigations suggest that this mechanism is related to bilingualism's
74 contribution to CR because healthy older bilinguals show increased GM volume in the
75 anterior cingulate cortex (Abutalebi et al., 2015) and higher WM integrity in the corpus
76 callosum and superior longitudinal fasciculi (Luk et al., 2011; Anderson et al., 2018),
77 compared to monolinguals. On the other hand, neural compensation occurs when brain
78 networks that are not normally used for a certain cognitive function acquire relevance and

79 compensate for brain alterations in other regions (Barulli and Stern, 2013). Evidence
80 supporting this mechanism in bilinguals comes from studies investigating brain
81 connectivity using neuroimaging techniques (Perani and Abutalebi, 2015). A previous
82 fluorodeoxyglucose-positron emission tomography (FDG-PET) study in patients with
83 dementia found increased and positive metabolic connectivity in bilinguals compared to
84 monolinguals between the default mode network (DMN) and the executive control
85 network (ECN) and brain areas related to language control, such as the cingulate cortex
86 and the inferior frontal gyrus (Perani et al., 2017). In fMRI investigations carried out with
87 samples of healthy older adults, bilinguals showed more frontal-parietal and frontal-
88 occipital functional connectivity (FC) (Luk et al., 2011) and stronger intrinsic
89 connectivity than monolinguals in the frontoparietal control network and DMN, as well
90 as stronger correlations between intrinsic connectivity of this control network and task-
91 related increases in activity in prefrontal and parietal regions (Grady et al., 2015).

92 Neuroplastic effects in circuits linked to the executive and attentional demands of
93 language processing have been proposed as the neural mechanism through which
94 bilingualism compensates for brain damage in dementia (Perani and Abutalebi, 2015;
95 Perani et al., 2017). However, the mechanism of neural compensation due to bilingualism
96 has not been explored in preclinical stages of the disease, such as MCI. Moreover, the
97 previous evidence regarding this mechanism is inconclusive because of the use of healthy
98 samples (Luk et al., 2011; Grady et al., 2015) or neuroimaging techniques that do not
99 directly investigate the temporal synchronization between brain regions (Perani et al.,
100 2017). Therefore, the aim of our research was to study the role of bilingualism in CR by
101 comparing FC at rest in bilingual and monolingual subjects suffering from MCI. Based
102 on the previous study on this topic (Perani et al., 2017), bilinguals were expected to show
103 higher FC in regions included in the language network, ECN, and DMN, when compared
104 to monolinguals. In order to comprehensively investigate brain patterns in MCI bilinguals
105 and monolinguals during resting-state, we also explored possible bilingualism effects on
106 the synchronization and amplitude of regional spontaneous activity.

107 **METHODS**

108 **Participants**

109 Eighty-one MCI individuals were recruited for this study (41 women; mean age = 73.83
110 \pm 5.69). All of the participants were selected from dementia units of the Valencian
111 Community public healthcare system. The diagnostic and inclusion criteria were the
112 following: (1) subjective memory complaints (self-reported or confirmed by an
113 informant), (2) objective memory impairment assessed with the logical memory subtest
114 II of the Wechsler Memory Scale-III (WMS-III) (Wechsler, 1997), (3) essentially intact
115 activities in daily living, (4) no evidence of dementia, and (5) a Clinical Dementia Rating
116 score of 0.5. Participants were excluded if they had: (1) other nervous system diseases,
117 such as a brain tumor, cerebrovascular disease, encephalitis, or epilepsy, or met the
118 criteria for dementia; (2) a Geriatric Depression Scale (Yesavage et al., 1982; Martínez
119 de la Iglesia et al., 2002) score $>$ 6; (3) visible cerebral abnormalities, such as
120 leukoaraiosis and infarction, reported by a radiologist with experience in magnetic
121 resonance images; and (4) a current psychiatric disorder or use of psychoactive
122 medication.

123 All the participants were born in Spain and resided permanently in the Spanish region of
124 Valencia. During a clinical interview, they were asked about their use of languages.
125 Participants who reported only speaking Spanish were considered monolinguals (n=50),
126 whereas those who reported Catalan as their native language, Spanish as a second
127 language, and active daily use of both were considered bilinguals (n=31). The two groups
128 shared similar everyday life settings and circumstances, such as neighborhood of
129 residence and school/workplace environment. It should be noted that, for the sake of
130 simplicity, we use the term monolingual to refer to the participants who only speak
131 Spanish. Nevertheless, they could also be referred to as *passive bilinguals* because
132 monolinguals who permanently reside in Valencia and do not speak Catalan are generally
133 able to understand it.

134 All the participants were informed of the nature of the research, and they provided written
135 informed consent prior to their participation in the study. All the study procedures were
136 approved by the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the Bellvitge University Hospital
137 (Clinical Trial Registration number: PR020/15) and conformed to the Code of Ethics of
138 the World Medical Association (Declaration of Helsinki).

139 **Neuropsychological assessment**

140 All the participants underwent a structured clinical interview and a neuropsychological
141 assessment, including the following tests: Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE)
142 (Folstein et al., 1975), Functional Activities Questionnaire (FAQ) (Pfeffer et al., 1982),
143 Boston Naming Test (Serrano et al., 2001), a Word List Acquisition and Recall test, two
144 fluency tests (phonetic and semantic), a remote memory test, and the Clock-drawing Test
145 (Cacho et al., 1996). Descriptive statistics of the sociodemographic variables and results
146 of a two-sample t test for each of the neuropsychological tests are reported in Table 1.
147 There were no significant differences between the groups on any neuropsychological or
148 sociodemographic variables.

149 **Functional MRI acquisition**

150 Images were acquired on a 3T MRI scanner (Siemens Magnetom Trio, Erlangen,
151 Germany). Participants were placed in a supine position inside the scanner, and their
152 heads were immobilized with cushions to reduce motion. During the acquisition, they
153 were instructed to simply rest with their eyes closed, trying to let their minds go blank
154 and not to fall asleep. A total of 270 volumes were collected over 9 min using a gradient-
155 echo T2*-weighted echo-planar imaging sequence (TR=2000 ms; TE=30 ms; matrix, 64
156 x 64; FOV, 224 x 224 cm; flip angle, 90°; 33 slices, parallel to the hippocampus; slice
157 thickness, 3.5 mm; slice gap, 0.5 mm).

158 **Image preprocessing and statistical analyses**

159 We used Data Processing and Analysis for Brain Imaging (DPABI V4.2_190919,
160 <http://rfmri.org/dpabi>) to carry out resting-state fMRI data processing. Preprocessing
161 included: (1) removal of the first ten volumes of each raw fMRI dataset; (2) slice timing
162 correction; (3) realignment using a six-parameter (rigid body) linear transformation; (4)
163 spatial normalization to the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) space (voxel size 3 ×
164 3 × 3 mm); (5) removal of spurious variance through linear regression: 24 parameters
165 from the head motion correction, linear, and quadratic trends, and the first five principal
166 components associated with WM and cerebrospinal fluid (Behzadi et al., 2007); (6)
167 spatial smoothing with a 4-mm FWHM Gaussian Kernel; and (7) band-pass temporal
168 filtering (0.01–0.1 Hz).

169 Participants with more than 1 mm/degree of movement in any of the six directions or
170 fewer than 120 volumes with framewise displacement (FD) < 0.5 mm (Jenkinson et al.,
171 2002) (ensuring at least 4 minutes of rest with low FD) were excluded from the analyses.

172 **Resting-state FC analysis**

173 A seed-based correlation analysis was performed using *a priori* regions of interest (ROIs).
174 ROIs were defined from the CONN network cortical ROI atlas (HCP-ICA) included in
175 the CONN toolbox (<https://web.conn-toolbox.org/>). Following the previous study on this
176 topic (Perani et al., 2017), we focused our analysis on the following networks: DMN,
177 ECN, and the language network. To avoid the introduction of different amounts of noise
178 derived from the signal average of regions with different sizes, we used the representative
179 local maxima provided on the atlas to create spherical masks (5mm radius) as our seeds.
180 Specifically, the medial prefrontal cortex (MNI: 1, 55, -3), left (MNI: -39, -77, 33) and
181 right parietal gyri (MNI: 47, -67, 29), and posterior cingulate cortex (MNI: 1, -61, 38)
182 were considered seeds for the DMN. Left (MNI: -43, 33, 28) and right (MNI: 41, 38, 30)
183 prefrontal cortices and left (MNI: -46, -58, 49) and right (MNI: 52, -52, 45) posterior
184 parietal cortices were considered ROIs for the ECN. Finally, for the language network,
185 left (MNI: -51, 26, 2) and right (MNI: 54, 28, 1) inferior frontal gyri and the left (MNI: -
186 57, -47, 15) and right (MNI: 59, -42, 13) posterior parts of the superior temporal gyri
187 (pSTG) were used. After the estimation of individual correlation maps, group-level
188 voxelwise analyses restricted to an inclusive mask comprising the brain networks under
189 study (i.e. the DMN, ECN and language network) were performed.

190 **Regional Homogeneity (ReHo) analysis**

191 We used the ReHo method to explore group differences in regional synchronization of
192 fMRI time courses between neighboring voxels. For this analysis, Steps 6 and 7 of
193 preprocessing were modified. After spatial normalization, band-pass temporal filtering
194 (0.01–0.1 Hz) was applied, and Kendall's coefficient of concordance was calculated
195 between each voxel's BOLD time series and those of its 19 neighbors. The ReHo value
196 of each voxel was divided by the global mean ReHo of the whole-brain mask, and the
197 resulting ReHo maps were smoothed with a 4-mm full width at half maximum (FWHM)
198 Gaussian kernel (Chao-Gan and Yu-Feng, 2010). Then, group-level whole-brain
199 voxelwise analyses were performed.

200 **Fractional amplitude of low-frequency fluctuations (fALFF) analysis**

201 Differences in the amplitude of regional spontaneous activity between groups were
202 explored using the fALFF method. For this analysis, Step 7 of preprocessing was
203 modified. After performing spatial smoothing, the time series of each voxel was
204 transformed into the frequency domain and band-pass filtered (0.01 – 0.08 Hz). Then, the
205 square root was calculated at each frequency of the power spectrum, the averaged square
206 root (i.e., ALFF) was obtained at each voxel, and a ratio of total amplitude within the low
207 frequency range to the total amplitude of the detectable frequency range was calculated
208 (i.e., fALFF). Lastly, group-level whole-brain voxelwise analyses were performed.

209 **Statistical analyses**

210 Group differences in FC, ReHo, and fALFF values were investigated using a two-sample
211 t-test, with FD values as a covariate, as implemented in SPM12 (Statistical Parametric
212 Mapping 12; Wellcome Trust Centre for Neuroimaging, University College, London,
213 UK; <http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm/>). The statistical significance was determined using
214 cluster-based inference at a threshold of $p < 0.05$, family-wise error (FWE) corrected,
215 with a primary voxel-level threshold of $p < 0.001$ uncorrected.

216 **Correlation with cognitive status**

217 We explored the relationship between the differences in resting-state measures found in
218 our sample and their cognitive status. To do so, for each brain region showing significant
219 differences in group analyses of any of the measures, a 5 mm^3 sphere mask centered in
220 its local maxima was defined (see Table 2 for MNI coordinates). Then, the specific values
221 of the voxels within the mask were averaged in each subject separately, and these
222 averaged values were used to perform a correlation analysis with the MMSE scores, using
223 $p < 0.05$ as a statistically significant threshold, for the sample as a whole and for each
224 group separately.

225 **RESULTS**

226 **Seed-based connectivity analysis**

227 We found significant differences between bilinguals and monolinguals in the FC of the
228 left pSTG seed of the language network. Specifically, the connectivity of this region with
229 the precuneus was higher in bilinguals than in monolinguals (Fig 1; Table 2). The opposite
230 contrast did not show any significant results (monolinguals > bilinguals). No other
231 significant differences were found in any other seed.

232 **ReHo analysis**

233 We found no significant differences in regional synchronization in bilinguals compared
234 to monolinguals.

235 **fALFF analysis**

236 We found a higher amplitude of regional spontaneous activity in bilinguals compared to
237 monolinguals in the thalamus bilaterally (Fig 2; Table 2). Specifically, the differences
238 appeared in the left mediodorsal and central-medial pulvinar and right anterior and
239 lateroventral nuclei of the thalamus (Najdenovska et al., 2018). The opposite contrast did
240 not show any significant results.

241 **Correlation with cognitive status**

242 We found a significant correlation between our sample's performance on MMSE and FC
243 between the left pSTG seed of the language network and the precuneus ($R = 0.272$, $p =$
244 0.014). We found no significant correlations for the groups separately or for the
245 differences in fALFF.

246

247 **DISCUSSION**

248 In this study, we investigated the FC, ReHo, and fALFF differences between bilingual
249 and monolingual MCI subjects who had no significant differences in age, years of
250 schooling, proportion of men and women, or performance on neuropsychological testing.
251 Bilinguals showed higher FC than monolinguals between the left pSTG of the language
252 network and the precuneus, and higher fALFF in several nuclei of the thalamus.
253 Moreover, FC values between the pSTG and precuneus correlated with the MMSE scores
254 in the whole sample. These results suggest that the experience of bilingualism promotes
255 CR through neural compensation.

256 Our results are consistent with previous evidence suggesting that bilingualism may
257 contribute to neural compensation in dementia (Luk et al., 2011; Perani et al., 2017). A
258 previous study showed enhanced WM integrity and more functional connections
259 involving frontal, parietal, and occipital lobes in healthy older bilinguals compared to
260 monolinguals (Luk et al., 2011). These results were subsequently interpreted as a possible
261 compensatory mechanism that would provide reserve and compensate for GM
262 deterioration (Guzmán-Vélez and Tranel, 2015). In a later study analyzing metabolic
263 connectivity in a sample of patients with dementia, bilinguals showed increased
264 connectivity compared to monolinguals between the precuneus/posterior cingulum and
265 the anterior cingulum, orbitofrontal cortex, thalamus, and caudate nucleus, all described
266 as crucial brain regions for language control in bilinguals (Perani et al., 2017). Since
267 bilinguals also showed more hypometabolism than monolinguals, the increased
268 connectivity was also interpreted as a compensatory mechanism by which the bilingual
269 brain would be able to cope better with neurodegeneration (Perani et al., 2017). Along
270 the same lines, our study showed that, in a sample of subjects with MCI, bilinguals
271 exhibited higher levels of FC than monolinguals between the left pSTG, an area within
272 the language network, and the precuneus, a region typically affected in dementia.
273 Therefore, we interpret our findings as neural compensation and not neural reserve,
274 validating previous evidence using indirect measures of interregional connectivity (Perani
275 et al., 2017). Moreover, we also found a positive correlation between MMSE performance
276 and FC between the precuneus and pSTG for the whole sample, further supporting the
277 relationship between cognitive status and FC between these brain regions. Perani et al.
278 also found increased anterior-posterior metabolic connectivity in the ECN in bilinguals
279 compared to monolinguals (Perani et al., 2017). However, we found no significant FC

280 differences between bilinguals and monolinguals in the ECN seeds. This may be due to
281 the different characteristics of our samples: in their investigation, participants were
282 dementia patients, whereas our work involved MCI subjects. In the first stages of
283 Alzheimer's disease, which is the most common form of dementia in elder populations,
284 brain pathology, such as β -amyloid accumulation (Palmqvist et al., 2017), tau deposition
285 (Hall et al., 2017), and hypometabolism (Sperling et al., 2011), is mainly limited to DMN
286 areas, and especially to the precuneus/posterior cingulum. Therefore, the fact that the
287 differences in our sample are restricted to the FC of this region may be due to the early
288 stage of the disease in our sample. Along the same lines as previous investigations (Luk
289 et al., 2011; Grady et al., 2015; Perani et al., 2017), our results suggest that bilingualism
290 may be acting as a CR factor through neural compensation mechanisms.

291 We also found higher fALFF in bilinguals compared to monolinguals in multiple nuclei
292 of the thalamus. Previous studies show that fALFF values tend to decrease in prodromal
293 AD and MCI (Cha et al., 2015; Zeng et al., 2019). Regarding the thalamus and its role in
294 dementia, a review based on post-mortem studies, animal models, and non-invasive
295 imaging investigations suggests that the loss of episodic memory in early stages of
296 dementia is not mainly related to hippocampus dysfunction, but rather to broader
297 neurodegeneration of the Papez circuit, an extended memory system that involves the
298 limbic thalamus (Aggleton et al., 2016). Thus, previous studies found reduced thalamic
299 volumes in amnesic MCI subjects (Sorg et al., 2007; Pedro et al., 2012; Yi et al., 2016)
300 and correlations between thalamic volume and cognitive status in MCI (Pedro et al., 2012;
301 Yi et al., 2016). Moreover, bilateral atrophy in the dorsomedial thalamus, reductions in
302 WM integrity in the anterodorsal nucleus, and smaller internal medullary lamina were
303 found in dementia patients compared to controls (Zarei et al., 2010). In our study, the
304 differences found in fALFF in the thalamus were restricted to the left mediodorsal and
305 central-medial pulvinar and right anterior and lateroventral nuclei, based on the human
306 thalamic segmentation proposed in a recent investigation (Najdenovska et al., 2018).
307 Although the relationship between memory impairment and thalamic lesions has been
308 described for years (Fedio and Van Buren, 1975; Harding et al., 2000; Carlesimo et al.,
309 2011; Danet et al., 2017), there is a lack of agreement about the specific nuclei responsible
310 for this relationship: early investigations found verbal memory deficits due to left pulvinar
311 nucleus stimulation (Fedio and Van Buren, 1975), neuronal loss in the anterior nuclei due
312 to Korsakoff's syndrome was associated with amnesia (Harding et al., 2000), and

313 mediodorsal nucleus lesions due to left thalamic stroke were related to impaired
314 recollection (Danet et al., 2017). Based on these studies, we tested if the differences in
315 fALFF in the thalamus found in our sample were correlated with the scores of any of the
316 memory tests used, but we found no significant results. A possible explanation for this
317 lack of relationship between memory status and the amplitude of regional spontaneous
318 activity in the thalamus could be the low variability in the memory scores of the
319 participants in our sample. Moreover, previous studies state that functional alterations in
320 fMRI can be detected prior to the manifestation of cognitive decline and clinical
321 deterioration (Sperling et al., 2011; Sheline and Raichle, 2013). Thus, another possibility
322 is that the differences found in our sample in fALFF in the thalamus might not have
323 manifested behaviorally yet. Also importantly, other investigations suggest that the
324 thalamus is related to language processing and bilingualism, based on evidence showing
325 that corticothalamo-cortical connections have a pivotal impact on language processing
326 through feedback mechanisms (Crosson, 2013) and that the thalamus is expanded in
327 young simultaneous bilinguals compared to monolinguals (Burgaleta et al., 2016). Thus,
328 our results suggest that bilingualism may act as a CR factor by means of a higher
329 amplitude of regional spontaneous activity in the thalamus, specifically in nuclei that
330 show atrophy in dementia (Zarei et al., 2010) and are related to memory impairment
331 (Fedio and Van Buren, 1975; Harding et al., 2000; Danet et al., 2017).

332 As a general conclusion, our results show that, in a sample of MCI subjects with the same
333 disease severity, proportion of men and women, years of schooling, and sociocultural
334 characteristics, bilinguals manifest higher FC than monolinguals between the pSTG of
335 the language network and the precuneus, and higher fALFF in the thalamus. These results
336 expand our knowledge about the effects of the active use of two languages on brain
337 function, and they support the role of bilingualism as a CR factor that protects against
338 dementia through neural compensation.

339 **Author contribution statement**

340 V. C. and L. M-M. conceptualized the study and were responsible for implementation of
341 data analyses. V. C., L. M-M., M-Á. P-G., A. M-P., N. A., J A-V. and E. V-R. were
342 involved in interpreting findings, drafting and revising the manuscript.

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351 **Disclosure statement**

352 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial
353 or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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