Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration: A Clinical Approach

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Abstract

In this review, the authors outline a clinical approach to frontotemporal lobar degeneration (FTLD), a term coined to describe a pathology associated with atrophy of the frontal and temporal lobes commonly seen with abnormal protein aggregates. It accounts for ~10% of pathologically confirmed dementias. The three clinical syndromes associated with FTLD are jointly classified as frontotemporal dementia (FTD) and include behavioral variant frontotemporal dementia (bvFTD), nonfluent-agrammatic primary progressive aphasia (nfvPPA), and semantic variant PPA (svPPA; left: l-svPPA and right: r-svPPA). All syndromes have differential impairment in behavioral (bvFTD; r-svPPA), executive (bvFTD; nfvPPA), and language (nfvPPA; svPPA) functions early in the disease course. With all three there is relative sparing of short-term memory and visuospatial abilities early on, and with the two language syndromes, nfvPPA and svPPA, behavior is also intact. Symptoms are associated with specific atrophy patterns, lending unique imaging signatures to each syndrome (frontal: bvFTD and nfvPPA; temporal: svPPA).

Common proteinopathies involve accumulation of tau, transactive response DNA binding protein 43, and fusion in sarcoma protein. Parkinsonism presents in all syndromes, especially cases with tau pathology and MAPT or GRN mutations. nfvPPA often has corticobasal degeneration or progressive supranuclear palsy as the underlying neuropathological substrate. bvFTD co-occurs with motor neuron disease in ~15% of cases, and many such cases are due to C9Orf72 mutations. Other common genetic mutations in FTLD involve GRN and MAPT. Behavioral symptoms are best managed by selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, while atypical antipsychotics should be used with caution given side effects. Promising etiologic treatments include anti-tau antibodies, antisense oligonucleotides, and progranulin enhancers.

Keywords
► frontotemporal dementia
► primary progressive aphasia
► behavior
► language
► parkinsonism
► diagnosis
► treatment

Frontotemporal lobar degeneration (FTLD) is defined as a pathologic endophenotype characterized by atrophy of the frontal and temporal lobes leading to three clinical syndromes with partially overlapping microscopic pathology. These are jointly called frontotemporal dementia (FTD) and include the behavioral variant frontotemporal dementia (bvFTD) and two types of the primary progressive aphasias (PPA),1 the nonfluent-agrammatic (nfvPPA) and the semantic (svPPA). The three syndromes are associated with variable impairment in behavioral, executive, language, and even motor functions early in the disease course. Each has a unique atrophy pattern on neuroimaging. Commonly, there is accumulation of tau, transactive response DNA binding protein 43 (TDP-43), fusion in sarcoma protein (FUS), and p62 dipeptides.2

In 2011, revised consensus criteria were created for both bvFTD and PPA to incorporate advances in imaging, pathology, and genetics, aiming to improve early diagnostic accuracy.3,4
Early and accurate diagnosis, however, is not straightforward in FTLD, given the pathological convergence associated with specific clinical syndromes and the syndromic divergence within pathologies (►Fig. 1). Even family members with a single genetic mutation are phenotypically heterogeneous.

**Historical Perspective and Epidemiology**

In 1892, Arnold Pick described patients with presenile dementia, aphasia, and lobar atrophy. This entity was subsequently referred to as Pick disease, and the characteristic inclusion bodies associated with this condition, identified by Alois Alzheimer in 1911, were named Pick bodies in Pick’s honor. In 1957, Delay, Brion, and Escourrou and in 1974 Constantinidis, Richard, and Tissot delineated the clinical and anatomical differences between Alzheimer disease (AD) and Pick disease, emphasizing that atrophy in Pick disease was frontally predominant, while in AD more posterior. Their classification schemas recognized that there were prominent extrapyramidal syndromes associated with Pick disease and that only a minority of cases had classic Pick bodies. In 1982, Marsel Mesulam identified aphasia syndromes in patients with left-predominant hemispheric atrophy, collectively termed PPA (now including nfvPPA, svPPA, and logopenic variant PPA [lvPPA]). Though Pick’s first cases would currently be classified as svPPA of left-predominant atrophy (l-svPPA), in the past “Pick dementia” was considered synonymous to what is now called bvFTD. A right-predominant atrophy svPPA (r-svPPA) also exists and presents with early behavioral deficits, whereas its syndromic convergence and pathologic homology to l-svPPA allows both syndromes to be classified as svPPA (see below). Recent discoveries of specific proteinopathies (e.g., tau, TDP-43, FUS FTLD subtypes) as well as genetic mutations (e.g., GRN, MAPT, C9Orf72) has opened avenues for new therapeutic interventions.

Epidemiologically, FTLD incidence is three to four cases per 100,000 person-years, with an estimated 20,000 to 30,000 cases in the United States at a given moment. It is the third most common cause of degenerative dementia after AD and dementia with Lewy bodies, accounting for 5 to 10% of all pathologically confirmed cases. Additionally, it is the second most common presenile dementia in patients younger than 65 years old after AD. Tau-positive cases tend to exhibit older disease onset and slower progression than TDP-43 and FUS FTLD subtypes. ►Table 1 contains epidemiologic features of FTLD subtypes, recognizing that diagnosis in most studies was based on pre-2011 diagnostic criteria.
Frontotemporal lobar degeneration is caused by selective vulnerability of specific neuroanatomical networks. With bvFTD, nfvPPA, and svPPA degeneration starts within a specific hub and spreads across the respective network in a prion-like manner, conferring unique clinical characteristics at each stage of the disease.\textsuperscript{23–25} As such, the most important clinical information lies in the temporal evolution of symptoms, and by extension, their neuroanatomical representation, allowing the physician to create a mental map of brain atrophy progression. The diagnostic process aims to identify the phenotypic syndrome (i.e., bvFTD vs. nfvPPA vs. svPPA vs. other dementia or nondementia syndromes), and then predict the most likely proteinopathy and possible genetic mutation (\textsuperscript{\textbullet}Figs. 1, 2, and \textbullet Tables 2, 3).\textsuperscript{31} This approach can provide a more accurate prognosis, and as molecule-specific therapies develop, more tailored treatment.

There are distinct differences between patients with right-versus left-sided disease. Right-predominant atrophy patients (bvFTD, r-svPPA) tend to be emotionally cold and distant, often disrupting family relationships, and present with behavioral disturbances that are often misinterpreted as psychiatric symptoms. Left-predominant atrophy patients mainly present with language impairments (\textbullet Table 2).

\textit{bvFTD} is dominated by behavioral symptoms. Because early degeneration affects the paralimbic structures of the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (VMPFC), anterior cingulate cortex (ACC), and anterior insula, early symptoms involve social disinhibition, lack of motivation (apathy), and loss of empathy.\textsuperscript{31–34} Often, families members believe the patient has lost interest in the family, is depressed, or suffers from a psychiatric disorder. Patients are often distractible and it is not uncommon for them to lose their jobs. Symptoms of disinhibition may range from inappropriate (e.g., hugging people in the street) to antisocial (e.g., commenting on peoples’ weight). Lack of empathy is striking, and patients may ignore acute health issues of their spouses. As selective degeneration spreads to the temporal lobes, particularly the right, mental rigidity and unique eating habits start to emerge (e.g., eating only single-colored food). Some patients may develop cravings for carbohydrate-rich food such as sweets and chips. Compulsive behaviors can range from simple repetitive movements (e.g., tapping, coughing) to more complex compulsions (e.g., hoarding, collecting, cleaning, eating specific foods at specific times). As the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC) degenerates, executive abilities falter, with working memory impairment, difficulty with set-shifting and generation of ideas or alterations in attention.\textsuperscript{36} Usually, patients have poor insight into their deficits, distort their history, and admit to having bvFTD as a matter-of-fact based on others’ reports, rather than appreciating that something is amiss. This may relate to noso-adiaphoria (anosodiaphoria) rather than noso-agnosia (anosognosia).\textsuperscript{37}

A slowly progressive bvFTD exists, termed “phenocopy” by Chris Kipp and John Hodges, which differs from the classic form due to decades-long progression and male predominance.\textsuperscript{38} It is indistinguishable from the classic form based on simple diagnostic criteria, although measures of executive and functional impairment tend to be less severe in the phenocopy cases and atrophy may be mild, or even absent. Some of these patients are primarily psychiatric, although C9Orf72 mutations may also be responsible for the syndrome.\textsuperscript{39}

One in seven bvFTD patients develop MND,\textsuperscript{22} which has a similar phenotype to sporadic MND, although often lower limb muscles seem to be spared early on. Because bvFTD-MND has strong pathological associations with TDP-43 type B and C9Orf72 (and some other) mutations (\textbullet Table 3), it is often approached separately from bvFTD without MND. There is evidence of a C9Orf72 mutation founder effect from 6,300 years ago in the Western world, making it the most common genetic cause of bvFTD-MND and accounting for about a third of familial cases, but these C9Orf72 appear to be rare in south and eastern Asia.\textsuperscript{13,14,44} C9Orf72 mutations are large hexanucleotide repeat expansions (GGGGCC) in the intron region of chromosome 9, which leads to RNA nuclear accumulation and suppression of gene expression. The disease phenotype does not seem to depend on repeat length and there is only preliminary evidence that longer repeat sizes, specifically in the cerebellum, have a negative impact on survival.\textsuperscript{45}

\begin{table}
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|l|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
Clinical syndrome & Percentage of FTLD cases & Range of male percentage & Mean age of onset (range)\textsuperscript{a} & Life expectancy in years from symptom onset (from diagnosis)\textsuperscript{b} \\
\hline
bvFTD & 54–69 & 53–70 & 58 (47–82) & with MND 6 (1) without MND 9 (5) \\
\hline
nfvPPA & 14–35 & 14–63 & 63 (42–79) & 9 (4) \\
\hline
r-svPPA & 6–10 & 44–80 & 62 (52–85) & 12 (5) \\
\hline
l-svPPA & 9–12 & 52–80 & 59 (52–80) & 12 (5) \\
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\end{tabular}
\caption{Epidemiology of frontotemporal lobar degeneration (FTLD)\textsuperscript{19–22}}
\end{table}

\textsuperscript{a}No statistical difference.

\textsuperscript{b}Significantly shorter life expectancy only for bvFTD-MND cases.
**nfvPPA** is the prototypical syndrome with impairments in language structure and praxis. Characteristic deficits include nonfluent output, agrammatism, and apraxia of speech (AOS). Patients understand the meaning of individual words or objects, but have trouble with more complex sentences. The neuroanatomical network affected by degeneration includes the dominant frontal operculum, its connections to the supplementary motor area (SMA) through the frontal aslant tract, the premotor area, and the insular cortex. Thus, early symptoms are slowness of speech, word-finding difficulties, and decreased word output and phrase length. Apraxia of speech (i.e., an articulation planning deficit) emerges as a disconnection between the frontal operculum and the SMA, associated with aslant tract degeneration.

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**Fig. 2** Syndrome natural history in frontotemporal lobar degeneration. Common cognitive, behavioral, and atrophic patterns with disease progression; see text for details. Graphs depict relative qualitative symptom severity with disease progression. Speed of disease progression in bvFTD is more variable than other syndromes, with Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) Scale scores ranging from 0.5 to 3 at 6 years from symptom onset.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clinical syndrome</th>
<th>Characteristic earliest symptoms</th>
<th>Early patient or family concerns</th>
<th>Behavioral features</th>
<th>Cognitive features</th>
<th>Motor features</th>
<th>Earliest atrophic areas</th>
<th>Common pathology</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>Apathy</td>
<td>Midlife crisis</td>
<td>Apathy (54–96%)</td>
<td>Poor (lexical)</td>
<td>MND (~15%)</td>
<td>Anterior cingulate</td>
<td>most heterogeneous</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Disinhibition</td>
<td>Mood disorder</td>
<td>Disinhibition (73%)</td>
<td>generation</td>
<td>Parkinsonism (~20%)</td>
<td>Frontoinsular</td>
<td>tau ≡ TDP-43</td>
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<td>Loss of self and other awareness</td>
<td>Psychosis</td>
<td>Lack of empathy (49–75%)</td>
<td>Poor episodic memory</td>
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<td>(R &gt; L)</td>
<td>few FUS and UPS</td>
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<td>Compulsions (67%)</td>
<td>Poor set-shifting</td>
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<td>tau: 3R or 4R</td>
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<td>Loss of awareness (65%)</td>
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<td>TDP-43: esp. Type A, B, or D</td>
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<td>Anxiety (56%)</td>
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<td>Anxiety (56%)</td>
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<td>nfvPPA</td>
<td>Nonfluent speech</td>
<td>Word-finding difficulties</td>
<td>Later in course:</td>
<td>Language</td>
<td>Strong association</td>
<td>Dominant FO</td>
<td>tau (esp. 4R) &gt; TDP-43</td>
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<td></td>
<td>AOS</td>
<td>Slow or slurred speech</td>
<td>Apathy and disinhibition</td>
<td>impairment:</td>
<td>with PSPS and CBS</td>
<td>Premotor SMA</td>
<td>AD pathology (30%)</td>
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<td>Restlessness</td>
<td>nonfluent,</td>
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<td>Anterodorsal insula</td>
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<td>Aggression</td>
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<td>r-svPPA</td>
<td>Emotional detachment</td>
<td>“Cold and distant”</td>
<td>Disinhibition (74%)</td>
<td>Protopagnosia</td>
<td>Extremely rare</td>
<td>Right anterior</td>
<td>TDP-43 (Type C)</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Mental rigidity</td>
<td>Exaggeration of personality traits</td>
<td>Eating disorders (52%)</td>
<td>Poor emotional recognition</td>
<td>Few cases of MND</td>
<td>temporal Amygdala</td>
<td>rare tau</td>
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<td>Atypical depression</td>
<td>Mood disorder</td>
<td>Sleep disorders (52%)</td>
<td>Word obsessions</td>
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<td>AD pathology (33%)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Irritability</td>
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<td>Loss of empathy (49%)</td>
<td>Poor semantic</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Bizarre dressing</td>
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<td>Depression (44%)</td>
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<td>I-svPPA</td>
<td>Anomia</td>
<td>Word-finding difficulties</td>
<td>Eating disorders (52%)</td>
<td>Semantic anomia</td>
<td>Extremely rare</td>
<td>Left anterior</td>
<td>TDP-43 (Type C)</td>
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<td>Loss of word meaning</td>
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<td>Sleep disorders (52%)</td>
<td>Surface dyslexia</td>
<td>Few cases of MND</td>
<td>temporal Amygdala</td>
<td>rare tau</td>
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<td>Depression (44%)</td>
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<td>AD pathology (33%)</td>
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Abbreviations: AOS, apraxia of speech; CBS, corticobasal syndrome; FO, frontal operculum; MND, motor neuron disease; PSPS, progressive supranuclear palsy syndrome; SMA, supplementary motor area.
In contrast, agrammatism, which in addition to simplified phrases is defined by omission of function words and inflections, develops with progressive atrophy of the left frontal operculum and DLPFC, but also of the insula, anterosuperior temporal cortex, as well as white matter degeneration of the dominant cingulum and corpus callosum.

Emergence of phonemic paraphasias (e.g., phoneme transpositions, additions, omissions) relates to progressive atrophy of the insula, anterior cingulate, premotor cortex, and SMA. In contrast to bvFTD, nfvPPA patients often become aware of their deficits prior to others and maintain a proper social decorum. As the disease moves into the contralateral frontal regions, some nfvPPA patients eventually develop behavioral disturbances. Finally, nfvPPA often coincides with corticobasal syndrome (CBS) or progressive supranuclear palsy syndrome (PSPS), in which a 4-repeat tauopathy is probable, although CBS may also result from TDP-43 Type A pathology with or without GRN mutations (►Table 3).

Both svPPA syndromes have semantic knowledge deficits with intact speech fluency, but differ in that early symptoms in l-svPPA pertain to lexical meaning loss, whereas in r-svPPA to loss of emotional meaning and knowledge about faces. Symptoms correlate to early atrophy of the anterior temporal pole, which serves as a hub for semantic knowledge and from which degeneration spreads. Disease spreads to frontal areas once the uncinate fasciculus becomes affected, highlighting its degeneration. In contrast, agrammatism, which in addition to simplified phrases is defined by omission of function words and inflections, develops with progressive atrophy of the left frontal operculum and DLPFC, but also of the insula, anterosuperior temporal cortex, as well as white matter degeneration of the dominant cingulum and corpus callosum.

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Table 3 Clinicopathological associations^{2,9–16,40–43}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clinical syndrome</th>
<th>Characteristic clinicopathological associations</th>
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<td>bvFTD</td>
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<td>nfvPPA</td>
<td>TDP-43 type A</td>
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<td>tau</td>
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<td>l-svPPA</td>
<td>TDP-43 Type C</td>
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<td>r-svPPA</td>
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Abbreviations: AOS, apraxia of speech; CBD, corticobasal degeneration; CBS, corticobasal syndrome; CHMP2B, charged multivesicular body protein 2b; DCTN1, dynactin 1; FUS, fusion in sarcoma; GRN, progranulin; hnRNP, heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein; IBM, inclusion body myositis; MND, motor neuron disease; OPTN, optineurin; PSP, progressive supranuclear palsy; TARDBP, TAR DNA-binding protein; UBLQ1N2, ubiquitin 2; UPS, ubiquitin proteasome system; VCP, valosin containing protein.
role in semantic processing, while there is accompanying atrophy of the insula and anterior hippocampus. Early features of l-svPPA include word-finding difficulties, especially of nouns rather than verbs. Gradually, patients substitute specific words with superordinate categories (e.g., animal for cat), and eventually most nouns are called things. At later stages, loss of word meaning becomes very pronounced and patients have trouble recognizing what is shown to them and its general purpose. In contrast, early features of r-svPPA are behavioral, in keeping with an underlying right-predominant atrophy, while language problems present later in its course. r-svPPA manifests with early emotional detachment, lack of empathy, and diagnosis is often delayed because symptoms are misinterpreted as psychiatric or worsening of chronic personality traits. Some patients’ symptoms begin with impairment recognizing familiar faces, and evolve into a severe deficit in facial perception.

At intermediate svPPA stages, degeneration spreads to the opposite hemisphere and the two svPPA subtypes merge at the syndromic and atrophic level (Fig. 2). In clinic, patients may show surface dyslexia, in which they incorrectly read irregularly-written low-frequency words (e.g., yacht). svPPA patients develop an interest for visually appealing objects, which may express itself as compulsions or artistic creativity. De novo creativity is a fascinating feature in FTLD, especially l-svPPA, which may emerge a few years prior to the onset of disabling symptoms, and is probably caused by abolishment of interhemispheric inhibition.

**Parkinsonism in Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration**

Approximately one-fifth of bvFTD patients have parkinsonism on their first clinic visit. Parkinsonian features are more common in bvFTD and nfvPPA patients, often those with tau pathology, MAPT and GRN mutations, and at later disease stages, whereas its presence does not affect survival. Most bvFTD cases have an akinetic-rigid form (60%) and the rest (40%) are tremor-predominant. Movement disorders rarely accompany svPPA.

Corticobasal syndrome and PSPS are often considered as clinical diagnoses when parkinsonism is present early in FTLD. Unlike classic Parkinson disease, where rigidity, tremor, and bradykinesia dominate the early phases, PSPS presents with axial rigidity, relative sparing of the arms, and lack of tremor. Presence of early falls and a supranuclear gaze palsy is typical for PSPS. Corticobasal syndrome is characterized by apraxia (especially of the feet),alien limb phenomenon, inattention, dystonia, and myoclonus. Cortical symptoms (e.g., aphasia) overlap with those observed in bvFTD and nfvPPA. Corticobasal syndrome and PSPS are designed to predict 4-repeat tauopathies (i.e., corticobasal degeneration [CBD] and progressive supranuclear palsy [PSP], respectively). Although clinico-pathological association is high for PSPS, CBS criteria have not been highly predictive and up to 50% of cases have alternative pathologies (e.g., AD [23%] and TDP-43 [13%]). As a result, CBS criteria were recently revised, though their clinical utility and diagnostic accuracy remains to be seen.

Parkinsonism in FTLD can also be due to specific genetic mutations. Two such genes are MAPT and GRN, which are 1.7 Mb apart on chromosome 17. GRN mutation deficits caused by progranulin haploinsufficiency have a mean age at onset of 59 years; MAPT mutations tend to present at an earlier age with a mean age at onset of 49 years. Life expectancy from the time of diagnosis is approximately 7 years for both. Shared signs of parkinsonism are rigidity and bradykinesia without a resting tremor. Furthermore, GRN mutation patients have asymmetric parkinsonism earlier in their course, and often display CBS, whereas MAPT mutation patients have a more symmetric akinetic-rigid parkinsonism and less typically exhibit CBS. On MRI, GRN mutation patients often show asymmetric atrophy that extends to the parietal lobes, and white matter signal abnormalities are common. In MAPT mutation cases, atrophy is more symmetric and parietal atrophy is not typically present. Another gene associated with parkinsonism and often MND is TARDBP, a rare mutation that has been reported in patients of Italian-French ancestry. In addition to rigidity and bradykinesia, rest tremor is more prevalent than in other FTLD-related mutations. C9Orf72 and FUS mutations are also associated with parkinsonism, but, more typically, MND dominates their motor symptoms.

An interesting, yet unique, parkinsonism association in FTLD is the amyotrophic lateral sclerosis-Parkinson-dementia complex (ALS-PDC) of Guam. ALS-PDC is strongly familial, but no genetic or environmental cause has been verified, while its prevalence has gradually declined. Clinically, there is rigidity, bradykinesia, and a nondisabling action-induced tremor. Finally, linear pigment retinal epitheliopathy occurs in 56% of cases compared with 16% of controls.

**Additional Studies**

In addition to obtaining a history of present illness and performing a physical examination, which provide the most useful diagnostic information, workup for suspected FTLD should include neuropsychological testing and structural brain MRI. Neuropsychological testing allows confirmation of historically reported cognitive deficits. It may not be significantly abnormal in the early stages of bvFTD or r-svPPA because early symptoms are mostly behavioral. In nfvPPA and l-svPPA specific tests of language are required. Generally, bvFTD patients have deficits in executive control, svPPA patients have language difficulties, evident on confrontation naming, and nfvPPA patients perform poorly on flukey output, word generation, and understanding of complex syntax comprehension. Tests of social cognition focused around social perception and behavior are helpful and may emerge in FTD prior to the onset of changes in executive control.

One cornerstone of the FTLD workup is structural brain MRI. As reflected in Fig. 2 and Tables 2 and 3, atrophy patterns vary between syndromes and even between genetic mutations within syndromes. Clinicians should look for these changes in MRI sequences themselves and should not rely solely on the radiologist’s impression, as radiologists often fail to comment on atrophy patterns. Additionally, MRI helps rule out other causes of cognitive and behavioral
impairment, such as tumors, vascular disease, prion, and paraneoplastic disorders; hence the need for sequences such as diffusion weighted imaging, fluid attenuated inversion recovery, and gradient echo. In contrast to MRI, there are no characteristic changes on electroencephalography, other than mild frontal slowing.

Functional resting state imaging in FTLD, such as metabolism-associated positron emission tomography (PET), single-photon emission computed tomography, and functional MRI, highlights impairments to vulnerable brain networks associated with behavioral and cognitive deficits (i.e., frontal and anterior temporal lobes).35 A conceptually similar approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syndrome</th>
<th>Possible/clinical diagnosis</th>
<th>Probable/imaging supported diagnosis</th>
<th>Definite/pathologically or genetically proven diagnosis</th>
<th>Exclusionary criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>At least 3 of the following: • Early behavioral disinhibition • Early apathy or inertia • Early lack of empathy or sympathy • Early perseverations, stereotypies or compulsions • Dietary habit changes or hyperorality • Executive-predominant deficits on neuropsychological testing with relative sparing of memory and visuospatial skills</td>
<td>All of the following: • Meets possible criteria • Significant decline per informant, or CDR, or FAQ • Imaging consistent with bvFTD (frontal and/or anterotemporal)</td>
<td>All of the following: • Meets possible OR probable criteria • Histopathological evidence of FTLD and/or presence of known pathogenic mutation</td>
<td>• Deficits are not better explained by alternative diagnosis (degenerative, nondegenerative, or psychiatric)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nfvPPA</td>
<td>At least one of the following: • Agrammatism • Effortful, halting speech with inconsistent sound errors (AOS)</td>
<td>All of the following: • Meets possible/clinical criteria • Imaging consistent with nfvPPA (left posterior frontoinsular)</td>
<td>All of the following: • Meets possible OR probable criteria • Histopathological evidence of specific pathology and/or presence of known pathogenic mutation</td>
<td>• Deficits are not better explained by alternative diagnosis (nondegenerative, or psychiatric)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>svPPA</td>
<td>All of the following: • Impaired confrontation naming • Impaired single-word comprehension</td>
<td>All of the following: • Meets possible/clinical criteria • Imaging consistent with svPPA (anterior temporal lobe)</td>
<td>All of the following: • Meets possible OR probable criteria • Histopathological evidence of specific pathology and/or presence of known pathogenic mutation</td>
<td>• Deficits are not better explained by alternative diagnosis (nondegenerative, or psychiatric)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations: AOS, apraxia of speech; CDR, Clinical Dementia Rating Scale; FAQ, Functional Activities Questionnaire; FTLD, frontotemporal lobar degeneration; PET, positron emission tomography; SPECT, single-photon emission computed tomography.

aApproximately within the first 3 years from symptom onset.
bImaging refers to structural magnetic resonance imaging atrophy, PET hypometabolism, or SPECT hypoperfusion.
cSpecific pathology in 2011 PPA (primary progressive aphasia) criteria may be tau, TDP-43, Alzheimer disease, or other proteinopathy.
dBoth nfvPPA and svPPA must satisfy PPA criteria by Mesulam with language impairment being the most prominent, disabling, and earliest symptom.
Table 5 Pharmacological treatments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medication</th>
<th>Dose</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Study designs</th>
<th>Combined study outcome</th>
<th>Side effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trazodone</td>
<td>Up to 300 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>DB-CO-RCT</td>
<td>Improved behavior&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Fatigue, dizziness, hypotension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluvoxamine</td>
<td>50–150 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD, svPPA</td>
<td>OL</td>
<td>Improved stereotypies</td>
<td>Appetite loss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paroxetine</td>
<td>Up to 40 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>OL, OL-RCT, DB-CO-RCT</td>
<td>No definite behavioral benefit</td>
<td>Improved mood, compulsions, and eating disorders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluoxetine</td>
<td>20 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>OL</td>
<td>Improved stereotypies</td>
<td>Well tolerated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sertraline</td>
<td>50–125 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>OL-CT, OL</td>
<td>Improved stereotypies</td>
<td>Well tolerated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citalopram</td>
<td>40 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>OL</td>
<td>Improved behavior</td>
<td>Well tolerated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donepezil</td>
<td>Up to 10 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>OL, DC</td>
<td>No benefit</td>
<td>Worse behavioral symptoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galantamine</td>
<td>Up to 24 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD, PPA</td>
<td>OL to DB-RCT</td>
<td>No benefit</td>
<td>Mild GI symptoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivastigmine</td>
<td>Up to 9 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>OL-CT</td>
<td>Improved behavior</td>
<td>Well tolerated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quetiapine</td>
<td>Up to 150 mg total daily dose</td>
<td>bvFTD, nfvPPA, svPPA</td>
<td>DB-CO-RCT</td>
<td>No definite benefit</td>
<td>Somnolence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olanzapine</td>
<td>Up to 10 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>OL</td>
<td>Improved agitation and anxiety</td>
<td>Somnolence, mild GI symptoms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bromocriptine</td>
<td>Up to 7.5 mg 3 times daily</td>
<td>PPA</td>
<td>DB-CO-RCT</td>
<td>No benefit</td>
<td>Rare frustration intolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methylphenidate</td>
<td>40 mg once</td>
<td>bvFTD</td>
<td>DB-CO-CT</td>
<td>Improved decision making within a few hours</td>
<td>Non-significant blood pressure increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dextroamphetamine</td>
<td>20 mg total daily dose</td>
<td>bvFTD, nfvPPA, svPPA</td>
<td>DB-CO-RCT</td>
<td>Improved behavior</td>
<td>Well tolerated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memantine</td>
<td>Up to 20 mg daily</td>
<td>bvFTD, nfvPPA, svPPA</td>
<td>OL, DB-RC</td>
<td>No benefit</td>
<td>Well tolerated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations: CO, crossover; CT, control trial; DB, double blind; DC, discontinuation of treatment; GI, gastrointestinal; OL, open-label; RCT, randomized control trial.

<sup>a</sup>Improved behavior usually corresponds to neuropsychiatric inventory scores or refers to irritability, agitation, depression, and eating disorders.
uses diffusion tensor imaging, which represents the structural integrity of white matter tracts connecting brain hubs. White matter tracts are affected early in the disease process, even in presymptomatic FTLD mutation carriers, and may provide even better diagnostic accuracy than volumetric MRI.\(^{36,37}\)

Fluid biomarkers, such as blood and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) have been extensively studied in FTLD. Testing for genetic mutations is useful if an autosomal dominant mutation is suspected (\(\sim\)Table 3). A risk factor for FTLD-tau, especially CBD and PSP, is histone 1 haplotype.\(^{58}\) In contrast, minor TMEM106B allele homozygosity protects GRN and C9Orf72 mutation carriers.\(^{59,60}\) The best studied CSF biomarker is the tau: A\(_{\beta}\) ratio, which is significantly lower in FTLD than AD patients.\(^{61}\)

Molecular PET is useful to test for the presence of amyloid pathology. Current guidelines recommend its use by a dementia expert (1) in patients younger than 65 years old, (2) in persistent or progressive unexplained mild cognitive impairment, and (3) in atypical or mixed-dementia presentations.\(^{62}\) Thus, it is helpful in differentiating AD from bvFTD, or lvPPA from nfvPPA, or to identify dual pathology. Tau imaging will soon be available to search for tau-positive forms of FTLD.\(^{63}\) Currently, there is no TDP-43 or FUS PET.

**Diagnostic Criteria**

Frontotemporal lobar degeneration diagnostic criteria were revised in 2011 for both bvFTD and PPA, aiming to improve diagnostic accuracy (\(\sim\)Table 4).\(^{3,4}\) Nonetheless, there is still room for criteria improvement because diagnostic accuracy and interrater reliability is imperfect. In time, it is likely that criteria will incorporate molecular PET, improving direct syndrome-to-pathology diagnostic associations (\(\sim\)Fig. 1), while in parallel addressing multiple copathologies (e.g., AD and FTLD).

**Treatment**

\(\sim\)Table 5 lists symptomatic treatments tested in FTD trials. Prior etiologic treatments have either proven toxic or non-efficacious.\(^{83}\) For more details on FTD therapies, see also the review in the current issue by Tsai and Boxer, Clinical Trials: Past, Current, and Future for Atypical Parkinsonian Syndromes. In general, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors are mildly beneficial for compulsions and eating disorders. Dopaminergic medications have no definite behavioral benefit. Recent trials do not support the use of memantine, and cholinesterase inhibitors seem to worsen behavior. Atypical antipsychotics should be used with caution only in cases of severe agitation given their extrapyramidal side effects. Levodopa may be considered in parkinsonism, especially where tau pathology or MAPT mutations are suspected, but a sustained response is rarely present.

A promising etiologic therapy focuses on halting tau spread using anti-tau antibodies, which in animal models decrease protein accumulation and improve behavior.\(^{84}\) Antisense oligonucleotides are being studied in C9Orf72 mutations.\(^{85}\) There is a single report of steroid treatment improving symptoms in svPPA, highlighting its association to autoimmunity.\(^{86}\) Finally, treatments that raise progranulin levels are in development for GRN mutations.\(^{83}\)

Nonpharmacological management of FTLD is as important as are pharmacological therapies. Family education and respite, a regular sleep schedule, social worker involvement, driving evaluation, exercise, and speech therapy can improve patients’ and families’ quality of life. Thus, a multidisciplinary dementia clinic is the optimal setting for management of FTLD. \(\sim\)Table 6 contains information on foundations and support groups for FTLD.
Acknowledgements

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