Archival Report

Amyloid- β Positivity Predicts Cognitive Decline but Cognition Predicts Progression to Amyloid- β Positivity

Jeremy A. Elman, Matthew S. Panizzon, Daniel E. Gustavson, Carol E. Franz, Mark E. Sanderson-Cimino, Michael J. Lyons, and William S. Kremen, for the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative

ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND: Stage 1 of the National Institute on Aging–Alzheimer's Association's proposed Alzheimer's disease continuum is defined as amyloid- β (A β) positive but cognitively normal. Identifying at-risk individuals before A β reaches pathological levels could have great benefits for early intervention. Although A β levels become abnormal long before severe cognitive impairments appear, increasing evidence suggests that subtle cognitive changes may begin early, potentially before A β surpasses the threshold for abnormality. We examined whether baseline cognitive performance would predict progression from normal to abnormal levels of A β .

METHODS: We examined the association of baseline cognitive composites (Preclinical Alzheimer Cognitive Composite, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) memory factor composite) with progression to A β positivity in 292 nondemented, A β -negative ADNI participants. Additional analyses included continuous cerebrospinal fluid biomarker levels to examine the effects of subthreshold pathology.

RESULTS: Forty participants progressed to $A\beta$ positivity during follow-up. Poorer baseline performance on both cognitive measures was significantly associated with increased odds of progression. More abnormal levels of baseline cerebrospinal fluid phosphorylated tau and subthreshold $A\beta$ were associated with increased odds of progression to $A\beta$ positivity. Nevertheless, baseline ADNI memory factor composite performance predicted progression even after controlling for baseline biomarker levels and *APOE* genotype (Preclinical Alzheimer Cognitive Composite was trend level). Survival analyses were largely consistent: controlling for baseline biomarker levels, baseline Preclinical Alzheimer Cognitive Composite still significantly predicted progression time to $A\beta$ positivity (ADNI memory factor composite was trend level).

CONCLUSIONS: The possibility of intervening before $A\beta$ reaches pathological levels is of obvious benefit. Low-cost, noninvasive cognitive measures can be informative for determining who is likely to progress to $A\beta$ positivity, even after accounting for baseline subthreshold biomarker levels.

Keywords: AD, Alzheimer's disease, Amyloid accumulation, β-amyloid, Biomarker trajectories, Cognition, MCI, Mild cognitive impairment

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsych.2019.12.021

Given its long prodromal period, Alzheimer's disease (AD) treatment should begin as early as possible (1). The National Institute on Aging–Alzheimer's Association (NIA-AA) research framework describes the A/T/(N) classification system, an approach to categorize individuals based on abnormal levels of amyloid, tau, and neurodegeneration. Early intervention may be possible after identifying amyloid- β (A β)–positive individuals who are still cognitively normal, defined as preclinical/stage 1 of the AD continuum proposed by the NIA-AA research framework (2). Yet, being A β -positive means significant pathology is already present. It may be critically important to identify at-risk individuals before they develop substantial amyloid burden (i.e., at stage 0) to

improve treatment efficacy and slow progression to AD dementia.

Examinations of AD biomarkers primarily focus on biomarkers as predictors of cognitive decline, but here, our focus was on biomarker positivity as an outcome. Abnormal biomarkers precede clinical symptom onset by years or even decades (3–5). However, there is also evidence that cognition demonstrates subtle change earlier than is typically appreciated. Cognition begins to show accelerated change across individuals with a range of baseline A β values, including those who are A β negative (6,7). Delayed recall has been shown to demonstrate accelerating change prior to other biomarker and clinical measures (8–10). Change in amyloid is also correlated

SEE COMMENTARY ON PAGE 782

with change in cognition (11,12). Thus, $A\beta$ accumulation, including subthreshold levels, is related to concurrent or future cognitive outcomes. However, none of these studies addressed whether baseline cognitive performance can predict progression to $A\beta$ positivity as an outcome. According to the NIA-AA framework staging, $A\beta$ positivity precedes cognitive impairment, consistent with serial models of AD trajectories. Here, we examined whether baseline cognition among $A\beta$ -negative individuals could predict later progression to $A\beta$ positivity, even among cognitively unimpaired individuals.

Increasing postmortem evidence indicates that abnormal tau appears in the brainstem during the earliest stages of AD—potentially before cortical A β plaque deposition—and tau is associated with poorer memory performance even in the absence of A β (13–16). However, individuals classified as A–/T+ are not considered to be on the AD continuum. Although tau deposition in the absence of A β might be age related rather than Alzheimer's related, we also examined whether individuals with elevated tau would be more likely to progress to A β positivity, indicating increased risk of AD.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

Participants

Data used in the preparation of this article were obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database (adni.loni.usc.edu). The ADNI was launched in 2003 as a public-private partnership, led by Principal Investigator Michael W. Weiner, M.D. The primary goal of the ADNI has been to test whether serial magnetic resonance imaging, positron emission tomography (PET), other biological markers, and clinical and neuropsychological assessment can be combined to measure the progression of mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and early AD.

Participants from the ADNI-1, ADNI-GO, and ADNI-2 cohorts were included if they 1) had valid cognitive and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) A β and phosphorylated tau (p-tau) data at baseline, 2) had at least 1 follow-up of amyloid data based on CSF or PET, 3) were A β negative at baseline, and 4) did not have a diagnosis of Alzheimer's dementia at baseline (see Table 1 for participant characteristics). In total, baseline and

Table 1. Baseline Sample Characteristics of A β -Stable Versus A β -Converters

Measure	A β -Stable (n = 252)	A β -Converter ($n = 40$)
Age, Years	71.62 ± 7.20	71.69 ± 6.71
Male	128 (50.8)	25 (62.5)
APOE ε4 Status (ε4+)	41 (16.3)	12 (30.0)
MCI Diagnosis (MCI)	117 (46.4)	21 (52.5)
Education, Years ^a	16.21 ± 2.56	17.20 ± 2.22
Length of Follow-up, Years ^a	3.22 ± 1.59	4.30 ± 2.44
ADNI_MEM	0.89 ± 0.68	0.70 ± 0.59
PACC	-1.32 ± 3.31	-1.97 ± 3.03

Values are mean \pm SD or *n* (%).

A β , amyloid- β ; ADNI_MEM, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative memory factor composite; MCI, mild cognitive impairment; PACC, Preclinical Alzheimer Cognitive Composite.

^aSignificant (p < .05) difference between the 2 groups.

follow-up amyloid status were based on 585 assessments of CSF AB, 646 florbetapir PET scans, and 10 ¹¹C-Pittsburgh Compound B scans. Individuals were classified as Aß stable if they had no abnormal amyloid levels at any follow-up, or as $A\beta$ converter if they showed evidence of abnormal AB at a followup assessment. Individuals who were A β positive at multiple assessments followed by a subsequent reversion to Aβnegative status on only a single time point were included as $A\beta$ converters. Individuals who were A β positive at only one assessment, followed by reversion to A β -negative status, were excluded (n = 9). Individuals diagnosed as having MCI in the ADNI (17) were included if they were A β negative at baseline because our focus was to determine whether poorer cognition may precede amyloid positivity, and some of these A β -negative individuals with MCI may progress to A β positivity. Excluding them would truncate the distribution of cognitive performance, our predictor of primary interest. A total of 292 individuals were included (252 A β stable, 40 A β converters). Despite being A β negative, 138 (47.3%) were diagnosed with MCI at baseline.

Procedures were approved by the institutional review board of participating institutions and informed consent was obtained from all participants.

CSF and Amyloid Imaging Measures

CSF samples were collected and processed as previously described (18). CSF $A\beta_{42}$ and p-tau were measured with the fully automated Elecsys immunoassay (Roche Diagnostics, Basel, Switzerland) by the ADNI biomarker core (University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA). Established cutoffs designed to maximize sensitivity in the ADNI study population were used to classify biomarker positivity [A β +: A β_{42} < 977 pg/mL; p-tau+: p-tau > 21.8 pg/mL] (http://adni.loni.usc.edu/ methods) (19).

PET A β data were processed according to previously published methods (http://adni.loni.usc.edu/methods) (20,21). Mean standardized uptake value ratios were taken from a set of regions including frontal, temporal, parietal, and cingulate cortices using the whole cerebellum (florbetapir) or cerebellar gray matter (¹¹C-Pittsburgh Compound B) as a reference region. Established cutoffs to determine A β + were used for ¹¹C-Pittsburgh Compound B–PET (standardized uptake value ratio > 1.44) and florbetapir-PET (standardized uptake value ratio > 1.11) (20).

CSF A β assessment was more common at earlier study time points, whereas PET assessments became more common at later time points. We included both modalities to maximize the number of individuals with baseline data and increase the length of follow-up assessment for dichotomized outcomes. However, it was necessary to restrict analyses of continuous baseline values to a single modality so that values were equivalent. CSF was chosen to examine continuous levels of baseline A β because it was available for more participants compared with PET.

Cognitive Measures

We used 2 composite measures of baseline cognition. The ADNI memory factor composite (ADNI_MEM) is based on a factor model of scores from 4 episodic memory tests: Rey

Auditory Verbal Learning Test, Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale–Cognition word list and recognition, Mini-Mental State Examination word recall, and Logical Memory immediate and delayed recall (22). The Preclinical Alzheimer Cognitive Composite (PACC) (23,24) is designed to detect amyloid-related cognitive decline and is based on delayed recall from the Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale–Cognition and Logical Memory, Mini-Mental State Examination total score, and Trail Making Test Part B time. ADNI_MEM and PACC scores were converted to *z* scores and coded such that higher scores reflect poorer performance. In a secondary analysis, we examined the ADNI executive function factor composite (25) to test whether a composite baseline executive function measure also predicted conversion to A β positivity.

Covariates

Age and APOE genotype ($\varepsilon 4 + vs. \varepsilon 4 -$) were included because of their association with increased amyloid (26). Although age and cognitive performance are correlated, the variance inflation factor for these variables was \leq 1.30 in all models, well below the common threshold indicating excessive multicollinearity. Length of follow-up was included to account for its effect on odds of observing eventual progression to AB positivity. Education was included to account for long-standing differences in cognitive ability or cognitive reserve that might influence the relationship between amyloid and cognition. In other analyses, baseline biomarkers were included to assess the effect of AD-related pathology on progression to A β positivity. P-tau status (p-tau+ vs. p-tau-) was included to account for differences in cognition owing to other AD-related pathology. An additional set of models included continuously measured CSF A β_{42} and p-tau as covariates to determine whether subthreshold levels of pathology predict later progression to A β positivity. These measures were converted to z scores, and values of CSF AB42 were reverse coded such that higher values of both indicated abnormality.

Statistical Analysis

We tested Aβ-stable and Aβ-converter groups for differences in the covariates using chi-square and t tests. Logistic regression models were used to test whether baseline cognition in Aβ-negative individuals was associated with increased odds of future progression to $A\beta$ positivity. We chose this approach over a generalized linear mixed-effects logistic regression that included data from all time points because the issue of primary interest was the odds of progressing to $A\beta$ positivity at any point during follow-up, not the odds of being Aß positive at each individual time point (see Supplement for further discussion). The first set of models separately tested the ADNI_MEM and PACC, with baseline cognitive performance on these measures as predictors and group (A β stable or A β converter) as the outcome. The second set of models additionally included p-tau status to assess whether lower cognitive performance was driven by abnormal levels of p-tau, the other hallmark AD pathology. Although no subject met criteria for abnormal A β at baseline, that does not mean that they were completely free of pathology. Therefore, we ran a third set of models to determine whether poorer baseline cognition was driven by subthreshold levels of amyloid or tau. These models included continuous levels of CSF A β_{42} and ptau as predictors. All models included age at baseline, *APOE* genotype (ε 4+ vs. ε 4-), education, and length of follow-up as covariates. To determine whether effects were driven primarily by the subgroup with MCI at baseline, we conducted follow-up analyses excluding those individuals.

We also examined Cox proportional hazards models to test the association of baseline cognitive performance with time to conversion to Aβ-positive status (or censored at last followup). Two sets of models were run: the first included baseline cognitive performance as the predictor of interest; the second added continuous levels of baseline CSF $A\beta_{42}$ and p-tau. These models additionally controlled for age at baseline, APOE genotype, and education. The survival analyses are useful for directly addressing the question of differential follow-up time. However, they consider individuals with differential times to conversion differently, and the use of multiple modalities may further affect time to conversion. Because our primary question of interest was about progression to AB positivity at any point during follow-up, rather than its time to progression, we consider these models to be supplemental to the primary logistic regression analyses. Analyses were conducted with R version 3.5 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria).

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are presented in Tables 1 and 2. There were no significant differences between groups for age (p = .94), gender (p = .18), or proportion of individuals with MCI (p = .47). A β converters were more likely to be *APOE* $\varepsilon 4+$ at a trend level (p = .08). The A β -converter group had a higher average education (17.23 years vs. 16.2 years [$t_{56.7} = 2.78$, p = .007]). The follow-up interval was significantly longer for the A β -converter group (4.3 years vs. 3.22 years [$t_{44.4} = 2.50$, p = .02]). The mean time between baseline cognitive testing and the assessment at which A β converters first demonstrated progression to A β positivity was 2.8 years (interquartile range, 1.98–4.01 years). Of the 138 individuals who were A β negative

Table 2. Baseline Sample Characteristics of Cognitively Normal Versus MCI

Measure	Cognitively Normal ($n = 154$)	MCI (n = 138)
Age, Years	72.67 ± 5.97	70.47 ± 8.09
Male	80 (51.9)	73 (52.9)
APOE ε4 status (ε4+)	25 (16.2)	28 (20.3)
Education, Years ^a	16.50 ± 2.50	16.18 ± 2.57
Baseline CSF A β , pg/mL ^a	1488.68 ± 233.40	1443.50 ± 260.50
Baseline CSF p-tau, pg/mL ^a	19.47 ± 5.75	$19.54~\pm~7.86$
ADNI_MEM ^a	0.59 ± 0.69	0.46 ± 0.57
PACC ^a	-3.25 ± 3.15	-3.40 ± 2.42

Values are mean \pm SD or *n* (%).

A β , amyloid- β ; ADNI_MEM, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative memory factor composite; CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; p-tau, phosphorylated tau; MCI, mild cognitive impairment; PACC, Preclinical Alzheimer Cognitive Composite.

^aSignificant (p < .05) difference between the 2 groups.

and had MCI at baseline, 21 (15%) progressed to A β positivity. The MCI group did not have significantly different levels of baseline CSF A β (p = .119) or p-tau (p = .930) compared with cognitively normal participants. However, individuals with MCI who progressed to A β positivity did have lower baseline CSF A β ($t_{25.9} = 3.158$, p = .004) and higher p-tau ($t_{27.4} = 2.389$, p = .024) compared with those with MCI that did not (see Supplemental Table S1).

Baseline Cognition Predicts Progression to A β Positivity During Follow-up

In the first set of models, A β -converters were also more likely to be *APOE* ε 4+, have more education, and have longer duration of follow-up. Age was not significantly associated with progression to A β positivity in either model. After accounting for covariates, individuals with poorer performance on either cognitive composite at baseline showed higher odds of progressing to A β positivity at follow-up (ADNI_MEM: odds ratio [OR], 1.66; *p* = .013; PACC: OR, 1.66; *p* = .01). Full results of the regression models are presented in Figure 1.

The second set of models included a dichotomous classification for baseline CSF p-tau (Figure 2). A β converters were again more likely to be *APOE* ε 4+, have more education, and have longer duration of follow-up. Age and dichotomous p-tau status were not significantly associated with progression to A β positivity in either model. After controlling for covariates, poorer baseline performance on either cognitive composite remained significantly associated with increased odds of progressing to A β positivity at follow-up (ADNI_MEM: OR, 1.64; p = .016; PACC: OR, 1.67; p = .011).

The third set of models addressed the question of whether subthreshold levels of AD pathology could account for the effect of lower cognitive performance on progression by including continuous CSF A β and p-tau measures (Figure 3). More abnormal baseline CSF A β and p-tau were associated with increased odds of progression to A β positivity (CSF A β : OR, 2.53–2.59; p < .001; CSF p-tau: OR, 1.51; p = .03). Note that for CSF A β , these values were all in the normal range

according to standard cutoffs. After controlling for baseline biomarkers, the performance on the ADNI_MEM remained a significant predictor (OR, 1.61; p = .03), but the effect of the PACC was reduced to trend level (OR, 1.49; p = .071). Education and length of follow-up remained significant predictors of progression, whereas the effect of *APOE* ε 4 status was reduced to trend level.

To determine whether these results may be driven by the MCI participants, we conducted analyses on cognitively normal and MCI groups separately. The large drop in sample size resulted in nonsignificant results for most analyses, but effect sizes of cognition predicting progression to A β positivity tended to be larger for the cognitively normal group.

Baseline performance on the ADNI executive function factor also significantly predicted later conversion at A β positivity. This effect remained when including dichotomous p-tau status but became nonsignificant when including continuous levels of baseline CSF A β and p-tau (see Supplemental Table S2).

Baseline Cognition Predicts Progression Time to $\mbox{A}\beta$ Positivity

The Cox models were largely consistent with the logistic regression models (Figure 4, Supplemental Figure S1). In models including only baseline cognitive performance and covariates, *APOE* ε 4 and higher education were associated with significantly higher risk whereas age was not. After accounting for covariates, lower cognitive performance was associated with increased risk of progression to A β positivity (ADNI_MEM: hazard ratio [HR], 1.48; p = .024; PACC: HR, 1.61; p = .006).

Additional Cox models were conducted including baseline CSF A β and p-tau to assess the impact of subthreshold pathology on risk of progression to A β positivity (Figure 4, Supplemental Figure S2). More abnormal baseline CSF A β and p-tau were associated with increased risk of progression to A β positivity (CSF A β : HR, 2.3; p < .001; CSF p-tau: OR, 1.5; p < .001). The PACC remained significantly associated with increased risk of progression (HR, 1.45, p = .04), whereas the



Figure 1. Baseline cognitive performance predicting future conversion to amyloid- β (A β) positivity. Results of 2 logistic regression models using (A) the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative memory factor composite (ADNI_MEM) and (B) the Preclinical Alzheimer Cognitive Composite (PACC). Measures are all taken from baseline and predict future progression to A β positivity. Cognitive scores were converted to *z* scores and reverse-coded, such that higher scores indicate poorer performance. Odds ratios are presented with asterisks indicating significant estimates (*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001). Lines represent 95% confidence intervals.



Figure 2. Baseline cognitive performance and phosphorylated tau–positive (Ptau+) status predicting future conversion to amyloid- β (A β) positivity. Results of 2 logistic regression models using (A) the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative memory factor composite (ADNI_MEM) and (B) the Preclinical Alzheimer Cognitive Composite (PACC). Measures are all taken from baseline and predict future progression to A β positivity. Cognitive scores were converted to *z* scores and reverse-coded, such that higher scores indicate poorer performance. Ptau+ is entered as a dichotomous variable. Odds ratios are presented with asterisks indicating significant estimates (*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001). Lines represent 95% confidence intervals.

effect of the ADNI_MEM was reduced to trend level (HR, 1.41; p = .063). Age was not associated with increased effects, and both *APOE* ε 4 and education were reduced to trend level.

DISCUSSION

Cognitive Function Predicts A^β Positivity

Here, we found that cognition can be a useful early risk indicator. The ability to identify individuals at risk before substantial A β accumulation would enhance prospects for slowing AD progression and may be useful for selection of participants in clinical trials. The NIA-AA research framework represents a move toward defining AD as a biological construct (2). However, as noted by the NIA-AA workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for AD (27), behavioral markers may still hold great promise for early identification. Cognitive measures can predict progression from MCI to AD as well as or better than biomarkers (28–31). It is not surprising that cognitive measures predict future cognition, but we found that cognitive measures can predict progression to A β positivity even after accounting for baseline biomarker levels. Furthermore, composite measures such as those used here may provide substantial boosts in sensitivity compared with individual test scores (32,33).



Figure 3. Baseline cognitive performance and continuous measures of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) amyloid- β (A β) and phosphorylated tau (P-tau) predicting future conversion to A β positivity. Results of 2 logistic regression models using (A) the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative memory factor composite (ADNI_MEM) and (B) the Preclinical Alzheimer Cognitive Composite (PACC). Measures are all taken from baseline and predict future progression to A β positivity. Cognitive scores were converted to *z* scores and reverse-coded, such that higher scores indicate poorer performance. CSF A β and P-tau were entered as continuous variables. Both measures were *z*-scored, and CSF A β was reverse-coded, such that higher values on both indicates abnormality. Odds ratios are presented with asterisks indicating significant estimates (*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001). Lines represent 95% confidence intervals.



Figure 4. Survival estimates of progression to amyloid- β ($A\beta$) positivity based on baseline cognitive performance. Cox proportional hazard models were run using continuous measures of baseline performance. For display purposes, scores were grouped based on a median split and adjusted survival curves are shown for better (upper half) and worse (lower half) performance on baseline cognitive measures. Results from 4 models are presented: (**A**) Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative memory factor composite (ADNI_MEM) + covariates; (**B**) Preclinical Alzheimer Cognitive Composite (PACC) + covariates; (**C**) ADNI_MEM + covariates + baseline cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) A β and phosphorylated tau; (**D**) PACC + covariates + baseline CSF A β and phosphorylated tau were entered as continuous variables. Covariates include: *APOE* ε 4+ status, age at baseline, and education. The *p* values of hazard ratios for cognitive measures are shown for each model.

Impact of Subthreshold $A\beta$

Why would cognition predict future accumulation of AD pathology? There may be several potential explanations. Pathological processes may already be underway, and lower cognitive function may represent decline driven by subthreshold pathology. In a smaller (n = 35) study of ADNI participants, baseline cognition did not predict later progression to $A\beta$ positivity (34). However, with the larger sample in our analysis, cognitive function was a significant predictor. Controlling for subthreshold A β in our analysis attenuated the effect of cognition, lending support to the idea that even low levels of A β are at least partially contributing to lower cognitive performance. This fits with growing evidence that subthreshold levels of A β are clinically relevant. Cognitive tests at this early stage seem to be more sensitive than dichotomous classifications of biomarker abnormality at current detection thresholds. As biomarker measures become more sensitive, classification of biomarker abnormality may more consistently appear before cognitive differences.

On the other hand, cognition still predicted future progression to A β positivity, even after controlling for subthreshold A β . Therefore, cognitive performance contributes independent information, and the effect is not driven solely by individuals closer to the A β -positivity threshold. Cognitive testing early on is also more practical, noninvasive, and far less costly than CSF or PET biomarkers.

Although CSF and PET measure different aspects of the amyloid process, both are considered valid indicators of abnormal A β , and use of both is consistent with the goals of the A/T/(N) framework. On the other hand, it may introduce some inconsistencies such as timing of conversion. Of the 40 A β -converters, only 6 (15%) were based on different modalities (baseline CSF negative; follow-up PET positive), largely because later follow-ups were with PET. Moreover, these measures show high concordance (35–37), such that it is likely that if an individual is positive on one, he or she would be positive on the other at some point in the near future. Most importantly, our primary analyses only assess if—not when—

someone converts to $A\beta$ positivity, which should mitigate differences in these modalities.

The relevance of subthreshold pathology also has implications for the use of dichotomous versus continuous biomarker measures. Some have argued that making $A\beta$ thresholds less conservative may improve sensitivity without a substantial sacrifice of specificity (38). Our findings suggest that current thresholds may not detect meaningful early $A\beta$ accumulation, so the development of thresholds optimized for detecting the earliest stages of A β deposition is an important goal. Analysis of continuous measures should also be conducted when possible because continuous and binary A/T/(N) measures may lead to inconsistent inferences. An alternative approach is to examine AB accumulation over time. Several studies have examined individuals who do not meet the criteria for abnormal A β but do demonstrate evidence of change in A β (11,12,39–41). These studies find that change in A β levels is correlated with concurrent cognitive decline, commonly assumed to result from $A\beta$ accumulation. Here, we shifted the focus to earlier in time and found that baseline cognition itself can predict later A β accumulation.

Non–AD-Related Processes and Ordering of AD-Related Changes

An alternative explanation for cognition predicting A β positivity is that lower cognitive function at baseline may result from non-AD-related processes. Individuals who progress to MCI while being A β negative exhibit different biomarkers and cognitive profiles and tend to be on a non-AD trajectory (42). As a whole, the A β -negative MCI group in our analysis did not differ from the cognitively normal group on baseline A β or ptau, perhaps suggesting a non-AD etiology for cognitive impairment. However, the significant association between baseline cognition and later A β positivity suggests that such processes are still somehow a risk factor for AD. Indeed, 15% of A β -negative MCI participants did progress to A β positivity, at which point they would be classified as stage 3 in the AD continuum. This 15% had more abnormal levels of baseline $A\beta$ (although still subthreshold) and p-tau compared with MCI participants who did not progress, suggesting that AD pathology may at least partially contribute to their cognitive impairment. Some individuals may be more sensitive to the effects of A β , such that even subthreshold levels result in cognitive impairment.

It is, of course, possible to have mixed etiology driving impairment whether it appears before or after an individual surpasses the threshold for A β positivity. Although the A/T/(N) framework is agnostic to the sequence of AD-related changes (43), these A β -negative (A–) MCI cases would not be considered to be on the AD continuum. As such, cognitive impairment prior to A β positivity is assumed to have a non-AD etiology. However, as pointed out in the NIA-AA framework, it is also uncertain that cognitive impairment arising after A β positivity is solely due to AD pathology (2). Indeed, it is well known that there can be significant AD pathology without cognitive impairment (44–46). Although the proposed NIA-AA research framework staging captures the typical progression, it will be beneficial to maintain a degree of flexibility to account for individuals who may progress through these stages in a nontypical trajectory.

Tau-PET studies have found that tau is confined to the medial temporal lobe and spreads to the rest of the isocortex only once A β is present (47–50). However, some have suggested that tau and A β develop independently, which may give rise to variable ordering in their progression (14,15,51). These different findings may raise questions about serial models of AD biomarker trajectories, i.e., that A β always precedes tau. We found that continuous—but not dichotomous—levels of CSF p-tau were associated with significantly higher odds of progression to A β positivity. Thus, some individuals with elevated tau and subthreshold A β do develop more typical AD-like profiles. Being at heightened risk of entering the AD continuum, they would be worth monitoring more closely.

Long-standing Individual Differences

Another explanation for why cognition predicts $A\beta$ positivity is that lower baseline cognition might reflect long-standing individual differences. Lower cognitive function may reflect less efficient neural processing, which would in turn require higher activity. It has been proposed that elevated synaptic activity across the lifespan could result in increased release and aggregation of $A\beta$ (52). Individuals with less efficient processing (indexed by lower cognitive function) may therefore be at greater risk of accumulating $A\beta$.

However, this idea may seem to be contradicted by the unexpected finding that higher education was associated with increased odds of progression to $A\beta$ positivity. We propose two potential explanations. First, individuals with lower education may be at greater risk of becoming A β positive prior to their baseline visit, and thus would not have been included in our analysis. Those with lower education who remained $A\beta$ negative until their baseline visit may be more resistant to $A\beta$ deposition, and thus less likely to progress in the future. Second, the seemingly paradoxical education finding might be, in part, a function of ADNI ascertainment. Average education was 16+ years, yet only about 10% of this age cohort in the United States attained a 4-year college degree (53). ADNI participants were recruited at AD Research Centers, which are likely to attract people with concerns about memory and AD risk. There might, in turn, be a link between well-educated older adults with memory concerns and increased likelihood of progressing to $A\beta$ positivity.

Are the Results Driven by MCI Cases?

We considered that the present results might be driven by the 47.3% of the sample diagnosed with MCI at baseline. However, ORs were in the direction of greater magnitude among cognitively normal participants when analyzed separately. It is also worth emphasizing that the results for the majority (52.7%) of the sample are consistent with typical disease progression because these non-MCI individuals did not have cognitive impairment prior to reaching A β positivity. Rather, differences within the range of normal cognitive function were informative about who is more likely to become A β positive.

Implications for Study Participant Selection

Use of $A\beta$ positivity as inclusion criteria should be context dependent. Defined cut-points are necessary for clinical diagnosis and for clinical trials targeting $A\beta$ pathology. Including only biomarker-confirmed MCI cases will reduce the number of false-positive diagnoses and provide more certainty that cognitive deficits arise from AD pathology. Our results suggest that early cognitive testing may also have utility as a screening tool for identifying who should receive biomarker assessments to more directly assess disease etiology or suitability for clinical trials. However, it would exclude $A\beta$ -negative MCI cases who may later enter the AD continuum upon progression to $A\beta$ positivity. If the goal is to understand the earliest stages of the AD continuum, it will be important to capture individuals who demonstrate putative atypical disease progression to better detect and identify sources of variability.

Summary

Despite much evidence for the standard model of biomarker and cognitive trajectories, the current results demonstrate the complex nature of disease progression. Differences in cognition that predict future progression to $A\beta$ positivity may be driven by subthreshold pathology, perhaps suggesting a need to reconsider current biomarker thresholds or to focus more on approaches that measure $A\beta$ accumulation. Additionally, higher levels of tau are associated with increased risk of becoming A β positive. Thus, elevated tau should be considered when identifying those at risk for developing AD. A subset of individuals with MCI but normal A β levels may similarly end up on the AD pathway, as indicated by later progression to $A\beta$ positivity. Importantly, the results strongly suggest that cognition should not be considered important only as a latestage end point of AD. Rather, even when cognitive function is still within the normal range, it can provide a sensitive, lowcost, noninvasive predictor of risk, potentially before current thresholds for A β positivity are reached.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS AND DISCLOSURES

This work was supported by National Institute on Aging Grant Nos. R01 AG050595 (to WSK, MJL, CEF), R01 AG022381 (to WSK), R01 AG055367 (sub-principal investigator CEF), R01 AG056410 (to MSP), and K08 AG047903 (to MSP). Data collection and sharing for this project was funded by the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) (National Institutes of Health Grant No. U01 AG024904) and Department of Defense ADNI (Department of Defense award Grant No. W81XWH-12-2-0012). ADNI is funded by the National Institute on Aging, the National Institute of Biomedical Imaging and Bioengineering, and through generous contributions from the following: AbbVie; Alzheimer's Association; Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation; Araclon Biotech; BioClinica, Inc.; Biogen; Bristol-Myers Squibb Company; CereSpir, Inc.; Cogstate; Eisai Inc.; Elan Pharmaceuticals, Inc.; Eli Lilly and Company; EuroImmun; F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd and its affiliated company Genentech, Inc.; Fujirebio; GE Healthcare; IXICO Ltd.; Janssen Alzheimer Immunotherapy Research & Development, LLC.: Johnson & Johnson Pharmaceutical Research & Development LLC: Lumosity; Lundbeck; Merck & Co., Inc.; Meso Scale Diagnostics, LLC; NeuroRx Research: Neurotrack Technologies: Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation; Pfizer Inc.; Piramal Imaging; Servier; Takeda Pharmaceutical Company; and Transition Therapeutics. The Canadian Institutes of Health Research is providing funds to support ADNI clinical sites in Canada. Private sector contributions are facilitated by the Foundation for the National Institutes of Health (www.fnih.org). The grantee organization is the Northern California Institute for Research and Education, and the study is coordinated

by the Alzheimer's Therapeutic Research Institute at the University of Southern California. ADNI data are disseminated by the Laboratory for Neuro Imaging at the University of Southern California. The funding agencies had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of the data; preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript; and decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

Data used in preparation of this article were obtained from the ADNI database (adni.loni.usc.edu). As such, the investigators within the ADNI contributed to the design and implementation of ADNI and/or provided data but did not participate in analysis or writing of this report. A complete listing of ADNI investigators can be found at: http://adni.loni.usc.edu/wp-content/ uploads/how_to_apply/ADNI_Acknowledgement_List.pdf

Presented at the 2019 Alzheimer's Association International Conference, July 14, 2019, Los Angeles, California.

This article was published as a preprint on bioRxiv: doi: https://www. biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/523787v3.

The authors report no biomedical financial interests or potential conflicts of interest.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

From the Department of Psychiatry (JAE, MSP, CEF, MES-C, WSK) and Center for Behavior Genetics of Aging (JAE, MSP, DEG, CEF, MES-C, WSK), University of California, San Diego; and Center of Excellence for Stress and Mental Health (WSK), VA San Diego Healthcare System, La Jolla, California; Department of Otolaryngology (DEG), Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, Tennessee; and the Department of Psychological and Brain Sciences (MJL), Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts.

JAE and MSP contributed equally to this work.

Address correspondence to Jeremy A. Elman, Ph.D., UCSD Department of Psychiatry, 9500 Gilman Drive (MC 0738), La Jolla, CA 92093; E-mail: jaelman@ucsd.edu.

Received Sep 5, 2019; revised and accepted Dec 19, 2019.

Supplementary material cited in this article is available online at https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsych.2019.12.021.

REFERENCES

- Sperling R, Mormino E, Johnson K (2014): The evolution of preclinical Alzheimer's disease: Implications for prevention trials. Neuron 84:608– 622.
- Jack CR Jr, Bennett DA, Blennow K, Carrillo MC, Dunn B, Haeberlein SB, et al. (2018): NIA-AA Research Framework: Toward a biological definition of Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimers Dement 14:535–562.
- Villemagne VL, Burnham S, Bourgeat P, Brown B, Ellis KA, Salvado O, et al. (2013): Amyloid beta deposition, neurodegeneration, and cognitive decline in sporadic Alzheimer's disease: A prospective cohort study. Lancet Neurol 12:357–367.
- Beason-Held LL, Goh JO, An Y, Kraut MA, O'Brien RJ, Ferrucci L, *et al.* (2013): Changes in brain function occur years before the onset of cognitive impairment. J Neurosci 33:18008–18014.
- Bateman RJ, Xiong C, Benzinger TL, Fagan AM, Goate A, Fox NC, et al. (2012): Clinical and biomarker changes in dominantly inherited Alzheimer's disease. N Engl J Med 367:795–804.
- Insel PS, Ossenkoppele R, Gessert D, Jagust W, Landau S, Hansson O, *et al.* (2017): Time to amyloid positivity and preclinical changes in brain metabolism, atrophy, and Cognition: Evidence for emerging amyloid pathology in Alzheimer's disease. Front Neurosci 11:281.
- Insel PS, Mattsson N, Mackin RS, Scholl M, Nosheny RL, Tosun D, et al. (2016): Accelerating rates of cognitive decline and imaging markers associated with beta-amyloid pathology. Neurology 86:1887– 1896.
- Jedynak BM, Liu B, Lang A, Gel Y, Prince JL, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (2015): A computational method for computing an Alzheimer's disease progression score; experiments and validation with the ADNI data set. Neurobiol Aging 36(suppl 1):S178–S184.
- 9. Jedynak BM, Lang A, Liu B, Katz E, Zhang Y, Wyman BT, et al. (2012): A computational neurodegenerative disease progression score:

Method and results with the Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative cohort. NeuroImage 63:1478–1486.

- Younes L, Albert M, Moghekar A, Soldan A, Pettigrew C, Miller MI (2019): Identifying changepoints in biomarkers during the preclinical phase of Alzheimer's disease. Front Aging Neurosci 11:74.
- Landau SM, Horng A, Jagust WJ, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (2018): Memory decline accompanies subthreshold amyloid accumulation. Neurology 90:e1452–e1460.
- Farrell ME, Chen X, Rundle MM, Chan MY, Wig GS, Park DC (2018): Regional amyloid accumulation and cognitive decline in initially amyloid-negative adults. Neurology 91:e1809–e1821.
- Maass A, Lockhart SN, Harrison TM, Bell RK, Mellinger T, Swinnerton K, et al. (2018): Entorhinal tau pathology, episodic memory decline, and neurodegeneration in aging. J Neurosci 38:530–543.
- Braak H, Del Tredici K (2015): The preclinical phase of the pathological process underlying sporadic Alzheimer's disease. Brain 138:2814– 2833.
- Braak H, Thal DR, Ghebremedhin E, Del Tredici K (2011): Stages of the pathologic process in Alzheimer disease: Age categories from 1 to 100 years. J Neuropathol Exp Neurol 70:960–969.
- 16. Theofilas P, Ehrenberg AJ, Dunlop S, Di Lorenzo Alho AT, Nguy A, Leite REP, et al. (2017): Locus coeruleus volume and cell population changes during Alzheimer's disease progression: A stereological study in human postmortem brains with potential implication for earlystage biomarker discovery. Alzheimers Dement 13:236–246.
- Petersen RC, Aisen PS, Beckett LA, Donohue MC, Gamst AC, Harvey DJ, *et al.* (2010): Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI): Clinical characterization. Neurology 74:201–209.
- Shaw LM, Vanderstichele H, Knapik-Czajka M, Clark CM, Aisen PS, Petersen RC, et al. (2009): Cerebrospinal fluid biomarker signature in Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative subjects. Ann Neurol 65:403–413.
- Hansson O, Seibyl J, Stomrud E, Zetterberg H, Trojanowski JQ, Bittner T, et al. (2018): CSF biomarkers of Alzheimer's disease concord with amyloid-beta PET and predict clinical progression: A study of fully automated immunoassays in BioFINDER and ADNI cohorts. Alzheimers Dement 14:1470–1481.
- Landau SM, Breault C, Joshi AD, Pontecorvo M, Mathis CA, Jagust WJ, et al. (2013): Amyloid-beta imaging with Pittsburgh compound B and florbetapir: Comparing radiotracers and quantification methods. J Nucl Med 54:70–77.
- Landau SM, Marks SM, Mormino EC, Rabinovici GD, Oh H, O'Neil JP, et al. (2012): Association of lifetime cognitive engagement and low β-amyloid deposition. Arch Neurol 69:623–629.
- Crane PK, Carle A, Gibbons LE, Insel P, Mackin RS, Gross A, et al. (2012): Development and assessment of a composite score for memory in the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI). Brain Imaging Behav 6:502–516.
- Donohue MC, Sperling RA, Petersen R, Sun CK, Weiner MW, Aisen PS, et al. (2017): Association between elevated brain amyloid and subsequent cognitive decline among cognitively normal persons. JAMA 317:2305–2316.
- Donohue MC, Sperling RA, Salmon DP, Rentz DM, Raman R, Thomas RG, et al. (2014): The preclinical Alzheimer cognitive composite: Measuring amyloid-related decline. JAMA Neurol 71:961–970.
- Gibbons LE, Carle AC, Mackin RS, Harvey D, Mukherjee S, Insel P, et al. (2012): A composite score for executive functioning, validated in Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) participants with baseline mild cognitive impairment. Brain Imaging Behav 6:517– 527.
- Jansen WJ, Wilson RS, Visser PJ, Nag S, Schneider JA, James BD, et al. (2018): Age and the association of dementia-related pathology with trajectories of cognitive decline. Neurobiol Aging 61:138–145.
- 27. Sperling RA, Aisen PS, Beckett LA, Bennett DA, Craft S, Fagan AM, et al. (2011): Toward defining the preclinical stages of Alzheimer's disease: Recommendations from the National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimers Dement 7:280–292.

- Gamberger D, Lavrac N, Srivatsa S, Tanzi RE, Doraiswamy PM (2017): Identification of clusters of rapid and slow decliners among subjects at risk for Alzheimer's disease. Sci Rep 7:6763.
- 29. Gomar JJ, Bobes-Bascaran MT, Conejero-Goldberg C, Davies P, Goldberg TE, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (2011): Utility of combinations of biomarkers, cognitive markers, and risk factors to predict conversion from mild cognitive impairment to Alzheimer disease in patients in the Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative. Arch Gen Psychiatry 68:961–969.
- Hinrichs C, Singh V, Xu G, Johnson SC, Alzheimers Disease Neuroimaging I (2011): Predictive markers for AD in a multi-modality framework: An analysis of MCI progression in the ADNI population. NeuroImage 55:574–589.
- Korolev IO, Symonds LL, Bozoki AC, Initi AsDN (2016): Predicting progression from mild cognitive impairment to Alzheimer's dementia using clinical, MRI, and plasma biomarkers via probabilistic pattern classification. PLoS One 11:e0138866.
- Jonaitis EM, Koscik RL, Clark LR, Ma Y, Betthauser TJ, Berman SE, et al. (2019): Measuring longitudinal cognition: Individual tests versus composites. Alzheimers Dement (Amst) 11:74–84.
- Gustavson DE, Sanderson-Cimino M, Elman JA, Franz CE, Panizzon MS, Jak AJ, *et al.* (in press): Extensive memory testing improves prediction of progression to MCI in late middle age. Alzheimers Dement.
- Mattsson N, Insel PS, Donohue M, Jagust W, Sperling R, Aisen P, et al. (2015): Predicting reduction of cerebrospinal fluid beta-amyloid 42 in cognitively healthy controls. JAMA Neurol 72:554–560.
- Landau SM, Lu M, Joshi AD, Pontecorvo M, Mintun MA, Trojanowski JQ, et al. (2013): Comparing positron emission tomography imaging and cerebrospinal fluid measurements of beta-amyloid. Ann Neurol 74:826–836.
- Blennow K, Mattsson N, Scholl M, Hansson O, Zetterberg H (2015): Amyloid biomarkers in Alzheimer's disease. Trends Pharmacol Sci 36:297–309.
- Palmqvist S, Zetterberg H, Mattsson N, Johansson P, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging I, Minthon L, et al. (2015): Detailed comparison of amyloid PET and CSF biomarkers for identifying early Alzheimer disease. Neurology 85:1240–1249.
- Villeneuve S, Rabinovici GD, Cohn-Sheehy BI, Madison C, Ayakta N, Ghosh PM, et al. (2015): Existing Pittsburgh Compound-B positron emission tomography thresholds are too high: Statistical and pathological evaluation. Brain 138:2020–2033.
- 39. Villain N, Chételat G, Grassiot B, Bourgeat P, Jones G, Ellis KA, *et al.* (2012): Regional dynamics of amyloid-β deposition in healthy elderly, mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease: A voxelwise PiB– PET longitudinal study. Brain 135:2126–2139.
- Insel PS, Mattsson N, Donohue MC, Mackin RS, Aisen PS, Jack CR Jr, et al. (2015): The transitional association between betaamyloid pathology and regional brain atrophy. Alzheimers Dement 11:1171–1179.
- Mattsson N, Insel PS, Nosheny R, Tosun D, Trojanowski JQ, Shaw LM, et al. (2014): Emerging beta-amyloid pathology and accelerated cortical atrophy. JAMA Neurol 71:725–734.
- Insel PS, Hansson O, Mackin RS, Weiner M, Mattsson N, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (2018): Amyloid pathology in the progression to mild cognitive impairment. Neurobiol Aging 64:76–84.
- Jack CR Jr, Bennett DA, Blennow K, Carrillo MC, Feldman HH, Frisoni GB, et al. (2016): A/T/N: An unbiased descriptive classification scheme for Alzheimer disease biomarkers. Neurology 87:539–547.
- Bennett DA, Schneider JA, Arvanitakis Z, Kelly JF, Aggarwal NT, Shah RC, et al. (2006): Neuropathology of older persons without cognitive impairment from two community-based studies. Neurology 66:1837–1844.
- Aizenstein HJ, Nebes RD, Saxton JA, Price JC, Mathis CA, Tsopelas ND, et al. (2008): Frequent amyloid deposition without significant cognitive impairment among the elderly. Arch Neurol 65:1509–1517.
- Katzman R, Terry R, DeTeresa R, Brown T, Davies P, Fuld P, et al. (1988): Clinical, pathological, and neurochemical changes in dementia:

A subgroup with preserved mental status and numerous neocortical plaques. Ann Neurol 23:138–144.

- Scholl M, Lockhart SN, Schonhaut DR, O'Neil JP, Janabi M, Ossenkoppele R, *et al.* (2016): PET imaging of tau deposition in the aging human brain. Neuron 89:971–982.
- Johnson KA, Schultz A, Betensky RA, Becker JA, Sepulcre J, Rentz D, et al. (2016): Tau positron emission tomographic imaging in aging and early Alzheimer disease. Ann Neurol 79:110–119.
- Pontecorvo MJ, Devous MD Sr., Navitsky M, Lu M, Salloway S, Schaerf FW, et al. (2017): Relationships between flortaucipir PET tau binding and amyloid burden, clinical diagnosis, age and cognition. Brain 140:748–763.
- Wang L, Benzinger TL, Su Y, Christensen J, Friedrichsen K, Aldea P, et al. (2016): Evaluation of tau imaging in staging Alzheimer disease and revealing interactions between beta-amyloid and tauopathy. JAMA Neurol 73:1070–1077.
- Small SA, Duff K (2008): Linking Abeta and tau in late-onset Alzheimer's disease: A dual pathway hypothesis. Neuron 60:534– 542.
- 52. Jagust WJ, Mormino EC (2011): Lifespan brain activity, β -amyloid, and Alzheimer's disease. Trends Cogn Sci 15:520–526.
- Ryan CL, Bauman K (2016): Educational Attainment in the United States: 2015. Washington, DC: Department of Commerce, U.S. Census Bureau.