ARTICLE IN PRESS



Alzheimer's

S
Dementia

Alzheimer's & Dementia ■ (2015) 1-10

Featured Article

The effect of white matter hyperintensities on neurodegeneration in mild cognitive impairment

Giuseppe Tosto^{a,b}, Molly E. Zimmerman^{c,d}, Jamie L. Hamilton^a, Owen T. Carmichael^e, Adam M. Brickman^{a,b,*}, for the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative¹

^aTaub Institute for Research on Alzheimer's Disease and the Aging Brain, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA

^bDepartment of Neurology, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA

^cDepartment of Psychology, Fordham University, Bronx, NY, USA

^dDepartment of Neurology, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Bronx, NY, USA

^ePennington Biomedical Research Center, Baton Rouge, LA, USA

Abstract

Introduction: It is unclear whether white matter hyperintensities (WMHs), magnetic resonance imaging markers of small-vessel cerebrovascular disease, promote neurodegeneration and associated clinical decline in Alzheimer's disease (AD), or simply co-occur with recognized pathogenic processes.

Methods: In 169 patients with mild cognitive impairment, followed for 3 years, we examined the association of (1) baseline regional WMH and cerebral spinal fluid–derived t-tau (total tau) with entorhinal cortex atrophy rates, as a marker of AD-related neurodegeneration, and conversion to AD; and (2) baseline regional WMH with change in t-tau level.

Results: In participants with low baseline t-tau, higher regional WMH volumes were associated with faster entorhinal cortex atrophy. Higher parietal WMH volume predicted conversion to AD in those with high t-tau. Higher parietal and occipital WMH volumes predicted increasing t-tau.

Discussion: WMHs affect AD clinical and pathologic processes both directly and interacting with tau. © 2015 The Alzheimer's Association. Published by Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Kevwords:

White matter hyperintensities; CSF tau; Alzheimer's disease; Mild cognitive impairment

1. Introduction

There has been an increased interest in the potential contributions of small-vessel cerebrovascular disease to the clinical presentation and pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease (AD). Despite consistent observations supporting the role of vascular factors in AD [1–5], they have not been incorporated into the

E-mail address: amb2139@columbia.edu

prevailing pathogenic models nor into newly implemented research criteria for AD and its antecedent conditions [6–8]. It is unclear whether cerebrovascular disease represents an independent pathologic factor that confers additive risk for clinical severity and course, whether it is a result of AD pathology, and/or whether it plays a primary role by promoting AD-related neurodegenerative changes. Understanding the role of cerebrovascular disease in AD is especially critical as it could clarify the prospect of vascular risk reduction as a preventive strategy for AD.

Small-vessel cerebrovascular disease typically manifests as white matter hyperintensities (WMHs), areas of increased signal on T2-weighted magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). In addition to being present in most individuals by the mid 60s [9] and correlating reliably with cognitive functioning in normal aging [10], we and others have shown that WMH may play a specialized role in AD. White matter

¹Data used in preparation of this article were obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (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.

^{*}Corresponding author. Tel.: +1-212-342-1348; Fax: +1-212-342-1838.

hyperintensity volume is elevated among individuals at risk for AD by virtue of being diagnosed with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) [5]; predicts rate of cognitive decline in MCI [11] and in AD [12]; and increases risk for future development of AD [13]. Furthermore, WMH distributed in the parietal lobes, in particular, increase risk for later development of AD [14], progress more rapidly among individuals who develop AD [15], and are associated with genetic risk for AD [16]; although there is also evidence that WMH distributed in anterior regions is associated with cognitive impairment and markers of AD pathology [17-19]. The purpose of the present study was to examine whether WMH, as a marker of small-vessel cerebrovascular disease, confers risk for regional brain atrophy reflective of AD-related neurodegeneration independently or interactively with cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) markers of tau pathology in individuals with MCI. We also examined whether WMH predict change in diagnostic status and longitudinal increase in CSF tau. Based on our previous observations with parietal lobe WMH and a recent report that showed that parietal WMH and tau have synergistic effects on predicting progression from MCI to AD [20], we hypothesized that parietal lobe WMH in particular would modify the effect of tau pathology on brain atrophy and clinical decline among individuals at risk for AD.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Overview

Using data from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI), we examined whether regional WMH volumes are related to the biological or clinical markers implicated in current hypothetical pathogenic models of AD [21,22]. Our primary question was whether regional WMH confers independent or synergistc effects on neurodegeneration with regard to tau pathology. Secondary questions addressed whether WMH has a similar effect on progression from MCI to AD and whether baseline measures of WMH predict increase in CSF tau over time. For markers of neurodegeneration, we chose entorhinal cortex volume as the main outcome because of its wellestablished role as a structural biomarker, important for memory function and vulnerable to neurofibrillary tangle pathology early in the pathogenic process of AD [23]. We examined progression from MCI to AD status as the primary clinical outcome. Finally, we examined the possibility that WMH promotes the progression of AD pathology by testing whether regional WMH volumes predict subsequent changes in tau pathology. Additional analyses with $A\beta_{42}$ as covariates tested whether the effect of WMHs and their interaction with total tau was independent of markers of amyloid pathology.

2.2. Data set

Analyses for the present study used data from first phase of the ADNI (ADNI 1) (www.adni.loni.usc.edu). The ADNI was launched in 2003 by the National Institute on Aging, the National Institute of Biomedical Imaging and Bioengineering, the Food and Drug Administration, private pharmaceutical companies, and nonprofit organizations, as a \$60 million, 5-year public-private partnership. The primary goal of ADNI has been to test whether serial MRI, PET, other biological markers, and clinical and neuropsychologic assessment can be combined to measure the progression of MCI and early AD. Determination of sensitive and specific markers of very early AD progression is intended to aid researchers and clinicians to develop new treatments and monitor their effectiveness, as well as lessen the time and cost of clinical trials.

The principal investigator of this initiative is Michael W. Weiner, MD, VA Medical Center and University of California-San Francisco. ADNI is the result of efforts of many coinvestigators from a broad range of academic institutions and private corporations, and subjects have been recruited from >50 sites across the United States and Canada. The initial goal of ADNI was to recruit 800 subjects but ADNI has been followed by ADNI-GO and ADNI 2. To date, these three protocols have recruited >1500 adults, ages 55-90 years, to participate in the research, consisting of cognitively normal older individuals, people with early or late MCI, and people with early AD. The follow-up duration of each group is specified in the protocols for ADNI 1, ADNI 2, and ADNI-GO. Subjects originally recruited for ADNI 1 and ADNI-GO had the option to be followed in ADNI 2. For up-to-date information, see www.adni-info.org.

2.3. Participants

Data from subjects diagnosed with amnestic MCI were downloaded from the ADNI website (www.adni.loni.usc. edu) and included demographic, cognitive, CSF biomarkers at baseline and longitudinal structural MRI scans data (n = 186). The ADNI study was designed to parallel procedures used in a clinical trial and thus only included participants who were in good medical health. Individuals were excluded from participation if they had significant vascular disease history, defined as a modified Hachinski score >4 [24]. Diagnosis of MCI was based on standard research criteria and included age between 55 and 90 years, a memory complaint (study subject or informant), objective evidence of abnormal memory, clinical dementia rating [25] score of 0.5, with a memory domain score of at least 0.5, Mini-Mental State Examination [26] score between 24 and 30 (inclusive), general cognition preserved such that a diagnosis of AD could not be made, stable medication, and not depressed (Geriatric Depression Scale [27] score of <6). Recruitment and diagnostic procedures have been reported in detail previously [28]. For the current analyses, participants were included if they had diagnosis of MCI at baseline, demographic variables, APOE genotype, CSF biomarkers ($A\beta_{42}$, total tau [t-tau]), and WMH assessment at baseline and longitudinal MRI scans. Seventeen subjects were excluded because of radiological evidence of infarcts resulting in a final sample size of 169 individuals. A subset of these subjects had longitudinal t-tau data available (n = 67).

2.4. Neuroimaging acquisition

A standardized MRI protocol for image acquisition was implemented across ADNI sites, which was validated across platforms [29]. All data acquisition was performed on 1.5-T systems. T1-weighted volumetric magnetization prepared rapid gradient echo sequences were acquired in the sagittal orientation. A proton density/T2-weighted fast spin echo sequence was acquired in the axial orientation. Sites included in the ADNI protocol were required to pass rigorous scanner validation tests and scan acquisitions for each subject included a fluid-filled phantom. Details of the validation procedures are provided elsewhere (www.adni.loni.usc.edu).

2.5. Predictors

2.5.1. White matter hyperintensities

Detailed description of WMH volumetric quantification has been provided previously [30]. Briefly, the T1-, T2-, and PD-weighted MRI scans were coregistered and skull stripped [31,32]. After bias field correction [33], WMH were detected based on corresponding PD, T1, and T2 intensities; the prior probability of WMH; and the conditional probability of WMH based on the presence of WMH at neighboring voxels. Total WMH volumes were derived by summing and multiplying the number of labeled voxels by voxel dimensions. Regional WMH volumes, from frontal, temporal, parietal, and occipital lobes, were derived for the baseline scans. Total and regional WMH volumes were natural log transformed before analysis.

2.5.2. CSF biomarkers

Cerebrospinal fluid samples were collected at study baseline by lumbar puncture and shipped to the ADNI Biomarker Core laboratory at the University of Pennsylvania Medical Center for long-term storage at -80° C. Details regarding the assay technology, validation, and quality control can be found online in a data primer for these CSF analyses (www. adni.loni.usc.edu). The established CSF AD biomarkers Aβ₄₂, t-tau, and phosphorylated tau (p-tau) were measured using the multiplex xMAP Luminex platform (Luminex Corp, Austin, TX, USA) with the INNOBIA AlzBio3 kit (Innogenetics, Ghent, Belgium). The biomarkers considered in the present study (AB42 and t-tau) were treated as dichotomous variables by dividing values according to established diagnostic thresholds validated in the ADNI cohort (i.e., for total tau = 93 pg/mL) [34]. In addition to baseline CSF biomarkers, we examined longitudinal CSF t-tau assessment over 3 years of follow-up available for a subset of patients (n = 67).

2.6. Outcomes

2.6.1. Neuroimaging outcomes

Structural MRI parcellation and segmentation data were downloaded from the ADNI website. ADNI structural

MRI data were analyzed with the longitudinal processing stream in FreeSurfer, version 4.3 (https://surfer.nmr.mgh. harvard.edu), at the University of California, San Francisco after the T1-weighted MRI scans were converted to NiFTI format and preprocessed at Mayo Clinic [35]. FreeSurfer was used to derive entorhinal cortex volume and total intracranial volume.

2.6.2. Clinical outcomes

All subjects were diagnosed with MCI at baseline. The main clinical/diagnostic outcome was time to conversion to AD.

2.7. Covariates and APOE genotyping

Sex, number of years of education, and age at baseline were included as covariates in all the models presented. In addition, all models were adjusted by total cranial volume at baseline to correct for individual differences in head size. *APOE* genotyping was based on allelic combinations of single-nucleotide polymorphisms rs7412 and rs429358.

2.8. Statistical analysis

Analyses were restricted to ADNI 1 phase, which includes up to 36 months of follow-up data at 6-month interval.

General estimating equation (GEE) analysis was used to investigate the impact of baseline regional WMH volumes and t-tau on the rate of entorhinal cortex atrophy. This method takes into account that fact that each subject has multiple visits and that measurements over time are likely to be correlated; furthermore, GEE allows for missing values and violation of normality [36]. Separate GEE models were run for each baseline regional WMH volume, time (in months from baseline), and their interaction as predictors (model 1). Cerebrospinal fluid-derived measures of t-tau at baseline, time, and their interaction were entered as predictors in model 2. A third series of models tested the two- and three-way interactions of baseline regional WMH volumes, baseline t-tau, and time controlling for the main effects of each predictor (model 3). Significant interaction terms with time would indicate that regional WMH volume or t-tau predicts the rate of entorhinal cortex atrophy. A significant three-way interaction would suggest that t-tau levels predict rates of atrophy and that this effect is modified by regional WMH burden, or equivalently that regional WMH volumes predict the rates of atrophy and that this effect is modified by t-tau levels. We included in a separate model CSF $A\beta_{42}$ as an additional covariate to test if it had any confounding and/or modifying effects on the interaction between WMH volumes and t-tau (model 3b). Similarly, this analysis was repeated after restricting the subject group to individuals defined as "amyloid positive" (n = 124) by cut points established in ADNI [34]. Finally, GEE analysis was again used to investigate whether regional WMH volumes at baseline could affect rate of change of t-tau over time. All analyses involving t-tau levels as a baseline predictor used a dichotomized variable as explained in the section of CSF biomarkers.

Cox proportional hazards models were constructed to examine the impact of baseline regional WMH volumes on progression to AD. Additional analyses were carried out to include t-tau and its interaction with the baseline regional WMH volumes. We used the enter selection method and the importance of predictive factors was assessed with Wald-type test statistics, the hazard ratio (HR), and its 95% confidence interval (CI) for survival. α levels were set a priori at 0.05.

3. Results

Clinical and demographic data are reported in Table 1.

3.1. Rate of entorhinal cortex atrophy

Results of the primary GEE analyses are listed in Table 2. Participants with high baseline t-tau showed faster atrophy rates compared with those with low t-tau as expected (significant baseline t-tau × time interaction). However, baseline regional WMH volumes modified the effect of t-tau on entorhinal cortex atrophy rates; those with lower baseline t-tau and higher frontal and parietal WMH volumes had disproportionately greater entorhinal cortex atrophy rates compared with those with low baseline t-tau and lower regional WMH volumes (significant baseline t-tau × baseline regional WMH × time interaction). For graphical purposes (Fig. 1), we dichotomized subjects in high and low baseline parietal lobe WMH volumes and plotted rates of entorhinal cortex atrophy, stratifying by baseline t-tau level. The results did not change when $A\beta_{42}$ was introduced as an additional covariate (Table 2, model 3b); similarly, when re-

Table 1
Demographic and baseline characteristics of participants included in the study, all diagnosed with MCI at baseline

Characteristic	Value
Subjects (n)	169
Sex (% women)	33.1
Mean (SD) age at baseline, y	73.8 (7)
Mean (SD) education, y	15.7 (3)
APOE status (% of participants with $\varepsilon 4$)	53.8
Entorhinal cortex volume (SD) at baseline, mm ³	1718 (400)
median frontal WMH (IQR), cm ³	0.09(0)
median temporal WMH (IQR), cm ³	0.01(0)
median parietal WMH (IQR), cm ³	0.04(0.1)
median occipital WMH (IQR), cm ³	0.05(0)
median total WMH (IQR), cm ³	0.24 (0.5)
t-tau	
Median value (IQR)	86 (59)
Subjects (n) with high vs. low t-tau	97 vs. 72
Number of subjects converting to Alzheimer's disease over the follow-up interval	79

Abbreviations: MCI, mild cognitive impairment; SD, standard deviation; WMH, white matter hyperintensity; IQR, interquartile range; t-tau, total tau.

Table 2 Predicting entorhinal cortex atrophy

Predictors	Model 1*		Model 2*		Model 3*		Model 3b [†]	
	β	P	β	P	β	P	β	P
Time* frontal WMH	0	.99						
Time* temporal WMH	-0.20	.51						
Time* parietal WMH	0.07	.83						
Time* occipital WMH	-0.19	.58						
Time* t-tau ^c			5.14	.001				
Time* frontal WMH* t-tau [‡]					-2.21	.005	-2.06	.007
Time* temporal WMH* t-tau [‡]					-1.02	.07	-1.01	.07
Time* parietal WMH* t-tau [‡]					-1.51	.009	-1.44	.010
Time* occipital WMH* t-tau [‡]					-0.65	.25	-0.56	.32

Abbreviation: WMH, white matter hyperintensity.

NOTE: The table displays results from GEE analyses that determined whether baseline measures of regional WMH and/or tau (predictors) are associated with rate of entorhinal cortex atrophy (outcome). Two-way interactions with time indicate that the rate of entorhinal cortex atrophy varies as a function of each unit measurement of the predictor. For example, the significant interaction between tau and time (model 2) indicates that entorhinal cortex volume declines on average 5.14 mm³ per month less in the low tau group compared with the high tau group (reference). When three-way interactions are considered, the rate of change over time in entorhinal cortex volume is a function of increasing WMH in the low t-tau group as compared with the high t-tau group (reference group). In model 1, separate GEE analyses were run for each baseline regional WMH volume. Model 2 considered baseline t-tau levels as a primary predictor of entorhinal cortex atrophy. Model 3 included separate GEE analyses that examined the interactions between baseline regional WMH and t-tau on entorhinal cortex volume. Boldface values indicate statistical significance.

- *Adjusted for sex, age, education, APOE, intracranial volume.
- † Adjusted for sex, age, education, APOE, intracranial volume, A β_{42} .

stricting the analyses to individuals defined as amyloid positive, the t-tau \times parietal WMH \times time interaction, the effect was almost identical ($\beta = -1.29$, CI = 3.00–0.43).

3.2. Progression to clinical AD

Among regional WMH volumes, only baseline parietal WMH volume predicted conversion to AD at a trend level (HR = 1.07, CI = 0.99–1.16; P = .077). When baseline t-tau level and its interaction with baseline parietal lobe WMH volumes were introduced, the model predicted time to conversion to AD (HR = 1.25, CI = 1.02–1.54; P = .035); those with high t-tau levels had a 25% increase in the risk of incident AD for every cubic centimeter increase in parietal lobe WMH compared with participants with low t-tau. None of the other baseline regional WMH volumes interacted with t-tau to predict progression to AD, and none of the covariates were associated with incident AD. The results were unchanged after introducing $A\beta_{42}$ as an additional

[‡]High t-tau is the reference group.

G. Tosto et al. / Alzheimer's & Dementia ■ (2015) 1-10

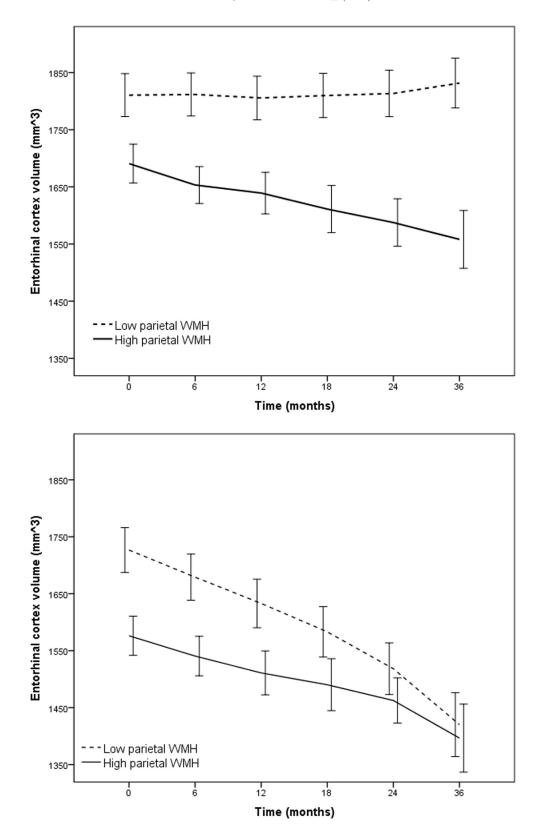


Fig. 1. Rate of atrophy of entorhinal cortex volume stratified by total CSF t-tau level (low t-tau top panel, high t-tau bottom panel) as a function of parietal WMH volume dichotomized by mean log WMH value (for visualization purposes). Entorhinal cortex atrophy rate was particularly precipitous among individuals with low baseline CSF t-tau and high parietal lobe WMH volume. Error bars are 95% CIs. Abbreviations: CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; WMH, white matter hyperintensity; t-tau, total tau; CI, confidence interval.

covariate. Also, the results were specific for the parietal lobe; for example, when considering the total WMH volume, the interaction between WMH volume and tau levels on progression to clinical AD was not significant (HR = 1.26, CI = 0.96–1.64, P = .09). Fig. 2 displays the results of the Cox regression analysis.

3.3. Rate of change of CSF t-tau

Parietal and occipital WMH volumes at baseline were associated with rate of change of t-tau ($\beta = 0.21$, P = .04 and $\beta = 0.14$, P = .04, respectively). Fig. 3 displays t-tau change over 36 months as a function of baseline parietal lobe WMH volume. On the other hand, t-tau at baseline did not predict WMH change over time ($\beta = 0.009$, P = .27).

4. Discussion

We examined whether regional WMH volume predicts neurodegeneration and change in clinical status independently or synergistically with respect to markers of tau pathology among individuals with MCI. Several important findings were observed. As expected, greater tau predicted greater rate of entorhinal cortex atrophy, but this association was modified by WMH burden; participants with lower levels of tau pathology had a higher rate of atrophy if they also had increased WMH burden.

Consistent with current pathogenic models of AD [21,22], increased tau burden is clearly a primary source

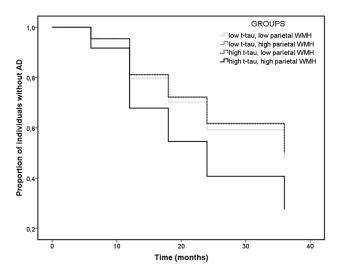


Fig. 2. Cox regression survival analysis: time to event (conversion from MCI to AD status) as a function of parietal WMH volume and t-tau. Compared with participants with low t-tau, those with high t-tau had a 25% increase in the risk of incident AD for every 1 cm³ increase in parietal lobe WMH. High and low t-tau groups are defined by cut score of 93 mg/mL, according to previous studies in ADNI [34]. High and low parietal lobe WMH groups are defined by the mean log parietal lobe WMH volume for graphical purposes only. Abbreviations: MCI, mild cognitive impairment; AD, Alzheimer's disease; WMH, white matter hyperintensity; t-tau, total tau; ADNI, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative.

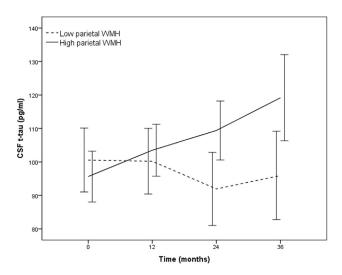


Fig. 3. Rate of change of CSF t-tau level over 36 months stratified by mean log parietal lobe WMH volume (for descriptive purposes). Individuals with higher baseline parietal lobe WMH had more rapid increase in CSF t-tau than those with lower amounts of parietal lobe WMH. Error bars are 95% CIs. Abbreviations: CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; t-tau, total tau; WMH, white matter hyperintensity; CI, confidence interval.

of neurodegeneration, but when tau levels are low, regionally distributed WMH burden has an important impact on neurodegeneration. However, elevated WMH, particularly in the parietal lobes, also predicted progression from MCI to AD, and this association was particularly strong among individuals with high levels of tau; those with both high tau and high parietal lobe WMH were at particularly high risk of conversion to AD. Taken together, the findings suggest that regionally distributed WMH influence AD in two ways: first, by promoting neurodegenerative changes directly and second, by potentiating the effect of tau on clinical conversion (Fig. 4). Two notable observations in this study help explain the nature of the interaction between tau pathology and WMH. First, we showed that WMH volume predicts the increase in CSF tau over time, but tau levels do not predict the accumulation of WMH over time. Second, careful examination of the interaction between tau levels and parietal lobe WMH volumes on progression of entorhinal cortex atrophy, displayed in Fig. 1, suggests a biological ordering where the effect of WMH on entorhinal cortex atrophy precedes the effect of tau on entorhinal cortex atrophy. That is, among individuals with lower levels of tau, only those with higher amounts of parietal lobe WMH have reliable decline in entorhinal cortex volume. On the other hand, among those with high levels of tau, both those with high and low parietal WMH volumes show a similarly precipitous decline in entorhinal cortex volume; in addition, baseline entorhinal cortex volumes among individuals with high parietal WMH (i.e., the intercept in the lower panel of Fig. 1) are similar to the entorhinal cortex volumes observed at the last follow-up visit for individuals with low levels of tau (i.e., values at

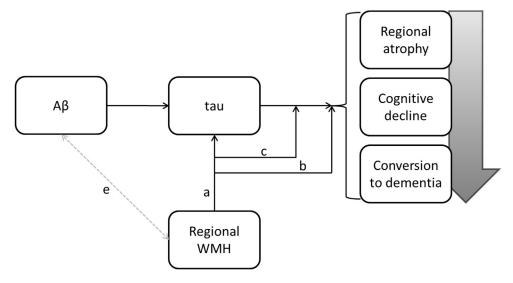


Fig. 4. Conceptual model linking WMH to clinical progression in AD. Current pathogenic models of the disease emphasize the precipitating role of $A\beta$, which leads to tau pathology, resulting in regional atrophy, cognitive decline, and conversion to dementia. Results from this study suggest that regional WMH affect tau directly (A), affect markers of disease progression (i.e., regional atrophy and clinical progression) directly (B), and modify the effect of tau on disease progression (C). Whether or how regional WMH and $A\beta$ interact needs to be elucidated (E). Abbreviations: WMH, white matter hyperintensity; AD, Alzheimer's disease.

36-month interval in the top panel of Fig. 1). We therefore speculate that accumulating parietal lobe WMH is a relatively early phenomenon that promotes neurodegeneration among individuals with MCI and that t-tau and WMH do not necessarily represent two independent sources of impairment that have additive impact, but rather are biologically linked. It should be noted that research on the ordering of the biological and clinical changes in AD are inherently biased by the measurement precision of relevant variables; it is possible that the measurement of WMH in ADNI, which was not designed to examine cerebrovascular disease, may be less precise than other biological markers.

Although we found that WMH volume distributed in several regions is important for clinical outcomes, elevated burden in the parietal lobes was most consistent. Our study is in line with a recent report [20] that showed that neurologically healthy older adults or patients diagnosed with MCI who progressed to AD over a 6-year interval were more likely to have high levels of parietal lobe WMH at baseline if their CSF-derived measures of tau were normal. Together with our previous reports that implicate parietal lobedistributed WMH in individuals at high genetic [16] and clinical [14,15] risk for AD, findings from the present study provide further evidence of the importance of the regional distribution of WMH. The parietal lobes have been implicated in AD pathogenesis and clinical expression for quite some time [37,38]. It is interesting to note that metabolic imaging studies classically point to parietal lobe hypometabolism in AD [39], which is typically interpreted as evidence of dysfunction to neurodegenerative changes in that region. Future studies will need to determine the extent to which metabolic dysfunction in this region is mediated by underlying vascular damage. Furthermore, the propensity for WMH distributed in the parietal lobes to be associated with risk for AD may suggest that the pathology underlying WMH may vary by region. Indeed, in theory, any fluid-restricting pathologic change that causes local damage to the white matter can cause hyperintense signal on T2-weighted MRI scans. We [40] have hypothesized that WMH in posterior regions reflects both small-vessel ischemic damage and microhemorrhagic damage due to cerebral amyloid angiopathy. Alternatively, the pathology underlying the regional distribution of WMH may be uniform, but its clinical impact may vary by region; posterior damage may impact cognitive and functional networks more so than damage to other areas.

Although most pathogenic models of AD suggest that tau-related pathology results from Aβ toxicity in AD, tau is a nonspecific marker that increases with damage to cells in the brain. When tau levels are elevated in the CSF, it is most likely because of accumulation within neurons and then release into the fluid with the degeneration of those brain cells [41], although theoretically CSF tau levels may reflect degeneration, accumulation of the protein, or both. Neuropathologic studies are consistent in demonstrating that tissue damage that results in radiological WMH is likely driven by small-vessel ischemic change [42]. Common histologic features of WMH include arteriolosclerosis, increased myelin pallor, and complete or incomplete infarction [41-43]. It is therefore conceivable that some tau increases results from the ischemic damage reflected in WMH. This conclusion is indeed a major "take home" message of this study-small vessel cerebrovascular disease is one source of the neurodegenerative changes in AD. A previous study that used data from ADNI [44] showed that WMH volume predicted clinical and cognitive decline, but was not associated with CSF-derived $A\beta_{42}$ or hippocampal volume. However, that study did not consider regional WMH volume nor examine its impact on tau levels or entorhinal cortex volume, which may be more specific markers for neurodegenerative changes in AD. In the context of the previous report, our study suggests that regional WMH volume may affect AD-related neurodegeneration if not amyloid pathology.

There are obvious clinical and theoretical implications for this work. From a clinical perspective, our findings indicate that interventions targeted at reducing the accumulation of WMH or treating their antecedent risk factors could reduce the risk of AD and the rate of neurodegenerative changes. Participants with severe vascular risk and cerebrovascular disease are excluded from participation in ADNI, which, on the one hand, suggests that the impact of WMH may be even greater in the overall population, which includes individuals with more severe cerebrovascular disease, but on the other hand, limits our ability to generalize our findings to individuals with more severe cerebrovascular disease. Results from a recent randomized controlled trial showed that interventions directed at the amelioration of cardiovascular risk factors were successful at slowing down white matter pathology progression in early AD, but had little effect on cognition [45]. Thus, we speculate that modification of vascular risk profile would have only little effect when clinical evidence of dementia has already emerged. Future intervention studies should focus on presymptomatic individuals at risk for AD.

From a theoretical perspective, these findings challenge current hypothetical models of AD pathogenesis [22] and recently implemented diagnostic criteria Cerebrovascular vascular disease is considered an important "confound" that may help explain variability in symptoms onset rather than playing a primary role in pathogenesis of disease. Our findings add to an accumulating body of work that implicates small-vessel disease as an important driver of disease with similar impact as tau pathology. Thus, although amyloid pathology may be necessary for AD but not sufficient to explain the phenomenology of the disease, small-vessel cerebrovascular disease, like tau, may represent a "second hit" that is required to produce the neurodegenerative changes and cognitive changes associated with AD.

Acknowledgments

G.T., M.E.Z., J.L.H., O.T.C., and A.M.B. report no disclosures.

All co-authors had full access to the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the analysis.

G.T. is supported by grant DoD grant W81XWH-12-1-0013. A.M.B. is supported by NIH grant R01 AG034189.

Data collection and sharing for this project was funded by the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI; National Institutes of Health grant U01 AG024904) and DOD ADNI (Department of Defense award number 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: Alzheimer's Association; Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation; Araclon Biotech; BioClinica, Inc; Biogen Idec Inc; Bristol-Myers Squibb Company; 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; Medpace, Inc; Merck & Co, Inc; Meso Scale Diagnostics, LLC; NeuroRx Research; Neurotrack Technologies; Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation; Pfizer Inc; Piramal Imaging; Servier; Synarc Inc; and Takeda Pharmaceutical Company. 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 Disease Cooperative Study at the University of California, San Diego. ADNI data are disseminated by the Laboratory for Neuro Imaging at the University of Southern California.

RESEARCH IN CONTEXT

- Systematic review: We reviewed the literature for studies involving white matter hyperintensities (WMH) and cerebral spinal fluid biomarkers as main predictors and brain imaging markers, neuropsychologic test performance, and clinical diagnosis as main outcomes. Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies were included.
- 2. Interpretation: We investigated the role of WMH in promoting pathogenic and clinical changes in Alzheimer's disease (AD) and its antecedent condition, mild cognitive impairment. WMH affect brain atrophy when tau is not yet elevated. By providing evidence that WMH promotes tau accumulation, we also speculate that WMH is actively involved in the pathogenic processes that result in AD neurodegeneration.
- Future directions: Vascular components should be considered in future pathogenic models of AD and incorporated in diagnostic criteria. Future work should consider vascular factors as a treatment or prevention target.

G. Tosto et al. / Alzheimer's & Dementia ■ (2015) 1-10

References

- Barnes DE, Yaffe K. The projected effect of risk factor reduction on Alzheimer's disease prevalence. Lancet Neurol 2011;10:819–28.
- [2] Gorelick PB. Cerebrovascular disease in African Americans. Stroke 1998;29:2656–64.
- [3] Helzner EP, Luchsinger JA, Scarmeas N, Cosentino S, Brickman AM, Glymour MM, et al. Contribution of vascular risk factors to the progression in Alzheimer disease. Arch Neurol 2009;66:343–8.
- [4] Kivipelto M, Helkala E-L, Laakso MP, Hänninen T, Hallikainen M, Alhainen K, et al. Midlife vascular risk factors and Alzheimer's disease in later life: Longitudinal, population based study. BMJ 2001; 322:1447–51.
- [5] Luchsinger J, Brickman A, Reitz C, Cho S, Schupf N, Manly J, et al. Subclinical cerebrovascular disease in mild cognitive impairment. Neurology 2009;73:450–6.
- [6] Sperling RA, Aisen PS, Beckett LA, Bennett DA, Craft S, Fagan AM, et al. 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 2011;7:280–92.
- [7] Albert MS, DeKosky ST, Dickson D, Dubois B, Feldman HH, Fox NC, et al. The diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment due to Alzheimer's disease: Recommendations from the National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimers Dement 2011;7:270–9.
- [8] McKhann GM, Knopman DS, Chertkow H, Hyman BT, Jack CR Jr, Kawas CH, et al. The diagnosis of dementia due to Alzheimer's disease: Recommendations from the National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimers Dement 2011;7:263–9.
- [9] Wen W, Sachdev P. The topography of white matter hyperintensities on brain MRI in healthy 60-to 64-year-old individuals. Neuroimage 2004;22:144–54.
- [10] Brickman AM, Siedlecki KL, Muraskin J, Manly JJ, Luchsinger JA, Yeung L-K, et al. White matter hyperintensities and cognition: Testing the reserve hypothesis. Neurobiol Aging 2011;32:1588–98.
- [11] Tosto G, Zimmerman ME, Carmichael OT, Brickman AM, Initiative ADN, others. Predicting aggressive decline in mild cognitive impairment: The importance of white matter hyperintensities. JAMA Neurol 2014;71:872–7.
- [12] Brickman AM, Honig LS, Scarmeas N, Tatarina O, Sanders L, Albert MS, et al. Measuring cerebral atrophy and white matter hyperintensity burden to predict the rate of cognitive decline in Alzheimer disease. Arch Neurol 2008;65:1202–8.
- [13] Provenzano FA, Muraskin J, Tosto G, Narkhede A, Wasserman BT, Griffith EY, et al. White matter hyperintensities and cerebral amyloidosis: Necessary and sufficient for clinical expression of Alzheimer disease? JAMA Neurol 2013;70:455–61.
- [14] Brickman AM, Provenzano FA, Muraskin J, Manly JJ, Blum S, Apa Z, et al. Regional white matter hyperintensity volume, not hippocampal atrophy, predicts incident Alzheimer disease in the community. Arch Neurol 2012;69:1621–7.
- [15] Brickman AM, Zahodne LB, Guzman VA, Narkhede A, Meier IB, Griffith EY, et al. Reconsidering harbingers of dementia: Progression of parietal lobe white matter hyperintensities predicts Alzheimer's disease incidence. Neurobiol Aging 2014;36:27–32.
- [16] Brickman AM, Schupf N, Manly JJ. Does APOE-ε4 confer risk for Alzheimer's disease through regionally distributed white matter hyperintensities? Alzheimers Dement 2014;10:619–29.
- [17] Chalmers K, Wilcock G, Love S. Contributors to white matter damage in the frontal lobe in Alzheimer's disease. Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol 2005;31:623–31.
- [18] Haight TJ, Landau SM, Carmichael O, Schwarz C, DeCarli C, Jagust WJ. Dissociable effects of Alzheimer disease and white matter

- hyperintensities on brain metabolism. JAMA Neurol 2013; 70:1039–45.
- [19] Polvikoski T, van Straaten E, Barkhof F, Sulkava R, Aronen H, Niinist L, et al. Frontal lobe white matter hyperintensities and neurofibrillary pathology in the oldest old. Neurology 2010;75: 2071–8.
- [20] Hertze J, Palmqvist S, Minthon L, Hansson O. Tau pathology and parietal white matter lesions have independent but synergistic effects on early development of Alzheimer's disease. Dement Geriatr Cogn Dis Extra 2013;3:113–22.
- [21] Jack CR Jr, Knopman DS, Jagust WJ, Shaw LM, Aisen PS, Weiner MW, et al. Hypothetical model of dynamic biomarkers of the Alzheimer's pathological cascade. Lancet Neurol 2010; 9:119–28.
- [22] Jack CR Jr, Knopman DS, Jagust WJ, Petersen RC, Weiner MW, Aisen PS, et al. Tracking pathophysiological processes in Alzheimer's disease: An updated hypothetical model of dynamic biomarkers. Lancet Neurol 2013;12:207–16.
- [23] Hyman BT, Trojanowski JQ. Editorial on consensus recommendations for the postmortem diagnosis of Alzheimer disease from the National Institute on Aging and the Reagan Institute Working Group on diagnostic criteria for the neuropathological assessment of Alzheimer disease. J Neuropathol Exp Neurol 1997;56:1095–7.
- [24] Hachinski VC, Iliff LD, Zilhka E, Du Boulay GH, McAllister VL, Marshall J, et al. Cerebral blood flow in dementia. Arch Neurol 1975;32:632–7.
- [25] Morris JC. The Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR): Current version and scoring rules. Neurology 1993;43:2412–4.
- [26] Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. "Mini-mental state": A practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. J Psychiatr Res 1975;12:189–98.
- [27] Yesavage JA, Brink T, Rose TL, Lum O, Huang V, Adey M, et al. Development and validation of a geriatric depression screening scale: A preliminary report. J Psychiatr Res 1983;17:37–49.
- [28] Weiner MW, Aisen PS, Jack CR Jr, Jagust WJ, Trojanowski JQ, Shaw L, et al. The Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative: Progress report and future plans. Alzheimers Dement 2010;6:202–11.
- [29] Jack CR, Bernstein MA, Fox NC, Thompson P, Alexander G, Harvey D, et al. The Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI): MRI methods. J Magn Reson Imaging 2008;27:685–91.
- [30] Schwarz C, Fletcher E, DeCarli C, Carmichael O. Fully-automated white matter hyperintensity detection with anatomical prior knowledge and without FLAIR. Inf Process Med Imaging 2009; 21:239–51.
- [31] Birdsill AC, Koscik RL, Jonaitis EM, Johnson SC, Okonkwo OC, Hermann BP, et al. Regional white matter hyperintensities: Aging, Alzheimer's disease risk, and cognitive function. Neurobiol Aging 2014;35:769–76.
- [32] Wolz R, Julkunen V, Koikkalainen J, Niskanen E, Zhang DP, Rueckert D, et al. Multi-method analysis of MRI images in early diagnostics of Alzheimer's disease. PLoS One 2011;6:e25446.
- [33] DeCarli C, Murphy D, Teichberg D, Campbell G, Sobering G. Local histogram correction of MRI spatially dependent image pixel intensity nonuniformity. J Magn Reson Imaging 1996;6:519–28.
- [34] Shaw LM, Vanderstichele H, Knapik-Czajka M, Clark CM, Aisen PS, Petersen RC, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid biomarker signature in Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative subjects. Ann Neurol 2009; 65:403–13.
- [35] Wyman BT, Harvey DJ, Crawford K, Bernstein MA, Carmichael O, Cole PE, et al. Standardization of analysis sets for reporting results from ADNI MRI data. Alzheimers Dement 2013;9:332–7.
- [36] Liang K-Y, Zeger SL. Longitudinal data analysis using generalized linear models. Biometrika 1986;73:13–22.
- [37] Bruner E, Jacobs HI. Alzheimer's disease: The downside of a highly evolved parietal lobe? J Alzheimers Dis 2013;35:227–40.

- [38] Jacobs HI, Van Boxtel MP, Jolles J, Verhey FR, Uylings H. Parietal cortex matters in Alzheimer's disease: An overview of structural, functional and metabolic findings. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 2012;36:297–309.
- [39] Ishii K, Sasaki H, Kono AK, Miyamoto N, Fukuda T, Mori E. Comparison of gray matter and metabolic reduction in mild Alzheimer's disease using FDG-PET and voxel-based morphometric MR studies. Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging 2005;32:959–63.
- [40] Brickman AM. Contemplating Alzheimer's disease and the contribution of white matter hyperintensities. Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep 2013;13:1–9.
- [41] Fazekas F, Kleinert R, Offenbacher H, Schmidt R, Kleinert G, Payer F, et al. Pathologic correlates of incidental MRI white matter signal hyperintensities. Neurology 1993;43:1683–9.
- [42] Erten-Lyons D, Woltjer R, Kaye J, Mattek N, Dodge HH, Green S, et al. Neuropathologic basis of white matter hyperintensity accumulation with advanced age. Neurology 2013;81:977–83.
- [43] Jagust WJ, Zheng L, Harvey DJ, Mack WJ, Vinters HV, Weiner MW, et al. Neuropathological basis of magnetic resonance images in aging and dementia. Ann Neurol 2008;63:72–80.
- [44] Lo RY, Jagust WJ, Weiner M, Aisen P, Petersen R, Jack CR, et al. Vascular burden and Alzheimer disease pathologic progression. Neurology 2012;79:1349–55.
- [45] Richard E, Gouw AA, Scheltens P, van Gool WA. Vascular care in patients with Alzheimer disease with cerebrovascular lesions slows progression of white matter lesions on MRI the Evaluation of Vascular Care in Alzheimer's Disease (EVA) Study. Stroke 2010;41:554–6.