

Cognitive Decline in Alzheimer's Disease Is Not Associated with *APOE*

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Abstract.

Background: The rate of cognitive decline in Alzheimer's disease (AD) has been found to vary widely between individuals, with numerous factors driving this heterogeneity.

Objective: This study aimed to compute a measure of cognitive decline in patients with AD based on clinical information and to utilize this measure to explore the genetic architecture of cognitive decline in AD.

Methods: An in-house cohort of 616 individuals, hereby termed the Cardiff Genetic Resource for AD, as well as a subset of 577 individuals from the publicly available ADNI dataset, that have been assessed at multiple timepoints, were used in this study. Measures of cognitive decline were computed using various mixed effect linear models of Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE). After an optimal model was selected, a metric of cognitive decline for each individual was estimated as the random slope derived from this model. This metric was subsequently used for testing the association of cognitive decline with apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) genotype.

Results: No association was found between the number of *APOE* $\epsilon 2$ or $\epsilon 4$ alleles and the rate of cognitive decline in either of the datasets examined.

Conclusion: Further exploration is required to uncover possible genetic variants that affect the rate of decline in patients with AD.

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease, *APOE*, cognitive decline, dementia, genetics

INTRODUCTION

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most prevalent neurodegenerative disease and the most common cause of dementia. Worldwide, it is estimated to affect more than 45 million people, and due to the global aging of the population, this number is expected to rise fourfold by 2050 [1]. In the UK, there is an estimated 850,000 people with AD [2], resulting in a total estimated societal cost of £26.3 billion per annum, despite the fact that a large part of the care for people with AD is provided by informal unpaid caregivers [3]. Notably, AD is the leading cause of death in England and Wales, accounting for 12.7% of all deaths registered [4]. As the world's population continues

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¹Data used in the preparation of this article were obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database (<http://www.loni.ucla.edu/ADNI>). 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. ADNI investigators include (complete listing available at http://adni.loni.ucla.edu/wpcontent/uploads/how_to_apply/ADNI_Authorship_List.pdf).

to age, the resources required to adequately address AD will greatly increase, and effective interventions to delay the onset and the progression of the disease will be necessary to reduce the impact it has both on the people directly affected and on society as a whole.

The severity of the symptoms and the rate of disease progression are important factors to consider regarding AD, as people with a severe phenotype or a rapid decline are considerably more likely to require additional care resources, including early institutionalization and increased total societal costs even with informal caregiving [5, 6]. Therefore, attenuating the rate of cognitive decline in people with AD can be effective in decreasing the societal burden of dementia in addition to reducing the risk for developing AD.

Both population-based and clinical studies have shown that only about 30% of AD patients manifest a slow progression, with the majority of individuals declining rapidly after diagnosis [7–9]. Various factors have been implicated in the rate of progression in AD, including educational attainment, medical comorbidities, nursing home placement, age, and baseline cognition level [10–13]. However, the results remain inconclusive and there are currently no reliable methods to predict disease progression in AD.

There are numerous methods of assessing disease severity and progression in individuals with AD, most of them being questionnaire-based assessment scales. The most commonly used scale, both in research and in clinical settings, is the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) [14]. MMSE has the advantage of being quick and easy to administer, which is particularly important when it comes to dementia patients; however, it only examines cognition and does not take into account other areas of functioning that AD tends to affect. Other assessment scales, like Clinical Dementia Rating [15] and Activities of Daily Living [16], focus on additional domains of every day functioning, making them a preferred method of assessing different areas of deterioration, apart from cognition. Moreover, there are also a number of biological predictors commonly used in monitoring progression in AD, including blood and cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers [17], as well as neuroimaging methods [18].

The evidence for a genetic predisposition to faster decline in patients with AD is inconclusive. Apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) $\epsilon 4$ allele is the strongest genetic risk factor for sporadic AD [19]. Numerous studies have examined the association of the *APOE* genotype with disease progression and cogni-

tive decline in patients with AD. However, the results are conflicting, with some studies finding that the *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ allele is associated with faster progression [20–22], and other showing opposing results [23–25].

It is evident that being able to predict the rate of decline in AD patients using readily available clinical information would be of great use both to patients and their caregivers, as well as medical professionals. Moreover, identifying individuals that are at risk of a rapid decline would be of great use in the design and implementation of clinical trials for therapeutic interventions, as they are the patients that are most likely to manifest results within a short timeframe. Various methods of predicting cognitive decline have been suggested. Machine learning algorithms have been previously employed to assess progression in dementia, using a wide variety of predictors, including neuroimaging data [26, 27], amyloid positron emission tomography (PET) [26], and various cognitive assessment scales [28, 29]. Latent class models and mixed effects models have also previously been investigated [13, 30]. However, there is no universally accepted method of modelling cognitive decline in AD patients.

This study aims to derive, assess, and compare measures of cognitive decline, while accounting for different number of participants' assessments and potential confounders in patients with AD, and to test the association of the *APOE* genotype for the progression measure derived. A replication of the results was attempted using Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) [31] data.

METHODS

Sample

This study included individuals from two datasets, a cohort 616 individuals known as the Cardiff Genetic Resource for AD genotyped as part of the GERAD dataset [32, 33] and a subset of the publicly available ADNI database, including participants that enrolled in ADNI with AD or were diagnosed with AD at later assessments. Out of the Cardiff Genetic Resource for AD, 540 individuals had late-onset AD (LOAD), with onset of symptoms at 65 years of age and above, and 76 had early onset AD (EOAD). The number of assessments varied between individuals, with a range between 2 and 8, with an interval spanning between 7 months and 16 years. The ADNI design is described in detail elsewhere [31]. Out of the available ADNI participants, 577 had two or more assessments with

141 a diagnosis of AD and were included in this analy- 191
142 sis, 518 having LOAD and 59 having EOAD. MMSE 192
143 was used as a measure of cognitive function in this 193
144 study.

145 *Generation of measures of decline*

146 In order to account for all available assessments, 195
147 a number of linear mixed effects models were con- 196
148 structed and subsequently compared. Mixed effect 197
149 models are an advantageous method of analyzing 198
150 longitudinal data as they allow for random disease 199
151 progression effects that vary between individuals, 200
152 as well as the varying number of assessment per 201
153 individual and the variable length of time between 202
154 assessments, which are commonly seen in longitudi- 203
155 nal studies [34]. For all the models we tested, MMSE 204
156 score at several assessment points was the dependent 205
157 variable, and to account for the fact that the same 206
158 individual was assessed at multiple time points, the 207
159 individual ID was included as a random effect. Since 208
160 the rate of progression may depend on disease dura-
161 tion [7], we first assessed the model where duration
162 at the time of each assessment was included as a ran-
163 dom effect. Disease duration, defined as time elapsed
164 between onset of AD symptoms and each cognitive
165 assessment, was selected as the variable of interest,
166 based on existing literature highlighting the fact that
167 time elapsed since symptom onset affects cognitive
168 decline more than age in AD patients [7]. Age at dis-
169 ease onset is not known for the participants of ADNI.
170 Therefore, for individuals that entered the study as
171 AD patients, disease duration was calculated as time
172 elapsed from study enrolment [22]. For individuals
173 that developed dementia while the study was ongo-
174 ing, duration was defined as time elapsed since the
175 first assessment in which they were classified as AD
176 patients. Next, the inclusion of a number of addi-
177 tional independent variables was assessed. Age at
178 each assessment was added as a fixed effect, then
179 a random effect, and subsequently age was added as
180 both a fixed and a random effect. Duration and gen-
181 der were also added as fixed effects sequentially, as
182 they have been shown to influence the rate of decline
183 [22, 35]. The models are further described in Sup-
184plementary Table 1. The random slopes for disease
185 duration generated by the models were extracted for
186 each individual and utilized as measures of cognitive
187 decline in subsequent analyses.

188 The derived rate of decline measure was compared 232
189 between individuals with EOAD and LOAD, using 233
190 linear regression, adjusting for age and sex. 234
235

All statistical analyses were performed using the 191
statistical software R [36] and the linear mixed mod- 192
els were generated using the package lme4() [37]. 193

194 *APOE genotype analysis*

195 The samples were genotyped in two stages. For 196
197 the first stage, the genotyping was performed on the 197
198 Illumina 610 microarray and is described in detail 198
199 elsewhere [32, 33]. For the second stage, genotyping 199
200 was performed on Illumina GSA array, and com- 200
201 pleted in three waves in Lille, Cardiff, and Edinburgh. 201
202 The number of *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ and $\epsilon 2$ alleles was derived 202
203 for each individual using the rs429358 and rs7412 203
204 variants. For ADNI, *APOE* genotype was available 204
205 through whole genome sequencing, as and described 205
206 in detail elsewhere [31]. The association of the num- 206
207 ber of $\epsilon 4$ and $\epsilon 2$ alleles with decline was assessed 207
208 using linear regression. The statistical analyses were 208
conducted using R [36].

209 **RESULTS**

210 *Sample characteristics*

211 The demographic characteristics of the Cardiff 211
212 Genetic Resource for AD are illustrated in Table 1. 212
213 For the individuals with LOAD, the mean age at 213
214 recruitment was 81.89, mean age at last assessment 214
215 was 84.33 and the mean number of assessments was 215
216 3.13. Mean MMSE score at first assessment was 216
217 16.82, mean MMSE score at last assessment was 217
218 11.34 and 69.82% of the individuals were female. For 218
219 the individuals with EOAD, the mean age at recruit- 219
220 ment was 66.80, mean age at last assessment was 220
221 69.85 and the mean number of assessments was 3.15. 221
222 Mean MMSE score at first assessment was 18.49, 222
223 mean MMSE score at last assessment was 12.96 and 223
224 both sexes were equally represented in the dataset. 224
225 Note, that even at the first assessment the MMSE 225
226 score for 40 individuals were 0. We have included 226
227 these individuals in the analyses, as it has been shown 227
228 that cognitive fluctuation is common in AD [38], and 228
229 for a number of these individuals MMSE score in 229
230 later assessments was not 0. 230

231 *Generation of measures of decline*

232 The model selected as the optimal model for 232
233 assessing rate of decline in this dataset included age 233
234 at assessment and disease duration as random and 234
235 fixed effects and sex as fixed effect. The random 235

Table 1
Cohort characteristics

	Mean	SD	Range
LOAD			
Age at Recruitment	81.89	6.10	67–94
Age at Last Assessment	84.33	6.09	68–102
Number of Assessments	3.13	1.14	2–8
First MMSE	16.82	8.52	0–30
Last MMSE	11.34	9.09	0–30
Sex	Female (%) 377 (69.82)		Male (%) 163 (30.18)
EOAD			
Age at Recruitment	66.80	7.01	41–83
Age at Last Assessment	69.85	7.18	44–84
Number of Assessments	3.15	1.12	2–7
First MMSE	18.49	8.69	0–29
Last MMSE	12.96	10.30	0–30
Sex	Female (%) 38 (50)		Male (%) 38 (50)

236 effects of age at assessment and disease duration
 237 were included to model individual-specific varia-
 238 tion in cognitive decline. The fixed effect of sex,
 239 age at assessment and disease duration were signifi-
 240 cant predictors of cognitive performance ($\beta = 2.779$,
 241 $p = 4.34 \times 10^{-19}$, $\beta = -0.165$, $p = 4.28 \times 10^{-17}$, and
 242 $\beta = -1.217$, $p = 1.32 \times 10^{-18}$, respectively), therefore
 243 they were also included in the model. The direc-
 244 tion of the effect indicates that cognitive performance
 245 decreases with age (by 0.165 MMSE points per year
 246 of age) and disease duration of AD (by 1.217 MMSE
 247 points per year of disease). Furthermore, females
 248 have higher cognitive performance than males of the
 249 same age and disease duration (by 2.779 MMSE

250 points). The distribution of random slopes for dis-
 251 ease duration derived from this model is shown in
 252 Fig. 1.

253 The difference in rate of decline between indi-
 254 viduals with LOAD and EOAD was compared.
 255 Interestingly, individuals with EOAD seem to decline
 256 slower than individuals with LOAD, although the
 257 difference is not statistically significant ($\beta = -0.158$,
 258 $p = 0.307$). These results are illustrated in Supplemen-
 259 tary Figure 3.

260 Association of cognitive decline with APOE

261 The purpose of this analysis was to determine
 262 whether APOE is a significant predictor of the rate of
 263 cognitive decline. As above, the measure of decline
 264 used here was derived from the optimal mixed effect
 265 linear model. The number of APOE $\epsilon 4$ and $\epsilon 2$ alleles
 266 was not associated with progression in this analysis
 267 (p -values 0.938 and 0.423, respectively). This result
 268 is also illustrated in Supplementary Figures 5 and 6.

269 Replication

270 The publicly available ADNI dataset was used to
 271 replicate the analyses described above. The demo-
 272 graphic characteristics of the dataset are illustrated
 273 in Table 2.

274 The distribution of measures of decline is illus-
 275 trated in Fig. 2.

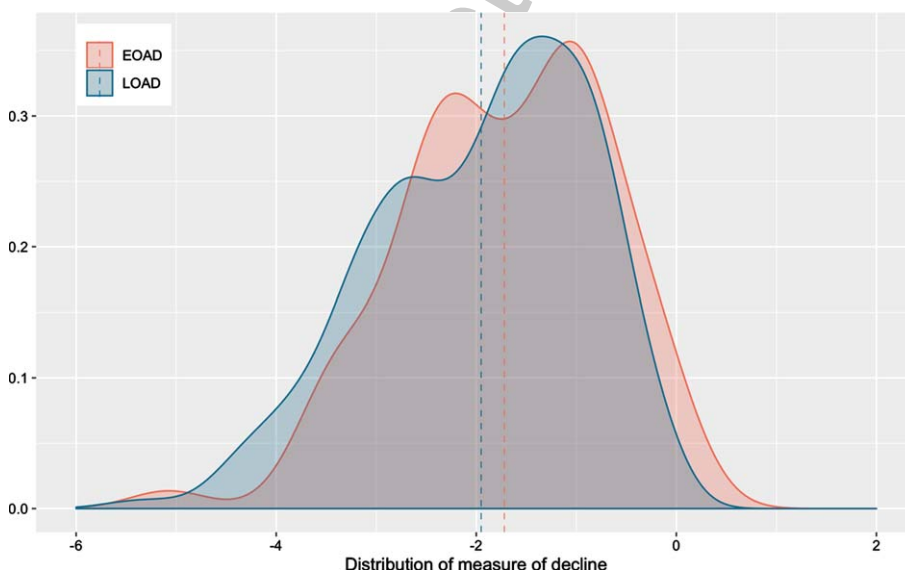


Fig. 1. Density plot of random slopes derived from the model for the Cardiff Genetic Resource for AD.

Table 2
Cohort characteristics of ADNI dataset

	Mean	SD	Range
LOAD			
Age at Recruitment	77.43	5.99	65.08–94.45
Age at Last Assessment	78.94	5.89	66–94.60
Number of Assessments	3.47	1.11	2–9
First MMSE	23.08	3.14	2–30
Last MMSE	19.50	5.70	0–30
Sex	Female (%) 209 (40.34)		Male (%) 309 (59.65)
EOAD			
Age at Recruitment	61.04	2.86	55.10–64.90
Age at Last Assessment	62.37	3.05	55.60–67.99
Number of Assessments	3.12	0.88	2–5
First MMSE	23.07	3.06	11–28
Last MMSE	18.63	6.03	2–27
Sex	Female (%) 34 (57.63)		Male (%) 25 (42.37)

Table 3
Association of APOE genotype with cognitive decline for both cohorts

Cohort	APOE ε2		APOE ε4	
	β	p	β	p
CARDIFF	0.116	0.971	-0.003	0.470
ADNI	0.633	0.052	-0.044	0.687

DISCUSSION

The aims of the project were 1) to identify potential confounders to cognitive decline and establish an adequate measure of assessing cognitive decline in patients with AD; and 2) to examine the association of the rate of decline with APOE, the strongest genetic risk factor for developing AD. Linear mixed effects models were selected as a method of assessing decline in our dataset as they can substantially tolerate the variance in datapoints commonly seen in population cohorts. MMSE score was utilized as a measure of cognitive function in this study as it was the assessment most widely documented in our cohort. Multiple models using MMSE as the dependent variable were assessed and the most parsimonious model with the best fit for this dataset was selected. The model selected included age at assessment, gender, and disease duration as fixed effects, and age at assessment and disease duration as random effects. Random slopes of disease duration were extracted from this model and used in further analyses as a measure of cognitive decline. Mixed effects linear

In this dataset, cognitive decline was more rapid in individuals with EOAD than individuals with LOAD, contrary to what was previously indicated using the Cardiff Genetic Resource for AD ($\beta=0.154$, $p=0.025$). These results are illustrated in Supplementary Figure 9.

The association of the number of APOE alleles was tested using linear regression. The number of APOE ε4 and ε2 alleles was not significantly associated with the measure of decline (p -values 0.689 and 0.052, respectively). The results are illustrated in Supplementary Figures 10 and 11. Table 3 summarizes the effect of APOE genotype on cognitive decline for both datasets examined.

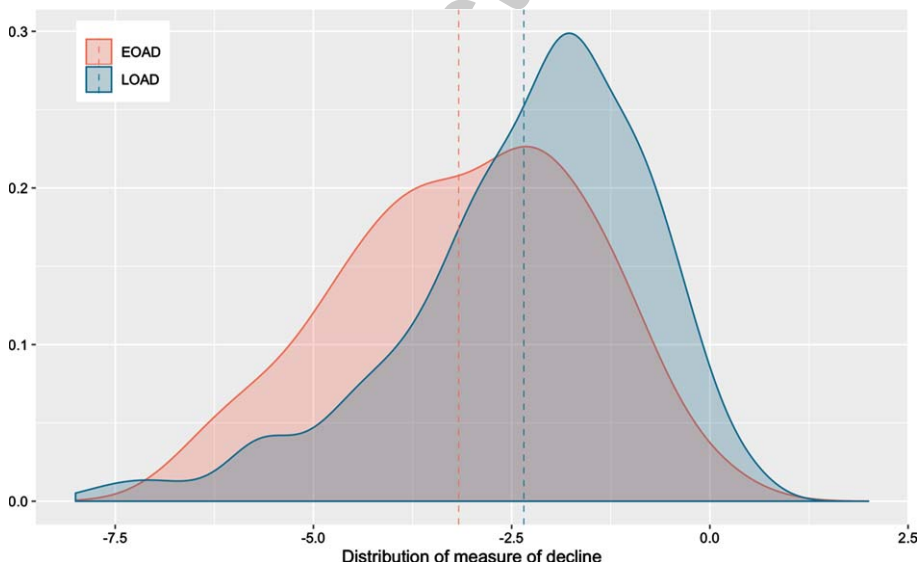


Fig. 2. Density plot of random slopes derived from the model for ADNI.

312 models are used in a number of studies assessing the
313 rate of decline in AD [13, 22], as they are consid-
314 ered a robust method for handling longitudinal data
315 [34]. Others have utilized different methods, includ-
316 ing multi-task exclusive relationship models [27] and
317 machine learning algorithms [29]. However, the mea-
318 sures of cognition and methods of modeling vary
319 widely between studies, and there is no established
320 method of assessing the rate of cognitive decline in
321 AD.

322 To examine how the age at disease onset influ-
323 ences cognitive decline in AD, the rate of decline
324 in individuals with EOAD and LOAD was compar-
325 ed. Interestingly, individuals with LOAD seem to
326 decline slightly faster than individuals with EOAD
327 in the Cardiff Genetic Resource for AD dataset,
328 however this result was not significant ($p=0.307$).
329 Based on existing literature, there is a suggestion
330 that patients with EOAD tend to deteriorate faster
331 [39–42], although there are studies showing no asso-
332 ciation of rate of decline with age at disease onset
333 [43], and others showing that patients with an earlier
334 onset decline slower [44], as found in this dataset. A
335 factor that could influence in this result is that average
336 disease duration at recruitment was 6.32 for LOAD
337 individuals, compared to for 8.74 EOAD. Therefore,
338 if cognitive decline is not a linear process, it is pos-
339 sible that the two groups are on different phases of
340 disease, which affect cognition differently, or even
341 that the individuals in the EOAD group have already
342 declined significantly at the point of recruitment,
343 therefore they do not show much further decline as the
344 study continues. Moreover, another important factor
345 influencing this result is that age at symptom onset
346 is often based on the patient's or caregiver's account
347 and not on examination by a clinical professional.
348 Therefore, the reliability of this variable is question-
349 able. This can be problematic as the duration of the
350 disease, defined as time from first manifestation of
351 symptoms, is an important predictor of disease sever-
352 ity and progression in AD. Moreover, the sample size
353 for the EOAD group was rather small ($N=76$), there-
354 fore any results drawn from it should be interpreted
355 with caution.

356 A replication of this result was attempted using the
357 publicly available ADNI dataset, where a measure of
358 cognitive decline was computed using the same meth-
359 ods as in the Cardiff Genetic Resource for AD cohort.
360 In this dataset individuals with EOAD showed a bor-
361 derline significant accelerated decline compared to
362 individuals with LOAD ($\beta=0.154$, $p=0.025$). How-
363 ever, as ADNI does not include information on age

364 at disease onset, disease duration was calculated dif-
365 ferently for this cohort than for the Cardiff Genetic
366 Resource for AD cohort, which may account for some
367 of the differences in results.

368 The association of *APOE* genotype with cognitive
369 decline was assessed. *APOE* is the strongest genetic
370 predictor of AD, however its effect on cognitive
371 decline is still debatable, with some studies show-
372 ing that *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ alleles can lead to faster decline
373 in AD patients [20, 21], others showing that *APOE*
374 genotype has no effect on cognitive and functional
375 impairment [23, 25], and studies even finding that
376 *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ alleles can lead to slower disease course
377 in AD [24]. In this study, *APOE* genotype was not
378 found to affect the rate of decline in either of the two
379 datasets (Table 3 and Supplementary Figures 5, 6,
380 10, and 11). Del-Aguila et al. found an association
381 between the rate of cognitive decline and the num-
382 ber of *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ alleles [22]; however, their study
383 design was different, including individuals with mild
384 cognitive impairment (MCI) as well as AD, and the
385 method of assessing cognition used was CDR, not
386 MMSE. Moreover, studies looking at neuroimaging
387 progression biomarkers using ADNI have shown an
388 association between the number of *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ alle-
389 les and the markers examined [45]; however, the
390 presence of neuroimaging findings is not necessar-
391 ily correlated with the presence of a more severe
392 clinical phenotype in individuals with AD. There-
393 fore, combining cognitive assessments with imaging
394 biomarkers might be beneficial for an accurate esti-
395 mation of the disease progression. Finally, a link
396 between the rate of cognitive decline in individuals
397 with MCI and the *APOE* genotype has been previ-
398 ously examined [46, 47], and an association between
399 the *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ allele and the risk of progression from
400 MCI to the early stages of AD has been established
401 [48, 49]. However, as the Cardiff Genetic Resource
402 for AD did not recruit individuals with MCI, this was
403 not investigated in this study.

404 This study attempted to derive a measure of cog-
405 nitive decline in AD using longitudinal data of
406 cognition in AD patients. However, in addition to cog-
407 nitive decline, AD progression leads to impairment in
408 many functional activities. Therefore, integration of
409 assessment scales that assess activities of daily living,
410 like IADL and CDR, in the statistical modeling might
411 improve the accuracy of the measures generated. The
412 measure of decline computed in this project was
413 tested for association with *APOE* genotype, a well-
414 established genetic marker of AD that was available
415 in our cohort. There are numerous other factors that

416 have been shown to influence rate of cognitive decline
 417 in AD patients, like educational attainment, variables
 418 associated with diet and lifestyle and deprivation
 419 indices. Addition of such variables could enhance
 420 the model fit and produce more accurate measures
 421 of decline however they would substantially decrease
 422 the sample size due to high missingness in our data,
 423 therefore we did not include them in this study.

424 CONCLUSIONS

425 To conclude, this study investigated a method of
 426 computing a measure of the rate of cognitive decline
 427 in patients with AD in the Cardiff Genetic Resource
 428 for AD and tested it for association with the strongest
 429 genetic predictor for sporadic AD, *APOE*. No asso-
 430 ciation was found between the rate of cognitive
 431 decline in AD patients and *APOE* genotype in this
 432 dataset or in the replication dataset. This result raises
 433 some important questions regarding the relationship
 434 between neuropathological findings and clinical pro-
 435 gression in AD. Replication of these results in a
 436 larger dataset might help uncover latent associations
 437 between *APOE* genotype and rate of decline, however
 438 research into alternative genetic drivers of cognitive
 439 decline is also crucial.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

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