



A Brief Review of Paradigm Shifts in Prevention of Alzheimer's Disease: From Cognitive Reserve to Precision Medicine

Changtae Hahn¹ and Chang Uk Lee^{2*}

¹ Department of Psychiatry, Deajeon Saint Mary's Hospital, College of Medicine, The Catholic University of Korea, Seoul, South Korea, ² Department of Psychiatry, Seoul Saint Mary's Hospital, College of Medicine, The Catholic University of Korea, Seoul, South Korea

OPEN ACCESS

Edited by:

Gianfranco Spalletta,
Santa Lucia Foundation (IRCCS),
Italy

Reviewed by:

Alberto Granzotto,
Aging Sciences and Translational
Medicine Center (CeSI-MeT),
Italy

Hong Jin Jeon,
Samsung Medical Center,
South Korea

*Correspondence:

Chang Uk Lee
jih@n@catholic.ac.kr

Specialty section:

This article was submitted to
Aging Psychiatry,
a section of the journal
Frontiers in Psychiatry

Received: 07 April 2019

Accepted: 02 October 2019

Published: 31 October 2019

Citation:

Hahn C and Lee CU (2019) A
Brief Review of Paradigm Shifts in
Prevention of Alzheimer's Disease:
From Cognitive Reserve
to Precision Medicine.
Front. Psychiatry 10:786.
doi: 10.3389/fpsy.2019.00786

Alzheimer's disease (AD) and related dementias can be an enormous economic burden for taxpayers, patients, their families, medical systems, and society as a whole. Since disease-modifying treatments have failed, several studies have instead focused on a paradigm shift for preventing and treating AD. A higher cognitive reserve (e.g., greater education, occupational attainment, or more leisure activities) is associated with protection against disease-related cognitive decline. Precision medicine aims to optimize the effectiveness of disease prevention and treatment by considering specific biological components of individuals. We suggest that research into cognitive reserve and precision medicine could be a key to overcoming the limitations of traditional approaches to the prevention and treatment of AD.

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease, cognitive reserve, precision medicine, prevention, aging, biomarkers

INTRODUCTION

Dementia is a broad spectrum of neurodegenerative diseases that are characterized by cognitive decline and have a negative impact on daily functions without an acute change of consciousness. In particular, Alzheimer's disease (AD) refers to a type of slowly progressive dementia that is associated with significant memory dysfunction during the early stages of the pathology. AD and related dementias can be an enormous economic burden for taxpayers, patients, their families, medical systems, and society as a whole (1). According to recent estimates, the total direct medical expenditures associated with AD and related dementias in the United States will increase from \$236 billion in 2016 to more than \$1 trillion in 2050 due to projected increases in the elderly population (1, 2).

Since a German psychiatrist and neuropathologist, Dr. Alois Alzheimer, introduced the case of memory loss, disorientation, and hallucinations in the patient Auguste D., many follow-up studies have been performed to investigate the pathophysiology of AD. Despite continuing debate, the A β hypothesis and tau pathology have become the dominant models of AD pathogenesis in the fields of psychiatry, neurology, and neuroscience. Glenner and colleagues suggested that A β , a special amyloid protein accumulated in the brain, could be causative of AD (3). In several studies for more than three decades, researchers have consistently accumulated data and have become increasingly supportive of this theory (4–9). Most researchers have naturally paid attention to A β pathology as a promising treatment target for AD. However, this expectation has encountered numerous

failures of phase-III clinical trials that aimed to modify AD such as by slowing down or stopping its progression. Consequently, researchers are currently more interested in tau pathology as an alternative therapy target, but more study is needed to determine whether tau pathology could be a major target for disease-modifying treatment.

Although the A β hypothesis and tau pathology are important to AD pathology, it could be realistically and pragmatically necessary to discuss the various paradigm shifts to overcome the failures in developing disease-modifying treatments for AD. The literature reviewed below is focused on the value of inquiries on cognitive reserve (CR) and precision medicine (PM) for AD as preventive measures. The attention paid to CR is due to the observation of interindividual variability in cognitive decline without parallel changes to neuropathological processes. In this context, researchers have considered that other factors may affect the path of cognitive function in not yet demented individuals. The concept of PM, also called “personalized medicine” or “individualized medicine,” is rapidly advancing in medical, clinical, and research settings (10). A new paradigm of PM aims to optimize the effectiveness of disease prevention and treatment by taking account of the specific biological compositions of individuals (10, 11).

COGNITIVE RESERVE

Sister Bernadette (not her real name), a Catholic nun living in the School Sisters of Notre Dame convent, showed no decline in cognitive function and activities of daily life. After her death due to a massive heart attack, an autopsy showed a great spread of AD pathology in her brain. The discordance between the degree of brain pathology and the clinical manifestation in her lifetime suggested that her neocortex was resistant and resilient to Alzheimer's-related neurodegeneration (12). Katzman and colleagues reported cases of elderly people who had normal cognitive function but were found to have advanced AD pathology in their brains at the time of death (13). Therefore, researchers needed a concept that could explain individual variabilities in cognitive function, activities of daily life, or clinical decline in a manner relative to aging and neurodegenerative disease.

Definition of CR, Brain Reserve, and Brain Maintenance

Cognitive Reserve

Although several studies have defined CRs and related concepts, the terms have been used in conjunction with a common denominator, but in different ways in published studies. A recent whitepaper published by the Reserve, Resilience and Protective Factors PIA Empirical Definitions and Conceptual Frameworks Workgroup defined CR as the adaptability of cognitive processes related to differential susceptibility of cognitive abilities or day-to-day function to brain aging, pathology, or insult (14). This concept concludes that the diversity of an individual's CR is the result of the interaction between life exposures and genetic factors. Therefore, individuals exhibit differences in adaptation to brain diseases and aging according to their own CR.

Brain Reserve

The whitepaper (14) demarcated the concept of a brain reserve, which is distinct from CR. Brain reserve refers to individual variation in the structural characteristics of the brain at any point in time, rather than a macroscopic construct that is not related to verifiable neurobiology or the mechanisms of finer particles. In this context, macroscopic structural characteristics such as total brain volume, volume of a specific neural substrate, or white matter integrity could influence the threshold of the emergence of cognitive impairment.

Brain Maintenance

Brain maintenance is conceptually and temporally subdivided from CR, although it is highly relevant to brain reserve. Brain maintenance refers to a decline in the development of age-related changes in the brain and protection against the effects of neuropathology (14). Therefore, brain maintenance influences an individual's cognitive function for their lifespan through an interaction between lifetime experiences and genetic factors. While brain reserve includes the neurobiological resources of a specific point in time, brain maintenance has the potential to maintain or enhance brain function over time (14).

Evidence for CR

Most researchers seem to agree that CR is an appropriate concept for describing the interaction between genetic factors and lifetime experiences and consequent phenotypes. Although the definitions of CR are becoming clearer as several studies progress, a number of studies still tend to use the CR definition within various boundaries. The authors will follow the definition of the whitepaper (14) but use a broader definition of concepts when describing evidence for CR.

Education, Occupation, Leisure Activities

Individuals with less education were associated with a higher risk of developing dementia compared to those with more education (15, 16). Indeed, education has been widely accepted as one of the proxies of CR. Several studies have presented biological evidence that could support the epidemiologic evidence for CR. Higher education was associated with reduced white matter integrity in the medial temporal lobe areas and association fiber tracts when controlled for age, gender, and dementia severity (17). Higher education is a protective factor against AD and is associated with lower plasma tau levels in patients (18). Through analysis with brain magnetic resonance imaging, the magnitude of the contribution of education is seen as greater than the negative impact of either a neuropathological burden such as white matter hyperintensities or hippocampal atrophy (19).

Occupational attainment acts as a proxy for CR and is associated with a lower risk of AD and a delayed onset of symptoms (20, 21). Moreover, occupational complexity may grant resilience against the negative effects of neuropathology on cognition in people at risk for AD (22). In a fluorodeoxyglucose (¹⁸F) positron emission tomography (FDG-PET) brain imaging study, Garibotto and colleagues showed an inverse correlation between a reserve index, accounting for educational/

occupational level, and metabolism in the posterior cingulate cortex and precuneus in both APOE ϵ 4 carriers and noncarriers. Their results suggested that education and occupation act as proxies for a reserve in epsilon4 carriers, compensating for an unfavorable genetic background (23). However, not all studies have found these relationships; Myung and colleagues found that the protective effect of high occupational attainment against cognitive decline disappeared in the MCI stage (24).

Participation in leisure activities, known to have a protective effect against developing AD, is one of the proxies for CR (25–27). Among leisure activities such as walking for pleasure, visiting friends, reading, playing games, religious activity, physical conditioning, and so on, social, cognitive, and physical leisure activities appear to have protective effects against the risk of dementia (20, 28, 29). Physical activity, particularly aerobic exercise, is protective against age-related gray and white matter loss. Cognitive training of executive functions is associated with an improvement in prefrontal network efficiency (30).

The potential mechanisms of CR are not yet elucidated. However, Engeroff and colleagues showed that regular physical activity might be beneficial for preserving brain plasticity age and was positively associated with brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) levels in healthy elderly people (31). Ward and colleagues showed that BDNF played an important role in the capacity for building or accessing CR. A significant positive relationship between CR and executive function was identified in BDNF Val homozygotes but was not evident in BDNF Met carriers (32).

Other Proxies for CR

Premorbid intellectual function could account for discrepancies in clinical status between MCI and AD patients that have similar levels of neuropathology and comorbid medical diseases (33). Minicolumn thinning of neurons in the cerebral cortex, which is related to cognitive ability, occurs in old age. AD patients with a higher IQ were older and had less pathology at the time of death, which provides the neural evidence for the CR hypotheses (34).

While the results of the prospective cohort study showed that there was no association between bilingualism and the delayed onset of AD, retrospective studies have claimed the opposite (35). However, Perani and colleagues studied brain metabolism, a direct index of synaptic function and density, and neural connectivity to shed light on the effects of bilingualism in AD (36). They observed that bilingual individuals were 5 years older than their monolingual peers on average. Through the metabolic connectivity analyses, they supported the neuroprotective effect of bilingualism by showing an increased connectivity in the executive control and default mode networks in bilingual, compared with monolingual, AD patients. Furthermore, the degree of lifelong bilingualism was significantly correlated to functional modulations in crucial neural networks, suggesting both neural reserve and compensatory mechanisms. They suggested that lifelong bilingualism acts as a powerful CR proxy in dementia and exerts neuroprotective effects against neurodegeneration. However, further studies appear to be needed to assess if bilingualism can be used as a proxy for CR.

Other studies have suggested that learning a foreign language could enhance an individual's CR. Bubbico and colleagues showed that learning a foreign language significantly improved global cognition, along with increased functional connectivity in the right inferior frontal gyrus, right superior frontal gyrus, and left superior parietal lobule in healthy elderly subjects (37). They suggested that language learning practice could be another important way to enhance and reorganize brain networks.

In the last few years, several large studies investigated lifestyle-related risk factors in people at risk for dementia. The FINGER (Finnish Geriatric Intervention Study to Prevent Cognitive Impairment and Disability) study (38) showed that multidomain intervention had beneficial effects on cognitive functions, especially in executive functioning and processing speed. The control group only received regular health advice, whereas the intervention group received dietary counselling, physical exercise and cognitive training, and vascular risk factor monitoring. These results are in line with the concept of CR described in this paper. Other large studies have shown variable results. The PreDIVA (Prevention of Dementia by Intensive Vascular Care) (39) contradicted the FINGER study by suggesting that multidomain cardiovascular intervention had no positive effect on dementia. In addition, the MAPT (Multidomain Alzheimer Preventive Trial) (40) study included a multidomain intervention group (including integrated cognitive training, physical activity, dietary advice, preventive consultations, and intake of omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs)) versus an only multidomain intervention group versus an only omega-3 PUFAs group versus a placebo capsule group. The results presented no significant difference between any of the three intervention groups compared with the placebo control group. Nevertheless, the MAPT study also presented meaningful results in that the multidomain intervention group showed less cognitive decline than groups without multidomain intervention.

PRECISION MEDICINE

PM is a medical approach that recommends preventing and treating diseases based on the unique genetic makeup and lifestyle of an individual. Conceptually and clinically, PM for AD is closely related to CR. The concept of CR includes a heterogeneous phenotype and takes into account that the same pathological findings might not result in the same clinical symptoms. The concept of PM also allows that individuals could be diagnosed with the same disease even if they have different biological makeups, such as genetic, epigenetic, biomarker, phenotypic, lifestyle, and psychosocial characteristics. While the traditional approach to neurodegenerative diseases focuses on brain proteinopathies as homogenous clinicopathological or clinicobiological entities, the new paradigm of PM aims to optimize the effectiveness of disease prevention and treatment by taking into account biological components that could influence the heterogeneity of a disease by considering specific biological factors (11). Up until now, clinicians have usually used a universal treatment strategy by applying the same intervention to a particular disease. While this treatment strategy, the so-called "one-size-fits-all" method, could be very successful for some

patients, it may not be effective for others. PM is an innovative approach that embraces individual differences in the genetics, environments, and lifestyles of each individual.

Genetics in PM

The extensive complexity of the genetics of AD is one of the main causes of clinical and pathological diversity. Since the heritability of AD is estimated to be from 58% to 79% (41, 42), a requisite for prevention and early intervention is to qualitatively and quantitatively obtain a large amount of information about the extensively complex genetic variants in AD. Many studies, including large-scale genome-wide association studies (GWAS), the first round of whole exome sequencing (WES), and whole genome sequencing (WGS), investigated susceptibility loci that were associated with molecular pathways in AD, including the amyloid pathway, immune system, lipid metabolism, and hippocampal synaptic function (10).

Mutations in the amyloid precursor protein (APP, located at chromosome region 21q21.2) (43), presenilin 1, (PSEN1, located at 14q24.3) (44), and presenilin 2 (PSEN2, located at 1q42.13) (45) are well known to cause early onset AD. These genetic mutations have a strong penetration effect on AD pathology.

APOE is the most notable lipoprotein in AD research and is divided into three forms, apoE2, apoE3, and apoE4. The risk of AD is two to three times higher in people with an APOE ϵ 4 allele and about 12 times higher in people with two APOE ϵ 4 alleles (46, 47). The APOE ϵ 4 allele is associated with higher deposits of A β in the brain (48). In addition, the APOE genotype may influence the topography of regional atrophy and cortical thinning in AD. Cortical thickness in AD patients was significantly lower in the medial temporal and left parietal regions of the APOE ϵ 4 allele group, and in the medial temporal lobe of the group with two APOE ϵ 4 alleles, compared with controls (49).

Despite significant progress in identifying the underlying genetics, studies have only illuminated the genetic factors underlying the pathophysiology of neurodegenerative diseases. Further genetic studies in the future are expected to clarify the pathogenic mechanisms of AD that could be used for preventing AD and treating AD patients. Since a genetic variant in an individual might contribute a small effect to neuropathology in AD, and a qualitative and quantitative aggregate of susceptibility genes could determine the progress of neurodegeneration, it may be useful to calculate the genetic burden of individuals with a polygenic scoring system. Furthermore, many follow-up studies and expert consensus will be necessary to determine the qualitative and quantitative weights of various genetic information.

Neuroimaging Data for PM

In their structural MRI research, Tondelli and colleagues reported that the reduced brain volume of the medial temporal lobe such as the hippocampus, amygdala, and entorhinal cortex in cognitively intact individuals is a predictive factor of later cognitive decline (50).

FDG-PET is a nuclear medicine functional imaging technique that is used to observe the cerebral metabolic rate of glucose (CMRglu). Several FDG-PET studies have shown that CMRglu

reduction can occur decades before the onset of AD (51). Therefore, individuals with normal cognition have the potential to develop AD if CMRglu reduction is consistently observed in a particular area such as the parieto-temporal areas, posterior cingulate cortex, and medial temporal lobe (51, 52).

In an amyloid PET study, Petersen and colleagues showed that amyloid load *in vivo* was independently associated with a future decline in cognition (53). Elevated amyloid levels were associated with worse cognition, imaging biomarkers, greater clinical decline, and neurodegeneration (54). With ^{18}F -florbetapir and ^{18}F -florbetaben positron emission tomography scans, Cho and colleague presented a mutually influential relationship between tau and A β deposition. Therefore, investigations of tau and A β deposition with PET scans still need to consider the mutual influence between tau and amyloid pathologies.

Blood Biomarkers

Cerebrospinal fluid biomarker signatures are recognized as useful tools for diagnosing presymptomatic, prodromal, typical, and atypical forms of AD (55). Olsson and colleagues showed that t-tau, P-tau, A β 42, and NFL levels in the CSF should be used in clinical practice and clinical research for diagnostic purposes (56). However, more research is needed on blood biomarkers that are minimally invasive and relatively inexpensive, unlike the process of obtaining CSF.

Studies of blood biomarkers, however, do not show consistent results for the diagnosis of presymptomatic, MCI, and AD patients. The present limitations to the development of blood biomarkers is that brain-specific proteins must cross the blood-brain barrier and that they are observed at lower concentrations in the blood than in CSF. Nonetheless, high plasma tau was associated with cognitive impairment, brain atrophy, and brain hypometabolism in an Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) (57). Higher plasma tau was related to lower scores in global cognition, memory, and attention tests and to reduce cortical thickness in AD neural substrates, after adjustments for age, sex, education, and APOE genotype; however, tau levels in MCI were not statistically significantly higher than in controls (58).

Several studies have investigated plasma neurofilament light (NFL) as a blood biomarker of neurodegenerative disease. Higher plasma NFL was observed in patients with MCI and AD in comparison with controls. In addition, higher plasma NFL was associated with A β pathology in MCI and AD patients. Thus, higher plasma NFL is correlated with poor cognition and atrophy in AD signature regions and with brain hypometabolism (59).

DISCUSSION

CR for the Prevention of AD

CR is a widely used term among psychiatrists, neurologist, and neuroscientists who study neurodegenerative diseases. In the psychiatric field, especially regarding posttraumatic stress disorder, adjustment disorder, and depression, resilience is

defined as an individual's ability to adapt to adverse events in life and recover to prestress adaptation levels. In a similar vein, brain resilience is defined as the ability to cope with AD pathology and is measured by a better-than-expected cognitive performance, brain structure, or brain function, despite some level of AD pathology (28). Just as the neurobiology of resilience is under investigation, the neurobiology of CR has also greatly advanced. Indeed, the investigation of genetics, neuroimaging, and epidemiology for CR could be compared to the development of shields that defend against the pathology of neurodegenerative diseases. Stern and colleagues summarized all of the studies that calculated the protective effects of higher CR and found that it reduced the risk of developing dementia by 46% (20). The studies mentioned above suggest a significant mechanism of higher CR for the preservation of cognitive function, which is associated with protection against disease-related cognitive decline. This paper refers to several proxies for CR, such as education, occupational attainment, leisure activities, premorbid intellectual function, and bilingualism. Among the proxies, some are capable of increasing CR by promoting educational and occupational opportunities through individual effort and policy-based approaches. Public authorities must promote many education and occupational attainment opportunities for young people. These policies have to encompass lifelong education (home schooling, adult education, job training, learning a foreign language, etc.) and social, physical, and cognitive leisure activities for the elderly.

There are also interesting studies in a different context. Once symptoms of dementia appear, individuals with a higher reserve (e.g., greater education, occupational attainment, or more leisure activities) are hypothesized to be associated with a more rapid cognitive decline and died sooner than those with lower reserves (60–63). Since individuals with higher CR could be resistant and resilient to more neuropathology, higher levels of CR are also hypothesized to be associated with a faster rate of cognitive decline after the neuropathology passes over a certain threshold and emerges as cognitive decline (60). Although individuals with higher levels of CR are resistant and resilient enough to withstand advanced neuropathology, after crossing the critical threshold, they have little brain reserves left to endure neurodegeneration. Nevertheless, it cannot be worthless to elevate CR levels. Some estimates indicate that delaying the onset of dementia by only 5 years would result in a 50% reduction in dementia prevalence (64).

PM for the Prevention of AD

Conceptually, PM is a model that supports integrated research and clinical approaches. Hampel and colleagues presented the framework of the Alzheimer Precision Medicine Initiative (APMI) (65). The contents of this model are as follows: (1) collection of big and deep data consisting of biomolecular, imaging, literature, and clinical data through research and clinical practice, (2) processing heterogeneous multidimensional big and deep data through standardization, management, integration, and analysis, and (3) developing an “actionable” model that predicts the trajectory of individualized, patient-centric detection, or

treatment within a P4 (predictive, preventive, personalized, and participatory) implementation strategy. An integrated approach such as this model could be a valuable paradigm shift for researchers and clinicians trying to overcome the “one-size-fits-all” treatment that has now revealed its limitations. In the field of oncology, PM seems to have made significant progress in the standard of care by incorporating genetic information and biomarkers. However, PM for AD might need to be investigated from a different and more complex point of view than the field of oncology. This paper has discussed CR as a protective factor against the pathology of neurodegenerative diseases. The authors suggest that researchers and clinicians should consider the CR of an individual at risk of AD whenever they use PM to establish a prevention and treatment plan. In other words, although risk assessment with PM may be the same between individuals, the patient with a lower CR may need more aggressive prevention and treatment plans.

The authors suggest that a system of integrating and interpreting results from research with enormous biological implications must be established in order to bring about a successful paradigm shift from traditional medicine to PM. In this context, data science, which is a field of study dedicated to the principled extraction of knowledge from complex data (66), will be widely applied to the field of PM. Data science already plays a significant role in many human activities and in the world of science. This field is supported by the remarkable and super high-speed development of artificial intelligence and machine learning, despite positive and negative opinions about its development. The development of traditional research areas such as genetics, neuroimaging and biomarkers, and the innovation of data science, which encompasses and incorporates research from these areas, will certainly make a significant contribution to the personalization of prevention and treatment strategies using PM.

CONCLUSIONS

We suggest that research into CR and PM could be a key to overcoming the limitations of traditional approaches in the prevention and treatment of AD.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

CH was responsible for conception and design as well as initial drafting of the manuscript. All authors (CH and CL) were responsible for revising the manuscript critically for important intellectual content of the version of the manuscript to be published. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

FUNDING

This research was supported by the Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy (MOTIE, Korea) under Industrial Technology Innovation Program No10062378.

REFERENCES

1. Deb A, Thornton JD, Sambamoorthi U, Innes K. Direct and indirect cost of managing Alzheimer's disease and related dementias in the United States. *Expert Rev Pharmacoecon Outcomes Res* (2017) 17(2):189–202. doi: 10.1080/14737167.2017.1313118
2. Alzheimer's Association. Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. *Alzheimers Dementia* (2016) 12(4):459–509. doi: 10.1016/j.jalz.2016.03.001
3. Glenner GG, Wong CW. Alzheimer's disease: initial report of the purification and characterization of a novel cerebrovascular amyloid protein. *Biochem Biophys research communications* (1984) 120(3):885–90. doi: 10.1016/S0006-291X(84)80190-4
4. Beyreuther K, Masters CL. Amyloid precursor protein (APP) and beta A4 amyloid in the etiology of Alzheimer's disease: precursor-product relationships in the derangement of neuronal function. *Brain Pathol* (1991) 1(4):241–51. doi: 10.1111/j.1750-3639.1991.tb00667.x
5. Hardy J, Allsop D. Amyloid deposition as the central event in the aetiology of Alzheimer's disease. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* (1991) 12(10):383–8. doi: 10.1016/0165-6147(91)90609-V
6. Selkoe DJ. The molecular pathology of Alzheimer's disease. *Neuron* (1991) 6(4):487–98. doi: 10.1016/0896-6273(91)90052-2
7. Hardy JA, Higgins GA. Alzheimer's disease: the amyloid cascade hypothesis. *Science* (1992) 256(5054):184–5. doi: 10.1126/science.1566067
8. Selkoe DJ, Mandelkew E, Holtzman DM. *The Biology of Alzheimer Disease*. New York: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press (2012).
9. Selkoe DJ, Hardy J. The amyloid hypothesis of Alzheimer's disease at 25 years. *EMBO Mol Med* (2016) 8(6):595–608. doi: 10.15252/emmm.201606210
10. Reitz C. Toward precision medicine in Alzheimer's disease. *Anna Transl Med* (2016) 4(6):107. doi: 10.21037/atm.2016.03.05
11. Hampel H, O'Bryant SE, Castrillo JI, Ritchie C, Rojkova K, Broich K, et al. Precision medicine - the golden gate for detection, treatment and prevention of Alzheimer's Disease. *J Prev Alzheimers Dis* (2016) 3(4):243–59. doi: 10.14283/jpad.2016.112
12. Snowdon DA. Healthy aging and dementia: findings from the nun study. *Ann Internal Med* (2003) 139(5 Pt 2):450–4S. doi: 10.7326/0003-4819-139-5_Part_2-200309021-00014
13. Katzman R, Aronson M, Fuld P, Kawas C, Brown T, Morgenstern H, et al. Development of dementing illnesses in an 80-year-old volunteer cohort. *Ann Neurol* (1989) 25(4):317–24. doi: 10.1002/ana.410250402
14. Stern Y, Arenaza-Urquijo EM, Bartres-Faz D, Belleville S, Cantilon M, Chetelat G, et al. Whitepaper: defining and investigating cognitive reserve, brain reserve, and brain maintenance. *Alzheimers Dementia* (2018) doi: 10.1016/j.jalz.2018.07.219
15. Kukull WA, Higdon R, Bowen JD, McCormick WC, Teri L, Schellenberg GD, et al. Dementia and Alzheimer disease incidence: a prospective cohort study. *Archives Neurol* (2002) 59(11):1737–46. doi: 10.1001/archneur.59.11.1737
16. Stern Y, Gurland B, Tatemichi TK, Tang MX, Wilder D, Mayeux R. Influence of education and occupation on the incidence of Alzheimer's disease. *Jama* (1994) 271(13):1004–10. doi: 10.1001/jama.1994.03510370056032
17. Teipel SJ, Meindl T, Wagner M, Kohl T, Burger K, Reiser MF, et al. White matter microstructure in relation to education in aging and Alzheimer's disease. *J Alzheimers Dis* (2009) 17(3):571–83. doi: 10.3233/JAD-2009-1077
18. Chiu MJ, Chen YF, Chen TF, Yang SY, Yang FP, Tseng TW, et al. Plasma tau as a window to the brain-negative associations with brain volume and memory function in mild cognitive impairment and early Alzheimer's disease. *Hum Brain Mapp* (2014) 35(7):3132–42. doi: 10.1002/hbm.22390
19. Murray AD, Staff RT, McNeil CJ, Salarirad S, Ahearn TS, Mustafa N, et al. The balance between cognitive reserve and brain imaging biomarkers of cerebrovascular and Alzheimer's diseases. *Brain* (2011) 134(Pt 12):3687–96. doi: 10.1093/brain/awr259
20. Stern Y. Cognitive reserve in ageing and Alzheimer's disease. *Lancet Neurol* (2012) 11(11):1006–12. doi: 10.1016/S1474-4422(12)70191-6
21. Forstmeier S, Maercker A, Maier W, van den Bussche H, Riedel-Heller S, Kaduszkiewicz H, et al. Motivational reserve: motivation-related occupational abilities and risk of mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer disease. *Psychol Aging* (2012) 27(2):353–63. doi: 10.1037/a0025117
22. Boots EA, Schultz SA, Almeida RP, Oh JM, Kosciak RL, Dowling MN, et al. Occupational complexity and cognitive reserve in a middle-aged cohort at risk for Alzheimer's disease. *Arch Clin Neuropsychol* (2015) 30(7):634–42. doi: 10.1093/arclin/acv041
23. Garibotto V, Borroni B, Sorbi S, Cappa SF, Padovani A, Perani D. Education and occupation provide reserve in both ApoE epsilon4 carrier and noncarrier patients with probable Alzheimer's disease. *Neurol Sciences* (2012) 33(5):1037–42S. doi: 10.1007/s10072-011-0889-5
24. Myung W, Lee C, Park JH, Woo SY, Kim S, Kim S, et al. Occupational attainment as risk factor for progression from mild cognitive impairment to Alzheimer's disease: A CREDOS Study. *J Alzheimers Dis* (2017) 55(1):283–92. doi: 10.3233/JAD-160257
25. Harris P, Fernandez Suarez M, Surace EI, Chrem Mendez P, Martin ME, Clares MF, et al. Cognitive reserve and Abeta1-42 in mild cognitive impairment (Argentina-Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative). *Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat* (2015) 11:2599–604. doi: 10.2147/NDT.S84292
26. Harrison SL, Sajjad A, Bramer WM, Ikram MA, Tiemeier H, Stephan BC. Exploring strategies to operationalize cognitive reserve: a systematic review of reviews. *J Clin Exp Neuropsychol* (2015) 37(3):253–64. doi: 10.1080/13803395.2014.1002759
27. Scarmeas N, Levy G, Tang MX, Manly J, Stern Y. Influence of leisure activity on the incidence of Alzheimer's disease. *Neurology* (2001) 57(12):2236–42. doi: 10.1212/WNL.57.12.2236
28. Pettigrew C, Soldan A. Defining cognitive reserve and implications for cognitive aging. *Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep* (2019) 19(1):1. doi: 10.1007/s11910-019-0917-z
29. Fratiglioni L, Paillard Borg S, Winblad B. An active and socially integrated lifestyle in late life might protect against dementia. *Lancet Neurol* (2004) 3(6):343–53. doi: 10.1016/S1474-4422(04)00767-7
30. Cheng ST. Cognitive reserve and the prevention of dementia: the role of physical and cognitive activities. *Curr Psychiatry Rep* (2016) 18(9):85. doi: 10.1007/s11920-016-0721-2
31. Engeroff T, Fuzeki E, Vogt L, Fleckenstein J, Schwarz S, Matura S, et al. Is objectively assessed sedentary behavior, physical activity and cardiorespiratory fitness linked to brain plasticity outcomes in old age? *Neuroscience* (2018) 388:384–92. doi: 10.1016/j.neuroscience.2018.07.050
32. Ward DD, Summers MJ, Saunders NL, Ritchie K, Summers JJ, Vickers JC. The BDNF Val66Met polymorphism moderates the relationship between cognitive reserve and executive function. *Transl Psychiatry* (2015) 5:e590. doi: 10.1038/tp.2015.82
33. Osone A, Arai R, Hakamada R, Shimoda K. Impact of cognitive reserve on the progression of mild cognitive impairment to Alzheimer's disease in Japan. *Geriatr Gerontol Int* (2015) 15(4):428–34. doi: 10.1111/ggi.12292
34. van Veluw S, Sawyer E, Clover L, Cousijn H, De Jager C, Esiri M, et al. Prefrontal cortex cytoarchitecture in normal aging and Alzheimer's disease: a relationship with IQ. *Brain Struct Funct* (2012) 217(4):797–808. doi: 10.1007/s00429-012-0381-x
35. Klimova B, Valis M, Kuca K. Bilingualism as a strategy to delay the onset of Alzheimer's disease. *Clin. Interventions Aging* (2017) 12:1731–7. doi: 10.2147/CIA.S145397
36. Perani D, Farsad M, Ballarini T, Lubian F, Malpetti M, Fracchetti A, et al. The impact of bilingualism on brain reserve and metabolic connectivity in Alzheimer's dementia. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* (2017) 114(7):1690–5. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1610909114
37. Bubbico G, Chiacchiaretta P, Parenti M, di Marco M, Panara V, Sepede G, et al. Effects of second language learning on the plastic aging brain: functional connectivity, cognitive decline, and reorganization. *Front Neurosci* (2019) 13:423. doi: 10.3389/fnins.2019.00423
38. Ngandu T, Lehtisalo J, Solomon A, Levalahti E, Ahtiluoto S, Antikainen R, et al. A 2 year multidomain intervention of diet, exercise, cognitive training, and vascular risk monitoring versus control to prevent cognitive decline in at-risk elderly people (FINGER): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet (London, England)* (2015) 385(9984):2255–63. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(15)60461-5
39. Moll van Charante EP, Richard E, Eurelings LS, van Dalen JW, Ligthart SA, van Busse EF, et al. Effectiveness of a 6-year multidomain vascular care intervention to prevent dementia (preDIVA): a cluster-randomised

- controlled trial. *Lancet (London, England)* (2016) 388(10046):797–805. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(16)30950-3
40. Andrieu S, Guyonnet S, Coley N, Cantet C, Bonnefoy M, Bordes S, et al. Effect of long-term omega 3 polyunsaturated fatty acid supplementation with or without multidomain intervention on cognitive function in elderly adults with memory complaints (MAPT): a randomised, placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet Neurol* (2017) 16(5):377–89. doi: 10.1016/S1474-4422(17)30040-6
 41. Gatz M, Reynolds CA, Fratiglioni L, Johansson B, Mortimer JA, Berg S, et al. Role of genes and environments for explaining Alzheimer disease. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* (2006) 63(2):168–74. doi: 10.1001/archpsyc.63.2.168
 42. Gatz M, Pedersen NL, Berg S, Johansson B, Johansson K, Mortimer JA, et al. Heritability for Alzheimer's disease: the study of dementia in Swedish twins. *J Gerontol Ser A Biol Sci Med Sci* (1997) 52(2):M117–25. doi: 10.1093/gerona/52A.2.M117
 43. Goate A, Chartier-Harlin MC, Mullan M, Brown J, Crawford F, Fidani L, et al. Segregation of a missense mutation in the amyloid precursor protein gene with familial Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* (1991) 349(6311):704–6. doi: 10.1038/349704a0
 44. Sherrington R, Rogaev EI, Liang Y, Rogaeva EA, Levesque G, Ikeda M, et al. Cloning of a gene bearing missense mutations in early-onset familial Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* (1995) 375(6534):754–60. doi: 10.1038/375754a0
 45. Levy-Lahad E, Wasco W, Poorkaj P, Romano DM, Oshima J, Pettingell WH, et al. Candidate gene for the chromosome 1 familial Alzheimer's disease locus. *Science* (1995) 269(5226):973–7. doi: 10.1126/science.7638622
 46. Corder EH, Saunders AM, Strittmatter WJ, Schmechel DE, Gaskell PC, Small GW, et al. Gene dose of apolipoprotein E type 4 allele and the risk of Alzheimer's disease in late onset families. *Science* (1993) 261(5123):921–3. doi: 10.1126/science.8346443
 47. Saunders AM, Strittmatter WJ, Schmechel D, George-Hyslop PH, Pericak-Vance MA, Joo SH, et al. Association of apolipoprotein E allele epsilon 4 with late-onset familial and sporadic Alzheimer's disease. *Neurology* (1993) 43(8):1467–72. doi: 10.1212/WNL.43.8.1467
 48. Barthel H, Gertz H-J, Dresel S, Peters O, Bartenstein P, Buerger K, et al. Cerebral amyloid- β PET with florbetaben (18F) in patients with Alzheimer's disease and healthy controls: a multicentre phase 2 diagnostic study. *Lancet Neurol* (2011) 10(5):424–35. doi: 10.1016/S1474-4422(11)70077-1
 49. Gutiérrez Galve L, Lehmann M, Hobbs N, Clarkson M, Ridgway G, Crutch S, et al. Patterns of cortical thickness according to APOE genotype in Alzheimer's disease. *Dementia Geriatric Cognit Disord* (2009) 28(5):476–85. doi: 10.1159/000258100
 50. Tondelli M, Wilcock G, Nichelli P, De Jager C, Jenkinson M, Zamboni G. Structural MRI changes detectable up to ten years before clinical Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol Aging* (2012) 33(4):825.e25–e36. doi: 10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2011.05.018
 51. Mosconi L. Glucose metabolism in normal aging and Alzheimer's disease: methodological and physiological considerations for PET studies. *Clin Transl Imaging* (2013) 1(4):217–33. doi: 10.1007/s40336-013-0026-y
 52. Vanitallie TB. Preclinical sporadic Alzheimer's disease: target for personalized diagnosis and preventive intervention. *Metab Clin Exp* (2013) 62 Suppl1:S30–3. doi: 10.1016/j.metabol.2012.08.024
 53. Petersen R, Wiste H, Weigand S, Rocca W, Roberts R, Mielke M, et al. Association of elevated amyloid levels with cognition and biomarkers in cognitively normal people from the community. *JAMA Neurol* (2016) 73(1):85–92. doi: 10.1001/jamaneurol.2015.3098
 54. Dumurgier J, Hanseeuw BJ, Hatling FB, Judge KA, Schultz AP, Chhatwal JP, et al. Alzheimer's disease biomarkers and future decline in cognitive normal older adults. *J Alzheimers Dis* (2017) 60(4):1451–9. doi: 10.3233/JAD-170511
 55. Keshavan A, Heslegrave A, Zetterberg H, Schott J. Blood biomarkers for Alzheimer's Disease: much promise, cautious progress. *Mol Diagn Ther* (2017) 21(1):13–22. doi: 10.1007/s40291-016-0241-0
 56. Olsson B, Lautner R, Andreasson U, Öhrfelt A, Portelius E, Bjerke M, et al. CSF and blood biomarkers for the diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Neurol* (2016) 15(7):673–84. doi: 10.1016/S1474-4422(16)00070-3
 57. Mattsson N, Zetterberg H, Janelidze S, Insel P, Andreasson U, Stomrud E, et al. Plasma tau in Alzheimer disease. *Neurology* (2016) 87(17):1827–35. doi: 10.1212/WNL.0000000000003246
 58. Dage J, Wennberg AMV, Airey D, Hagen C, Knopman D, Machulda M, et al. Levels of tau protein in plasma are associated with neurodegeneration and cognitive function in a population-based elderly cohort. *Alzheimers Dementia* (2016) 12(12):1226–34. doi: 10.1016/j.jalz.2016.06.001
 59. Mattsson N, Andreasson U, Zetterberg H, Blennow K. Association of plasma neurofilament light with neurodegeneration in patients with Alzheimer disease. *JAMA Neurol* (2017) 74(5):557–66. doi: 10.1001/jamaneurol.2016.6117
 60. Stern Y. Cognitive Reserve. *Neuropsychologia* (2009) 47(10):2015–28. doi: 10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2009.03.004
 61. Stern Y, Tang MX, Denaro J, Mayeux R. Increased risk of mortality in Alzheimer's disease patients with more advanced educational and occupational attainment. *Ann Neurol* (1995) 37(5):590–5. doi: 10.1002/ana.410370508
 62. Stern Y, Albert S, Tang MX, Tsai WY. Rate of memory decline in AD is related to education and occupation: cognitive reserve? *Neurology* (1999) 53(9):1942–7. doi: 10.1212/WNL.53.9.1942
 63. Helzner EP, Scarmeas N, Cosentino S, Portet F, Stern Y. Leisure activity and cognitive decline in incident Alzheimer disease. *Archives Neurol* (2007) 64(12):1749–54. doi: 10.1001/archneur.64.12.1749
 64. Brookmeyer R, Gray S, Kawas C. Projections of Alzheimer's disease in the United States and the public health impact of delaying disease onset. *Am J Public Health* (1998) 88(9):1337–42. doi: 10.2105/AJPH.88.9.1337
 65. Hampel H, O'Bryant SE, Durrleman S, Younesi E, Rojkova K, Escott-Price V, et al. A precision medicine initiative for Alzheimer's disease: the road ahead to biomarker-guided integrative disease modeling. *Climacteric* (2017) 20(2):107–18. doi: 10.1080/13697137.2017.1287866
 66. Sanchez Pinto LN, Luo Y, Churpek M. Big data and data science in critical care. *Chest* (2018) 154(5):1239–48. doi: 10.1016/j.chest.2018.04.037

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

Copyright © 2019 Hahn and Lee. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (CC BY). The use, distribution or reproduction in other forums is permitted, provided the original author(s) and the copyright owner(s) are credited and that the original publication in this journal is cited, in accordance with accepted academic practice. No use, distribution or reproduction is permitted which does not comply with these terms.