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Increased amyloidogenic APP processing in APOE ϵ 4-negative individuals with cerebral β -amyloidosis

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Increased APP (amyloid precursor protein) processing causes β -amyloid (A β) accumulation in autosomal dominant Alzheimer's disease (AD), but it is unclear if it also affects sporadic A β accumulation. We tested healthy controls and patients with mild cognitive symptoms (N=331) in the BioFINDER study, using cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) A β 40 as a surrogate for amyloidogenic APP processing. We find that levels of brain A β fibrils (measured by 18F-flutemetamol PET) are independently associated with high CSF A β 40 (P<0.001) and APOE ϵ 4 (P<0.001). The association between CSF A β 40 and brain A β is stronger in APOE ϵ 4-negative than in positive people (P=0.0080). The results are similar for CSF A β 38 and for a combination of CSF A β 38 and CSF A β 40. In conclusion, sporadic A β accumulation may be partly associated with increased amyloidogenic APP production, especially in APOE ϵ 4-negative subjects. The risk for sporadic AD may consequently depend on increased A β production, in addition to decreased A β clearance.

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rain accumulation of amyloid β (Aβ) is a hallmark of Alzheimer's disease (AD) which may precede dementia by up to two decades¹⁻³ and be quantified by cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) biomarkers or positron emission tomography (PET) imaging^{4,5}. Aß accumulation is thought to be caused by an imbalance of AB production and clearance from the brain⁶. The APOE E4 allele is the main genetic susceptibility factor for late-onset AD and sporadic Aβ pathology⁷. This is likely because the APOE E4 gene product apoE4 has reduced capacity to clear A β peptides from the brain⁸. However, A β accumulation also occurs in the absence of APOE $\epsilon 4$ (ref. 7) and $\sim 40-50\%$ of AD patients lack the APOE & allele9. In autosomal dominant forms of AD, Aβ pathology is believed to be caused by increased amyloidogenic processing of APP (amyloid precursor protein), that is, increased Aβ production but variations in APP processing have not been thoroughly explored as risk factors in 'sporadic' AD. Using a large cohort of non-demented subjects, the aim of this study was to test if APOE $\varepsilon 4$ and biomarker surrogates of amyloidogenic APP processing were independently associated with brain AB accumulation. We used CSF levels of AB40 to estimate amyloidogenic APP processing. The rationale for this was that Aβ40 is a major Aβ isoforms produced by neurons by concerted β- and γ-secretase cleavages of APP (the same processing pathway that results in $A\beta42)^{11}$ but is generally not related to Aβ plaque pathology (in contrast to CSF Aβ42, which is reduced in the presence of Aβ plaques¹²). Note that previous studies testing the correlation between CSF AB40 and PET AB have not co-varied for the presence of APOE ε4. We hypothesized that there would be independent correlations between AB accumulation and the predictors APOE & and CSF AB40, and that increased amyloidogenic APP processing would be related to Aβ accumulation mainly in APOE ε4-negative subjects. We also hypothesized that CSF Aβ40 would not be associated with APOE ε4 (that is, CSF Aβ40 would not be affected by apoE4-mediated impaired AB clearance). Finally, we hypothesized to see similar results when using CSF Aβ38 instead of CSF Aβ40 to estimate amyloidogenic APP processing.

Our results confirmed our hypothesis. We show that 18F-flutemetamol PET levels are independently associated with high CSF A β 40 (P<0.001) and APOE ϵ 4 (P<0.001) and that the association between CSF A β 40 and brain A β is stronger in APOE ϵ 4-negative than in positive people (P=0.0080). The results are similar when using CSF A β 38 or a combination of CSF A β 38 and CSF A β 40 to estimate amyloidogenic APP production. We conclude that sporadic A β accumulation may be

partly associated with increased amyloidogenic APP production, especially in APOE ϵ 4-negative subjects. Thus, the risk for sporadic AD may partly depend on increased A β production, in addition to decreased A β clearance.

Results

Cohort characteristics. The cohort consisted of 331 participants (cognitively normal controls (CN) 121, subjective cognitive decline (SCD) 102 and mild cognitive impairment (MCI) 108). Demographics and data on cognition and biomarkers are summarized in Table 1 (see Table 2 for demographics stratified by APOE status). In sum, APOE $\epsilon4$ positivity was more common in SCD and MCI than in CN, CSF A $\beta42$ levels were lower in MCI compared with the other groups, and the frequency of PET A β positivity was lowest in CN and highest in MCI. CSF A $\beta38$ and CSF A $\beta40$ did not differ between the diagnostic groups. APOE $\epsilon4$ was not associated with CSF A $\beta40$ or with CSF A $\beta38$ (Fig. 1). The lack of association between APOE $\epsilon4$ and CSF A $\beta40$ and CSF A $\beta38$ supports our assumption that these CSF A β peptides are unaffected by apoE4-mediated clearance of A β .

APOE ε4 and high CSF Aβ40 independently predict PET Aβ. Figure 2 shows the observed PET Aβ and CSF Aβ40 data, with estimated slopes in the APOE E4-positive and -negative groups. In a linear regression model with PET A β as the dependent variable, high levels of CSF Aβ40 ($\beta = 1.05 \times 10^{-4}$, P < 0.001), APOE ϵ 4-positivity ($\beta = 0.406$, P < 0.001) and the interaction between APOE $\varepsilon 4$ and CSF AB40 $(\beta = -5.61 \times 10^{-5})$ P = 0.0080) were all significant predictors of continuous PET A β . Note that since APOE ε4 and CSF Aβ40 were both included as predictors the main effect of CSF Aβ40 indicates the effect within APOE & 4-negative subjects. The significant interaction between CSF Aβ40 and APOE ε4 indicates that the correlation between CSF Aβ40 and brain Aβ was stronger in APOE ε4-negative than in positive people (as seen in Fig. 2). The correlation between CSF Aβ40 and PET Aβ in the APOE ε4-positive group was weaker than in the APOE E4-negative group, but remained significant $(\beta = 0.485 \times 10^{-4})$, P = 0.010. The results support the hypotheses that high CSF Aβ40 and APOE ε4 are independent predictors of PET AB, and that the relationship between CSF Aβ40 and PET Aβ varies with APOE ε4 carrier status. As expected, CSF AB42 was a significant covariate (low CSF AB42 was correlated with PET A β , $\beta = -0.00120$, P < 0.001), but CSF Aβ40, APOE ε4 and the interaction between CSF Aβ40 and

Table 1 Demographics.									
	CN	SCD	MCI	All	P value				
N	121	102	108	331					
Age (y)	73.7 (4.5)	70.2 (5.6)	71.2 (5.6)	71.8 (5.4)	< 0.001				
Sex (F)	63%	51%	40%	52%	0.0023				
Education (y)	11.5 (3.28)	12.7 (3.28)	11.3 (3.38)	11.8 (3.39)	0.0038				
MMSE (points)	29.0 (0.92)	28.5 (1.47)	27.2 (1.69)	28.3 (1.57)	< 0.001				
ADAS-cog, delayed recall (points)	2.1 (2.0)	3.3 (2.2)	6.4 (2.2)	3.9 (2.8)	< 0.001				
APOE ε4 (% +)	28%	42%	43%	37%	0.028				
PET Aβ (% +)	19%	37%	61%	38%	< 0.001				
PET Aβ (SUVR)	1.30 (0.28)	1.41 (0.38)	1.70 (0.53)	1.46 (0.44)	< 0.001				
CSF A β 38 (ng I $^{-1}$)	1,742 (404)	1,722 (421)	1,686 (421)	1,718 (414)	0.51				
CSF A β 40 (ng I ⁻¹)	4,510 (1526)	4,893 (1852)	4,812 (1809)	4,727 (1728)	0.35				
CSF Aβ42 (ng I ⁻¹)	538 (187)	584 (251)	475 (216)	532 (221)	0.0031				

ADAS-cog, Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale-cognitive subscale; CN, cognitively normal; CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; MCI, mild cognitive impairment; MMSE, mini-mental state examination; PET, positron emission tomography; SCD, subjective cognitive decline; SUVR, standardized uptake value ratio.

Continuous data are mean (s.d.). APOE e4 + is defined as at least one e4 allele. PET Aβ positivity is defined as > 1.42 SUVR (ref. 13). MMSE ranges from 0 to 30. ADAS-cog delayed recall ranges from 0 to 10 (word list learning test from the ADAS-cog battery, points indicate number of missed items). P values are for comparisons between diagnostic groups (using Kruskal-Wallis test for continuous variables and X²-test for categorical variables).

Table 2	Demographics	bv	diagnostic	group	and.	APOE ε4	ı.

	CN 121		SCD 102		MCI 108		All 331	
N								
	ΑΡΟΕ ε4 –	APOE ϵ 4 $+$	ΑΡΟΕ ε4 –	APOE ϵ 4 $+$	ΑΡΟΕ ε4 –	APOE ϵ 4 $+$	ΑΡΟΕ ε4 –	APOE ϵ 4 $+$
	87	34	59	43	61	47	207	124
Age (y)	73.5 (4.4)	74.1 (4.7)	70.1 (6.0)	70.3 (5.0)	71.0 (6.1)	71.5 (5.0)	71.8 (5.6)	71.8 (5.1)
Sex (F)	63%	62%	53%	49%	41%	38%	54%	48%
Education (y)	11.6 (3.3)	11.5 (3.3)	12.9 (3.5)	12.4 (2.9)	11.3 (3.4)	11.3 (3.3)	11.9 (3.5)	11.7 (3.2)
MMSE (points)	29.0 (0.97)	29.2 (0.78)	28.4 (1.55)	28.6 (1.35)	27.2 (1.75)	27.2 (1.62)	28.3 (1.58)	28.2 (1.57)
ADAS-cog, delayed recall	2.2 (2.1)	1.7 (1.9)	3.2 (2.3)	3.5 (2.0)	6.0 (2.3)	6.9 (2.0)	3.6 (2.7)	4.3 (2.9)
(points)								
PET Aβ (% +)	10%	41%	20%	61%	38%	91%	21%	67%
PET Aβ (SUVR)	1.22 (0.16)	1.48 (0.41)	1.27 (0.29)	1.59 (0.42)	1.51 (0.51)	1.95 (0.45)	1.32 (0.35)	1.70 (0.47)
CSF Aβ38 (ng I ^{- 1})	1,741 (420)	1,742 (365)	1,735 (457)	1,705 (367)	1,670 (436)	1,707 (405)	1,719 (435)	1,716 (380)
CSF A β 40 (ng I $^{-1}$)	4,573	4,348	5,076	4,643	4,792	4,838	4,781	4,636
	(1,655)	(1,135)	(2,051)	(1,527)	(1,969)	(1,599)	(1,871)	(1,461)
CSF A β 42 (ng I $^{-1}$)	571 (179)	454 (181)	673 (240)	462 (213)	559 (211)	365 (168)	596 (212)	423 (192)

ADAS-cog, Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale-cognitive subscale; CN, cognitively normal; CSF, cerebrospinal fliuid; MCI, mild cognitive impairment; MMSE, mini-mental state examination; PET, or positron emission tomography; SCD, subjective cognitive decline; SUVR, standardized uptake value ratio.

Continuous data are mean (s.d.). APOE ε4+ is defined as at least one ε4 allele. PET Aβ positivity is defined as>1.42 SUVR (ref. 13).

APOE ε4 remained significant also when not adjusting for CSF Aβ42 (CSF Aβ40: P = 0.0089; APOE ε4: P < 0.001; interaction: P = 0.026). Age ($\beta = 0.0082$, P = 0.0094) and diagnosis (SCD, $\beta = 0.137$, P = 0.0011; MCI, $\beta = 0.299$, P < 0.001) were also significant predictors of PET Aβ, but sex was not (P = 0.23). White matter lesions (WML) were evaluated as a covariate, but were not significant (P = 0.68) and were therefore excluded from the final model. We also evaluated plasma levels of Aβ40 as a covariate to exclude the possibility that the results depended on peripheral APP processing. Plasma Aβ40 was not a significant covariate (P = 0.99) and including it in the model did not change the other estimates.

To further examine if clinically significant A β accumulation (defined as a composite standardized uptake value ratio (SUVR) > 1.42 (ref. 13) was associated with CSF A β 40, we evaluated a logistic regression model with PET A β positivity as the dependent variable. CSF A β 40 (log odds = 9.18 × 10⁻⁴, P<0.001) was a significant predictor in this model but *APOE* ε 4 (P=0.13), and the interaction between CSF A β 40 and *APOE* ε 4 were not (P=0.73). Age and sex (P=0.13-0.14) were not significant but CSF A β 42 (P<0.001) and diagnosis (SCD, P=0.0016; MCI, P<0.001) remained significant covariates. When CSF A β 42 was excluded from the model, CSF A β 40 (P=0.014) and APOE ε 4 (P<0.001) were both significant predictors of PET A β positivity.

CSF A\beta38 as an independent predictor of PET A\beta. To corroborate our findings, we repeated the analyses using CSF Aβ38 instead of CSF Aβ40, with very similar results. When predicting continuous PET AB, the effects of CSF AB38 $(\beta = 4.04 \times 10^{-4}, P < 0.001), APOE$ $\epsilon 4 (\beta = 0.72, P < 0.001)$ and the interaction between APOE ε4 and CSF Aβ38 $(\beta = -3.40 \times 10^{-4}, P < 0.001)$ were all significant, and CSF Aβ42 was a significant covariate ($\beta = -0.00112$, P < 0.001). CSF A β 38 (P = 0.017), APOE ϵ 4 (P < 0.001) and the interaction between APOE $\epsilon 4$ and CSF A $\beta 38$ (P=0.015) remained significant when removing CSF AB42 from the model. When predicting PET Aβ positivity using logistic regression, CSF Aβ38 (log odds = 0.00332, P < 0.001) and $APOE \ \epsilon 4$ (log odds = 4.47, P = 0.0075) were independent predictors and there was a tendency for significant interaction between APOE ε4 and CSF A β 38 (P = 0.061). Again, CSF A β 42 was a significant covariate $(\log \text{ odds} = -0.0119, P < 0.001).$

We also used a combination of CSF Aβ40 and CSF Aβ38 based on their molar amounts (CSF Aβ, mol 1^{-1}). Again, the results were very similar. When predicting continuous PET Aβ, the effects of CSF Aβ ($\beta = 3.70 \times 10^8$, P < 0.001), APOE &4 ($\beta = 0.470$, P < 0.001) and the interaction between APOE &4 and CSF Aβ ($\beta = -2.20 \times 10^8$, P = 0.0030) were all significant predictors. CSF Aβ42 remained a significant covariate ($\beta = -0.00120$, P < 0.001). CSF Aβ (P = 0.0090), APOE &4 (P < 0.001) and the interaction between APOE &4 and CSF Aβ (P = 0.021) remained significant when removing CSF Aβ42 from the model. When predicting PET Aβ positivity using logistic regression, CSF Aβ (log odds = 3.15 $\times 10^9$, P < 0.001) was a significant predictor and CSF Aβ42 remained a significant covariate (log odds = -0.0129, P < 0.001).

CSF A β 40 is highest in APOE ϵ 4 - PET A β + subjects. In a linear regression model with CSF AB40 as the dependent variable and a four level combination of PET AB and APOE as the independent variable, the overall highest CSF Aβ40 levels were seen in the PET A β + & APOE ϵ 4 - group (β = 732, P = 0.015, compared with the reference category PET Aβ- & APOE ε4 - , Fig. 3). PET $A\beta + \& APOE \varepsilon 4 - \text{ subjects had } 19\% \text{ higher mean}$ level of CSF Aβ40 (and 26% higher median level) compared with PET A β - & APOE ϵ 4 – subjects. The model was adjusted for WML ($\beta = -18.8$, P = 0.00013), age ($\beta = 46.1$, P = 0.015), sex (female sex, $\beta = -322$, P = 0.094) and diagnostic group (SCD, $\beta = 570$, P = 0.019; MCI, $\beta = 421$, P = 0.11). When also adjusting for CSF Aβ42 as a covariate the effect of PET Aβ & APOE ε4 was even stronger, with higher CSF A β 40 in the PET A β + & APOE $\epsilon 4$ – group compared with PET A β - & APOE $\epsilon 4$ – (P < 0.001) and PET A β - & APOE ϵ 4+ (P<0.001) but no significant difference compared with the PET A β + & APOE ϵ 4 + group (P = 0.45).

Discussion

We tested the hypothesis that biomarker surrogates of amyloidogenic APP processing (CSF A β 40 and A β 38) and APOE ϵ 4 were independent predictors of brain A β fibril accumulation. In accordance with our hypotheses, CSF A β 40 (and A β 38 in a secondary analysis) and APOE ϵ 4 were independent predictors of PET A β , and the effect of CSF A β 40 was strongest in the APOE ϵ 4-negative individuals. To our knowledge, this is the first study showing that increased A β production are associated with

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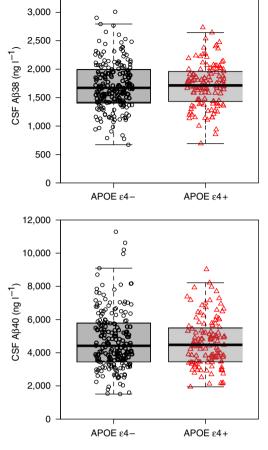


Figure 1 | CSF Aβ38 and Aβ40 in APOE ε4- and APOE ε4+ subjects. Observed data for CSF Aβ38 and CSF Aβ40 by APOE ε4 status. The individual observations are overlaid on boxplots (thick lines are medians, box limits are 25th and 75th percentiles). APOE ε4 did not affect levels of CSF Aβ38 (Mann-Whitney U-test, P = 0.75; t-test, P = 0.95; linear regression adjusted for age, sex and diagnosis, P = 0.99) or CSF Aβ40 (Mann-Whitney U-test, P = 0.84; t-test, P = 0.43; linear regression adjusted for age, sex and diagnosis, P = 0.26). This supports the notion that CSF Aβ38 and Aβ40 are unaffected by APOE ε4-mediated changes in Aβ clearance.

increased risk for sporadic brain A β accumulation. These novel results provide indirect evidence that brain A β pathology in humans may arise from two pathways, where one involves the *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ allele (likely causing reduced apoE4-mediated A $\beta 42$ clearance), and the other involves increased amyloidogenic processing of APP. This may correspond to two pathways to sporadic AD, namely reduced clearance and increased production of A β peptides.

The amyloid cascade hypothesis postulates that A β pathology arises due to an imbalance between A β production and clearance⁶. It has been suggested that sporadic AD is mainly caused by poor clearance of peptides from the brain, whereas autosomal dominant AD is mainly caused by increased A β production, especially the A β 42 variant. This is supported by a metabolic labelling study showing reduced A β clearance in sporadic AD dementia¹⁴, and studies showing increased amyloidogenic APP processing in early stages of autosomal dominant AD¹⁰. The main cause of reduced A β clearance in sporadic AD is likely APOE ϵ 4, since the apoE4 protein isoform has reduced capacity to clear A β peptides compared with other apoE isoforms⁸, although it is possible that APOE ϵ 4 may also contribute to increased AD risk by other mechanisms, for

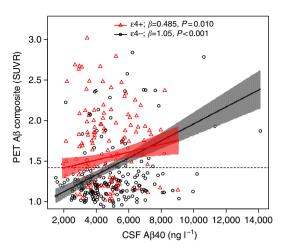


Figure 2 | PET Aβ as a function of CSF Aβ40 and APOE ε**4.** Observed PET and CSF Aβ40 data. Slopes are modelled from a linear regression adjusted for CSF Aβ42, sex, age and diagnostic group. The shaded areas indicate 95% confidence intervals for the slopes. The dotted line indicates a cutoff for clinically significant PET Aβ load (1.42 SUVR). β-coefficients (divided by 10^{-4}) and P values for the slopes within APOE ε4-positive and separately for APOE ε4-negative subjects are shown in the legend. The interaction between CSF Aβ40 and APOE ε4 is significant, indicating that the correlation between CSF Aβ40 and PET Aβ differs by APOE ε4 status (P = 0.0080). The results did not change significantly when removing outliers (CSF Aβ40 > 10,000 ng 1^{-1}).

example, by affecting inflammation and neuronal repair^{15,16}. However, one *APP* gene polymorphism which reduces $A\beta$ production is associated with reduced risk of AD in the general population¹⁷, which provides genetic evidence that variations in APP processing may also affect the risk for sporadic AD.

The main limitation of this paper was that we used an indirect measure of APP processing, which was estimated by CSF Aβ40. The rationale for this approach was that A β 40 is a major A β isoform produced by neurons¹¹, which is not directly influenced by the presence of $\hat{A}\beta$ plaque pathology¹², and is not influenced by APOE ε4-mediated impaired Aβ clearance. The later was demonstrated by our finding that there was no overall difference in CSF Aβ40 depending on APOE ε4 status (Fig. 1). Alterations in CSF Aβ40 are therefore more likely to reflect differences in amyloidogenic APP processing rather than differences in AB clearance. However, we acknowledge that there may be variations in APP processing that are not captured by CSF Aβ40. We also performed analyses using CSF AB38 (another highly expressed Aβ isoform) and a combination of CSF Aβ38 and CSF Aβ40 (based on their molar amounts), with very similar results as when using CSF Aβ40 alone, which support our findings. A more direct estimate of Aβ production may be done by metabolic labelling¹⁴, but such methods are liable to bias due to the longitudinal drift of CSF biomarkers during continuous CSF sampling that depends on sampling frequency and volume¹⁸. Another limitation is that there may be other factors affecting CSF Aβ40 besides variations in APP processing. For example, reduced CSF AB40 is associated with chronic WML¹⁹, and WML may also be associated with Aβ pathology (although this is more common in MCI²⁰ and AD dementia²⁰ than in non-demented people²¹). It is not clear if the association between CSF Aβ40 and WML is due to a direct link between $A\beta$ production and WML or if lower CSF $A\beta40$ levels reflect reduced neuronal AB secretion due to decreased brain activity in the presence of WML. Importantly, our results remained significant when adjusting for WML. Theoretically, CSF Aβ40 could also be influenced by peripheral APP processing,

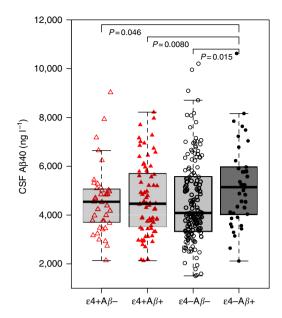


Figure 3 | CSF A β 40 in different combinations of PET A β and APOE ϵ 4. Observed CSF AB40 for different combinations of APOE £4 and PET AB positivity and negativity. The individual observations are overlaid on boxplots (thick lines are medians, box limits are 25th and 75th percentiles). CSF A β 40 was significantly increased in the PET A β + & APOE ϵ 4 - group compared with PET Aβ- & APOE ε4 – , which was the reference category (P = 0.015, using linear regression adjusted for age, sex, diagnosis andWML). No other group had significant different CSF AB40 compared with the PET A β - & APOE ϵ 4 - group (P = 0.62-0.90). The groups were PET A β - & APOE ϵ 4 – , N = 158; PET A β - & APOE ϵ 4 + , N = 39; PET A β + & APOE $\varepsilon 4 - N = 41$; and PET A $\beta + APOE \varepsilon 4 + N = 75$. The total N = 313for this analysis was smaller than the total study population (N = 331) due to missing data for WML in 18 subjects (but the main results did not differ when WML was not included and the analysis was done on the whole study population). One data point is excluded from the graph for visual clarity (CSF A β 40 14110 ng I⁻¹, PET A β + & APOE ϵ 4 –).

but our results were stable when adjusting for plasma Aβ40, suggesting that the effects did not depend on peripheral APP processing. We did not measure all other possible factors besides increased amyloidogenic APP that may contribute to Aβ deposition in APOE ε4-negative subjects. For example, other AD risk genes (including CLU and CR1) may impact Aβ clearance in APOE ε4-negative subjects²². We included several different diagnostic groups, including a SCD group. We noted that the frequency of Aβ positivity in our SCD subjects (37%) was higher than in a recent large meta-analysis by Jansen et al.3 where $\sim 22\%$ of SCD subjects were A β -positive, compared with \sim 25% of CN subjects. The reason for this difference is not clear, but we noted that our SCD subjects were on average 6 years older than the Jansen subjects, which may contribute to higher frequency of Aβ pathology. Furthermore, all our SCD subjects were referred to specialized memory clinics because of cognitive symptoms, while some of the Jansen SCD subjects may have been seen at other health care facilities, opening for the possibility that they had less severe complaints than the SCD subjects in our study. Another recent study on PET AB positivity in memory clinic SCD subjects found that 57% of SCD subjects were Aβpositive compared with 31% of CN, which more resembles the findings in our cohort²³. Finally, we did not include an AD dementia group, since we know from a previous study that patients with severe AD dementia have lower CSF Aβ40 than patients with mild dementia (this may reflect reduced capacity to

produce $A\beta$ peptides as the disease progresses)²⁴. Including an AD dementia group in this study would therefore risk confounding the relationship between CSF A β 40 and PET A β .

Until now, there have been few attempts to examine the independent roles of APOE & and APP processing in the development of brain AB pathology in non-demented subjects. Previous studies did not find correlations between CSF AB40 (or Aβ38) and PET Aβ (ref. 12). This is likely because they did not covary for APOE ε4 (and/or CSF Aβ42). Adjusting for APOE ε4 is important since the relationship between CSF AB40 and PET AB differs between APOE & 4-positive and -negative individuals. Furthermore, adjusting for APOE & and CSF AB42 reduces the residual errors of the models, and some of this error may contribute to the variance of CSF AB40. Once this error is removed the correlation between CSF AB40 and PET AB can be better estimated. Our results add novel information and point to different possible pathways to AB pathology in humans. In sum, our results support the idea that sporadic AB accumulation may be partly associated with increased amyloidogenic APP production, especially in APOE E4-negative subjects. The risk for sporadic AD may consequently depend on increased Aβ production, in addition to decreased AB clearance. This provides novel insight into disease mechanisms in AD and may be important for development of drugs targeting Aβ metabolism in early stages of AD.

Methods

Study population. The study population came from the Swedish BioFINDER study (Biomarkers For Identifying Neurodegenerative Disorders Early and Reliably). All available CN and non-demented patients with mild cognitive symptoms characterized as having SCD or MCI were included.

CN subject were originally enrolled from the population-based EPIC cohort. The inclusion criteria were: age ≥ 60 years old, MMSE 28-30, and fluent in Swedish. Exclusion criteria were: presence of subjective cognitive impairment, significant neurologic disease (for example, stroke, Parkinson's disease, multiple sclerosis), severe psychiatric disease (for example, severe depression or psychotic syndromes), dementia or MCI. All CN subjects underwent a thorough clinical assessment, including neurological, psychiatric and cognitive testing all performed by a medical doctor, in addition to MRI of the brain and relevant blood tests. The cognitive battery included MMSE, ADAS-cog (items 1–3), Trail Making A & B, Symbol Digit modalities, A quick test of cognitive speed, clock drawing, cube coping, letter S fluency and animals fluency. The medical doctor made a global assessment of whether the individual was cognitively healthy based on the test results in relation to education and age. All CN subjects had a Clinical Dementia Rating scale score of 0.

The SCD and MCI cases were recruited consecutively and were thoroughly assessed by physicians with special competence in dementia disorders. The inclusion criteria were: referred to a memory clinic due to possible cognitive impairment, not fulfilling the criteria for dementia, MMSE 24-30, age 60-80 years and, fluent in Swedish. The exclusion criteria were: cognitive impairment that without doubt could be explained by another condition (other than prodromal dementia); severe somatic disease; and refusing lumbar puncture or neuropsychological investigation. The classification in SCD or MCI was based on a neuropsychological battery and the clinical assessment of a senior neuropsychologist. The battery included tests for verbal ability (including A multiple-choice vocabulary test (SRB:1 (ref. 25) and semantic verbal fluency (Condition 2, D-KEFS (ref. 26), episodic memory (including Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test (RAVLT (ref. 27), and Rey Complex Figure Test (RCFT (ref. 28)), visuospatial construction ability (including Block design (WAIS (ref. 29) and The copy trial of Rey Complex Figure Test), attention and executive functions (including Trail Making Test (D-KEFS (ref. 26) and Letter Verbal Fluency, Condition 1 (D-KEFS (ref. 26)). A senior neuropsychologist stratified all patients into those with SCD (no measurable cognitive deficits) or MCI according to the consensus criteria for MCI suggested by Petersen³⁰.

The Regional Ethics Committee in Lund, Sweden, approved the study. All subjects gave written informed consent. For more details, see ref. 13 and www.biofinder.se.

PET analysis. Brain A β was measured using ¹⁸F-flutemetamol PET (refs 31,32). PET/CT scanning was conducted at two sites using the same type of scanner, a Philips Gemini TF 16. PET sum images from 90 to 110 min post injection were generated for the average uptake. MRI results were not used since this does not improve the quantification of ¹⁸F-flutemetamol data³³. The images were analysed using the NeuroMarQ software provided by GE Healthcare. A volume of interest template was applied for nine bilateral regions (prefrontal, parietal, lateral temporal, medial temporal, sensorimotor, occipital, anterior cingulate and posterior cingulate/precuneus), combined in a global neocortical composite

signal³³. The SUVR was the global composite tracer uptake, normalized for the mean uptake in the cerebellar cortex (note that Thurfjell *et al.*³⁵ found that $^{18}\mathrm{F}$ -flutemetamol PET SUVR had > 98% concordance with visual reads independent of which reference region that was used). Most analyses in this study used continuous PET A β but when indicated a previously defined cutoff for A β positivity was used (>1.42 SUVR, based on mixture modelling analysis 13).

Cerebrospinal fluid analysis. All subjects underwent lumbar CSF sampling at baseline, following the Alzheimer's Association Flow Chart³⁵. Samples were stored in 1 ml polypropylene tubes at -80 °C until analysis. CSF A β 38, A β 40 and A β 42 were analysed by ELISA assays (EUROIMMUN AG, Lübeck, Germany). All analyses were performed by board-certified laboratory technicians who were blinded for clinical data and diagnoses. The CSF samples were randomized to avoid group bias. The analyses were performed during two different runs in batch, plates 1-20 using lot no. E140224AB for Aβ38, E130611AA for Aβ40 and E130607AA for Aβ42, and plates 21-24 using lot no. E150522BK for Aβ38, E150302A1 for Aβ40 and E150522AZ for AB42. Aliquots of two different pools of CSF were used as internal control samples, with CVs of 13.8% for Aβ38 for the first control with a mean of 695 pg ml - 1 and 7.9% for A β 38 for the second control with a mean of 1596 pg ml $^{-1}$; 17.9% for A β 40 for the first control with a mean of 1951 pg ml $^{-1}$ and 11.1% for A β 40 for the second control with a mean of 3992 pg ml⁻¹; and 16.3% for Aβ42 for the first control with a mean of 227 pg ml⁻¹ and 15.1% for Aβ42 for the second control with a mean of 216 pg ml⁻¹. To assure consistency in levels between the two runs, 40 CSF samples from the first run were re-analysed in the second run.

Plasma analysis. For plasma collection, blood was drawn into tubes containing EDTA as anticoagulant. After centrifugation (2000g, $+4\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$, 10 min), plasma samples were aliquoted into polypropylene tubes and stored at $-80\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ pending biochemical analyses. Plasma Aβ40 was analysed using Simoa immunoassay (Quanterix, Lexington, MA, USA).

White matter lesions. All patients were examined using a single 3T MR scanner (Trio, Siemens). Automated segmentation of WML was performed using the Lesion Segmentation Tool implemented in SPM8 (http://www.applied-statistics.de/lst.html), generating a total WML volume. Before this, manual segmentation for reference of WML was performed on FLAIR images co-registered to the native MPRAGE in four MCI patients, with the segmented volume ranging from 0.5 to 106.3 ml; the resulting optimal κ based on the Dice coefficient was 0.4 (ref. 36) and was used in the subsequent automated segmentation for all participants.

Statistical analysis. We tested correlations between CSF A β 40 and PET A β in different regression models. The main model was a linear regression model where the dependent variable was PET Aβ and the independent variables were CSF Aβ40, APOE ε4 (dichotomous), and the interaction between CSF Aβ40 and APOE ε4. Second, we tested the correlation between clinically significant PET AB accumulation and CSF Aβ40 and APOE ε4 in a logistic regression model with PET $\ensuremath{\mathrm{A}\beta}$ positivity as the dependent variable. Third, we tested a linear regression model with CSF Aβ40 as the dependent variable and a four level combination of PET Aβ and APOE ε4 as the independent variable (PET Aβ- & APOE ε4 – , PET Aβ- & APOE $\varepsilon 4 +$, PET A $\beta + \&$ APOE $\varepsilon 4 -$ and PET A $\beta + \&$ APOE $\varepsilon 4 +$). All models were adjusted for age (years), sex and diagnostic group. We also adjusted for CSF Aβ42 to test if CSF Aβ40 was associated with PET Aβ beyond CSF Aβ42, and to reduce the residual error of the model, allowing a better estimate of the correlation between CSF Aβ40 and PET Aβ. We adjusted for WML (ml) except for when WML was clearly nonsignificant, as detailed in the results section. The primary analyses were done using CSF Aβ40, but we also performed analyses using CSF Aβ38 and a combination of CSF Aβ38 and Aβ40 (based on their molar weights, Aβ38: 4129.012 g mol $^{-1}$; and Aβ40: 4327.148 g mol $^{-1}$ (ref. 37). Statistical significance was determined at P<0.05. All analyses were done using R (v. 3.0.1, The R Foundation for Statistical Computing).

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Author contributions

N.M. and O.H. had the full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. Study concept and design was formulated by N.M. and O.H. Acquisition, analysis or interpretation of data were done by N.M., P.S.I., S.P., H.Z., K.B., E.S., L.M. and O.H. Drafting of the manuscript was done by N.M. Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content was done by P.S.I., S.P., E.S., L.M., H.Z., K.B. and O.H. Statistical analysis was done by N.M. and P.S.I. N.M. and O.H. obtained funding

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Additional information

Competing financial interests: N.M., P.S.I., S.P., E.S., L.H. and O.H. report no conflicts of interest. K.B. has served as a consultant for Eli Lilly, Novartis, Roche Diagnostics and Sanofi-Aventis, and at Advisory Boards for IBL International and lecturing for Fujirebio Europe and Lundbeck. K.B. and H.Z. are co-founders of Brain Biomarker Solutions in Gothenburg AB, a GU Holding-based platform company at the University of Gothenburg.

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