

## Longitudinal plasma amyloid beta in Alzheimer's disease clinical trials

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### Abstract

**Introduction:** Little is known about the utility of plasma amyloid beta (A $\beta$ ) in clinical trials of Alzheimer's disease (AD).

**Methods:** We analyzed longitudinal plasma samples from two large multicenter clinical trials: (1) donepezil and vitamin E in mild cognitive impairment (n = 405, 24 months) and (2) simvastatin in mild to moderate AD (n = 225, 18 months).

**Results:** Baseline plasma A $\beta$  was not related to cognitive or clinical progression. We observed a decrease in plasma A $\beta$ 40 and 42 among apolipoprotein E epsilon 4 (APOE  $\epsilon$ 4) carriers relative to noncarriers in the mild cognitive impairment trial. Patients treated with simvastatin showed a significant increase in A $\beta$  compared with placebo. We found significant storage time effects and considerable plate-to-plate variation.

**Discussion:** We found no support for the utility of plasma A $\beta$  as a prognostic factor or correlate of cognitive change. Analysis of stored specimens requires careful standardization and experimental design, but plasma A $\beta$  may prove useful in pharmacodynamic studies of anti-amyloid drugs.

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### Keywords:

Alzheimer's disease; Mild cognitive impairment; Plasma amyloid; Biomarkers; Apolipoprotein E; Bioassay; Luminescence; Innogenetics; Donepezil; Simvastatin

## 1. Introduction

Biomarkers of Alzheimer's disease (AD) have profoundly affected the course of AD research, drug development, and clinical practice. Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) and neuroimaging measures of amyloid, presumably reflecting principal pathology of AD, are among the leading biomarkers. Given the somewhat invasive nature of CSF sampling and the expense of neuroimaging, plasma amyloid beta (A $\beta$ ) would be an attractive alternative biomarker. Although it is known

that there is communication between the peripheral and central A $\beta$  pools (via receptor mediated and passive mechanisms), the utility of plasma A $\beta$  measurements has remained limited. Some studies have shown correlations between plasma A $\beta$  and dementia risk and/or progression, although many of such findings have been inconsistent. Biological and methodological issues likely contribute to these limitations, thereby underlining the need for a better understanding of the biology and dynamics of plasma A $\beta$  and the need for studies with longer follow-up to determine the clinical utility of measuring plasma A $\beta$ .

As with CSF, changes in plasma A $\beta$  may reflect changes within the brain [1–3], but may also be more affected by peripheral factors. In subjects with familial AD or Down syndrome, plasma A $\beta$  begins to increase before dementia onset, perhaps reflecting increased A $\beta$  production [4–9].

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Investigations of plasma A $\beta$  as a predictor of dementia in sporadic or late-onset forms of AD have had inconsistent results (reviewed in [10]). Relationships have been found with plasma A $\beta$ 40 or 42 and dementia, but the direction of these associations varies among studies [11–16]. Some studies have found an association between lower A $\beta$ 42:40 ratios and higher risk of AD [17,18]. The sources of variability in findings from existing studies are potentially due to variability in subject age and with disease severity [12,19,20], but may also relate to study size; very few large-scale studies have been attempted. A recently published study in a cohort of N = 997 nondemented elderly patients found that cognitive reserve and plasma A $\beta$ 42:40 are associated, and the relationship is accentuated in those with low cognitive [21]. However, the predictive value of the plasma A $\beta$ 42:40 ratio was low.

Rodent studies demonstrate that a high cholesterol diet can increase levels of A $\beta$ , which can be reversed by 3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-(HMG) CoA reductase inhibitors (statins) drug treatment [22,23]. Simvastatin, an HMG CoA reductase inhibitor penetrates the central nervous system and has been shown to reduce the risk of cardiovascular disease and death. It was selected for use in an Alzheimer's Disease Cooperative Study (ADCS) randomized clinical trial to test the hypothesis that lipid lowering could reduce the clinical progression in subjects with AD who have cholesterol levels not otherwise requiring treatment. The study concluded that cholesterol levels decreased significantly in the statin group, but there was no effect on cognitive decline [24]. The effect of statin treatment on plasma A $\beta$  was not assessed in the primary analysis, although it has been the subject of several investigations [25–28]. No studies of A $\beta$  in plasma or CSF have found an effect of statin treatment [28–31], although several reported changes in amyloid precursor protein and improvements in cognition.

We assessed the relationships among plasma A $\beta$  and clinical progression, treatment, and apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) using banked plasma from two large ADCS clinical trials: (1) donepezil and vitamin E in mild cognitive impairment (MCI; n = 405, 24 months) [32,33] and (2) simvastatin in mild to moderate Alzheimer's (n = 225, 18 months) [24]. Our primary goal was to determine covariates that may be associated with plasma A $\beta$ 40, 42, or ratio in the setting of AD clinical trials of 18–24 months duration. We also investigated the value of plasma A $\beta$  as a predictive biomarker of clinical change, or an outcome measure in pharmacodynamic studies.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. ADCS MCI trial

The 36-month, three-arm, placebo-controlled ADCS MCI trial examined the effect of vitamin E or donepezil in MCI patients ([clinicaltrials.gov](http://clinicaltrials.gov) identifier: NCT00000173) [33]. A total of 769 patients with amnesic MCI were randomized to vitamin E, donepezil, or placebo. Complete information on in-

clusion, exclusion criteria, and the treatment regimen has been reported [32,33]. Serial blood samples were taken and plasma was aliquoted and banked ([Appendix A](#), available in the online [Supplementary Materials](#)).

### 2.2. ADCS simvastatin trial

The potential benefit of 18 months of statin treatment on cognitive decline in AD was examined by the ADCS ([clinicaltrials.gov](http://clinicaltrials.gov) identifier: NCT00053599). Individuals aged 50 years or older with probable AD and Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) within the range 12 to 26 were included. Individuals were excluded if they had other neurological or psychiatric diagnoses that could interfere with cognitive function, were taking lipid lowering drugs, or had conditions requiring cholesterol lowering treatment as defined by the Adult Treatment Panel (ATP III) guidelines. They were also excluded if they had low-density lipoprotein cholesterol below 80 mg/dl or triglycerides >500 mg/dl. Complete information on inclusion, exclusion and treatment regimen has been reported [24]. As with the MCI study, blood samples were taken and plasma was banked ([Appendix A](#), available online).

### 2.3. Plasma analysis and internal standard

Plasma was assayed, quantified, and quality controlled as described in [Appendices B and C](#), available online. Each assay plate also included a plasma sample derived from blood drawn by venipuncture of a 56-year-old cognitively normal volunteer in a single afternoon. This internal standard provided a means for adjusting plate-to-plate variation and assessing freezer storage effects.

### 2.4. Statistical methods

Storage effects on the internal standard were estimated by ordinary least squares regression of A $\beta$  concentration on the number of years because the sample was obtained from the volunteer. We examined the associations between covariates of interest and plasma A $\beta$  at baseline using linear mixed-effects models adjusting for the internal standard [34]. The covariates of interest include age, education, gender, *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4, Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale Cognitive Subscale (ADAS-Cog), Activities of Daily Living (ADL), MMSE, urea nitrogen, creatinine, total protein, albumin, total cholesterol, hemoglobin, and platelets. See [Appendix D](#), available online, for details.

To estimate the correlation between *change* in A $\beta$  and *change* specific covariates, we used a multivariate outcome linear mixed-effects model approach [35]. Typically one would estimate the correlation of change by a two-step process: (1) calculate or estimate each individual's change from baseline for each outcome, (2) calculate the usual correlation coefficients for change in each pair of outcomes. Instead we used multivariate outcome mixed-effect models to estimate in a single step the correlation of change in each pair of outcomes. The model directly estimates the correlation

between random slopes for two outcomes in one step. This approach is more efficient and powerful for detecting correlations of change.

To account for the plate effects in our longitudinal models of treatment and *APOE*  $\epsilon 4$  group differences in A $\beta$ 40, A $\beta$ 42, and the log ratio of A $\beta$ 42 to A $\beta$ 40; we used linear mixed-effects models with subject-specific effects nested within plate-specific effects [34]. The models treat time as categorical and provide estimates of differences between groups at each time point. We also considered adding effect to the model for sample storage time, subject age, creatinine, hemoglobin, total protein, albumin, and platelets. We considered both the baseline level of the labs and change in the labs as potential co-

variates. Rather than prespecifying which covariates should be included, we used the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) [36] to objectively select covariates. Briefly, AIC uses the familiar likelihood framework in combination with a penalty for model complexity with the goal of determining which covariates comprise the most predictive model.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Quality control

In the MCI trial, duplicate plasma samples were obtained from  $n = 480$  subjects at baseline,  $n = 375$  at 2 years, and

Table 1  
Baseline characteristics

Variable	N	MCI			P-value
		Without A $\beta$ (N = 364)	With A $\beta$ (N = 405)	Combined (N = 769)	
Age (yrs)	769	73.70 (7.42)	72.23 (7.10)	72.93 (7.28)	.008
Gender					
Female	769	182 (50%)	170 (42%)	352 (46%)	.030
Education (yrs)	769	14.57 (3.12)	14.70 (3.05)	14.64 (3.08)	.423
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon 4$ alleles					
0	769	146 (40%)	199 (49%)	345 (45%)	.007
1		186 (51%)	161 (40%)	347 (45%)	
2		32 (9%)	45 (11%)	77 (10%)	
ADAS11	765	11.33 (4.31)	11.23 (4.44)	11.28 (4.38)	.636
ADL	768	46.00 (4.94)	45.91 (4.63)	45.95 (4.77)	.455
MMSE	769	27.13 (1.89)	27.39 (1.81)	27.27 (1.85)	.054
Urea Nitrogen	689	16.90 (4.11)	17.66 (5.16)	17.34 (4.76)	.290
Creatinine	689	0.869 (0.190)	0.915 (0.227)	0.896 (0.213)	.010
Total Protein	689	7.082 (0.431)	7.053 (0.449)	7.065 (0.441)	.240
Albumin	689	4.161 (0.233)	4.175 (0.246)	4.169 (0.240)	.466
Total Cholesterol	688	215.2 (37.2)	213.1 (37.1)	214.0 (37.1)	.480
Hemoglobin	686	13.95 (1.18)	14.11 (1.25)	14.04 (1.22)	.126
Platelets	686	233.1 (54.6)	224.9 (52.8)	228.4 (53.7)	.068
		AD			
Variable	N	Without A $\beta$ (N = 181)	With A $\beta$ (N = 225)	Combined (N = 406)	P-value
Age (yrs)	406	74.88 (9.44)	74.35 (9.18)	74.58 (9.29)	.533
Gender					
Female	406	102 (56%)	139 (62%)	241 (59%)	.309
Education (yrs)	406	14.40 (3.38)	14.14 (3.08)	14.25 (3.21)	.290
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon 4$ alleles					
0	358	64 (39%)	86 (44%)	150 (42%)	.626
1		78 (48%)	84 (43%)	162 (45%)	
2		21 (13%)	25 (13%)	46 (13%)	
ADAS11	403	24.35 (9.82)	24.07 (10.28)	24.19 (10.07)	.669
ADL	406	67.7 (10.0)	68.0 (10.3)	67.9 (10.2)	.491
MMSE	406	20.32 (4.72)	20.37 (4.69)	20.35 (4.70)	.900
Urea nitrogen	405	17.27 (4.87)	17.18 (4.96)	17.22 (4.91)	.779
Creatinine	405	0.904 (0.202)	0.860 (0.208)	0.879 (0.206)	.010
Total protein	405	7.171 (0.437)	7.141 (0.477)	7.154 (0.459)	.267
Albumin	405	4.122 (0.290)	4.174 (0.309)	4.151 (0.301)	.076
Total cholesterol	405	211.8 (30.1)	212.1 (30.8)	212.0 (30.5)	.888
Hemoglobin	401	13.99 (1.23)	14.01 (1.24)	14.00 (1.24)	.975
Platelets	398	246.5 (74.7)	249.1 (57.2)	247.9 (65.4)	.233

Abbreviations: MCI, mild cognitive impairment; ADAS, Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale; ADL; activities of daily living; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; AD, Alzheimer's disease.

NOTE. Mean (standard deviation) and counts (percentages) of baseline characteristics among those with plasma A $\beta$  samples that passed quality controls versus not. P-values are from Wilcoxon rank-sum or Fisher's exact tests.

$n = 338$  subjects at 3 years. After excluding samples with coefficient of variance (CV) greater than 20%, we analyzed data from  $n = 405$  subjects at baseline,  $n = 349$  at 2 years, and  $n = 309$  at 3 years. Similarly, for the simvastatin trial we obtained samples from  $n = 242$  subjects at baseline and  $n = 206$  at 1.5 years; and of these  $n = 225$  at baseline and  $n = 190$  at 1.5 years were used in the analysis. The range of storage times of the MCI samples was from 7.81 to 13.4 years across all study visits. The storage time range for samples from the simvastatin trial was 3.95 to 7.82 years.

### 3.2. Baseline characteristics

Table 1 shows the baseline characteristics of the subjects that had analyzable plasma A $\beta$  samples passing quality control versus those that did not. In the MCI trial, subjects with versus without analyzable plasma A $\beta$  data were younger, less female, more APOE  $\epsilon 4$  positive, and had higher levels of creatinine. In the simvastatin trial, subjects with analyzable plasma A $\beta$  data had lower levels of creatinine compared with those that did not have analyzable plasma A $\beta$  data.

### 3.3. Storage effects and plate-to-plate variation of biological standard

Fig. 1 depicts the storage effect that we observed from the biological standard that was aliquoted on each plate. Storage time of the biological standard ranged from 0 to 1.8 years. We found that estimated A $\beta 40$  and A $\beta 42$  concentrations of the biological standard declined significantly over time ( $-14.42$  pg/ml A $\beta 40$  per storage year, standard error of mean (SE) = 1.32,  $P < .001$ ;  $-1.893$  pg/ml A $\beta 42$  per storage year, SE = 0.616,  $P = .003$ ). The standard deviations of the residuals from these models,  $\sigma = 6.9$  pg/ml A $\beta 40$  and  $\sigma = 3.2$  pg/ml A $\beta 42$ , provide measures of the plate-to-plate variability, controlling for storage. Fig. 1 also demon-

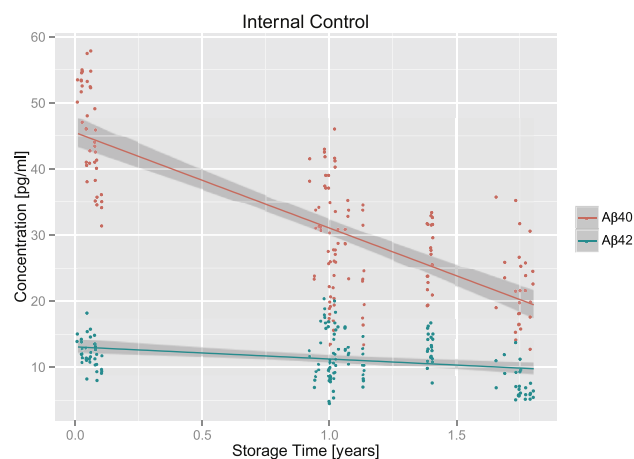


Fig. 1. Storage effects. Each plate included an aliquot from the same healthy control sample. We observed a significant linear effect of storage time on the estimated concentration of this sample. Estimated storage time plots are from an ordinary least squares regression. Shaded regions indicate 95% confidence bounds.

strates a wide range of estimated concentrations, even within a short time frame. In the samples assayed within 40 days of venipuncture, for instance, the range is nearly 21.6 pg/ml for A $\beta 40$ , and about 7.58 pg/ml for A $\beta 42$ . The interplate CV, adjusted for storage effect, was 15.1% for A $\beta 40$  and 24.5% for A $\beta 42$ , while the median intraplate CV was 6.0% for A $\beta 40$  and 8.3% for A $\beta 42$ .

### 3.4. Baseline associations with plasma A $\beta 40$ , A $\beta 42$ , and log ratio of A $\beta 42$ to A $\beta 40$

Table 2 summarizes the associations among covariates and A $\beta 40$  and A $\beta 42$ . A $\beta 40$  was positively associated with A $\beta 42$  in both trials (2.223 pg/ml A $\beta 40$  per pg/ml A $\beta 42$  SE = 0.118,  $P < .001$  in the MCI trial; and 4.606 pg/ml A $\beta 40$  per pg/ml A $\beta 42$  SE = 0.335,  $P < .001$  in the simvastatin trial). In the MCI trial, we found A $\beta 40$  and A $\beta 42$  were positively associated with age (1.041 pg/ml A $\beta 40$  per year of age, SE = 0.324,  $P = .001$ ; and 0.163 pg/ml A $\beta 42$  per year of age, SE = 0.083,  $P = .047$ ); urea nitrogen (0.8697 pg/ml A $\beta 40$  per mg/dl urea nitrogen, SE = 0.432,  $P = .045$ ; and 0.3515 pg/ml A $\beta 42$  per mg/dl urea nitrogen, SE = 0.113,  $P = .002$ ); and creatinine (25.712 pg/ml A $\beta 40$  per mg/dl creatinine, SE = 9.656,  $P = .008$ ; and 10.890 pg/ml A $\beta 42$  per mg/dl creatinine, SE = 2.531,  $P < .001$ ). In the simvastatin trial, A $\beta 40$  was positively associated with hemoglobin (3.949 pg/ml A $\beta 40$  per g/dl hemoglobin, SE = 1.954,  $P = .044$ ); and A $\beta 42$  was positively associated with ADAS-Cog (0.0714 pg/ml A $\beta 42$  per ADAS-Cog point, SE = 0.0334,  $P = .033$ ). The log ratio of A $\beta 42$  to A $\beta 40$  was significantly associated with creatinine (0.16 per mg/dl, SE = 0.07,  $P = .026$ ) and platelets ( $-7.4 \times 10^{-4}$  per 1000/ $\mu$ l, SE =  $-3.1 \times 10^{-4}$ ,  $P = .016$ ) in the MCI trial.

### 3.5. Correlates of change

Table 3 summarizes the correlates of change in A $\beta 40$  and A $\beta 42$ . In MCI, change in A $\beta 40$  was positively correlated with change in A $\beta 42$  ( $\geq 0.842$ , 95% CI 0.779 to 0.912) and change in A $\beta 40$  was positively correlated with change in platelets ( $\geq 0.170$ , 95% CI 0.036 to 0.308). Similarly, in the simvastatin trial, change in A $\beta 40$  was correlated with change in A $\beta 42$  ( $\geq 0.713$ , 95% CI 0.606 to 0.804). In the MCI trial, change in log ratio of A $\beta 42$  to A $\beta 40$  was correlated with ADAS-Cog ( $\geq 0.145$ , 95% CI 0.019 to 0.274), ADL ( $\geq -0.178$ , 95% CI  $-0.309$  to  $-0.055$ ), and urea nitrogen ( $\geq -0.168$ , 95% CI  $-0.305$  to  $-0.039$ ). Note that higher scores on ADAS-Cog indicate worse cognition and higher scores on the ADL indicate better daily function.

### 3.6. APOE $\epsilon 4$ group differences in A $\beta$ change

The top of Fig. 2 shows the modeled change in A $\beta 40$  and A $\beta 42$  by the number of APOE  $\epsilon 4$  alleles. In MCI we see significantly greater change from baseline in A $\beta 40$

Table 2  
Baseline associations

Variable	Baseline associations with Aβ40 (pg/ml)					
	MCI			AD		
	Estimate	SE	P-value	Estimate	SE	P-value
Aβ42 (pg/ml)	2.22	0.12	<.001***	4.61	0.34	<.001***
Age (yrs)	1.04	0.32	.001**	0.00	0.26	.988
Education (yrs)	0.18	0.78	.819	-0.45	0.80	.572
Gender						
Male	160.83	5.75	.268	130.83	5.13	.849
Female	165.99	4.65		130.11	8.44	
APOE ε4						
0	159.15	6.02	.301	128.61	8.40	.625
1	166.71	4.88		123.03	5.76	
2	162.17	7.61		125.63	8.74	
ADAS-Cog	0.44	0.52	.394	0.42	0.24	.077†
ADL	-0.50	0.49	.310	-0.16	0.23	.500
MMSE	-1.49	1.26	.239	-0.46	0.52	.379
Urea nitrogen (mg/dl)	0.87	0.43	.045*	-0.45	0.49	.365
Creatinine (mg/dl)	25.71	9.66	.008**	12.36	11.80	.296
Total protein (g/dl)	-3.60	5.07	.478	-2.08	5.01	.679
Albumin (g/dl)	2.31	9.01	.797	7.06	7.81	.367
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	0.03	0.06	.580	-0.06	0.08	.473
Hemoglobin (g/dl)	-1.29	1.79	.472	3.95	1.95	.044*
Platelets (1000/μl)	0.08	0.04	.051†	-0.04	0.05	.386
Variable	Baseline Associations with Aβ42 (pg/ml)					
	MCI			AD		
	Estimate	SE	P-value	Estimate	SE	P-value
Age (yrs)	0.16	0.08	.047*	-0.02	0.04	.663
Education (yrs)	0.33	0.19	.081†	0.07	0.12	.570
Gender						
Male	39.43	1.29	.761	19.09	0.73	.955
Female	39.07	1.18		19.05	0.72	
APOE ε4						
0	40.10	1.37	.419	18.81	0.80	.406
1	38.70	1.24		19.63	0.83	
2	38.25	1.89		18.07	1.26	
ADAS-Cog	-0.13	0.13	.311	0.07	0.03	.033*
ADL	-0.03	0.13	.827	-0.04	0.03	.285
MMSE	0.17	0.32	.591	-0.11	0.07	.135
Urea nitrogen (mg/dl)	0.35	0.11	.002**	0.01	0.07	.883
Creatinine (mg/dl)	10.89	2.53	<.001***	2.75	1.72	.110
Total protein (g/dl)	-1.51	1.30	.244	-0.94	0.74	.201
Albumin (g/dl)	1.37	2.33	.555	0.39	1.12	.731
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	0.00	0.02	.759	0.00	0.01	.760
Hemoglobin (g/dl)	-0.07	0.47	.884	0.23	0.29	.429
Platelets (1000/μl)	-0.01	0.01	.622	-0.01	0.01	.384
Variable	Baseline associations with log ratio of Aβ42 to Aβ40					
	MCI			AD		
	Estimate	SE	P-value	Estimate	SE	P-value
Age (yrs)	0.00	0.00	.912	0.00	0.00	.878
Education (years)	0.01	0.01	.115	0.00	0.01	.576
Gender						
Male	-1.42	0.04	.131	-1.89	0.05	.751
Female	-1.47	0.05		-1.90	0.06	
APOE ε4						
0	-1.40	0.05	.056†	-1.90	0.06	.181
1	-1.48	0.05		-1.84	0.06	
2	-1.45	0.06		-1.93	0.08	

(Continued)



Table 2  
Baseline associations (Continued)

Variable	Baseline associations with log ratio of A $\beta$ 42 to A $\beta$ 40					
	MCI			AD		
	Estimate	SE	P-value	Estimate	SE	P-value
ADAS-Cog	0.00	0.00	.363	0.00	0.00	.877
ADL	0.00	0.00	.889	0.00	0.00	.591
MMSE	0.01	0.01	.205	0.00	0.00	.638
Urea nitrogen (mg/dl)	0.00	0.00	.226	0.00	0.00	.430
Creatinine (mg/dl)	0.16	0.07	.026*	0.09	0.09	.280
Total protein (g/dl)	-0.07	0.04	.077 <sup>†</sup>	-0.04	0.04	.278
Albumin (g/dl)	-0.01	0.06	.857	-0.02	0.06	.787
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	0.00	0.00	.912	0.00	0.00	.292
Hemoglobin (g/dl)	0.00	0.01	.765	-0.02	0.01	.254
Platelets (1000/ $\mu$ l)	$-7.4 \times 10^{-4}$	$-3.1 \times 10^{-4}$	.016*	0.00	0.00	.944

Abbreviations: MCI, mild cognitive impairment; AD, Alzheimer's disease; ADAS, Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale; ADL, activities of daily living; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination.

NOTE. Associations between the indicated variables at baseline as estimated by linear mixed effect model with plasma A $\beta$ 40 or A $\beta$ 42 as the outcome. Each estimate is on a different scale. For example, in MCI, A $\beta$ 40 increased an estimated 1.04 pg/ml per year of age.

<sup>†</sup> $p < 0.01$ ; \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ .

and A $\beta$ 42 at three years among *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 noncarriers compared with carriers. Change in A $\beta$ 40 at 3 years was greater in those with no alleles compared with those with one allele (41.7 pg/ml, SE = 6.69,  $P < .001$ ) or two alleles (55.7 pg/ml, SE = 9.54,  $P < .001$ ). Change in the log ratio of A $\beta$ 42 to A $\beta$ 40 at year 3 in MCI was greater for those with one versus no allele (0.12, SE = 0.04,  $P = .019$ ). The AIC selected model of A $\beta$ 40 included age; baseline creatinine; and baseline and change in hemoglobin, albumin, and platelets. The AIC selected model of A $\beta$ 42 included age; and change in creatinine, hemoglobin, and platelets. The AIC selected model of log ratio of A $\beta$ 42 to A $\beta$ 40 included baseline creatinine, total protein, hemoglobin, and platelets; and change in creatinine, total protein, albumin, and platelets. No significant differences between *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 groups were observed in the simvastatin trial.

### 3.7. Treatment group differences in A $\beta$ change

The bottom of Fig. 2 shows the modeled change in plasma A $\beta$  species by treatment group. In the MCI trial, A $\beta$ 40 and A $\beta$ 42 increased more at 3 years in the placebo group compared with donepezil (33.9 pg/ml A $\beta$ 40, SE = 7.68,  $P < .001$ ; 12.63 pg/ml A $\beta$ 42, SE = 2.04,  $P < .001$ ) or vitamin E (39.3 pg/ml A $\beta$ 40, SE = 7.53,  $P < .001$ ; 7.81 pg/ml A $\beta$ 42, SE = 2.01,  $P < .001$ ). Change in log ratio of A $\beta$ 42 to A $\beta$ 40 was greater at 3 years with vitamin E compared with placebo (0.14, SE = 0.049,  $P = .012$ ), but no difference was found with donepezil. In the simvastatin trial, both A $\beta$  species increased more at 18 months in the simvastatin group compared with placebo (21.3 pg/ml A $\beta$ 40, SE = 6.55,  $P = .001$ ; 4.34 pg/ml A $\beta$ 42, SE = 0.923,  $P < .001$ ), but the difference in change of log ratio of A $\beta$ 42 to A $\beta$ 40 was not significant ( $-0.10$ , SE = 0.062,  $P = .010$ ).

### 3.8. Treatment group differences in A $\beta$ change within *APOE* $\epsilon$ 4 subgroups

Fig. 3 shows the modeled change in plasma A $\beta$  species by treatment group within each *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 group. For *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 carriers in the MCI trial, both A $\beta$  species increase significantly more at 3 years in the placebo group compared with vitamin E (64.8 pg/ml A $\beta$ 40, SE = 10.8,  $P < .001$ ; 15.89 pg/ml A $\beta$ 42, SE = 2.65,  $P < .001$ ), and A $\beta$ 42 increased more at 3 years in the placebo group compared with donepezil (15.96 pg/ml A $\beta$ 42, SE = 2.68,  $P < .001$ ). The log ratio of A $\beta$ 42 to A $\beta$ 40 decreased more with donepezil compared with placebo ( $-0.21$ , SE = 0.074,  $P = .009$ ). For *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 carriers in the simvastatin trial, both A $\beta$  species increased significantly at 18 months in the simvastatin group compared with placebo (43.8 pg/ml A $\beta$ 40, SE = 8.99,  $P = .001$ ; 8.28 pg/ml A $\beta$ 42, SE = 1.37,  $P < .001$ ); and the log ratio decreased more with simvastatin ( $-0.18$ , SE = 0.091,  $P = .044$ ). For *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 noncarriers in the MCI trial, both A $\beta$  species increased more at 3 years in the placebo group compared with donepezil (53.4 pg/ml A $\beta$ 40, SE = 11.3,  $P < .001$ ; 10.28 pg/ml A $\beta$ 42, SE = 3.17,  $P = .002$ ); and there was no difference in change in log ratio of A $\beta$ 42 to A $\beta$ 40. There were no significant differences in A $\beta$  change between simvastatin and placebo among the *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 noncarriers.

## 4. Discussion

In comparison to CSF, plasma A $\beta$  has been an inconsistent predictor of dementia in sporadic or late-onset forms of AD. Associations have been found between plasma A $\beta$ 40 and 42 and dementia, but the direction of these associations vary among studies [11–15,37]. More consistency has been found in the ratio of plasma A $\beta$ 42:40, with non-

Table 3  
Correlations of change

Variable	MCI	AD
	Correlation (95% CI)	Correlation (95% CI)
<b>Aβ40</b>		
Aβ42	<b>0.842 (0.779,0.912)</b>	<b>0.713 (0.606,0.804)</b>
ADAS-Cog	-0.038 (-0.152,0.075)	-0.016 (-0.206,0.179)
ADL	-0.072 (-0.181,0.044)	-0.043 (-0.239,0.144)
MMSE	-0.071 (-0.197,0.051)	-0.015 (-0.204,0.176)
Urea nitrogen	-0.024 (-0.161,0.106)	-
Creatinine	0.034 (-0.094,0.159)	-
Total protein	0.015 (-0.112,0.131)	-
Albumin	0.010 (-0.125,0.128)	-
Total cholesterol	0.039 (-0.090,0.175)	-0.001 (-0.199,0.199)
Hemoglobin	-0.014 (-0.149,0.125)	-
Platelets	<b>0.170 (0.036,0.308)</b>	-
<b>Aβ42</b>		
ADAS-Cog	0.044 (-0.062,0.162)	0.033 (-0.147,0.216)
ADL	-0.100 (-0.218,0.006)	-0.040 (-0.219,0.141)
MMSE	-0.115 (-0.251,0.002)	-0.081 (-0.278,0.114)
Urea nitrogen	0.053 (-0.077,0.186)	-
Creatinine	0.032 (-0.108,0.156)	-
Total protein	-0.035 (-0.167,0.085)	-
Albumin	-0.065 (-0.194,0.071)	-
Total cholesterol	-0.021 (-0.148,0.100)	-0.127 (-0.303,0.050)
Hemoglobin	-0.079 (-0.205,0.044)	-
Platelets	0.038 (-0.095,0.161)	-
<b>log ratio of Aβ42 to Aβ40</b>		
ADAS-Cog	<b>0.145 (0.019, 0.274)</b>	-0.089 (-0.263, 0.120)
ADL	<b>-0.178 (-0.309, -0.055)</b>	0.185 (-0.008, 0.351)
MMSE	0.062 (-0.073, 0.205)	-0.048 (-0.239, 0.143)
Urea nitrogen	<b>-0.168 (-0.305, -0.039)</b>	
Creatinine	0.009 (-0.133, 0.152)	
Total protein	-0.060 (-0.193, 0.074)	
Albumin	-0.098 (-0.228, 0.043)	
Total cholesterol	-0.018 (-0.151, 0.118)	0.161 (-0.021, 0.360)
Hemoglobin	-0.087 (-0.222, 0.031)	
Platelets	-0.085 (-0.212, 0.052)	

Abbreviations: MCI, mild cognitive impairment; AD, Alzheimer's disease; ADAS, Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale; ADL, activities of daily living; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination.

NOTE. Correlations between change in amyloid beta (Aβ40) and change in each other indicated variable as estimated by multivariate outcome mixed-effect models. We estimated the lower and upper bounds of the 95% confidence intervals (CI) by 1000 simulations. Correlations that are significantly different from zero are indicated in bold.

demented patients usually having higher risk of AD with lower Aβ42:40 ratios [17,18]. In terms of predicting whether patients with MCI will convert to AD, no consistent change in plasma Aβ or ratio has been found [12,13,37]. However, studies demonstrate that age-related changes (increases) in plasma Aβ and reduced Aβ40:42 ratio are primarily restricted to MCI patients or individuals with worsening cognitive status [37].

Variability in these findings is potentially due to sample variability in subject age and/or with disease severity [12,20], but may also relate to study size. Very few large-scale studies have been attempted. A recently published study in a large cohort of elderly patients identified an association between low cognitive reserve and

plasma Aβ42:40, which accentuated the relationship between low plasma Aβ42:40 and greater cognitive decline in non-demented participants [21]. As mentioned previously, plasma Aβ has been reported to begin increasing before dementia onset in subjects with familial AD or Down syndrome, perhaps reflecting increased Aβ production [5-7]. The same has not been found in sporadic or late-onset forms of AD. Although relationships have been found with plasma Aβ40 or 42 and dementia, the direction of these associations is variable. In particular, a recent Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) study of plasma Aβ42 in normal, mildly impaired and mildly demented cohorts, found that plasma Aβ measurements were not useful in distinguishing among the cohorts, and showed minimal association with disease progression [37]. Although discouraging, this study found a significant association between plasma Aβ42 and brain amyloid, as indicated by CSF Aβ42. The ADNI study also found a correlation of plasma Aβ42 and other biomarkers of Aβ pathology [37]. As opposed to studies examining levels of peptide, reports on ratio of plasma Aβ42:40, have had more consistent results, with lower Aβ42:40 ratios predicting higher risk of AD [17,18]. Furthermore, a large cohort study of elderly patients found that low cognitive reserve and plasma Aβ42:40, which accentuated the relationship between low plasma Aβ42:40 and greater cognitive decline in nondemented participants [21].

We found that *APOE* ε4 carriers demonstrated significant reduction of Aβ compared with noncarriers in our MCI cohort, while this relationship was not observed in the AD statin trial. A possible explanation is that *APOE* ε4 group differences in plasma Aβ are only apparent in milder populations, and populations with more severe impairment are more homogeneous across *APOE* ε4 groups.

Despite the fact that both studies found no effect on their primary outcomes, we did observe significant, although inconsistent, treatment effects on Aβ in both trials. Active groups in the MCI trial demonstrated decreased Aβ and the statin group demonstrated increased Aβ. Although the original statin trial itself was negative, our plasma biomarker data suggests further study of the effect of statins on Aβ is warranted. It is surprising that presumed symptomatic agents, donepezil and vitamin E, appeared to affect plasma Aβ in AD. All our treatment-related findings should be interpreted with caution until confirmed in studies with parallel CSF or amyloid imaging.

We observed greater interassay CVs than some previous reports, but our intra-assay CVs were within the range of many prior reports (e.g. [37]). Collection, preparation and handling of plasma samples can all influence variability. The inter-assay CVs we observed could have been elevated due to preparation, handling, or storage of the samples or the analytic kits. Recent data also suggest that technical precision may also be involved. Using a robotized method for specific steps allowed for a large improvement in consistency over results reported in the

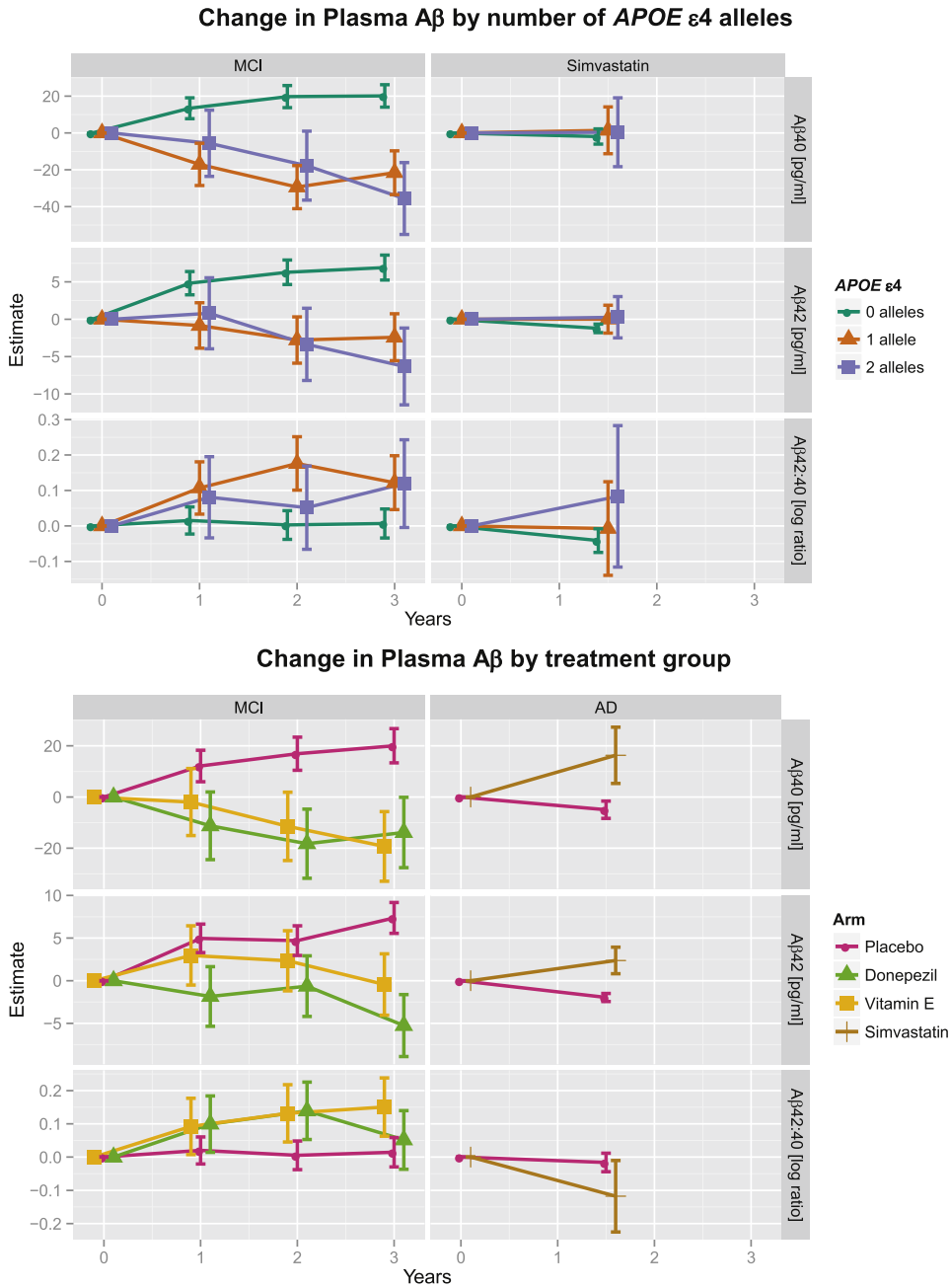


Fig. 2. Linear mixed effects model estimates of change in plasma amyloid beta ( $A\beta$ ) by treatment and apolipoprotein E  $\epsilon 4$  ( $APOE \epsilon 4$ ). Change in plasma  $A\beta$  was modeled by number of  $APOE \epsilon 4$  alleles (top) and treatment group (bottom). Covariates in these models were selected by Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). Specifically models of  $A\beta 40$  included age; baseline creatinine; and baseline and change in hemoglobin, albumin and platelets. The models of  $A\beta 42$  included age; and change in creatinine, hemoglobin, and platelets. Models of  $A\beta 42$  to  $A\beta 40$  (log) ratios included baseline creatinine, total protein, hemoglobin, and platelets; and change in creatinine, total protein, albumin, and platelets.

literature, and several significant relationships between plasma and CSF biomarkers have been found using this method [38]. Although the authors concluded that these associations are not strong enough to support use of plasma  $A\beta$  as a diagnostic screening test, these data and those observed in immunotherapy trials (e.g. [39], for review [40]) suggests that plasma  $A\beta 42$  may be useful as a pharmacodynamic marker.

Due to plate-to-plate variability seen with the Innogenetics platform, we find that inclusion of one or more internal standard controls and sound experimental design and analysis are crucial. In particular, we recommend that samples be randomized so that key features (e.g. treatment assignment,  $APOE \epsilon 4$ , gender) are well balanced on each plate. Good experimental design can help ensure that plate effects are not confounded with other effects of interest.



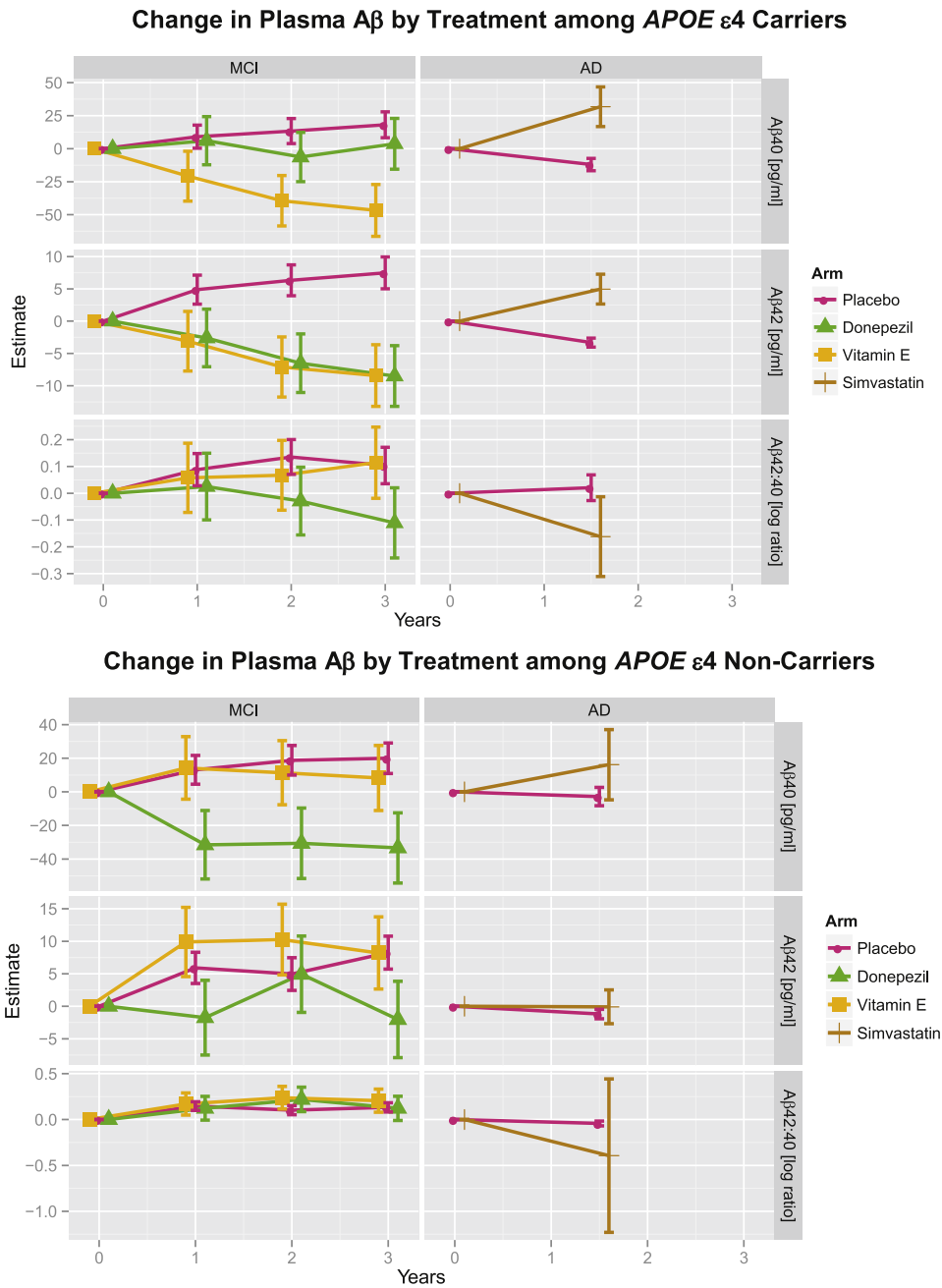


Fig. 3. Linear mixed effects model estimates of change in plasma amyloid beta ( $A\beta$ ) by treatment within apolipoprotein E  $\epsilon 4$  ( $APOE \epsilon 4$ ) subgroups. Change in plasma  $A\beta$  was modeled by treatment among  $APOE \epsilon 4$  carriers (top) by treatment among  $APOE \epsilon 4$  noncarriers (bottom). Covariates in these models were selected by Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). Specifically models of  $A\beta 40$  included age; baseline creatinine; and baseline and change in hemoglobin, albumin and platelets. The models of  $A\beta 42$  included age; and change in creatinine, hemoglobin, and platelets. Models of  $A\beta 42$  to  $A\beta 40$  (log) ratios included age; and baseline and change in creatinine, total protein, hemoglobin, albumin, and platelets.

The statistical models (Appendix D, available online) included fixed-effect covariates for mean-centered biological standard assayed on each plate. This model allows for plate-level covariate adjustment, similar to familiar adjustments for subject-level covariates. A more naïve approach subtracts the biological control from each observation before submitting to the final regression analysis. In a perfectly balanced design, point estimates from the covariate adjustment approach would be identical to the naïve approach,

but naïve standard error estimates would be incorrect because they do not account for variability in the biological control. We also include subject- and plate-specific random effects to account for the correlation structure of these repeated measures, plate-clustered data.

We also recommend that samples from an individual be aliquoted to the same plate. This helps ensure that plate effects are not confounded with longitudinal effects. Unfortunately, this means that storage effects are confounded with

longitudinal effects; however we have found that storage effects are small relative to plate-to-plate variation. In this setting, estimates of group differences are valid under the assumption that storage effects are similar in the groups being compared.

When considering our results and those from other groups, an important factor to consider is blood processing time. The ADCS chooses to process blood samples for plasma stores centrally to reduce variations in preanalytic handling. This requires that whole blood samples are shipped in ambient temperature gel packs overnight and processed at approximately 24 h postdraw. Our decision to maintain this strategy is supported by our internal studies (Rissman and Aisen, unpublished observations) and investigations by other groups that have tested stability of A $\beta$  in plasma. Stability experiments assessing the effect of time-to-processing demonstrate that mean (standard deviation) A $\beta$ 1–40 decreased from 267 (46) pg/ml at time 0 to 190 (41) pg/ml at 24 h and 143 (33) pg/ml at 48 h; or an average decrease of about 2.6 pg/ml/h [41]. Similarly, A $\beta$ 1–42 decreased from 29 (4) pg/ml at time 0 to 2 (4) pg/ml at 24 h and 19 (3) pg/ml at 48 h; or an average decrease of about 0.2 pg/ml/h. Their conclusion was that processing should be done within 24 h and peptide ratios should be created to minimize artificial results. Other groups conducted similar experiments and found plasma concentrations of A $\beta$  (particularly A $\beta$ 1–42) appeared stable in whole blood processed as long as 24 h after collection [42]. While comparisons of absolute A $\beta$  across studies is problematic, group comparisons within a study in the present manuscript should be less so. This is because samples from different groups of interest have been handled similarly within a particular study, and samples have been randomized to plates to prevent confounding of plate and group effects.

With improvements of assay conditions (e.g., with increasing sensitivity and reproducibility, and standardization of specimen handling to minimize interactions with other blood constituents and collection materials); and sound experimental design and analysis to control confounding factors such as batch effects, age and renal function; plasma A $\beta$  may become a useful biomarker of brain amyloidosis. This, in turn, could greatly facilitate the development and clinical application of disease-modifying therapies for AD.

### Acknowledgments

Supported by National Institutes of Health/National Institute on Aging AG010483, AG032755, and 1KL2RR031978 awarded by the University of California, San Diego Clinical and Translation Research Institute (1UL1RR031980). The authors thank Louise Lindberg and Kathleen Lao (ADCS, UCSD) for technical support.

**Conflict of Interest Statement:** The authors have no conflict of interests relevant to blood biomarker discovery research.

### Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jalz.2014.07.156>.

### RESEARCH IN CONTEXT

1. **Systematic review:** We used banked plasma samples from two Alzheimer's Disease Cooperative Study multicenter studies to determine factors that may influence plasma amyloid beta (A $\beta$ ) and whether levels of A $\beta$  in plasma are associated with apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) genotype and/or clinical and cognitive measures of Alzheimer's disease (AD) progression. We assayed levels of A $\beta$ 40 and 42 with high throughput multiplex fluorescent bioassays in the context of clinical, cognitive and laboratory data.
2. **Interpretation:** Our data suggest that plasma A $\beta$  may be a biomarker of interactions between *APOE* genotype and change in A $\beta$ 42 in patients with mild cognitive impairment. Our results suggest that detection of plasma A $\beta$  may prove to be a viable biomarker of AD.
3. **Future directions:** Our data demonstrate the standardization and covariates that should be accounted for when analyzing plasma A $\beta$  as an AD biomarker or for assessing treatment effects. Our future plans are to use determine whether plasma A $\beta$  is altered in treatment trials that specifically impact A $\beta$ .

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