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Invited Review for the 90th Anniversary

Geriatric Medicine, Japanese Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative and Biomarker Development

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Due to a change in disease spectrum in aged countries, the primary role of geriatricians should be directed to an appropriate management and prevention of 1) cognitive decline and dementia, 2) swallowing and aspiration pneumonia and 3) falls and fractures. Management of dementia constitutes a central part in the practice of geriatric medicine in order to support independence of life in elderly people. The current paradigm of cognitive function-based testing for the diagnosis and treatment of Alzheimer's disease (AD) is going to drastically shift to a biomarker-based test approach, a shift that will correspond to the emergence of disease-modifying drugs. In addition, a new molecular imaging technique that visualizes neuronal protein deposits or pathological features has been developed in Japan and the U.S.A. Based on these achievements, the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) was proposed and initiated in 2005. The ADNI is a long-term observational study being conducted in the U.S.A., Europe, Australia, and Japan using identical protocols. The objectives of ADNI are: 1) to establish methodology which will allow standard values related to long-term changes in imaging data, such as MRI and PET, in patients with AD and mild cognitive impairment and normal elderly persons; 2) to obtain clinical indices, psychological test data, and blood/cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers to demonstrate the validity of image-based surrogate markers; and 3) to establish optimum methods to monitor the therapeutic effects of disease-modifying drugs for AD. Patient enrollment in the Japanese ADNI has begun in July 2008. Imaging of AD pathology not only acts as a reliable biomarker with which to assay curative drug development by novel pharmaceutical companies, but it also helps health promotion toward AD prevention.

Keywords: geriatric medicine; Alzheimer's disease; Amyloid β-peptide; Biomarker; Amyloid imaging; ADNI
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Geriatrician's role and proposal of "Geriatric Triangle"

Geriatric medicine is an independent internal medicine division that is specialized for management of medical problems of elderly people. Despite a fact that elderly people appear healthy, a variable latent organ dysfunction may be present due to a limited residual capacity. A condition referred to as geriatric syndrome is a complex and multi-organ disease especially suffered by elderly people. The geriatric syndrome consists of more than 50 medical conditions such as dementia, depression, delirium, pneumonia, urinary incontinence, osteoporosis and fractures as well as malnutrition, sarcopenia, skin ulceration and renal failure. Importantly, these clinical conditions often occur in combination rather than separately. As illustrated in Fig.1, most important functions which support independence of life in later years are: 1) Thinking and judgments; 2) Eating and swallowing; and 3) Standing and walking. Loss of these basic functions alone or in combination will directly lead to devastating health implications and reduced quality of life. Disturbance of cognitive ability manifests as dementia. Impairment of ordered oropharyngeal functions causes a disturbed swallowing or dysphasia followed by development of aspiration pneumonia. Failure of standing and walking results in repeated falls and fractures. — all being hardly present before the age of 65 but highly prevalent over the age of 75. Moreover, these problems not merely occur in separate occasions but they also are inter-related each other. For example, people with advanced dementia are likely to develop eating problems and aspiration (Nakagawa et al. 1997; Wada et al. 2001; Mitchell et al.

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2009). Repeated episodes of pneumonia will develop disturbed nutrition and dehydration which leads to sarcopenia with an increased risk of falls and fractures (Lang et al. 2010). A long-term bedridden state due to hip or vertebral fractures will result in worsening of dementia (Muir et al. 2009). Conversely, demented patients who were treated by anti-psychotic drugs are associated with an increased risk of falls and fractures (Horikawa et al. 2005). A long-term bedridden state due to hip or vertebral fractures are prone to develop esophageal regurgitation and aspiration (Matsui et al. 2002). Drugs that up-regulate brain dopaminergic function are occasionally beneficial to prevent aspiration pneumonia in the elderly (Yamaya et al. 2001). Here, we propose to term such a closely-related condition as "geriatric triangle" as shown in Fig.1. Patients diagnosed as having geriatric triangle are likely to be placed on a long-term care facility due to reduced quality of life (Sasaki 2008). Therefore, the primary role of geriatricians should be directed to an appropriate management and prevention of geriatric triangle. Moreover, every single geriatrician should be capable of managing the geriatric triangle beyond a scope of each organ specialist (Sasaki 2008). Hence, primary targets of geriatric medicine may include assessment and treatment of 1) cognitive decline and dementia, 2) swallowing and aspiration pneumonia and 3) falls and fractures. On the other hand, it is unlikely as a primary role of geriatrician only to manage elderly people with diseases which are spanning entire stages of life. Such diseases, for example, hypertension and diabetes mellitus, can be taken care of by each organ specialist. Due to a change in disease spectrum in aged countries, it should be emphasized that geriatric medicine has become a separate and independent practice division from other organ-specialized fields of internal medicine.

Current scientific approach toward understanding of Alzheimer's disease (AD) pathogenesis

Alzheimer's disease (AD) deprives sufferers of variable life-supporting functions that are necessary for independence in the later years of life. Development of AD leads to parting from society. Care-taking families sacrifice their quality of life and their mental and physical burdens are immeasurable. Loss of personality due to alteration of brain function while physical appearance remains the same is horrible and miserable. As an essential domain of geriatric triangle as described in Fig. 1, prevalence of dementia (the number of people with the disease at any one time) doubles for every 5-year age group beyond the age 65. Briefly, dementia hardly develops prior to age 60. However, according to data from Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare in Japan, the prevalence of dementia is estimated to be 1.5% for age 65-69, 3.6% for age 70-74, 7.1% for age 75-79, 14.6% for age 80-84, 27.3% beyond age 85 (http://www.mhlw.go.jp/english/index.html). The elderly population aged 65 or older is now approximately 22% of the whole population in Japan. Therefore, it is likely that dementia becomes quite common over the age of 65. According to recently conducted community survey, AD is a leading cause of dementia among elderly Japanese population (Yamada et al. 2001; Wada-Isoe et al. 2009). The rapid increase in the number of AD patients can be a consequence of a rapid increase in human life span. In Japan, an average life span in 1947 was 50.6 years for men and 53.9 years for women. Surprisingly, that was 79.3 years for men and 86.1 years for women in 2008. It is possible that AD is only encountered when the nation reaches a sufficiently aged society. Furthermore, AD is a major factor in increasing national medical expense. It is a universal desire to find a way to control AD. The U.S.A. calls the rapid increase in

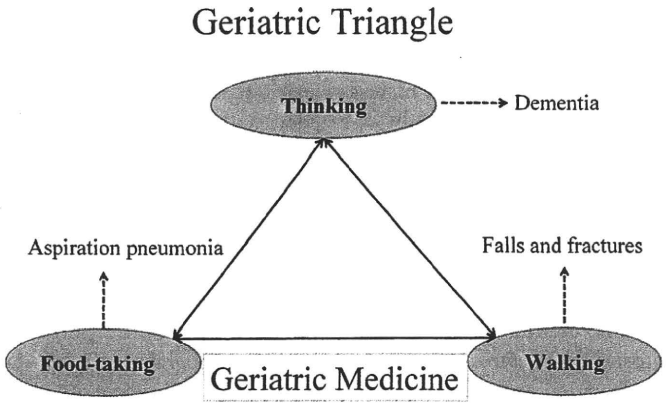

Fig. 1. Proposed concept of geriatric triangle.
At least three physical and mental functions are needed to support independence of life in elderly people. They are 1) Food-taking ability, 2) Standing and walking, and 3) Thinking and judgments. Loss of these basic functions alone or in combination will lead to devastating health implications and reduced quality of life through a vicious circle. Here, we propose to term such a vicious circle as "geriatric triangle". Geriatric triangle constitutes a major part of geriatric syndrome. Therefore, each geriatrician should be capable of managing the geriatric triangle beyond a scope of each organ specialist.

AD patients and concomitant pressure on federal budget a "National Crisis" which illustrates the seriousness of the problem (A National Alzheimer's Strategic Plan, 2009).

Understanding of pathogenesis of AD has markedly progressed in the last 3 decades. Pathological changes of AD occur gradually initially in cognitively normal people with dementia representing the end stage of many years of accumulation of amyloid β-peptide (Aβ). Aβ was first sequenced from meningeal blood vessels of AD brains (Glenner&Wang 1984). A year later, the same peptide was discovered as the primary components of senile plaques (Masters et al. 1985). Shortly after these earlier findings, cloning of the gene encoding amyloid β-peptide precursor protein (APP) and its localization to chromosome 21coupled with the recognition that Down's syndrome (trisomy 21) leads invariably to AD neuropathology set a initial hypothesis that Aβ is a primary driving force in the pathogenesis of AD. The other neuropathological features that are characteristic of AD include neurofibrillary changes and neuron death. Spatial distribution of senile plaques differs from that of neurofibrillary changes (Arriagada et al. 1992a; Arriagada et al. 1992b). A major building block of neurofibrillary changes was shown to be abnormally phosphorylated tau (Lee et al. 1991). According to the amyloid hypothesis, cortical Aβ accumulation causes all of the disease process associated with AD including microglial and astroglial activation, synaptic injury, oxidative injury followed by abnormal tau phosphorylation and eventually loss of neurons and dementia (Hardy and Selkoe 2002). The amyloid hypothesis also tells us that control of amyloid deposition would achieve success to control AD. There have been several conceptually important observations that strongly support the amyloid hypothesis. First, we occasionally see Aβ-positive but tau-negative brains from cognitively normal elderly people in autopsy samples, suggesting that Aβ deposition predates tau deposition (Arai et al. 1990). This time framework was further evidenced by the observation that Aβ-positive senile plaques occur at age 30's, whereas tau-positive neurofibrillary changes are seen only after the age of 40 in the brains afflicted with Down's syndrome (Mann et al. 1989). Thirdly, genetic mutations causing autosomal dominant familial AD were discovered in the APP gene clustering at or very near the sites that are normally cleaved by proteases called β or γ-secretases (Goate et al. 1991). These mutations enhance proteolytic processing of APP to generate amyloidogenic Aβ (Citron et al. 1992). Other AD-causing mutations in PS-1 and PS-2 gene also enhance generation of amyloidogenic Aβ by changing proteolytic processing of APP (Scheuner et al. 1996). Finally, a distinct Aβ species ending at amino acid 42 (Aβ42) is highly amyloidogenic, and there was a uniform pattern of Aβ42 deposition as an initial event of pathology either in non-demented, AD or Down's syndrome patients (Iwatsubo et al. 1994). As illustrated in Fig. 2, we can use a hypothetical assumption to think about the progression of AD. Namely, assuming that memory loss became noticeable at the age 70 followed by progression of multiple cognitive decline and behavioral problems at the age of 75. The patient was eventually diagnosed as suffering AD. In such an instance, we can assume that accumulation of cerebral Aβ may have started at around 50 years of age followed by intracellular accumulation of tau in the form of neurofibrillary changes as well as neuron death may have started at approximately 60-65 years of age. Therefore, it should be emphasized that there is an approximately 20-year time lag between the initiation of amyloid protein deposition and onset of the earliest clinical manifestations of dementia in AD. During this lag-period, individuals are cognitively normal but they are not aware of what changes are taking place in their brains. We assume that such individuals would ultimately develop AD if he or she lived long enough. Furthermore, a prodromal stage of AD often referred to as mild cognitive impairment (Petersen et al. 2009) is characterized by onset of mildest cognitive symptoms despite a massive neuron loss in vulnerable cortical areas (Gómez-Isla et al. 1997). Hence, there is an extremely high need for development of methods that simply and reliably detect amyloid and tau deposits. One such approach is a recently developed molecular imaging technique called "amyloid imaging".

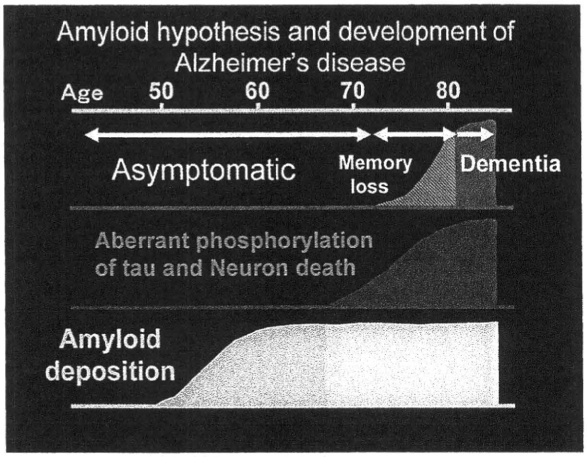

Fig. 2. Hypothetical scheme of progression of AD from amyloid deposition to development of dementia.
It is noteworthy that brain amyloid continues to be accumulating towards the onset of AD during which subjects are not aware of what changes are taking place in their brains. When subjects are first symptomatic, abundant neurofibrillary changes and a massive neuron death have already begun in vulnerable brain regions such as hippocampal or entorhinal cortex. Original description was made by Yasuo Ihara.

A paradigm shift in the diagnosis and treatment of AD

Fig. 3 illustrates a superimposition of the diagnostic and treatment framework in the context of the hypothetical amyloid cascade described above. AD has so far been diag-

nosed clinically only by demonstrating "cognitive decline" which has progressed to a stage that is sufficient enough to disturb independent social or occupational life. It is likely that cognitive decline is associated with a massive neuron death that exceeds so-called "cognitive reserve capacity" (Stern 2009). In addition to cognitive testing, two other diagnostic techniques including magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG)-PET are currently in common use to demonstrate a mass of dead nerve cells directly or indirectly. Symptomatic drugs such as donepezil hydrochloride and memantine hydrochloride are best considered at this point. However, a dramatic improvement of memory function cannot be expected since disturbance of episodic memory is based upon a massive loss of hippocampal and entorhinal cortical neurons. Accordingly, if we assume that AD represents chronic effects of a long-standing imbalance between Aβ production and Aβ clearance and this imbalance causes all existing events in the downstream of Aβ, a special attention should be directly paid to amyloid and tau depositions in the development of preventive strategies. If we are successful in developing diagnostic methodologies to detect amyloid or tau deposition before a massive neuron death occurs, such approaches will make a great contribution to developing a disease-modifying or curative treatment that directly targets amyloid and also tau. A paradigm of cognitive function-based testing for the diagnosis and treatment of AD is going to drastically shift to a biomarker-based test approach in accordance with the emergence of disease-modifying drugs. Hope for prevention of AD would be potentially carried out. As mentioned later, the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiatives (ADNI) will change paradigm of diagnostic and treatment of AD drastically with biomarkers as a bridging role in the paradigm shift.

Biomarkers with a bridging role in the paradigm shift

In general, biomarkers of AD are defined as indicators of specific features that characterize AD in vivo. Either biochemical or imaging biomarkers are expected to provide potentially diverse purposes as summarized elsewhere (The Ronald and Nancy Reagan Research Institute of the Alzheimer's Association & NIAWG 1998; Frank et al. 2003; Shaw et al. 2009). First, biomarkers will support preonset diagnosis. As demonstrated in Fig. 2 and 3, AD pathology has already started with abundant amyloid pathology even though individuals are otherwise normal and are still independent in their daily living activities,. This stage can be an ideal therapeutic time point in which disease-modifying or curative drugs should be indicated before neurodegenerative cascade is triggered. Such biomarkers will enable us to move from disease modification to prevention of AD. Second purpose is evaluation of disease severity. Currently, severity or clinical stage of AD is evaluated by neuropsychological testing. However, neuropsychological test results are likely to vary due to the patient's physical condition on the day of the test and experience of the examiners. In a study involving 192 AD patients performed by Jack et al., the annual change in ADAS-Cog score in mild to moderate AD was 4.25 ± 7.2 (mean ± S.D.) points, while the yearly change in hippocampal volume on MRI in the same patients was −234 ± 144 (mean ± S.D.) mm^3 (Jack et al. 2003; Petersen et al. 2005). The SD, representing variation of the values, of the hippo-

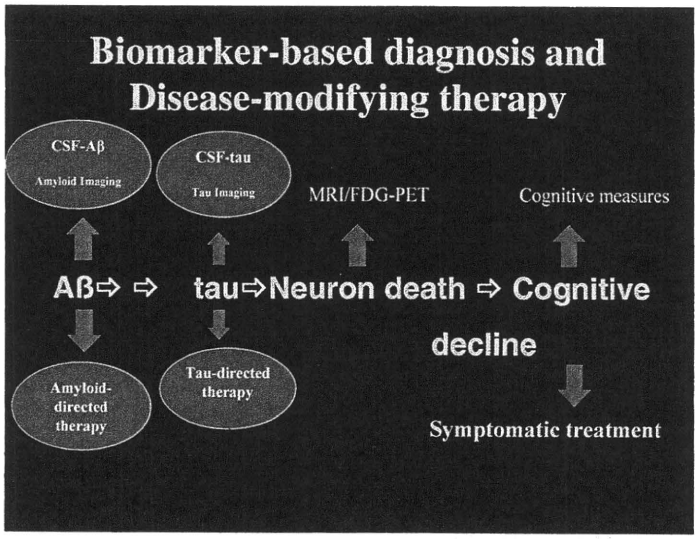

Fig. 3. Strategies for new diagnostic and therapeutic approaches for AD are presented based on amyloid hypothesis.
This figure illustrates a superimposition of the diagnostic and treatment framework in the context of the hypothetical amyloid cascade as described in Fig. 2. In the hypothesis, amyloid is located upstream probably due to a causative agent of AD. Therefore, amyloid imaging is quite attracting because this technology will facilitate both detection and intervention that targets amyloid. If tau imaging would also be possible, tau-targeting therapy might be considered.

campal index was only 0.6 times the mean, while that of ADAS-Cog was 1.7 times. Since image processing is a uniform mechanical task, variation of the imaging biomarker should be small. Sensitive biomarkers which reliably and objectively reflect changes in lesions, even though the effect size is small, are expected to be used analogously to commonly used laboratory test indices for evaluation of the disease severity in clinical practice such as C-reactive protein in inflammatory diseases, serum transaminase levels in liver diseases as well as serum creatinine kinase levels in muscular diseases. Thirdly, we need biomarkers that support evaluation of therapeutic effects. Several classes of amyloid-reducing drugs such as γ-secretase inhibitors (De Strooper et al. 2010) and amyloid immunization therapy (Tabira 2010) might become available in the near future. For the development of these therapeutic drugs, development of methodology to objectively access "decrease or removal of amyloid" is necessary. For example, when the brain amyloid level is reduced by a novel treatment, the biomarker levels are expected to return closer to normal range. Ideal biomarkers may also provide important information regarding the timing of treatment initiation, discontinuation and changing of drug treatment. However, it may be unlikely that a single biomarker meets all conditions described above, and it may be more realistic to prepare a combination or panel of several different biomarkers.

Since therapy is likely to be most effective at or before symptom onset, early or pre-symptomatic detection of AD is highly desirable before neurodegeneration becomes obvious. Thus, there is a great need for blood and CSF biomarkers that substantially aid tracking disease progression of AD and eventually promoting prevention strategy. As reviewed elsewhere (The Ronald and Nancy Reagan Research Institute of the Alzheimer's Association & NIAWG 1998; Frank et al. 2003), ideal AD biomarkers should detect a fundamental feature of AD neuropathology, be validated in autopsy confirmed cases, have a diagnostic sensitivity > 80% for detecting AD and a specificity of > 80% for distinguishing AD from other dementias. Moreover, assays using AD biomarkers should be reliable, reproducible, non-invasive, simple to perform and inexpensive. Further, validation of AD biomarkers requires confirmation by at least 2 independent studies from qualified investigators published in peer-reviewed journals. Tau and Aβ are major components of the two neuropathological hallmarks of AD (tangles and plaques respectively), and they are the most intensively studied candidate AD biomarkers where they are best studied in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) using extensively characterized ELISAs (Arai et al. 1995; Arai et al. 1997; Arai et al. 1998; Tomita et al. 2007). A recent examination of > 100 subjects with autopsy-confirmed diagnoses reached a conclusion that elevated CSF tau levels are associated with the presence of AD pathology and CSF Aβ42 levels are decreased in AD (Clark et al. 2003). Currently, it is widely accepted that biomarkers of brain amyloid burden are reductions in CSF Aβ42 and increased amyloid PET tracer retention (Fagan et al. 2006; Jack et al. 2010). As shown in Fig. 2, after a lag period, which varies from patient to patient, neuronal dysfunction and neurodegeneration become the dominant pathological processes. Biomarkers of neuronal injury and neurodegeneration are increased CSF tau and structural MRI measures of cerebral atrophy (Arai et al. 1995). Neurodegeneration is accompanied by synaptic dysfunction, which is indicated by decreased FDG-PET (Jack et al. 2010).

Development and clinical applications of amyloid imaging

Amyloid imaging is currently considered to be the most promising candidate biomarker since it meets many possible conditions of an ideal biomarker as described above. The most difficult hurdle for clinical application of this technology is to find a probe with following excellent characteristics: 1) it should selectively bind to Aβ aggregates with β-sheet-structure; 2) it should readily penetrate the blood-brain barrier (BBB) while being rapidly cleared off from the brain in the absence of the target; 3) the labeled form should not lose the characteristics of the mother compound. In our experience, enhancing one of several necessary characteristics causes loss in another, requiring extensive adjustment.

Although brain Aβ deposits are still well beyond the resolution of conventional neuroimaging techniques such as MRI, the density of these deposits in the brain tissue can be visualized through specific radiotracer and positron emission tomography (PET). The first compound to emerge as an amyloid-imaging agent was Chrysamine-G (Klunk et al. 1995). This compound shows similar binding characteristics to Congo-red, but unfortunately, due to its limited BBB permeability, there was no use as a clinical PET tracer. A marked progression in the development of amyloid-imaging tracers was made by the development of 2-(1-{6-[(2-[^{18}F]fluoroethyl)(methyl) amino]-2-naphthyl}ethylidene) malononitrile ([^{18}F]FDDNP) (Agdeppa et al. 2001). This compound is highly lipophilic and can easily cross BBB, and has been used in human PET studies (Shoghi-Jadid et al. 2002; Small et al. 2006; Barrio et al. 2008). However, this agent has some limitations in its practical use due to its low signal-to-background ratio (Tolboom et al. 2009). Currently, the most successful amyloid-binding agent is a thioflavin-T derivative, N-methyl-[^{11}C] 2-(4′-methylaminophenyl)-6-hydroxybenzothiazol ([^{11}C]PIB) which has been shown to possess a high affinity for Aβ fibrils (Klunk et al. 2003; Mathis et al. 2003; Klunk et al. 2004). An autoradiographic study using AD brain sections revealed that [^{11}C]PIB, in addition to binding to the classical fibrillar Aβ plaques, also binds to a range of Aβ containing lesions including diffuse plaques and cerebrovascular amyloid angiopathy (Lockhart et al. 2007). In vitro binding studies indicated that PIB preferentially binds to Aβ1-42 fibrils with high affinity (Klunk et al. 2003) with a negligible binding to α-synuclein and tau (Lockhart et al. 2007; Fodero-

Tavoletti et al. 2007). The [^{11}C]PIB retention in the neocortical areas is correlated with the Aβ plaque load (Bacskai et al. 2007; Ikonomovic et al. 2008) with an inverse relation to CSF Aβ42 levels (Fagan et al. 2006). The frequency of cognitively normal individuals with positive PIB binding rose in an age-dependent manner from 0% at ages 45-49 years to 30.3% at ages 80-89 years. (Rowe et al. 2007; Morris et al. 2010). Further, CSF tau and phospho-tau$_{181}$ increased with cortical PIB binding in cognitively normal individuals (Fagan et al. 2009). However, there is currently no evidence of how frequently PIB-positive normal individuals will convert to develop dementia or how long is the interval between the detection of significant Aβ burdens and the onset of dementia. Longitudinal amyloid imaging studies are needed to demonstrate the reality of amyloid hypothesis via looking at relation between amyloid deposition and temporal AD progression.

Benzoxazole derivatives are also promising alternatives as amyloid-imaging probes (Okamura et al. 2004). A PET study using the ^{11}C-labeled benzoxazole derivative 2-(2-[2-dimethylaminothiazol-5-yl]ethenyl)-6-(2-[fluoro]ethoxy) benzoxazole (BF-227) demonstrated significantly higher retention of this tracer in cerebral cortices of AD patients compared to the majority of healthy elderly subjects (Kudo et al. 2007). The retention of this tracer in cerebral cortices of mild cognitive impairment patients was intermediate between AD and healthy normal subjects (Waragai et al. 2009; Furukawa et al. 2010). A voxel-by-voxel analysis demonstrated a higher retention of [^{11}C]BF-227 in the posterior association cortex of AD patients. The pattern of this distribution corresponds well with the distribution of neuritic plaques in postmortem AD brains (Okamura et al. 2009). These findings suggest [^{11}C]BF-227 may be distinct from [^{11}C]PIB in detecting different populations of amyloid deposits. In addition, glucose metabolism demonstrated by FDG-PET was negatively correlated with that of BF-227, suggesting that extracellular amyloid surrounds synapses and impairs neuronal function (Furukawa et al. 2010). In my personal view, a highly expected value of amyloid imaging may be its capability to monitor treatment effects in PIB or BF-227 positive normal individuals who have received amyloid-reducing therapies (Rinne et al. 2010). The [^{11}C]-labeled form has a short half-life (20.4 minutes) and its synthesis requires a facility capable of radioisotope synthesis using a cyclotron, whereas the [^{18}F] -labeled form has a longer half-life (109.7 minutes), which may be amenable for delivery to various sites. Therefore, the [^{18}F]-labeled compounds, for example, [^{18}F]AV-45 will probably be a standardized agent for future clinical uses (Personal communication from Skovronsky D).

Future prospects of the Japanese ADNI

Development of curative molecular targeting therapy for AD has rapidly progressed centering mainly in work done by U.S. pharmaceutical companies. Clinical trials of symptomatic treatments currently on the market could be completed within about 6 months, but planned disease-modifying drugs to delay progression of AD may require trial durations of at least one year or longer to confirm sufficient drug effect. Development of a surrogate biomarker which reflects the pathology of the disease and monitors its progression may be desperately needed for conducting long-term clinical trials. Based on this consideration, an observational clinical study called "The Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI)", was proposed and initiated in the U.S.A. in 2005 (Mueller et al. 2005; http://www.adni-info.org/ ; http://www.loni.ucla.edu/ADNI/). ADNI is a non-randomized long-term observational study undertaken in the U.S.A., Europe, Australia, and Japan using an identical protocol in each participant nation. Japanese ADNI (J-ADNI) is planning to follow 300 patients with MCI for 3 years, 150 patients with early AD for 2 years, and the other 150 normal subjects for 3 years in a cooperative study of a total of 38 facilities nationwide with sufficient experience in the management of dementia (http://www.j-adni.org/). The principle investigator is Professor Takeshi Iwatsubo at University of Tokyo. The study objectives are: 1) to establish methodology that will determine standard values related to long-term changes in image data, such as MRI and PET, in AD and MCI patients and normal elderly persons; 2) to simultaneously collect clinical indices, psychological tests, and blood/cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers to demonstrate the validity of image surrogate markers, and 3) to establish the optimum method to monitor therapeutic effects of curative drugs (disease-modifying drugs) for AD, for which analyses of the following observation items are prioritized: 1) Rate of conversion from MCI to AD, 2) rates of whole brain and hippocampus volume changes via MRI, 3) rates of change in blood and cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers, and 4) rate of change in glucose metabolism on FDG-PET. In addition, baseline amyloid PET scans are given to subjects who agreed it in J-ADNI. We hope that J-ADNI project promotes long-delayed improvements of Japanese infrastructure of medical care system for dementia. It is inadvisable for Japanese medical society to ignore that in the U.S.A. a paradigm shift in AD from 'cognitive measures-based to biomarker-based' has begun after deliberation and discussion on subjects such as clinical trial efficiency and cost reduction. Many different curative drugs are under development by pharmaceutical manufacturers, and global clinical trials of these new drugs are ongoing.

In J-ADNI, firstly, several of Japanese version of the cognitive test batteries were revised by Sugishita M. et al. to normalize the relative difficulty and to enhance maximum compatibility of the test with World Wide ADNI and later for global clinical trials of new drugs. The first patient was successfully enrolled at the National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry in July 2008. More than 330 patients have already been enrolled as of March 10, 2010. The consent rate to FDG-PET, amyloid PET, and sampling of cerebrospinal fluid was obtained from 80, 44, and 40% of the participants, respectively. We will attempt to increase the

number of patients enrolled and the rate of consent to biomarker sampling, aiming at a great success of J-ADNI and World Wide ADNI together.

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ORIGINAL COMMUNICATION

Amyloid PET in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease with BF-227: comparison to FDG–PET

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Abstract We recently developed a novel PET tracer, ^{11}C-labeled 2-(2-[2-dimethylaminothiazol-5-yl]ethenyl)-6-(2-[fluoro]ethoxy)benzoxazole ([^{11}C]BF-227), and had success with in vivo detection of amyloid plaques in Alzheimer's disease (AD) brains (Kudo et al. in J Nucl Med 8:553–561, 2007). We applied this tracer to subjects with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and AD in order to elucidate the status of amyloid plaque deposition in MCI and compared the diagnostic performance of BF-227-PET with that of FDG–PET in AD cases. We studied 12 aged normal (AN) subjects, 15 MCIs and 15 ADs with PET using [^{11}C]BF-227. PET images were obtained after administration of BF-227 and the regional standardized uptake value (SUV) and the ratio of regional to cerebellar SUV were calculated as an index of BF-227 binding. AD patients showed increased uptake of [^{11}C]BF-227 in the neocortical areas and striatum as well as decreased glucose metabolism in temporoparietal, posterior cingulate and medial temporal areas. MCI subjects showed a significant increase in BF-227 uptake in the neocortical areas similar to AD, and the most significant difference of BF-227 retention was observed in the parietal lobe if its retentions for MCI were compared to those for AD and AN. On the other hand, glucose hypometabolism in MCI was confined to cingulate and medial temporal cortices. Neocortical BF-227 uptake negatively correlated with glucose metabolism. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis indicated higher specificity and sensitivity with BF-227-PET than those with FDG–PET for differential diagnosis between AD and normal control. We conclude that [^{11}C]BF-227-PET has a possibility to be a useful technology for early detection of AD pathology and also even in the MCI stage.

Keywords Alzheimer's disease · Amyloid · Senile plaque · PET · MCI

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Introduction

Senile or amyloid plaque is a pathological hallmark of Alzheimer's disease (AD), and amyloid β peptide (Aβ), which is a main component of the senile plaque, is believed to play a key role in the pathogenesis of AD [8]. In recent years several laboratories, including ours, have succeeded in visualizing Aβ deposition in living patients' brains with

AD using PET probes [13, 14, 24]. Pittsburgh Compound-B (PIB), which is the most commonly used probe for Aβ now, has been applied not only to AD but also to several other neurological disorders [15, 24].

Petersen from the Mayo clinic addressed the concept of mild cognitive impairment (MCI), which is an intermediate state between normal aging and AD [20, 21]. The criteria he stated for MCI are cognitive concern expressed by a physician, informant, participant or nurse; cognitive impairment in one or multiple domains (executive function, memory, language or visuospatial); normal functional activities; not demented.

Regional cerebral glucose metabolism (rCMRglu) has been studied by several investigators [9, 18, 19] using [^{18}F] 2-fluoro-deoxy-D-glucose (FDG) and PET in diseases causing dementia including AD. We used BF-227-PET as well as FDG–PET on the same subjects (AN, MCI, and AD) and carefully analyzed and compared the results with these two kinds of PET. Finally using these data we investigated and compared the specificity and sensitivity of BF-227 PET and FDG–PET in diagnosing AD.

Method

Twelve ANs, 15 subjects with MCI and 15 patients with AD were recruited in the present study. The demographic information of the subjects is shown in Table 1. The diagnosis for MCI and probable AD followed the MCI clinical criteria presented by "Petersen et al." [20] and "the National Institute of Neurological and Communicative Disorders and Stroke—Alzheimer's Disease and Related Disorders Association" [17], respectively. In 15 MCI subjects, 10 were amnestic multi-domain MCI and the other 5 subjects were amnestic single-domain MCI. Mini-mental state examination (MMSE) scores were significantly different between "AN and MCI", "AN and AD", and "MCI and AD". The study protocol was approved by the Committee on Clinical Investigation at Tohoku University School of Medicine and the Advisory Committee on Radioactive Substances at Tohoku University. After a complete description of the study to the patients and subjects, written informed consent was obtained.

Table 1 Demographic details of the subjects in this study

	N	Gender	Age	MMSE
AN	12	M/F = 7/5	66.3 ± 3.3	29.9 ± 0.3
MCI	15	M/F = 8/7	78.3 ± 3.8	25.5 ± 2.5
AD	15	M/F = 5/10	72.5 ± 6.9	19.5 ± 3.7

AN aged normal, *MCI* mild cognitive impairment, *AD* Alzheimer's disease. MMSE scores are significantly different between "AN and MCI", "AN and AD", and "MCI and AD"

The PET procedure for BF-227 was described precisely before [14]. BF-227 and its *N*-desmethylated derivative (a precursor of [^{11}C]BF-227) were custom-synthesized by Tanabe R&D Service Co. [^{11}C]BF-227 was synthesized from the precursor by *N*-methylation in dimethyl sulfoxide using [^{11}C]methyl triflate. The [^{11}C]BF-227 PET study was performed using a PET SET-2400 W scanner (Shimadzu Inc., Japan). After intravenous injection of 211–366 mBq of [^{11}C]BF-227, dynamic PET images were obtained for 60 min with each subject's eyes closed. Standardized uptake value (SUV) images of [^{11}C]BF-227 were obtained by normalizing tissue radioactivity concentration by injected dose and body weight. The FDG–PET procedure was described previously [19]. Subjects were scanned in a quiet and dimly-lit room with their eyes closed after at least 4 h of food restriction. Following a 68 Ga/Ga transmission scan of 7 min duration, an emission scan, which lasted 60 min after intravenous injection of FDG, was performed. The emission data were corrected for tissue attenuation using the transmission data. Regions of interest (ROIs) were placed on individual axial magnetic resonance (MR) images in the cerebellar hemisphere, striatum, frontal, lateral temporal, medial temporal, parietal, occipital, anterior and posterior cingulate cortices. The ROI information was then copied onto dynamic PET SUV images, and regional SUVs were sampled using Dr. View/LINUX software (AJS inc., Japan). Because there were neither senile plaques nor glucose hypometabolism in the cerebellum of AD, ratios of regional SUV to cerebellar SUV (SUVR) were calculated as an index of [^{11}C]BF-227 retention and CMRglu. Neocortical SUVR was calculated by averaging SUVRs in the frontal, lateral temporal, parietal and posterior cingulate cortices.

For statistical comparison in the three groups, we applied one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Bonferroni-Dunn post hoc test. The performance of diagnostic indices to discriminate among groups was assessed using the ROC analysis. Areas under ROC curves (AUC) were calculated and compared using GraphPad Prism Software (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA). Statistical significance was defined as $p < 0.05$.

Results

BF-227 retention in MCI

First, we analyzed PET images with [^{11}C]BF-227 among the three groups (AN, MCI, and AD), and representative brain PET images are shown in Fig. 1. As indicated in the figure, some MCI subjects showed strong retention of [^{11}C]BF-227, but other MCI subjects did not. Most AD cases, however, indicated strong accumulation of [^{11}C]BF-227 especially in

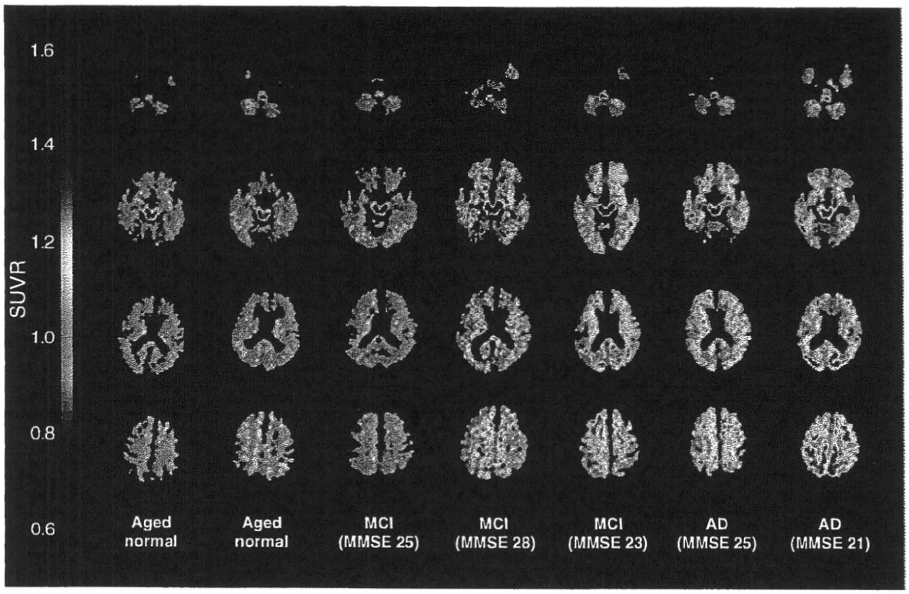

Fig. 1 Representative axial brain PET images with BF-227. Both the AD cases showed high SUVR compared to the aged normal subjects, although the MCI cases showed heterogeneity, that is, one MCI case (MMSE = 25) showed a comparative SUVR level to AN but another case showed SUVR as high as the AD level

frontal, temporal and parietal cortices. If the retention pattern of [^{11}C]BF-227 is compared to that of PIB, the accumulation of [^{11}C]BF-227 in the frontal lobe looks much weaker than that of PIB [3].

Figure 2 shows the mean neocortical and regional SUVRs of [^{11}C]BF-227 for the three groups. Both the mean neocortical SUVRs for MCI and AD are significantly higher than that for AN. As we previously reported [1], significantly higher SUVRs were observed in most cerebral regions in AD compared to AN except for the medial temporal lobe. MCI subjects indicated a significantly increased SUVR in frontal, lateral temporal, parietal, occipital cortices as well as anterior cingulate gyrus compared to AN, and the most prominent increase was observed in the lateral temporal cortex. A significantly lower SUVR in MCI was observed in the parietal cortex compared to AD. In the other neocortical regions, MCI subjects showed a tendency towards milder retention of BF-227 than that in AD. In the relationship between BF retentions and MMSE scores in all the subjects together (NC, MCI, and AD), no strong correlations were observed (data not shown).

Cerebral glucose metabolism in AN, MCI and AD

Next, we analyzed CMRglu in the same subjects using FDG–PET in order to compare to the findings with [^{11}C]BF-227, which is considered to indicate amyloid plaque depositions. As a result, a significant reduction of neocortical SUVR was observed in both MCI and AD patients compared to AN in FDG–PET (Table 1; Fig. 3). Regional SUVR in FDG–PET was significantly decreased in the cingulate gyrus and medial temporal cortex of MCI subjects and in the lateral temporal, parietal, posterior cingulate and medial temporal cortices of AD patients, compared to AN. Table 2.

Neocortical SUVR of FDG–PET for each subject was plotted against neocortical SUVR of BF-227-PET (Fig. 4a). SUVR of BF-227 negatively correlated to SUVR of FDG in analyzing the subjects from three groups all together ($r = -0.337$, $p = 0.029$). A significant correlation of regional SUVR in BF-227-PET and FDG–PET was also observed in the temporal and parietal cortices (data not shown). However, no significant correlation was observed when the analysis was confined to the subjects in each group.

Furthermore, in order to compare sensitivity and specificity to differentiate AD from AN, ROC analysis was performed for the lateral temporal SUVR of BF-227 and posterior cingulate SUVR of FDG (Fig. 4b). The AUC for BF-227 (0.994) is much higher than that for FDG (0.839), indicating that BF-227 is more sensitive as well as more specific than FDG in diagnosing AD.

Discussion

Our group recently developed a novel PET tracer, BF-227, and has reported that this compound is able to selectively detect dense amyloid deposits including senile plaques primarily in the posterior association area of AD patients. In the present study we applied this tracer to MCI cases and concluded that the mean value for the MCI cases with BF-227 was intermittent between AN and AD. Also we clarified that BF-227-PET is a useful technology to distinguish early AD patients from AN compared to FDG–PET.

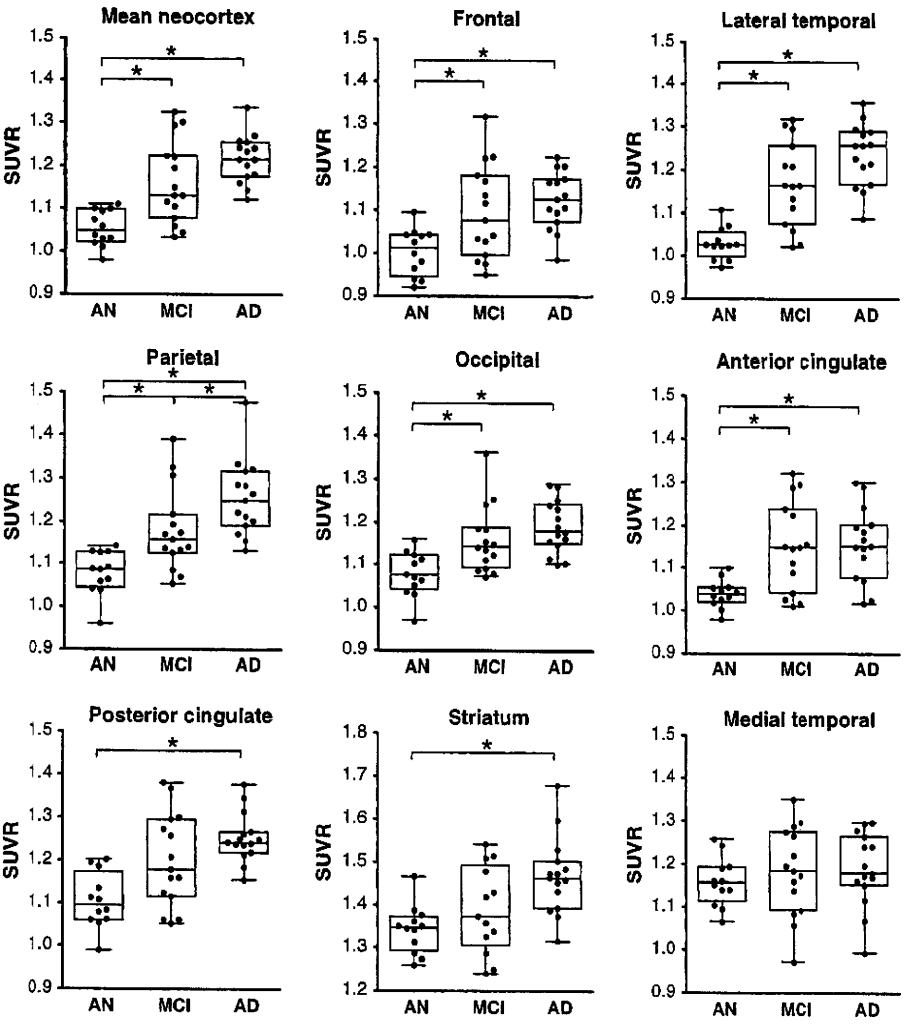

Fig. 2 Box plots of SUVR values with BF-227 PET for AN, MCI and AD. Each *dot* indicates the mean SUVR from "the mean neocortex" and "the eight regions", that is, frontal, temporal, parietal, occipital, anterior cingulate, posterior cingulated, striatum and medial temporal cortex. *Box* indicates interquartile range. *Vertical bars* indicate minimum–maximum range

MCI is now classified into 4 subtypes, that is, amnestic single-domain MCI, amnestic multi-domain MCI, non-amnestic single-domain MCI and non-amnestic multi-domain MCI. The important thing is that MCI (especially amnestic MCI) is regarded as a prodromal state of AD, in other words, a high percentage of MCI subjects are considered to convert to AD. It has been reported that 10–20% of MCI cases are going to convert to AD although only 1–2% of normal elderly convert to AD [21]. The present study concludes that MCI has high levels of [^{11}C]BF-227 retention indicating that senile plaque deposition already advances severely in the stage of MCI before dementia symptoms become obvious. Previous amyloid PET studies using ^{18}F-labeled 2-(1,1-dicyano-propen-2-yl)-6-(2-fluoroethyl)-methylamino-naphthalene (FDDNP) or PIB also indicated significant tracer retention in MCI and AD. Small et al. [24] presented that FDDNP can detect a high signal in MCI by binding not only for amyloid plaques but also tau neurofibrillary tangles, and the retention level for MCI is between AN and AD. On the other hand, several groups reported that about a half of the MCI subjects showed PIB uptake in the AD range, and other MCI subjects indicated retention levels lower than the AD range [12]. A group from Sweden concluded that MCI subjects who converted to AD later showed significantly higher PIB retention compared to non-converting MCI subjects and NC [6]. The present study also revealed higher retention of BF-227 in 60–70% of MCI subjects and in almost all the AD patients. Therefore, the amyloid PET technique is considered to be a highly useful and strong method for early detection of AD patients in the MCI stage. These pieces of information are indispensable in applying new treatment technologies against dementia into the prodromal stage of Alzheimer's disease. In other words, because it is considered that aggregation and deposition of Aβ starts much earlier before patients indicate symptoms of dementia, it is undoubtedly important to detect Aβ deposition as early as

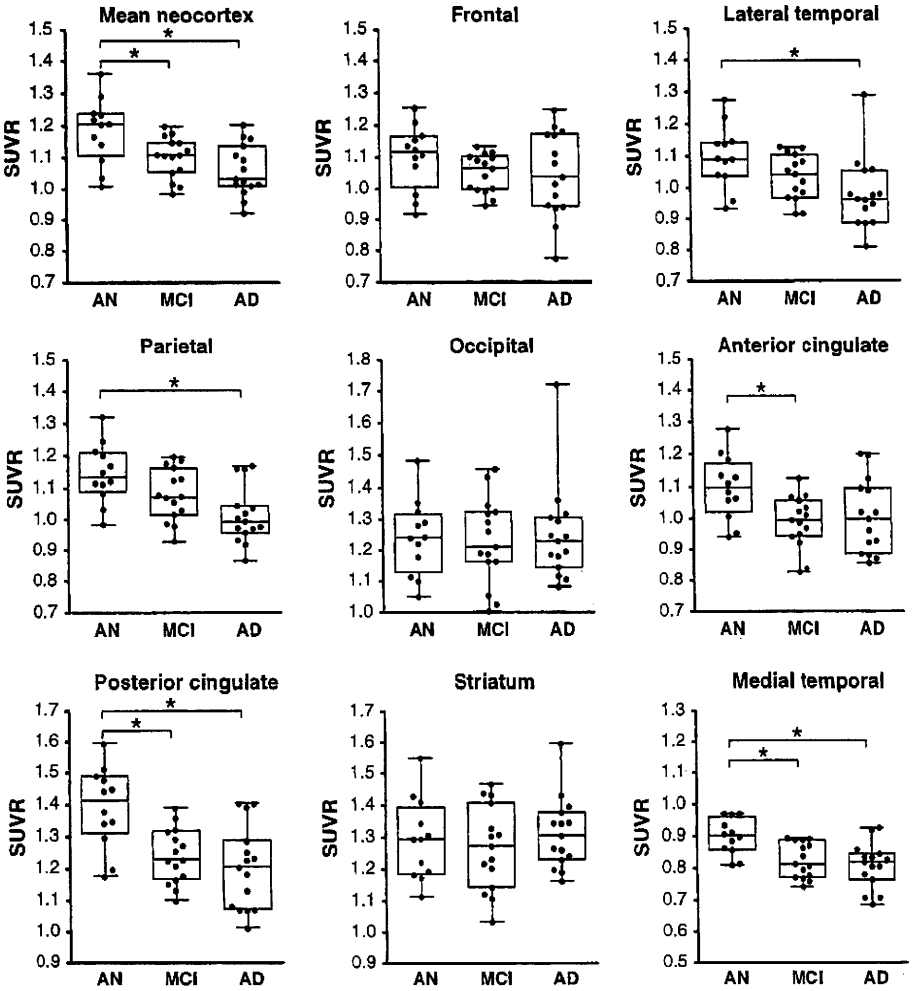

Fig. 3 Box plots of SUVR values with FDG–PET for AN, MCI and AD. Each *dot* indicates the mean SUVR from the mean neocortex and eight cerebral regions, that is, frontal, temporal, parietal, occipital, anterior cingulate, posterior cingulated, striatum and medial temporal cortex. *Boxes* indicate interquartile range. *Vertical bars* indicate minimum–maximum range

Table 2 Comparison of SUVR values of BF-227-PET and FDG–PET

		Mean neo cortex	Frontal	Lateral temporal	Parietal	Occipital	Anterior cingulate	Posterior cingulate	Striatum	Medial temporal
BF-227	AN	1.05 ± 0.04	1.00 ± 0.06	1.03 ± 0.04	1.08 ± 0.05	1.08 ± 0.05	1.04 ± 0.03	1.11 ± 0.07	1.34 ± 0.06	1.16 ± 0.06
	MCI	1.16 ± 0.10*	1.10 ± 0.11*	1.17 ± 0.10*	1.18 ± 0.10*	1.16 ± 0.08*	1.15 ± 0.11*	1.20 ± 0.11	1.41 ± 0.11	1.18 ± 0.10
	AD	1.22 ± 0.06*	1.13 ± 0.07*	1.24 ± 0.07*	1.25 ± 0.09*†	1.19 ± 0.06*	1.16 ± 0.09*	1.25 ± 0.06*	1.47 ± 0.09*	1.19 ± 0.09
FDG	AN	1.18 ± 0.10	1.10 ± 0.11	1.10 ± 0.10	1.15 ± 0.09	1.24 ± 0.12	1.10 ± 0.10	1.39 ± 0.13	1.29 ± 0.13	0.90 ± 0.06
	MCI	1.10 ± 0.06*	1.05 ± 0.06	1.03 ± 0.07	1.08 ± 0.08	1.23 ± 0.14	0.99 ± 0.08*	1.24 ± 0.09*	1.27 ± 0.13	0.82 ± 0.06*
	AD	1.06 ± 0.08*	1.05 ± 0.14	0.98 ± 0.11*	1.01 ± 0.09*	1.25 ± 0.15	1.00 ± 0.12	1.20 ± 0.13*	1.31 ± 0.11	0.81 ± 0.07*

Mean SUVR value for each brain region was obtained from AN, MCI and AD. * $p < 0.05$, versus AN, † $p < 0.05$ versus MCI

possible in order to begin medication to prevent or treat cognitive decline before the manifestations of dementia become clear.

In most PIB positive MCI and AD cases presented by several different laboratories, the frontal cortex showed high PIB retention, although the frontal cortex is not a region where amyloid plaques are predominantly rich in the early stage of AD or MCI according to the autopsy studies [1, 10]. Our newly developed tracer, BF-227, showed relatively high retention in temporal and parietal lobes for MCI and AD compared to the results with PIB. Since it is well known that the functional activity of the parietal lobe decreases in the early stage of AD [16], it is reasonable that the distribution of high BF-227-PET

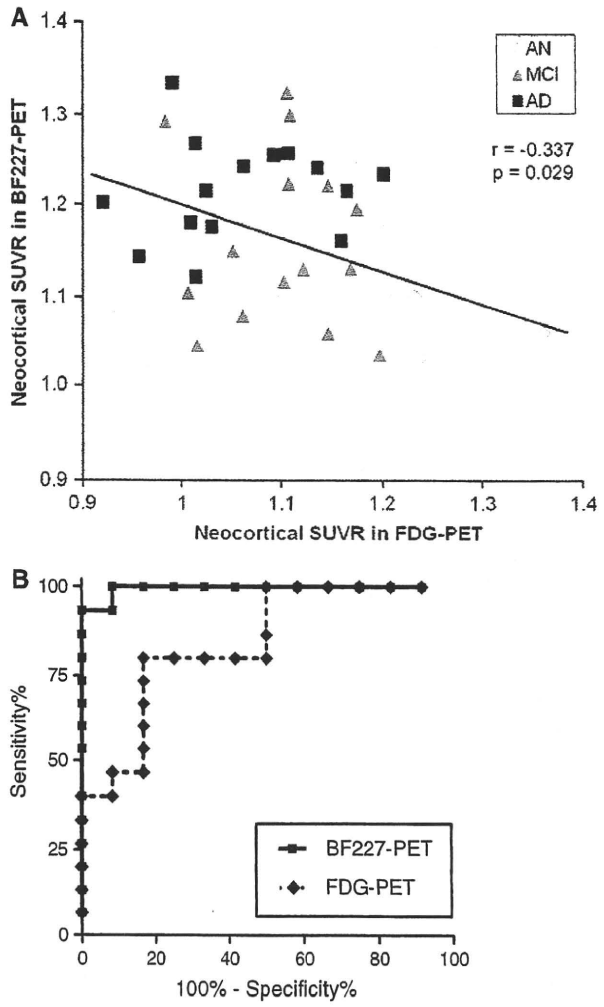

Fig. 4 **a** Relationship between neocortical SUVRs in FDG–PET and BF-227-PET. Neocortical SUVR of FDG–PET for each subject was plotted against neocortical SUVR of BF-227-PET. White, gray and black dots indicate AN, MCI and AD, respectively. **b** Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves of BF-227 and FDG–PET. BF-227-PET SUVR in the lateral temporal cortex and FDG–PET SUVR in the posterior cingulate cortex for differentiation between AD and AN

retention is closely related to the area indicating functional deterioration in the early stage of AD or MCI.

Low rCMRglu in AD especially in the posterior cingulate, precuneus, temporoparietal and frontal cortices was reported. FDG–PET has also been used in investigations for MCI, and low rCMRglu in the temporo-parietal and medial frontal cortices and hippocampus was reported as the most prominent predictor of subsequent cognitive decline [2–5]. Our results indicate, however, that amyloid retention detected by BF-227 is more sensitive and specific than FDG–PET for AD diagnosis. Therefore it is reasonable that amyloid PET is more sensitive than FDG–PET for detecting MCI, which is regarded as a prodromal state of dementia or early AD. According to previous autopsy studies with MCI, amyloid plaques were found predominantly in the temporal lobe structure and most amnestic MCI cases showed Braak stage II or III [11, 22]. Furthermore both neurofibrillary tangles and senile plaques were found in nondemented aging and "preclinical" AD, and profound neuronal loss was observed in layer II of the entorhinal cortex [7, 23]. Our results with BF-227 PET for MCI presented here agree with postmortem studies because BF-227 also showed high retention predominantly in the temporal lobe and the retention was intermittent between NC and AD. There are some discrepancies, however, between the results with our BF-227-PET and with autopsy, that is, some cerebral white matter, thalamus and pons showed high retention of BF-227 in MCI, although these regions are usually not rich in senile plaques in the autopsy studies. Although it is considered that the deposition of BF-227 in these regions comes from its non-specific retention by high lipophilicity, it is supposed that more precise studies are needed using more subjects for both PET and autopsy.

We now have to carefully consider the heterogeneity of BF-227 retention in MCI, which was also observed in FDDNP or PIB studies, that is, some subjects show rich retention but others do not. Although it was reported that MCI subjects showing high retention of PIB had a high tendency to convert to AD as we mentioned above [6], the number of subjects they examined was relatively small. Therefore, further careful studies are needed to clarify if the accumulation of amyloid PET probes correlates with the severity of cognitive impairment and a conversion rate to dementia.

Our results using BF-227 for MCI are "continuous" rather than "off/on", "negative/positive" or "dichotomous" signals compared to those with PIB. We speculate that because BF-227 can depict a small difference of amyloid deposition more finely than PIB, the results with BF-227 in MCI are more continuous than those with PIB. Therefore, BF-227 could reveal a degree of senile plaque deposition more precisely and accurately than PIB as far as in cases with MCI.

We would like to conclude that our newly developed amyloid PET tracer, BF-227, can detect amyloid aggregation and deposition in MCI cases and the PET signal intensity for MCI was intermittent between NC and AD. Results obtained with BF-227 PET are significantly more sensitive and specific than FDG–PET in diagnosing AD. As far as the retention pattern in the frontal and parietal cortices, BF-227 more accurately reflects senile plaque deposition observed in the autopsy studies than PIB does. Therefore, BF-227 PET should be an invaluable tool for diagnosis of AD in the early stage. Finally, we recently developed a novel probe, which has similar structure to BF-

227, labeled with F-18, and applied it to living humans. We have finished more than 20 cases so far and obtained similar results to BF-227.

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Voxel-Based Analysis of Amyloid Positron Emission Tomography Probe [^{11}C]BF-227 Uptake in Mild Cognitive Impairment and Alzheimer's Disease

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Key Words
Alzheimer's disease · Mild cognitive impairment · Positron emission tomography · Amyloid

Abstract
Aim: To determine early brain changes in the distribution of an amyloid positron emission tomography (PET) probe, ^{11}C-labeled BF-227 or [^{11}C]BF-227, in order to accurately predict the progression of mild cognitive impairment (MCI) to Alzheimer's disease (AD). ***Patients and Methods:*** Amyloid plaque burden was evaluated using [^{11}C]BF-227 PET in AD, MCI and aged normal controls. A voxel-based analysis of [^{11}C] BF-227 PET images was performed to characterize the culprit brain lesion in patients with MCI who were destined to progress to AD, referred to as MCI converters (MCI-C). In addition, binding characteristics of BF-227 to amyloid deposits were examined using postmortem AD brain samples. ***Results:*** Voxel-based statistical analyses of the BF-227 PET images clearly demonstrated an abnormal distribution of BF-227 mainly in the posterior association area in MCI-C and patients with AD. BF-227 uptake in the lateral temporal cortex was consistently observed in almost all MCI-C and patients with AD, and it distinguished MCI-C from MCI nonconverters. BF-227 binding strongly correlated with dense amyloid-β protein plaque density, but not with diffuse plaque density in the frontal cortex. ***Conclusion:*** BF-227 uptake in the lateral temporal cortex is a reliable indicator that can be used for predicting prognosis in patients with MCI.

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is considered as the most common cause of dementia in the elderly. Since the extensive deposition of extracellular senile plaques is one of the pathological hallmarks of AD, many researchers have examined these lesions to try and understand the pathogenesis of AD. In 1984, amyloid-β protein (Aβ) was iso-

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lated from cerebrovascular amyloidosis [1], and in the following year, it was isolated from amyloid plaques and neurofibrillary tangles [2, 3]. Senile plaques, which are mostly composed of Aβ, are believed to accumulate years before the onset of cognitive decline in AD [4]. Ten years ago, the concept of amnestic mild cognitive impairment (MCI) was introduced by the Mayo Clinic group. Amnestic MCI is now considered to be an intermediate predementia stage in patients with AD. Approximately 10–15% of patients with MCI develop AD [5, 6].

Positron emission tomography (PET) imaging using an amyloid-binding agent is a valid method for in vivo evaluation of Aβ plaque burden [7]. Several small molecular amyloid-binding agents have been designed for monitoring amyloid deposits in patients with MCI and AD and for evaluating the efficacy of antiamyloid therapy [8–12]. Furthermore, we have developed several benzoxazole derivatives as potential candidates for amyloid PET probes [13, 14]. A PET study using ^{11}C-labeled BF-227, or [^{11}C]BF-227, successfully detected amyloid plaques in living patients with AD [10]. Recent clinical studies have demonstrated neocortical [^{11}C]BF-227 uptake in patients with MCI [11, 15]. This finding suggests that neocortical [^{11}C]BF-227 uptake could be a potential biomarker for predicting progression from MCI to AD. In previous studies, analysis of PET images was mainly based on analysis of regions of interest (ROI). To eliminate any prior hypothesis about ROI selection, we performed voxel-based analyses of whole brain regions and made comparisons between MCI, AD and aged normal control groups. After [^{11}C]BF-227 PET scanning, we prospectively followed patients with MCI and investigated the relationship between initial BF-227 uptake and prognosis from MCI. The purpose of this study was to explore early changes in the process of amyloid plaque deposition in AD and understand the pattern of neocortical BF-227 distribution for accurate prediction of prognosis in the MCI stage.

Patients and Methods

Subjects and Patients

[^{11}C]BF-227 PET scans were performed on 12 aged normal controls, 19 probable patients with AD and 14 patients with MCI. The patients with AD were recruited via the Tohoku University Hospital Dementia Patients Registry, and the diagnosis was made according to the National Institute of Neurological and Communicative Diseases and Stroke/Alzheimer's Disease and Related Disorders Association criteria [16]. The patients with AD were divided into 2 groups according to their clinical severity: AD1 (Mini-Mental State Examination, MMSE, score ≥20) and AD2 (MMSE score <20). The diagnosis of amnestic MCI was made according to previously published criteria [5], which are as follows: (1) memory complaint, (2) normal activities of daily living, (3) normal general cognitive function, (4) abnormal memory for age, and (5) no sign of dementia. All patients with MCI underwent medical and neuropsychological reevaluation at approximately 3-month intervals and were divided into 2 groups: MCI converters (MCI-C; n = 7) and MCI nonconverters (MCI-NC; n = 7). MCI-C were defined as patients who eventually developed AD within a mean follow-up of 40.0 ± 6.9 months (range: 28–49 months), and MCI-NC were defined as patients having a transient memory loss or remaining cognitively stable for at least 3 years of follow-up (42.4 ± 2.2 months; range: 40–45 months). Aged volunteers who were taking no centrally active medication and who had no cognitive impairment or cerebrovascular lesion on MRI images were recruited as aged normal controls. All aged normal controls were screened via their medical history and responses to the MMSE. Subjects with medical conditions such as multiple cerebral infarctions, normal-pressure hydrocephalus, subdural hematoma, brain tumor, epilepsy, major depression, Parkinson's disease and other neurodegenerative diseases were excluded. In addition, asymptomatic cerebral infarction was not detected on T_2-weighted MRI images in the aged normal controls. The demographic data for all patients and aged normal controls are shown in table 1. The protocol of this study was approved by the Committee on Clinical Investigation at the Tohoku University School of Medicine, and by the Advisory Committee on Radioactive Substances at Tohoku University. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients and controls after complete description of the study. The clinical study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Radiosynthesis

BF-227 and its N-desmethylated derivative, a precursor to [^{11}C]BF-227, were synthesized by Tanabe R&D Service Co. (Osaka, Japan). [^{11}C]BF-227 was synthesized from the precursor by N-methylation in dimethyl sulfoxide, using [^{11}C]methyl triflate [10]. After quenching the reaction with 5% acetic acid in ethanol, [^{11}C]BF-227 was separated from the crude mixture by semipreparative, reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography and isolated from the collected fraction by solid-phase extraction. Purified [^{11}C]BF-227 was solubilized in isotonic saline containing 1% polysorbate 80 and 5% ascorbic acid. The saline solution was filter sterilized with a 0.22-μm Millipore filter (Millipore Co., Bedford, Mass., USA) for clinical use. At the end of synthesis, the radiochemical yields were greater than 50%, based on [^{11}C]methyl triflate, and the specific radioactivity ranged from 119 to 138 GBq/μmol. Radiochemical purities were greater than 95%.

Scanning Protocol

The [^{11}C]BF-227 PET study was performed using a SET-2400W PET scanner (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). After intravenous injections of 211–366 MBq [^{11}C]BF-227, dynamic PET images were obtained for 60 min (23 sequential scans; 5 scans × 30 s, 5 scans × 60 s, 5 scans × 150 s, and 8 scans × 300 s) with closed eyes. All aged normal controls and patients underwent MRI using a 1.5-tesla MRI scanner (GE Signa Hispeed; GE Healthcare, Milwaukee, Wisc., USA). A 3-D volumetric acquisition of a T_1-weighted gradient echo sequence produced a gapless series of thin axial sections, using a vascular time-of-flight spoiled gradient echo sequence

Table 1. Demographic information on all the subjects

	Aged normal	MCI-NC	MCI-C	AD1	AD2	All AD
Number	12	7	7	10	9	19
Age, years	67.3 ± 2.7 (64–71)	77.6 ± 3.1* (74–82)	79.4 ± 4.2* (75–85)	72.9 ± 5.4 (65–85)	72.6 ± 7.3 (61–82)	72.7 ± 6.2 (61–85)
Gender (F/M), n	6/6	5/2	3/4	2/8	4/5	6/13
MMSE score	29.9 ± 0.3 (29–30)	26.3 ± 1.1 (25–28)	24.6 ± 3.4 (23–29)	22.7 ± 1.4* (21–25)	17.2 ± 2.9*,# (12–20)	20.1 ± 3.6 (12–25)
Years of education	13.2 ± 0.94	12.3 ± 0.48	11.9 ± 0.55	10.9 ± 0.72	10.3 ± 0.65	10.5 ± 0.42
GDS score	4.01 ± 0.44	4.32 ± 0.34	4.79 ± 0.31	4.23 ± 0.35	4.18 ± 0.46	4.20 ± 0.28

Values denote means ± SD with ranges in parentheses unless stated otherwise. Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparison test. GDS = Geriatric Depression Scale. * $p < 0.05$ versus aged normal, # $p < 0.05$ versus MCI-NC.

(echo time/repetition time: 2.4/50 ms; flip angle: 45°; acquisition matrix: 256 × 256; 1 excitation; field of view: 22 cm; slice thickness: 2.0 mm).

Image Analysis

Standardized uptake value (SUV) images of [^{11}C]BF-227 were obtained by normalizing tissue concentration to injected dose and body weight. Average summations of SUV images were created from frames (20–40 min after injection) of dynamic PET images. Individual MR images were anatomically correlated with BF-227 PET images, using a statistical parametric mapping software (SPM5; Wellcome Department of Imaging Neuroscience, London, UK) [17]. ROI in the frontal cortex (Brodmann's areas, BA, 8, 9, 10, 44, 45, 46 and 47), lateral temporal cortex (BA 21, 22, 37 and 38), parietal cortex (BA 39 and 40), occipital cortex (BA 17), posterior cingulate cortex (BA 31) and cerebellar hemisphere were superimposed on MRI images, as described previously [10]. ROI information was then copied onto PET images, and regional SUV values at 20–40 min after injection were sampled using Dr. View/LINUX software (AJS, Tokyo, Japan). The cerebellum was used as the reference region. The regional-to-cerebellum SUV ratio (SUVR) was calculated and used as an index of BF-227 retention because the cerebellum is reported to be a region free of fibrillar amyloid plaques in the AD brain. Voxel-by-voxel comparisons between images from aged normal controls, patients with MCI and patients with AD were performed using SPM5 software. Spatial normalization was performed using an MR T_1 template of SPM5 to transfer PET images onto a standard stereotactic space. The normalized PET images were smoothed, using a 12 × 12 × 12 mm gaussian filter. The voxel count was normalized to the cerebellar ROI value. Images of the MCI-NC, MCI-C and AD groups, including patients with AD1 and AD2, were compared with those of the aged normal controls by means of a between-group analysis ($p < 0.05$ with false discovery rate correction; extent threshold: $k = 750$). For group analysis, a two-sample t test was used to detect differences among the groups.

In addition, a Z-score map of individual PET images was created for comparison between the mean and SD of the PET images of aged normal controls for each voxel. A software program named the Easy Z-Score Imaging System was used for this analysis [18]. Each PET SUV image was compared with the mean and SD of PET images of 15 aged normal controls (age: 58.9 ± 13.5 years; gender M/F: 10/5; MMSE score: 29.9 ± 0.2), using voxel-by-voxel Z-score analysis following voxel normalization to cerebellar ROI values according to the following formula: Z-score = (control mean – individual value)/control SD. Z-score maps were displayed by projection, with an averaged Z-score of 14 mm thickness to the surface rendering the anatomically standardized MRI template.

Neuropathological Staining

Postmortem brain tissue from an autopsy-confirmed AD case (87-year-old male) was obtained from the Tohoku University Hospital. Serial sections (6 μm thick) of paraffin-embedded blocks of temporal and frontal cortices were prepared in xylene and ethanol. Before staining, quenching of autofluorescence was performed by blanched sections in 0.25% potassium permanganate solution for 30 min. The sections were then treated with 0.1% potassium metabisulfite and 0.1% oxalic acid, followed by dipping briefly in water. The quenched tissue sections were immersed in 100 μmol/l of compound solution for 10 min and examined using a BX-51 fluorescence microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a violet filter set (excitation: 380–420 nm; dichroic mirror: 430 nm; long-pass filter: 450 nm). Immunostaining was performed using monoclonal antibodies against Aβ (6F/3D; Dako, Glostrup, Denmark) at a dilution of 1:50. After pretreatment with formic acid for 5 min, the sections were placed in blocking solution for 30 min. After incubation with primary antibodies at 37°C for 60 min, the sections were processed by the avidin-biotin method using the Pathostain ABC-POD(M) kit (Wako) and chromogen DAB. The amyloid plaque morphology was classified into 2 types: (1) dense Aβ plaques including cored deposits with or without a ring of neuritic fibers, and (2) diffuse Aβ plaques including amorphous deposits. We randomly selected 20 areas (1.05 mm^2 per area) per section in the gray matter of the frontal and temporal cortices and counted the number of dense and diffuse Aβ plaques in each area. To estimate the capability of the compound to detect each kind of plaque, we examined the relationship between the number per unit area of positive staining using BF-227- and Aβ-specific antibody.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical comparisons of age among the 5 groups were performed using the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparison test. Statistical comparison of ROI results was performed via an analysis of variance followed by the Bonferroni method for multiple comparisons. Furthermore, effect size coefficients (Cohen's d) were calculated to evaluate group differences in PET measurements. The performance of diagnostic indices to