·Review·

Advances in longitudinal studies of amnestic mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease based on multi-modal MRI techniques

Zhongjie Hu^{1,2}, Liyong Wu¹, Jianping Jia^{1,3}, Ying Han^{1,3}

¹Department of Neurology, Xuan Wu Hospital, Capital Medical University, Beijing 100053, China ²Postgraduates Institute, Capital Medical University, Beijing 100053, China ³Alzheimer's Disease Center, Beijing Institute for Brain Disorders, Beijing 100053, China Corresponding author: Ying Han. E-mail: sophiehanying@gmail.com

© Shanghai Institutes for Biological Sciences, CAS and Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2014

Amnestic mild cognitive impairment (aMCI) is a prodromal stage of Alzheimer's disease (AD), and 75%–80% of aMCI patients finally develop AD. So, early identification of patients with aMCI or AD is of great significance for prevention and intervention. According to cross-sectional studies, it is known that the hippocampus, posterior cingulate cortex, and corpus callosum are key areas in studies based on structural MRI (sMRI), functional MRI (fMRI), and diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) respectively. Recently, longitudinal studies using each MRI modality have demonstrated that the neuroimaging abnormalities generally involve the posterior brain regions at the very beginning and then gradually affect the anterior areas during the progression of aMCI to AD. However, it is not known whether follow-up studies based on multi-modal neuroimaging techniques (e.g., sMRI, fMRI, and DTI) can help build effective MRI models that can be directly applied to the screening and diagnosis of aMCI and AD. Thus, in the future, large-scale multi-center follow-up studies are urgently needed, not only to build an MRI diagnostic model that can be used on a single person, but also to evaluate the variability and stability of the model in the general population. In this review, we present longitudinal studies using each MRI modality separately, and then discuss the future directions in this field.

Keywords: magnetic resonance imaging; amnestic mild cognitive impairment; Alzheimer's disease; multimodality; longitudinal studies

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a common neurodegenerative disorder in the elderly population; it has a high morbidity, and AD patients usually complain of memory impairment and serious decline of the abilities of daily living. There is still no effective therapy for AD in the late stages, and certain drugs are only effective in the early stages. Thus, in the very early stages of AD, it is important to determine the risk factors for conversion and determine which group of patients with aMCI will develop AD. MRI techniques have certain advantages, such as ready availability and high reliability, relatively fine spatial and temporal resolution, safety as noninvasive imaging tools that make multiple repeated scans available, and the possibility of early detection of abnormal structures and functions over the course of a longitudinal study. These characteristics make them valuable tools in research on AD-related imaging biomarkers. Here, we review follow-up studies of aMCI and AD using multi-modal MRI techniques, with the aim of providing a scientific basis for further investigations on neuroimaging diagnostic models. In the following sections, patients with aMCI or MCI who progressed to AD within a research program are referred to as aMCI-P or MCI-P, and those who did not convert to AD and remained stable during the entire observed clinical course are referred to as aMCI-S or MCI-S.

Longitudinal Studies of Structural Magnetic Resonance Imaging (sMRI)

sMRI was the first MRI technique applied in AD diagnostic research. Nowadays, gray-matter atrophy, white-matter lesions, and whole-brain atrophy are thought to be related to an early diagnosis of AD.

Studies on Gray-Matter Atrophy

The decline in temporal lobe volume of AD patients has been shown to predict incipient dementia six years prior to the emergence of clinical dementia^[1]. The aMCI-P group showed gray-matter loss mainly in the bilateral medial and inferior temporal lobes, the temporoparietal neocortex, and the frontal lobes, compared to normal controls (NCs). When compared with the aMCI-S group, the aMCI-P group showed greater loss in the medial and inferior temporal lobes, the temporoparietal neocortex, posterior cingulate cortex (PCC), precuneus, anterior cingulate, and frontal lobes. These results demonstrated that the MRI patterns of atrophy at baseline have the ability to predict the subsequent clinical course in aMCI patients^[2]. Further, gray-matter atrophy was most evident in the medial temporal lobes in the early stages of the disease. With the progression of memory decline, the regions of atrophy spread forward to the parietal, frontal, and lateral occipital cortex, followed by the anterior cingulate cortex^[3].

Gray-matter loss in certain brain areas is relevant to the conversion of MCI to dementia, such as medial temporal lobe atrophy. In the process of conversion, using a standardized rating scale, visual assessment of medial temporal lobe atrophy on sMRI is an effective and independent biomarker in relatively young MCI patients^[4]. This was further confirmed in a follow-up study by Prasad et al.^[5]. At baseline, the clinical dementia rating scores correlated with the thickness of the temporal and parietal lobes. Compared to the MCI-S group, the MCI-P group showed significant thinning of the temporal and parietal cortex in prodromal AD; this predicted the progression to mild AD with a sensitivity of 83%^[6]. Plant et al. considered the anterior cingulate gyrus and the orbitofrontal cortex as the most valuable regions for the prediction of MCI conversion to AD, and their data showed that the best prediction accuracy is 75%^[7]. Other studies suggested that volume loss in the entorhinal cortex and hippocampus appear before the onset of dementia^[8]. In an sMRI followup study by Killiany *et al.*, the entorhinal cortex, both sides of the superior temporal sulcus, and the anterior cingulate were selected as the predictors of conversion. And the results showed that the discrimination between the NC group and the MCI patients who did not progress to probable AD (the "questionables") was 85%, and between the "questionables" and "converters" was 75%^[9].

Atrophy rates present the progression of AD from the perspective of development, while the degree of volume loss in a region is a result of dynamic changes in brain structures from NC to aMCI to AD. In the study of McDonald et al., AD patients had greater atrophy rates in the medial, mediolateral, and superior temporal cortex, superior parietal lobe, and PCC^[3], compared to both MCI and NC groups. Meanwhile, another follow-up study implied that the volume loss of the hippocampus is the most powerful predictor of conversion to AD in MCI patients. The hippocampal loss rate is the best biomarker to discriminate MCI from NC rather than volume atrophy of the hippocampus, and the rate of whole-brain atrophy discriminates AD from MCI^[10]. In addition, the rate of hippocampal atrophy was greater in the MCI-P than in the MCI-S group, and was correlated with the Mini-Mental State Examination and Clinical Dementia Rating scores^[11]. These findings suggest that hippocampal loss rates map well with cognitive decline in MCI, and therefore are predictors of progression^[11].

Nowadays, researchers are trying to find more precise indicators for predictions and descriptions of the disease process by applying emerging evaluation indexes. Results from a 10-year longitudinal study proposed that, instead of the average rate of hippocampal atrophy, there is a higher risk of developing incident dementia per standard deviation with a faster rate of hippocampal volume reduction (left hippocampus equals to right), and this new marker can forecast dementia onset^[12]. Most recently, Leung et al.^[13] assessed the acceleration rates in NC, MCI, and AD participants, using sMRI data at 0, 6, 12, 18, 24, and 36 months. The results showed that MCI patients had an average acceleration of 0.22%/year² in hippocampal atrophy rates, and post hoc analysis suggested that MCI patients who converted to a clinical diagnosis of AD (MCI-P) within 3 years of baseline were the primary cause of the accelerated hippocampal loss (acceleration 0.50%/year², double the average)^[13].

Abnormal sMRI changes also occur in other brain

regions. For example, the precuneus and parahippocampal gyrus, AD-vulnerable regions, in cognitively normal individuals with a maternal AD history had increased graymatter volume loss, which may be relevant to an enhanced risk for developing AD^[14]. In a large cohort study involving 511 participants, den Heijer *et al.* found that atrophy of the hippocampus and amygdala on sMRI in NCs was strongly associated with dementia within a 6-year follow-up, even in people without subjective memory complaints at the beginning of the study^[15].

Because of the dynamics of gray-matter atrophy on sMRI, and its inconsistency with the clinical course, investigators have combined other measures with sMRI to comprehensively explain the research findings. By using neuropsychological rating scales to asses the changes in cognitive function of participants, Mungas et al. showed that the main determinant of memory decline is the volume of the hippocampus, whereas the decline of executive function is influenced by multiple factors such as hippocampal and cortical atrophy^[16]. In addition, older age, greater hippocampal atrophy, and apolipoprotein E epsilon 4, which accelerate the subsequent atrophy rates of the hippocampus^[17], together with brain glucose metabolism and hippocampal volume assessed by positron emission tomography (PET)^[18], are all closely associated with MCI patients at high risk for AD and promise to be surrogate biological markers.

Studies on White-Matter Lesions

White-matter lesions on sMRI are very common in the elderly^[19]. Lesions in nearly 30% of subjects worsened during a 5-year follow-up, and these changes were associated with worse cognitive performance^[19]. A recently-published report confirmed that the incidence of white matter hyperintensity (WMH) is independent of cognitive decline, while an insidious and continuously-evolving WMH is significantly associated with episodic memory and executive malfunction, and has clinically-relevant cognitive consequences^[20]. However, in a very early study, Garde *et al.* indicated that WMH is not the major factor of cognitive dysfunction in healthy octogenarians^[21]. The selection of participants for sMRI research on white matter must be done cautiously, especially with regard to the age factor.

Previous studies have shown that punctuate lesions in the white matter are generally nonischemic enlarged perivascular spaces. But early confluent whitematter injuries become real ischemic infarctions with the progression of microvascular disease^[22]. Further longitudinal research demonstrated that punctuate white matter lesions are not ischemic infarctions, are thus benign and do not progress, but early confluent white matter injuries are real ischemic infarctions, do progress, and are thus malignant^[23]. Many investigators believe that MRI abnormalities due to small-vessel disease in the brain, such as lacunar infarction and WMH, are related to cognitive impairment^[19, 24, 25]. Besides, they are associated with a higher risk of developing AD^[24], and play an important role in predicting the likelihood of MCI conversion to AD^[5].

However, there are also different views. A study in 2008 showed that WMH is only associated with the risk of individuals in the NC group who progress to MCI, but is irrelevant to the conversion of MCI to various types of dementia. Instead, the parenchymal infarctions in MCI patients were considered to be a predictor of conversion to AD^[26]. DeCarli et al. demonstrated that the neuropsychological measures of memory and executive function at baseline are associated with the risk of developing dementia, while the apolipoprotein E genotype, cerebrovascular risk factors, stroke, lacunar infarctions, and extensive WMH do not predict the conversion of MCI patients^[27]. This study suggested that the neuropsychological scales fully reflect the cognitive decline in MCI patients and forecast their conversion. However, DeCarli's study did not assess the influence of gray-matter atrophy, a key factor in predicting conversion, and therefore their results need further confirmation.

Studies on Whole-Brain Atrophy

A 6-year follow-up study showed that, compared with those in a cognitively-normal state, the baseline brain volume was 17% smaller in persons diagnosed with dementia within 2 to 3 years after MRI scanning and still 5% smaller in those who received a clinical diagnosis of dementia 6 years after scanning^[15]. Ventricular expansion was faster in persons who eventually converted to MCI, and a more rapid expansion appeared 2 years prior to the onset of clinical symptoms^[28]. Brain atrophy rates increase as aMCI progresses to AD. Younger participants usually had a greater atrophy rate than older ones with aMCI-S and aMCI-P^[29]. These variations of preclinical atrophy rates imply that there are specific optimal time-windows for dementia prevention and interventional therapies. The key point of treatment is the early detection and diagnosis of aMCI and AD.

Hippocampal volume loss, as well as whole-brain and ventricular atrophy rates, has been regarded as the major risk of progression in MCI patients. Given similar degrees of hippocampal atrophy, MCI patients with greater annual percentage changes in ventricular and whole-brain volume are at an increased risk of conversion to AD^[30]. This view was further confirmed by Sluimer et al.[31], who demonstrated that AD patients had the highest whole-brain atrophy rates (-1.9% per year), and MCI patients (-1.2% per year) had higher whole-brain atrophy rates than patients with subjective complaints (-0.7% per year) and controls (-0.5% per year). Also, whole-brain atrophy rates were strongly associated with the annual change of Mini-Mental State Examination scores. In participants free of dementia, a greater whole-brain atrophy rate was associated with an enhanced risk of developing dementia^[31]. In summary, whole-brain atrophy rates are deemed to be more powerful than brain volume loss at baseline in predicting cognitive impairment and conversion to $\mathsf{AD}^{\scriptscriptstyle[25,\ 32,\ 33]}.$

The sMRI technique can be used in other aspects of whole-brain atrophy research. Antemortem sMRI deficits have a strong association with postmortem neurofibrillary tangles. For example, the rate of enlargement of ventricular volume can be used to monitor disease progression or indirectly assess the response to clinical treatments targeting neurofibrillary tangles and senile plaques^[34]. The structural abnormality index (STAND) score developed from an algorithm by Vemuri *et al.*, accurately reflects the severity of neuropathology and may be potentially used as an independent marker for *in vivo* pathological staging and the early diagnosis of AD as well^[35].

Longitudinal Studies with Functional MRI

The recently-developed fMRI technique is mainly used for studies of brain functions. It can be divided into two types, resting-state fMRI and task-based fMRI, depending on the state of participants during the scanns. fMRI further contributes to the presentation of dynamic changes in functional brain activity in follow-up studies. However, there are relatively fewer longitudinal studies of fMRI than sMRI.

Studies with Resting-state Functional MRI

In a recent study^[36], AD patients showed decreased

functional connectivity (FC) within the default mode network (DMN) in the precuneus and PCC compared with NCs, independent of gray-matter atrophy. The values of regional FC in individuals with MCI fell between those of the AD and NC groups. In addition, the reduced FC within the DMN was clinically relevant to cognitive dysfunction^[36]. In another longitudinal study, aMCI patients generally presented a higher FC in the PCC/precuneus at baseline, but with progression of the disease, these connections decreased evidently at follow-up compared to NCs. Furthermore, abnormal FC in the PCC/precuneus of aMCI patients was positively associated with the dysfunction of episodic memory at both baseline and follow-up^[37]. In addition, Wang et al. recently reported similar findings^[38]. In their study, a lower FC between the PCC and other regions in the DMN was observed in MCI patients. After a 3-year followup, the superior and middle frontal gyri displayed further reductions in connectivity to the PCC in MCI patients, albeit with an enhanced FC to the PCC in medial prefrontal and anterior cingulate cortex. In addition, the PCC connectivity with some areas was markedly correlated with the Mini-Mental State Examination and California Verbal Learning Test scores. Based on the above findings, it was suggested that mechanisms of impairment and compensation exist simultaneously in the progression of MCI patients^[38]. Some researchers believe that dysfunction in the DMN may help to diagnose and monitor progression in aMCI patients. Hippocampal subregions and the PCC are recognized as key factors in the decline of episodic memory in aMCI, and longitudinal changes of FC in these regions make it possible to distinguish aMCI-P from aMCI-S patients with a sensitivity of 83.3% and specificity of 83.3% (for NCs the sensitivity was 83.3% and the specificity was 91.7%). This implies that abnormal FC in hippocampal subregional networks make a difference in the early detection of AD and prediction of aMCI patients^[39]. Damoiseaux et al.[40] revealed the dynamic changes of FC in the DMN by separately investigating the FC in three default mode subnetworks in different brain regions. Compared with NCs, AD patients at baseline showed decreased connectivity in the posterior DMN and increased connectivity in the anterior and ventral DMNs. At follow-up, FC decreased in all the three subnetworks in AD patients^[40].

While the above studies were all focused on FC in the DMN, Bai *et al.* studied the functional changes in the

cerebellum of individuals with aMCI. They demonstrated higher values for the amplitude of low-frequency fluctuation in the posterior cerebellar lobe in aMCI patients compared with NCs, while in the follow-up study, there was a greater reduction of FC to the posterior cerebellar lobe in aMCI patients. These results suggest that, compared with regional activity measures in aMCI patients, the FC of the cerebellum may be a more sensitive marker of functional disturbance. While the cerebellum is partly relevant to the mechanisms of aMCI, further studies are needed to reach a more precise and comprehensive conclusion^[41].

Studies of Task-based Functional MRI

In the progression of MCI to AD, changes of brain function have been observed. Longitudinal research with the fMRI technique may provide a reliable physiological imaging biomarker of brain activation over time, and is useful for identifying the MCI individuals at highest risk of conversion. Vannini et al.^[42] detected altered brain functions before the onset of clinical symptoms in the MCI-P group. Compared with relatively stable MCI patients and NCs, the patients in the MCI-P group displayed increased parietal activation, which could reflect neuronal deficits due to accumulating AD pathology and may serve as a biomarker for predicting cognitive decline in patients with MCI^[42]. Other studies found that the hippocampus is the only region associated with cognitive dysfunction, and is the key point in identifying MCI patients with a higher risk for AD^[43]. O'Brien et al.^[44] found that the participants who were normal at baseline but whose Clinical Dementia Rating declined faster over the 2-year follow-up showed the highest memory-taskcorrelated hippocampal activation at baseline and the greatest reduction of hippocampal activation at 2-year follow-up^[43, 44].

Studies on deactivation in the DMN demonstrated that the anterior frontal lobes, precuneus, and PCC are the main regions involved. AD patients usually had the lowest deactivation, followed by MCI patients with less deactivation than NCs. Some longitudinal studies proposed deactivation in the posteromedial cortex as an indicator for detecting MCI patients at greatest risk of AD^[45, 46]. By using goodness-of-fit (GOF) indices of DMN expression (obtained by comparing DMN connectivity maps with a template DMN map constructed from NCs), Petrella *et al.*^[47] found that the baseline GOF indices were associated with changes of the Clinical Dementia Rating scores in the entire course of follow-up. GOF indices were shown to be effective in distinguishing MCI patients who converted to AD during a 2-to 3-year follow-up period; the indices were highest in NC, then MCI, and lowest in $AD^{[47]}$.

These findings from fMRI studies are consistent with the view that MCI is a transitional stage between NC and clinical AD. And the altered functional changes in the DMN may be important and potential early biomarkers in the diagnosis and prediction of MCI.

Longitudinal Studies with Diffusion Tensor Imaging

Fractional anisotropy (FA) and mean diffusivity (MD) are the primary indices of DTI to determine the integrity and lesions of white-matter tracts. White-matter injuries generally appear as decreased FA values and increased MD values. The histological information gained by DTI *in vivo* may help monitor disease progression and explore the pathogenesis of cognitive dysfunction^[48].

Scola et al. proposed a notion that there are subtle brain diffusivity changes in prodromal AD, predominantly in the posterior parts of the brain, and these gradually spread towards the anterior portions over the course of the disease, finally involving the frontal lobe. The severity of microstructure injuries within and beyond the medial temporal lobe in aMCI subjects is correlated with a rapid conversion to AD^[49]. A recent study by Teipel et al.^[50] suggested that microstructural changes in subcortical fiber tracts are not only related to aging but also to neurodegeneration in the early stages of AD. In that study, it was found that FA reductions occurred in the corpus callosum, superior longitudinal fasciculus, uncinate fasciculus, inferior fronto-occipital fasciculus, and cingulate bundle in NCs in 13-16 months of followup, while MCI patients showed significantly decreased FA in the anterior corpus callosum. These changes matched the pattern of gray and white matter atrophy involving the prefrontal, cingulate, and parietal lobes^[50]. Further followup studies showed that FA and radial diffusivity changes in the fornix, corpus callosum, and cingulum led to early identification of MCI patients who progressed to AD in a relatively short time^[51]. Nowrangi et al. analyzed DTI data (i.e. FA and MD) and clinical assessments at baseline and at 3, 6, and 12 months in three groups (NC, MCI, and AD).

Compared with MCI or NC, AD patients showed increased MD values and decreased FA values in the fornix and splenium. Longitudinal results suggested that MD changes within groups were more evident than FA changes: in both the MCI and AD groups, MD values increased in the inferior and anterior cingulum and the fornix. Therefore, they concluded that MD is a better predictor of change than FA, and more importantly, evident increases of fornix MD in MCI patients imply an early progression of AD^[52]. A previous follow-up study using sMRI and DTI measured hippocampal MD and volumes in aMCI subjects. The aMCI-P group had a slightly increased left hippocampal MD at baseline compared with the aMCI-S group, while their hippocampal volumes and cognitive examinations did not differ. This result suggested that longitudinal hippocampal diffusivity is superior to hippocampal volume for the prediction of progression to AD in aMCI patients during a 1–2-year period^[53]. A relatively short-term (3 months) longitudinal study confirmed Fellgiebel's conclusion. In this study, researchers observed changes in the DTI indices when there were no differences in clinical cognitive function and sMRI. Compared to NCs, AD patients had a decreased FA at baseline and after 3 months in the fornix and anterior portion of the cingulum. AD patients had a lower FA than MCI patients in these regions and the splenium at 0 and 3 months. And a lower FA in the fornix and anterior cingulum corresponded to poorer cognitive performance. The fornix, a primary outflow tract of the hippocampus, could be a key indicator of aMCI progression^[54]. Through a 2-year follow-up, Charlton et al. also regarded DTI as a better technique than sMRI: it is more sensitive to age-related white-matter changes even over short time periods^[55]. But in another longitudinal investigation lasting for 2.5 years^[56], researchers found that sMRI and DTI are both powerful in predicting the progression and transition from aMCI to AD. Fornix FA and MD and hippocampal volumes were all very good predictors of conversion with accuracy >90%^[56]. These findings need further confirmation in a larger study^[56].

Perspectives

The Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ANDI), carried out in 2004, was aimed at searching for more suitable biomarkers in predicting the clinical development of AD by combining various techniques, such as MRI, PET, and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) examinations. Research from the ADNI database demonstrated that MRI is superior to CSF biomarkers in tracking the stages of clinical disease and predicting future decline^[57-60]. Other studies from different databases also reached similar conclusions, confirming that MRI is a better indicator of early AD and predictor of MCI progression than metabolic abnormalities^[61], PET^[62], and CSF biomarkers^[63]. MRI has been widely used in both clinical and scientific studies with high security, good stability, and easy patient acceptance. Advances in this field would surely promote the development of multi-modal MRI techniques in different diseases of different systems.

However, many technical problems of MRI still exist, especially in its routine application in clinical aMCI and AD screening, diagnosis, and prediction of outcome. These problems include a lack of standardized MRI acquisition methods, spatial distortions of MRI data, relatively laborintensive MRI data analysis that is prone to interoperator variability, and a lack of normal ranges for MRI measures^[64], which have a poor effect on the early detection of disease and outcome prediction. We have reason to believe that progress in MRI-relevant biomarkers from longitudinal multicenter studies, such as the ADNI, could help to address the above-mentioned critical challenges. Standardized image acquisition and analysis processes could also be set up, and the results from these large-scale follow-up studies could be more comparable and more easily generalized.

So far, there have been no MRI models that can be applied directly to the clinical screening and diagnosis of aMCI and AD. Investigators have found the key roles of some critical brain regions (e.g. the hippocampus and prefrontal lobes) in memory impairment. Future studies should be conducted to integrate various modalities such as sMRI, fMRI, and PET to provide more accurate and comprehensive information for the early diagnosis of AD^[65], and by doing so to elevate the reliability and validity of diagnosis^[66, 67]. We will fully understand the structural and functional changes of brain disorders and disease, assisted by imaging functional networks and other new techniques, to find more appropriate methods for the clinical application of MRI technology. Currently, MRI techniques have provided objective and powerful evidence for identifying aMCI converters in the prodromal stages of AD and assistance

in early intervention and treatment of diagnosed patients. With further studies and development of technology, these neuroimaging biomarkers will eventually be confirmed and applied clinically for the benefit of mankind.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This review was supported by grants from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (30970823, 31371007), the Beijing Municipal Science and Technology Commission (Z131100006813022), and the National Key Department of Neurology funded by Chinese Health and Family Planning Committee.

Received date: 2013-08-28; Accepted date: 2013-12-21

REFERENCES

- [1] Kaye JA, Swihart T, Howieson D, Dame A, Moore MM, Karnos T, et al. Volume loss of the hippocampus and temporal lobe in healthy elderly persons destined to develop dementia. Neurology 1997, 48: 1297–1304.
- [2] Whitwell JL, Shiung MM, Przybelski SA, Weigand SD, Knopman DS, Boeve BF, et al. MRI patterns of atrophy associated with progression to AD in amnestic mild cognitive impairment. Neurology 2008, 70: 512–520.
- [3] McDonald CR, McEvoy LK, Gharapetian L, Fennema-Notestine C, Hagler DJ, Jr., Holland D, et al. Regional rates of neocortical atrophy from normal aging to early Alzheimer disease. Neurology 2009, 73: 457–465.
- [4] Korf ES, Wahlund LO, Visser PJ, Scheltens P. Medial temporal lobe atrophy on MRI predicts dementia in patients with mild cognitive impairment. Neurology 2004, 63: 94–100.
- [5] Prasad K, Wiryasaputra L, Ng A, Kandiah N. White matter disease independently predicts progression from mild cognitive impairment to Alzheimer's disease in a clinic cohort. Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord 2011, 31: 431–434.
- [6] Bakkour A, Morris JC, Dickerson BC. The cortical signature of prodromal AD: regional thinning predicts mild AD dementia. Neurology 2009, 72: 1048–1055.
- [7] Plant C, Teipel SJ, Oswald A, Bohm C, Meindl T, Mourao-Miranda J, et al. Automated detection of brain atrophy patterns based on MRI for the prediction of Alzheimer's disease. Neuroimage 2010, 50: 162–174.
- [8] Desikan RS, Fischl B, Cabral HJ, Kemper TL, Guttmann CR, Blacker D, et al. MRI measures of temporoparietal regions show differential rates of atrophy during prodromal AD. Neurology 2008, 71: 819–825.
- [9] Killiany RJ, Gomez-Isla T, Moss M, Kikinis R, Sandor T, Jolesz F, et al. Use of structural magnetic resonance imaging

to predict who will get Alzheimer's disease. Ann Neurol 2000, 47: 430–439.

- [10] Henneman WJ, Sluimer JD, Barnes J, van der Flier WM, Sluimer IC, Fox NC, et al. Hippocampal atrophy rates in Alzheimer disease: added value over whole brain volume measures. Neurology 2009, 72: 999–1007.
- [11] Morra JH, Tu Z, Apostolova LG, Green AE, Avedissian C, Madsen SK, et al. Automated mapping of hippocampal atrophy in 1-year repeat MRI data from 490 subjects with Alzheimer's disease, mild cognitive impairment, and elderly controls. Neuroimage 2009, 45: S3–15.
- [12] den Heijer T, van der Lijn F, Koudstaal PJ, Hofman A, van der Lugt A, Krestin GP, *et al.* A 10-year follow-up of hippocampal volume on magnetic resonance imaging in early dementia and cognitive decline. Brain 2010, 133: 1163–1172.
- [13] Leung KK, Bartlett JW, Barnes J, Manning EN, Ourselin S, Fox NC. Cerebral atrophy in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer disease: rates and acceleration. Neurology 2013, 80: 648–654.
- [14] Honea RA, Swerdlow RH, Vidoni ED, Burns JM. Progressive regional atrophy in normal adults with a maternal history of Alzheimer disease. Neurology 2011, 76: 822–829.
- [15] den Heijer T, Geerlings MI, Hoebeek FE, Hofman A, Koudstaal PJ, Breteler MM. Use of hippocampal and amygdalar volumes on magnetic resonance imaging to predict dementia in cognitively intact elderly people. Arch Gen Psychiatry 2006, 63: 57–62.
- [16] Mungas D, Harvey D, Reed BR, Jagust WJ, DeCarli C, Beckett L, et al. Longitudinal volumetric MRI change and rate of cognitive decline. Neurology 2005, 65: 565–571.
- [17] van de Pol LA, van der Flier WM, Korf ES, Fox NC, Barkhof F, Scheltens P. Baseline predictors of rates of hippocampal atrophy in mild cognitive impairment. Neurology 2007, 69: 1491–1497.
- [18] Haight TJ, Jagust WJ. Relative contributions of biomarkers in Alzheimer's disease. Ann Epidemiol 2012, 22: 868–875.
- [19] Longstreth WT Jr, Arnold AM, Beauchamp NJ Jr, Manolio TA, Lefkowitz D, Jungreis C, et al. Incidence, manifestations, and predictors of worsening white matter on serial cranial magnetic resonance imaging in the elderly: the Cardiovascular Health Study. Stroke 2005, 36: 56–61.
- [20] Maillard P, Carmichael O, Fletcher E, Reed B, Mungas D, DeCarli C. Coevolution of white matter hyperintensities and cognition in the elderly. Neurology 2012, 79: 442–448.
- [21] Garde E, Mortensen EL, Krabbe K, Rostrup E, Larsson HB. Relation between age-related decline in intelligence and cerebral white-matter hyperintensities in healthy octogenarians: a longitudinal study. Lancet 2000, 356: 628– 634.
- [22] Fazekas F, Kleinert R, Offenbacher H, Schmidt R, Kleinert G,

Payer F, *et al.* Pathologic correlates of incidental MRI white matter signal hyperintensities. Neurology 1993, 43: 1683–1689.

- [23] Schmidt R, Enzinger C, Ropele S, Schmidt H, Fazekas F. Progression of cerebral white matter lesions: 6-year results of the Austrian Stroke Prevention Study. Lancet 2003, 361: 2046–2048.
- [24] Vermeer SE, Prins ND, den Heijer T, Hofman A, Koudstaal PJ, Breteler MM. Silent brain infarcts and the risk of dementia and cognitive decline. N Engl J Med 2003, 348: 1215–1222.
- [25] Brickman AM, Honig LS, Scarmeas N, Tatarina O, Sanders L, Albert MS, et al. Measuring cerebral atrophy and white matter hyperintensity burden to predict the rate of cognitive decline in Alzheimer disease. Arch Neurol 2008, 65: 1202–1208.
- [26] Smith EE, Egorova S, Blacker D, Killiany RJ, Muzikansky A, Dickerson BC, et al. Magnetic resonance imaging white matter hyperintensities and brain volume in the prediction of mild cognitive impairment and dementia. Arch Neurol 2008, 65: 94–100.
- [27] DeCarli C, Mungas D, Harvey D, Reed B, Weiner M, Chui H, et al. Memory impairment, but not cerebrovascular disease, predicts progression of MCI to dementia. Neurology 2004, 63: 220–227.
- [28] Carlson NE, Moore MM, Dame A, Howieson D, Silbert LC, Quinn JF, et al. Trajectories of brain loss in aging and the development of cognitive impairment. Neurology 2008, 70: 828–833.
- [29] Jack CR Jr, Weigand SD, Shiung MM, Przybelski SA, O'Brien PC, Gunter JL, et al. Atrophy rates accelerate in amnestic mild cognitive impairment. Neurology 2008, 70: 1740–1752.
- [30] Jack CR Jr, Shiung MM, Weigand SD, O'Brien PC, Gunter JL, Boeve BF, et al. Brain atrophy rates predict subsequent clinical conversion in normal elderly and amnestic MCI. Neurology 2005, 65: 1227–1231.
- [31] Sluimer JD, van der Flier WM, Karas GB, Fox NC, Scheltens P, Barkhof F, *et al.* Whole-brain atrophy rate and cognitive decline: longitudinal MR study of memory clinic patients. Radiology 2008, 248: 590–598.
- [32] Rusinek H, De Santi S, Frid D, Tsui WH, Tarshish CY, Convit A, et al. Regional brain atrophy rate predicts future cognitive decline: 6-year longitudinal MR imaging study of normal aging. Radiology 2003, 229: 691–696.
- [33] Risacher SL, Shen L, West JD, Kim S, McDonald BC, Beckett LA, et al. Longitudinal MRI atrophy biomarkers: relationship to conversion in the ADNI cohort. Neurobiol Aging 2010, 31: 1401–1418.
- [34] Silbert LC, Quinn JF, Moore MM, Corbridge E, Ball MJ, Murdoch G, et al. Changes in premorbid brain volume predict Alzheimer's disease pathology. Neurology 2003, 61: 487– 492.

- [35] Vemuri P, Whitwell JL, Kantarci K, Josephs KA, Parisi JE, Shiung MS, et al. Antemortem MRI based STructural Abnormality iNDex (STAND)-scores correlate with postmortem Braak neurofibrillary tangle stage. Neuroimage 2008, 42: 559–567.
- [36] Binnewijzend MA, Schoonheim MM, Sanz-Arigita E, Wink AM, van der Flier WM, Tolboom N, et al. Resting-state fMRI changes in Alzheimer's disease and mild cognitive impairment. Neurobiol Aging 2012, 33: 2018–2028.
- [37] Bai F, Watson DR, Shi Y, Wang Y, Yue C, YuhuanTeng, et al. Specifically progressive deficits of brain functional marker in amnestic type mild cognitive impairment. PLoS One 2011, 6: e24271.
- [38] Wang Z, Liang P, Jia X, Jin G, Song H, Han Y, et al. The baseline and longitudinal changes of PCC connectivity in mild cognitive impairment: a combined structure and restingstate fMRI study. PLoS One 2012, 7: e36838.
- [39] Bai F, Xie C, Watson DR, Shi Y, Yuan Y, Wang Y, et al. Aberrant hippocampal subregion networks associated with the classifications of aMCI subjects: a longitudinal restingstate study. PLoS One 2011, 6: e29288.
- [40] Damoiseaux JS, Prater KE, Miller BL, Greicius MD. Functional connectivity tracks clinical deterioration in Alzheimer's disease. Neurobiol Aging 2012, 33: 828 e819– 830.
- [41] Bai F, Liao W, Watson DR, Shi Y, Yuan Y, Cohen AD, et al. Mapping the altered patterns of cerebellar resting-state function in longitudinal amnestic mild cognitive impairment patients. J Alzheimers Dis 2011, 23: 87–99.
- [42] Vannini P, Almkvist O, Dierks T, Lehmann C, Wahlund LO. Reduced neuronal efficacy in progressive mild cognitive impairment: a prospective fMRI study on visuospatial processing. Psychiatry Res 2007, 156: 43–57.
- [43] Miller SL, Fenstermacher E, Bates J, Blacker D, Sperling RA, Dickerson BC. Hippocampal activation in adults with mild cognitive impairment predicts subsequent cognitive decline. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2008, 79: 630–635.
- [44] O'Brien JL, O'Keefe KM, LaViolette PS, DeLuca AN, Blacker D, Dickerson BC, *et al.* Longitudinal fMRI in elderly reveals loss of hippocampal activation with clinical decline. Neurology 2010, 74: 1969–1976.
- [45] Petrella JR, Prince SE, Wang L, Hellegers C, Doraiswamy PM. Prognostic value of posteromedial cortex deactivation in mild cognitive impairment. PLoS One 2007, 2: e1104.
- [46] Kochan NA, Breakspear M, Valenzuela M, Slavin MJ, Brodaty H, Wen W, et al. Cortical responses to a graded working memory challenge predict functional decline in mild cognitive impairment. Biol Psychiatry 2011, 70: 123–130.
- [47] Petrella JR, Sheldon FC, Prince SE, Calhoun VD, Doraiswamy PM. Default mode network connectivity in stable

vs progressive mild cognitive impairment. Neurology 2011, 76: 511–517.

- [48] Jones DK, Lythgoe D, Horsfield MA, Simmons A, Williams SC, Markus HS. Characterization of white matter damage in ischemic leukoaraiosis with diffusion tensor MRI. Stroke 1999, 30: 393–397.
- [49] Scola E, Bozzali M, Agosta F, Magnani G, Franceschi M, Sormani MP, et al. A diffusion tensor MRI study of patients with MCI and AD with a 2-year clinical follow-up. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2010, 81: 798–805.
- [50] Teipel SJ, Meindl T, Wagner M, Stieltjes B, Reuter S, Hauenstein KH, et al. Longitudinal changes in fiber tract integrity in healthy aging and mild cognitive impairment: a DTI follow-up study. J Alzheimers Dis 2010, 22: 507–522.
- [51] van Bruggen T, Stieltjes B, Thomann PA, Parzer P, Meinzer HP, Fritzsche KH. Do Alzheimer-specific microstructural changes in mild cognitive impairment predict conversion? Psychiatry Res 2012, 203: 184–193.
- [52] Nowrangi MA, Lyketsos CG, Leoutsakos JM, Oishi K, Albert M, Mori S, et al. Longitudinal, region-specific course of diffusion tensor imaging measures in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimers Dement 2013, 9: 519–528.
- [53] Fellgiebel A, Dellani PR, Greverus D, Scheurich A, Stoeter P, Muller MJ. Predicting conversion to dementia in mild cognitive impairment by volumetric and diffusivity measurements of the hippocampus. Psychiatry Res 2006, 146: 283–287.
- [54] Mielke MM, Kozauer NA, Chan KC, George M, Toroney J, Zerrate M, et al. Regionally-specific diffusion tensor imaging in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease. Neuroimage 2009, 46: 47–55.
- [55] Charlton RA, Schiavone F, Barrick TR, Morris RG, Markus HS. Diffusion tensor imaging detects age related white matter change over a 2 year follow-up which is associated with working memory decline. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2010, 81: 13–19.
- [56] Mielke MM, Okonkwo OC, Oishi K, Mori S, Tighe S, Miller MI, et al. Fornix integrity and hippocampal volume predict memory decline and progression to Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimers Dement 2012, 8: 105–113.
- [57] Vemuri P, Wiste HJ, Weigand SD, Shaw LM, Trojanowski JQ, Weiner MW, et al. MRI and CSF biomarkers in normal, MCI, and AD subjects: diagnostic discrimination and cognitive

correlations. Neurology 2009, 73: 287-293.

- [58] Vemuri P, Wiste HJ, Weigand SD, Shaw LM, Trojanowski JQ, Weiner MW, et al. MRI and CSF biomarkers in normal, MCI, and AD subjects: predicting future clinical change. Neurology 2009, 73: 294–301.
- [59] Vemuri P, Wiste HJ, Weigand SD, Knopman DS, Trojanowski JQ, Shaw LM, et al. Serial MRI and CSF biomarkers in normal aging, MCI, and AD. Neurology 2010, 75: 143–151.
- [60] Fjell AM, Walhovd KB, Fennema-Notestine C, McEvoy LK, Hagler DJ, Holland D, et al. CSF biomarkers in prediction of cerebral and clinical change in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease. J Neurosci 2010, 30: 2088–2101.
- [61] Villain N, Fouquet M, Baron JC, Mezenge F, Landeau B, de La Sayette V, et al. Sequential relationships between grey matter and white matter atrophy and brain metabolic abnormalities in early Alzheimer's disease. Brain 2010, 133: 3301–3314.
- [62] Karow DS, McEvoy LK, Fennema-Notestine C, Hagler DJ Jr, Jennings RG, Brewer JB, *et al.* Relative capability of MR imaging and FDG PET to depict changes associated with prodromal and early Alzheimer disease. Radiology 2010, 256: 932–942.
- [63] Selnes P, Aarsland D, Bjornerud A, Gjerstad L, Wallin A, Hessen E, et al. Diffusion tensor imaging surpasses cerebrospinal fluid as predictor of cognitive decline and medial temporal lobe atrophy in subjective cognitive impairment and mild cognitive impairment. J Alzheimers Dis 2013, 33: 723–736.
- [64] Brewer JB. Fully-automated volumetric MRI with normative ranges: translation to clinical practice. Behav Neurol 2009, 21: 21–28.
- [65] Sperling R. Functional MRI studies of associative encoding in normal aging, mild cognitive impairment, and Alzheimer's disease. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2007, 1097: 146–155.
- [66] Clark VH, Resnick SM, Doshi J, Beason-Held LL, Zhou Y, Ferrucci L, *et al.* Longitudinal imaging pattern analysis (SPARE-CD index) detects early structural and functional changes before cognitive decline in healthy older adults. Neurobiol Aging 2012, 33: 2733–2745.
- [67] Wee CY, Yap PT, Zhang D, Denny K, Browndyke JN, Potter GG, et al. Identification of MCI individuals using structural and functional connectivity networks. Neuroimage 2012, 59: 2045–2056.