

1 **NIA-AA Research Framework: Towards a Biological Definition of Alzheimer’s Disease**

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17 **Abstract**

18 In 2011 the National Institute on Aging and Alzheimer’s Association (NIA-AA) created
19 separate diagnostic recommendations for the preclinical, mild cognitive impairment, and
20 dementia stages of Alzheimers disease. Scientific progress in the interim led to an initiative by
21 the NIA-AA to update and unify the 2011 guidelines. This unifying update is labeled a “research
22 framework”, because its intended use is for observational and interventional research, not routine
23 clinical care. In the NIA AA research framework Alzheimer’s disease (AD) is defined by its
24 underlying pathologic processes which can be documented by post-mortem examination or *in*
25 *vivo* by biomarkers. The diagnosis is not based on the clinical consequences of the disease (i.e.
26 symptoms/signs) in this research framework which shifts the diagnosis of AD in living people
27 from a syndromal to a biological construct. The research framework focuses on the diagnosis of
28 AD with biomarkers in living persons. Biomarkers are grouped into those of β -amyloid
29 deposition, pathologic tau, and neurodegeneration. Two cognitive staging schemes are described:
30 a scheme employing 3 traditional syndromal categories and a 6 stage numeric scheme. We
31 envision that defining AD as a biological construct will enable a more accurate characterization

32 and understanding of the sequence of events that lead to cognitive impairment as well as the
33 multi factorial etiology of dementia. This approach also will enable a more precise approach to
34 interventional trials where specific pathways can be targeted in the disease process and in the
35 appropriate people. Importantly, the validity of this construct should be determined in more
36 diverse populations.

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DRAFT

38 **1. Preamble**

39 Alzheimer’s disease (AD) was initially defined as a clinico-pathologic entity which was
40 diagnosed definitely at autopsy and in life as possible or probable AD. Over time, however, the
41 distinction between neuropathologic change and clinical symptoms has become blurred.
42 Consequently the term AD is often used to describe two very different entities: a prototypical
43 clinical syndrome without neuropathologic verification, or AD neuropathologic changes.
44 However, a syndrome is not an etiology but rather a clinical consequence of one or more
45 diseases. A biological rather than a syndromal definition of AD is a logical step toward greater
46 understanding of the mechanisms underlying its clinical expression. Disease modifying
47 interventions must engage biologically defined targets and the dementia syndrome does not
48 denote a specific biological target(s). In addition, the most rational framework with which to
49 discover interventions that prevent or delay the initial onset of symptoms is a biologically based
50 definition of the disease that encompasses both the clinical and the preclinical phases. This will
51 advance the public health. Thus a framework suitable for interventional trials should be founded
52 on a biologically based definition of AD and the framework should be harmonized between
53 interventional and observational research.

54 Neuropathologic examination is the standard for defining AD and there are validated
55 biomarkers that are proxies for AD neuropathologic change. We propose a research framework
56 grounded on a biomarker based definition of AD in living people. In many situations, however,
57 biomarker characterization of research participants is not possible. Research without biomarkers
58 has and will continue to constitute a vital part of our efforts to understand the dementia and MCI
59 syndromes. The presence of a biologically based research framework does not devalue research
60 without biomarkers; the two approaches are complimentary. Also, this framework does not limit
61 but rather enhances research into broadly defined dementia by providing a biologically based
62 definition of one cause of dementia - AD.

63 The AD field is fortunate that biomarkers of important categories of neuropathologic
64 change, i.e. β -amyloid deposition, pathologic tau, and neurodegeneration, have been and are
65 being developed. This framework is focused on characterizing research participants with these
66 biomarkers. AD biomarker characterization will identify some research participants who have no
67 AD biomarker abnormalities as well as some who likely have diseases other than AD. This
68 research framework does not ignore these individuals but rather provides a system for

69 characterizing them alongside individuals who are in the Alzheimer’s continuum. The
70 framework is also expandable to incorporate new biomarkers.

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73 **2. Background: Rationale for updating 2011 NIA-AA guidelines for Alzheimer’s disease**

74

75 In 2011 the National Institute on Aging and Alzheimer’s Association (NIA-AA) created
76 separate sets of diagnostic guidelines for the symptomatic or “clinical” stages of Alzheimer’s
77 disease (AD) which were mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and dementia ^{1,2}. Recommendations
78 were also created for a stage of AD in individuals without overt symptoms, called “preclinical
79 AD” ³. The criteria for the *symptomatic stages* were intended, in part, to aid clinicians in
80 diagnostic decision making, and in part to provide researchers a common framework to define
81 these clinical stages ^{1,2,4}. The recommendations for *preclinical AD* were not designed for routine
82 clinical care but rather to provide researchers a common language to identify and stage research
83 participants who were not cognitively impaired but had abnormal AD biomarkers ^{3,4}. The
84 framework described in this document has that same intention – to give researchers a common
85 language.

86 Since the publication of the 2011 guidelines, data has continued to accumulate indicating
87 that the cognitive decline in AD occurs continuously over a long period ⁵⁻⁷, and that progression
88 of biomarker measures is also a continuous process that begins prior to symptoms ⁸⁻¹³. Thus the
89 disease is regarded to be a continuum rather than 3 distinct clinically defined entities ¹⁴. This
90 concept was already recognized but was not formalized in the 2011 NIA AA guidelines ^{3,4}.

91 A common theme in the 2011 recommendations was the use of imaging and
92 cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) biomarkers. In symptomatic individuals, biomarkers were used to
93 refine confidence that AD pathologic changes contributed to a person’s cognitive impairments
94 ^{1,2,4}. In the case of pre-clinical AD, biomarkers were used to define the construct ³. In the 2011
95 recommendations, biomarker evidence of cerebral β -amyloidosis in the absence of cognitive
96 symptoms was proposed as sufficient to diagnose preclinical AD. While amyloid biomarkers
97 were placed at the apex of the biomarker hierarchy preclinically ³, all AD biomarkers, including
98 those reflecting neurodegeneration, were placed on equal footing in the MCI and dementia
99 guidelines ^{1,2}. While this discrepancy was noted at the time ⁴, there is now a consensus that

100 application of biomarkers should be harmonized conceptually across the disease continuum and
101 that biomarkers of neurodegeneration are not equivalent to those reflecting amyloid and
102 pathologic tau accumulation¹⁵.

103 A major motivation for updating the 2011 guidelines has been the evolution in thinking
104 about biomarkers. Studies published since 2011 have reinforced the idea that certain imaging and
105 CSF biomarkers are valid proxies for neuropathologic changes of AD. Imaging-to-autopsy
106 comparison studies have established that amyloid PET imaging is a valid *in vivo* surrogate for β -
107 amyloid deposits (in brain parenchyma or vessel walls)¹⁶⁻²³. It is also now widely accepted that
108 CSF A β 42 (or the A β 42/40 ratio) is a valid indicator of the abnormal pathologic state associated
109 with cerebral β -amyloid deposition²⁴. An additional development has been the introduction of
110 PET ligands for pathologic tau²⁵⁻²⁷. By contrast, additional research has highlighted the fact that
111 measures of neurodegeneration or neuronal injury that are commonly used in AD research -
112 MRI, FDG PET, and CSF total tau (T-tau) - are not specific for AD but rather are nonspecific
113 indicators of damage that may derive from a variety of etiologies²⁸.

114 Based on this background, NIA-AA leadership formed a work group whose charge was
115 to examine the 2011 guidelines in the context of current scientific knowledge and if appropriate
116 update them. Members of the workgroup were selected by NIA-AA leadership with the goals of
117 providing a range of scientific expertise, broad representation of different institutions and
118 professional organizations involved with AD research, and gender and geographic diversity
119 (including both within the US and international scientists).

120

121 **3. Guiding principles for updating NIA-AA guidelines for AD**

122

123 The charge to the 2018 NIA-AA work group was to unify and update the 2011
124 recommendations in a manner that is consistent with current understanding of the AD
125 continuum. The work group approached this mandate with several guiding principles.

126 First, the overall objective was to create a scheme for *defining* and *staging* the disease
127 across its entire spectrum. Experience with the 2011 NIA AA recommendations has shown that
128 a common framework for *defining* and *staging* the disease facilitates standardized reporting of
129 research findings across the field²⁹⁻⁴⁴.

130 Second, we determined that that these recommendations should be cast as a “research
131 framework”; not as diagnostic criteria or guidelines. Unlike the 2011 NIA-AA criteria for MCI
132 or AD dementia based on clinical criteria (i.e. without biomarkers) ^{1,2}, the 2018 research
133 framework is not intended for general clinical practice. It is called a “research framework”
134 because it needs to be validated and modified if needed before being adopted into general
135 clinical practice. There are two categories of studies that will achieve this: longitudinal cohort
136 studies and randomized placebo controlled trials. Cohort studies, particularly community and
137 population based cohorts, will examine the extent to which temporal relationships and patterns of
138 signs, symptoms and biomarkers expected by this framework align with what is observed. These
139 results will support convergent and divergent validity. Trials showing that an intervention
140 modifies both biomarkers and signs and symptoms will establish criterion validity (i.e. a disease
141 modifying effect). Other areas of medicine have used this approach to define pathologic
142 processes using biomarkers, for example, bone mineral density, hypertension, hyperlipidemia
143 and diabetes are defined by biomarkers. Interventions on these biomarkers have been shown to
144 reduce the likelihood of developing fractures, myocardial and cerebral infarctions ^{45,46}.

145 Third, the committee recognized the research framework must function in two major
146 applications – observational cohort studies and interventional trials.

147 The committee took a step wise approach to creating the 2018 research framework by
148 posing a series of questions where each incremental step built on earlier conclusions.

149

150 **4. The term “Alzheimer's disease” refers to an aggregate of neuropathologic changes and**
151 **thus is defined *in vivo* by biomarkers and by post mortem examination, not by clinical**
152 **symptoms**

153

154 We approached the definition of Alzheimer’s disease with awareness of the distinction
155 between a syndrome and a disease. Some will argue that a specific syndrome, i.e. a multi domain
156 amnesic dementia (after other potential etiologies have been excluded), should define AD in
157 living people. Our position, however, is that dementia is not a “disease” but rather is a syndrome
158 composed of signs and symptoms that can be caused by multiple diseases, one of which is AD.
159 As we elaborate in the following paragraph, there are two major problems with using a syndrome
160 to define AD; one, it is neither sensitive nor specific for the neuropathologic changes that define

161 the disease, and two, it cannot identify individuals who have the disease but do not (yet) manifest
162 signs or symptoms^{47,48}. These problems support a definition of disease that advances the public
163 health goals of a diagnosis that leads to biologically targeted treatment and the ability to
164 prescribe treatment to prevent or delay disability.

165 It is now well established that the prototypical multi domain amnesic dementia
166 phenotype historically used to define AD dementia⁴⁹ does not rule in AD pathologic change at
167 autopsy⁵⁰⁻⁵². From 10% to 30% of individuals clinically diagnosed as AD dementia by experts
168 do not display AD neuropathologic changes at autopsy⁵⁰ and a similar proportion have normal
169 amyloid PET or CSF A β 42 studies⁵³⁻⁶². Thus the multi domain amnesic dementia phenotype is
170 not specific; it can be the product of other diseases as well as AD⁵¹. Non amnesic clinical
171 presentations, i.e. language, visuospatial, and executive disorders, may also be due to AD⁶³⁻⁶⁶.
172 Thus the prototypical clinical phenotype is not necessarily sensitive for AD neuropathologic
173 changes. In addition, AD neuropathologic changes are often present without signs or symptoms,
174 especially in older persons. Thirty to forty percent of cognitively unimpaired elderly persons
175 have AD neuropathologic changes at autopsy^{67,68,69} and a similar proportion have abnormal
176 amyloid biomarkers^{32,53-55,60,70-73}. The fact that an amnesic multi domain dementia is neither
177 sensitive nor specific for AD neuropathologic change suggests that cognitive symptoms are not
178 an ideal way to define AD.

179 The traditional approach to incorporating biomarkers into models of AD began with
180 patients' clinical symptoms, which appear late in the disease, and worked backwards to relate
181 symptoms to biomarker findings. The committee recommends a different approach where the
182 neuropathologic changes detected by biomarkers define the disease. Defining AD by
183 neuropathologic change independent from clinical symptoms is a profound shift in thinking. For
184 many years AD was conceived as a clinical-pathological construct⁴⁹; it was assumed that if an
185 individual had typical amnesic multi domain symptoms they would have AD neuropathologic
186 changes at autopsy and if symptoms were absent they would not have AD at autopsy.
187 Symptoms/signs defined the presence of the disease in living persons and therefore the concepts
188 of symptoms and disease became interchangeable. AD later became a clinical-biomarker
189 construct with International Work Group (IWG)^{64,74,75} and 2011 NIA-AA guidelines where
190 biomarkers were used to support a diagnosis of AD in symptomatic individuals, but the
191 definition of AD was not divorced from clinical symptoms (with the exceptions of the 2011 NIA

192 AA recommendations on preclinical AD and IWG criteria in autosomal dominant mutation
193 carriers, and NIA AA neuropathologic guidelines).

194

195

196 **5. AD biomarkers**

197 Various imaging and CSF biomarkers are widely used in AD and brain aging research.
198 In order to meet the committee’s mandate of arriving at a generalizable research framework, it is
199 helpful to reduce the complexity that results from the variety of available biomarkers. The
200 committee addressed this by following the recommendations from a recent position paper that
201 outlined an unbiased descriptive classification scheme for biomarkers used in AD and brain
202 aging research¹⁵. The scheme (which is labeled ATN)¹⁵ recognizes three general groups of
203 biomarkers based on the nature of the pathologic process that each measures (**Table 1**)¹⁵.
204 Biomarkers of β -amyloid plaques (labeled “A”) are cortical amyloid PET ligand binding^{76,77} or
205 low CSF A β 42⁷⁸⁻⁸⁰. Biomarkers of fibrillar tau (labeled “T”) are elevated CSF phosphorylated
206 tau (P-tau) and cortical tau PET ligand binding^{79,81}. Biomarkers of neurodegeneration or
207 neuronal injury (labeled “N”) are CSF total tau (T-tau)⁸², FDG PET hypometabolism and
208 atrophy on MRI⁸³⁻⁸⁹.

209 A limitation of the 2011 NIA-AA recommendations was grouping biomarkers into just 2
210 categories – amyloid and tau-related neurodegeneration. Tauopathy and neurodegeneration were
211 placed into the same biomarker category. In persons with only AD it is reasonable to assume
212 that neurodegeneration is closely associated with pathologic tau. However, it is increasingly
213 recognized that neurodegeneration/injury, even in classic AD brain regions, also occurs in non-
214 AD conditions. This is particularly so in elderly individuals where co morbidities are common⁹⁰.
215 ATN classification provides a solution to this problem which is to separate biomarkers that are
216 specific for pathologic tau deposits from those that are nonspecific measures of
217 neurodegeneration/neuronal injury.

218 The ATN system was designed with both a CSF and an imaging biomarker in each of the
219 3 biomarker groups (**Table 1**)¹⁵. Thus complete ATN biomarker characterization of research
220 participants is possible using either imaging or CSF biomarkers alone. However, some research
221 groups may prefer a mixture of imaging and CSF biomarkers for ATN characterization. For

222 example when lumbar puncture and MRI are accessible but PET is not, investigators may choose
223 to use CSF A β 42 and P-tau as the A and T biomarkers and MRI as the N biomarker.

224

225 **6. Definition of AD**

226

227 Once the committee agreed that AD should be defined as a biologic construct that is
228 identified by biomarkers in living people, the next logical question was: what biomarker
229 signature or profile(s) defines AD? The committee agreed that only biomarkers that are specific
230 for hallmark AD proteinopathies (i.e. A β and pathologic tau) should be considered as potential
231 biomarker definitions of the disease. Different possible biomarker profiles were considered.

232 Numerous studies have shown that cognitively unimpaired individuals with abnormal
233 amyloid biomarkers have more rapid progression of atrophy, hypometabolism and
234 clinical/cognitive decline than individuals without biomarker evidence of β -amyloid deposition
235 ^{12,32,80,91-97} The proportion of amyloid PET positive clinically normal individuals by age nearly
236 perfectly parallels the (increasing) age specific prevalence of individuals clinically diagnosed as
237 AD dementia 15-20 years later ⁵³. The first biomarkers to become abnormal in carriers of
238 deterministic AD mutations are those of β -amyloid ^{8-10,13}. These data suggest a causal up-stream
239 role for β -amyloid in the pathogenesis of AD; and while β -amyloidosis alone is insufficient to
240 cause cognitive deterioration directly, it may be sufficient to cause downstream pathologic
241 changes (i.e. tauopathy and neurodegeneration) that ultimately lead to cognitive deterioration.
242 These findings are supported by clinic-pathologic studies as well ^{98,99}. Consequently a widely
243 held view is that amyloid biomarkers represent the earliest evidence of AD neuropathologic
244 change currently detectable in living persons. This suggests that abnormal β -amyloidosis
245 biomarkers alone could serve as the defining signature of AD. However, both β -amyloid and
246 paired helical filament (PHF) tau deposits are required to fulfill neuropathologic criteria for AD
247 ^{100,101} which suggests that evidence of abnormalities in both β -amyloid and pathologic tau
248 biomarkers should be present in order to apply the label “Alzheimer’s disease” in a living person
249 **(Fig 1)**. With these considerations in mind, the committee agreed on the following definitions.

250 An individual with biomarker evidence of A β deposition alone (abnormal amyloid PET
251 scan or low CSF A β 42 or 42/40 ratio) with a normal pathologic tau biomarker would be
252 assigned the label “Alzheimer’s pathologic change” **(Table 2) (Fig 2)**. The term “Alzheimer’s

253 disease” would be applied if biomarker evidence of both A β and pathologic tau was present (**Fig**
254 **1**). Alzheimer’s pathologic change and Alzheimer’s disease are not regarded as separate entities
255 but earlier and later phases of the “Alzheimer’s continuum” (an umbrella term that includes both
256 Alzheimer’s pathologic change and Alzheimer’s disease). These definitions are applied
257 independently from clinical symptoms. These definitions meet our specifications to function
258 equally well across the disease spectrum: from early through late life onset, from pre
259 symptomatic through symptomatic phases, and for typical and atypical clinical presentations.

260

261

262 **7. Staging**

263

264 We next developed a system for staging severity. Our guiding principles were the
265 following. Two types of information about the patient are staged independently from each other:
266 1) grading disease severity using biomarkers, and 2) grading the severity of cognitive
267 impairment. Measures used to define AD must be specific for the disease while measures used to
268 stage severity need not be. Thus different measures have different roles. A β biomarkers
269 determine whether or not an individual is in the Alzheimer’s continuum. Pathologic tau
270 biomarkers determine if someone who is in the Alzheimer’s continuum has AD, since both A β
271 and tau are required for a neuropathologic diagnosis of the disease. Neurodegenerative/ neuronal
272 injury biomarkers and cognitive symptoms, neither of which is specific for AD, are used only to
273 stage severity not to define the presence of the Alzheimers continuum.

274

275 **8. Biomarker profiles and categories**

276 In many research studies it will be most appropriate to treat biomarkers of amyloid,
277 pathologic tau and neurodegeneration/neuronal injury as continuous measures without
278 employing normal/abnormal cut points. However biomarkers used in medicine often use a cut
279 point denoting normal vs abnormal values to support management decisions for an individual
280 patient. The need for discrete categorization of biomarker continua is also obvious for AD
281 clinical trials where hard cutpoints serve as inclusion/exclusion criteria. We recognize from the
282 experience of more mature biomarker defined disease such as cardiovascular disease and
283 osteoporosis that as knowledge of biomarkers and other factors increase, the biomarker

284 categorization may change from using cut-points of “normal” or abnormal,” to multi-factorial
285 and multidimensional scoring systems (see for example FRAX criteria for osteoporosis).

286 The addition of a normal/abnormal cut point for each ATN biomarker group results in 8
287 different ATN “*biomarker profiles*” (**Table 2**); A+T-N-, A+T+N+, etc. Based on the definitions
288 of Alzheimer’s pathologic change and AD outlined earlier, the ATN biomarker system with cut
289 points assigns every individual one of three “*biomarker categories*” (**Table 2**): 1) individuals
290 with normal AD biomarkers; 2) those in the Alzheimer’s continuum (subdivided into
291 Alzheimer’s pathologic change and AD); and, 3) those with a normal amyloid biomarker but
292 with abnormal T or N, or both. This latter biomarker profile implies evidence of one or more
293 neuropathologic processes other than AD¹⁰² and has been labeled “suspected non Alzheimer’s
294 pathophysiology” (SNAP)³⁷.

295 It is worthwhile re-emphasizing that, like the 2012 NIA-AA classification system for AD
296 neuropathic change^{100,101}, ATN scoring of biomarkers is independent from clinical symptoms.

297 The rate of cognitive decline is significantly greater for cognitively impaired and
298 unimpaired individuals who have abnormalities in *both* an amyloid biomarker and a second
299 biomarker type which could be CSF tau (T- tau or P- tau), atrophy or hypo metabolism in
300 comparison to individuals who have neither or only one of these biomarker abnormalities<sup>29-
301 34,38,39,41-44</sup>. These data firmly establish that more advanced disease defined by biomarkers
302 predicts more rapid cognitive decline. Thus a solid evidence base exists proving that
303 combinations of biomarker abnormalities are useful for staging the Alzheimer’s continuum.

304 While the term stage is more familiar, we use the term “biomarker profile” (**Table 2**)
305 because the term stage implies a sequence – i.e. stage 1 always precedes stage 2, etc. Many in the
306 field are convinced that amyloidosis induces or facilitates the spread of pathologic tau, and that
307 tauopathy in turn is a proximate cause of neurodegeneration. If so then the logical biomarker
308 sequence of AD would be: A+T-N- then A+T+N- then A+T+N+¹⁰³. It is not certain though
309 where the A+T-N+ profile would fit in a sequential staging scheme. A likely possibility is that
310 A+T-N+ represents evidence of comorbidity – i.e. A+T- represents Alzheimer’s pathologic
311 change while N+ represents evidence of non-AD neurodegeneration/neuronal injury¹⁰⁴ (see **Fig**
312 **3**). Biomarker-autopsy studies are needed to clarify this. We can, however, be confident that
313 A+T-N- represents an early neuropathologic stage while A+T+N+ represents the most advanced.
314 Staging disease severity is thus accomplished by combining binary information from each of the

315 3 biomarker groups; the more biomarker groups that are abnormal, the more advanced the
316 pathologic stage¹⁰³.

317 *8.1 Alternatives to binary biomarker groups:* Given that Alzheimer’s pathologic change and AD
318 are defined by biomarkers, a single cut point is needed in many situations. However, as pointed
319 out in the ATN position paper¹⁵, other options are possible. In many research situations
320 biomarkers are best treated as continuous variables. For example, the risk of short term cognitive
321 decline increases continuously with worsening N biomarkers and this may be true of T
322 biomarkers as well^{105,106}.

323 Situations can be also envisioned where a three range (2 cut points) approach might be
324 useful^{15,107}. If these 3 ranges were labeled, clearly normal (0), intermediate range (1), clearly
325 abnormal (2), then a 2 cut point biomarker profile might look like A²T¹N⁰, etc. Designating an
326 intermediate range using 2 cut points has evolved in other diseases for clinical care, for example,
327 pre hypertension and pre-diabetes have proved to be useful constructs in medicine.

328
329 *8.2 Personalized medicine:* The ATN system moves AD research in the direction of
330 personalized medicine by coding pathologic change in three categories for each research
331 participant and allows for future flexibility by adding other biomarkers as they are discovered
332 and validated. This level of granularity in biomarker classification, perhaps combined with
333 genetic and clinical information, will presumably be useful in tailoring treatment to the
334 individual when various treatments become available.

335

336 **9. Characteristics and limitations of biomarkers**

337

338 *9.1 CSF vs imaging biomarkers:* While we place imaging and CSF biomarkers into common
339 groups a fundamental difference between the two should be recognized. CSF biomarkers are
340 measures of the concentrations of proteins in CSF from the lumbar sac that reflect the rates of
341 both production (protein expression or release/secretion from neurons or other brain cells) and
342 clearance (degradation or removal) at a given point in time^{108,109}. Imaging measures, on the
343 other hand, represent the magnitude of the neuropathologic load or damage accumulated over
344 time. Low CSF A β 42 is therefore best considered a biomarker of a *pathologic state* that is
345 *associated with* amyloid plaque formation and not a measure of amyloid plaque load as amyloid

346 PET is. Similarly, CSF P-tau is best considered a biomarker of a *pathologic state* that is
347 *associated with* PHF tau formation and not a measure of pathologic tau deposits as tau PET is.

348 Discordances between imaging and CSF biomarkers may occur^{35,40,110-113}. In some
349 situations discordance in normal/abnormal labels between an imaging and CSF biomarker within
350 a study is simply a product of how cut points were established that can be rectified by adjusting
351 cut points. The continuous relationship between CSF A β 42 and amyloid PET, however, is “L-
352 shaped” rather than linear^{110,111,114}. This may be due to a temporal off set between these 2
353 measures¹¹⁵⁻¹¹⁷. In the limited data currently available, tau PET ligand binding is linearly
354 correlated with elevated CSF P tau^{109,118,119}, however, the correlation is imperfect. Given these
355 observations one might ask how could a CSF and an imaging measure be used as biomarkers of a
356 common pathologic process – e.g. amyloidosis, pathologic tau or neurodegeneration/neuronal
357 injury? The answer lies in the chronic nature of AD which spans years- to-decades. Thus an
358 ongoing active pathologic state, denoted by CSF, and the accumulation of neuropathologic load,
359 denoted by imaging, will agree over the long term.

360

361 *9.2 Tau PET:* Tau PET is a new modality and the ligands that have been evaluated to date are
362 considered first generation compounds. These compounds suffer from some limitation, the most
363 common being off target binding. However, at least one first generation ligand has emerged as a
364 legitimate biomarker of 3R/4R PHF tau deposits²⁷. Autoradiographic studies have shown that
365 the most widely studied ligand, Flortaucipir (formerly T807 and AV1451), does not bind to
366 amyloid plaques, TDP43, argyrophillic grains or alpha synuclein. AV1451 binds weakly or not at
367 all to sole 4R or sole 3R tau deposits in primary tauopathies¹²⁰⁻¹²². *In vivo* imaging to autopsy
368 comparisons also indicate specific binding of AV1451 to PHF tangles²². Elevated tau PET
369 binding in both medial temporal structures and neocortex is strongly associated with positive
370 amyloid PET scans and with clinical impairment across the normal aging to dementia clinical
371 spectrum^{119,123-129}. High ligand binding predicts future clinical worsening^{130,131}. Longitudinal
372 accumulation correlates with concurrent clinical decline¹³¹. New tau PET ligands are in the
373 early stages of development and there is optimism that some of the limitations of the first
374 generation compounds will be addressed in the next generation of tau PET ligands.

375 9.3 CSF T tau and P tau: The most thoroughly examined P-tau epitope as a CSF biomarker for
376 AD is Threonine 181 (P-tau181)¹³², but other assays for the concentration of P-tau231 and P-
377 tau199 correlate tightly with P-tau181 and show very similar diagnostic accuracy¹³³. CSF levels
378 of T-tau and P-tau are tightly correlated within cohorts of AD patients and controls¹³⁴, and the
379 correlation between CSF T tau and P tau is typically much higher than between CSF T tau and
380 MRI or FDG PET^{35,109}. Therefore it is reasonable to ask why not place both CSF T tau and P tau
381 in the pathologic tau biomarker group? The answer lies in the divergent behavior of these two
382 measures in other diseases. There is a marked temporary increase in T-tau, with no change in P
383 tau, in traumatic brain injury and stroke that correlates with the severity of neuronal damage
384^{135,136}. It is difficult to rationalize how changes in T tau in such patients can be attributed to brain
385 PHF tau deposition. Further, in Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, a disorder characterized by very rapid
386 neurodegeneration but not PHF tau accumulation, there is a very marked increase in CSF T-tau
387 (10-20 times more than in AD), while P-tau shows no or minor change^{137,138}. The only disorder
388 that consistently shows an increase in CSF P-tau is AD¹³², while this biomarker is normal in
389 other neurodegenerative disorders. The level of CSF Ptau also does correlate with severity of
390 PHF tau accumulation post-mortem^{81,139}. Taken together these data indicate that CSF T-tau
391 reflects the intensity of neuronal damage at a specific point¹⁰⁸ while elevated CSF P-tau reflects
392 an abnormal pathologic state associated with PHF tau formation.

393
394 9.4 Biomarkers of neurodegeneration or neuronal injury: Biomarkers in the N category (**Table**
395 **1**) are indicators of neurodegeneration or neuronal injury from many causes; they are not specific
396 for neuronal damage due to AD. In any individual the proportion of observed
397 neurodegeneration/injury that can be attributed to AD vs other possible co morbid conditions
398 (most of which have no extant biomarker) is unknown. This is a recognized limitation of this
399 category of biomarkers. However, the combination of an abnormal MRI, CSF T tau, or FDG
400 PET study with an abnormal amyloid biomarker provides much more powerful prediction of
401 future cognitive decline^{29-34,38,39,41-44} than an abnormal amyloid study alone. This is logical given
402 that neurodegeneration particularly synapse loss is the aspect of AD neuropathologic change that
403 correlates most closely with symptoms¹⁴⁰. Thus the neurodegeneration / neuronal injury
404 biomarker group provides important pathologic staging information and for this reason it seems
405 inadvisable to eliminate this class of biomarkers from the AD research framework.

406 It is important to note some differences among biomarkers in the N group.¹⁰⁸ Atrophy on
407 MR likely reflects cumulative loss and shrinkage of the neuropil¹⁴¹⁻¹⁴³. CSF T tau likely
408 indicates the intensity of neuronal injury at a given point in time^{105,108,144,145}. FDG PET likely
409 indicates both cumulative loss of the neuropil and functional impairment of neurons. These
410 differences may result in discordances^{35,42,109,113,146}.

411

412 *9.5 Limitations:* None of the biomarkers are as sensitive as direct examination of tissue at
413 autopsy. Absolute sensitivity of amyloid PET relative to an autopsy gold standard has been
414 assessed¹⁴⁷. Typical cut points used for ¹⁸F amyloid PET ligands roughly label individuals with
415 none to sparse neuritic plaques normal and individuals with moderate to high neuritic plaque
416 load and Thal phase 4-5 abnormal^{17,21}. A typical cut point used for ¹¹C PIB approximately labels
417 individuals with Thal phase 0-1 normal and individuals with Thal phase 2 -5 abnormal²⁰. Thus, a
418 negative amyloid PET should not be equated with the complete absence of β -amyloid in the
419 brain or even with absent sparse neuritic plaques. Clinico-pathologic studies suggest that low
420 levels of pathologic changes are associated with subtle cognitive deficits among cognitively
421 unimpaired persons^{7,148}. The amount of pathologic tau that can be present in the brain below the
422 *in vivo* tau PET detectable threshold is unknown at this time. This limitation is important to bear
423 in mind when considering the distinction between Alzheimer's pathologic change and AD which
424 hinges on *in vivo* detection of pathologic tau deposits; however, neither CSF P tau nor tau PET
425 are expected to identify minimal neurofibrillary changes that are detectable by neuropathologic
426 examination. Similarly, the number of neurons or neuronal processes that must be lost in order to
427 detect atrophy on MRI or hypometabolism on FDG PET is not known. For every biomarker there
428 must be an *in vivo* limit of detection. For this reason we use the terms normal/abnormal for
429 biomarkers rather than positive/negative. Normal/abnormal implies that the test detects what it is
430 capable of within acknowledged limits, and is not an absolute measure of neuropathologic
431 changes in the brain.

432 The 2018 research framework is designed around biomarker technology that is presently
433 available rather than what would be ideal. ATN biomarkers are available in many research
434 settings at the present time. Other proteintopathies, e.g. α -synuclein and TDP43, are associated
435 with AD pathogenesis or frequently co-occur with AD pathologic changes^{149,150}; however,

436 validated biomarkers are not presently available for these. Likewise, micro infarcts, hippocampal
437 sclerosis and amyloid plaques are commonly observed in the brains of the elderly but no
438 reliable markers exist for these either. The ATN biomarker scheme is expandable to incorporate
439 new biomarkers. For example, a vascular biomarker group could be added, i.e. ATNV, when a
440 notion of what constitutes V+ is developed. And, when biomarkers for TDP and α -synuclein are
441 developed, ATN can be expanded to incorporate these as well. An important pathologic process
442 in AD is activation of the innate immune system with both astrocytosis and microgliosis¹⁵¹.
443 This process is involved in the risk and progression of AD. There are not yet reliable markers of
444 these changes though some are emerging^{152,153}. CSF neurogranin is presumed to measure
445 synaptic degeneration and loss^{154,155} and neurofilament light chain¹⁵⁶ to measure axonal injury.
446 When they have been more thoroughly studied, these measures should serve as biomarkers of
447 damage to the neuropil in the “N” group of biomarkers.

448
449 *9.6 Biomarkers other than ATN:* While we focus on biomarkers of AD we emphasize that other
450 biomarkers have a valuable role to play. MRI provides useful information about cerebrovascular
451 disease. Although a biomarker for alpha-synuclein does not yet exist, decreased striatal
452 dopamine transporter uptake of ¹²³I-2 β -carbomethoxy-3 β -(4-iodophenyl)-N-(3-fluoropropyl)
453 nortropine (¹²³I-FP-CIT) single photon emission computed tomography (DAT scan) is thought to
454 reflect nigrostriatal degeneration in Lewy body disease¹⁵⁷. Likewise, the FDG PET cingulate
455 island sign is often present in Lewy body disease¹⁵⁸. These tests may provide useful information
456 about non AD pathologic processes and may be used alone or concordantly with ATN
457 biomarkers to provide a more complete picture of the heterogeneous etiologic nature of
458 dementia. For example, in an individual with an A+T-N+ biomarker profile and a hemispheric
459 infarction(s), atrophy is attributable at least in part to vascular brain injury.

460 The fact that most dementia is multi factorial presents a challenge both for diagnosis and
461 treatment. It is highly likely that in individuals with multiple brain neuropathologic processes
462 each makes some contribution to the individual’s cognitive impairment. However, the fact that
463 biomarkers of all causes of dementia do not exist at present should not prevent investigators from
464 studying the disease for which a useful suite of biomarkers does exist – AD. In an individual
465 with multiple neuropathologic processes, treating one of them (i.e. AD) should have a beneficial

466 effect. Therefore using biomarkers to aid in discovery of treatments for AD should not be
467 delayed until biomarkers of all possible etiologies for dementia have been developed.

468

469

470 **10. Cognitive staging**

471 Like biomarkers, cognitive performance exists on a continuum. An obvious approach to
472 cognitive staging therefore is to use continuous instruments. Continuous cognitive measures may
473 be the preferred outcome measure in many modern clinical trials¹⁵⁹. The committee felt it was
474 also appropriate to outline categorical cognitive staging schemes. In the 2011 NIA-AA
475 guidelines cognitive staging was implicit rather than explicit. Three different documents were
476 published describing preclinical AD, MCI, and dementia; however, these categories have at
477 times been interpreted to indicate three distinct entities. In 2018 we avoid the notion of separate
478 entities, and instead use the terminology staging the cognitive continuum.

479 One of the specifications of the NIA AA research framework was that it be applicable in
480 two distinct research contexts – interventional trials and observational research. In many if not
481 most modern AD interventional trials, individuals are selected for inclusion with the aid of
482 biomarkers. The studies are concerned only with a defined portion of the population – those in
483 the Alzheimer’s continuum. For observational research on the other hand the research questions
484 often require that all members of a recruited sample are included (those with non-AD pathologic
485 changes, normal AD biomarkers, and those in the Alzheimer’s continuum). In these studies
486 research questions often hinge on the presence of heterogeneity within the cohort –which is
487 screened out of AD trial cohorts. We therefore outline 2 types of categorical clinical staging
488 schemes. The first is *syndromal categorical cognitive staging* which employs traditional
489 syndromal categories and is applicable to all members of a recruited cohort (i.e. includes all
490 biomarker profiles). The second is a *numeric clinical staging* scheme that is applicable only to
491 those in the Alzheimer’s continuum.

492 The committee also recognized that cognitive staging had to function both when prior
493 longitudinal clinical or cognitive testing evaluations were available for participants, or when
494 prior information is unavailable and the participant is being evaluated for the first time.

495

496

497 *10.1 Syndromal categorical cognitive staging:* The *syndromal cognitive staging* scheme divides
498 the cognitive continuum into 3 traditional categories – Cognitively Unimpaired (CU), MCI, and
499 dementia with dementia further subdivided into mild, moderate and severe (**table 3**). This 3-
500 category division serves as the basis for cognitive categorization in many large ongoing studies
501 ^{53,160-162}. Many in the research community feel that it has been and continues to be effective for
502 clinical research and that abandoning it would unnecessarily disrupt ongoing studies. Dividing
503 the cognitive continuum into these 3 syndromal categories also has been adopted by many
504 medical practitioners ¹⁶³. It has also been codified for clinical practice in the DSM 5 criteria ¹⁶⁴
505 by the mild cognitive disorder (essentially MCI) and major cognitive disorder (essentially
506 dementia) labels.

507 While the definitions of CU, MCI and dementia (**Table 3**) are largely the same as in the 2011
508 NIA AA guidelines there are differences. For example the 2011 guidelines included only those
509 cognitively unimpaired individuals who had an abnormal amyloid biomarker study (i.e.
510 preclinical AD). In contrast in the NIA AA research framework the definition of CU is
511 independent from biomarker findings. In the 2011 guidelines for MCI, the diagnosis was based
512 on clinical judgment when all available information about the patient was considered. In the NIA
513 AA research framework the diagnosis can be based on clinical judgment and/ or on cognitive test
514 performance. In the 2011 guidelines an amnesic multi domain dementia was labeled “probable
515 or possible AD by clinical criteria” without requiring biomarker documentation of AD. In the
516 NIA AA research framework the labels CU, MCI and dementia denote only severity of cognitive
517 impairment and are not used to infer its etiology.

518
519 *Nomenclature:* Every individual will have both a biomarker profile and a cognitive stage.
520 Many researchers indicated a preference to retain traditional descriptive terms from 2011 that
521 combined these two sources of information. In **Table 4** we illustrate descriptive terminology
522 combining biomarker profile and a cognitive stage which retains nomenclature from 2011 but
523 does depart from 2011 naming in some ways. For example the label “Alzheimer’s disease with
524 MCI (2018)” is used rather than “MCI due to Alzheimer’s disease (2011)”. By this we indicate
525 that although the person has an AD biomarker profile, we cannot know if their cognitive deficit
526 is attributable to AD alone or in addition to other potential comorbidities. In **Table 4** we further
527 recognize contributions of co morbidities for individuals with an A+T-N+ biomarker profile with

528 the descriptive phrase “Alzheimer’s and concomitant suspected non Alzheimer’s pathologic
529 change”. By this we imply that in an A+T-N+ MCI individual both Alzheimer’s and non-
530 Alzheimer’s pathologic change may be contributing to the individual’s impairment. The NIA
531 AA framework naming convention places the biomarker category in the lead position. In
532 addition to carrying forward NIA AA 2011 terminology we also incorporate the term “prodromal
533 AD” from the IWG which many investigators find useful (**Table 4**).

534 An alternative approach to descriptive names is to simply combine ATN biomarker profile
535 with cognitive stage without using descriptive phrases; that is, combine the row and column
536 names from **table 4** without the descriptive phrases in the body of the table; for example,
537 “A+T+N+ dementia” instead of “Alzheimer’s disease with dementia”. Some groups may prefer
538 this “row and column” naming approach.

539
540 **Table 4** illustrates the principle that biomarker profile and cognitive staging represent
541 independent sources of information. For a given cognitive stage (i.e. a given column in **Table 4**)
542 every biomarker profile will be present in the population. Likewise different cognitive stages
543 may be present in the population among people with the same biomarker profile (i.e. a given row
544 in **Table 4**). Many effects can blur the relationship between neuropathologic severity and
545 cognitive symptoms at the individual level. These include protective factors, such as cognitive
546 reserve¹⁶⁵⁻¹⁶⁷, as well as risk factors, such as co morbid pathologic processes^{168,169,170}.

547 **Table 5** illustrates the principle that biomarker profiles within the Alzheimer’s continuum
548 raise or lower the risk of short term cognitive decline; and that cognitive stage provides
549 additional independent information about the risk of future cognitive decline.

550
551 *10.2 Numeric clinical staging:* The committee also created a “numeric clinical staging scheme”
552 (**Table 6**) that avoided traditional syndromal labels and is specific for only those in the
553 Alzheimer’s continuum. This staging scheme reflects the sequential evolution of AD from an
554 initial stage characterized by the appearance of abnormal AD biomarkers in asymptomatic
555 individuals. As biomarker abnormalities progress the earliest subtle symptoms become
556 detectable. Further progression of biomarker abnormalities is accompanied by progressive
557 worsening of cognitive symptoms culminating in dementia. A common application for this

558 numeric cognitive staging scheme would be interventional trials since it is applicable only to
559 individuals who are in the Alzheimer’s continuum.

560 It is apparent that numeric stages 1-6 (**Table 6**) bear a close resemblance to the global
561 deterioration scale¹⁷¹ with the important distinction that the global deterioration scale was
562 created in the pre biomarker era. Stage 1 (**Table 6**) is defined by biomarker evidence of the
563 Alzheimer’s continuum in asymptomatic individuals. Stage 2 describes the earliest detectable
564 clinical consequence of the Alzheimer’s continuum and is similar to “stage 3 preclinical AD” in
565 the 2011 NIA AA guidelines³. Stage 3 describes cognitive impairment that is not severe enough
566 to result in significant functional loss. Stages 4-6 describe progressively worse functional loss.
567 The nature of decline or impairment in stages 2 - 6 may involve any cognitive domain(s) – not
568 only memory. We suspect that finding individuals in stages 3-6 with an A+T-N- profile will be
569 uncommon, as clinical symptoms are typically associated with evidence of neuronal injury. We
570 also suspect that A+T-N+ biomarker profiles in symptomatic individuals may be due to the
571 combination of Alzheimer’s and non Alzheimer’s pathologic change. However, both of these
572 biomarker profiles are included in all 6 numeric stages for research purposes.

573 The syndromal categories in **Table 3** and numeric stages in **table 6** obviously point to similar
574 constructs. A cognitively unimpaired individual who also has no subjective or objective evidence
575 of subtle decline (**Table 3**) and Stage 1 (**Table 6**) both describe an asymptomatic state. A
576 cognitively unimpaired individual who has subjective or objective evidence of subtle decline
577 (**Table 3**) is similar to Stage 2 (**Table 6**). MCI (**Table 3**) and Stage 3 (**Table 6**) both describe
578 cognitive impairment short of dementia. Mild, moderate and severe dementia (**Table 3**) is
579 identical to stages 4-6 (**Table 6**).

580 However, since the two staging systems address different needs there are important
581 differences between them. First, numeric staging is only applicable to those in the Alzheimer’s
582 continuum while syndromal categorical staging includes all biomarker profiles. Second, stage 2
583 is called out as a distinct transitional stage between asymptomatic (stage 1) and mildly impaired
584 (stage 3) in the numeric scheme (**table 6**) but there is no separate category between clinically
585 unimpaired and MCI in the syndromal categorical scheme. Our reasoning was that if an
586 individual is in the Alzheimer’s continuum, then it is reasonable to label subjective complaints or
587 evidence of subtle cognitive decline as a transitional stage attributable to the pathologic process.
588 However, in the syndromal categorical scheme (**table 3**) where abnormal biomarkers are not

589 required, it is not reasonable to assume that subjective complaints (which are very common in
590 aging) represent a symptom of any specific disease(s). Third, neurobehavioral symptoms are
591 treated differently between the two staging systems. While cognitive symptoms represent the
592 core clinical feature of AD, in some individuals the initial presentation may be neurobehavioral
593 (e.g. depression, anxiety, apathy) rather than cognitive¹⁷². Therefore in the numeric scheme an
594 individual may be placed into stage 2 on the basis of neurobehavioral symptoms alone – i.e.
595 without evident cognitive decline. To reflect this we use the term “clinical staging” rather than
596 cognitive staging to recognize that early clinical manifestations of AD may be either cognitive or
597 neurobehavioral. Individuals must have cognitive impairment to be placed into numeric stages 3
598 - 6¹⁷³. We recognize though that neurobehavioral symptoms often do not have a
599 neurodegenerative etiology. Thus, our position is that without biomarker abnormalities indicating
600 the presence of a neurodegenerative disease, it is not reasonable to classify patients with isolated
601 neurobehavioral symptoms as having MCI or dementia. Consequently, cognitive symptoms are
602 required for inclusion in these categories in the syndromal staging scheme which is not limited to
603 individuals in the Alzheimer’s continuum.

604 Because only 4 biomarker profiles are eligible for numeric staging, the committee saw an
605 opportunity to streamline nomenclature. In this shorthand naming scheme the four Alzheimer’s
606 continuum biomarker profiles are labeled a-d:

- 607 a) A+T-N-
- 608 b) A+T-N+
- 609 c) A+T+N-
- 610 d) A+T+N+

611 Thus, individuals can be fully described by a single number/letter combination denoting numeric
612 clinical stage and biomarker profile- i.e. stage 1a, stage 2c, etc.

613

614 **11. Implementation**

615 The committee avoided making specific recommendations for many implementation
616 details. Our objective was to outline a general research framework that could be adapted by
617 individual research groups to their own research goals and environment. For example, different
618 research groups will employ the cognitive testing battery and cut points that best fit their own
619 research samples.

620 Evaluation of images may be by visual interpretation or by quantitative methods.
621 Methods of image quantification vary among research groups and are constantly being refined.
622 For tau PET, FDG and MRI the locations of the abnormalities are closely related to symptoms
623 and thus quantification methods should be sensitive to location¹⁷⁴. This is not the case for
624 amyloid PET, however, where ligand uptake appears diffusely throughout the cortex and its
625 topography is not directly related to symptoms^{63,175}. Cut points must be determined and age
626 norming biomarker cut points is controversial. Arguments have been made that
627 neurodegenerative biomarkers should be age normed because loss of neuropil is closely tied with
628 ageing. By contrast a strong argument can be made that any amyloid or pathologic tau detected
629 by a biomarker is abnormal regardless of age and thus age norming biomarker cutpoints is
630 inappropriate. The distinction between normal aging and age related disease has been debated
631 for decades and we do not presume to settle this here. This is ultimately a matter of selecting the
632 definitions that best serve the goal of those definitions..

633 Initiatives to standardize imaging and CSF biomarker measures exist , e.g., the Centiloid
634 Project¹⁷⁶, EADC-ADNI Harmonized Protocol for hippocampal segmentation¹⁷⁷, Alzheimer’s
635 Association Global Biomarkers Standardization Consortium¹⁷⁸ and International Federation of
636 Clinical Chemistry Working Group for CSF proteins¹⁷⁹. These efforts are the subject of ongoing
637 research but universal standards have not yet been established¹⁸⁰. For amyloid imaging, where
638 over a decade of data are available, different ligands, methods of image acquisition, and image
639 processing can result in different thresholds when compared to neuropathologic standards
640^{20,21,181}. These issues are currently less understood for pathologic tau imaging, but the questions
641 are equally tractable. The committee avoided taking a proscriptive approach to these
642 methodologic issues with the assumption that this was best left to expert work groups and
643 individual research centers.

644

645 **12. Genetics**

646 Genetics is not formally included in the research framework because our concept of
647 disease rests on neuropathologic change (that can be detected by biomarkers). In contrast genic
648 variants do not measure pathologic change but rather indicate an individual’s risk for developing
649 pathologic change. For example, inheritance of an *APOE* ϵ 4 allele neither defines the presence of
650 Alzheimer’s pathologic change or AD, nor does it indicate any particular stage of the disease.

651 The penetrance of the classic autosomal dominant mutations in *APP*, *PSEN1*, or *PSEN2*,
652 is essentially 100% and for this reason it could be argued that these mutations confer a
653 pathologic state that exists from conception. However, our definitions of AD pathologic change
654 and AD are based on biomarker evidence of disease, and our current biomarkers do not detect
655 pathologic processes in mutation carriers at very young age.

656

657 **13. Clinical research without biomarkers or with incomplete biomarker information**

658 Although incorporation of biomarkers into clinical research is already widespread and
659 growing, we recognize that in some settings it may not be feasible to obtain biomarkers, such as
660 areas without access to the necessary laboratories and imaging facilities, persons who are
661 reluctant to participate in research studies, or low and middle income countries without adequate
662 financial resources to support biomarker research. In other cases, a study may simply not be able
663 to justify the cost and participant burden, such as large, longitudinal, community-based cohort
664 studies that can tolerate the loss of diagnostic precision more than it can tolerate the bias that will
665 be introduced by modest participation rates in biomarker data collections. Finally, there may be
666 research studies that do not require biomarker evidence of AD to achieve the specific goals of the
667 research program such as studies of non-specific cognitive decline or dementia. Clinical research
668 without biomarkers therefore remains a valuable component of the research landscape that will
669 continue to provide important contributions.

670 Investigators involved in studies without biomarkers may wish to employ the traditional
671 terms possible or probable AD dementia for research participants who display a prototypical
672 syndrome (although these terms are not employed in the NIA AA research framework). Such
673 studies provide valuable information on the burden of disability. In both the 1984⁴⁹ and in the
674 2011 NIA AA¹ criteria for AD dementia a probabilistic assumption about AD pathologic
675 changes was inferred from the clinical presentation alone. AD neuropathologic change is
676 documented in 80%, or more of cases with a traditional clinical diagnosis of “AD dementia”⁵⁰⁻
677 ^{52,149,169,182-184}. However, 40% or more of cognitively unimpaired individuals over age 80 have
678 AD neuropathologic changes at autopsy or by biomarkers^{60,185,186}. Thus multi domain amnesic
679 dementia is reasonably good at identifying the presence of AD neuropathologic changes but is
680 incapable of identifying the absence of AD neuropathologic changes. This situation is analogous
681 to inferring cerebral infarction from a clinical diagnosis of stroke which can be made, albeit with

682 less diagnostic fidelity, in the absence of MRI based solely on a history and neurologic
683 examination. What cannot be done without MRI is make a diagnosis of subclinical or silent
684 stroke which is present in about 25% -30% of older persons¹⁸⁷⁻¹⁸⁹. Similarly, without biomarkers
685 one has no information on preclinical AD.

686 A related issue is that many studies will not have biomarker data for complete ATN
687 characterization of study participants. Because tau PET is relatively new, incomplete biomarker
688 information will occur in studies that use imaging for amyloid and neurodegenerative biomarker
689 characterization but lack tau PET. Participants in these studies may be categorized on the basis
690 of information that is available i.e. A+ places the participant in the “Alzheimer’s continuum”, A-
691 N- is normal biomarkers and A-N+ is suspected non-AD pathologic change (**Table 2**). A second
692 common situation where biomarker data will be incomplete is studies with MRI or FDG PET,
693 but without either PET or CSF molecular biomarkers for amyloid and tau. In this situation, while
694 MRI or FDG PET cannot be used to indicate the Alzheimer’s continuum, they can be highly
695 useful as measures of neurodegeneration which in turn is a powerful predictor of future clinical
696 course.

698 **14. Comparison to IWG**

699 In addition to the NIA AA, the other group that has established diagnostic guidelines for
700 AD that incorporate biomarkers is the international work group (IWG)^{64,74,75}. In the most recent
701 formal IWG document, published in 2014⁷⁵, the diagnosis of AD required the presence of
702 cognitive symptoms plus an AD biomarker signature. This could be either an abnormal amyloid
703 PET study or both abnormal CSF A β and tau. The NIA-AA research framework aligns with
704 these criteria in recognizing that neither hypometabolism nor atrophy are specific for AD and
705 thus cannot be used to support a diagnosis of AD. One difference though is that we regard CSF T
706 tau as a nonspecific marker of neuronal injury while the IWG 2014 treats the combination of
707 elevated T tau and low A β 42 as a biomarker signature that is specific for AD. In addition, tau
708 PET was not available in 2014 and thus was not included in the 2014 IWG criteria. In addition to
709 an AD biomarker signature, cognitive symptoms (specifically either a typical or a known
710 atypical AD phenotype) were also required to diagnose AD in IWG 2014. Individuals with
711 symptoms that fell short of dementia were labeled prodromal AD. Asymptomatic individuals
712 with deterministic autosomal dominant mutations and those with Down’s syndrome were an

713 exception and were labeled presymptomatic AD. Cognitively unimpaired individuals with an
714 abnormal amyloid PET study or a CSF study demonstrating both abnormal Ab and tau were
715 labeled “asymptomatic at risk for AD”. The most significant difference between 2014 IWG and
716 the NIA AA reproach framework is that, with the exception of genetically determined AD, the
717 2014 IWG diagnosis of AD in living persons required both biomarker and clinical findings and
718 therefore was not purely a biological construct.

719 In a paper on preclinical AD (published in 2016¹⁴ that may be considered part of the
720 IWG series), the diagnosis of AD was extended to include asymptomatic individuals with
721 biomarker evidence of both A β and tau. In contrast to IWG 2014, symptoms were no longer
722 required to reach a diagnosis of AD. Some differences with the NIA AA research framework
723 remain however. Preclinical AD 2016 defines a cognitively unimpaired individual with an
724 abnormal A β biomarker and normal tau (A+T-) as “at risk for AD, asymptomatic A+” and one
725 with A-T+ as “at risk for AD, asymptomatic T+”. We label the former Alzheimer’s pathologic
726 change and the latter suspected non Alzheimer’s pathologic change (in keeping with the NIA AA
727 pathologic definition of primary age related tauopathy as not Alzheimer’s disease^{100,101}).
728 Importantly, the NIA AA research framework uses “at risk” in a much different connotation,
729 referring to asymptomatic individuals with biomarker evidence of AD as having AD but being
730 “at risk” of subsequent cognitive decline (as opposed to “at risk” for AD). While differences
731 remain, IWG 2016 and the NIA research framework are aligned on the key issue that the
732 combination of an abnormal Ab and tau biomarker constitutes AD regardless of cognitive
733 symptoms and thus AD is a biologically defined entity throughout its continuum. This is an
734 important step toward harmonization.

735

736 **15. Future directions**

737 The design of this frame work poses many readily testable questions, questions that are
738 essential for validating the framework. The degree to which this framework adds value to the AD
739 research field will be determined by this research. Most of the biomarker data to date has been
740 largely been generated from highly educated people of European ancestry and it will be
741 necessary to evaluate this framework in diverse cohorts across a range of ethnic and socio-
742 economic groups¹⁹⁰. Similarly, much of the biomarker data to date has been generated from

743 highly selected clinic samples and evaluation of the framework in population based samples is
744 needed.

745 PET biomarkers of amyloid¹⁶⁻²¹ or pathologic tau^{120,121} deposition or MRI measures of
746 neurodegeneration/neuronal injury^{141,142} have been convincingly validated using tissue to tissue
747 or image to tissue comparisons. However, CSF biomarkers reflect a complex interaction among
748 many different physiologic rates and validation is more difficult than with imaging.

749 Development of physiologically based methods to validate CSF biomarkers would be extremely
750 helpful.

751 We recognize that current biomarkers used in AD research are either expensive or
752 invasive. The current generation of biomarkers is invaluable for discovery; however, widespread,
753 routine clinical use will be facilitated by the development of less expensive and invasive
754 biomarkers. For example, new ultrasensitive immunoassay techniques may enable measurement
755 of minute amounts of brain specific proteins in blood samples¹⁹¹. Some candidate blood
756 biomarkers such as neurofilament light protein show promise as non-disease specific tools to
757 identify neurodegeneration¹⁹². Plasma β -amyloid measures now show promise as a screening
758 test¹⁹³. In the future, less invasive/expensive blood-based biomarker tests along with genetics,
759 clinical and demographic information will likely play an important screening role in selecting
760 individuals for more expensive/invasive biomarker testing. This has been the history in other
761 biologically defined diseases such as cardiovascular disease (see for example the 2013
762 ACC/AHA Guideline on the Treatment of Blood Cholesterol to Reduce Atherosclerotic
763 Cardiovascular Risk in Adults)¹⁹⁴.

764 The NIA-AA research framework defines the presence and severity of AD by biomarkers
765 and treats cognitive impairment as a symptom/sign of the disease rather than the definition of the
766 disease. This approach should enhance efforts to understand both the biology of AD and the
767 multi factorial etiology of dementia which has been obscured to some extent in the past by
768 equating amnesic multi domain dementia with the presence of AD neuropathologic changes;
769 and, by equating the absence of the prototypical dementia syndrome with the absence of AD
770 neuropathologic changes. This approach can be adopted for other neurodegenerative disorders
771 when specific biomarkers of other proteinopathies (α -synuclein, TDP43 and 3R or 4R
772 tauopathies) become available.

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783 **Text Box #1 - Glossary**

Alzheimer disease (AD) – refers to β -amyloid plaques and pathologic tau deposits, defined in vivo by abnormal biomarkers of β -amyloid and pathologic tau (both are required)

Alzheimer’s pathologic change – early stage of Alzheimer’s continuum, defined in vivo by an abnormal β -amyloid biomarker with normal pathologic tau biomarker

Alzheimer’s continuum – refers to individuals with biomarker designation of either AD or Alzheimer’s pathologic change

Biomarker group – refers to three different pathologic processes a biomarker can measure: β -amyloid (A), pathologic tau (T) and neurodegeneration/neuronal injury (N)

Biomarker profile – binarizing each of the 3 biomarker groups into normal/abnormal (+/-) results in 8 possible biomarker profiles – e.g. A+T-N-, A+T+N-, etc.

Biomarker category – biomarker profiles are grouped into three possible biomarker categories: normal AD biomarkers, A-T-N-; Alzheimer’s continuum, any A+ combination; non Alzheimer’s pathologic change (i.e. SNAP), A-T+N-, A-T-N+, or A-T+N+.

Cognitively Unimpaired (CU) – cognitive performance in the non-impaired range for that individual – defined as not MCI or demented

Neurobehavioral symptoms – symptoms attributable to mood or behavioral disorders – e.g. anxiety, depression, apathy

Transitional cognitive decline –cognitive performance in the non-impaired range but with a subjective complaint of cognitive decline, a subtle decline measured on longitudinal cognitive testing, or both.

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Text Box #2 – changes from NIA AA 2011

The NIA AA research framework builds on but implements a number of changes from the 2011 NIA AA guidelines. In the research framework the term AD refers to pathologic processes and therefore in living persons is defined by biomarkers. Thus, the terms probable and possible AD based on clinical presentation alone are not used. AD is defined as a continuous process in both cognitive and biomarker domains (research framework) rather than as three separate clinical entities (2011). Characterization of pathologic processes by biomarkers is harmonized across the disease continuum in the research framework. Biomarkers are grouped into those of β -amyloid, pathologic tau, and neurodegeneration or neuronal injury; unlike 2011 where tau and neurodegeneration/neuronal injury biomarkers were placed into the same category. Unlike 2011, biomarker staging includes all members of the population - i.e. individuals in the Alzheimer's continuum, with non-AD pathologic changes and with normal biomarker profiles. While AD is defined by biomarkers, severity is staged by both biomarkers and cognitive symptoms. The research framework outlines 2 different systems for staging the severity of cognitive symptoms. A *syndromal categorical* scheme which largely preserves the three clinical categories from 2011 – cognitively unimpaired, MCI and dementia. This is applicable to all members of the population regardless of biomarker profile. A *numeric clinical* staging scheme that is applicable only to individuals in the Alzheimer's continuum.

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Table 1 - ATN biomarker grouping

(A) Aggregated β -amyloid or associated pathologic state

CSF Ab 42, or 42/40 ratio

Amyloid PET

(T) Aggregated tau (neurofibrillary tangles) or associated pathologic state

CSF phosphorylated tau

Tau PET

(N) Neurodegeneration or neuronal injury

Anatomic MRI

FDG PET

CSF total tau

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Table 2 – Biomarker profiles and categories

ATN profiles	Biomarker category	
A-T-N-	Normal AD biomarkers	
A+T-N-	Alzheimer’s pathologic change	Alzheimer’s continuum*
A+T-N+	Alzheimers pathologic change	
A+T+N-	Alzheimers disease	
A+T+N+	Alzheimers disease	
A-T+N-	Non- AD pathologic change	
A-T-N+	Non- AD pathologic change	
A-T+N+	Non- AD pathologic change	

Binarizing the 3 ATN biomarker types leads to 8 different biomarker “profiles”. Every individual can be placed into one of 3 general biomarker “categories” based on biomarker profiles: those with normal AD biomarkers (no color), those with non-AD pathologic change (dark grey), and those who are in the Alzheimer’s continuum (light grey). The term “Alzheimer’s continuum” is an umbrella term that denotes either Alzheimer’s pathologic change or AD.

*If an individual has an abnormal amyloid biomarker study, but a biomarker for tau is not available, then the individual is placed into the “Alzheimer’s continuum”

Table 3 – Syndromal staging of cognitive continuum: applicable to all members of a research cohort independent from biomarker profiles

Cognitively Unimpaired

Cognitive performance within expected range for that individual based on all available information. This may be based on clinical judgment and/ or on cognitive test performance (which may or may not be based on comparison to normative data with or without adjustments for age, education, occupation, sex, etc.).

Cognitive performance may be in the impaired/abnormal range based on population norms but performance is within the range expected for that individual

A sub set of cognitively unimpaired individuals may report subjective cognitive decline and/or demonstrate subtle decline on serial cognitive testing.

Mild cognitive Impairment

Cognitive performance below expected range for that individual based on all available information. This may be based on clinical judgment and/ or on cognitive test performance (which may or may not be based on comparison to -normative data with or without adjustments for age, education, occupation, sex, etc.).

Cognitive performance is usually in the impaired/abnormal range based on population norms but this is not required as long as is performance is below the range expected for that individual

In addition to evidence of cognitive impairment, evidence of decline in cognitive performance from baseline must also be present. This may be reported by the individual or by an observer (e.g. study partner) or observed by change on longitudinal cognitive testing/behavioral assessments or by a combination of these.

May be characterized by cognitive presentations that are not primarily amnesic*

Although cognitive impairment is the core clinical criteria, neurobehavioral disturbance may be a prominent feature of the clinical presentation**

Performs daily life activities independently but cognitive difficulty may result in detectable but mild functional impact on the more complex activities of daily life, either self-reported or corroborated by study partner.

Dementia

Substantial progressive cognitive impairment that affects several domains and/or neurobehavioral symptoms. May be reported by the individual or by an observer (e.g. study partner) or observed by change on longitudinal cognitive testing

Cognitive impairment and/or neurobehavioral symptoms result in clearly evident functional impact on daily life. No longer fully independent/requires assistance with daily life activities. This is the primary feature differentiating dementia from MCI.

May be subdivided into mild, moderate and severe

* For MCI and dementia: Cognitive impairment may be characterized by presentations that are not primarily amnesic

**For MCI and dementia: Although cognition is the core feature, neurobehavioral changes - e.g. changes in mood, anxiety, or motivation – commonly co-exist and may be a prominent part of the presentation.

Table 4. Descriptive nomenclature: syndromal cognitive staging combined with biomarkers

		Cognitive stage		
		Cognitively Unimpaired	Mild Cognitive Impairment	Dementia
Biomarker Profile	A⁻ T⁻ N⁻	normal AD biomarkers, cognitively unimpaired	normal AD biomarkers with MCI	normal AD biomarkers with dementia
	A⁺ T⁻ N⁻	Preclinical Alzheimer’s pathologic change	Alzheimer’s pathologic change with MCI	Alzheimer’s pathologic change with dementia
	A⁺ T⁺ N⁻	Preclinical Alzheimer’s disease	Alzheimer’s disease with MCI(Prodromal AD)	Alzheimer’s disease with dementia
	A⁺ T⁺ N⁺			
	A⁺ T⁻ N⁺	Alzheimer’s and concomitant suspected non Alzheimer’s pathologic change, cognitively unimpaired	Alzheimer’s and concomitant suspected non Alzheimer’s pathologic change with MCI	Alzheimer’s and concomitant suspected non Alzheimer’s pathologic change with dementia
	A⁻ T⁺ N⁻	non-Alzheimer’s pathologic change, cognitively unimpaired	non-Alzheimer’s pathologic change with MCI	non-Alzheimer’s pathologic change with dementia
	A⁻ T⁻ N⁺			
A⁻ T⁺ N⁺				

Table 5. Risk of short term cognitive decline based on biomarker profile and cognitive stage

Syndromal Cognitive Stage				
Biomarker Profile		Cognitively unimpaired	MCI	dementia
	A⁻ T⁻ N⁻	normal AD biomarkers, cognitively unimpaired	normal AD biomarkers with MCI	normal AD biomarkers with dementia
	A⁺ T⁻ N⁻	Preclinical Alzheimer's pathologic change	Alzheimer's pathologic change with MCI	Alzheimer's pathologic change with dementia
	A⁺ T⁺ N⁺	Alzheimer's and concomitant suspected non Alzheimer's pathologic change, cognitively unimpaired	Alzheimer's and concomitant suspected non Alzheimer's pathologic change with MCI	Alzheimer's and concomitant suspected non Alzheimer's pathologic change with dementia
	A⁺ T⁺ N⁻	Preclinical Alzheimer's disease	Alzheimer's disease with MCI (Prodromal AD)	Alzheimer's disease with dementia
	A⁺ T⁺ N⁺			

Non-Alzheimer's continuum profiles are not included in table because the risk associated with different combinations of T+N-, T+N+, T-N+ among A- individuals has not been established

- rate of short term clinical progression expected to be low
- rate of short term clinical progression expected to be high

Table 6: Numeric clinical staging - applicable only to individuals in the Alzheimer’s pathologic continuum

Stage 1

Performance within expected range on objective cognitive tests. Cognitive test performance may be compared to normative data of the investigators choice, with or without adjustment (again the choice of the investigators) for age, sex, education, etc.*

Does not report recent decline in cognition or new onset of neurobehavioral symptoms of concern

No evidence of recent cognitive decline or new neurobehavioral symptoms by report of an observer (e.g. study partner) or by longitudinal cognitive testing if available

Stage 2

Normal performance within expected range on objective cognitive tests.

Transitional cognitive decline: decline in previous level of cognitive function which may involve any cognitive domain(s) (i.e. not exclusively memory).

May be documented through subjective report of cognitive decline that is of concern to the participant

Represents a change from individual baseline within past 1-3 years, and persistent for at least 6 months

May be corroborated by informant but not required

OR may be documented by evidence of subtle decline on longitudinal cognitive testing but not required

Or may be documented by both subjective report of decline as well as objective evidence on longitudinal testing

Although cognition is the core feature, mild neurobehavioral changes - e.g. changes in mood, anxiety, or motivation – may co-exist. In some individuals the primary complaint may be neurobehavioral rather than cognitive. Neurobehavioral symptoms should have a clearly defined recent onset which persists and cannot be explained by life events. **

No functional impact on daily life activities

Stage 3

Performance in the impaired/abnormal range on objective cognitive tests.

Evidence of decline from baseline, documented by the individual's report or by observer (e.g. study partner) report or by change on longitudinal cognitive testing or neurobehavioral behavioral assessments.

May be characterized by cognitive presentations that are not primarily amnesic***

Performs daily life activities independently but cognitive difficulty may result in detectable but mild functional impact on the more complex activities of daily life, i.e., may take more time or be less efficient but still can complete, either self-reported or corroborated by study partner.

Stage 4

Mild dementia

Substantial progressive cognitive impairment affecting several domains, and/or neurobehavioral disturbance. Documented by the individual's report or by observer (e.g. study partner) report or by change on longitudinal cognitive testing.

Clearly evident functional impact on daily life, affecting mainly instrumental activities. No longer fully independent/requires occasional assistance with daily life activities.

Stage 5

Moderate dementia

Progressive cognitive impairment or neurobehavioral changes Extensive functional impact on daily life with impairment in basic activities. No longer independent and requires frequent assistance with daily life activities.

Stage 6

Severe dementia

Progressive cognitive impairment or neurobehavioral changes. Clinical interview may not be possible.

Complete dependency due to severe functional impact on daily life with impairment in basic activities, including basic self-care.

* For stages 1-6: Cognitive test performance may be compared to normative data of the investigators choice, with or without adjustment (choice of the investigators) for age, sex, education, etc.

**For stages 2-6: Although cognition is the core feature, neurobehavioral changes - e.g. changes in mood, anxiety, or motivation – may co-exist.

***For stages 3-6: Cognitive impairment may be characterized by presentations that are not primarily amnesic

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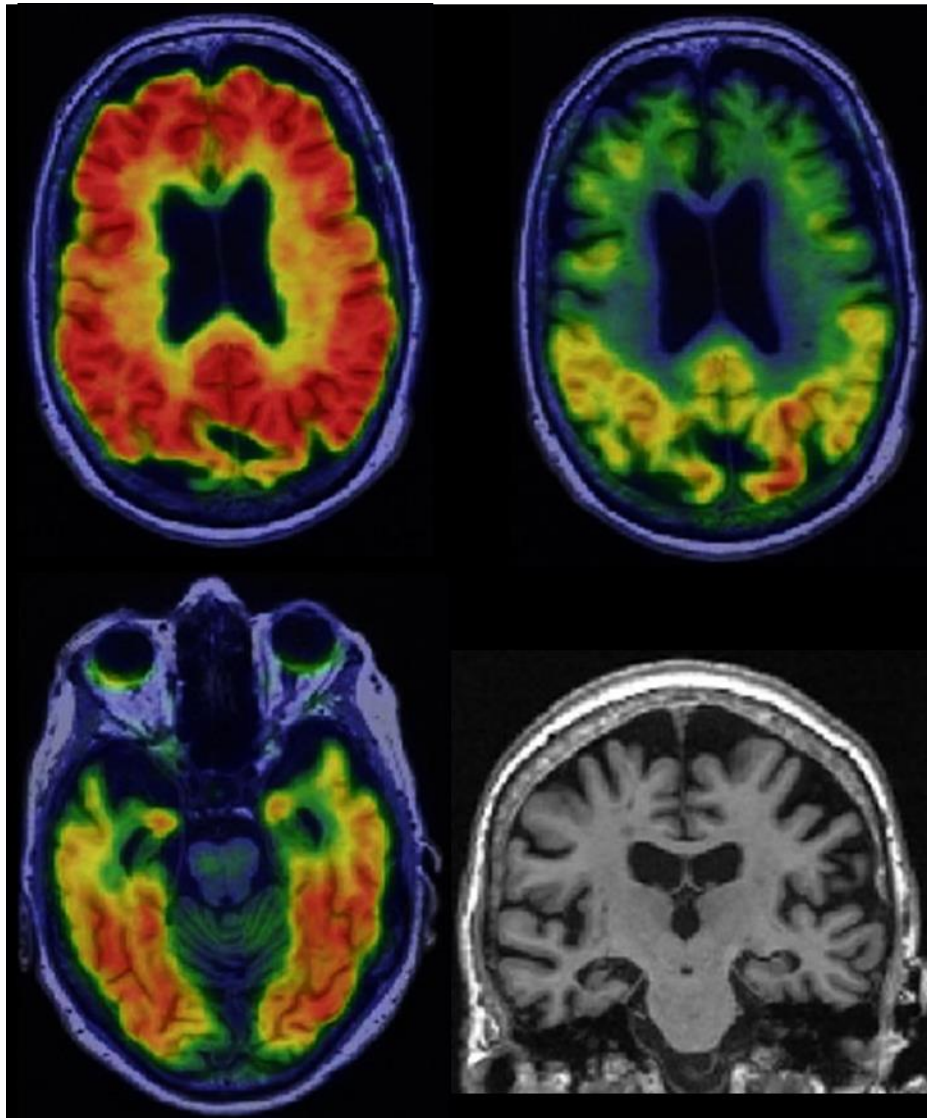


Fig 1. Alzheimer’s disease with dementia. 75 yo woman with amnesic multi domain dementia, abnormal amyloid PET (a), tau PET (b,c) and atrophy on MRI (d). Biomarker profile A+T+N+.

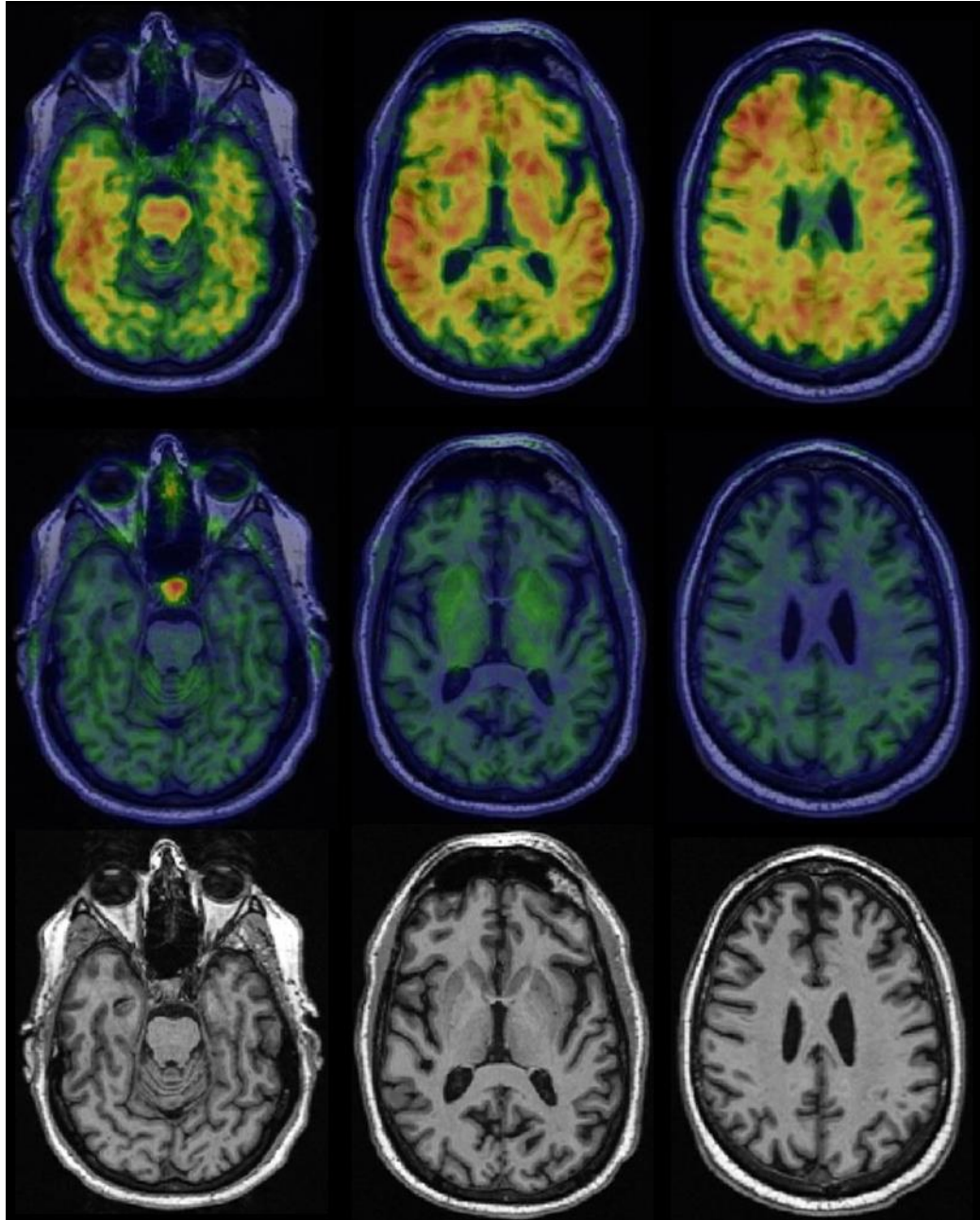


Fig 2. Preclinical Alzheimer's pathologic change. Cognitively unimpaired 67 yo man. Abnormal amyloid PET (top row), no uptake on tau PET (middle row), no atrophy on MR (bottom row). Biomarker profile A+T-N- .

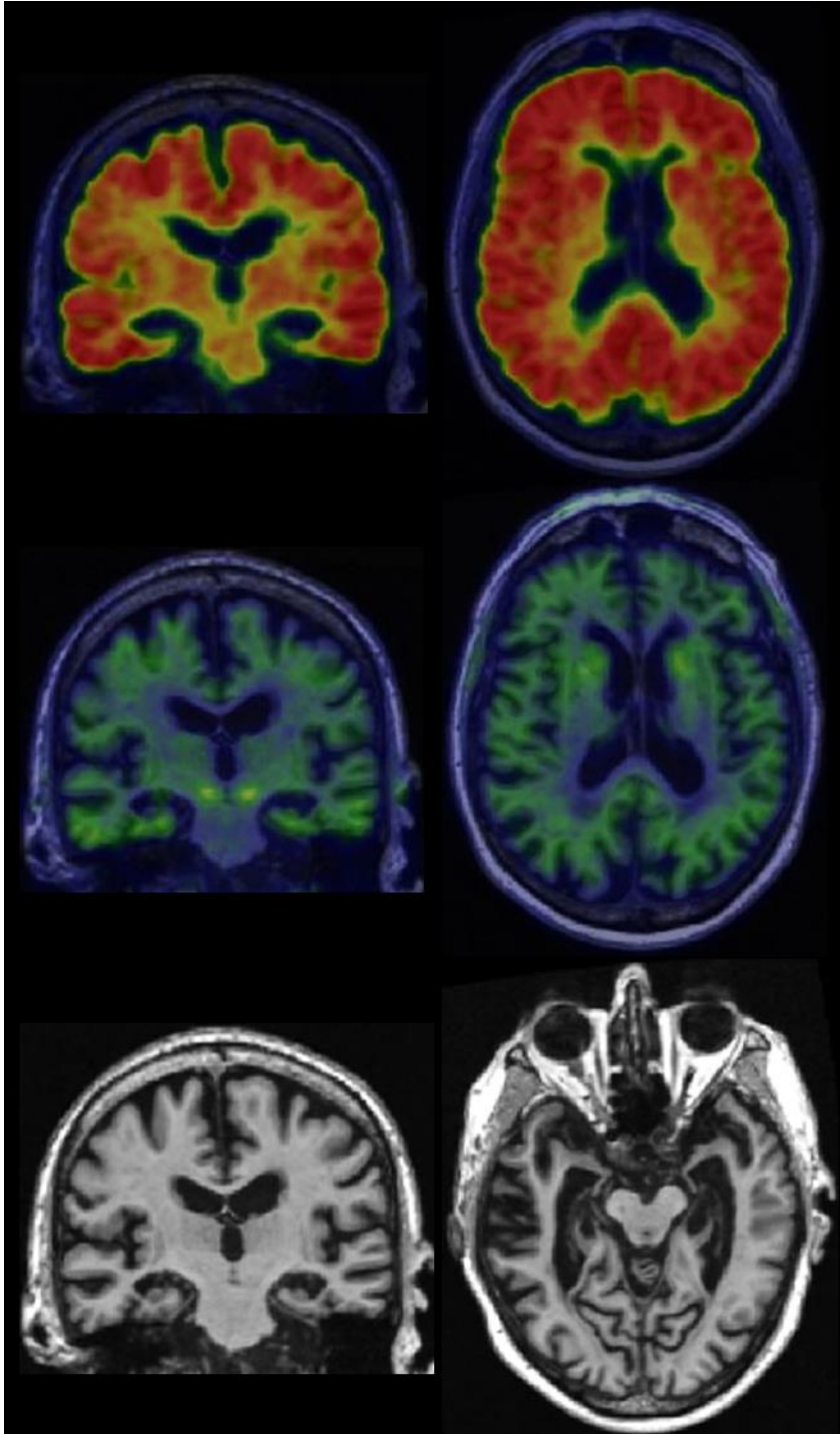


Fig 3. Alzheimer’s and concomitant suspected non Alzheimer’s pathologic change with dementia. 91 yo, M, severe amnesic dementia, abnormal amyloid PET (a,b), normal tau PET 9 (c,d) and severe medial temporal atrophy on MRI (e,f). The biomarker profile (A+ T- N+) suggests the patient has Alzheimer’s pathologic change (A+T-) plus an additional degenerative condition (N+), likely hippocampal sclerosis.