Policy Forum

DOI: 10.5582/irdr.2024.01026

Guardians of memory: The urgency of early dementia screening in an aging society

 $\bold { X}$ iqi Hu¹, Ya-nan Ma¹, Kenji Karako², Peipei Song^{3,*}, Wei Tang^{2,3}, Ying Xia^{1,*}

¹ Department of Neurosurgery, Haikou Affiliated Hospital of Central South University Xiangya School of Medicine, Haikou, China;

² Department of Surgery, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan;

³ National Center for Global Health and Medicine, Tokyo, Japan.

SUMMARY The global aging population has led to a significant rise in the prevalence of age-related noncommunicable diseases such as dementia and other cognitive disorders. In 2019, there were 57.4 million people with dementia worldwide, and this number is projected to triple by 2050. Intervening in and managing 12 potentially modifiable dementia risk factors can prevent or delay the onset and progression of about 40% of dementia cases. Neuroimaging, biomarkers, and advanced neuropsychological testing offer promising pathways for the early detection of dementia. Emphasis should be placed on educating the public about the importance of brain health and the early signs of cognitive impairment, as well as promoting dementia prevention measures. Adopting a healthy lifestyle - including a balanced diet, regular physical exercise, active social engagement, cognitive activities, and avoiding smoking and excessive alcohol consumption - can help reduce the risk of cognitive decline and prevent cognitive disorders. Government policies on dementia prevention and health care, along with early and regular dementia screening programs, can enhance the early identification and management of individuals at risk. In addition, integrating cognitive health assessments into routine medical check-ups is essential for the early screening and management of dementia.

Keywords dementia, aging, biomarker, neuroimaging, neuropsychological testing, diagnosis

The global elderly population is undergoing a notable expansion in both size and proportion. According to projections by the World Health Organization, the number of individuals age 60 and above is expected to reach 1.4 billion by 2030, and this figure is forecasted to rise to approximately 2.1 billion by 2050. Moreover, from 2020 to 2050, the number of individuals age 80 and above is predicted to double, reaching approximately 426 million (*1*). As individuals age, the incidence of agerelated non-communicable diseases like dementia and other cognitive disorders rises notably. Statistics indicate that in 2019, there were 57.4 million dementia patients worldwide, with projections suggesting this figure will triple by 2050 (*2,3*). Presently, almost 60% of dementia patients reside in low- and middle-income countries, and this proportion is expected to climb to 71% by 2050 (*4*). Dementia has emerged as the seventh leading cause of death globally, accounting for approximately \$1.3 trillion in societal costs (*5*). A point worth noting is that around 75% of dementia cases worldwide are not diagnosed in a timely manner (*6*). Moreover, 80% of the population expresses concerns about developing dementia in the

future, with approximately one-quarter believing it to be unpreventable (*4*).

As the population ages, there has been a notable surge in dementia cases. Most people believe that a definitive diagnosis will not change clinical management; therefore, the majority of dementia patients do not undergo relevant pathological examinations. A point worth noting is that the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) recently approved two monoclonal antibody therapies targeting amyloid for individuals with mild cognitive impairment or mild dementia (*7*). The findings suggest that removing amyloid could alleviate the decline in cognitive function in individuals with mild dementia (*8,9*). Moreover, a 2020 study revealed that intervening in and managing 12 modifiable risk factors for dementia could prevent or delay its onset and progression by around 40%, and especially in regions with a high prevalence of dementia (*10*). Hence, early identification of at-risk individuals through diagnostic techniques could potentially alter the course of dementia progression.

Research has revealed the pathology of the disease in that amyloid deposits begin accumulating at least

Biomarkers	Significance	Key findings
Neuroimaging biomarkers Amyloid-PET/PiB PET	Identifying amyloid pathology in the brains of patients with AD.	Appears approximately 20 years before the earliest clinical symptoms of AD (13) .
Tau-PET	Identifying tau accumulation as a biomarker for disease staging.	Reflects the progression of AD pathology and is associated with disease severity (14) .
FP-CIT SPECT	Brain dopamine transporter imaging is highly sensitive and specific for diagnosis.	A mature biomarker for diagnosing $DLB(15)$.
PK-PET	Shows the distribution of neuroinflammation in the brain across different types of dementia.	Neuroinflammation is a part of the pathophysiology of familial FTD (16).
Structural MRI	Evaluating the decline in brain structural regions facilitates dementia subtyping.	Structural decline occurred 4.7 years before symptom onset (13) .
Functional MRI	Demonstrates differences in resting-state functional connectivity and identifies specific networks and regions affected in each type of dementia.	Abnormal activity in the DMN in AD (17) .
FDG-PET	Indicates reduced local metabolism in the brain.	Metabolic reductions can be detected as early as more than 10 years before symptom onset $(11, 13)$.
Fluid biomarkers (CSF, blood) $A\beta42, A\beta42/A\beta40$	$A\beta$ deposition.	The ratio of $A\beta42/A\beta40$ in plasma has a high concordance with the CSF $A\beta$ 42/ $A\beta$ 40 ratio and amyloid PET status (18).
P-tau231, P-tau181, P-tau271, P -tau 205	Neurofibrillary tangle formation.	P-tau181 and P-tau271 start to increase as early as 20 years before symptom onset (19) .
T-tau, BD-tau, NfL	Synaptic dysfunction/neural degeneration.	Increased levels of NfL in CSF serve as a biomarker of neurodegeneration and can be assessed in blood (20) .
GFAP	Neuroinflammation.	The increase in plasma GFAP concentration in patients with AD is greater than that in CSF (21) .
Neuropsychology IQCODE, p-AD8, CAMCI	Self-administered tools.	The sensitivity or specificity in evaluating mild cognitive impairment is over 80% (22).
MMSE, MoCA, HDS-R, DemTect, MES, MEFO, CANTAB-PAL	Interview tools.	

Table 1. Neuroimaging, fluid biomarkers, and neuropsychological screening for dementia

Abbreviations: AD, Alzheimer's disease; CANTAB-PAL, Cambridge Neuropsychological Test Automated Battery-Paired Associates Learning; CAMCI, Computerized Assessment of Mild Cognitive Impairment; CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; DLB, dementia with Lewy bodies; DMN, default mode network; FDG, ¹⁸F-Fluorodeoxyglucose; FTD, frontotemporal dementia; GFAP, glial fibrillary acidic protein; HDS-R, Revised Hasegawa's Dementia Scale; IQCODE, Informant Questionnaire on Cognitive Decline in the Elderly; LMT, Logical Memory Test; MEFO, Memory, Fluency, and Orientation; MES, Memory and Executive Screening; MMSE, Mini–mental State Examination; MoCA, Montreal Cognitive Assessment; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; NfL, neurofilament light; PiB PET, Pittsburgh compound B positron emission tomography; PK-PET, 11C-PK11195 positron emission tomography; FP-CIT, ¹²³I-Ioflupane.

10 to 20 years before the onset of symptoms. By the time clinical manifestations of dementia appear, the disease is already at an advanced stage (*11*). In Europe, raising awareness about Alzheimer's disease (AD), implementing early screening, and facilitating prompt diagnosis are considered essential steps to implementing future disease management strategies, improving patient quality of life, and addressing the growing burden of the condition (*12*). Researchers are currently working to explore a range of new methods for early detection and diagnosis aimed at preventing and delaying the clinical progression of dementia. Recent technological advances have revolutionized the early diagnosis of cognitive impairment (Table 1).

Neuroimaging, biomarkers, and advanced

neuropsychological testing offer promising ways to detect dementia in its early stages. Significant progress has been made in developing neuroimaging methods for AD biomarkers. These advances offer great potential in identifying underlying pathophysiological changes associated with dementia, such as structural decline (*e.g*., volume reduction and cortical thinning), functional decline (*e.g*., fMRI activity and network connectivity), decreased connectivity (*e.g*., diffusion anisotropy), and pathological accumulation (*e.g*., amyloid and tau positron emission tomography (PET)) (*13,23*) (as shown in Figure 1). Molecular imaging with PET is used to identify amyloid plaque deposition and tau tangle pathology patterns, thereby aiding in the diagnosis of AD (*24*). Molecular imaging with PET can not only reveal the

Figure 1. Neuroimaging assessment of Aβ aggregation, metabolism, and structural changes prior to the onset of Alzheimer's disease symptoms.

pathological features of AD that begin decades before the onset of symptoms and assess the loss of dopaminergic terminals in Parkinson's disease, but it can also, with the development of new tracers for neuroinflammation and synaptic density, further elucidate the pathobiological changes characteristic of dementia (*14*). The further development of neuroimaging techniques requires more longitudinal studies with larger sample sizes, combined with advanced imaging modeling methods (such as artificial intelligence (AI)), to establish their clinical utility.

Using one or more AT(N) biomarkers has proven to be advantageous in diagnosing early dementia (*25*). Fluid biomarkers are less invasive and have a sensitivity similar to that of PET imaging in diagnosing dementia. By detecting forms of Aβ, tau, neuroinflammatory proteins, as well as markers of neuronal dysfunction and degeneration in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) and plasma, AD can be distinguished and diagnosed from other neurodegenerative diseases, and these fluid biomarkers have significant value in predicting future cognitive deterioration (*26*). The soluble properties and posttranslational modifications of tau in CSF and plasma are emerging as sensitive and reliable biomarkers for detecting tau pathology in AD. Research has shown that pThr181, pThr217, and pThr231 tau can accurately differentiate between amyloid PET-positive and amyloid PET-negative individuals (*27*). These changes help reflect the alterations in neuronal tau metabolism in the preclinical stages of AD when Aβ has aggregated (*28*).

Glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) expressed by astrocytes in plasma is currently the only AD-related biomarker that outperforms its corresponding CSF measurement (*21*) . Another biomarker is neurofilament light (NFL), which is a component of the axonal cytoskeleton. NFL is released during axonal injury, leading to increased concentrations in CSF and blood. It has been found to be elevated in the CSF and plasma of individuals with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and preclinical AD (*20*). Elevated levels of structural proteins appear to reflect synaptic loss during AD and neurodegeneration (*29*). In the CSF of patients with AD,

Figure 2. The pathological changes of Alzheimer's disease in cerebrospinal fluid, including amyloid deposition, tau accumulation, neuroinflammation, and neuronal degeneration.

Figure 3. The occurrence of plasma tau accumulation, synaptic dysfunction, and neuronal degeneration before the onset of dementia symptoms.

synaptic proteins such as neuronal pentraxin 2 (NPTX2), neurogranin, and SNAP-25 are changed and may serve as biological markers for early diagnosis of AD (*30*). Therefore, monitoring fluid biomarkers helps reflect Aβ aggregation, glial activation, tau metabolic changes, synaptic dysfunction, and neurodegenerative changes in patients with preclinical dementia (*21,31*) (as shown in Figure 2,3). Using established and emerging biomarker technologies can reveal the mechanisms underlying AD and identify the earliest biological changes in the brain, marking different aspects of AD pathology for diagnostic and prognostic purposes.

Moreover, digital health technologies, including wearable devices and mobile applications, aid in the continuous monitoring of cognitive function (*32*). Digital spatial navigation can monitor early behavioral changes associated with dementia, while gait measurements facilitate early screening for dementia patients exhibiting prominent motor impairments such as dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB), vascular dementia (VaD), and Parkinson's disease dementia (PDD) (*33*). AI and machine learning algorithms are used to analyze the large datasets generated by these technologies, thus enhancing the sensitivity, accuracy, and specificity of early diagnosis (*34,35*).

Preventive measures are equally crucial in addressing cognitive impairment. At the individual level, adopting a healthy diet, engaging in regular physical exercise,

maintaining active social interactions, participating in cognitive activities, refraining from smoking, and abstaining from alcohol help mitigate the risk of cognitive decline (*36*). Public health initiatives should stress the significance of brain health and early signs of cognitive impairment and advocate for preventive measures against dementia. Notably, governments implementing healthcare policies for dementia prevention and conducting early and regular dementia screening programs aid in early identification and management of individuals at risk (*37*). Moreover, integrating cognitive health assessments into routine medical check-ups is essential for early screening and dementia management.

As we address the challenges of an aging society, what is imperative is to prioritize early diagnosis and prevention strategies for cognitive impairment. Use of new technologies for early detection and promoting preventive measures can significantly enhance individuals' quality of life and alleviate the societal and economic burdens associated with cognitive impairment. Collaborative efforts among healthcare providers, policymakers, and the medical technology industry will be vital in effectively managing cognitive impairment in our aging population.

Funding: This work was supported by a grant from the Hainan Provincial Center for Clinical Medical Research on Cerebrovascular Disease (NO. LCYX202309) and Grants-in-Aid from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports, and Culture of Japan (24K14216).

Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

References

- 1. World Health Organization. Ageing and health. *https:// www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/ageing-andhealth* (accessd May 25,2024)
- 2. GBD 2019 Dementia Forecasting Collaborators. Estimation of the global prevalence of dementia in 2019 and forecasted prevalence in 2050: An analysis for the global burden of disease study 2019. Lancet Public Health. 2022; 7:e105-e125.
- Wang C, Song P, Niu Y. The management of dementia worldwide: A review on policy practices, clinical guidelines, end-of-life care, and challenge along with aging population. Biosci Trends. 2022; 16:119-129.
- 4. Alzheimer's Disease International. Dementia facts & figures. *https://www.alzint.org/about/dementia-factsfigures/* (accessd May 25,2024)
- 5. World Health Organization. Dementia. *https://www.who. int/news-room/fact-sheets/ detail/dementia* (accessd May 25,2024)
- 6. Gauthier S R-NP, Morais JA, Webster C. World Alzheimer's report 2021: Journey through the diagnosis of dementia. Alzheimer's Disease International. *https://www. alzint.org/u/World-Alzheimer-Report-2021.pdf* (accessd May 25,2024)
- 7. Pittock RR, Aakre JA, Castillo AM, Ramanan VK,

Kremers WK, Jack CR, Jr., Vemuri P, Lowe VJ, Knopman DS, Petersen RC, Graff-Radford J, Vassilaki M. Eligibility for anti-amyloid treatment in a population-based study of cognitive aging. Neurology. 2023; 101:e1837-e1849.

- 8. Marasco RA. Current and evolving treatment strategies for the Alzheimer disease continuum. Am J Manag Care. 2020; 26:S167-S176.
- 9. Cummings J, Fox N. Defining disease modifying therapy for Alzheimer's disease. J Prev Alzheimers Dis. 2017; 4:109-115.
- 10. Livingston G, Huntley J, Sommerlad A, *et al*. Dementia prevention, intervention, and care: 2020 report of the Lancet Commission. Lancet. 2020; 396:413-446.
- 11. Bateman RJ, Xiong C, Benzinger TL, *et al*. Clinical and biomarker changes in dominantly inherited Alzheimer's disease. N Engl J Med. 2012; 367:795-804.
- 12. Hampel H KR. Imperative of Alzheimer's disease awareness,early screening & diagnosis in Europe. Government Gazette. 2020; 1:9.
- 13. Gordon BA, Blazey TM, Su Y, *et al*. Spatial patterns of neuroimaging biomarker change in individuals from families with autosomal dominant Alzheimer's disease: A longitudinal study. Lancet Neurol. 2018; 17:241-250.
- 14. Chouliaras L, O'Brien JT. The use of neuroimaging techniques in the early and differential diagnosis of dementia. Mol Psychiatry. 2023; 28:4084-4097.
- 15. Surendranathan A, O'Brien JT. Clinical imaging in dementia with Lewy bodies. Evid Based Ment Health. 2018; 21:61-65.
- 16. Malpetti M, Rittman T, Jones PS, Cope TE, Passamonti L, Bevan-Jones WR, Patterson K, Fryer TD, Hong YT, Aigbirhio FI, O'Brien JT, Rowe JB. *In vivo* PET imaging of neuroinflammation in familial frontotemporal dementia. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 2021; 92:319-322.
- 17. Schultz AP, Chhatwal JP, Hedden T, Mormino EC, Hanseeuw BJ, Sepulcre J, Huijbers W, LaPoint M, Buckley RF, Johnson KA, Sperling RA. Phases of hyperconnectivity and hypoconnectivity in the default mode and salience networks track with amyloid and tau in clinically normal individuals. J Neurosci. 2017; 37:4323- 4331.
- 18. Li Y, Schindler SE, Bollinger JG, *et al*. Validation of plasma amyloid-beta 42/40 for detecting Alzheimer disease amyloid plaques. Neurology. 2022; 98:e688-e699.
- 19. Barthelemy NR, Li Y, Joseph-Mathurin N, *et al*. A soluble phosphorylated tau signature links tau, amyloid and the evolution of stages of dominantly inherited Alzheimer's disease. Nat Med. 2020; 26:398-407.
- 20. Ashton NJ, Janelidze S, Al Khleifat A, *et al*. A multicentre validation study of the diagnostic value of plasma neurofilament light. Nat Commun. 2021; 12:3400.
- 21. Self WK, Holtzman DM. Emerging diagnostics and therapeutics for Alzheimer disease. Nat Med. 2023; 29:2187-2199.
- 22. Zhuang L, Yang Y, Gao J. Cognitive assessment tools for mild cognitive impairment screening. J Neurol. 2021; 268:1615-1622.
- 23. Marquez F, Yassa MA. Neuroimaging biomarkers for Alzheimer's disease. Mol Neurodegener. 2019; 14:21.
- 24. Chapleau M, Iaccarino L, Soleimani-Meigooni D, Rabinovici GD. The role of amyloid PET in imaging neurodegenerative disorders: A review. J Nucl Med. 2022; 63:13S-19S.
- 25. Hampel H, Cummings J, Blennow K, Gao P, Jack CR, Jr., Vergallo A. Developing the ATX(N) classification for use

across the Alzheimer disease continuum. Nat Rev Neurol. 2021; 17:580-589.

- 26. Hampel H, Hu Y, Cummings J, *et al*. Blood-based biomarkers for Alzheimer's disease: Current state and future use in a transformed global healthcare landscape. Neuron. 2023; 111:2781-2799.
- 27. Suárez-Calvet M, Karikari TK, Ashton NJ, *et al*. Novel tau biomarkers phosphorylated at T181, T217 or T231 rise in the initial stages of the preclinical Alzheimer's continuum when only subtle changes in Abeta pathology are detected. EMBO Mol Med. 2020; 12:e12921.
- 28. Chhatwal JP, Schultz AP, Dang Y, Ostaszewski B, Liu L, Yang HS, Johnson KA, Sperling RA, Selkoe DJ. Plasma N-terminal tau fragment levels predict future cognitive decline and neurodegeneration in healthy elderly individuals. Nat Commun. 2020; 11:6024.
- 29. Halbgebauer S, Steinacker P, Hengge S, Oeckl P, Abu Rumeileh S, Anderl-Straub S, Lombardi J, Von Arnim CAF, Giese A, Ludolph AC, Otto M. CSF levels of SNAP-25 are increased early in Creutzfeldt-Jakob and Alzheimer's disease. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 2022:jnnp-2021-328646..
- 30. Galasko D, Xiao M, Xu D, Smirnov D, Salmon DP, Dewit N, Vanbrabant J, Jacobs D, Vanderstichele H, Vanmechelen E; Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI); Worley P. Synaptic biomarkers in CSF aid in diagnosis, correlate with cognition and predict progression in MCI and Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimers Dement (N Y). 2019; 5:871-882.
- 31. Jia J, Ning Y, Chen M, *et al*. Biomarker changes during 20 years preceding Alzheimer's disease. N Engl J Med. 2024; 390:712-722.
- 32. Wilson S, Ardle RM, Tolley C, Slight S. Usability and acceptability of wearable technology in the early detection of dementia. Alzheimers Dement. 2022; 18 Suppl 2:e059820.
- 33. Cepukaityte G, Newton C, Chan D. Early detection of diseases causing dementia using digital navigation and gait measures: A systematic review of evidence. Alzheimers Dement. 2024; 20:3054-3073.
- 34. Li R, Wang X, Lawler K, Garg S, Bai Q, Alty J. Applications of artificial intelligence to aid early detection of dementia: A scoping review on current capabilities and future directions. J Biomed Inform. 2022; 127:104030.
- 35. Bender SWB, Dreisler MW, Zhang M, Kaestel-Hansen J, Hatzakis NS. SEMORE: SEgmentation and MORphological fingErprinting by machine learning automates super-resolution data analysis. Nat Commun. 2024; 15:1763.
- 36. Sabia S, Singh-Manoux A. Healthy lifestyles for dementia prevention. BMJ. 2023; 380:117.
- 37. Hampel H, Vergallo A, Iwatsubo T, Cho M, Kurokawa K, Wang H, Kurzman HR, Chen C. Evaluation of major national dementia policies and health-care system preparedness for early medical action and implementation. Alzheimers Dement. 2022; 18:1993-2002.

Received May 10, 2024; Revised June 12, 2024; Accepted June 16, 2024.

**Address correspondence to:*

Ying Xia, Department of Neurosurgery, Haikou Affiliated Hospital of Central South University Xiangya School of Medicine, Haikou 570208, China. E-mail: xiaying008@163.com

Peipei Song, National Center for Global Health and Medicine, Tokyo 162-8655, Japan.

E-mail: psong@it.ncgm.go.jp

Released online in J-STAGE as advance publication June 18, 2024.