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On the design of early phase Alzheimer's clinical trials with cerebrospinal fluid tau outcomes

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Abstract

Background/Aims: The focus of Alzheimer's disease (AD) studies has shifted to earlier disease stages, including mild cognitive impairment. Biomarker inclusion criteria are often incorporated into mild cognitive impairment clinical trials to identify individuals with "prodromal AD" to ensure appropriate drug targets and enrich for participants likely to develop AD dementia. The use of these eligibility criteria may affect study power.

Methods: We investigated outcome variability and study power in the setting of proof-of-concept prodromal AD trials that incorporate cerebrospinal fluid levels of total tau (t-tau) and phosphorylated (p-tau) as primary outcomes and how differing biomarker inclusion criteria affect power. We used data from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative to model trial scenarios and estimate the variance and within-subject correlation of total and phosphorylated tau. These estimates were then used to investigate the differences in study power for trials considering these two surrogate outcomes.

Results: Patient characteristics were similar for all eligibility criteria. The lowest outcome variance and highest within-subject correlation were obtained when phosphorylated tau was used as an eligibility criterion, compared to amyloid beta or total tau, regardless of whether total tau or phosphorylated tau were used as primary outcomes. Power increased when eligibility criteria were broadened to allow for enrollment of subjects with either low amyloid beta or high phosphorylated tau.

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[*]Data used in preparation of this manuscript were obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease Cooperative Study legacy database

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

JDG has consulted for SiteRx. The remaining authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Conclusions: Specific biomarker inclusion criteria may impact statistical power in trials using total tau or phosphorylated tau as the primary outcome. In concert with other important considerations such as treatment target and population of clinical interest, these results may have implications to the integrity and efficiency of prodromal AD trial designs.

Keywords

Alzheimer's disease; inclusion criteria; biomarkers; trial design

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common cause of dementia, cognitive impairment that impacts daily life[1]. It is estimated that 50 million people had AD in 2018[2]. No disease-modifying therapies are available for AD; thus, the US and other nations have developed plans to address AD, most of which mandate the need for research to develop treatments to slow or stop the disease progression[3].

AD is characterized by deposition in the brain of two hallmark neuropathologies: neuritic plaques and neurofibrillary tangles[4]. Plaques are formed by the extracellular accumulation of the amyloid beta protein; neurofibrillary tangles result from hyperphosphorylation of the microtubule associated protein tau. These proteins can be measured in cerebrospinal fluid or visualized in the brain through positron emission tomography scans[5]. Studies using these biomarkers demonstrate that AD pathology develops over time, beginning prior to the diagnosis of dementia. Amyloid accumulation may be detectable before tau and may peak earlier in disease[6]. In contrast, neuropathological[7, 8] and biomarker[9, 10] studies independently support that tangle deposition more closely correlates with disease progression. Thus, tau phosphorylation and spreading may represent ideal therapeutic targets in AD[11, 12], while tau-related outcome measures may be generally useful for trials of potential disease-modifying therapies.

Efforts to intervene earlier in disease have led to the conduct of trials enrolling participants with mild cognitive impairment, cognitive impairment that does not affect activities of daily living. The pattern of cerebrospinal fluid changes associated with AD, specifically lower levels of amyloid beta and higher levels of total and phosphorylated tau are associated with progression to AD dementia in patients with mild cognitive impairment[13, 14]. Based on these findings, diagnostic criteria for mild cognitive impairment due to AD[15], or prodromal AD[16], were proposed for patients with mild cognitive impairment and a biomarker profile consistent with AD[17, 18]. Though this general diagnostic construct has been applied in several clinical trials[19–22], the specific biomarker criteria utilized have varied from study to study. Implementing different inclusion criteria can affect participant eligibility and, in turn, affect study enrollment and power[23].

Investigators would benefit from additional information to use in designing prodromal AD trials. In particular, added data examining the distribution of longitudinal changes in tau biomarker outcomes are needed, as well as information on how specific biomarker inclusion criteria may impact longitudinal observations. These decisions have clear implications to early-stage studies, such as phase 2 proof-of-concept trials where surrogate biomarkers are

commonly used as primary outcomes and go/no-go decision points for larger confirmatory phase 3 studies. These trial designs require estimates of within-subject changes over time and between-subject variability for biomarker outcomes to ensure adequate power and sample size calculations. For trials of anti-tau therapies[24] with cerebrospinal fluid measures of total and phosphorylated tau as the primary outcomes, few such data are available.

In this study, we sought to use available longitudinal data to instruct designs and quantify plausible power in phase 2 proof-of-concept trials in prodromal AD for which the primary outcome is total or phosphorylated tau measured in cerebrospinal fluid. Our goal was to provide data for study planning, including the variance and within-subject correlations. We also set out to investigate how various inclusion criteria impact study power. The design and statistical methods were selected to reflect those commonly used in prodromal AD trials[19, 21, 25, 26].

Methods

Study population

Data used in preparation of this manuscript were obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database (adni.loni.usc.edu) on March 9, 2020 from http://adni.loni.usc.edu/data-samples/access-data/. For up-to-date information, see www.adni-info.org. Our study included participants from ADNI-1, ADNI-2, and ADNI-GO with at least two cerebrospinal fluid measurements, one of which had to be obtained at baseline. Further, participants must have been eligible based on at least one of the cerebrospinal fluid eligibility criteria (as described in the following section) and must have had a diagnosis of amnestic mild cognitive impairment at baseline. ADNI implemented Petersen diagnostic criteria for mild cognitive impairment[27], including requiring subjective memory complaints but little or no impairment in daily function[28]. Participants must have also satisfied ADNI inclusion criteria, which can be found at www.adni-info.org. Study participants provided written informed consent.

Biomarker criteria

Our study considered a hypothetical, two-arm, prodromal AD study using total tau or phosphorylated tau as the primary outcome. In this hypothetical study, only participants with mild cognitive impairment who meet biomarker criteria would be eligible. In particular, we focused on eligibility criteria based on cerebrospinal fluid measures of amyloid beta, total tau, and phosphorylated tau. We incorporated multiple biomarker inclusion criteria, including low amyloid beta, high phosphorylated tau, high total tau, and adequately high ratios of phosphorylated tau to amyloid beta. Cerebrospinal fluid measurements were obtained using the AlzBio3 assay and thresholds from Shaw et al. (2009) were used to determine eligibility based on each criterion[29]. These thresholds required that participants had levels below 192 pg/ml, above 93 pg/ml, and above 23 pg/ml on cerebrospinal fluid amyloid beta, total tau, and phosphorylated tau, respectively. To be eligible based on the ratio of phosphorylated tau to amyloid beta, participants had to have a ratio above 0.10. We focused on five sets of eligibility criteria for prodromal AD trials: adequately low amyloid beta, adequately high total tau, adequately high phosphorylated tau, low amyloid beta or

high phosphorylated tau and low amyloid beta or high phosphorylated tau to amyloid beta ratio.

Analyses

We considered a hypothetical two-year, fixed sample, two-arm, placebo-controlled, randomized phase II study with 50 subjects (n = 25 subjects per arm) for each set of eligibility criteria. In this study, participants are assigned to a treatment group via 1:1 randomization. The outcome is measured at baseline (before randomization) and at two years (after randomization). In this hypothetical scenario, we assumed investigators would be testing whether there is a treatment effect on a biomarker outcome using a common analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) model[30] of the form:

$$E[Y_{1i}] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{0i} + \Delta\, Tx_i \tag{1}$$

where Y_{0i} and Y_{1i} denote the outcome measures at baseline and two years, respectively, and Tx_i is an indicator for whether subject i received the treatment. That is, Tx_i is one if subject i was randomized to the treatment arm, and 0 if the subject was randomized to the placebo or control arm. Hence, Δ in (1) represents the treatment effect and can be interpreted as the average difference in the two-year cerebrospinal fluid measurement (for total tau and phosphorylated tau) between treatment and control groups for subpopulations with similar baseline measurements.

Under the ANCOVA model given in (1), power of a two-sided level α test of the null hypothesis H_0: Δ = 0 for rejecting the hypothesized alternative Δ_1 can be calculated as

$$Power(\Delta_1) = \Phi\left(\frac{-\Delta_1}{\sqrt{4(1-\rho^2)\sigma^2/n}} - z_{1-\alpha/2}\right) + 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{-\Delta_1}{\sqrt{4(1-\rho^2)\sigma^2/n}} + z_{1-\alpha/2}\right). \tag{2}$$

In (2), the number of subjects in each arm is denoted by n, ρ denotes the two-year within-subject correlation between response measures, and σ^2 denotes the variance of the outcome at two years. From (2) one can see that for a fixed sample size power is inversely related to σ^2 and increases with ρ.

To provide realistic power projections, we used data from ADNI for parameter estimates. Specifically, we considered a moment-based estimator of ρ using a continuous autoregressive covariance model and σ^2 using the sample variance of the outcome at two years. The observed distribution of responses in ADNI indicate that power estimates based upon these parameters estimates accurately reflect the power afforded by application of the ANCOVA model in prospectively designed trials. We also calculated 95% confidence intervals for the variance and within-subject correlation using bootstrapping to further inform the level of precision expected to be obtained for each sample size and inclusion criteria scenario.

A natural question in this setting is whether model assumptions would hold in practice. We used residuals from an ANCOVA model fit to cerebrospinal fluid measures of total and phosphorylated tau from ADNI to assess the normality and homoscedasticity assumptions. These data suggest that residuals from an ANCOVA model fit to the tau responses would have slightly heavier tails, but we did not observe a gross departure from normality. By the Lindeberg-Feller Central Limit Theorem[31], however, the distribution of the coefficient estimates from an ANCOVA model will still be approximately normally distributed. In addition, some heteroscedasticity of the residuals was observed. For the purposes of the power analysis, we provide a variance estimate marginalized over all residuals in order to provide readers the ability to utilize an analytic estimate of power. Use of the marginal variance results in little power discrepancy relative to the use of a robust variance estimator to account for heteroscedasticity in practice.

Results

Of the 1,040 ADNI participants with a baseline diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment, 350 participants had at least two cerebrospinal fluid measurements, and 292 participants met at least one of the incorporated prodromal AD eligibility criteria. Table 1 presents the baseline demographics of participants in our study satisfying each of the biomarker eligibility criteria. The various criteria were associated with differing rates of inclusion[23]; specifically, fewer participants met high total tau criteria than the remaining biomarker criteria. Baseline characteristics of eligible participants were relatively similar, regardless of the biomarker criteria used.

We first estimated the two-year variance and within-subject correlation for trials incorporating each of the biomarker eligibility criteria and cerebrospinal fluid phosphorylated tau as the primary outcome. We found that among the single eligibility criteria, the lowest variance (774.06, 95% CI: 586.60, 1020.52) was obtained if phosphorylated tau was used as the sole biomarker inclusion criterion. The highest two-year within-subject correlation was obtained when Aβ was used as acceptable inclusion criterion (0.45, 95% CI: 0.35, 0.56).

Figure 1 presents the power curves and difference in power (compared to Aβ) for a total sample size of 50 (25 participants per arm) when amyloid beta, total tau, and phosphorylated tau were used as biomarker eligibility criteria. It should be noted that while we consider a total sample size of 50 participants, the shape of the power curves and the relative ordering remains the same when different sample sizes are used. Calculating power using the estimates of the variance and within-subject correlation, we found that the highest power was observed when phosphorylated tau was used as the biomarker inclusion criterion. Power also increased when we relaxed the eligibility criteria to include individuals meeting either low amyloid beta or high phosphorylated tau to amyloid beta ratio criteria. The minimum detectable treatment effect for 90% power was −33.950 pg/ml when amyloid beta was used as the sole eligibility criterion. The minimum detectable treatment effect was −32.065 pg/ml when restricting to participants with either low amyloid beta or high phosphorylated tau, and −32.450 pg/ml when requiring either low amyloid beta or high phosphorylated tau to amyloid beta ratio.

When power was considered for a primary outcome of change in cerebrospinal fluid total tau, the lowest variance among the single eligibility criteria was also observed when phosphorylated tau was used as the biomarker inclusion criterion (3249.15, 95% CI: 2217.82, 4386.21). If total tau was used as the inclusion criterion, the variance was estimated to be 3286.06 (95% CI: 2168.93, 4592.07). The highest within-subject correlation was observed when amyloid beta was used as the eligibility criterion (0.82, 95% CI: .77, 0.87), although the estimate was very similar to that when phosphorylated tau was used as the eligibility criterion (0.81, 95% CI: 0.76, 0.86). Within-subject correlation increased and variance decreased when the eligibility criteria were broadened to allow enrollment of subjects with either low amyloid beta or high phosphorylated tau. The minimum detectable treatment effect was −44.695 −41.580 and −41.950 pg/ml for amyloid beta, amyloid beta or phosphorylated tau, and amyloid beta or phosphorylated tau to amyloid beta ratio, respectively.

Discussion

AD drug development is daunting[32]. Clinical trials for AD face numerous challenges. For example, AD trial recruitment has been described as a crisis[33]. On average, recruitment alone takes 157 weeks for efficacy trials of potential disease-modifying therapies[34]. This observation highlights the importance of effective learn-and-confirm approaches to AD drug development[35]. It is essential to make correct decisions early in the development process so that valuable resources are used for only the most promising treatments. To do this, trials must be designed carefully and ensure that proper outcomes are used, for example as recommended by the Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation and the Association for Frontotemporal Degeneration[36]. This in itself is a difficult task because complete understanding of disease pathophysiology and determination of the correct therapeutic targets remain areas of active investigation. Numerous lines of evidence point to neurofibrillary tangles as ideal therapeutic targets. Moreover, cerebrospinal fluid levels of phosphorylated and total tau, which are hypothesized to correlate with brain neurofibrillary tangle burden and neurodegeneration, respectively, may provide suitable outcome measures for trials of anti-tau therapies as well as other candidate strategies to slow AD progression[37]. Yet, few data are available to aid investigators designing trials with cerebrospinal fluid tau measures as primary outcomes. Our manuscript provides empirical estimates of the statistical properties of these biomarkers for different eligibility criteria to aid trial design in these settings.

We found that proof of concept Phase 2 prodromal AD trials using phosphorylated tau as the primary outcome had the lowest variance when also incorporating phosphorylated tau as part of the inclusion criteria. This was expected because by enrolling only participants with high levels of phosphorylated tau at baseline, trials also likely restrict levels of phosphorylated tau later in time, thereby leading to lower response variation. Following the same logic, we expected that if the primary outcome of the study was total tau, we would observe the lowest variance when total tau was part of the inclusion criteria. The lowest variance for trials using total tau as an outcome was, however, also obtained when phosphorylated tau was used as an inclusion criterion. This observation is likely due to the fact that total tau is a less specific biomarker for AD than is phosphorylated tau[5, 15, 38]. This decreased variability led to higher

power when phosphorylated tau was applied as part of the inclusion criteria, regardless of whether the outcome was total tau or phosphorylated tau. This was the case even when the eligibility criteria were relaxed to allow participants to enroll either based on low amyloid beta or high phosphorylated tau.

While it is important to consider power and the efficient use of resources when designing phase 2 trials, it is also important to consider other factors such as the target population and generalizability of results. The outcome of interest must also be selected to provide insight into drug mechanism[39]. When biomarkers are used as the primary outcome, it is important to ensure that changes in levels of the biomarker represent clinically meaningful outcomes. Ultimately, this will be tested in later phase studies, examining clinical outcomes such as cognitive and functional performance or rates of progression to dementia. In this study, there were no differences in rates of progression to dementia between the differing inclusion criteria (data not shown).

From a population perspective, cerebrospinal fluid phosphorylated and total tau levels appear largely stable in mild-to-moderate dementia,[40–43] though at least some studies have found that cerebrospinal fluid total tau levels increase with disease progression[44]. In ADNI, the data source for the current study, longitudinal increases in phosphorylated tau (across diagnostic populations) were dependent upon having an AD biomarker signature (low cerebrospinal fluid amyloid beta) at baseline[45]. While these studies indicate potentially significant inter-individual longitudinal changes in cerebrospinal fluid outcomes, few[43] have provided information about statistical properties such as the variance and within-subject correlation of changes in cerebrospinal fluid tau. Though we present empirical estimates of the variance and within-subject correlation that can be used to estimate the power for studies with specific eligibility criteria, more data are needed to elucidate the optimal approach for powering proof-of-concept anti-tau therapy trials. Most notably, whether trials should be powered to reduce tau relative to baseline, vs. reducing change over time remains an open area of study. Here, power appeared contingent upon interventions that can reduce baseline tau levels.

Neurofibrillary tangles can now be measured through positron emission tomography imaging[46]. The use of tau positron emission tomography may also facilitate proof-of-concept trials by providing evidence of target engagement[47]. Measures of tau positron emission tomography correlate with cerebrospinal fluid phosphorylated tau[48] but have the added benefit of providing regional deposition information and visual measures of pathological spreading over time. A recent study using data from ADNI, however, found that baseline levels of cerebrospinal fluid phosphorylated tau (dichotomized as elevated or not elevated based on a slightly higher threshold than that used in this study [26 vs. 23 pg/mL]) is a better predictor of changes in phosphorylated tau over time, compared to tau positron emission tomography imaging[49]. Discordance between cerebrospinal fluid phosphorylated tau and tau positron emission tomography was also more frequently characterized by abnormal cerebrospinal fluid phosphorylated tau and normal tau positron emission tomography than vice versa. This may suggest that cerebrospinal fluid phosphorylated tau provides greater sensitivity in early disease, compared to tau positron emission tomography. Another recent study suggests that the relationship between

cerebrospinal fluid tau and positron emission tomography may depend on the degree of neurodegeneration[50], highlighting additional benefits of the use of positron emission tomography. Trials incorporating tau positron emission tomography, however, might require additional scans to assess amyloid status, or would need to incorporate cerebrospinal fluid as well, which offers single measure information on amyloid beta, total tau, and phosphorylated tau, as well as other potentially useful markers[51].

Limitations

ADNI is a large and widely used data source that is known to have significant sample bias—participants are overwhelmingly white and highly educated. This bias was likely exacerbated in the current study, which was limited to data from participants who had at least two cerebrospinal fluid measurements available. In fact, relative to previous studies[23], we note that a greater proportion included here met AD cerebrospinal fluid biomarker criteria. It should be noted that the estimates provided may not be appropriate for studies with very different patient populations. Nevertheless, the characteristics of participants in this sample are similar to those of prodromal AD trial participants and will therefore be helpful in designing most studies. When determining study eligibility, we only considered one threshold for each biomarker, but there are currently no universally agreed upon cutoffs[4, 52] and thresholds may in fact need to differ for unique populations[53]. Similarly, we considered a single assay. Whether these results would differ if different assays and thresholds were used is unknown. The number of cerebrospinal fluid samples was limited for some of our scenarios, and as expected there was attrition in sample number over time. Small sample number may explain some of the counterintuitive findings in this study, such as reduced variance with broader inclusion criteria, though this will require further study. Finally, we considered a two-year trial. It is unknown whether and how statistical characteristics would differ for longer studies, and how this would impact power for different eligibility criteria.

Conclusions

Phase 2 proof-of-concept studies are essential to instruct logical and efficient drug development. High type 1 errors in these studies risk wasted precious resources in larger later phase studies, while high type 2 errors risk terminated development of potentially effective therapies. This study not only provides empirical estimates of variation of commonly used biomarker responses in early phase AD trials to aid in informed study design, but also suggests that incorporating phosphorylated tau as part of the inclusion criteria in phase 2 proof-of-concept studies with tau as an outcome could help reduce variance and improve power, lowering risk of failed trials or incorrect conclusions.

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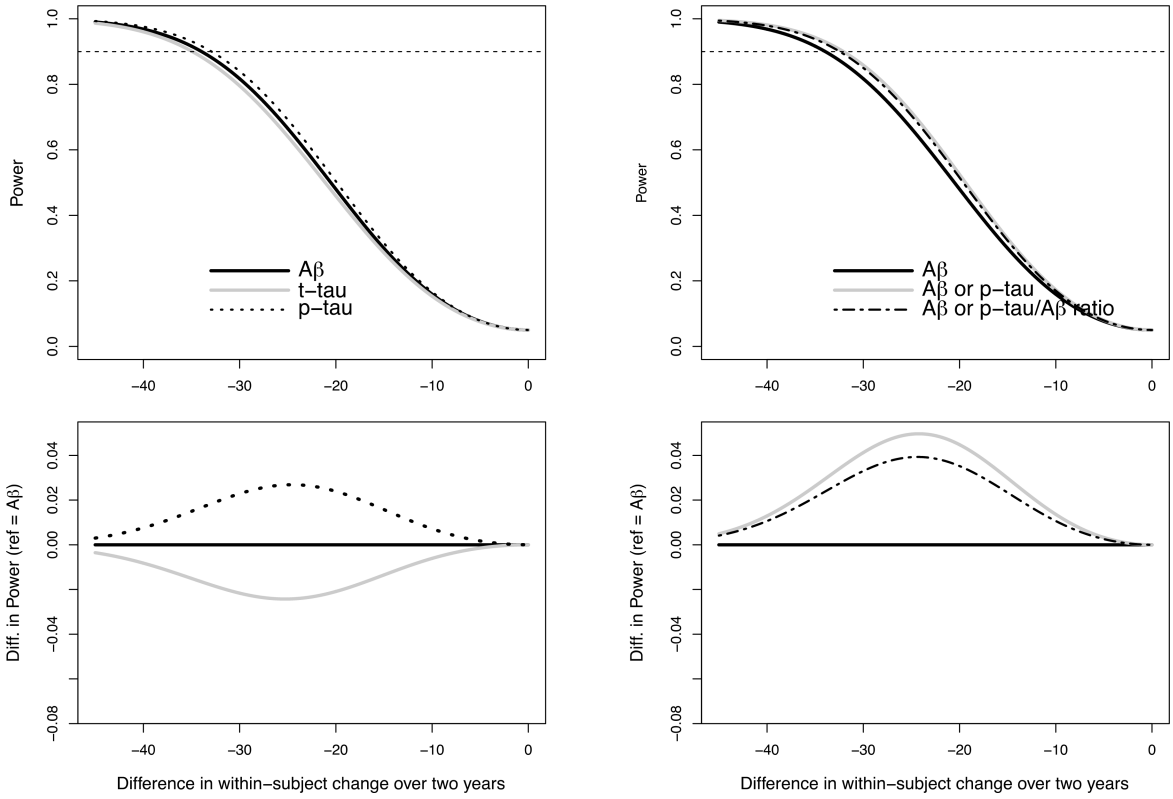

Figure 1.

Power curves (top row) and difference in power compared to amyloid beta (Aβ) eligibility criterion (bottom row) for a sample size of 50 (with 25 participants per arm) using phosphorylated tau (p-tau) as the primary outcome. Single eligibility criteria are presented on the left column and multiple criteria are presented on the right column.

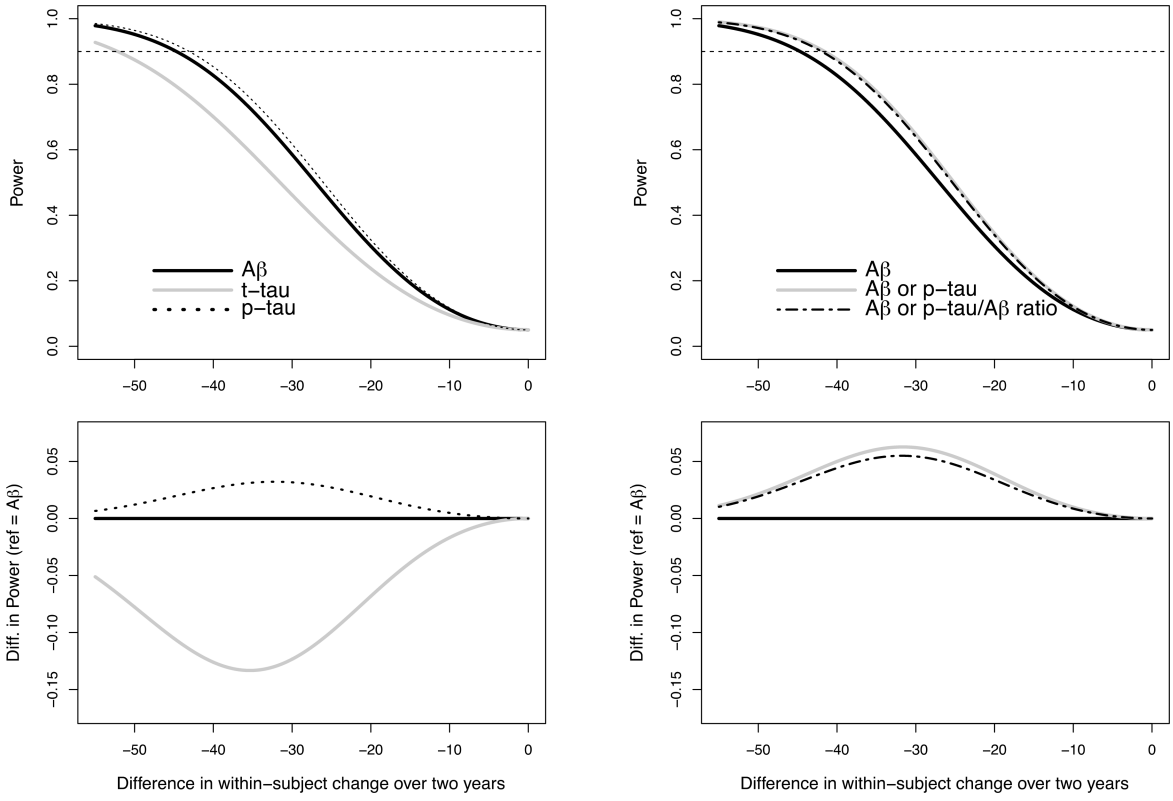

Figure 2.

Power curves (top row) and difference in power compared to amyloid beta (Aβ) eligibility criterion (bottom row) for a sample size of 50 (with 25 participants per arm) using total tau (t-tau) as the primary outcome. Single eligibility criteria are presented on the left column and multiple criteria are presented on the right column.

Table 1.

Baseline demographics of all participants who were eligible based on biomarker criteria.

	Aβ ≤ 192 pg/ml	t-tau >93 pg/ml	p-tau >23 pg/ml	Aβ ≤ 192 pg/ml or p-tau > 23 pg/ml	Aβ ≤ 192 pg/ml or p-tau/Aβ > 0.10 pg/ml
N	243	141	263	288	286
Age (years)					
50–65	28 (11.52)	15 (10.64)	41 (15.59)	44 (15.28)	44 (15.38)
65–80	178 (73.25)	101 (71.63)	180 (68.44)	200 (69.44)	198 (69.23)
80–95	37 (15.23)	25 (17.73)	42 (15.97)	44 (15.28)	44 (15.38)
Gender					
Male	147 (60.49)	74 (52.48)	152 (57.79)	169 (58.68)	169 (59.09)
Female	96 (39.51)	67 (47.52)	111 (42.21)	119 (41.32)	117 (40.91)
Education					
0–12	37 (15.23)	22 (15.60)	38 (14.45)	43 (14.93)	43 (15.03)
13–16	89 (36.63)	54 (38.30)	92 (34.98)	99 (34.38)	101 (35.31)
16–20	108 (44.44)	60 (42.55)	122 (46.39)	134 (46.53)	130 (45.45)
Missing	9 (3.70)	5 (3.55)	11 (4.18)	12 (4.17)	12 (4.20)
Race					
White	234 (96.30)	136 (96.45)	247 (93.92)	272 (94.44)	271 (94.76)
Black	4 (1.65)	3 (2.13)	6 (2.28)	6 (2.08)	6 (2.10)
Asian	1 (0.41)	1 (0.71)	4 (1.52)	4 (1.39)	4 (1.40)
Hawaiian/Other PI	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	1 (0.38)	1 (0.35)	1 (0.35)
More than one	4 (1.65)	1 (0.71)	5 (1.90)	5 (1.74)	4 (1.40)
Ethnicity					
Not Hispanic/Latino	237 (97.53)	139 (98.58)	258 (98.10)	281 (97.57)	279 (97.55)
Hispanic/Latino	4 (1.65)	2 (1.42)	3 (1.14)	5 (1.74)	5 (1.75)
Unknown	2 (0.82)	0 (0.00)	2 (0.76)	2 (0.69)	2 (0.70)
Marital Status					
Married	203 (83.54)	114 (80.85)	212 (80.61)	233 (80.90)	232 (81.12)
Divorced	16 (6.58)	8 (5.67)	22 (8.37)	24 (8.33)	24 (8.39)
Widowed	20 (8.23)	18 (12.77)	23 (8.75)	25 (8.68)	25 (8.74)
Never married	4 (1.65)	1 (0.71)	6 (2.28)	6 (2.08)	5 (1.75)
APOE e4					
0	84 (34.57)	44 (31.21)	103 (39.16)	115 (39.93)	112 (39.16)
1	118 (48.56)	75 (53.19)	124 (47.15)	132 (45.83)	133 (46.50)
2	41 (16.87)	22 (15.60)	36 (13.69)	41 (14.24)	41 (14.34)
MMSE	27.27 (1.82)	27.12 (1.76)	27.34 (1.88)	27.39 (1.86)	27.38 (1.86)
Amyloid beta (pg/ml)	137.33 (24.54)	138.29 (32.23)	153.21 (44.58)	152.66 (43.27)	150.98 (40.46)
Phosphorylated tau (pg/ml)	46.05 (22.33)	53.78 (21.83)	46.40 (20.68)	43.96 (21.31)	44.05 (21.37)
Total tau (pg/ml)	112.23 (55.56)	146.48 (49.17)	111.09 (53.23)	106.02 (53.77)	106.08 (53.98)

A*β*:amyloid beta

t-tau: total tau

p-tau: phosphorylated tau

Table 2.

Two-year variance, within-subject correlation, and minimum detectable difference (90% power) for a treatment effect with different inclusion criteria.

Eligibility Criteria	σ^2 (95% *CI*)	ρ (95% *CI*)	Min. Det. Treatment Effect
Phosphorylated tau outcome			
Amyloid beta	856.54 (629.82, 1133.37)	0.4469 (0.3516, 0.5612)	−33.950
Total tau	877.24 (611.07, 1206.67)	0.4168 (0.2626, 0.5787)	−34.910
Phosphorylated tau	774.06 (586.60, 1020.52)	0.4093 (0.2940, 0.5395)	−32.915
Amyloid beta or phosphorylated tau	772.65 (596.15, 1016.79)	0.4568 (0.3600, 0.5565)	−32.065
Amyloid beta or phosphorylated tau ratio	781.61 (597.59, 1001.62)	0.4460 (0.3558, 0.5546)	−32.450
Total tau outcome			
Amyloid beta	3602.46 (2447.07, 4805.04)	0.8187 (0.7744, 0.8653)	−44.695
Total tau	3286.06 (2168.93, 4592.07)	0.7125 (0.6118, 0.7832)	−52.155
Phosphorylated tau	3249.15 (2217.82, 4386.21)	0.8127 (0.7641, 0.8562)	−43.070
Amyloid beta or phosphorylated tau	3237.84 (2407.66, 4194.00)	0.8261 (0.7848, 0.8638)	−41.580
Amyloid beta or phosphorylated tau ratio	3286.73 (2429.27, 4362.66)	0.8256 (0.7894, 0.8722)	−41.950

CI: confidence interval