

Apolipoprotein E and Alpha Brain Rhythms in Mild Cognitive Impairment: A Multicentric Electroencephalogram Study

Claudio Babiloni, PhD,^{1,2} Luisa Benussi, MD,² Giuliano Binetti, MD,² Emanuele Cassetta, MD,² Gloria Dal Forno, MD,⁴ Claudio Del Percio, PhD,^{1,2} Florinda Ferreri, MD,^{3,4} Raffaele Ferri, MD,⁵ Giovanni Frisoni, MD,^{2,3} Roberta Ghidoni, PhD,² Carlo Miniussi, PhD,² Guido Rodriguez, MD,⁶ Gian Luca Romani, PhD,^{7,8} Rosanna Squitti, PhD,³ Maria Carla Ventriglia, PhD,³ and Paolo M. Rossini MD²⁻⁴

Objective: Relationships between the apolipoprotein E $\epsilon 4$ allele and electroencephalographic (EEG) rhythmicity have been demonstrated in Alzheimer's disease (AD) patients but not in the preclinical stage prodromic to it, namely, mild cognitive impairment (MCI). The present multicentric EEG study tested the hypothesis that presence of $\epsilon 4$ affects sources of resting EEG rhythms in both MCI and AD subjects. **Methods:** We enrolled 89 MCI subjects (34.8% with $\epsilon 4$) and 103 AD patients (50.4% with $\epsilon 4$). Resting eyes-closed EEG data were recorded for all subjects. EEG rhythms of interest were delta (2–4Hz), theta (4–8Hz), alpha 1 (8–10.5Hz), alpha 2 (10.5–13Hz), beta 1 (13–20Hz), and beta 2 (20–30Hz). EEG cortical sources were estimated by low-resolution brain electromagnetic tomography. **Results:** Results showed that amplitude of alpha 1 and 2 sources in occipital, temporal, and limbic areas was lower in subjects carrying the $\epsilon 4$ allele than in those not carrying the $\epsilon 4$ allele ($p < 0.01$). This was true for both MCI and AD. For the first time to our knowledge, a relationship was shown between ApoE genotype and global neurophysiological phenotype (ie, cortical alpha rhythmicity) in a preclinical AD condition, MCI, in addition to clinically manifest AD. **Interpretation:** Such a demonstration motivates future genotype–EEG phenotype studies for the early prediction of AD conversion in individual MCI subjects.

Ann Neurol 2006;59:323–334

Mild cognitive impairment (MCI) is characterized by selective memory impairment insufficient to meet criteria for a diagnosis of dementia.^{1–3} This condition is considered as a prodromic stage of Alzheimer's disease (AD),^{4–6} because a high rate of progression to AD has been clearly shown.^{3,7,8} Annual conversion rate to AD is 0.2 to 3.9% in normal aging (with no MCI symptoms) and 6 to 25% in MCI subjects.^{3,9} At the end of 6 years of observation, approximately 80% of MCI subjects develop AD.¹⁰ Taken together, these data suggest the hypothesis that in most (yet not all) of cases, MCI is a transition state on a linear progression toward AD. According to such a hypothesis, early identification of MCI patients might be clinically crucial.^{11,12}

In mild AD, electroencephalographic (EEG)

rhythms differ from normal elderly (Nold) and vascular dementia subjects, AD patients being characterized by higher delta (0–3Hz) and lower parietooccipital alpha (8–12Hz).^{13–17} Similarly, MCI subjects have shown increase of theta (4–7Hz) power^{18–20} as well as decrease of alpha power,^{15,18–22} when compared with Nold subjects. These EEG parameters have presented an intermediate magnitude in MCI with respect to Nold and dementia patients.^{15,23,24}

Despite the converging evidence of abnormal cortical rhythms in MCI and AD, EEG analysis alone is unable to predict conversion of MCI to dementia. It is reasonable that additional biological parameters are needed for this purpose. In this regard, several studies have shown a strict relationship between apolipopro-

From the ¹Dipartimento di Fisiologia Umana e Farmacologia, Università "La Sapienza" Rome, Italy; ²Associazione-IRCCS "San Giovanni di Dio-Fatebenefratelli", Brescia, Italy; ³Associazione Dipartimenti di Neuroscienze, Ospedale Fatebenefratelli; Isola Tiberina, Rome, Italy; ⁴Clinica Neurologica Università "Campus Biomedico" Rome, Italy; ⁵Department of Neurology, Oasi Institute for Research on Mental Retardation and Brain Aging (IRCCS), Troina, Italy; ⁶Division of Clinical Neurophysiology, University of Genova, Italy; ⁷Dipartimento di Scienze Cliniche e Bioimmagini and ⁸Istituti di Tecnologie Avanzate Biiomediche (ITAB), Fondazione "Università Gabriele D'Annunzio," Chieti, Italy.

Received Mar 18, 2005, and in revised form Sep 7. Accepted for publication Sep 8, 2005.

Published December 15 2005 in Wiley InterScience (www.interscience.wiley.com). DOI: 10.1002/ana.20724

Address correspondence to Dr Babiloni, Dipartimento di Fisiologia Umana e Farmacologia, Università degli Studi di Roma "La Sapienza," P.le Aldo Moro 5, 00185 Rome, Italy.
E-mail: claudio.babiloni@uniroma1.it

tein E (ApoE) genotype and late-onset AD. The human ApoE gene has three alleles ($\epsilon 2$, $\epsilon 3$, $\epsilon 4$), $\epsilon 3$ accounting for the majority of the ApoE gene pool (approximately 70–80%), whereas $\epsilon 4$ and $\epsilon 2$ account for 10 to 15% and 5 to 10%, respectively.²⁵ Previous epidemiological and genetic studies on ApoE have shown that (1) ApoE $\epsilon 4$ significantly increases the risk of developing AD^{25–34}; (2) ApoE $\epsilon 2$ and ApoE $\epsilon 3$ are associated with a reduced Alzheimer's disease risk^{32–36}; (3) association between ApoE $\epsilon 4$ and AD risk is stronger in men than in women^{33,37}; (4) ApoE $\epsilon 4$ is the only genetic risk factor associated with MCI³⁸; and (5) ApoE $\epsilon 4$ predisposes to cognitive decline.^{39,40}

ApoE $\epsilon 4$ is combined with different types of functional brain imaging abnormalities in preclinical as well as in clinically evident cognitive decline of dementia type.^{41–43} Compared with patients with ApoE $\epsilon 2$ or $\epsilon 3$, AD carriers of $\epsilon 4$ allele had a reduction in neural metabolism and activity both at rest and after activation procedures in temporal, parietal, limbic, and prefrontal areas.^{44–48} Similarly, $\epsilon 4$ has been found to affect EEG rhythms in AD.^{49–52} AD patients with $\epsilon 4$ had higher theta (4.1–7.3Hz) and lower beta (14.2–20Hz) power than AD patients with $\epsilon 2$ or $\epsilon 3$.⁵¹ Furthermore, compared with AD patients with $\epsilon 2$ or $\epsilon 3$, AD patients with $\epsilon 4$ showed: (1) higher theta and lower beta power at baseline recording⁵²; and (2) higher delta (1.5–3.9Hz) and lower alpha (7.6–13.9Hz) power at the follow-up (3 years later).⁵² Finally, ApoE $\epsilon 4$ has been associated with selective decrement of corticocortical functional connectivity in AD, as shown by a reduction of right and left temporoparietal, right temporofrontal, and left occipitoparietal EEG coherence at the alpha band (8–13Hz).⁴⁹

To our knowledge, the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ effects on EEG rhythmicity in the preclinical stage of AD, namely MCI, have not been previously investigated. The present EEG study tested the hypothesis that the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele affects cortical sources of resting EEG rhythms in MCI.

Materials and Methods

Part of the procedures (EEG recordings and low-resolution brain electromagnetic tomography [LORETA] analysis) pertinent to this study as well as a description of the potential meaning of cortical rhythms in aging have been extensively described in two recent papers.^{17,53} However, it should be stressed that the aims of the previous and current studies are totally different. The previous studies aimed at analyzing (1) the distributed EEG sources specific to mild AD as compared with vascular dementia (VaD) or normal aging¹⁷ and (2) the distributed EEG sources across physiological aging.⁵³ In contrast, this study focused on the effects of the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele on EEG rhythmicity in the MCI subjects. We apologize for some repetitions in the description of the present procedures with respect to those reported in the previous articles using similar EEG methodological approach. This was

done to stress the fact that already validated methodological procedures were used.

Subjects

Patients population included 89 MCI subjects and 103 AD patients, whereas the control group included 86 cognitively Nold individuals. Local institutional ethics committees approved the study. All experiments were performed with the informed and overt consent of each participant or caregiver, in line with the Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association (Declaration of Helsinki) and the standards established by the authors' institutional review board.

Diagnostic Criteria

Probable AD was diagnosed according to National Institute of Neurological and Communication Disorders Alzheimer's Disease and Related Disorders Association⁵⁴ and Diagnostic Statistical Manual IV criteria. All recruited AD patients underwent general medical, neurological, and psychiatric assessments. Patients were also rated with several standardized screening, diagnostic, and severity instruments that included Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE),⁵⁵ Clinical Dementia Rating Scale (CDR),⁵⁶ Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS),⁵⁷ Hachinski Ischemic Scale (HIS),⁵⁸ and the Instrumental Activities of Daily Living scale (IADL).⁵⁹ Neuroimaging diagnostic procedures (computed tomography or magnetic resonance imaging) and complete blood chemistries tests were conducted to exclude other causes of progressive or reversible dementias, to have a homogenous AD patient sample. Exclusion criteria included the presence of symptoms suggestive of (1) frontotemporal dementia, (2) vascular dementia, (3) extrapyramidal syndromes, (4) reversible dementias, (5) fluctuations in cognitive performance as well as of movement disorders and visual hallucinations suggestive of a possible Lewy body dementia. Of note, antidepressant and/or antihypertensive were suspended for 24 to 48 hours before EEG recordings.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria for MCI diagnosis aimed at selecting elderly persons with objective cognitive deficits, especially in the memory domain, who did not meet criteria for dementia or AD.^{1,3,60–64} Inclusion criteria for MCI were represented by (1) objective memory impairment on neuropsychological evaluation, as defined by performances 1.5 or higher standard deviation below age and education-matched controls; (2) full autonomy in the activities of daily living as documented by dedicated tests and by history and evidence of independent living; and (3) a CDR of 0.5. Exclusion criteria for MCI were (1) AD, as diagnosed by the procedures described above; (2) evidence of concomitant dementia such as frontotemporal, vascular dementia, reversible dementias, fluctuations in cognitive performance, and/or features of mixed dementias; (3) evidence of concomitant extrapyramidal symptoms; (4) clinical and indirect evidence of depression as shown by GDS scores greater than 14; (5) other psychiatric diseases, epilepsy, drug addiction, alcohol dependence, and use of psychoactive drugs or drugs interfering with brain cognitive functions including acetylcholinesterase inhibitors; and (6) current or previous systemic diseases (including diabetes mellitus) or traumatic brain injuries. Subjects' blood examination for the evaluation of ApoE was per-

Table 1. Demographic and Neuropsychological Data of Participants

Characteristic	Nold	MCI	AD
N	86	89	103
Age (yr)	70.1 (± 0.6 SE)	70.8 (± 0.9 SE)	75.1 (± 0.8 SE)
Sex (F/M)	53/33	53/36	84/19
MMSE	28.1 (± 0.1 SE)	25.7 (± 0.3 SE)	20.6 (± 0.3 SE)
Education (yr)	9.6 (± 0.4 SE)	7.6 (± 0.4 SE)	6.3 (± 0.4 SE)

Nold = normal elderly; MCI = mild cognitive impairment; AD = Alzheimer's disease; SE = standard error; MMSE = Mini-Mental State Examination.

formed on MCI subjects as well. On the basis of such genotyping, the AD group was subdivided in two genetic subgroups: AD carriers of the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele (52 subjects) and AD noncarriers of the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele (51 subjects). As the AD group, the MCI group was subdivided in two genetic subgroups: MCI carriers of the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele (31 subjects) and MCI noncarriers of the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele (58 subjects). Besides such differences in ApoE genotyping, these subgroups did not significantly differ in demographic or in clinical parameters.

To preliminarily ascertain that the selected AD patients and MCI subjects indeed presented the pattern of EEG rhythmic activity that typically is combined with the disease and cognitive impairment, we also recruited a control group of healthy elderly subjects (Nold), mostly among nonconsanguineous patients' relatives. All Nold subjects underwent physical and neurological examinations as well as cognitive screening. Subjects affected by chronic systemic illnesses, subjects receiving psychoactive drugs, and subjects with a history of present or previous neurological or psychiatric disease were excluded. All Nold subjects had a GDS score less than 14.

Table 1 summarizes the relevant demographic and clinical data of participants. As expected, women were overrepresented in the AD group. Because there is no previous evidence of sex-specific effects on EEG rhythms, it was felt that this would not interfere with the results. Table 2 reports the relevant demographic and clinical parameters of participants subdivided in two genetic subgroups: ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele MCI/AD carriers and noncarriers, respectively. Age and education were used as covariates in the statistical evaluation of the cortical sources of EEG rhythms, to remove possible confounding effects.

Apolipoprotein E Genotyping

Genomic DNA was extracted from whole-blood samples of AD patients and MCI subjects. ApoE genotype was determined using standard methods.⁶⁵

Electroencephalogram Recordings

EEG was recorded in waking-rest conditions (eyes-closed, 0.3–70Hz bandpass) from 19 scalp electrodes positioned according to the International 10-20 System (ie, Fp1, Fp2, F7, F3, Fz, F4, F8, T3, C3, Cz, C4, T4, T5, P3, Pz, P4, T6, O1, O2). A specific reference electrode was not imposed, because preliminary data analysis and LORETA source analysis were conducted after EEG data were re-referenced to a common average reference. To monitor eye movements, we

also collected the electrooculogram (0.3–70Hz bandpass). All data were digitized in continuous recording mode (128–256Hz sampling rate). In all subjects, EEG recordings were performed at about lunch time. State of vigilance was controlled by on-line visual inspection of EEG traces during recording session and subjects' drowsiness was avoided by verbal warnings. No patient received medications that could influence EEG rhythms such as antidepressant or benzodiazepines. Of note, EEG recordings lasting 5 minutes allowed the comparison of the results with several previous AD studies using either EEG recording periods shorter than 5 minutes^{17,66–71} or shorter than 1 minute.^{13,14} Longer resting EEG recordings in AD patients would have reduced data variability but would have increased the possibility of EEG rhythmic oscillations slowing because of reduced vigilance and arousal.

EEG data were analyzed and fragmented off-line in consecutive epochs of 2 seconds. For standardization purposes, preliminary data analysis was centralized in one research unit. The EEG epochs with ocular, muscular, and other types of artifact were preliminarily identified by a computerized automatic procedure. EEG epochs with ocular artifacts (<15% of the total) were corrected by an autoregressive method.⁷² Two independent experimenters manually confirmed the EEG segments accepted for further analysis.

Spectral Analysis of the Electroencephalogram Data

A digital Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)-based power spectrum analysis (Welch technique, Hanning windowing function, no phase shift) was conducted by computing power density of EEG rhythms with 0.5Hz frequency resolution. The following frequency bands were studied: delta (2–4Hz), theta (4–8Hz), alpha 1 (8–10.5Hz), alpha 2 (10.5–13Hz), beta 1 (13–20Hz), and beta 2 (20–30Hz) in line with previous EEG studies on dementia^{17,19,71–77} Of note, sharing of a frequency bin by two contiguous bands is a widely accepted procedure.^{19,73,–91}

Choice of fixed EEG bands did not account for individual alpha frequency (IAF) peak, defined as the frequency associated with the strongest EEG power at the extended alpha range. This choice should not affect the results, because most of the subjects had IAF peaks within the alpha 1 band (8–10.5Hz). In particular, mean IAF peak was 9.3Hz (± 0.1 standard error [SE]) in Nold subjects, 8.9Hz (± 0.1 SE) in MCI subjects, and 8.3Hz (± 0.1 SE) in AD patients. In the two MCI subgroups, the mean IAF peak was 9.2Hz (± 0.2 SE) in MCI subjects not carrying the $\epsilon 4$ allele (MCI–) and 8.6Hz (± 0.2 SE) in MCI carriers of the $\epsilon 4$ allele (MCI+).

Table 2. Demographic and Neuropsychological Data of the MCI and AD Subjects, Each Clustered in Two Genetic Subgroups: MCI/AD Not Carrying ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele (ApoE $\epsilon 4$ noncarriers) and MCI/AD carrying the $\epsilon 4$ allele (ApoE $\epsilon 4$ carriers)

Characteristic	MCI		AD	
	ApoE $\epsilon 4$ Noncarriers	ApoE $\epsilon 4$ Carriers	ApoE $\epsilon 4$ Noncarriers	ApoE $\epsilon 4$ Carriers
N	58	31	51	52
Age (yr)	70.9 (± 1.2 SE)	70.7 (± 1.2 SE)	74.9 (± 1.3 SE)	75.2 (± 1.2 SE)
Sex (F/M)	35/23	18/13	44/7	40/12
MMSE	25.8 (± 0.3 SE)	25.4 (± 0.4 SE)	21.2 (± 0.4 SE)	20 (± 0.5 SE)
Education (yr)	7.3 (± 0.5 SE)	8 (± 0.8 SE)	6.7 (± 0.2 SE)	5.8 (± 0.4 SE)

MCI = mild cognitive impairment; AD = Alzheimer's disease; ApoE = apolipoprotein E; SE = standard error; MMSE = Mini-Mental State Examination.

In the two AD subgroups, the mean IAF peak was 8.4Hz (± 0.2 standard error, SE) in AD- and 8.2Hz (± 0.2 SE) in AD+. To control the effect of IAF on the EEG comparisons between these two subgroups, we used IAF peak as a covariate (together with age and education) for further statistics.

Cortical Source Analysis of the Electroencephalographic Rhythms by Low-Resolution Brain Electromagnetic Tomography

LORETA technique was used for EEG source analysis,^{14,17,92-96} because its validity was tested with invasive depth EEG recordings,⁹⁷ positron emission tomography,⁹⁸ and simultaneous functional magnetic resonance imaging scans.^{99,100} LORETA computes three-dimensional linear solutions (LORETA solutions) for EEG inverse problem within a three-shell spherical head model including scalp, skull, and brain compartments. Brain compartment is restricted to the cortical gray matter/hippocampus of a head model coregistered to Talairach probability brain atlas and digitized at the Brain Imaging Center of the Montreal Neurologic Institute.¹⁰¹ This compartment includes 2,394 voxels (7mm resolution), each voxel containing an equivalent current dipole.

LORETA source analysis is reference-free, in that one obtains the same LORETA source distribution for EEG data referenced to any reference electrode including common average. Furthermore, LORETA can be used from data collected by low spatial sampling of the 10-20 system (19 electrodes) when cortical sources are estimated from resting EEG rhythms. Several previous studies have shown that these rhythms are generated by largely distributed cortical sources that can be accurately investigated by standard 10-20 system and LORETA.^{17,102-112}

LORETA solutions consisted of voxel current density values able to predict EEG spectral power density at scalp electrodes. The LORETA data for each subject were normalized to unit global power (over all discrete frequencies and voxels), to reduce variance and thus enhance tomographic results. The general procedure fitted the LORETA solutions in a Gaussian distribution and reduced intersubject variability.^{73,113} Of note, other methods of normalization using the principal component analysis are effective for estimating the subjective global factor scale of the EEG data.¹¹⁴ These methods are not yet available in the LORETA package, so they were not used here.

Solutions of the EEG inverse problem are underdetermined and ill-conditioned when the number of spatial samples (electrodes) is lower than that of the unknown samples (current density at each voxel). To account for that, the cortical LORETA solutions predicting scalp EEG spectral power density were regularized to estimate distributed rather than discrete EEG source patterns.⁹²⁻⁹⁴ Such spatial smoothing of the LORETA solutions (resolution in centimeters) can reliably take into account the slight change in the cortical volume (resolution in millimeters) present in AD subjects. In line with the low spatial resolution of the LORETA technique, we collapsed LORETA solutions at frontal, central, temporal, parietal, occipital, and limbic regions of the brain model coded into Talairach space. The Brodmann areas listed in Table 3 formed each of these regions of interest (ROIs).

Statistical Analysis of the Low-Resolution Brain Electromagnetic Tomography Solutions

Regional normalized LORETA solutions were used by analysis of variance (ANOVA) analysis, using subjects' age and education as covariates. Mauchly's test evaluated the sphericity assumption. Correction of the degrees of freedom was made with the Greenhouse-Geisser procedure. Duncan test was used for post hoc comparisons ($p < 0.05$). In particular, two ANOVA designs were addressed in this study. (1) A first control ANOVA analysis verified the sensitivity of the present methodological approach, namely, to estimate EEG source differences among Nold, MCI, and AD groups. This ANOVA analysis used Group (Nold, MCI, AD), Band (delta, theta, alpha 1, alpha 2, beta 1, beta 2), and ROI (central, frontal, parietal, occipital, temporal, limbic). The LORETA solutions of interest were those showing progressive changes in mean magnitude across Nold, MCI, and AD subjects (Nold \rightarrow MCI \rightarrow AD and Nold \leftarrow MCI \leftarrow AD). Furthermore, these solutions had to show linear correlations with MMSE score in all subjects as a single group (Bonferroni-corrected Pearson test, $p < 0.05$). (2) The second ANOVA evaluated the working hypothesis, namely, the existence of EEG source differences between MCI+ and AD+ versus MCI- and AD- groups. This ANOVA design used Group (MCI, AD), Genotype (presence or absence of $\epsilon 4$), Band (delta, theta, alpha 1, alpha 2, beta 1, beta 2), and ROI (central, frontal, parietal, occipital, temporal, limbic) as factors. The planned Duncan post hoc testing evaluated the

Table 3. LORETA Brodmann Areas into the Regions of Interest

Region	Area
Frontal	8, 9, 10, 11, 44, 45, 46, 47
Central	1, 2, 3, 4, 6
Parietal	5, 7, 30, 39, 40, 43
Temporal	20, 21, 22, 37, 38, 41, 42
Occipital	17, 18, 19
Limbic	31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36

LORETA solutions were collapsed in frontal, central, parietal, temporal, occipital, and limbic ROIs.
LORETA = low-resolution brain electromagnetic tomography.

prediction of the working hypothesis. That prediction would be confirmed by the following LORETA patterns: $\Delta 4$ non-carriers \neq $\epsilon 4$ carriers in both MCI and AD groups.

Results

Control Analysis

Grand average of LORETA solutions (ie, relative current density at cortical voxels) modeling the distributed EEG sources for delta, theta, alpha 1, alpha 2, beta 1, and beta 2 bands presented specific spatial features in Nold, MCI, and AD groups. Compared with the Nold group, AD patients showed an increase of widespread delta sources, along with a drastic reduction of parietooccipital alpha 1 sources. With respect to the Nold and AD groups, MCI subjects showed intermediate magnitude of alpha 1 sources and greater magnitude of alpha 2 sources.

These data were used for an ANOVA control analysis to test the hypothesis that MCI and AD subjects had typical EEG features as described by the literature. LORETA solutions (distributed EEG sources) showed a statistical ANOVA interaction ($F[50,6975] = 2.6$; $MSe = 0.6$; $p < 0.00001$) among the factors Group (Nold, MCI, AD), Band (delta, theta, alpha 1, alpha 2, beta 1, beta 2), and ROI (central, frontal, parietal, occipital, temporal, limbic). It was shown that parietal, occipital, temporal, and limbic alpha 1 sources had stronger amplitudes in Nold versus MCI ($p < 0.00001$) and in MCI versus AD ($p < 0.01$). Furthermore, the amplitude of the parietal delta source was stronger in AD than Nold ($p < 0.005$). Finally, parietal alpha 2 sources showed stronger amplitude in MCI than Nold ($p < 0.0001$) and AD ($p < 0.0001$). MMSE score correlated positively with parietal ($r = 0.21$, $p = 0.0003$; Bonferroni threshold to $p < 0.0125$), occipital ($r = 0.24$, $p = 0.00004$), temporal ($r = 0.21$, $p = 0.0003$), and limbic ($r = 0.23$, $p = 0.00006$) alpha 1 source intensities. These results demonstrated the existence of significant EEG source intensity differences among Nold, MCI, and AD groups.

Topography of the Electroencephalographic Cortical Sources Estimated by Low-Resolution Brain Electromagnetic Tomography in Apolipoprotein E $\epsilon 4$ Carriers and Noncarriers

For illustrative purposes, Figure 1 maps the grand average of the LORETA solutions (ie, relative current density at cortical voxels) modeling the distributed EEG sources for delta, theta, alpha 1, alpha 2, beta 1, and beta 2 bands in MCI and AD subjects not carrying the $\epsilon 4$ allele (MCI-, AD-) and in MCI and AD carriers of the $\epsilon 4$ allele (MCI+, AD+). Both MCI- and AD- groups presented alpha 1 sources with maximal values of the relative current density distributed in the parietooccipital regions. Delta, theta and alpha 2 sources had moderate relative current density values when compared with alpha 1 sources. Finally, beta 1 and beta 2 sources were characterized by the lowest relative current density values. In comparison, MCI+ and AD+ $\epsilon 4$ carriers showed a reduction of alpha 1 and alpha 2 sources intensities.

Statistical Analysis of the Electroencephalographic Cortical Sources Estimated by Low-Resolution Brain Electromagnetic Tomography Characterizing Apolipoprotein E $\epsilon 4$ Noncarriers with respect to the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ Carriers

ANOVA analysis for the evaluation of the working hypothesis showed a statistical interaction ($F[25,4,700] = 2.8$; $MSe = 0.5$; $p < 0.004$) among the factors Genotype (presence or absence of ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele), Band (delta, theta, alpha 1, alpha 2, beta 1, beta 2), and ROI (central, frontal, parietal, occipital, temporal, limbic). Figure 2 shows the mean regional LORETA solutions relative to this statistical ANOVA interaction. In line with the working hypothesis, alpha 1 and alpha 2 sources in occipital, temporal, and limbic areas showed stronger amplitude in noncarriers compared to carriers of the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ ($p < 0.01$). This was true for both MCI and AD subjects, because there was no interaction with the factor Genotype (presence or absence of the $\epsilon 4$ allele). As a statistical trend, temporal theta source showed stronger amplitude in carriers compared with noncarriers of the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ ($p < 0.07$).

The ANOVA analysis also showed a statistical interaction among the factors Group (MCI, AD), Band (delta, theta, alpha 1, alpha 2, beta 1, beta 2), and ROI (central, frontal, parietal, occipital, temporal, limbic). Figure 3 shows mean regional LORETA solutions relative to this statistical ANOVA interaction. Alpha 1 (central, parietal, occipital, temporal and limbic areas) and alpha 2 (parietal and occipital areas) sources were stronger in MCI than AD ($p < 0.03$). Furthermore, delta (occipital and limbic areas) and theta (occipital areas) sources were stronger in AD compared with MCI ($p < 0.03$).

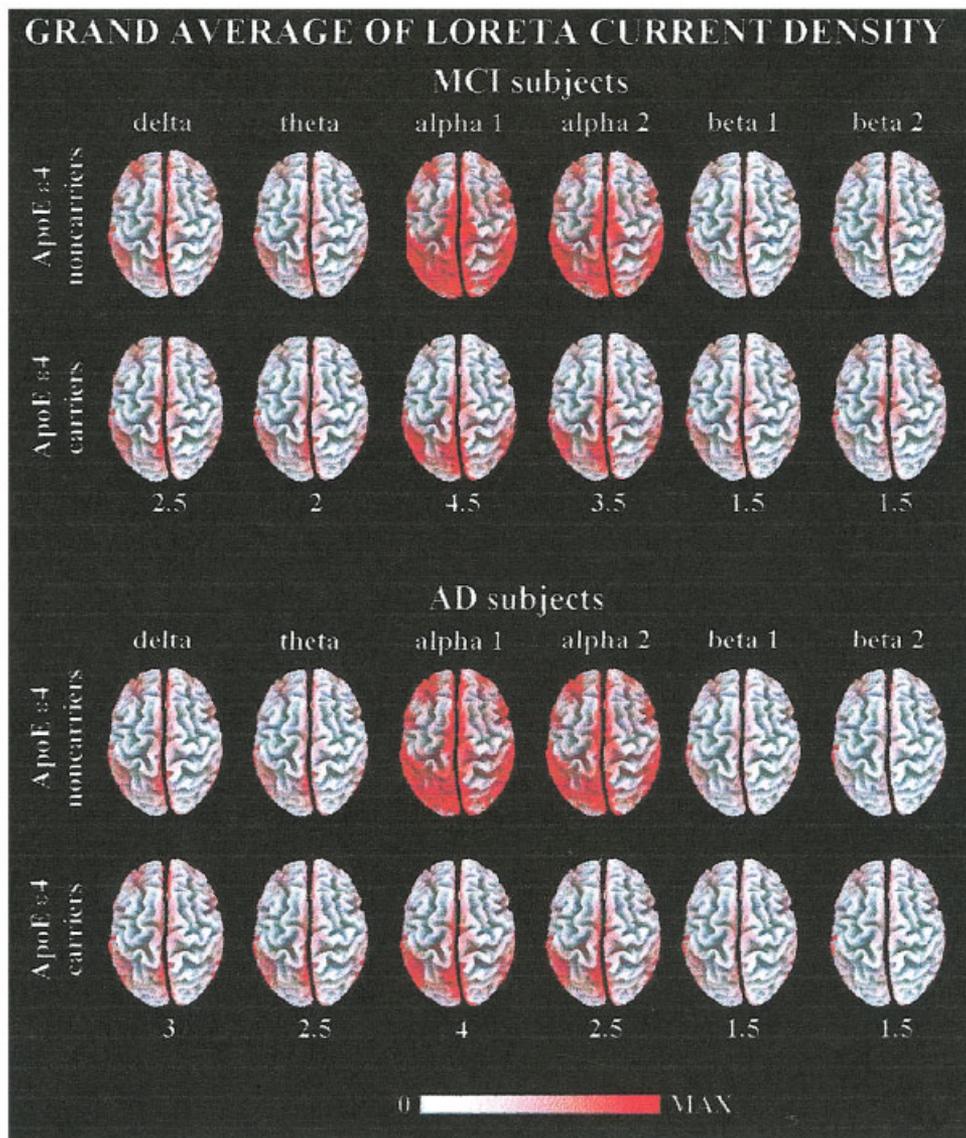


Fig 1. Grand average of low-resolution brain electromagnetic tomography (LORETA) solutions (ie, normalized relative current density at the cortical voxels) modeling the distributed EEG sources for delta (2–4Hz), theta (4–8Hz), alpha 1 (8–10.5Hz), alpha 2 (10.5–13Hz), beta 1 (13–20Hz), and beta 2 (20–30Hz) bands in mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and Alzheimer’s disease (AD) groups, both subdivided in two genetic subgroups: MCI–/AD– not carrying the apolipoprotein E (ApoE) ϵ 4 and MCI+/AD+ carrying the ϵ 4 allele. The left side of the maps (top view) corresponds to the left hemisphere. Color scale: all power estimates were scaled based on the averaged maximum value (ie, alpha 1 power value of occipital region in MCI not carrying the ApoE ϵ 4 allele). The maximal power value is reported under each column.

Discussion

Electroencephalographic Characteristics in Mild Cognitive Impairment and Alzheimer’s Disease Subjects with ApoE ϵ 4

Alpha sources in occipital, temporal, and limbic areas showed lower amplitude in MCI and AD subjects with ApoE ϵ 4 compared with those not carrying ϵ 4 ($p < 0.01$). Furthermore, temporal theta source showed a trend for stronger amplitude in ApoE ϵ 4 carriers compared with noncarriers ($p < 0.07$). These

results extend in the cortical spatial domain previous scalp EEG evidence in AD carrying ϵ 4.^{49–52} They complement previous evidence of reduced regional cerebral blood flow and/or glucose metabolism in temporal, parietal, limbic, and prefrontal areas of AD carrying ϵ 4 when compared with AD noncarriers.^{44–48} As a novelty, they demonstrate a similar trend for the preclinical stage of AD, namely, MCI. These results warrant further EEG investigations in normal subjects who carry the ϵ 4 allele. Indeed, previous evidence has

STATISTICAL ANOVA INTERACTION BETWEEN GENOTYPE, BAND AND ROI

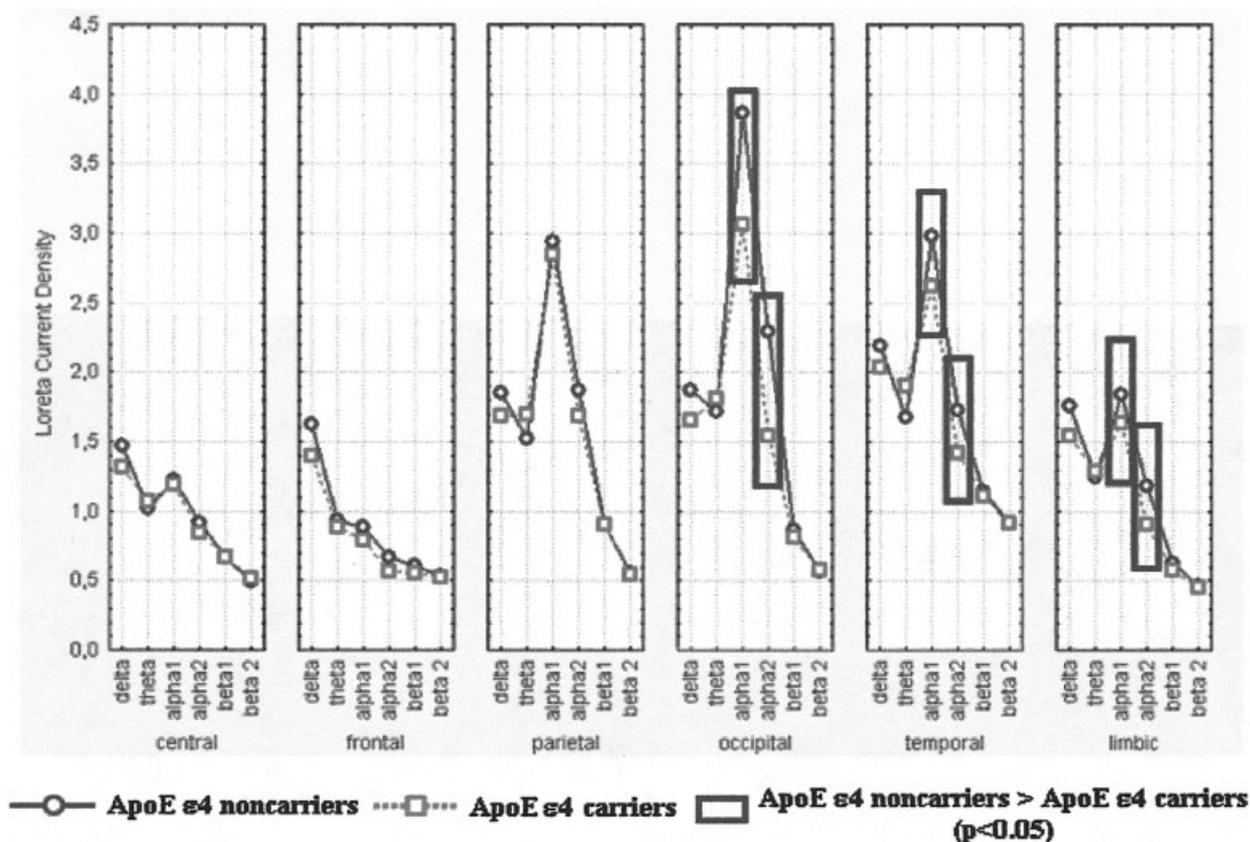


Fig 2. Regional low-resolution brain electromagnetic tomography (LORETA) solutions (mean across subjects) relative to a statistical analysis of variance (ANOVA) interaction among the factors Genotype (presence or absence of the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele), Band (delta, theta, alpha 1, alpha 2, beta 1, beta 2), and region of interest (ROI; central, frontal, parietal, occipital, temporal, limbic). This ANOVA design used the normalized relative current density values at ROI level as a dependent variable. Subjects' age, education, and individual alpha frequency peak (IAF) were used as covariates. Regional LORETA solutions modeled the electroencephalographic (EEG) relative power spectra as shown by a sort of "virtual" intracranial macroelectrodes located on the macrocortical regions of interest. (rectangles) Cortical regions and frequency bands in which LORETA solutions presented statistically significant different values between subjects plus or minus for the apolipoprotein E (ApoE) $\epsilon 4$ allele ($p < 0.05$, planned Duncan post hoc testing). See Materials and Methods for further details.

shown a reduction of resting posterior cortical activity in cognitively intact individuals with ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele compared with subjects not carrying ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele.^{41,42}

The open question of this study is why alpha sources were lower in amplitude in MCI and AD $\epsilon 4$ carriers. We do not have a conclusive explanation at this early stage of research. As introductory basic aspects, it is well known that brain of an individual with AD exhibits extracellular plaques of aggregated β -amyloid protein (A β) and intracellular neurofibrillary tangles that contain hyperphosphorylated tau protein. In brain, degradation and clearance of A β would imply insulin-degrading enzyme, which is reduced by approximately 50% at hippocampus of $\epsilon 4+$ AD patients compared with $\epsilon 4-$ patients and controls.¹¹⁵ Furthermore, AD is characterized by a profound loss of basal

forebrain cholinergic neurons that innervate hippocampus and neocortex.¹¹⁶ Finally, alpha rhythms are mainly modulated by thalamocortical and corticocortical interactions.¹¹⁷⁻¹¹⁹ Within extended alpha band (8-13Hz), low-band alpha would be mainly related to subject's global attentional readiness, whereas high-band alpha would reflect the engagement of specific neural channels for the elaboration of sensorimotor or semantic information.^{80,85,86} At rest, the voltage of the alpha rhythms would be inversely correlated with the cortical excitability and level of attention processes depending on the novelty and importance of the stimulus.^{80,85,86,117,120,121} For this reason, it has been suggested that the amplitude of alpha rhythms and corresponding cortical excitability reflect at least in part the time-varying inputs of forebrain cholinergic pathways.¹²²

STATISTICAL ANOVA INTERACTION BETWEEN GROUP, BAND AND ROI

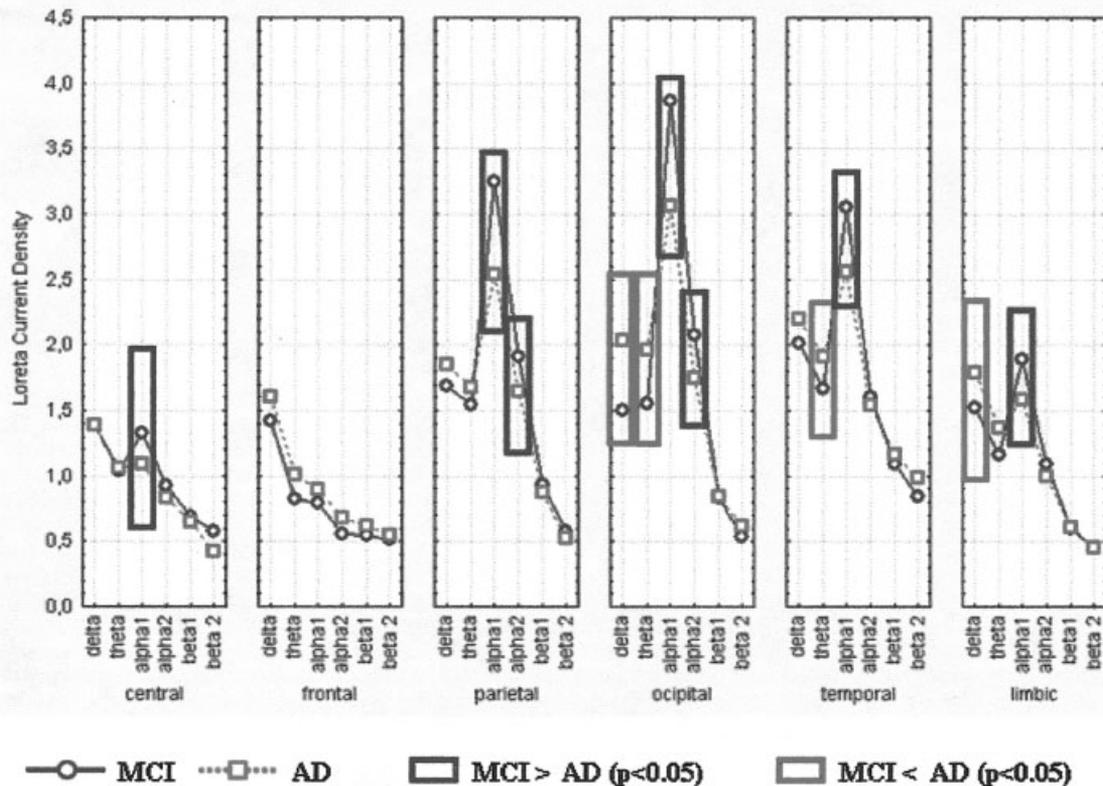


Fig 3. Regional low-resolution brain electromagnetic tomography (LORETA) solutions (mean across subjects) relative to a statistical analysis of variance (ANOVA) interaction among the factors Group (mild cognitive impairment [MCI], Alzheimer's disease [AD]), Band (delta, theta, alpha 1, alpha 2, beta 1, beta 2), and ROI (central, frontal, parietal, occipital, temporal, limbic). This ANOVA design used the normalized relative current density values at ROI level as a dependent variable. Subjects' age, education, and individual alpha frequency peak (IAF) were used as covariates. The rectangles indicate the cortical regions and frequency bands in which LORETA solutions presented statistically significant different values between MCI and AD groups ($p < 0.05$, planned Duncan post hoc testing). See Materials and Methods for further details.

Keeping in mind these data, it could be speculated that, in MCI and AD $\epsilon 4$ carriers, reduced degradation and clearance of Abeta would result in a great impairment of the cholinergic basal forebrain, hippocampal, and thalamocortical networks. As a consequence, there would be an increase of the excitatory activity of the cholinergic brainstem pathway,^{123–125} which would desynchronize resting posterior alpha rhythms¹²⁶ and might enhance cortical excitability in AD patients.^{127–132} Previous studies have indeed shown that resting EEG rhythms, including alpha, are lowered by experimental or clinical impairment of the cholinergic basal forebrain.^{13–15,17,76,77,133–135} In contrast, brainstem cholinergic innervations of the thalamus are relatively spared in AD patients.^{134–139}

Conclusions

The present EEG study evaluated cortical rhythms in MCI and AD subjects carrying or not a factor risk of

dementia such as ApoE $\epsilon 4$ allele. Amplitude of alpha sources in occipital, temporal, and limbic areas was lower in subjects carrying the ApoE $\epsilon 4$ than noncarrier individuals ($p < 0.01$). This was true for both MCI and AD subjects. The results suggest that at group level, cortical delta and alpha rhythms of MCI subjects were qualitatively affected by similar pathological mechanisms impinging upon the generation of cortical rhythms in mild AD subjects. In this sense, they are in favor of the hypothesis that most of the MCI subjects with ApoE genetic risk suffer from a preclinical stage of AD. However, this might not be true for all MCI subjects with ApoE genetic risk. Furthermore, the cognitive decline might not have the same progression in all these subjects. Therefore, these results motivate a follow-up study testing whether MCI subjects with ApoE genetic risk convert to mild AD as a function of the baseline alteration of cortical delta and alpha rhythms.

We thank Dr L. Bartolo, Dr N. Flavio, Dr R. Basili, G. Busonero, M. Ercolani, R. Fini, Dr M. Gennarelli, Dr N. Girtler, Dr C. Bonato, Dr R. Manenti, Dr M. Gurzi, and Dr K. Sosta for their valuable help in the development of this study. We thank also Dr F. Eusebi for his continuous support.

References

1. Flicker CS, Ferris H, Reisberg B. Mild cognitive impairment in the elderly: predictors of dementia. *Neurology* 1991;41:1006–1009.
2. Petersen RC, Smith GE, Ivnik RJ, et al. Apolipoprotein E status as a predictor of the development of Alzheimer's disease in memory-impaired individuals. *JAMA* 1995;273:1274–1278.
3. Petersen RC, Doody R, Kurz A, et al. Current concepts in mild cognitive impairment. *Arch Neurol* 2001;58:1985–1992.
4. Galluzzi S, Cimaschi L, Ferrucci L, Frisoni GB. Mild cognitive impairment: clinical features and review of screening instruments. *Aging* 2001;13:183–202.
5. Scheltens P, Fox N, Barkhof F, De Carli C. Structural magnetic resonance imaging in the practical assessment of dementia: beyond exclusion. *Lancet Neurol* 2002;1:13–21.
6. Arnaiz E, Almkvist O. Neuropsychological features of mild cognitive impairment and preclinical Alzheimer's disease. *Acta Neurol Scand* 2003;107:34–41.
7. Bachman DL, Wolf PA, Linn RT, et al. Incidence of dementia and probable Alzheimer's disease in a general population. The Framingham Study. *Neurology* 1993;43:515–519.
8. Gao S, Hendrie HC, Hall KS, et al. The relationships between age, sex, and the incidence of dementia and Alzheimer's disease. A meta-analysis. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1998;55:809–815.
9. Frisoni GB, Padovani A, Wahlund LO. The pre-dementia diagnosis of Alzheimer disease. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord* 2004;18:51–53.
10. Petersen RC, Smith GE, Waring SC, et al. Mild cognitive impairment: clinical characterization and outcome. *Arch Neurol* 1999;56:303–308.
11. Braak H, Braak E. Neuropathological staging of Alzheimer-related changes. *Acta Neuropathol* 1991;82:239–259.
12. Small GW, Rabins PV, Barry PP, et al. Diagnosis and treatment of Alzheimer disease and related disorders. Consensus statement of the American Association for Geriatric Psychiatry, the Alzheimer's Association, and the American Geriatrics Society. *JAMA* 1997;278:1363–1371.
13. Dierks T, Ihl R, Frolich L, Maurer K. Dementia of the Alzheimer type: effects on the spontaneous EEG described by dipole sources. *Psychiatry Res* 1993;50:51–162.
14. Dierks T, Jelic V, Pascual-Marqui RD, et al. Spatial pattern of cerebral glucose metabolism (PET) correlates with localization of intracerebral EEG-generators in Alzheimer's disease. *Clin Neurophysiol* 2000;111:1817–1824.
15. Huang C, Wahlund LO, Dierks T, et al. Discrimination of Alzheimer's disease and mild cognitive impairment by equivalent EEG sources: a cross-sectional and longitudinal study. *Clin Neurophysiol* 2000;11:1961–1967.
16. Ponomareva NV, Selesneva ND, Jarikov GA. EEG alterations in subjects at high familial risk for Alzheimer's disease. *Neuropsychobiology* 2003;48:152–159.
17. Babiloni C, Binetti G, Cassetta E, et al. Mapping distributed sources of cortical rhythms in mild Alzheimer's disease. A multi-centric EEG study. *NeuroImage* 2004;22:57–67.
18. Zappoli R, Versari A, Paganini M, et al. Brain electrical activity (quantitative EEG and bit-mapping neurocognitive CNV components), psychometrics and clinical findings in presenile subjects with initial mild cognitive decline or probable Alzheimer-type dementia. *Ital J Neurol Sci* 1995;16:341–376.
19. Jelic V, Shigeta M, Julin P. Quantitative electroencephalography power and coherence in Alzheimer's disease and mild cognitive impairment. *Dementia* 1996;7:314–323.
20. Grunwald M, Busse F, Hensel A, Kruggel F, et al. Links correlation between cortical theta activity and hippocampal volumes in health, mild cognitive impairment, and mild dementia. *J Clin Neurophysiol* 2001;18:178–184.
21. Grunwald M, Busse F, Hensel A, et al. Theta-power differences in patients with mild cognitive impairment under rest condition and during haptic tasks. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord* 2002;16:40–48.
22. Frodl T, Hampel H, Juckel G, et al. Value of event-related P300 subcomponents in the clinical diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease. *Psychophysiology* 2002;39:175–181.
23. Elmstahl S, Rosen I. Postural hypotension and EEG variables predict cognitive decline: results from a 5-year follow-up of healthy elderly women. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord* 1997;8:180–187.
24. Jelic V, Johansson SE, Almkvist O, et al. Quantitative electroencephalography in mild cognitive impairment: longitudinal changes and possible prediction of Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol Aging* 2000;21:533–540.
25. Lahiri DK. Apolipoprotein E as a target for developing new therapeutics for Alzheimer's disease based on studies from protein, RNA, and regulatory region of the gene. *J Mol Neurosci* 2004;23:225–233.
26. Bunce D, Fratiglioni L, Small BJ, et al. APOE and cognitive decline in preclinical Alzheimer disease and non-demented aging. *Neurology* 2004;63:816–821.
27. Chou CY, Lin YL, Huang YC, et al. Structural variation in human apolipoprotein E3 and E4: secondary structure, tertiary structure, and size distribution. *Biophys J* 2004;88:455–466.
28. Corder EH, Saunders AM, Strittmatter WJ, et al. Gene dose of apolipoprotein E type 4 allele and the risk of Alzheimer's disease in late onset families. *Science* 1993;261:921–923.
29. Corder EH, Saunders AM, Pericak-Vance MA, Roses AD. There is a pathologic relationship between ApoE-epsilon 4 and Alzheimer's disease. *Arch Neurol* 1995;52:650–651.
30. Crutcher KA. Apolipoprotein E is a prime suspect, not just an accomplice, in Alzheimer's disease. *J Mol Neurosci* 2004;23:81–88.
31. Huang Y, Weisgraber KH, Mucke L, Mahley RW. Apolipoprotein E: diversity of cellular origins, structural and biophysical properties, and effects in Alzheimer's disease. *J Mol Neurosci* 2004;23:189–204.
32. Lahiri DK, Sambamurti K, Bennett DA. Apolipoprotein gene and its interaction with the environmentally driven risk factors: molecular, genetic and epidemiological studies of Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol Aging* 2004;25:651–660.
33. Qiu C, Kivipelto M, Aguero-Torres H, et al. Risk and protective effects of the APOE gene towards Alzheimer's disease in the Kungsholmen project: variation by age and sex. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2004;75:828–833.
34. Saunders AM, Strittmatter WJ, Schmechel D, et al. Association of apolipoprotein E allele E4 with late-onset Alzheimer's disease. *Neurology* 1993;43:1467–1472.
35. Corder EH, Saunders AM, Risch NJ, et al. Protective effect of apolipoprotein E type 2 allele for late onset Alzheimer disease. *Nat Genet* 1994;7:180–184.
36. Rebeck GW, Kindy M, LaDu MJ. Apolipoprotein E and Alzheimer's disease: the protective effects of ApoE2 and E3. *J Alzheimers Dis* 2002;4:145–154.
37. Dal Forno G, Carson KA, Brookmeyer R, et al. APOE genotype and survival in men and women with Alzheimer's disease. *Neurology* 2002;58:1045–1050.

38. Bartres-Faz D, Junque C, Lopez-Alomar A, et al. Neuropsychological and genetic differences between age-associated memory impairment and mild cognitive impairment entities. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 2001;49:985–990.
39. Feskens EJM, Havekes LM, Kalmijn S, et al. Apolipoprotein e4 allele and cognitive decline in elderly men. *Br Med J* 1994;309:1202–1206.
40. Caselli RJ, Reiman EM, Osborne D, et al. Longitudinal changes in cognition and behavior in asymptomatic carriers of the APOE e4 allele. *Neurology* 2004;62:1990–1995.
41. Small GW, La Rue A, Komo S, et al. Predictors of cognitive change in middle-aged and older adults with memory loss. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995;152:1757–1764.
42. Reiman EM, Caselli RJ, Yun LS, et al. Preclinical evidence of Alzheimer's disease in persons homozygous for the e4-allele for apolipoprotein E. *N Engl J Med* 1996;334:752–758.
43. Bookheimer SY, Strojwas MH, Cohen MS, et al. Patterns of brain activation in people at risk for Alzheimer's disease. *N Engl J Med* 2000;343:450–456.
44. Lee KU, Lee JS, Kim KW, et al. Influence of the apolipoprotein E type 4 allele on cerebral glucose metabolism in Alzheimer's disease patients. *J Neuropsychiatry Clin Neurosci* 2003;15:78–83.
45. Mosconi L, Nacmias B, Sorbi S, et al. Brain metabolic decreases related to the dose of the ApoE e4 allele in Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2004;75:370–376.
46. Scarmeas N, Anderson KE, Hilton J, et al. APOE-dependent PET patterns of brain activation in Alzheimer disease. *Neurology* 2004;63:913–915.
47. Small GW. Neuroimaging and genetic assessment for early diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1996;57:9–13.
48. Small GW, Komo S, La Rue A, et al. Early detection of Alzheimer's disease by combining apolipoprotein E and neuroimaging. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 1996;802:70–78.
49. Jelic V, Julin P, Shigeta M, et al. Apolipoprotein E epsilon4 allele decreases functional connectivity in Alzheimer's disease as measured by EEG coherence. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 1997;63:59–65.
50. Lehtovirta M, Partanen J, Kononen M. Spectral analysis in Alzheimer's disease: relation to apolipoprotein E polymorphism. *Eur J Neurol* 1995;2:129–130.
51. Lehtovirta M, Partanen J, Kononen M, et al. Spectral analysis of EEG in Alzheimer's disease: relation to apolipoprotein E polymorphism. *Neurobiol Aging* 1996;17:523–526.
52. Lehtovirta M, Partanen J, Kononen M, et al. A longitudinal quantitative EEG study of Alzheimer's disease: relation to apolipoprotein E polymorphism. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord* 2000;11:29–35.
53. Babiloni C, Binetti G, Cassarino A, et al. Sources of cortical rhythms in adults during physiological aging: a multi-centric EEG study. *Hum Brain Mapping* 2005 [Epub ahead of print].
54. McKhann G, Drachman D, Folstein M, et al. Clinical diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease: report of the NINCDS-ADRDA Work Group under the auspices of Department of Health and Human Services Task Force on Alzheimer's disease. *Neurology* 1984;34:939–944.
55. Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. Mini Mental State: a practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for clinician. *J Psychiatr Res* 1975;12:189–198.
56. Hughes CP, Berg L, Danziger WL, et al. A new clinical rating scale for the staging of dementia. *Br J Psychiatry* 1982;140:1225–1230.
57. Yesavage JA, Brink TL, Rose TL, et al. Development and validation of a geriatric depression screening scale: a preliminary report. *J Psychiatr Res* 1982–83;17:37–49.
58. Rosen WG, Terry RD, Fuld PA, Katzman R, Peck A. Pathological verification of ischemic score in differentiation of dementias. *Ann Neurol* 1980;7:486–488.
59. Lawton MP, Brodie EM. Assessment of older people: self maintaining and instrumental activity of daily living. *J Gerontol* 1969;9:179–186.
60. Rubin EH, Morris JC, Grant EA, Vendegna T. Very mild senile dementia of the Alzheimer type. I. Clinical assessment. *Arch Neurol* 1989;46:379–382.
61. Albert M, Smith LA, Scherr PA, et al. Use of brief cognitive test to identify individuals in the community with clinically diagnosed Alzheimer's disease. *Int J Neurosci* 1991;57:167–178.
62. Zaudig M. A new systematic method of measurement and diagnosis of "mild cognitive impairment" and dementia according to ICD-10 and DSM-III-R criteria. *Int Psychogeriatr* 1992;4:203–219.
63. Devanand DP, Folz M, Gorlyn M, et al. Questionable dementia: clinical course and predictors of outcome. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 1997;45:321–328.
64. Petersen RC, Smith GE, Waring SC, et al. Aging, memory, and mild cognitive impairment. *Int Psychogeriatr* 1997;9:65–69.
65. Hixson JE, Vernier DT. Restriction isotyping of human apolipoprotein E by gene amplification and cleavage with HhaI. *J Lipid Res* 1990;31:545–548.
66. Buchan RJ, Nagata K, Yokoyama E, Langman, et al. Regional correlations between the EEG and oxygen metabolism in dementia of Alzheimer's type. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 1997;103:409–417.
67. Muller TJ, Thome J, Chiaramonti R, et al. A comparison of qEEG and HMPAO-SPECT in relation to the clinical severity of Alzheimer's disease. *Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci* 1997;247:259–263.
68. Pucci E, Belardinelli N, Cacchio G, et al. EEG power spectrum differences in early and late onset forms of Alzheimer's disease. *Clin Neurophysiol* 1999;110:621–631.
69. Szelies B, Mielke R, Kessler J, Heiss WD. EEG power changes are related to regional cerebral glucose metabolism in vascular dementia. *Clin Neurophysiol* 1999;110:615–620.
70. Rodriguez G, Vitali P, De Leo C, et al. Quantitative EEG changes in Alzheimer patients during long-term donepezil therapy. *Neuropsychobiology* 2002;46:49–56.
71. Babiloni C, Ferri R, Moretti DV, et al. Abnormal frontoparietal coupling of brain rhythms in mild Alzheimer's disease: a multicentric EEG study. *Eur J Neurosci* 2004;19:2583–2590.
72. Moretti DV, Babiloni F, Carducci F, et al. Computerized processing of EEG-EOG-EMG artifacts for multicentric studies in EEG oscillations and event-related potentials. *Int J Psychophysiol* 2003;47:199–216.
73. Leuchter AF, Cook IA, Newton TF, et al. Regional differences in brain electrical activity in dementia: use of spectral power and spectral ratio measures. *Electroenceph Clin Neurophysiol* 1993;87:385–393.
74. Besthorn C, Zerfass R, Geiger-Kabisch C, et al. Discrimination of Alzheimer's disease and normal aging by EEG data. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol* 1997;103:241–248.
75. Chiaramonti R, Muscas GC, Paganini M, et al. Correlations of topographical EEG features with clinical severity in mild and moderate dementia of Alzheimer type. *Neuropsychobiology* 1997;36:153–158.
76. Rodriguez G, Copello F, Nobili F, et al. EEG spectral profile to stage Alzheimer's disease. *Clin Neurophysiol* 1999;110:1831–1837.

77. Rodriguez G, Nobili F, Copello F, et al. 99mTc-HMPAO regional cerebral blood flow and quantitative electroencephalography in Alzheimer's disease: a correlative study. *J Nucl Med* 1999;40:522–529.
78. Cook IA, Leuchter AF. Synaptic dysfunction in Alzheimer's disease: clinical assessment using quantitative EEG. *Behav Brain Res* 1996;78:15–23.
79. Holschneider DP, Waite JJ, Leuchter AF, et al. Changes in electrocortical power and coherence in response to the selective cholinergic immunotoxin 192 IgG-saporin. *Exp Brain Res* 1999;126:270–280.
80. Klimesch W. Memory processes, brain oscillations and EEG synchronization. *Int J Psychophysiol* 1996;24:61–100.
81. Klimesch W. EEG alpha and theta oscillations reflect cognitive and memory performance: a review and analysis. *Brain Res Rev* 1999;29:169–195.
82. Nobili F, Taddei G, Vitali P, et al. Relationships between 99m Tc-HMPAO ceraspect and quantitative EEG observations in Alzheimer's disease. *Arch Gerontol Geriatr* 1998;6:363–368.
83. Pucci E, Cacchiò G, Angeloni R, et al. EEG spectral analysis in Alzheimer's disease and different degenerative dementias. *Arch Gerontol Geriatr* 1997;26:283–297.
84. Kolev V, Yordanova J, Basar-Eroglu C, Basar E. Age effects on visual EEG responses reveal distinct frontal alpha networks. *Clin Neurophysiol* 2002;113:901–910.
85. Klimesch W, Doppelmayr M, Pachinger T, Russegger H. Event-related desynchronization in the alpha band and the processing of semantic information. *Brain Res Cogn Brain Res* 1997;6:83–94.
86. Klimesch W, Doppelmayr M, Russegger H, et al. Induced alpha band power changes in the human EEG and attention. *Neurosci Lett* 1998;244:73–76.
87. Babiloni C, Babiloni F, Carducci F, et al. Human alpha rhythms during visual delayed choice reaction time tasks. A MEG study. *Hum Brain Mapping* 2004;24:184–192.
88. Babiloni C, Babiloni F, Carducci F, et al. Human cortical rhythms during visual delayed choice reaction time tasks. A high-resolution EEG study on normal aging. *Behav Brain Res* 2004;153:261–271.
89. Babiloni C, Miniussi C, Babiloni F, et al. Sub-second “temporal attention” modulates alpha rhythms. A high-resolution EEG study. *Cogn Brain Res* 2004;19:259–268.
90. Babiloni C, Babiloni F, Carducci F, et al. Human cortical responses during one-bit short-term memory: a high-resolution EEG study on delayed choice reaction time tasks. *Clin Neurophysiol* 2004;115:161–170.
91. Babiloni C, Babiloni F, Carducci F, et al. Human cortical EEG rhythms during long-term episodic memory task: a high resolution EEG study of the HERA model. *Neuroimage* 2004;21:1576–1584.
92. Pascual-Marqui RD, Michel CM, Lehmann D. Low resolution electromagnetic tomography: a new method for localizing electrical activity in the brain. *Int J Psychophysiol* 1994;18:49–65.
93. Pascual-Marqui RD, Lehmann D, Koenig T, et al. Low resolution brain electromagnetic tomography (LORETA) functional imaging in acute, neuroleptic-naive, first-episode, productive schizophrenia. *Psychiatry Res* 1999;90:169–179.
94. Pascual-Marqui RD, Esslen M, Kochi K, Lehmann D. Functional imaging with low resolution brain electromagnetic tomography (LORETA): a review. *Methods Find Exp Clin Pharmacol* 2002;24:91–95.
95. Yao D, He B. A self-coherence enhancement algorithm and its application to enhancing three-dimensional source estimation from EEGs. *Ann Biomed Eng* 1997;29:1019–1027.
96. Phillips C, Rugg MD, Friston KJ. Systemic regularization of linear inverse solutions of the EEG source localization problem. *Neuroimage* 2002;17:287–301.
97. Mulert C, Pogarell O, Juckel G, et al. The neural basis of the P300 potential. Focus on the time-course of the underlying cortical generators. *Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci* 2004;254:190–198.
98. Oakes TR, Pizzagalli DA, Hendrick AM, et al. Functional coupling of simultaneous electrical and metabolic activity in the human brain. *Hum Brain Mapp* 2004;21:257–270.
99. Mulert C, Jager L, Schmitt R, et al. Integration of fMRI and simultaneous EEG: towards a comprehensive understanding of localization and time-course of brain activity in target detection. *Neuroimage* 2004;22:83–94.
100. Mulert C, Jager L, Propp S, et al. Sound level dependence of the primary auditory cortex: simultaneous measurement with 61-channel EEG and fMRI. *Neuroimage* 2005;28:49–58.
101. Talairach J, Tournoux P. Co-planar stereotaxic atlas of the human brain. Stuttgart: Thieme, 1988.
102. Anderer P, Saletu B, Pascual-Marqui RD. Effect of the 5-HT(1A) partial agonist buspirone on regional brain electrical activity in man: a functional neuroimaging study using low-resolution electromagnetic tomography (LORETA). *Psychiatry Res* 2000;100:81–96.
103. Anderer P, Saletu B, Semlitsch HV, Pascual-Marqui RD. Non-invasive localization of P300 sources in normal aging and age-associated memory impairment. *Neurobiol Aging* 2003;24:463–479.
104. Anderer P, Saletu B, Saletu-Zyhlarz G, et al. Brain regions activated during an auditory discrimination task in insomniac postmenopausal patients before and after hormone replacement therapy: low-resolution brain electromagnetic tomography applied to event-related potentials. *Neuropsychobiology* 2004;49:134–153.
105. Isotani T, Lehmann D, Pascual-Marqui RD, et al. EEG source localization and global dimensional complexity in high- and low-hypnotizable subjects: a pilot study. *Neuropsychobiology* 2001;44:192–198.
106. Kawasaki T, Tanaka S, Wang J, et al. Abnormalities of P300 cortical current density in unmedicated depressed patients revealed by LORETA analysis of event-related potentials. *Psychiatry Clin Neurosci* 2004;58:68–75.
107. Mulert C, Gallinat J, Pascual-Marqui R, et al. Reduced event-related current density in the anterior cingulate cortex in schizophrenia. *Neuroimage* 2001;13:589–600.
108. Winterer G, Mulert C, Mientus S, et al. P300 and LORETA: comparison of normal subjects and schizophrenic patients. *Brain Topogr* 2001;13:299–313.
109. Laufer I, Pratt H. Evoked potentials to auditory movement sensation in duplex perception. *Clin Neurophysiol* 2003;114:1316–1331.
110. Laufer I, Pratt H. The electrophysiological net response (“F-complex”) to spatial fusion of speech elements forming an auditory object. *Clin Neurophysiol* 2003;114:818–834.
111. Cincotti F, Babiloni C, Miniussi C, et al. EEG deblurring techniques in a clinical context. *Methods. Inf Med* 2004;43:114–117.
112. Veiga H, Deslandes A, Cagy M, et al. Neurocortical electrical activity tomography in chronic schizophrenics. *Arq Neuropsiquiatr* 2003;61:712–717.
113. Nuwer MR. Quantitative EEG. I: techniques and problems of frequency analysis and topographic mapping. *J Clin Neurophysiol* 1988;5:1–43.
114. Hernández JL, Valdés P, Biscay R, et al. A global scale factor in brain topography. *Int J Neurosci* 1994;76:267–278.

115. Cook DG, Leverenz JB, McMillan PJ, et al. Reduced hippocampal insulin-degrading enzyme in late-onset Alzheimer's disease is associated with the apolipoprotein E-epsilon4 allele. *Am J Pathol* 2003;162:313–319.
116. Kar S, Slowikowski SP, Westaway D, Mount HT. Interactions between beta-amyloid and central cholinergic neurons: implications for Alzheimer's disease. *J Psychiatry Neurosci* 2004;29:427–441.
117. Steriade M, Llinas RR. The functional states of the thalamus and the associated neuronal interplay. *Physiol Rev* 1988;68:649–742.
118. Brunia CH. Neural aspects of anticipatory behavior. *Acta Psychol (Amst)* 1999;101:213–242.
119. Pfurtscheller G, Lopez da Silva F. Event-related EEG/MEG synchronization and desynchronization: basic principles. *Clin Neurophysiol* 1999;110:1842–1857.
120. Buser P. Thalamocortical mechanisms underlying synchronised EEG activity. A textbook of clinical neurophysiology: (Halliday AM, Butler SR, Paul R, eds), pp 595–621. Chichester, UK: Wiley, 1987.
121. Rossini PM, Desiato MT, Lavaroni F, Caramia MD. Brain excitability and electroencephalographic activation: non-invasive evaluation in healthy humans via transcranial magnetic stimulation. *Brain Res* 1991;567:111–119.
122. Ricceri L, Minghetti L, Moles A, et al. Cognitive and neurological deficits induced by early and prolonged basal forebrain cholinergic hypofunction in rats. *Exp Neurol* 2004;189:162–172.
123. Sarter M, Bruno JP. Cognitive functions of cortical acetylcholine: toward a unifying hypothesis. *Brain Res Brain Res Rev* 1997;23:28–46.
124. Sarter M, Bruno JP. Age-related changes in rodent cortical acetylcholine and cognition: main effects of age versus age as an intervening variable. *Brain Res Brain Res Rev* 1998;27:143–156.
125. Kobayashi Y, Tadashi I. Sensory-motor gating and cognitive control by the brainstem cholinergic system. *Neural Networks* 2002;731–741.
126. Muzur A, Pace-Schott EF, Hobson JA. The prefrontal cortex in sleep. *Trends Cogn Sci* 2002;6:475–481.
127. Babiloni C, Babiloni F, Carducci F, et al. Movement-related electroencephalographic reactivity in Alzheimer disease. *Neuroimage* 2000;12:139–146.
128. Babiloni C, Cassetta E, Chioyenda P, et al. Frontomedial alpha hyper-reactivity in mild demented patients during visual delayed response tasks. A MEG study. *Brain Res Bull* 2005;65:457–470.
129. Alagona G, Bella R, Ferri R, et al. Transcranial magnetic stimulation in Alzheimer disease: motor cortex excitability and cognitive severity. *Neurosci Lett* 2001;314:57–60.
130. Ferri R, Del Gracco S, Elia M, et al. Scalp topographic mapping of middle-latency somatosensory evoked potentials in normal aging and dementia. *Neurophysiol Clin* 1996;26:311–319.
131. Ferreri F, Pauri F, Pasqualetti P, et al. Motor cortex excitability in Alzheimer's disease: a transcranial magnetic stimulation study. *Ann Neurol* 2003;53:102–108.
132. Pennisi G, Alagona G, Ferri R, et al. Motor cortex excitability in Alzheimer disease: one year follow-up study. *Neurosci Lett* 2002;329:293–296.
133. Holschneider DP, Leuchter AF, Scremin OU, et al. Effects of cholinergic deafferentation and NGF on brain electrical coherence. *Brain Res Bull* 1998;45:531–541.
134. Mesulam M. The cholinergic lesion of Alzheimer's disease: pivotal factor or side show? *Learning Memory* 2004;1143–1149.
135. Mesulam M, Shaw P, Mash D, Weintraub S. Cholinergic nucleus basalis tauopathy emerges early in the aging-MCI-AD continuum. *Ann Neurol* 2004;55:815–828.
136. Mash DC, Flynn DD, Potter LT. Loss of M2 muscarine receptors in the cerebral cortex in Alzheimer's disease and experimental cholinergic denervation. *Science* 1985;228:1115–1117.
137. Geula C, Mesulam MM. Cortical cholinergic fibers in aging and Alzheimer's disease: a morphometric study. *Neuroscience* 1989;33:469–481.
138. Geula C, Mesulam MM. Systematic regional variations in the loss of cortical cholinergic fibers in Alzheimer's disease. *Cereb Cortex* 1996;6:165–177.
139. Geula C, Mesulam MM. Cholinergic system in Alzheimer's disease. 2nd ed. In: *Alzheimer disease*, Terry RD, et al., eds. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1999.