

# *APOE* Genotype and Entorhinal Cortex Volume in Non-Demented Community-Dwelling Adults in Midlife and Early Old Age

David Bunce<sup>a,\*</sup>, Kaarin J. Anstey<sup>b</sup>, Nicolas Cherbuin<sup>b</sup>, Prapti Gautam<sup>b</sup>, Perminder Sachdev<sup>c,d</sup> and Simon Easteal<sup>e</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Centre for Cognition and Neuroimaging, Department of Psychology, Brunel University, London, UK

<sup>b</sup>Centre for Research on Ageing, Health and Wellbeing, The Australian National University, Canberra, Australia

<sup>c</sup>Neuropsychiatric Institute, Prince of Wales Hospital, Randwick, NSW, Australia

<sup>d</sup>School of Psychiatry, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia

<sup>e</sup>John Curtin School of Medical Research, The Australian National University, Canberra, Australia

Handling Associate Editor: Ralph Martins

Accepted 15 March 2012

**Abstract.** The apolipoprotein E (*APOE*)  $\epsilon 4$  allele is a risk factor for the neuropathological decline accompanying Alzheimer's disease (AD) while, conversely, the  $\epsilon 2$  allele offers protection. One of the brain structures exhibiting the earliest changes associated with the disease is the entorhinal cortex. We therefore investigated the volumes of the entorhinal cortex and other structures in the medial temporal lobe including the parahippocampal gyrus, temporal pole, and inferior, middle, and superior temporal cortices, in relation to *APOE* genotype. Our main objectives were to determine if (a) volumes systematically varied according to allele in a stepwise fashion,  $\epsilon 2 > \epsilon 3 > \epsilon 4$ , and (b) associations varied according to age. We investigate this association in 627 non-demented community-dwelling adults in middle age (44 to 48 years;  $n = 314$ ) and older age (64 to 68 years;  $n = 313$ ) who underwent structural MRI scans. We found no evidence of *APOE*-related variation in brain volumes in the age groups examined. We conclude that if a  $\epsilon 2 > \epsilon 3 > \epsilon 4$  pattern in brain volumes does emerge in non-demented adults living in the community in old age, it is not until after the age of 68 years.

Keywords: Age, Alzheimer's disease, *APOE*, entorhinal cortex

Recent work [1] in children, adolescents, and young adults up to age 21 years has shown that the entorhinal cortex thickness varies according to apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) genotype in a stepwise pattern;  $\epsilon 2$  carriers' entorhinal cortex thickness exceeds  $\epsilon 3$  carriers who, in

turn, exceed  $\epsilon 4$  carriers. It is well established that in later life, possession of the  $\epsilon 4$  allele is associated with cognitive deficits [2, 3], cerebral atrophy, and functional changes [4], and is a risk factor for Alzheimer's disease (AD) (e.g., [5]). By contrast, the  $\epsilon 2$  allele may confer protection against age-related neuropathology in old age (e.g., [6]).

If the *APOE*-related variation in entorhinal cortex thickness found in young persons extends into middle and late adulthood, it may provide a

\*Correspondence to: David Bunce, Centre for Cognition and Neuroimaging, Department of Psychology, Brunel University, London, UK. Tel.: +44 1895 267242; Fax: +44 1895 237573; E-mail: david.bunce@brunel.ac.uk.

neurobiological mechanism that mediates vulnerability to cognitive impairment and AD. That is, the greater the entorhinal cortex thickness, the greater the protection offered. This possibility is of some importance as there is evidence that the entorhinal cortex is one of the first areas of the brain to exhibit and be severely affected by the neuropathology associated with AD [7–9]. Indeed, such neuropathological changes have been detected in young adulthood and middle age [10, 11]. It is possible that in  $\epsilon 2$  carriers, the critical threshold through which an individual must pass before neurological impairment is manifest may be higher due to the greater cortical thickness. Conversely, in  $\epsilon 4$  carriers, that threshold may be lower due to the reduced entorhinal cortex thickness [1].

Studies that have looked specifically at the entorhinal cortex as a function of *APOE* genotype in cognitively intact adults are relatively consistent in their findings. For example, a study [12] of 25 persons with a family history of AD and 25 persons without this risk factor (overall mean age = 62.3 years) found that a family history of AD and possession of the  $\epsilon 4$  allele was associated additively with thinner entorhinal cortex thickness. Although not taking family history into account, similar results were obtained in another investigation of 14  $\epsilon 4$  carriers and 16 non-carriers (overall mean age = 57 years);  $\epsilon 4$  carriers exhibited thinner entorhinal cortex thickness than non-carriers [13]. Against this work showing  $\epsilon 4$  carriers to have reduced entorhinal cortex sizes, longitudinal research produces mixed results. For example, work investigating the entorhinal cortex and hippocampal atrophy over an approximate 3.5-year period in 42 persons aged 58 to 87 years found no evidence that the rate of atrophy varied according to *APOE* genotype [14]. By contrast, another study over a two year period [15] found significantly greater entorhinal cortex thinning in 16 cognitively intact  $\epsilon 4$  carriers relative to 16 non-carriers, mean age 61 years.

On balance, much of the work in cognitively intact adults suggests that the entorhinal cortex volume or thickness is reduced in  $\epsilon 4$  carriers relative to non-carriers. However, several features of this work are of note. First, all of the studies have relatively small sample sizes. Second, they all compare  $\epsilon 4$  carriers to non-carriers and none have contrasted entorhinal cortex volumes or thickness for  $\epsilon 2$  versus  $\epsilon 3$  versus  $\epsilon 4$  genotypes. Finally, the studies have either investigated restricted age ranges in older adults, or where a wider age range has been employed, the sample size is not sufficiently large to allow for a robust test of age effects on *APOE*-entorhinal cortex associations.

While research has shown the entorhinal cortex thickness to vary according to *APOE* genotype (i.e.,  $\epsilon 2 > \epsilon 3 > \epsilon 4$ ) in children, adolescents, and young adults [1], no work has systematically explored whether this association extends into middle age, and becomes more marked in older age in a large-scale population-based sample. As this may provide important information on later life vulnerability to cognitive impairment and AD, we addressed this research shortfall in a large sample of non-demented community-dwelling adults aged 44 to 48, and 64 to 68 years. Specifically, we investigated if entorhinal cortex volumes in these age-groups varied according to *APOE* genotype. Given the neuroanatomical proximity to the entorhinal cortex and potential vulnerability to the early pathological changes accompanying AD, we also examined volumes for parahippocampal gyrus, temporal pole, and inferior, middle, and superior temporal cortices. Our key question was do *APOE* genotype volume differences in the entorhinal cortex and nearby structures occur in middle age in a stepwise fashion (i.e.,  $\epsilon 2 > \epsilon 3 > \epsilon 4$ ), and importantly, do any differences become more marked or change in early old age?

## METHODS

### *Participants*

Participants were recruited from the Personality and Total Health (PATH) Through Life study [16]. This is a population-based study where the inclusion criteria were (a) being listed on the electoral roll for Canberra and nearby Queanbeyan, Australia, and (b) being within three narrow age range cohorts of 20–24, 40–44, and 60–64 years at baseline in 1999, 2000, and 2001, respectively. Participants were followed up every four years. In contrast to clinical studies where there are strict inclusion and exclusion criteria, the PATH study adopts an epidemiological approach where participants were recruited to be as representative of the catchment area and age cohort as possible. Study procedures complied with guidelines on human experimentation and approval for the study was obtained from the Human Research Ethics Committee of the Australian National University.

This investigation concerns the second wave of data for the middle aged and early old aged participants, aged 44–48 and 64–68 years, respectively. The initial sample at Wave 2 consisted of 852 (431 + 421) individuals who participated in the MRI substudy. From the initial pool, participants who were suffering from neurological disorders were removed as follows:

epilepsy ( $n=7$ ), stroke ( $n=26$ ), head injury ( $n=88$ ). People with data missing on *APOE* genotype ( $n=45$ ) along with those with *APOE* genotype  $\epsilon 2/4$  (see below) were also removed ( $n=26$ ). All participants in the older group were screened with the Mini-Mental State Examination [17]. In order to eliminate possible dementia cases, four persons were excluded as their scores were below 24.

#### *MRI acquisition*

MRI acquisition parameters have been previously described in detail elsewhere [18, 19]. Briefly, participants were scanned on a 1.5T Philips Gyroscan scanner (ACS-NT, Philips Medical Systems, Best, the Netherlands) for T1-weighted 3D structural MRI in coronal orientation and Fast Field Echo sequence, TR=8.93 ms, TE=3.57 ms, flip angle of  $8^\circ$ , matrix size =  $256 \times 256$ , slices 160, and field of view (FOV)  $256 \times 256$  mm, yielding contiguous slices with thickness of 1.5 mm. In addition and due to factors outside the investigators' control, 268 middle aged subjects were scanned on another scanner of the same type. For those, the TR=8.93 ms and TE=3.57 ms values were slightly adjusted to improve image quality, but all other parameters were kept constant. In the middle aged group this variation was not associated with significant differences in age, years of education, total intracranial volume, gray matter volume, white matter volume, or cerebrospinal fluid volume.

#### *Image analysis*

Volumetric segmentation was performed with the Freesurfer image analysis suite, which is documented and freely available for download online (<http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu/>). This processing includes motion correction, removal of non-brain tissue using a hybrid watershed/surface deformation procedure [20], automated Talairach transformation, and segmentation of the subcortical white matter and deep gray matter volumetric structures (including for the present investigation, left and right volumes for the entorhinal cortex, parahippocampal gyrus, temporal pole, and inferior, middle, and superior temporal cortices), tessellation of the gray white matter boundary, and topology correction [21–24]. The validity and reliability of the Freesurfer package has been assessed in a number of recent studies and was found to be very good [18]. One scan was lost during acquisition from the middle age-group and the scans of an additional 28 participants were excluded from the sample due to poor

scan quality, low signal-to-noise ratio, or movement artifacts which did not allow for normal processing with the standard Freesurfer pipeline. Each segmented volume was inspected slice by slice and reprocessed with additional parameters if errors were detected. Following these exclusions the final sample numbered 627 persons (314 and 313 in the middle aged and older groups, respectively). The sample composition according to age-group and *APOE* genotype is presented in Table 1.

#### *APOE genotyping*

Genomic DNA was extracted from buccal swabs using QIAGEN DNA Blood kits (#51162; QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). Two single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs; *rs429358* and *rs7412*) were genotyped to identify *APOE* genotypes comprised of the *APOE*  $\epsilon 2$ ,  $\epsilon 3$ , and  $\epsilon 4$  alleles using TaqMan assays (Applied Biosystems [ABI], Foster City, CA) as described elsewhere [25]. As  $\epsilon 2$  is regarded as a protective factor and  $\epsilon 4$  a risk factor ( $\epsilon 3$  is regarded as neutral), persons with the  $\epsilon 2/4$  genotype were removed from the sample as they may weaken the contrast of primary interest between  $\epsilon 2$  and  $\epsilon 4$ . For this investigation, *APOE* group composition was:  $\epsilon 2 = \epsilon 2/2 + \epsilon 2/3$ ;  $\epsilon 3 = \epsilon 3/3$ ;  $\epsilon 4 = \epsilon 3/4 + \epsilon 4/4$ .

#### *Episodic memory*

*Immediate* and *delayed recall* was assessed as part of a wider neuropsychological battery using the first trial of the California Verbal Learning Test [26]. Participants were required to remember 16 shopping list items and to recall them immediately and again after a delay of twenty minutes. As the two scores were highly intercorrelated ( $0.87, p < 0.001$ ), their mean is reported here.

#### *Health variables*

Further to the exclusions detailed earlier, several health variables were taken into account in the statistical analyses: heart trouble, thyroid disorders, diabetes, and hypertension. These variables were coded 1 = complaint present, 2 = not present. We adopted a conservative approach and coded missing data 2. Hypertension was defined as either diastolic blood pressure  $>90$  or systolic blood pressure  $>140$ .

Table 1  
Descriptive data for demographic, health, and neuroanatomical variables

		€2/2 + 2/3		€3/3		€3/4 + 4/4		Recall <sup>b</sup>
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	
Age-group	40s	43	1	43	1	43	1	—
	60s	63	1	63	1	62	1	—
Gender (men/women) <sup>a</sup>	40s	18/27	—	76/107	—	35/51	—	—
	60s	23/18	—	99/94	—	43/36	—	—
Years of education	40s	15	2	15	2	15	2	—
	60s	13	3	14	3	14	2	—
APOE <sup>a</sup>	40s	45	—	183	—	86	—	—
	60s	41	—	193	—	79	—	—
Heart trouble <sup>a</sup>	40s	0	—	3	—	2	—	—
	60s	3	—	24	—	9	—	—
Thyroid disorders <sup>a</sup>	40s	1	—	3	—	8	—	—
	60s	3	—	18	—	4	—	—
Diabetes <sup>a</sup>	40s	0	—	5	—	3	—	—
	60s	4	—	20	—	9	—	—
Hypertension <sup>a</sup>	40s	9	—	42	—	17	—	—
	60s	18	—	97	—	34	—	—
L entorhinal	40s	1736	299	1772	374	1726	285	0.14*
	60s	1788	281	1698	315	1661	314	0.08
R entorhinal	40s	1567	292	1618	332	1574	319	0.06
	60s	1591	306	1604	302	1561	351	0.06
L parahippocampal	40s	1736	283	1763	279	1781	233	0.09
	60s	1742	254	1692	242	1691	268	−0.06
R parahippocampal	40s	1565	211	1622	262	1602	241	−0.04
	60s	1571	274	1525	232	1529	235	−0.07
L temporal pole	40s	2259	436	2233	406	2223	469	0.11
	60s	2212	436	2234	401	2214	405	−0.02
R temporal pole	40s	2181	411	2236	401	2176	394	0.12*
	60s	2422	432	2339	442	2340	384	−0.03
L inferior temporal	40s	8991	1498	9210	1532	9319	1700	0.07
	60s	8940	1870	8855	1502	8723	1737	−0.07
R inferior temporal	40s	8383	1490	8933	1499	8569	1738	0.04
	60s	8460	1801	8051	1362	8027	1498	−0.03
L mid temporal	40s	10046	1911	10072	1481	10274	1601	0.13
	60s	9595	1246	9517	1514	9415	1483	−0.07
R mid temporal	40s	11042	1478	10785	1516	11054	1612	0.10
	60s	10723	1626	10548	1597	10499	1574	−0.12
L superior temporal	40s	11547	1858	11497	1533	11713	1647	0.07
	60s	10855	1419	10742	1545	10927	1576	−0.10
R superior temporal	40s	10941	1612	10976	1404	11115	1323	−0.01
	60s	10280	1235	10459	1518	10487	1354	−0.03

Notes. Brain volumes in mm<sup>3</sup>; L=Left; R=Right; a=refers to number of cases; b=regression beta weights having controlled for gender and intracranial volume; \**p* < 0.05.

### Statistics

A series of 2 × 2 × 3 Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) were run where hemisphere (left, right) served as a within-subjects factor, and age group (middle age, older) and APOE group (2/2 + 2/3, 3/3, 3/4 + 4/4) as between-subject factors. We covaried intracranial volume (to control for individual brain size differences) and gender (to control for gender-related differences in cortical volumes). Our main question was whether cortical volumes varied according to

APOE group, and importantly, whether any significant main effects were modified by age group.

### RESULTS

Descriptive data for demographic, health, and brain volume variables according to APOE genotype and age are presented in Table 1. Given the association between the temporal lobes and episodic memory, for descriptive purposes, coefficients between the recall

measure and brain volumes are also included in that table. Summary statistics and effect sizes for the ANCOVAs assessing cortical volumes according to hemisphere, age group, and APOE genotype are presented in Table 2.

There were several notable findings. First, with one exception, all of the main effects and higher-order interactions involving APOE were nonsignificant. Second, for entorhinal cortex volume, none of the other main effects or interactions were significant. Third, all of remaining main effects for age were significant, with the majority indicating middle aged persons recorded higher volumes than older participants. The exception was temporal pole, where opposite was the case. The main effect for hemisphere was also significant for temporal pole with right volumes greater than left volumes. However, this largely stemmed from older persons, as a significant Age × Hemisphere interaction indicated right hemisphere volumes to be larger in this group. That interaction was also significant for the middle temporal volume. Here though, the trend was toward greater right hemisphere volumes in both middle aged and older participants. The effect size for this interaction, however, was small. Finally, there was a significant Age × APOE × Hemisphere interaction for inferior temporal lobe volume. ANCOVAs to identify the source of this interaction found the Age group × APOE interaction for the left hemisphere was nonsignificant. For the right hemisphere however, that interaction was significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). Although there was a trend suggesting a decline in volumes in the older group that followed a  $\epsilon 2 > \epsilon 3 > \epsilon 4$  pattern, the source of the interaction stemmed from younger  $\epsilon 3$  carriers who had greater volumes. This was confirmed by a series of Bonferroni adjusted  $T$ -tests where only the age group comparison for  $\epsilon 3$  carriers was significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). Again though, it should be noted that the effects size relating to this interaction was small.

We repeated the ANCOVAs with handedness and years of education as additional covariates, but this did not change the pattern of the original findings. We also reran the ANCOVAs using the more conservative MMSE cutoff of  $\leq 26$  in the older group (13 persons were excluded). With two exceptions, the overall pattern of findings did not change for these analyses using the more homogeneous group. The exceptions were for inferior temporal volume where the Age × APOE × Hemisphere interaction became marginally nonsignificant ( $p = 0.052$ ). Similarly, the Age × Hemisphere interaction for middle temporal volume became marginally nonsignificant ( $p = 0.051$ ). As an example of the overlap between APOE groups,

Table 2  
Summary statistics for Analysis of Covariance: Cortical volumes and Hemisphere × Age × APOE with Intracranial volume and gender as covariates

df	Entorhinal		Parahippocampal		Temporal pole		Inferior temporal		Middle temporal		Superior temporal	
	F	$\mu^2$	F	$\mu^2$	F	$\mu^2$	F	$\mu^2$	F	$\mu^2$	F	$\mu^2$
Hemisphere <sup>a</sup>	1.619	1.11	0.00		<b>5.25*</b>	<b>0.008</b>	1.85		0.02		1.22	
Hemisphere × Age	1.619	1.15	0.06		<b>19.39***</b>	<b>0.030</b>	1.23		<b>4.81*</b>	<b>0.008</b>	3.02	0.01
Hemisphere × APOE	2.619	0.98	0.28		0.15		0.79		0.77		1.23	
Hemisphere × Age × APOE	2.619	0.50	0.40		1.33		<b>3.15*</b>	<b>0.010</b>	0.22		0.24	
Age	1.619	0.70	<b>6.99**</b>	<b>0.011</b>	<b>4.05*</b>	<b>0.007</b>	<b>16.89***</b>	<b>0.027</b>	<b>23.52***</b>	<b>0.037</b>	<b>50.82***</b>	<b>0.076</b>
APOE	2.619	2.58	0.15		0.39		2.07		0.41		0.14	
Age × APOE	2.619	0.50	1.09		0.14		1.47		1.19		0.75	

Note. \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$  (significant statistics highlighted in bold); where  $\mu^2$  column is blank, effect size is close to zero; a = refers to left versus right hemisphere.

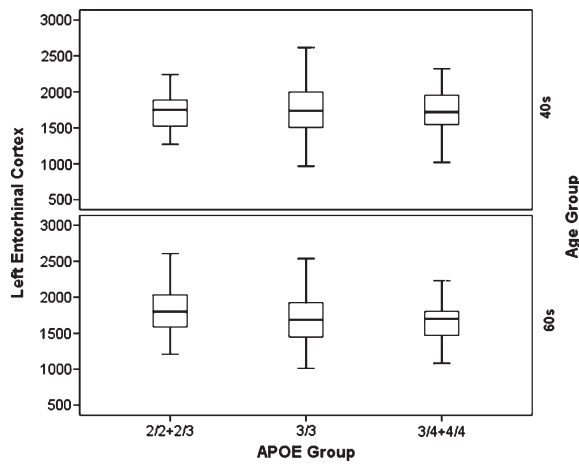


Fig. 1. Left entorhinal cortex volume as a function of age and *APOE*.

Fig. 1 provides a boxplot of left entorhinal cortex volumes in this more homogeneous group according to age and *APOE*.

Finally, we repeated the analyses controlling for the health variables heart trouble, thyroid disorders, diabetes, and hypertension. With one exception, this made no difference to our original findings. The exception was heart trouble where the significant main effect for hemisphere in respect to temporal pole became nonsignificant. Also, as some of the participants were scanned on a different scanner, we repeated the analyses covarying type of scanner. Here, the findings were as in the original analyses except for the Age  $\times$  Hemisphere interaction for middle temporal pole, which became nonsignificant.

## DISCUSSION

This is the largest population-based study of the entorhinal cortex and *APOE* genotype in cognitively intact adults in midlife (44 to 48 years) and early old age (64 to 68 years). Due to their vulnerability to the neuropathological changes associated with AD, other structures in the medial temporal lobe were also examined including the parahippocampal gyrus, temporal pole, and inferior, middle, and superior temporal cortices. Additionally, the sample was sufficiently large to systematically contrast the relative effects of the  $\epsilon 2$ ,  $\epsilon 3$ , and  $\epsilon 4$  alleles. Several notable findings emerged from the study. First, there was no evidence that *APOE* genotype influenced brain volumes in a stepwise fashion (i.e.,  $\epsilon 2 > \epsilon 3 > \epsilon 4$ ) in middle age or early old age. Second, there were several significant age effects, the majority indicating that older participants recorded

smaller volumes. Additionally, using a more conservative MMSE cutoff of  $\leq 26$  made little difference to the original pattern of findings. Finally, taking several health variables, handedness and years of education into account in the statistical analyses did not substantially alter our main findings.

The entorhinal cortex is of particular interest in the present context as both neuroimaging [8, 9], and post-mortem studies [10] have shown it is one of the main brain structures to exhibit the early neuropathological changes associated with AD. Although there have been previous studies showing that *APOE* genotype is associated with entorhinal cortex size in cognitively intact older adults [12–15], the findings are mixed and none have systematically assessed entorhinal cortex volume in midlife and young old age while contrasting the  $\epsilon 2$ ,  $\epsilon 3$ , and  $\epsilon 4$  alleles. Given evidence that possession of the  $\epsilon 4$  allele is a risk factor for AD [5] while the  $\epsilon 2$  allele offers protection [6], the present findings are of some importance. Specifically, although there is work suggesting a  $\epsilon 2 > \epsilon 3 > \epsilon 4$  pattern in relation to the entorhinal cortex thickness in early life [1], the present findings suggest that in middle age and into early old age, this trend is absent.

There are several possible explanations for this finding. The first is that the absence of this trend reflects a Type II error and therefore, should be treated with caution. This seems unlikely however, as the analyses involved 627 persons and the design offered sufficient statistical power to detect small to medium effect sizes at the five percent alpha level. The second possibility is that the *APOE* associations with brain morphology are related to neurodevelopment in early life and neurodegeneration in later life and the present sample aged 44 to 48, and 64 to 68, years fell between those two extremes. It is of note that studies finding an association between the  $\epsilon 4$  allele and entorhinal cortex metrics have either involved participants older than those in the present study [15] or involve persons with a family history of AD who are therefore at greater risk of the disease [12]. Although associations between the  $\epsilon 4$  allele and neuroanatomical volumes in other parts of the brain have been detected in middle age persons [27, 28], it is possible that *APOE*-related effects on the entorhinal cortex and nearby structures occur either with older age or in persons with a greater vulnerability to AD.

A related explanation stems from work suggesting the subclinical phase of the disease extends years and perhaps decades in advance of eventual diagnosis. For example, cognitive deficits have been detected up to ten years in advance of diagnosis [29], and

histopathological work suggests that the neuropathology associated with AD is present decades before emergence of the disease [30]. Given the long pre-clinical phase of AD, and that possession of the  $\epsilon 4$  allele increases the risk of the disease, it is possible that where associations with the entorhinal cortex are found, it is in persons who eventually develop AD. As the PATH Through Life project is ongoing, we do not currently have data on AD status as it will be collected over the coming years. However, the lack of *APOE*-entorhinal cortex effects may be due to the largely healthy, cognitively normal population-based sample and the possibility that relatively few individuals will eventually suffer AD. This possibility will be addressed in future research.

Although not the main focus of the present study, there were also some significant hemisphere effects indicating left temporal pole and middle temporal volumes to be smaller. Work suggesting greater left than right atrophy in mild cognitive impairment and AD [19, 31] may explain this finding, although there is also conflicting evidence [32]. However, the lack of information for the present sample on future dementia status already noted makes this explanation uncertain. Additionally, several effects for hemisphere became nonsignificant in repeat analyses with a more stringent MMSE cutoff and when heart trouble was taken into account. Together, given the large sample and that most of the significant statistics involved small effect sizes, the findings in relation to hemisphere should be treated with caution.

Although the study possesses several strengths, there are also some limitations that we should acknowledge. First, in order to robustly test the *APOE* genotype effect, we would have preferred to contrast  $\epsilon 2$  and  $\epsilon 4$  homozygotes. Although to date, the present study is the largest in non-demented adults to directly contrast the three alleles, there were insufficient numbers possessing the  $\epsilon 2/2$  and  $\epsilon 4/4$  genotypes to achieve this. However, as with work elsewhere [1], we believe our strategy of removing  $\epsilon 2/4$  s, and combining  $\epsilon 2/2$  with  $\epsilon 2/3$  s, and  $\epsilon 3/4$  s with  $\epsilon 4/4$  s, and evaluating relative to  $\epsilon 3/3$  s provided a sufficiently robust test of the main hypothesis. Additionally, although not a limitation, the present study focused on non-demented persons with a maximum age of 68 years. As noted earlier, it is possible that participants were too young to detect the hypothesized *APOE*-related effects. Finally, for reasons beyond our control, some middle aged participants were scanned on a different scanner to the rest of that group. However, both scanners were 1.5T Philips scanners with the same acquisition parameters,

and five controls were scanned on both scanners and no significant volumetric differences were observed. Moreover, as repeating the analyses with scanner type entered as a covariate had little influence on the original findings, it does not appear that scanner differences had a major bearing on the main study outcomes.

To conclude, our findings suggests that *APOE* genotype is not associated with entorhinal cortex volume, or those of other structures in the medial temporal lobe, in cognitively normal community-dwelling adults in midlife and early old age up to 68 years. It is possible that the association between *APOE* genotype and entorhinal cortex metrics is a feature of neurodevelopment in early life and neurodegeneration in late life, and that the ages of the present sample fell between those two extremes. Moreover, associations where they are found in older persons may be related to the sub-clinical phase of AD that extends years in advance of eventual diagnosis. As the entorhinal cortex is one of the first brain structures to exhibit the pathology associated with the disease and may give an early indication of vulnerability to eventual AD, it is important that further work explores the influence of risk factors such as *APOE* genotype on this brain structure in midlife and early old age.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

David Bunce received support from the Leverhulme Trust, UK, and British Academy for this work. Nicolas Cherbuin was funded by NHMRC Research Fellowship No. 471501 and Kaarin Anstey by NHMRC Research Fellowship No.#1002560. The PATH Through Life Project was also supported by National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia Unit Grant No. 973302, Program Grant No. 179805, Project grant No. 157125; Program grant no. 350833. Processing of the MRI data was funded by a grant from the National Computational Infrastructure. We thank the study participants and PATH interviewers Tricia Jacomb and Karen Maxwell. We are also grateful to Anthony Jorm, Bryan Rodgers, Helen Christensen, Chantal Reglade-Meslin, and Andrew Janke.

Authors' disclosures available online (<http://www.jalz.com/disclosures/view.php?id=1226>).

## REFERENCES

- [1] Shaw P, Lerch JP, Pruessner JC, Taylor KN, Rose AB, Greenstein D, Clarsen L, Evans A, Rapoport JL, Giedd JN (2007) Cortical morphology in children and adolescents with different apolipoprotein E gene polymorphisms: An observational study. *Lancet Neurol* 6, 494-500.

- [2] Small BJ, Rosnick CB, Fratiglioni L, Backman L (2004) Apolipoprotein E and cognitive performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychol Aging* **19**, 592-600.
- [3] Wisdom NM, Callahan JL, Hawkins KA (2011) The effects of apolipoprotein E on non-impaired cognitive functioning: A meta-analysis. *Neurobiol Aging* **32**, 63-74.
- [4] Cherbuin N, Leach LS, Christensen H, Anstey KJ (2007) Neuroimaging and APOE genotype: A systematic qualitative review. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord* **24**, 348-362.
- [5] Farrer LA, Cupples LA, Haines JL, Hyman B, Kukull WA, Mayeux R, Myers RH, Pericak-Vance MA, Risch N, van Duijn CM (1997) Effects of age, sex, and ethnicity on the association between apolipoprotein E genotype and Alzheimer disease. A meta-analysis. APOE and Alzheimer Disease Meta Analysis Consortium. *JAMA* **278**, 1349-1356.
- [6] Corder EH, Saunders AM, Risch NJ, Strittmatter WJ, Schmechel DE, Gaskell PC Jr, Rimmler JB, Locke PA, Conneally PM, Schmechel KE, et al. (1994) Protective effect of apolipoprotein E type 2 allele for late onset Alzheimer disease. *Nat Genet* **7**, 180-184.
- [7] Braak H, Braak E, Bohl J, Reintjes R (1996) Age, neurofibrillary changes, A beta-amyloid and the onset of Alzheimer's disease. *Neurosci Lett* **210**, 87-90.
- [8] Janke AL, de Zubicaray G, Rose SE, Griffin M, Chalk JB, Galloway GJ (2001) 4D deformation modeling of cortical disease progression in Alzheimer's dementia. *Magn Reson Med* **46**, 661-666.
- [9] Thompson PM, Mega MS, Woods RP, Zoumalan CI, Lindshield CJ, Blanton RE, Moussai J, Holmes CJ, Cummings JL, Toga AW (2001) Cortical change in Alzheimer's disease detected with a disease-specific population-based brain atlas. *Cereb Cortex* **11**, 1-16.
- [10] Braak F, Braak H (1997) Frequency of stages of Alzheimer-related lesions in different age categories. *Neurobiol Aging* **18**, 351-357.
- [11] Braak H, Del Tredici K (2011) The pathological process underlying Alzheimer's disease in individuals under thirty. *Acta Neuropathol* **121**, 171-181.
- [12] Donix M, Burggren AC, Suthana NA, Siddarth P, Ekstrom AD, Krupa AK, Jones M, Martin-Harris L, Ercoli LM, Miller KJ, Small GW, Bookheimer SY (2010) Family history of Alzheimer's disease and hippocampal structure in healthy people. *Am J Psychiatry* **167**, 1399-1406.
- [13] Burggren AC, Zeineh MM, Ekstrom AD, Braskie MN, Thompson PM, Small GW, Bookheimer SY (2008) Reduced cortical thickness in hippocampal subregions among cognitively normal apolipoprotein E e4 carriers. *Neuroimage* **41**, 1177-1183.
- [14] Du AT, Schuff N, Chao LL, Kornak J, Jagust WJ, Kramer JH, Reed BR, Miller BL, Norman D, Chui HC, Weiner MW (2006) Age effects on atrophy rates of entorhinal cortex and hippocampus. *Neurobiol Aging* **27**, 733-740.
- [15] Donix M, Burggren AC, Suthana NA, Siddarth P, Ekstrom AD, Krupa AK, Jones M, Rao A, Martin-Harris L, Ercoli LM, Miller KJ, Small GW, Bookheimer SY (2010) Longitudinal changes in medial temporal cortical thickness in normal subjects with the APOE-4 polymorphism. *Neuroimage* **53**, 37-43.
- [16] Anstey KJ, Christensen H, Butterworth P, Eastale S, Mackinnon A, Jacomb T, Maxwell K, Rodgers B, Windsor T, Cherbuin N, Jorm AF (2011) Cohort Profile: The PATH Through Life Project. *Amer J Epidemiol*. doi:10.1093/ije/dyr025.
- [17] Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR (1975) "Mini-mental state". A practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. *J Psychiatr Res* **12**, 189-198.
- [18] Cherbuin N, Anstey KJ, Reglade-Meslin C, Sachdev PS (2009) *In vivo* hippocampal measurement and memory: A comparison of manual tracing and automated segmentation in a large community-based sample. *PLoS One* **4**, e5265.
- [19] Cherbuin N, Reglade-Meslin C, Kumar R, Sachdev P, Anstey KJ (2010) Mild cognitive disorders are associated with different patterns of brain asymmetry than normal aging: The PATH through Life Study. *Front Psychiatry* **1**, 11.
- [20] Segonne F, Dale AM, Busa E, Glessner M, Salat D, Hahn HK, Fischl B (2004) A hybrid approach to the skull stripping problem in MRI. *Neuroimage* **22**, 1060-1075.
- [21] Fischl B, Salat DH, Busa E, Albert M, Dieterich M, Haselgrove C, Haselgrove C, van der Kouwe A, Killiany R, Kennedy D, Klaveness S, Montillo A, Makris N, Rosen B, Dale AM (2002) Whole brain segmentation: Automated labeling of neuroanatomical structures in the human brain. *Neuron* **33**, 341-355.
- [22] Fischl B, Salat DH, van der Kouwe AJ, Makris N, Segonne F, Quinn BT, Dale AM (2004) Sequence-independent segmentation of magnetic resonance images. *Neuroimage* **23**(Suppl 1), S69-S84.
- [23] Fischl B, Liu A, Dale AM (2001) Automated manifold surgery: Constructing geometrically accurate and topologically correct models of the human cerebral cortex. *IEEE Trans Med Imaging* **20**, 70-80.
- [24] Segonne F, Pacheco J, Fischl B (2007) Geometrically accurate topology-correction of cortical surfaces using nonseparating loops. *IEEE Trans Med Imaging* **26**, 518-529.
- [25] Jorm AF, Mather KA, Butterworth P, Anstey KJ, Christensen H, Eastale S (2007) APOE genotype and cognitive functioning in a large age-stratified population sample. *Neuropsychology* **21**, 1-8.
- [26] Delis DC, Kramer JH, Kaplan E, Ober BA (1987) *California Verbal Learning Test*. Psychological Corporation, San Antonio, Texas.
- [27] Lind J, Larsson A, Persson J, Ingvar M, Nilsson LG, Backman L, Adolfsson R, Cruts M, Sleegers K, Van Broekhoven C, Nyner L (2006) Reduced hippocampal volume in nondemented carriers of the apolipoprotein E epsilon4: Relation to chronological age and recognition memory. *Neurosci Lett* **396**, 23-27.
- [28] Tohgi H, Takahashi S, Kato E, Homma A, Niina R, Sasaki K, Yonezawa H, Sasaki M (1997) Reduced size of right hippocampus in 39- to 80-year-old normal subjects carrying the apolipoprotein E epsilon4 allele. *Neurosci Lett* **236**, 21-24.
- [29] Amieva H, Le Goff M, Millet X, Orgogozo JM, Peres K, Barberger-Gateau P, Jacqmin-Gadda H, Dartigues JF (2008) Prodromal Alzheimer's disease: Successive emergence of the clinical symptoms. *Ann Neurol* **64**, 492-498.
- [30] Ohm TG, Muller H, Braak H, Bohl J (1995) Close-meshed prevalence rates of different stages as a tool to uncover the rate of Alzheimer's disease-related neurofibrillary changes. *Neuroscience* **64**, 209-217.
- [31] Shi F, Liu B, Zhou Y, Yu C, Jiang T (2009) Hippocampal volume and asymmetry in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease: Meta-analyses of MRI studies. *Hippocampus* **19**, 1055-1064.
- [32] Derflinger S, Sorg C, Gaser C, Myers N, Arsic M, Kurz A, Zimmer C, Wohlschlagel A, Muhlau M (2011) Grey-matter atrophy in Alzheimer's disease is asymmetric but not lateralized. *J Alzheimers Dis* **25**, 347-357.