Diabetes mellitus and cognition: A pathway analysis in the MEMENTO cohort
Eric Frison, Cecile Proust-Lima, Jean-François Mangin, Marie-Odile Habert, Stephanie Bombois, Pierre-Jean Ousset, Florence Pasquier, Olivier Hanon, Claire Paquet, Audrey Gabelle, et al.

To cite this version:
Eric Frison, Cecile Proust-Lima, Jean-François Mangin, Marie-Odile Habert, Stephanie Bombois, et al.. Diabetes mellitus and cognition: A pathway analysis in the MEMENTO cohort. Neurology, 2021, 2021, 10.1212/WNL.0000000000012440. hal-03278377

HAL Id: hal-03278377
https://hal.sorbonne-universite.fr/hal-03278377
Submitted on 5 Jul 2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L’archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire HAL, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d’enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial - NoDerivatives| 4.0 International License
Diabetes Mellitus and Cognition: A Pathway Analysis in the MEMENTO Cohort

Author(s):
Eric Frison, MD PhD1,2; Cecile Proust-Lima, PhD3; Jean-Francois Mangin, PhD3,5; Marie-Odile Habert, MD PhD1,6,7; Stephanie Bombois, MD PhD8; Pierre-Jean Ousset, MD PhD9; Florence Pasquier, MD PhD10; Olivier Hanon, MD PhD11; Claire PAQUET, MD PhD12; Audrey GABELLE, MD PhD13; Mathieu Ceccaldi, MD PhD14; Cédric Annweiler, MD PhD15,16; Pierre Krolak-Salmon, MD PhD17; Yannick Béjot, MD PhD18; Catherine Bellin, MD PhD19; David Wallon, MD PhD20; Mathilde Sauvee, MD PhD21; Emilie Beaufils, MD PhD22; Isabelle Bourdel-Marchasson, MD PhD23,24; Isabelle Jalouques, MD PhD25; Marie Chupin, PhD26; Geneviève Chêne, MD PhD1,2; Carole Dufouil, PhD1,2 on behalf of the MEMENTO cohort Study Group

This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives License 4.0 (CC BY-NC-ND), which permits downloading and sharing the work provided it is properly cited. The work cannot be changed in any way or used commercially without permission from the journal.

*Neurology®* Published Ahead of Print articles have been peer reviewed and accepted for publication. This manuscript will be published in its final form after copyediting, page composition, and review of proofs. Errors that could affect the content may be corrected during these processes.
Statistical Analysis performed by: Eric Frison, MD PhD, Bordeaux University Hospital

Search Terms: [26] Alzheimer's disease, [36] Cognitive aging, [54] Cohort studies, [120] MRI, [122] PET

Acknowledgements: The MEMENTO cohort is sponsored by Bordeaux University Hospital (coordination: CIC1401-EC, Bordeaux) and was funded through research grants from the Fondation Plan Alzheimer (Alzheimer Plan 2008–2012), the French ministry of research and higher education (Plan Maladies Neurodégénératives 2016-2020). The MEMENTO cohort has received funding support from AVID, GE Healthcare, and FUJIREBIO through private-public partnerships. The Insight-PreAD sub-study was promoted by INSERM in collaboration with the Institut du Cerveau et de la Moelle épinière, Institut Hospitalo-Universitaire, and Pfizer and has received support within the “Investissement d’Avenir” (ANR-10-AIHU-06) program. Sponsor and funders were not involved in the study conduct, analysis and interpretation of data.

Study Funding: The authors report no targeted funding

Disclosures: E Frison, C. Proust-Lima, JF Mangin, MO Habert, S Bombois, PJ Ousset, Florence Pasquier, Olivier Hanon, Claire Paquet, A Gabelle, M Ceccaldi, C Annweiler P Krolak-Salmon, Y Béjot, C Belin, D Wallon, M Sauvé, E Beauflis, I Bourdel-Marchasson, I Jalenques, M Chupin, G Chêne, C Dufouil report no disclosures relevant to the manuscript.

Appendix 2-http://links.lww.com/WNL/B459
ABSTRACT

OBJECTIVE: To assess the role of biomarkers of Alzheimer’s Disease (AD), neurodegeneration and small vessel disease (SVD) as mediators in the association between diabetes mellitus and cognition.

METHODS: The study sample was derived from MEMENTO, a cohort of French adults recruited in memory clinics and screened for either isolated subjective cognitive complaints or mild cognitive impairment. Diabetes was defined based on blood glucose assessment, use of antidiabetic agent or self-report. We used structural equation modelling to assess whether latent variables of AD pathology (PET mean amyloid uptake, Aβ_{42}/Aβ_{40} ratio and CSF phosphorylated tau), SVD (white matter hyperintensities volume and visual grading), and neurodegeneration (mean cortical thickness, brain parenchymal fraction, hippocampal volume, and mean fluorodeoxyglucose uptake) mediate the association between diabetes and a latent variable of cognition (five neuropsychological tests), adjusting for potential confounders.

RESULTS: There were 254 (11.1%) participants with diabetes among 2,288 participants (median age 71.6 years; 61.8% women). The association between diabetes and lower cognition was significantly mediated by higher neurodegeneration (standardized indirect effect: -0.061, 95% confidence interval: -0.089; -0.032), but not mediated by SVD and AD markers. Results were similar when considering latent variables of memory or executive functioning.

CONCLUSION: In a large clinical cohort in the elderly, diabetes is associated with lower cognition through neurodegeneration, independently of SVD and AD biomarkers.
INTRODUCTION

Type 2 diabetes (diabetes) is a risk factor for cognitive decline and dementia (1,2). Several underlying mechanisms could be involved, such as chronic hyperglycemia leading to advanced glycation end-products, atherosclerosis, and subsequent cerebrovascular lesions (3–5). Insulin dysregulation, including insulin resistance and insulin deficiency, may promote cerebral hypometabolism (6) and amyloid and tau pathologies, hallmarks of Alzheimer’s disease (AD) (7). Diabetes has also been associated with brain structural modifications such as cerebral atrophy and cerebrovascular lesions (8–10). Moreover, while diabetes is associated with cerebral hypometabolism (11,12), results are conflicting regarding its association with amyloid and tau pathology, whether measured in the brain (PET) or in CSF (11,13,14).

Previous studies have suggested a mediating role of neurodegeneration and small vessel disease biomarkers on the association between diabetes and cognition (15–17). However, the mediating role of AD-specific lesions (amyloid plaques and neurofibrillary tangles), and the correlation between those different brain features have not been considered so far.

We thus estimated the mediating effect of biomarkers of AD, neurodegeneration and small vessel disease in the association between diabetes and cognition, in non-demented older adults recruited from French memory clinics.

METHODS

The MEMENTO Cohort

The MEMENTO cohort is a clinic-based study of patients presenting with a large variety of cognitive symptoms or subjective cognitive complaints, who were enrolled between April 2011 and June 2014, within the French national network of university hospital-based memory clinics (18). At inclusion, participants presented either 1) with mild cognitive impairment, when performing one standard deviation worse than the mean of the subject’s own age, sex, and education-level group, in one or more cognitive domains, this deviation being identified for the first time through cognitive tests performed recently (less than 6 months preceding screening phase), or 2) with isolated cognitive complaints, if participants had subjective cognitive complaint (assessed through visual analogic scale), without any objective cognitive deficit as defined previously, while being 60 years and older. All participants had a Clinical
Dementia Rating scale (19) score ≤0.5. Main exclusion criteria have been described elsewhere (22). All examinations (including neuropsychological battery administration, clinical examinations, brain MRI, CSF samples and fluorodeoxyglucose [FDG] and amyloid PET) followed standardized procedures (18).

Among the 2,323 participants included in the MEMENTO cohort, 2,288 participants from 26 study centers were included in this analysis after exclusion of participants with missing data on diabetes status (N = 35).

**Standard protocol approvals, registrations, and patient consents**

This study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants provided written informed consent. The MEMENTO cohort protocol has been approved by the local ethics committee (“Comité de Protection des Personnes Sud-Ouest et Outre Mer III”; approval number 2010-A01394-35) and was registered in ClinicalTrials.gov (Identifier: NCT01926249).

**Diabetes definition**

Participants were classified as having diabetes at baseline visit either in presence of fasting blood glucose ≥ 7 mmol/L (≥126 mg/dL) or non-fasting blood glucose ≥ 11.1 mmol/L (≥200 mg/dL) or antidiabetic drug intake (Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical classification system: code A10A “insulins and analogues”, and code A10B “blood glucose lowering drugs, excl. insulins”) or self-reported history of diabetes.

**Neuropsychological evaluation**

A full neuropsychological test battery was administered to participants (18). Global cognition was assessed by Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) (20), long-term memory was assessed by Free and Cued Selective Reminding Test (FCSRT) (21), semantic verbal fluency via ‘animal’ words (22), visuo-spatial abilities by Rey-Osterrieth Complex Figure Test (23), and attention and executive functions by Trail Making Test (TMT) A and B (24).

**Biomarkers assessment**

**MRI**

As part of the inclusion criteria, participants had to agree to undergo brain MRI. Brain magnetic resonance images were acquired after a standardization of the imaging processes and coordinated by the CATI (http://cati-neuroimaging.com), a
neuroimaging platform dedicated to multicentre studies (25). Full details are described elsewhere (18). Briefly, MRI machines of 1.5 and 3 Tesla were used across centers using harmonized protocols. All MRI scans acquired were then centralized, quality checked, and postprocessed to obtain standardized measurements for each participant. Whole-brain, gray matter, and white matter volumes were assessed with Statistical Parametric Mapping 8 (26), hippocampal volumes with the SACHA software (27), and mean cortical thickness of each hemisphere with FreeSurfer 5.3 averaged in the ROI of the Desikan-Killiany atlas (28). White matter lesions volumetry was performed using WHASA software (29) complemented by a centralized visual assessment by a trained rater using the Fazekas and Schmidt scale (30).

**FDG-PET**

18F-FDG-PET was offered to all participants but was not mandatory. PET images were acquired after a standardization of the acquisition and reconstruction imaging parameters, coordinated by the CATI (31). After a centralized quality check and postprocessing performed by the CATI, the following measures were obtained: mean FDG-PET uptake for the regions of interest (ROIs) of the Automated Anatomical Labeling atlas relative to the pons reference region (32), including partial volume correction, and mean FDG-PET uptake for a set of AD-specific ROIs inferred from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative database (33), expressed as standard uptake value ratios (SUVRs).

**PET amyloid imaging**

PET amyloid imaging was available for 643 participants of the analytical sample, using either 18F-florbetapir (Amyvid®, Eli Lilly) (N=437) or 18F-flutemetamol (Vizamyl®, GE Healthcare) (N=206) radioligands. Mean brain amyloid SUVR was computed, harmonized across the radioligands (34), and used for the current study.

**CSF sampling**

Lumbar puncture was offered to all participants but was not mandatory, and CSF centralized measurements of amyloid-β 42 peptide (Aβ42), Aβ40, total tau, and phosphorylated tau levels were performed using the standardised INNOTEST sandwich ELISA (Fujirebio, Ghent, Belgium).

**Potential confounding factors**
Sociodemographic information recorded at baseline included age, sex and education (low education defined as no or primary school, intermediate education defined as secondary school or high school, and high education defined as university). Lifestyle factors included smoking status (never, former and current smoker) and current alcohol consumption (no, ≤1 drink/day, and >1 drink/day). Hypertension was defined as antihypertensive drug intake or mean of three blood pressure measurements either ≥140 mmHg for systolic blood pressure or ≥90 mmHg for diastolic blood pressure. Dyslipidemia was defined by plasma cholesterol >6.24 mmol/L or use of any lipid-lowering drugs. Body mass index (BMI) was categorized as <20 kg/m², 20 to 25 kg/m², 25.1-29.9 kg/m² and ≥30 kg/m². History of cardiovascular disease was defined as a self-reported history of myocardial infarction, angina pectoris, coronary artery, or peripheral artery disease. History of stroke was self-reported. Depression was assessed with the Neuropsychiatric Inventory–Clinician (NPI-C) (35). APOE ε2, ε3, or ε4 alleles were determined for all participants by KBiosciences (Hoddesdon, UK; www.kbioscience.co.uk) as described elsewhere (18). APOE ε4 status was defined as presence of at least one ε4 allele versus absence.

**Statistical analyses**

Baseline characteristics were compared according to baseline diabetic status for the analytical sample. We used chi-square test (or Fisher exact test when appropriate) and Student t test (or non-parametric Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test when appropriate) for categorical and continuous variables comparisons, respectively.

Brain parenchymal fraction was computed as the sum of grey matter and white matter volumes divided by total intracranial volume. Total hippocampal volume was computed as the sum of left and right hippocampal volumes. WMH volume and hippocampal volume were adjusted for total intracranial volume using the residual approach (36). Mean FDG uptake across the brain was used.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) (37) was used to examine a potential mediating role of biomarkers respectively of AD, small vessel disease (SVD) and neurodegeneration in the association between diabetes and cognition. SEM was preferred over standard regression modeling for its ability to directly focus the mediation analysis on the dimensions of interest (here cognition, SVD, AD and neurodegeneration), and to define each dimension from several noisy observed indicators. The observed indicators of the four latent variables of interest, namely AD pathology, small vessel disease, neurodegeneration and cognition, are listed in
Table 1. They were determined from the literature and validated in preliminary separated SEM analyses. Correlated residuals were assumed between left and right cortial thicknesses and between TMT A and TMT B scores to account for a potential common source of measurement error. Mean brain amyloid SUVR was normalized using a logarithmic transformation and then standardized (z-score) by radioligand. The relationships between diabetes, potential confounders, and latent variables of AD pathology, neurodegeneration, small vessel disease, and cognition were modelled in the structural linear regressions. For ease of interpretation, the four latent variables were standardized (mean 0, variance 1) so that one unit corresponds to the standard deviation of a given dimension. The indirect effects of diabetes on cognition through the latent dimensions were estimated with their 95% CI, using path analysis technique (37). All linear regressions of mediators and cognition were adjusted for the following potential confounding factors: age, sex, education (high education versus low and intermediate), smoking status (current smoker versus never or former smoker), alcohol consumption (>1 drink/day versus ≤1 drink/day), hypertension, dyslipidemia, obesity (≥30kg/m²) and APOE genotype (ε4 carrier versus ε4 non-carrier). Missing values for observed indicators of latent variables and for confounding factors were handled using a full information maximum likelihood approach, assuming missingness at random. The multicentric nature of the data was accounted for and Huber-White robust standard errors were reported to correct for the potential intra-center correlation (38). The general goodness of fit was evaluated using robust Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), robust Comparative Fit Index (CFI), robust Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and its 90% confidence interval, p-value for test of close fit (null hypothesis RMSEA <0.05), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) with cut-offs recommended in the literature (39).

Several sensitivity analyses were performed. First, we used a different definition of “diabetes” by excluding a self-reported history of diabetes. Second, additional baseline characteristics associated with availability of MRI, FDG-TEP, amyloid-PET and CSF data (living alone, Clinical Dementia Rating scale score, prevalent dementia, depression, stroke history, cardiovascular history, and physical activity expressed as metabolic equivalent of task minutes per week, Table 2) were used as auxiliary variables in the estimation process under FIML to strengthen the missing at random assumption. Third, as the mediation analysis framework makes the implicit assumption that mediators (i.e., AD pathology, small vessel disease and neurodegeneration) are anterior to the outcome (i.e., cognition), we tried to preserve this assumption by excluding biomarkers measurements performed more than 6...
months after cognitive assessments. Fourth, as CSF biomarkers are prone to variability whereas brain biomarkers are indicators of accumulated burden of lesions (40), we performed a sensitivity analysis using only brain amyloid load as indicator of the latent variable for AD pathology. Finally, we also compared the results with those obtained when considering interactions between diabetes and each mediator in the main adjusted model, as recommended for mediation analysis (41).

We also explored the mediating pathways in the association of diabetes with specific cognitive domains in separate models: a latent variable for memory (indicators: total free recall score and verbal fluency) and a latent variable for executive functioning (indicators: TMT A and TMT B scores).

Analyses were conducted using SAS v9.3 (SAS Institute Inc, Cary, NC, USA), and R version 3.5.1 (42) with the lavaan package for SEM analysis (38).

Data Availability
Anonymized data will be shared by request from any qualified investigator for the sole purpose of replicating procedures and results presented in the article and as long as data transfer is in agreement with EU legislation on the general data protection regulation.

RESULTS
Baseline description
Compared to participants without diabetes at baseline, participants with diabetes (254, 11.1%) were more likely to be men, and to have lower education level. They were also more likely to have hypertension, dyslipidemia, obesity, and history of cardiovascular disease or stroke. Participants with diabetes had on average lower performances on executive functions and attention, memory and semantic verbal fluency (Table 3).

At baseline, 65.3% of participants with diabetes were taking antidiabetic medications (oral antidiabetic agents, 57.5%; insulin, 13.8%). Diabetes status was solely based on self-report in 60 (23.6%) of the diabetic participants. The median self-reported duration of diabetes was 10.0 years (interquartile range, 4.9-19.4 years).

Diabetes, latent biomarkers and latent cognition
The model fit was adequate according to the recommended cutoffs: robust CFI = 0.951, robust TLI = 0.926, robust RMSEA = 0.040 (90% CI, 0.037; 0.042), p-value for test of close fit = 1.00, and SRMR = 0.038. Associations between diabetes, AD pathology, SVD, neurodegeneration and cognition are presented in Figure 1. Presence of diabetes was significantly associated with higher neurodegeneration but was not significantly associated with AD pathology and SVD. Higher levels of small vessel disease, neurodegeneration and AD pathology were independently associated with lower cognition. Once adjusted for neurodegeneration, AD pathology and SVD, there was no direct effect of diabetes on cognition (standardized \( \beta = 0.023, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.030; 0.076, p = 0.40 \)). Association between diabetes and lower cognition was mainly mediated by higher neurodegeneration (standardized \( \beta = -0.061, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.089; -0.032, p < 0.001 \)). The indirect effect of diabetes on cognition via SVD and AD pathology were non-statistically significant (standardized \( \beta = 0.000, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.004; 0.004, p = 0.98 \) and standardized \( \beta = -0.013, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.040; 0.015, p = 0.38 \), respectively).

In complementary analyses considering specific cognitive functions, associations between diabetes and lower memory or lower executive functioning were also mainly mediated by higher neurodegeneration (standardized \( \beta = -0.058, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.088; -0.029, p<0.001 \) and standardized \( \beta = -0.034, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.151; -0.016, p<0.001 \) respectively) (Table 4).

**Sensitivity analyses**

Results were similar when excluding self-reported history from the definition of diabetes, when adding auxiliary variables to the estimation process or when excluding delayed measures of biomarkers (Table 5). When using only brain amyloid load as indicator of the latent variable for AD pathology, the indirect pathway linking diabetes to lower cognition through higher neurodegeneration was of similar magnitude (standardized \( \beta = -0.066, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.097; -0.034, p<0.001 \)). Diabetes was significantly associated with higher AD pathology (standardized \( \beta = 0.107, 95\% \text{ CI: } 0.021; 0.193, p = 0.01 \)), and higher AD pathology was significantly associated with lower cognition (standardized \( \beta = -0.144, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.248; -0.039, p = 0.007 \)). The indirect pathway linking diabetes to lower cognition through AD pathology remained non-statistically significant (standardized \( \beta = -0.015, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.033; 0.002, p = 0.08 \)) though. When considering interaction between diabetes and each intermediate latent variable, the indirect effects of diabetes on cognition via neurodegeneration (standardized \( \beta = -0.059, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.089; -0.030, p < 0.001 \), AD pathology
DISCUSSION

In a cross-sectional analysis of a large clinical cohort of participants with either isolated cognitive complaints or mild cognitive impairment, we report that the deleterious effect of diabetes on cognitive performances is mainly mediated through markers of neurodegeneration whereas AD pathology (amyloid, p-Tau) or small vessel disease pathology do not seem to play a major role.

The association between diabetes and markers of neurodegeneration such as brain atrophy (8,12,13,43) and brain hypometabolism (11,12) has been consistently reported in cross-sectional studies. While diabetes is a risk factor for vascular disease and stroke, its association with subclinical cerebrovascular lesions (silent brain infarcts, WMH, cerebral microbleeds) is uncertain (44). In the present study, diabetes was not associated with small vessel disease, even though participants with diabetes had more frequent self-reported history of stroke.

The mediating role of neurodegeneration and small vessel disease in the association between diabetes and cognition has already been investigated in several studies. In a sample of 4,206 older adults of the Age, Gene/Environment Susceptibility–Reykjavik Study (mean age 76 years, 11% with diabetes), MRI markers of neurodegeneration (gray matter, normal white matter, and total brain tissue volumes) and small vessel disease (cortical infarcts, subcortical infarcts, WMLs, and CMBs) significantly mediated the cross-sectional association of diabetes with lower processing speed and executive function (15). In a longitudinal analysis on 817 participants from the Alzheimer’s Disease Neuroimaging Initiative cohort (mean age 75 years, 15% with diabetes) the effect of diabetes on cognitive decline up to 60 months (mean follow-up time, 30 months) was significantly mediated by baseline cortical thickness (17). Similarly, in a sample of 448 older adults of the Swedish National Study on Aging and Care in Kungsholmen (mean age at baseline, 72 years), a higher cardiovascular burden, including diabetes as a component, was associated with a faster MMSE decline over 9 years; this effect being largely mediated by brain MRI markers of atrophy (volumes of total gray matter, ventricles, and hippocampus) and small vessel disease (volume of WMHs) (16). Nevertheless, none of those studies accounted for AD biomarkers, unlike the present study.
Insulin resistance and associated insulin signaling impairment promote Aβ accumulation and tau phosphorylation (7). However, no association between diabetes and amyloid and tau biomarkers was reported in previous studies (11,13,45). In the present study, diabetes was associated with higher brain amyloid load measured on PET imaging, but diabetes was not associated with the latent variable of AD pathology, which included CSF biomarkers of amyloid and tau. This discrepancy between brain and CSF biomarkers can partly be explained by the variability of CSF biomarkers, whereas brain biomarkers are indicators of accumulated lesions.

Although it needs to be replicated in longitudinal studies, our finding that neurodegeneration mediates the association between diabetes and cognitive performances, independently of biomarkers of AD and small vessel disease supports the hypothesis of a direct role of diabetes-related insulin resistance in the development of cognitive impairment in older adults with diabetes. Indeed, insulin also plays an important role in neuronal synaptic plasticity and facilitates learning and memory in humans (4) and, therefore, impaired insulin signaling could directly contribute to neuronal dysfunction and degeneration. As impaired insulin signaling has also been linked to promotion of amyloid-β accumulation and tau hyperphosphorylation (7), brain insulin resistance could be a therapeutic target in AD and related dementias. Several exploratory clinical trials have reported a beneficial effect on cognition of intranasal insulin for healthy participants, participants with diabetes, mild cognitive impairment or AD (46), and longer-term trials are currently ongoing.

The MEMENTO study has several strengths to answer the current objectives. First, a wide range of biomarkers was acquired in a highly standardized setting on more than 2,000 participants allowing a multi-dimensional assessment of brain ageing and pathology biomarkers. Indeed, we were able to include simultaneously brain MRI, brain FDG-PET, amyloid-PET and CSF data in a mediation analysis of the diabetes-cognition association, offering a unique insight on underlying mechanisms. Second, we were able to model brain biomarkers as latent variables in a SEM framework, accounting for measurement error of the indicators, and we were able to estimate direct and indirect effects of diabetes on several domains of cognition. Third, results were robust to several sensitivity analyses. There are also some limitations. First, the temporal relationship between diabetes, biomarkers and cognition is not ensured by the cross-sectional design, and causality cannot be claimed. Nevertheless, we can
hypothesize that diabetes preceded biomarkers measures in most participants with diabetes (duration was 4.9 years or more in 75% of participants with diabetes). We also modeled correlations between neurodegeneration, AD pathology and SVD instead of directed relationships because the causal interpretation of their interrelations requires longitudinal data. Second, no tau-PET data was available to assess tau pathology, and we had to use CSF phosphorylated tau as a proxy for cerebral tau accumulation, assuming a strong correlation between both, as suggested by existing evidence (40). Third, the analytical strategy relies on the assumption that data are missing at random. This assumption may be strong for CSF and PET-amyloid data, for which 70% to 80% of data were missing. However, we used a broad range of baseline characteristics associated with availability of CSF and PET-amyloid data as auxiliary variables in the estimation process, thus making the missing-at-random assumption more plausible. We must also acknowledge the unavailability of data regarding past and current glucose control that prevented us to explore whether diabetes control modified the explored relationships. Finally, the observed findings may not fully translate in the general older population, as participants in the MEMENTO study are adults with either isolated cognitive complaints or mild cognitive impairment who were seeking care in memory clinics.

The current results suggest that the detrimental effect of diabetes on cognition is mediated by neurodegeneration, independently of AD and small vessel disease pathologies, in a population of older adults at risk for dementia. Longitudinal studies are now needed to reinforce and confirm these findings.
# Tables

## Table 1. Observed indicators for latent dimensions variables

| Latent variables       | Observed indicators                                      | Data available |
|------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|----------------|
| **Small vessel disease** | White matter hyperintensities volume                     | 1,884 (80.6%)  |
|                        | Fazekas scale scores for paraventricular white matter   | 2,145 (93.8%)  |
|                        | hyperintensities                                        |                |
|                        | Fazekas scale scores for deep white matter               |                |
|                        | hyperintensities                                        | 2,145 (93.8%)  |
| **Alzheimer’s disease** | Mean brain amyloid uptake                                | 643 (28.1%)    |
| **pathology**          | CSF Aβ<sub>42</sub>/Aβ<sub>40</sub> ratio               | 400 (17.5%)    |
|                        | CSF Phosphorylated tau                                   | 408 (17.8%)    |
| **Neurodegeneration**  | Mean right cortical thickness                            | 2,106 (92.0%)  |
|                        | Mean left cortical thickness                             | 2,106 (92.0%)  |
|                        | Brain parenchymal fraction                               | 2,103 (91.9%)  |
|                        | Hippocampal volume                                      | 2,061 (90.1%)  |
|                        | Mean brain FDG uptake                                    | 1,308 (57.2%)  |
| **Cognition**          | FCSRT total free recall score                           | 2,269 (99.2%)  |
|                        | TMT A (seconds/correct move)                             | 2,265 (99.0%)  |
|                        | TMT B (seconds/correct move)                             | 2,192 (95.8%)  |
|                        | Rey complex figure test, 3-minute copy score             | 2,125 (92.9%)  |
|                        | Verbal fluency (number of animals produced)              | 2,245 (98.1%)  |

Abbreviations: FCSRT, Free and Cued Selective Reminding Test; TMT, Trail Making Test.
| Available data                  | No            | Yes           | P \(^a\) |
|--------------------------------|---------------|---------------|----------|
| MRI, N                         | 130           | 2,158         |          |
| Cardiovascular history         | 20 (15.4)     | 185 (8.6)     | 0.008    |
| MMSE score                     | 27.4 (2.2)    | 27.9 (1.9)    | 0.001    |
| FCSRT total free recall score  | 24.3 (9.2)    | 26.1 (8.2)    | 0.01     |
| FDG-PET, N                     | 980           | 1,308         |          |
| Female sex                     | 648 (66.1)    | 765 (58.5)    | <0.001   |
| Current alcohol consumption    |               |               | 0.006    |
| No                             | 352 (37.1)    | 399 (30.8)    |          |
| ≤1d/day                        | 412 (43.5)    | 604 (46.7)    |          |
| >1d/day                        | 184 (19.4)    | 291 (22.5)    |          |
| Dyslipidemia                   | 402 (55.0)    | 480 (46.3)    | <0.001   |
| MMSE score                     | 27.8 (2.0)    | 28.0 (1.9)    | 0.009    |
| TMT A (seconds/correct move)   | 2.1 (1.0)     | 2.0 (0.9)     | 0.005    |
| TMT B (seconds/correct move)   | 5.2 (3.6)     | 4.9 (3.2)     | 0.02     |
| Rey complex figure test, 3-minute copy score | 14.5 (7.1) | 15.6 (6.9) | <0.001 |
| Verbal fluency, animals (number of words produced) | 27.7 (8.7) | 28.8 (8.7) | 0.006 |
| Amyloid-PET, N                 | 1,645         | 643           |          |
| Current alcohol consumption    |               |               | <0.001   |
| No                             | 584 (36.4)    | 167 (26.2)    |          |
| ≤1d/day                        | 713 (44.5)    | 303 (47.5)    |          |
| >1d/day                        | 307 (19.1)    | 168 (26.3)    |          |
| Diabetes                       | 201 (12.2)    | 53 (8.2)      | 0.007    |
| Dyslipidemia                   | 642 (52.8)    | 240 (43.6)    | <0.001   |
| Depression                     | 677 (41.2)    | 212 (33.0)    | <0.001   |
| Clinical Dementia Rating scale |               |               | <0.001   |
| Age (years) | 71.3 (8.6) | 68.8 (8.8) | <0.001 |
| Female sex | 1197 (63.8) | 216 (52.6) | <0.001 |
| Living alone | 602 (32.4) | 101 (24.6) | 0.002 |
| Physical activity, MET-hour/week | 52.2 (47.2) | 59.7 (52.9) | 0.01 |

Abbreviations: FCSRT, Free and Cued Selective Reminding Test; MET, metabolic equivalent of task; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; TMT, Trail Making Test.

a P-values for comparison using t-tests for quantitative variables and chi-square test or Fisher test for qualitative variables. Comparisons for cognitive tests were adjusted for age, sex and education.
Table 3. Baseline characteristics according to diabetes – MEMENTO Cohort, France (n = 2,288)

|                        | No (n = 2,034) | Yes (n = 254) | P     |
|------------------------|----------------|--------------|-------|
| Age (years)            | 70.9 (8.8)     | 70.8 (7.9)   | 0.80  |
| Female sex             | 1,302 (64.0)   | 111 (43.7)   | <0.001|
| Education              |                |              | 0.02  |
| Low                    | 487 (23.9)     | 71 (28.0)    |       |
| Intermediate           | 722 (35.5)     | 103 (40.6)   |       |
| High                   | 823 (40.5)     | 80 (31.5)    |       |
| Smoking status         |                |              | 0.05  |
| Never                  | 1,191 (59.0)   | 137 (54.8)   |       |
| Former                 | 676 (33.5)     | 101 (40.4)   |       |
| Current                | 151 (7.5)      | 12 (4.8)     |       |
| Current alcohol consumption |            |              | 0.17  |
| No                     | 658 (33.0)     | 93 (37.8)    |       |
| Up to 1 drink/day      | 918 (46.0)     | 98 (39.8)    |       |
| >1 drink/day           | 420 (21.0)     | 55 (22.4)    |       |
| Body mass index (kg/m²)|                |              | <0.001|
| <20                    | 145 (7.3)      | 6 (2.4)      |       |
| 20-25                  | 910 (45.7)     | 68 (27.6)    |       |
| 25.1-29.9              | 712 (35.8)     | 92 (37.4)    |       |
| ≥30                    | 223 (11.2)     | 80 (32.5)    |       |
| Hypertension           | 1,135 (59.8)   | 188 (77.4)   | <0.001|
| Dyslipidemia           | 761 (48.9)     | 127 (60.5)   | 0.002 |
| Self-reported cardiovascular history | 156 (7.7) | 49 (19.3) | <0.001 |
| Self-reported stroke history | 76 (3.7) | 16 (6.3) | 0.05  |
| Depression             | 791 (38.9)     | 98 (38.6)    | 0.92  |
| APOE ε4 carrier        | 596 (30.6)     | 60 (24.6)    | 0.05  |
| Cognitive tests        |                |              |       |
| MMSE score             | 28.0 (1.9)     | 27.6 (2)     | 0.03 b|
| FCSRT total free recall score | 26.2 (8.4) | 24.2 (7.4) | 0.03 b|
| TMT A (seconds/correct move) | 2.05 (0.94) | 2.16 (0.88) | 0.02 c|
|                               |        |        |       |
|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------|
| **TMT B (seconds/correct move)** | 4.97 (3.39) | 5.57 (3.41) | <0.001  
| **Rey complex figure test, 3-minute** |       |        |       |
| *copy score*                  | 15.1 (7.0) | 15.5 (7.0) | 0.89  
| **Verbal fluency, (number of animals produced)** |        |        | 0.04  
|                               | 28.5 (8.7) | 26.9 (8.7) |       

Missing data: education, 2; smoking status, 20; alcohol consumption, 46; body mass index, 52; hypertension, 148; dyslipidemia, 521; APOE genotype, 98; MMSE, 6; FCSRT, 19; TMT A, 23; TMT B, 96; Rey complex figure, 163; verbal fluency, 43. Abbreviations: FCSRT, Free and Cued Selective Reminding Test; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; TMT, Trail Making Test.

- **a** P-values for comparison using t-tests for quantitative variables and chi-square test or Fisher test for qualitative variables, except when stated otherwise
- **b** P-values for comparison using linear regression modeling adjusted on age, sex and education.
- **c** P-value for comparison of log-transformed values of TMT A, adjusted on age, sex and education.
- **d** P-value for comparison of log-transformed values of TMT B, adjusted on age, sex and education.
Table 4. Association between diabetes, biomarkers of small vessel disease, neurodegeneration and Alzheimer’s disease, and specific cognitive domains – Structural equation model

| Latent variable of memory | Latent variable of executive functioning |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------------------|
| **Standardized estimate (95% CI)** | **Standardized estimate (95% CI)** |
| **P** | **P** |
| **Direct effect of diabetes on** |
| SVD | 0.001 (-0.035; 0.037) | 0.95 |
| AD pathology | 0.047 (-0.059; 0.153) | 0.38 |
| Neurodegeneration | 0.108 (0.071; 0.145) | <0.001 |
| **Direct effect of** |
| Diabetes on cognition | 0.016 (-0.037; 0.069) | 0.55 |
| SVD on cognition | -0.104 (-0.169; -0.040) | 0.001 |
| Neurodegeneration on cognition | -0.542 (-0.737; -0.346) | <0.001 |
| AD pathology on cognition | -0.282 (-0.421; -0.144) | <0.001 |
| **Correlation between** |
| SVD and AD pathology | 0.159 (0.064; 0.253) | <0.001 |
| SVD and neurodegeneration | 0.038 (-0.056; 0.133) | 0.42 |
| AD and neurodegeneration | 0.257 (0.116; 0.398) | <0.001 |
| **Indirect effect of diabetes on cognition** |
| Through SVD | -0.000 (-0.004; 0.004) | 0.95 |
| Through AD pathology | -0.013 (-0.042; 0.015) | 0.36 |
| Through neurodegeneration | -0.058 (-0.088; -0.029) | <0.001 |
| **Model fit indices** |
| Robust CFI | 0.963 | 0.974 |
| Robust TLI | 0.937 | 0.956 |
| Robust RSMEA (90% CI) | 0.038 (0.035; 0.041) | 0.032 (0.029; 0.035) |
| p-value for test of close fit | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| SRMR | 0.035 | 0.035 |

Abbreviations: AD, Alzheimer’s disease; CFI, comparative fit index; RSMEA, root mean square error of approximation; SRMR, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; SVD, small vessel disease; TLI, Tucker-Lewis Index.
Table 5. Association between diabetes, biomarkers and global cognition - Sensitivity analyses

|                                 | Excluding self-reported history of diabetes | Adding auxiliary variables | Excluding delayed biomarker measurements (>6months) | Using only brain biomarkers as indicators |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
|                                 | Standardized estimate (95% CI) P            | Standardized estimate (95% CI) P | Standardized estimate (95% CI) P | Standardized estimate (95% CI) P |
| Direct effect of diabetes on    |                                            |                            |                                                                |                                          |
| SVD                            | -0.006 (-0.045; 0.033) 0.77                | 0.002 (-0.035; 0.038) 0.92 | 0.006 (-0.031; 0.043) 0.75 | 0.001 (-0.035; 0.036) 0.97 |
| AD pathology                   | 0.049 (-0.046; 0.143) 0.31                | 0.044 (-0.067; 0.155) 0.44 | -0.007 (-0.172; 0.159) 0.94 | 0.107 (0.021; 0.193) 0.01 |
| Neurodegeneration               | 0.084 (0.049; 0.121) <0.001                 | 0.109 (0.072; 0.146) <0.001 | 0.106 (0.068; 0.144) <0.001 | 0.108 (0.071; 0.144) <0.001 |
| Direct effect on cognition of   |                                            |                            |                                                                |                                          |
| Diabetes                       | 0.030 (-0.017; 0.076) 0.21                | 0.023 (-0.030; 0.077) 0.39 | 0.012 (-0.047; 0.072) 0.69 | 0.030 (-0.020; 0.080) 0.23 |
| SVD                            | -0.114 (-0.185; -0.044) <0.001            | -0.113 (-0.183; -0.043) 0.001 | -0.108 (-0.187; -0.029) 0.007 | -0.131 (-0.201; -0.061) <0.001 |
| Neurodegeneration               | -0.576 (-0.743; -0.408) 0.001             | -0.565 (-0.731; -0.399) <0.001 | -0.601 (-0.765; -0.436) <0.001 | -0.609 (-0.777; -0.442) <0.001 |
| AD pathology                   | -0.273 (-0.391; -0.154) <0.001             | -0.275 (-0.403; -0.147) <0.001 | -0.285 (-0.459; -0.111) 0.001 | -0.144 (-0.248; -0.039) 0.007 |
| Correlation between            |                                            |                            |                                                                |                                          |
| SVD and AD pathology           | 0.157 (0.060; 0.254) 0.002                | 0.163 (0.066; 0.260) <0.001 | 0.161 (0.025; 0.298) 0.02 | 0.156 (0.054; 0.257) 0.003 |
| SVD and neurodegeneration       | 0.040 (-0.053; 0.134) 0.39                | 0.038 (-0.133; 0.057) 0.43 | 0.039 (-0.056; 0.134) 0.42 | 0.039 (-0.056; 0.133) 0.42 |
| AD and neurodegeneration        | 0.269 (0.130; 0.409) <0.001                | 0.259 (0.127; 0.390) <0.001 | 0.160 (0.004; 0.316) 0.04 | 0.236 (0.096; 0.376) 0.001 |
| Indirect effect of diabetes on  |                                            |                            |                                                                |                                          |
| cognition through SVD          | 0.001 (-0.004; 0.005) 0.77                | 0.000 (-0.004; 0.004) 0.92 | -0.001 (-0.005; 0.003) 0.75 | 0.000 (-0.005; 0.005) 0.97 |
| Through AD pathology           | -0.013 (-0.037; 0.011) 0.28                | -0.012 (-0.042; 0.018) 0.42 | 0.002 (-0.046; 0.049) 0.93 | -0.015 (-0.033; 0.002) 0.08 |
| Through neurodegeneration      | -0.048 (-0.075; -0.021) <0.001             | -0.061 (-0.091; -0.032) <0.001 | -0.064 (-0.093; -0.035) <0.001 | -0.066 (-0.097; -0.034) <0.001 |
| Model fit indices              |                                            |                            |                                                                |                                          |
| Robust CFI                     | 0.951                                     | 0.951                      | 0.948                                         | 0.953                                      |
| Robust TLI                     | 0.926                                     | 0.926                      | 0.921                                         | 0.924                                      |
| Robust RSMEA (90% CI)          | 0.040 (0.037; 0.042)                      | 0.040 (0.037; 0.042)       | 0.040                                         | 0.043                                      |
| p-value for test of close fit  | 1.00                                      | 1.00                       | 1.00                                          | 1.00                                       |
| SRMR                           | 0.038                                     | 0.032                      | 0.042                                         | 0.033                                      |
Abbreviations: AD, Alzheimer’s disease; CFI, comparative fit index; RSMEA, root mean square error of approximation; SRMR, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; SVD, small vessel disease; TLI, Tucker-Lewis Index.
Figure 1. Structural equation model for the association between diabetes, small vessel disease, neurodegeneration, Alzheimer’s disease biomarkers and cognition

Latent variables of interest are indicated in ovals and observed variables in rectangles. Directed arrows represent linear regressions. Bidirectional arrows represent correlations. Standardized regression coefficients estimates are presented with their 95% confidence interval. Solid lines indicate statistically significant associations and correlations at the 5% level. Dotted lines indicate non-statistically significant associations and correlations at the 5% level. Adjustment covariates and their directed arrows to small vessel disease, neurodegeneration, Alzheimer’s disease biomarkers and cognition are represented in grey. For readiness, the observed indicators defining each latent variable (listed in Table 1) and residual variances for all variables were omitted. AD, Alzheimer’s disease. * p<0.001
References

1. Chatterjee S, Peters SAE, Woodward M, Arango SM, Batty GD, Beckett N, et al. Type 2 Diabetes as a Risk Factor for Dementia in Women Compared With Men: A Pooled Analysis of 2.3 Million People Comprising More Than 100,000 Cases of Dementia. Diabetes Care. 2016;39(2):300–7.

2. Rawlings AM, Sharrett AR, Albert MS, Coresh J, Windham BG, Power MC, et al. The Association of Late-Life Diabetes Status and Hyperglycemia With Incident Mild Cognitive Impairment and Dementia: The ARIC Study. Diabetes Care. 2019;42(7):1248–54.

3. Mayeda ER, Whitmer RA, Yaffe K. Diabetes and Cognition. Clin Geriatr Med. 2015;31(1):101–ix.

4. Verdile G, Fuller SJ, Martins RN. The role of type 2 diabetes in neurodegeneration. Neurobiol Dis. 2015;84:22–38.

5. Biessels GJ, Despa F. Cognitive decline and dementia in diabetes mellitus: mechanisms and clinical implications. Nat Rev Endocrinol. 2018;14(10):591–604.

6. Willette AA, Bendlin BB, Starks EJ, et al. Association of insulin resistance with cerebral glucose uptake in late middle–aged adults at risk for Alzheimer Disease. JAMA Neurol. 2015;72(9):1013–20.

7. Bharadwaj P, Wijesekara N, Liyanapathirana M, Newsholme P, Ittner L, Fraser P, et al. The Link between Type 2 Diabetes and Neurodegeneration: Roles for Amyloid-β, Amylin, and Tau Proteins. J Alzheimer's Dis. 2017;59(2):421–32.

8. Moran C, Phan TG, Chen J, Blizzard L, Beare R, Venn A, et al. Brain atrophy in type 2 diabetes: regional distribution and influence on cognition. Diabetes Care. 2013;36(12):4036–42.

9. Schneider ALC, Selvin E, Sharrett AR, Griswold M, Coresh J, Jack CR, et al. Diabetes, Prediabetes, and Brain Volumes and Subclinical Cerebrovascular Disease on MRI: The Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Neurocognitive Study (ARIC-NCS). Diabetes Care. 2017;40(11):1514–21.

10. Marseglia A, Fratiglioni L, Kalpouzos G, Wang R, Bäckman L, Xu W. Prediabetes and diabetes accelerate cognitive decline and predict microvascular lesions: A population-based cohort study. Alzheimers Dement. 2019;15(1):25–33.

11. Roberts RO, Knopman DS, Cha RH, Mielke MM, Pankratz VS, Boeve BF, et al. Diabetes and elevated hemoglobin A1c levels are associated with brain hypometabolism but not amyloid accumulation. J Nucl Med. 2014;55(5):759–64.

12. Li W, Risacher SL, Huang E, Saykin AJ. Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative. Type 2 diabetes mellitus is associated with brain atrophy and hypometabolism in the ADNI cohort. Neurology. 2016;87(6):595-600.
13. Moran C, Beare R, Phan TG, Bruce DG, Callisaya ML, Srikanth V, et al. Type 2 diabetes mellitus and biomarkers of neurodegeneration. Neurology. 2015;85(13):1123–30.

14. Li W, Risacher SL, Gao S, Boehm SL, Elmendorf JS, Saykin AJ. Type 2 diabetes mellitus and cerebrospinal fluid Alzheimer’s disease biomarker amyloid β1-42 in Alzheimer’s Disease Neuroimaging Initiative participants. Alzheimers Dement. 2018;10:94–8.

15. Qiu C, Sigurdsson S, Zhang Q, Jonsdottir MK, Kjartansson O, Eiriksdottir G, et al. Diabetes, markers of brain pathology and cognitive function: the Age, Gene/Environment Susceptibility-Reykjavik Study. Ann Neurol. 2014;75(1):138–46.

16. Wang R, Fratiglioni L, Kalpouzos G, Lövdén M, Laukka EJ, Bronge L, et al. Mixed brain lesions mediate the association between cardiovascular risk burden and cognitive decline in old age: A population-based study. Alzheimers Dement. 2017;13(3):247–56.

17. Moran C, Beare R, Wang W, Callisaya M, Srikanth V, Alzheimer’s Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI). Type 2 diabetes mellitus, brain atrophy, and cognitive decline. Neurology. 2019;92(8):e823–30.

18. Dufouil C, Dubois B, Vellas B, Pasquier F, Blanc F, Hugon J, et al. Cognitive and imaging markers in non-demented subjects attending a memory clinic: study design and baseline findings of the MEMENTO cohort. Alzheimers Res Ther. 2017;9(1):67.

19. Morris JC. The Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR): current version and scoring rules. Neurology. 1993;43(11):2412–4.

20. Hugonot-Diner L. MMS version consensuelle GRECO. In: La consultation en gériatrie. Paris: Masson; 2001. p. 13–20.

21. Grober E, Buschke H, Crystal H, Bang S, Dresner R. Screening for dementia by memory testing. Neurology. 1988;38(6):900–3.

22. Thurstone LL. Psychophysical analysis. By L. L. Thurstone, 1927. Am J Psychol. 1987;100(3–4):587–609.

23. Benton AL, Varney NR, Hamsher KD. Visuospatial judgment. A clinical test. Arch Neurol. 1978;35(6):364–7.

24. Tombaugh TN. Trail Making Test A and B: normative data stratified by age and education. Arch Clin Neuropsychol. 2004;19(2):203–14.

25. Operto G, Chupin M, Batrancourt B, Habert M-O, Colliot O, Benali H, et al. CATI: A Large Distributed Infrastructure for the Neuroimaging of Cohorts. Neuroinformatics. 2016;14(3):253–64.

26. Ashburner J, Friston KJ. Unified segmentation. NeuroImage. 2005;26(3):839–51.

27. Chupin M, Hammers A, Liu RSN, Colliot O, Burdett J, Bardinet E, et al. Automatic segmentation of the hippocampus and the amygdala driven by hybrid constraints: method and validation. NeuroImage. 2009;46(3):749–61.
28. Desikan RS, Ségonne F, Fischl B, Quinn BT, Dickerson BC, Blacker D, et al. An automated labeling system for subdividing the human cerebral cortex on MRI scans into gyral based regions of interest. NeuroImage. 2006;31(3):968–80.

29. Samaille T, Fillon L, Cuignet R, Jouvent E, Chabriat H, Dormont D, et al. Contrast-based fully automatic segmentation of white matter hyperintensities: method and validation. PloS One. 2012;7(11):e48953.

30. Fazekas F, Barkhof F, Wahlund LO, Pantoni L, Erkinjuntti T, Scheltens P, et al. CT and MRI rating of white matter lesions. Cerebrovasc Dis. 2002;13 Suppl 2:31–6.

31. Habert M-O, Marie S, Bertin H, Reynal M, Martini J-B, Diallo M, et al. Optimization of brain PET imaging for a multicentre trial: the French CATI experience. EJNMMI Phys. 2016;3(1):6.

32. Buchert R, Wilke F, Chakrabarti B, Martin B, Brenner W, Mester J, et al. Adjusted scaling of FDG positron emission tomography images for statistical evaluation in patients with suspected Alzheimer’s disease. J Neuroimaging. 2005;15(4):348–55.

33. Toussaint P-J, Perlberg V, Bellec P, Desarnaud S, Lacomblez L, Doyon J, et al. Resting state FDG-PET functional connectivity as an early biomarker of Alzheimer’s disease using conjoint univariate and independent component analyses. NeuroImage. 2012;63(2):936–46.

34. Habert M-O, Bertin H, Labit M, Diallo M, Marie S, Martineau K, et al. Evaluation of amyloid status in a cohort of elderly individuals with memory complaints: validation of the method of quantification and determination of positivity thresholds. Ann Nucl Med. 2018;32(2):75–86.

35. de Medeiros K, Robert P, Gauthier S, Stella F, Politis A, Leoutsakos J, et al. The Neuropsychiatric Inventory-Clinician rating scale (NPI-C): reliability and validity of a revised assessment of neuropsychiatric symptoms in dementia. Int Psychogeriatr. 2010;22(6):984–94.

36. Sanfilipo MP, Benedict RHB, Zivadinov R, Bakshi R. Correction for intracranial volume in analysis of whole brain atrophy in multiple sclerosis: the proportion vs. residual method. NeuroImage. 2004;22(4):1732–43.

37. Bollen KA. Structural Equations with Latent Variables. John Wiley & Sons; 2014. 474 p.

38. Rosseel Y. lavaan: An R Package for Structural Equation Modeling. J Stat Softw. 2012;48(1):1–36.

39. Schermelleh-Engel K, Moosbrugger H, Müller H. Evaluating the Fit of Structural Equation Models: Tests of Significance and Descriptive Goodness-of-Fit Measures. Methods of Psychological Research Online. 2003;8(2):23–74.

40. Jack CR, Bennett DA, Blennow K, Carrillo MC, Dunn B, Haeberlein SB, et al. NIA-AA Research Framework: Toward a biological definition of Alzheimer’s disease. Alzheimers Dement. 2018;14(4):535–62.
41. VanderWeele TJ. Mediation Analysis: A Practitioner's Guide. Annu Rev Public Health. 2016;37:17-32.

42. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. [Internet]. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria; 2018. Available from: https://www.R-project.org/

43. Espeland MA, Bryan RN, Goveas JS, Robinson JG, Siddiqui MS, Liu S, et al. Influence of type 2 diabetes on brain volumes and changes in brain volumes: results from the Women’s Health Initiative Magnetic Resonance Imaging studies. Diabetes Care. 2013;36(1):90–7.

44. Moran C, Beare R, Phan T, Starkstein S, Bruce D, Romina M, et al. Neuroimaging and its Relevance to Understanding Pathways Linking Diabetes and Cognitive Dysfunction. J Alzheimers Dis. 2017;59(2):405–19.

45. Thambisetty M, Jeffrey Metter E, Yang A, Dolan H, Marano C, Zonderman AB, et al. Glucose intolerance, insulin resistance, and pathological features of Alzheimer disease in the Baltimore Longitudinal Study of Aging. JAMA Neurol. 2013;70(9):1167–72.

46. Benedict C, Grillo CA. Insulin Resistance as a Therapeutic Target in the Treatment of Alzheimer's Disease: A State-of-the-Art Review. Front Neurosci. 2018;12:215.
Diabetes Mellitus and Cognition: A Pathway Analysis in the MEMENTO Cohort
Eric Frison, Cecile Proust-Lima, Jean-Francois Mangin, et al.
Neurology published online July 1, 2021
DOI 10.1212/WNL.0000000000012440

This information is current as of July 1, 2021

Updated Information & Services
including high resolution figures, can be found at:
http://n.neurology.org/content/early/2021/07/01/WNL.0000000000012440.full

Subspecialty Collections
This article, along with others on similar topics, appears in the following collection(s):
Alzheimer’s disease
http://n.neurology.org/cgi/collection/alzheimers_disease
Cognitive aging
http://n.neurology.org/cgi/collection/cognitive_aging
Cohort studies
http://n.neurology.org/cgi/collection/cohort_studies
MRI
http://n.neurology.org/cgi/collection/mri
PET
http://n.neurology.org/cgi/collection/pet

Permissions & Licensing
Information about reproducing this article in parts (figures, tables) or in its entirety can be found online at:
http://www.neurology.org/about/about_the_journal#permissions

Reprints
Information about ordering reprints can be found online:
http://n.neurology.org/subscribers/advertise

Neurology® is the official journal of the American Academy of Neurology. Published continuously since 1951, it is now a weekly with 48 issues per year. Copyright © 2021 The Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. on behalf of the American Academy of Neurology. All rights reserved. Print ISSN: 0028-3878. Online ISSN: 1526-632X.