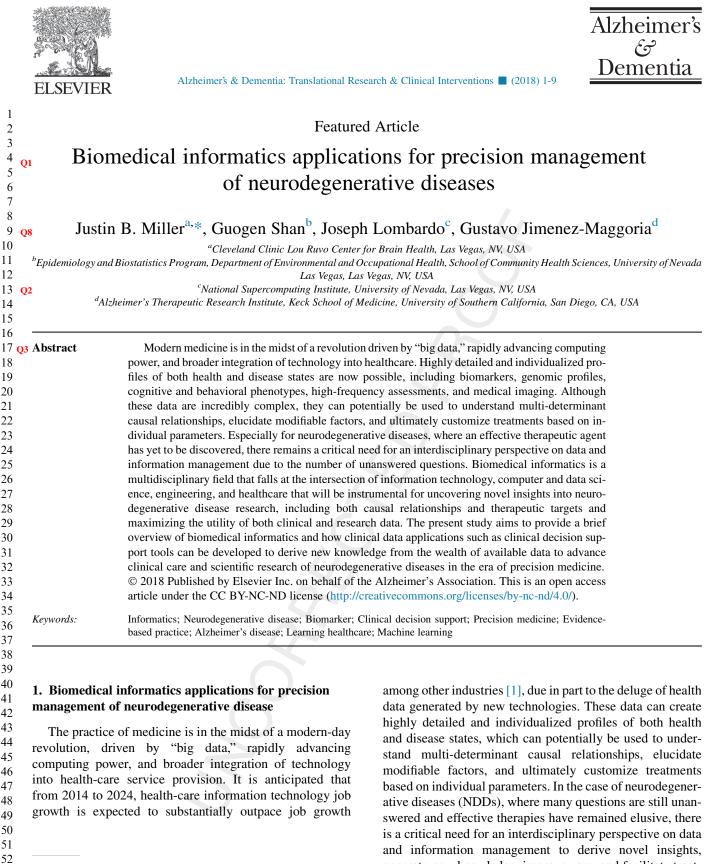
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generate new knowledge, improve care, and facilitate treatment discovery. Biomedical informatics (BMIs) is a https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trci.2018.03.007

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110 multidisciplinary field that falls at the intersection of infor-111 mation technology, computer and data science, engineering, 112 and healthcare; this interdisciplinary intersection will play 113 an integral role in the future of medicine. The present study 114 aims to provide a brief overview of BMIs and how novel 115 clinical data applications can be developed to derive new 116 knowledge from existing data to advance clinical care and 117 scientific research of NDD in the era of precision medicine 118 (PM). The generation and organization of big data and its 119 application in healthcare settings depend on a scientific 120 121 infrastructure that anticipates both the needs of these types 122 of data, as well as, how they may be used. The National In-123 stitutes of Health and the National Institute of General Med-124 ical Sciences support awards such as the Center for 125 Biomedical Research Excellence grants to support big data 126 infrastructure and advance data science. The Center for Neu-127 rodegeneration and Translational Neuroscience is a Center 128 for Biomedical Research Excellence-supported neurosci-129 ence enterprise with a Data Management and Statistics 130 Core that serves as a platform for investigating how to apply 131 big data to PM. 132

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134 *1.1. What is PM?*

136 PM has recently been defined as "an emerging approach 137 for disease treatment and prevention that takes into account 138 individual variability in genes, environment, and lifestyle for 139 each person." [2]. A primary aim of PM is to link individuals 140 with the best possible treatment for an individual's disease in 141 the hope of improving clinical outcomes, and ultimately, pa-142 tient health. Effective implementation of PM into clinical 143 practice requires integration of translational research from 144 a diverse array of data sources to ensure that the PM 145 146 approach is firmly rooted in empirical evidence. Although 147 individualized approaches to clinical care have been present 148 for decades, (e.g., matching blood transfusions or solid or-149 gan transplants based on blood type), the wealth of data 150 available in modern medicine, with all its technological ad-151 vances, moves the potential for truly precise interventions 152 far beyond what has historically been possible. NDDs pre-153 sent significant opportunity for development of PM interven-154 tions [3], not only because of the wealth of genetic 155 information now available [4,5] but also because of the 156 157 concurrent growth in biomarker discovery [6] and the ability 158 to characterize the cognitive and behavioral phenotype in 159 rich detail. Moreover, the historical approaches (e.g., one-160 size-fits-all treatment) have almost universally failed to un-161 cover an effective therapeutic agent [7], which may in part 162 be due to the incredible diversity in disease manifestations 163 that can result from the same underlying pathology. 164

166 1.2. Biomarkers of neurodegeneration for PM

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168 Definitive diagnosis of NDD requires positive identifica169 tion of the pathologic changes occurring in the brain, which
170 for most NDD begin decades before the onset of observable

symptoms. As a result, there is considerable interest in the discovery and validation of reliable biomarkers that could be used to improve diagnostic accuracy, especially early in the disease process before the full clinical syndrome is manifest [8]. At present, body fluid analysis and brain imaging Q4 are the two principal sources for biomarker data. 171

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1.3. Fluid biomarkers

Cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) has been a prominent target for discovery of potential biomarkers, given the possibility that it provides molecular insights into pathologic processes within the brain. For example, amyloid β -42 and tau were two of the earliest validated biomarkers in Alzheimer's disease (AD) [9], which has been refined to separate tau into total tau and phosphorylated tau [10,11]. These CSF markers have demonstrated good sensitivity to AD pathology and are widely used in both clinical practice and research. However, limited specificity [12,13] has mitigated their utility as stand-alone diagnostics, especially at preclinical stages [14]. Coupled with the invasive nature of CSF studies, recent efforts have focused on identification of potential biomarkers in peripheral fluids (e.g., saliva, blood).

Though there is considerable appeal in a validated blood test for AD pathology, most efforts to date have not been successful [15]. Recent developments, however, have shown significant promise, with high rates of overall classification accuracy [16]. If replicated and independently validated, the simplicity of a blood test would have significant clinical utility. Once integrated with the clinical history, a blood test with high sensitivity would make an excellent screening tool that could be used to quickly and efficiently rule out the presence of pathology or prompt for additional diagnostic testing.

1.4. Imaging biomarkers

Brain imaging is also a widely used biomarker, including both structural and functional imaging. For example, magnetic resonance imaging can be used to measure both regional (e.g., medial temporal structures in AD; frontal atrophy in frontotemporal dementia) and whole-brain atrophy, both of which can be used to inform differential diagnosis [17]. Several molecular imaging techniques have also been validated for detecting AD pathology (specifically ß amyloid), including Pittsburgh compound B [18], and fluorine-18 labeled radiotracers such as florbetapir [19,20], florbetaben, and flutemetamol [21]. Cerebral glucose metabolism has also been widely used (e.g., fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography), both for identification of early AD-related changes [22] and differentiating them from other NDDs (e.g., frontotemporal dementia) [23,24]. Tau imaging is increasingly used to identify the state of tau aggregation in the course of AD [25], which may be particularly beneficial very early in the disease process [26]. The noninvasive, or minimally invasive, nature of

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