

# Tau PET positivity in individuals with and without cognitive impairment varies with age, amyloid- $\beta$ status, *APOE* genotype and sex

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A list of authors and their affiliations appears at the end of the paper

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Tau positron emission tomography (PET) imaging allows in vivo detection of tau proteinopathy in Alzheimer's disease, which is associated with neurodegeneration and cognitive decline. Understanding how demographic, clinical and genetic factors relate to tau PET positivity will facilitate its use for clinical practice and research. Here we conducted an analysis of 42 cohorts worldwide ( $N = 12,048$ ), including 7,394 cognitively unimpaired (CU) participants, 2,177 participants with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and 2,477 participants with dementia. We found that from age 60 years to 80 years, tau PET positivity in a temporal composite region increased from 1.1% to 4.4% among CU amyloid- $\beta$  ( $A\beta$ )-negative participants and from 17.4% to 22.2% among CU  $A\beta$ -positive participants. Across the same age span, tau PET positivity decreased from 68.0% to 52.9% in participants with MCI and from 91.5% to 74.6% in participants with dementia. Age,  $A\beta$  status, *APOE*  $\epsilon 4$  carriership and female sex were all associated with a higher prevalence of tau PET positivity across groups. *APOE*  $\epsilon 4$  carriership in CU individuals lowered the age at onset of both  $A\beta$  positivity and tau positivity by decades. Finally, we replicated these associations in an independent autopsy dataset ( $N = 5,072$  from 3 cohorts).

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common cause of dementia, with a worldwide prevalence of ~32 million in 2023, which is expected to double by 2060 because of increased life expectancy<sup>1</sup>. AD is neuropathologically characterized by the aggregation of amyloid- $\beta$  ( $A\beta$ ) proteins into extracellular plaques and of tau proteins into intracellular neurofibrillary tangles. Since the 2000s ( $A\beta$ )<sup>2</sup> and 2010s (tau)<sup>3</sup>, both proteinopathies can be visualized and quantified in the living human brain using positron emission tomography (PET). This has led to pivotal insights into the progression of AD over time. For example, amyloid-PET studies have consistently shown that  $A\beta$  proteinopathy is an early event in the AD pathophysiological process and typically emerges decades before symptom onset<sup>4</sup>. As such, many elderly cognitively unimpaired (CU) individuals exhibit considerable  $A\beta$  proteinopathy without manifest cognitive deficits (that is, at age 70 years, PET-assessed  $A\beta$  positivity is ~23%, which increases to ~48% when carrying at least one *APOE*  $\epsilon 4$  allele)<sup>5,6</sup>. Consequently, the temporal association between

$A\beta$  proteinopathy and cognitive decline is moderate<sup>7,8</sup>. Also, major reductions of  $A\beta$  proteinopathy achieved by monoclonal antibody therapy have led to statistically significant but modest clinical benefits in symptomatic AD<sup>9,10</sup>. In contrast, the presence and amount of tau proteinopathy are strongly associated with neurodegeneration, cognitive impairment, rate of clinical progression and treatment response to amyloid-lowering therapies<sup>11,12</sup>. Even in CU individuals, the presence of tau proteinopathy as measured by PET profoundly increases the risk of short-term clinical progression<sup>13,14</sup>.

Based on the recognition of tau proteinopathy as a key manifestation of AD, tau PET tracers are increasingly used in both the clinic and trials<sup>15</sup> and are now incorporated into the core diagnostic criteria for AD<sup>16,17</sup>. One tau PET tracer (that is, [<sup>18</sup>F]florbetapir/Tauvid) has received approval from the US Food and Drug Administration for clinical use to support a clinical diagnosis of AD<sup>18</sup>, because it (and other tau PET tracers) can accurately distinguish between AD dementia and most other

✉ e-mail: [rossenkoppele@amsterdamumc.nl](mailto:rossenkoppele@amsterdamumc.nl); [oskar.hansson@med.lu.se](mailto:oskar.hansson@med.lu.se)

**Table 1 | Participant characteristics**

	CU	MCI	Dementia <sup>a</sup>
<b>n</b>	7,394	2,177	2,477
<b>Age, years</b>	68.7±11.1	71.3±8.8	69.9±9.0
<b>Sex, n women (%)</b>	4,136 (55.9)	980 (45.0)	1,255 (50.9)
<b>APOE ε4 status, n carrier (%)</b>	2,322 (35.9)	879 (47.5)	1,096 (57.0)
<b>Aβ status, n positive (%)</b>	2,218 (30.9)	1,258 (59.3)	1,730 (76.8)
<b>Aβ modality, n PET (%)</b>	6,584 (95.3)	1,892 (90.3)	1,651 (73.3)
<b>Education, years</b>	14.7±3.7	13.5±4.3	13.1±4.2
<b>MMSE</b>	28.7±1.7	26.7±2.4	20.9±6.0
<b>Race/Ethnicity, n self-report (% of total)</b>			
Non-Hispanic white	3,744 (80.5)	879 (80.8)	603 (72.1)
Asian	276 (5.9)	131 (12.0)	187 (22.4)
Black/African American	286 (6.2)	47 (4.3)	26 (3.1)
Hispanic	317 (6.8)	27 (2.5)	14 (1.7)
American Indian or Alaskan Native	9 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.2)
Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	1 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
More than one	13 (0.3)	3 (0.3)	3 (0.4)
Other	4 (0.1)	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)
<b>Tau PET tracer, n (%)</b>			
[ <sup>18</sup> F]flortaucipir	4,118 (55.7)	1,125 (51.7)	1,237 (49.9)
[ <sup>18</sup> F]MK6240	2,066 (27.9)	587 (27.0)	503 (20.3)
[ <sup>18</sup> F]RO948	1,111 (15.0)	434 (19.9)	439 (17.7)
[ <sup>18</sup> F]PI2620	99 (1.3)	31 (1.4)	298 (12.0)

Shown are mean±s.d. unless specified otherwise. Sex was missing for 10 participants (0.1%), APOE ε4 status for 1,796 participants (14.9%), Aβ status for 489 participants (4.1%), Aβ modality for 789 participants (6.5%), education for 1,114 participants (9.3%), Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) for 792 participants (6.6%) and race for 5,593 participants (46.4%). Aβ modality refers to the method used to determine Aβ status, which could include either PET or cerebrospinal fluid markers. <sup>a</sup>Patients with a syndromic dementia diagnosis met diagnostic criteria for AD-type dementia (n=1,804) or non-AD neurodegenerative disorders including FTD (n=162), PSP (n=141), CBS (n=101), DLB (n=76), PDD (n=39), VaD (n=32) or dementia—not otherwise specified (n=122).

(non-AD) neurodegenerative disorders<sup>19,20</sup>. Furthermore, several tau PET tracers have been implemented into clinical trials for participant selection, stratification and/or as a secondary or exploratory outcome measure. This includes application in anti-tau trials<sup>21,22</sup>, but also in anti-Aβ trials<sup>9,10</sup>. To optimize the future use of tau PET in clinical settings, accurate prevalence estimates of tau PET positivity and understanding of how demographic, clinical and genetic factors are associated with these prevalence estimates are essential. This will help clinicians and trialists to interpret the clinical importance of tau PET results and inform clinical trial design. Most tau PET studies conducted to date are single-center studies with insufficient sample sizes for providing reliable prevalence estimates of tau PET positivity, especially when these samples are stratified to explore the effects of individual risk factors for AD-type dementia such as age, sex and APOE genotype.

In the present study, we conducted a large-scale, multicenter analysis of 42 cohorts worldwide (N = 12,048). The present study aimed to estimate the prevalence of tau proteinopathy as measured by PET in CU participants and in individuals with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) or dementia. We investigated whether and how Aβ positivity, age, sex and APOE genotype are associated with tau PET-positivity prevalence estimates. We also compared the estimated tau PET-positivity prevalence against gold standard assessment of tau pathology, that is, the prevalence of neocortical tau proteinopathy in an independent postmortem dataset (n = 5,072).

**Results**

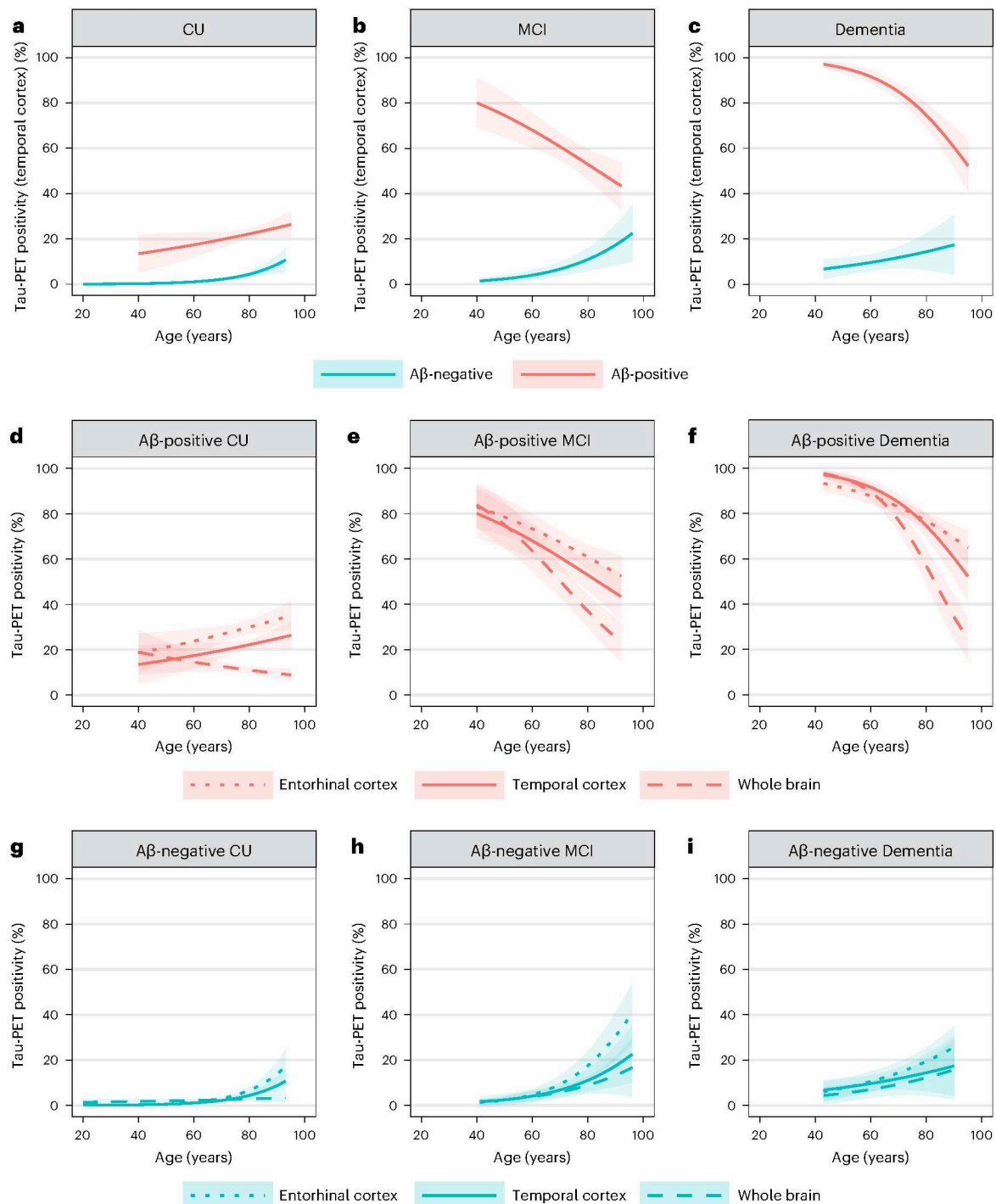
We included 12,048 participants with tau PET from 42 cohorts worldwide, of whom 7,394 were CU participants (mean age: 68.7 ± 11.1 years, 55.9% women, 30.9% Aβ positive), 2,177 with MCI (mean age: 71.3 ± 8.8, 45.0% women, 59.3% Aβ positive) and 2,477 with dementia (mean age: 69.9 ± 9.0, 50.9% women, 76.8% Aβ positive; Table 1). Participant characteristics stratified by Aβ status are presented in Supplementary Table 1. In addition, we included 5,072 participants from 3 independent autopsy cohorts (1,026 CU, 661 MCI and 3,385 dementia; Extended Data Table 1). Throughout the text, the term ‘tau positivity’ refers to a positive (abnormal) tau PET scan based on suprathreshold (cohort-specific threshold of mean + 2 s.d. in Aβ-negative CU individuals who were aged ≥50 years) tracer uptake in a previously established AD-specific region of interest (ROI), covering medial and lateral parts of the temporal cortex<sup>4,19</sup>, or the presence of Braak stage V–VI for neurofibrillary tangle pathology on neuropathological examination (that is, ‘B3’ according to the AD neuropathological scoring system<sup>23</sup>). In secondary analyses, we assessed tau PET positivity in alternative ROIs (entorhinal cortex and a whole-brain ROI), using alternative thresholds (mean + 1 s.d. and mean + 1.5 s.d.) and alternative methods of threshold definition (Gaussian mixture modeling; see Methods for further details). The term ‘prevalence’ refers to the frequency of tau PET positivity in the current dataset.

**Tau positivity according to diagnosis and Aβ status**

The observed prevalence of tau PET positivity in the temporal cortex was 7.6% (558 of 7,394) in CU individuals, 36.8% (801 of 2,177) in participants with MCI and 64.4% (1,595 of 2,477) in participants with all-cause dementia (Extended Data Fig. 1a). When stratifying for Aβ status and syndrome diagnosis, the prevalence of tau positivity in the temporal cortex was 2.1% (102 of 4,968) in Aβ-negative CU participants versus 20.0% (443 of 2,218) in Aβ-positive CU participants, 6.4% (55 of 863) in Aβ-negative participants with MCI versus 58.1% (731 of 1,258) in Aβ-positive participants with MCI and 10.0% (52 of 522) in participants with Aβ-negative dementia versus 83.5% (1,445 of 1,730) in participants with Aβ-positive dementia (Extended Data Fig. 1b,c). When stratifying for Aβ status and clinical dementia diagnosis, the prevalence of tau positivity in the temporal cortex was 23.7% (36 of 152) and 88.5% (1,366 of 1,544) for Aβ-negative versus Aβ-positive participants with AD-type dementia, 7.4% (9 of 121) and 13.0% (3 of 23) for Aβ-negative versus Aβ-positive participants with frontotemporal dementia (FTD), 1.4% (1 of 71) and 11.8% (2 of 17) for Aβ-negative versus Aβ-positive participants with progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP), 2.9% (2 of 69) and 27.8% (5 of 18) for Aβ-negative versus Aβ-positive participants with corticobasal syndrome (CBS), 3.3% (1 of 30) and 41.0% (16 of 39) for Aβ-negative versus Aβ-positive participants with dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB), 7.1% (1 of 14) and 33.3% (1 of 3) for Aβ-negative versus Aβ-positive participants with Parkinson’s disease dementia (PDD), 4.6% (1 of 22) and 0.0% (0 of 9) for Aβ-negative versus Aβ-positive participants with vascular dementia (VaD) and 2.3% (1 of 43) and 67.5% (52 of 77) for Aβ-negative versus Aβ-positive participants with dementia—not otherwise specified (Extended Data Fig. 1b,c). The observed prevalence of tau positivity in the entorhinal cortex and a whole-brain ROI by (syndrome and clinical) diagnosis and Aβ status is presented in Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2, respectively.

**Tau positivity according to age and Aβ status**

Logistic generalized estimating equation (GEE) models showed significant interactions between age and biomarker-defined Aβ status on tau positivity in the temporal cortex in CU participants and those with MCI and dementia (β, the estimated regression coefficient, = −0.06 for CU, β = −0.09 for MCI and β = −0.09 for dementia, all P < 0.001; Fig. 1a,c). From age 60 years to 80 years, the estimated prevalence of tau positivity in the temporal cortex increased from 1.1% (95% confidence interval (CI) 0.7–1.4%) to 4.4% (95% CI 3.2–5.6%) among Aβ-negative CU



**Fig. 1 | Prevalence estimates of tau PET positivity according to age, A $\beta$  and cognitive status.** **a–i**, Tau PET positivity in CU (**a,d,g**), MCI (**b,e,h**) and dementia (**c,f,i**) modeled using age, A $\beta$  status and an interaction between age and A $\beta$  status as determinants. Models were stratified by syndrome diagnosis. Tau PET positivity was assessed in the temporal cortex (**a–i**) as well as in the entorhinal cortex and whole brain (**d–i**). The figure includes 7,186 CU, 2,121 MCI and 2,252

dementia participants for tau PET positivity in the temporal cortex and whole-brain region and 7,174 CU, 2,117 MCI and 2,234 dementia participants for tau PET positivity in the entorhinal cortex. The y axes reflect estimated probabilities of tau PET positivity (prevalence estimates) generated from GEEs. Shaded areas indicate the 95% CIs.

participants, and from 17.4% (95% CI 12.1–22.8%) to 22.2% (95% CI 19.9–24.5%) among A $\beta$ -positive CU participants (Fig. 1a and Table 2). Among A $\beta$ -negative participants with MCI and dementia, from age 60 years to 80 years, the estimated prevalence of tau positivity increased from 4.1% (95% CI 1.9–6.2%) to 11.0% (95% CI 6.0–16.0%) in MCI and from 9.7% (95% CI 6.1–13.2%) to 14.4% (95% CI 6.3–22.5%) in dementia (Fig. 1b,c and Table 2). In contrast, among A $\beta$ -positive participants with MCI

and dementia, from age 60 years to 80 years, the estimated prevalence of tau positivity decreased from 68.0% (95% CI 60.4–75.6%) to 52.9% (95% CI 46.3–59.5%) in MCI and from 91.5% (95% CI 88.8–94.3%) to 74.6% (95% CI 69.4–79.7%) in dementia (Fig. 1b,c, Table 2 and Supplementary Table 2). Next, we separately assessed tau positivity in two additional ROIs, that is, the entorhinal cortex and the whole-brain ROI. Across all groups, we observed that, at the same age, the prevalence



**Table 2 | Prevalence estimates of tau PET positivity in the temporal cortex according to age, Aβ and cognitive status**

Age, years	CU, % (95% CI)			MCI, % (95% CI)			Dementia, % (95% CI)		
	Total	Aβ negative	Aβ positive	Total	Aβ negative	Aβ positive	Total	Aβ negative	Aβ positive
50	2.4 (1.6–3.1)	0.5 (0.2–0.8)	15.3 (8.3–22.4)	32.0 (24.2–39.7)	2.4 (0.8–4.1)	74.5 (64.9–84.1)	74.5 (65.2–83.9)	7.8 (4.0–11.7)	95.4 (93.3–97.6)
55	3.2 (2.3–4.1)	0.7 (0.4–1.1)	16.3 (10.1–22.6)	33.7 (26.7–40.6)	3.2 (1.3–5.0)	71.3 (62.7–80.0)	73.0 (64.4–81.6)	8.7 (5.1–12.3)	93.8 (91.3–96.2)
60	4.2 (3.2–5.2)	1.1 (0.7–1.4)	17.4 (12.1–22.8)	35.4 (29.1–41.8)	4.1 (1.9–6.2)	68.0 (60.4–75.6)	71.4 (63.6–79.3)	9.7 (6.1–13.2)	91.5 (88.8–94.3)
65	5.6 (4.5–6.7)	1.5 (1.1–1.9)	18.5 (14.1–22.9)	37.2 (31.3–43.1)	5.3 (2.7–7.8)	64.4 (57.9–71.0)	69.8 (62.7–76.9)	10.7 (6.8–14.6)	88.7 (85.6–91.7)
70	7.4 (6.2–8.7)	2.2 (1.7–2.7)	19.7 (16.3–23.1)	39.0 (33.2–44.8)	6.8 (3.7–9.8)	60.7 (54.8–66.6)	68.1 (61.5–74.7)	11.8 (7.0–16.6)	84.9 (81.5–88.4)
75	9.8 (8.4–11.2)	3.1 (2.4–3.8)	20.9 (18.4–23.5)	40.9 (34.9–46.9)	8.6 (4.8–12.5)	56.9 (51.0–62.7)	66.4 (60.1–72.6)	13.1 (6.8–19.3)	80.3 (76.2–84.3)
80	12.8 (11.1–14.4)	4.4 (3.2–5.6)	22.2 (19.9–24.5)	42.8 (36.2–49.4)	11.0 (6.0–16.0)	52.9 (46.3–59.5)	64.6 (58.3–70.9)	14.4 (6.3–22.5)	74.6 (69.4–79.7)
85	16.5 (14.4–18.7)	6.2 (4.0–8.4)	23.5 (20.6–26.4)	44.7 (37.2–52.2)	13.9 (7.2–20.6)	48.9 (40.9–56.9)	62.8 (56.1–69.5)	15.8 (5.4–26.2)	67.9 (61.0–74.7)
90	21.1 (18.1–24.1)	8.7 (5.0–12.5)	24.9 (20.7–29.1)	46.6 (38.1–55.1)	17.4 (8.5–26.3)	45.0 (35.3–54.6)	60.9 (53.4–68.4)	17.4 (4.3–30.5)	60.4 (51.5–69.3)

The prevalence estimates of tau positivity in the temporal cortex were generated from logistic GEE models stratified by syndrome diagnosis. Prevalence estimates in the total group were modeled using age as a determinant. Prevalence estimates according to Aβ status were modeled using age, Aβ status and an interaction between age and Aβ status. The analyses presented in this table are based on 7,394 CU participants (68.7±11.1 years, 55.9% women), of whom 7,186 had Aβ status available (68.7±11.1 years, 56.0% women), 2,177 participants with MCI (71.3±8.8 years, 45.0% women), of whom 2,121 had Aβ status available (71.4±8.8 years, 44.8% women) and 2,477 participants with dementia (69.9±9.0 years, 50.9% women), of whom 2,252 had Aβ status available (69.9±9.0 years, 51.2% women).

of tau positivity was highest for the entorhinal cortex, followed by the temporal cortex and then the whole-brain ROI (Fig. 1d,i and Extended Data Tables 2 and 3). For example, in Aβ-positive CU participants aged 80 years, the estimated prevalence of tau positivity was 30.0% (95% CI 26.9–33.0%) for the entorhinal cortex, 22.2% (95% CI 19.9–24.5%) for the temporal cortex and 11.0% (95% CI 9.5–12.5%) for the whole-brain ROI. An additional analysis, including individuals with clinically diagnosed AD-type dementia, yielded very similar results compared with the analysis in the all-cause dementia group (Extended Data Fig. 2 and Extended Data Table 4). The proportion of tau positivity across ROIs for early onset (age at PET < 66 years) versus late-onset (age at PET > 65 years) AD is provided in Supplementary Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table 2.

The same analyses presented above but now using cohort-specific thresholds of mean + 1 s.d. and 1.5 s.d. in Aβ-negative CU individuals yielded largely similar results (Extended Data Fig. 3), as well as analyses in which tau PET thresholds derived from tracer-specific Gaussian mixture modeling (instead of a cohort-specific mean + 2 s.d. in the Aβ-negative CU individual threshold used in the primary analyses; Supplementary Fig. 4). The observed tau PET-positivity prevalence by age, diagnosis and Aβ status is presented in Supplementary Table 3, to allow comparison against the estimated prevalence presented in Table 2.

### Tau positivity by age and APOE ε4 status in CU individuals

In CU individuals, APOE ε4 status (APOE ε4<sup>+</sup> versus APOE ε4<sup>−</sup>,  $\beta = 1.04$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2a and Extended Data Table 5) and the number of APOE ε4 alleles (APOE ε4 homozygous versus APOE ε4 noncarrier,  $\beta = 2.06$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , APOE ε4 heterozygous versus APOE ε4 noncarrier,  $\beta = 0.94$ ,  $P < 0.001$  and APOE ε4 homozygous versus APOE ε4 heterozygous,  $\beta = 1.12$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2b and Supplementary Table 4) were associated with a higher estimated prevalence of tau positivity in the temporal cortex. At the median age of 71 years, the prevalence estimates of tau positivity in the temporal cortex were higher in APOE ε4/ε4 compared with all other genotypes (mean difference ε4/ε4 versus ε2/ε3: 24.1% (95% CI 15.5–32.6%); ε4/ε4 versus ε2/ε4: 20.9% (95% CI 10.6–31.2%); ε4/ε4 versus ε3/ε3: 23.7% (95% CI 15.3–32.2%); and ε4/ε4 versus ε3/ε4: 16.8% (95% CI 9.4–24.2%); all  $P < 0.001$ ) and higher in ε3/ε4 compared with ε2/ε3 and ε3/ε3 genotypes (mean difference ε3/ε4 versus ε2/ε3: 7.3% (95% CI 3.1–11.5%),  $P < 0.001$ ; ε3/ε4 versus ε3/ε3: 6.9% (95% CI 2.8–11.0%);  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2c and Supplementary Table 5). No significant differences were found between the other genotypes and none of the 22 CU participants with an ε2/ε2 genotype were tau positive in any of the ROIs.

### Aβ and tau positivity by age and APOE ε4 in CU individuals

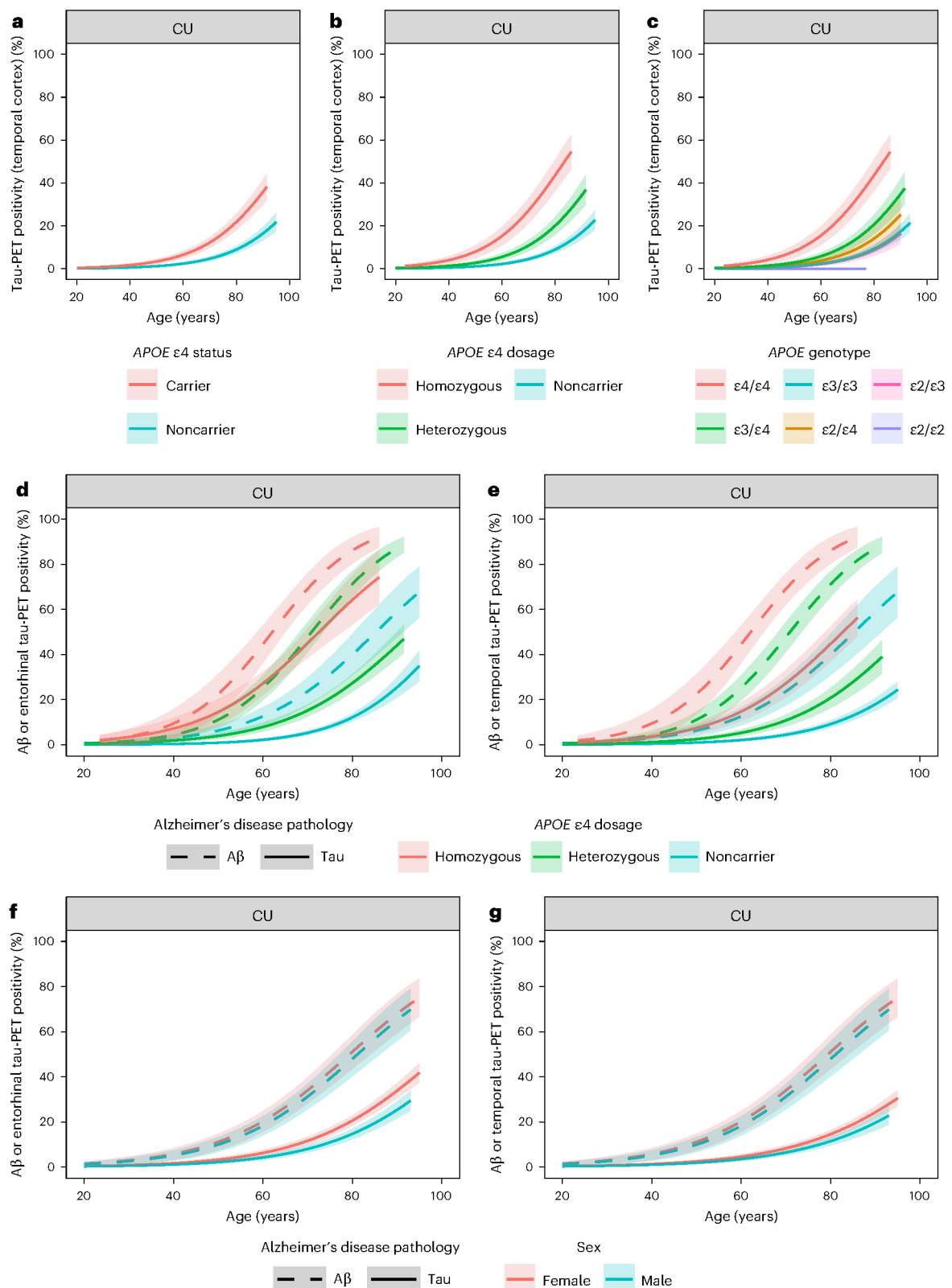
Next, we aimed to estimate the timing of biomarker positivity for both Aβ and tau pathology as a function of age and APOE status or genotype in CU individuals to capture the earliest stages of AD pathophysiology. Figure 2d,e and Extended Data Table 6 illustrate that an increasing APOE ε4 dose is associated with both Aβ and tau positivity occurring at a substantially younger age. The estimated age for 10% Aβ-positivity prevalence is 40.5 years in APOE ε4/ε4 carriers, 49.0 years in APOE ε3/ε4 carriers and 56.5 years in APOE ε4 noncarriers. The estimated age for 10% tau-positivity prevalence in the entorhinal cortex is 44.5 years in APOE ε4/ε4 carriers, 63.5 years in APOE ε3/ε4 carriers and 77.5 years in APOE ε4 noncarriers (Fig. 2d). The estimated age for 10% tau-positivity prevalence in the temporal cortex is 54.5 years in APOE ε4/ε4 carriers, 69.0 years in APOE ε3/ε4 carriers and 81.0 years in APOE ε4 noncarriers (Fig. 2e). These results imply that, at a group level, APOE ε4/ε4 CU individuals become tau positive in the entorhinal cortex at a younger age than APOE ε4 noncarriers become Aβ positive (Fig. 2d), whereas the prevalence curves for tau positivity in the temporal cortex in APOE ε4/ε4 carriers versus Aβ positivity in APOE ε4 noncarriers largely overlap (Fig. 2e).

### Aβ and tau positivity by age and sex in CU individuals

In CU individuals, female sex was associated with a higher estimated prevalence of Aβ positivity ( $\beta = 0.13$ ,  $P = 0.005$ ), tau positivity in the entorhinal cortex ( $\beta = 0.41$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) and tau positivity in the temporal cortex ( $\beta = 0.27$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2f,g) compared with male sex. The estimated age for 10% Aβ-positivity prevalence is 48.5 years for women and 50.0 years for men, the estimated age for 10% tau positivity in the entorhinal cortex is 67.5 years for women and 73.5 years for men (Fig. 2f) and the estimated age for 10% tau positivity in the temporal cortex is 73.0 years for women and 77.5 years for men (Fig. 2g and Extended Data Table 7). These results imply that, at a group level, CU women become Aβ positive and tau positive at a younger age than CU men.

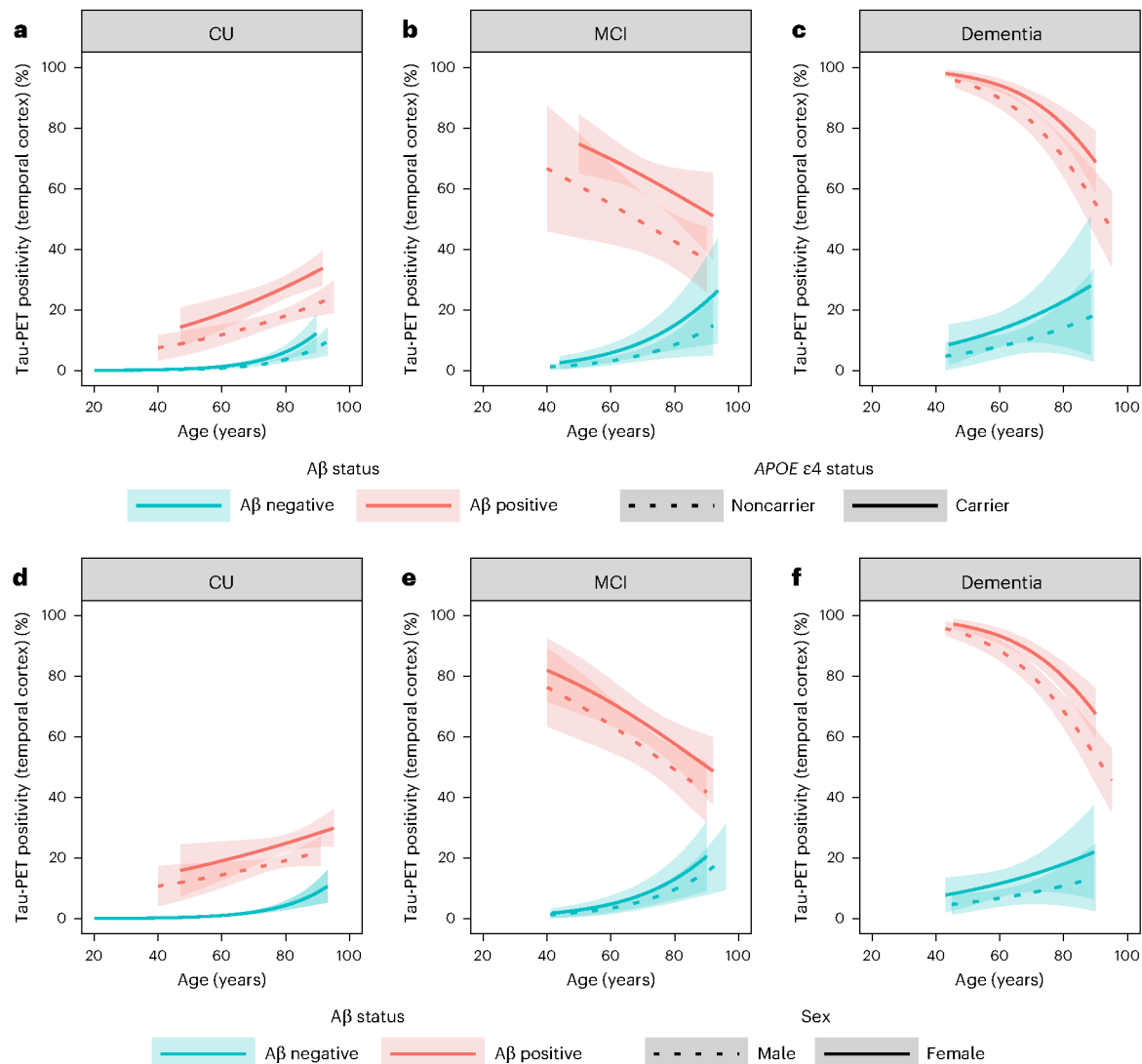
### Tau positivity by age, APOE ε4 status and Aβ status

Given that the age effect on tau positivity was strongly modulated by Aβ status (for example, positive associations in Aβ-negative individuals with MCI or dementia versus negative associations in Aβ-positive individuals with MCI or dementia), we next modeled age, Aβ status and APOE ε4 status simultaneously. In models adjusting for age and Aβ pathology, APOE ε4 carriership was associated with a higher prevalence of tau positivity in the temporal cortex in all diagnostic groups ( $\beta = 0.55$  for CU,  $\beta = 0.64$  for MCI and  $\beta = 0.59$  for dementia; all  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 3a,c and Supplementary Table 6). For example, at the median age of 71 years, the prevalence estimates of tau positivity in the temporal



**Fig. 2 | Prevalence estimates of tau PET and A $\beta$  positivity by age, APOE and sex in CU individuals. a–c.** The models including age and APOE  $\epsilon 4$  status (a,  $n = 6,476$ ), APOE  $\epsilon 4$  dosage (b,  $n = 6,288$ ) or APOE genotype (c,  $n = 5,963$ ). **d,e.** The models including age and APOE  $\epsilon 4$  dosage, with an additional interaction term between age and APOE  $\epsilon 4$  dosage in the model estimating the prevalence of A $\beta$  positivity ( $n = 6,184$ ). **f,g.** The models including age and sex ( $n = 7,173$ ). For the models presented in **d–g**, we included only individuals who had both A $\beta$  status and entorhinal tau PET status and/or temporal cortex tau PET status available. Separate models were performed for estimating the prevalence of A $\beta$  positivity

and tau positivity. Note that **d** and **f** depict A $\beta$  positivity or tau PET positivity in the entorhinal cortex, whereas **e** and **g** depict A $\beta$  positivity or tau PET positivity in the temporal cortex. In **a–c**, the y axes reflect estimated probabilities of tau PET positivity (prevalence estimates) generated from GEEs. In **d–g**, the y axes reflect estimated probabilities of A $\beta$  positivity or tau PET positivity (prevalence estimates) generated from GEEs. Shaded areas indicate the 95% CIs. In **c**, none of the participants with APOE  $\epsilon 2/\epsilon 2$  were tau positive, hence no 95% CI was provided for this group.



**Fig. 3 | Tau PET positivity in association with age, Aβ status, APOE ε4 status and sex. a–c,** Models including age, Aβ status, APOE ε4 status and an interaction between age and Aβ status for CU (a), MCI (b) and dementia (c). **d,e,** Models including age, Aβ status, sex and interaction terms between age and Aβ status (d) and between sex and Aβ status (e). **f,** Models including age, Aβ status, sex and an interaction term between age and Aβ status. Models were stratified

for CU (a ( $n = 6,384$ ) and d ( $n = 7,185$ )), MCI (b ( $n = 1,823$ ) and e ( $n = 2,121$ )) and dementia (c ( $n = 1,869$ ) and f ( $n = 2,252$ )) participants. The y axes reflect estimated probabilities of tau PET positivity in the temporal cortex (prevalence estimates) from GEEs. Shaded areas indicate the 95% CIs. Note that in d, the estimated probabilities and 95% CIs for the Aβ-negative men and Aβ-negative women are fully overlapping.

cortex were higher in Aβ-positive APOE ε4 carriers compared with Aβ-positive APOE ε4 noncarriers in CU individuals (mean difference 8.4% (95% CI 3.0–13.8%),  $P < 0.001$ ), individuals with MCI (mean difference 15.6% (95% CI 4.7–26.5%),  $P = 0.001$ ) and those with dementia (mean difference 7.5% (95% CI 3.1–11.9%),  $P < 0.001$ ).

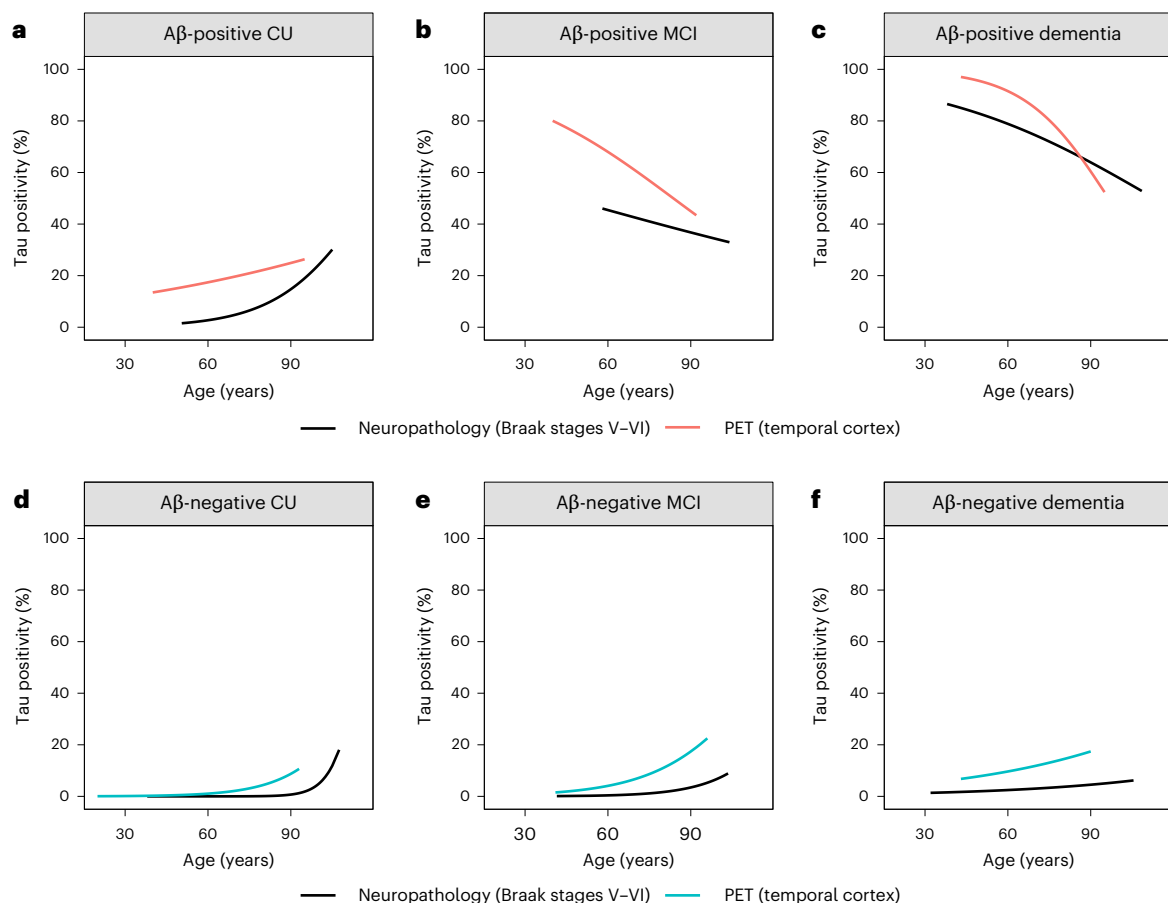
#### Tau positivity according to age, sex and Aβ status

In line with the previous section, we simultaneously modeled age, Aβ status and sex as predictors of tau positivity. There was a significant interaction between sex and Aβ status on the prevalence of tau positivity in the temporal cortex for CU ( $\beta = 0.34$ ,  $P = 0.02$ ) participants, indicating that, in the presence of Aβ pathology, CU women showed a higher prevalence of tau positivity than men (Fig. 3d,e and Supplementary Table 7). The interaction between sex and Aβ status on the prevalence of tau positivity was not significant in the MCI and dementia groups, but there were significant main effects of sex on tau positivity in the MCI ( $\beta = 0.34$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and dementia ( $\beta = 0.59$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) groups (Fig. 3f and Supplementary Table 7). At the median age of 71 years,

the prevalence estimates of tau positivity in the temporal cortex were higher in Aβ-positive women compared with Aβ-positive CU men (mean difference 5.2% (95% CI 1.7–8.8%),  $P = 0.001$ ), MCI (mean difference 8.2% (95% CI 2.1–14.3%),  $P = 0.003$ ) and dementia (mean difference 8.1% (95% CI 4.6–11.6%),  $P < 0.001$ ).

#### Tau positivity using tau PET versus postmortem examination

Although neuropathological studies have shown that the vast majority of older individuals harbor some degree of tau tangle pathology in the temporal cortex, antemortem tau PET versus postmortem comparisons indicated that tau PET scans typically become positive when tau tangle pathology is observed in the Braak V–VI regions<sup>18,24–28</sup>. Although prevalence estimates of tau positivity were generally higher when assessed using tau PET (temporal cortex) compared with neuropathology, we found comparable effects of age and Aβ status on tau positivity in autopsy versus PET datasets (Fig. 4). In line with the tau PET results, from age 60 years to age 80 years the estimated prevalence of neuropathologically defined Braak stages V–VI increased from 0.0% (95% CI



**Fig. 4 | Prevalence of tau positivity on PET (temporal cortex) versus neuropathological examination (Braak V–VI).** a–f, Tau positivity on PET or neuropathology in A $\beta$ -positive (a) and A $\beta$ -negative (d) CU individuals and A $\beta$ -positive (b) and A $\beta$ -negative (e) participants with MCI and A $\beta$ -positive (c) and A $\beta$ -negative dementia (f), modeled using age, A $\beta$  status and an interaction between age and A $\beta$  status as determinants. The models were stratified by

syndrome diagnosis. The y axes reflect estimated probabilities of tau positivity on PET (temporal cortex) or neuropathology (Braak V–VI) (prevalence estimates) generated from GEEs. Prevalence estimates for PET are based on 7,186 CU, 2,121 MCI and 2,252 dementia participants. Prevalence estimates for neuropathology are based on 1,026 CU, 661 MCI and 3,385 dementia participants.

0.0–0.0%) to 0.1% (95% CI 0.0–0.3%) among A $\beta$ -negative CU participants and from 2.6% (95% CI 0.0–7.9%) to 8.6% (95% CI 0.2–16.9%) among A $\beta$ -positive CU participants (Fig. 4a,d and Supplementary Table 8). Among A $\beta$ -negative participants with MCI and dementia, from age 60 years to 80 years, the estimated prevalence of Braak stages V–VI increased from 0.4% (95% CI 0.1–0.6%) to 1.7% (95% CI 1.3–2.1%) in MCI and from 2.4% (95% CI 0.0–9.5%) to 3.7% (95% CI 0.0–8.5%) in dementia (Fig. 4e,f and Supplementary Table 8). In contrast, among A $\beta$ -positive participants with MCI and dementia, from age 60 years to 80 years, the estimated prevalence of Braak stages V–VI decreased from 45.6% (95% CI 0.0–98.0%) to 39.6% (95% CI 13.4–65.8%) in MCI and from 78.9% (95% CI 71.2–86.5%) to 69.4% (95% CI 61.1–77.8%) in dementia (Fig. 4b,c and Supplementary Table 8). A sensitivity analysis comparing tau positivity in neuropathologically defined Braak stages V–VI with tau PET positivity in a whole-brain ROI showed comparable results, although in A $\beta$ -positive CU, the prevalence of tau PET positivity decreased with advancing age as opposed to postmortem Braak V–VI regions and tau PET positivity in the temporal cortex (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Fig. 5).

## Discussion

This large multicenter study aimed to estimate the prevalence of tau pathology as measured by PET as a function of A $\beta$  status, age, *APOE* genotype and sex in CU individuals, individuals with MCI and individuals with dementia. Age and A $\beta$  status showed the strongest associations with tau positivity. We found that age was positively associated with

tau positivity in CU (irrespective of A $\beta$  status) and showed a negative relationship with tau positivity in A $\beta$ -positive individuals with MCI and A $\beta$ -positive individuals with all-cause dementia. *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 carrier-ship and female sex were associated with a higher prevalence of tau positivity across diagnostic groups. *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 carrier-ship in CU individuals was associated with a lower age at onset of both A $\beta$  positivity and tau positivity by decades in a dose-dependent fashion. Finally, the observed associations between age and A $\beta$  status with tau pathology, as measured by PET, were validated in an independent autopsy dataset. Altogether, our study provides robust prevalence estimates of tau PET positivity across syndrome diagnoses and biomarker profiles, which can aid the interpretation of tau PET in the clinic and inform prevention studies and clinical trial designs.

One of the key findings of the present study is that carrying an *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 allele was associated with a lower age at onset of both A $\beta$  positivity and tau positivity in CU individuals by decades in a dose-dependent fashion<sup>5,6,29</sup>. This shift is so pronounced that individuals with the *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4/ $\epsilon$ 4 genotype exhibit tau PET positivity in the entorhinal cortex at a younger average age than *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 noncarriers become A $\beta$  positive. To exemplify, the estimated ages at which 10% of CU *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4/ $\epsilon$ 4 individuals show A $\beta$  positivity (global) versus tau positivity (entorhinal cortex and temporal cortex) are 41, 45 and 55 years, respectively. In contrast, these estimated ages are 57, 78 and 81 years, respectively, for CU *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 noncarriers. Another key correlate of tau positivity in CU was A $\beta$  status, because only 2.1% of A $\beta$ -negative CU individuals were tau PET



positive in the temporal cortex, whereas the prevalence was ~10-fold higher in A $\beta$ -positive CU individuals. Also, the prevalence of entorhinal tau positivity was higher compared with the temporal tau positivity, which is in line with established neuropathological and PET-based staging schemes proposing this topography of tau progression<sup>27,30,31</sup>. Collectively, these data support a model where A $\beta$  pathology triggers the spread of tau pathology from the medial temporal lobe to the neocortex, which is a critical harbinger of neurodegeneration and cognitive impairment in the near future<sup>32,33</sup>.

Age was also strongly associated with an increased prevalence of tau positivity in the entorhinal cortex and the temporal cortex in CU individuals, even among individuals who were A $\beta$  negative. The latter can be explained by A $\beta$ -independent tau accumulation (for example, primary age-related tauopathy (PART)), off-target binding of tau PET tracers (for example, to monoamine oxidase B, neuromelanin, iron accumulation and/or microhemorrhages, which all become more pronounced with advancing age), increased false-negative A $\beta$  status and/or false-positive tau PET scans, partial volume effects resulting from atrophy or an atypical neurobiological phenotype (for example, a tau-first subtype)<sup>34–39</sup>. Among A $\beta$ -positive CU individuals, contrary to entorhinal and temporal cortex tau positivity, tau positivity in the whole-brain ROI decreased in older age. This observation might be explained by a survival effect or a potentially increased susceptibility, in older participants, to the downstream neurotoxic effects of widespread tau pathology, for example, through less efficient compensatory neuronal mechanisms with age<sup>40</sup>. This reduced resilience might render older individuals more vulnerable to developing cognitive symptoms when tau aggregates are present in the neocortex, resulting in progression from CU to MCI or dementia at lower global levels of tau pathology. Consequently, a decrease of whole-brain tau positivity is observed in the CU group at older age. Longitudinal studies are essential to formally test the above proposed hypotheses.

At symptomatic AD stages (that is, A $\beta$ -positive MCI and dementia), age was negatively associated with the prevalence of tau positivity in the entorhinal cortex, temporal cortex and whole-brain ROI. This finding is consistent with previous observations from both neuropathological and tau PET studies and this pattern has also been firmly established for A $\beta$  pathology<sup>29,41,42</sup>. This observation can be explained in at least four distinct but not mutually exclusive ways. First, older individuals are more prone to co-occurring neuropathology like  $\alpha$ -synuclein, TDP-43 or vascular injury<sup>43</sup>. According to the ‘double-hit’ hypothesis, even at lower (subthreshold) levels of tau pathology, this cumulative pathological burden may be sufficient to cause an MCI or dementia syndrome. Second, related to the above, decreased resilience to tau pathology with advanced age may lead to cognitive impairment at lower levels of tau pathological burden<sup>44</sup>. Third, individuals with advanced AD pathology in addition to substantial comorbid pathology are probably too cognitively impaired to participate in research studies and were thus potentially not included in our analyses. Fourth, misfolded tau proteins may spread or amplify faster in younger individuals with higher degrees of functional connectivity<sup>45</sup>. Also, younger individuals may be more susceptible to early deposition of tau pathology in hub network regions, which further accelerates the rate of tau accumulation<sup>46</sup>.

In CU individuals, we observed a lower age at onset for women relative to men for tau positivity in the entorhinal cortex and, more subtly, for A $\beta$  positivity and tau positivity in the temporal cortex. Furthermore, in the CU group, we found that female sex was associated with a higher prevalence of temporal cortex tau positivity in the presence of A $\beta$  pathology. This observation is in line with previous literature showing that clinical as well as biological AD are more common in women than in men: women exhibit a greater tau burden (particularly in the entorhinal cortex) at similar levels of A $\beta$  pathology and A $\beta$ -positive women show faster tau accumulation over time compared with A $\beta$ -positive men<sup>45,47,48</sup>. Mechanisms relating to biological sex or social implications of gender could contribute to this difference, including (premature or

early) menopause, late initiation of hormone therapy, differences in depression rates and educational attainment, as well as sex-specific innate and adaptive immune responses, synapse biology, mitochondrial functioning, neurotrophic factors and epigenetic alterations<sup>49,50</sup>.

An indirect comparison between tau positivity defined using PET in the temporal cortex versus neuropathological Braak stages V–VI showed similar associations with age and A $\beta$  status across syndrome diagnostic groups. As a potential consequence of selecting advanced Braak stages as the primary neuropathological outcome measure in our study, the PET-based prevalence estimates were generally higher, particularly for A $\beta$ -negative participants. This was still the case when we assessed a whole-brain ROI versus postmortem Braak stages V–VI. This may be related to differences in how the two modalities measure A $\beta$  and tau pathology (for example, varying sensitivity and detection thresholds), differences in participants enrolled in PET versus autopsy studies or modality-specific measurement errors (for example, off-target binding in PET). There have been relatively few direct antemortem PET versus postmortem neuropathology comparison studies to date. Most of these showed a good correlation between tau PET signal and neuropathological Braak stages, and this correlation is further strengthened when, rather than the rather crude Braak staging, a more quantitative measure of postmortem tau pathology was used, such as the percentage of tissue stained by AT8 immunohistochemistry<sup>18,25,51</sup>. More multimodal studies are needed to better understand the overlap and differences between tau pathology as detected by PET versus at neuropathological examination, preferably assessed in the same individuals.

The main strength of this work is the large sample size ( $N = 12,048$  for the PET sample and an additional  $n = 5,072$  for postmortem validation) which allowed sufficient statistical power to provide robust prevalence estimates of tau PET positivity as a function of A $\beta$  pathology and other individual risk factors for AD-type dementia such as age, *APOE* genotype and sex. Several limitations need to be considered when interpreting the present study. First, even though we include a global sample, generalizability is still limited because participants were, overall, highly educated (~14 years), mainly non-Hispanic white (79.5% of individuals had available data on race or ethnicity) and there were relatively few individuals aged >80 years, although this age range represents the largest segment of individuals with dementia in the community. Furthermore, data on race and/or ethnicity were available in only 54.6% of participants, which, combined with the overrepresentation of non-Hispanic white individuals, did not provide sufficient statistical power for conducting stratified analyses. Second, we pooled data from many cohorts. Although we used study-specific thresholds in the primary analyses and accounted for study effects within our statistical models, this may still have resulted in reduced internal validity as a result of differences in study designs. Third, owing to the absence of histopathological data in participants with tau PET (this was compared only in independent datasets), the present study lacked a gold standard. Fourth, we pooled data from four tau PET tracers that share similar properties but also show differences in tracer kinetics, selectivity and affinity, as well as differences in the degree and type of off-target binding patterns. Efforts are ongoing to harmonize tau PET data across tracers along common scales such as CenTauR<sup>52</sup> or unit (that is, equivalent to the Centiloid approach for amyloid-PET<sup>53</sup>), which will improve future multicenter studies and trials that include tau PET. Fifth, there is no broad consensus on the most optimal way of operationalizing tau PET positivity quantitatively<sup>54</sup>. We acknowledge that several of our methodological decisions have impacted the reported prevalence estimates. In line with previous work<sup>19</sup> we focused on AD-specific regions, which has potentially resulted in an underestimation of tau PET positivity in primary tauopathies characterized by differential tau patterns<sup>55</sup>. Also, we used the mean + 2 s.d. in A $\beta$ -negative CU individuals aged >50 years as a threshold, whereas more liberal (for example, mean + 1.5 s.d.) or conservative (for example, mean + 2.5 s.d.) approaches could be considered for detecting early stage versus later-stage tau pathology<sup>56</sup>,



respectively. Cohort-specific selection of reference regions, brain atlases and processing methods also all influence tau PET quantification. We have partially addressed these potential confounding factors by adjusting all statistical analyses for cohort and validating the main results using an alternative threshold method (that is, Gaussian mixture modeling or lower thresholds). However, some residual variability and imprecision probably remain. Sixth, although, to our knowledge, this is one of the largest tau PET studies to date, the sample size for some specific subgroup analyses was relatively small and resulted in wide CIs. In particular, the prevalence estimates associated with age and *APOE* genotype in MCI and dementia at the lower and higher age extremes should be interpreted with caution.

In conclusion, among people with and without cognitive impairment, the prevalence of tau pathology as determined by PET imaging was associated with A $\beta$  status, age, sex and *APOE* genotype. Our findings support the clinical utility of tau PET for differential diagnosis and inform trial designs that utilize tau PET for participant selection and stratification. In terms of future directions, it will be important to (1) compare the tau PET prevalence estimates against biofluid (cerebrospinal fluid or plasma) markers of soluble tau pathology such as p-tau217 or MTBR-243 (refs. 57,58), (2) conduct a similar study with adjusted ROIs in other populations such as primary tauopathies (for example, globus pallidus in PSP<sup>55</sup>) or atypical variants of AD (for example, occipital cortex in posterior cortical atrophy<sup>41</sup>), (3) assess genetic effects beyond *APOE* genotype on tau PET prevalence<sup>59</sup> and (4) repeat the current analyses once approaches of harmonization across different tau PET tracers are more advanced.

## Online content

Any methods, additional references, Nature Portfolio reporting summaries, source data, extended data, supplementary information, acknowledgements, peer review information; details of author contributions and competing interests; and statements of data and code availability are available at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-025-02000-6>.

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Rik Ossenkoppele<sup>1,2,3,94</sup>✉, Emma M. Coomans<sup>2,3,94</sup>, Liana G. Apostolova<sup>4</sup>, Suzanne L. Baker<sup>5</sup>, Henryk Barthel<sup>6</sup>, Thomas G. Beach<sup>7</sup>, Tammy L. S. Benzinger<sup>8,9</sup>, Tobey Betthausen<sup>10,11,12</sup>, Gérard N. Bischof<sup>13,14</sup>, Michel Bottlaender<sup>15,16</sup>, Pierick Bourgeat<sup>17</sup>, Anouk den Braber<sup>2,3,18</sup>, Matthias Brendel<sup>19,20</sup>, Adam M. Brickman<sup>21,22</sup>, David M. Cash<sup>23,24</sup>, Maria C. Carrillo<sup>25</sup>, William Coath<sup>26</sup>, Bradley T. Christian<sup>27</sup>, Brad C. Dickerson<sup>28,29,30</sup>, Vincent Dore<sup>17,31</sup>, Alexander Drzezga<sup>13,14,20</sup>, Azadeh Feizpour<sup>31,32</sup>, Wiesje M. van der Flier<sup>2,3,33</sup>, Nicolai Franzmeier<sup>34,35,36</sup>, Giovanni B. Frisoni<sup>37</sup>, Valentina Garibotto<sup>38,39,40</sup>, Elsmarieke van de Giessen<sup>3,41</sup>, Juan Domingo-Gispert<sup>42,43</sup>, Johannes Gnoerich<sup>19</sup>, Yuna Gu<sup>44</sup>, Yihui Guan<sup>45</sup>, Bernard J. Hanseeuw<sup>46,47,48</sup>, Theresa M. Harrison<sup>49</sup>, Clifford R. Jack<sup>50</sup>, Elena Jaeger<sup>51</sup>, William J. Jagust<sup>49</sup>, Willemijn J. Jansen<sup>52</sup>, Renaud La Joie<sup>53</sup>, Keith A. Johnson<sup>54,55,56,57</sup>, Sterling C. Johnson<sup>10,11</sup>, Ian A. Kennedy<sup>58</sup>, Jun Pyo Kim<sup>44</sup>, Koen van Laere<sup>59,60</sup>, Julien Lagarde<sup>15,61</sup>, Patrick Lao<sup>62,63</sup>, José A. Luchsinger<sup>63</sup>, Silke Kern<sup>64,65</sup>, William C. Kreisl<sup>62</sup>, Vincent Malotau<sup>46</sup>, Maura Malpetti<sup>66</sup>, Jennifer J. Manly<sup>62,67</sup>, Xiaoxie Mao<sup>45</sup>, Niklas Mattsson-Carlgrén<sup>1,68,69</sup>, Mayo Clinic Study on Aging\*, Konstantin Messerschmidt<sup>6</sup>

Carolina Minguillon<sup>42</sup>, Elizabeth M. Mormino<sup>70</sup>, John T. O'Brien<sup>71</sup>, Sebastian Palmqvist<sup>1,72</sup>, Debora E. Peretti<sup>39</sup>, Ron C. Petersen<sup>73</sup>, Yolande A. L. Pijnenburg<sup>2,3</sup>, Michael J. Pontecorvo<sup>58</sup>, Judes Poirier<sup>74,75</sup>, PREVENT-AD Research Group\*, Gil D. Rabinovici<sup>53,76</sup>, Nesrine Rahmouni<sup>77,78</sup>, Shannon L. Risacher<sup>79</sup>, Pedro Rosa-Neto<sup>77,78</sup>, Howard Rosen<sup>53</sup>, Christopher C. Rowe<sup>31,32</sup>, James B. Rowe<sup>66,80,81</sup>, Michael Rullmann<sup>82</sup>, Yasmine Salman<sup>46</sup>, Marie Sarazin<sup>15,83</sup>, Andrew J. Saykin<sup>79</sup>, Julie A. Schneider<sup>84,85,86</sup>, Michael Schöll<sup>87,88,89</sup>, Jonathan M. Schott<sup>26,90</sup>, Sang Won Seo<sup>44</sup>, Geidy E. Serrano<sup>7</sup>, Sergey Shcherbinin<sup>58</sup>, Mahnaz Shekari<sup>42</sup>, Ingmar Skoog<sup>64</sup>, Ruben Smith<sup>1,72</sup>, Reisa A. Sperling<sup>54,55,56</sup>, Laure Spruyt<sup>91</sup>, Erik Stomrud<sup>1,72</sup>, Olof Strandberg<sup>1</sup>, Joseph Theriault<sup>77,78</sup>, Fang Xie<sup>45</sup>, Rik Vandenberghe<sup>91,92</sup>, Victor L. Villemagne<sup>31,93</sup>, Sylvia Villeneuve<sup>74,75</sup>, Pieter Jelle Visser<sup>2,3,52</sup>, Hillary Vossler<sup>70</sup>, Christina B. Young<sup>70</sup>, Colin Groot<sup>2,3,95</sup> & Oskar Hansson<sup>1,72,95</sup>✉

<sup>1</sup>Clinical Memory Research Unit, Department of Clinical Sciences in Malmö, Lund University, Lund, Sweden. <sup>2</sup>Alzheimer Center Amsterdam, Neurology, Amsterdam UMC; location VUmc, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. <sup>3</sup>Neurodegeneration, Amsterdam Neuroscience, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. <sup>4</sup>Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, IN, USA. <sup>5</sup>Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA. <sup>6</sup>Department of Nuclear Medicine, University Hospital Leipzig, Leipzig, Germany. <sup>7</sup>Banner Sun Health Research Institute, Sun City, AZ, USA. <sup>8</sup>Department of Radiology, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO, USA. <sup>9</sup>Charles F. and Joanne Knight Alzheimer Disease Research Center, Washington, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO, USA. <sup>10</sup>Wisconsin Alzheimer's Institute, School of Medicine and Public Health, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI, USA. <sup>11</sup>Wisconsin Alzheimer's Disease Research Center, School of Medicine and Public Health, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI, USA. <sup>12</sup>Department of Medical Physics, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI, USA. <sup>13</sup>Faculty of Medicine, University of Cologne and Department of Nuclear Medicine University Hospital Cologne, Cologne, Germany. <sup>14</sup>Molecular Organization of the Brain, Institute for Neurosciences and Medicine, Jülich, Germany. <sup>15</sup>Université Paris-Saclay, BioMaps, Service Hospitalier Frédéric Joliot CEA, CNRS, INSERM, Orsay, France. <sup>16</sup>UNIACT, Neurospin, CEA, Gif-sur-Yvette, France. <sup>17</sup>Australian eHealth Research Centre, CSIRO, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia. <sup>18</sup>Department of Biological Psychology, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. <sup>19</sup>Department of Nuclear Medicine, LMU Hospital, Ludwig-Maximilians-University of Munich, Munich, Germany. <sup>20</sup>German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), Munich, Germany. <sup>21</sup>Gertrude H. Sergievsky Center and Taub Institute for Research on Alzheimer's Disease and the Aging Brain, Vagelos College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA. <sup>22</sup>Department of Neurology, Vagelos College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA. <sup>23</sup>Dementia Research Centre, UCL Queen Square Institute of Neurology, University College London, London, UK. <sup>24</sup>UK Dementia Research Institute at University College London, London, UK. <sup>25</sup>Medical & Scientific Relations, Alzheimer's Association, Chicago, IL, USA. <sup>26</sup>Dementia Research Centre, UCL Queen Square Institute of Neurology, London, UK. <sup>27</sup>Waisman Center, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI, USA. <sup>28</sup>Frontotemporal Disorders Unit, Department of Neurology, Massachusetts General Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA. <sup>29</sup>Thinoula A. Martinos Center for Biomedical Imaging, Boston, MA, USA. <sup>30</sup>Massachusetts Alzheimer's Disease Research Center, Boston, MA, USA. <sup>31</sup>Department of Molecular Imaging & Therapy, Austin Health, Heidelberg, Victoria, Australia. <sup>32</sup>The Florey Institute of Neuroscience and Mental Health, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia. <sup>33</sup>Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Amsterdam UMC; location VUmc, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. <sup>34</sup>Munich Cluster for Systems Neurology (SyNergy), Munich, Germany. <sup>35</sup>Institute for Stroke and Dementia Research (ISD), University Hospital, LMU Munich, Munich, Germany. <sup>36</sup>Department of Psychiatry and Neurochemistry, University of Gothenburg, The Sahlgrenska Academy, Institute of Neuroscience and Physiology, Gothenburg, Sweden. <sup>37</sup>Memory Clinic, Geneva University Hospitals, Geneva, Switzerland. <sup>38</sup>Division of Nuclear Medicine and Molecular Imaging, Geneva University Hospitals, Geneva, Switzerland. <sup>39</sup>Laboratory of Neuroimaging and Innovative Molecular Tracers (NIMTlab), Geneva University Neurocenter and Faculty of Medicine, University of Geneva, Geneva, Switzerland. <sup>40</sup>CIBM Center for Biomedical Imaging, Geneva, Switzerland. <sup>41</sup>Department of Radiology & Nuclear Medicine, Amsterdam UMC; location VUmc, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. <sup>42</sup>Barcelonaβeta Brain Research Center (BBRC), Pasqual Maragall Foundation, Barcelona, Spain. <sup>43</sup>Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red de Bioingeniería, Biomateriales y Nanomedicina, Madrid, Spain. <sup>44</sup>Department of Neurology, Samsung Medical Center, Sungkyunkwan University School of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea. <sup>45</sup>Department of Nuclear Medicine & PET Center, Huashan Hospital, Fudan University, Shanghai, China. <sup>46</sup>Institute of Neuroscience, UCLouvain, Brussels, Belgium. <sup>47</sup>Department of Neurology, Cliniques Universitaires Saint-Luc, Brussels, Belgium. <sup>48</sup>Gordon Center for Medical Imaging, Department of Radiology, Mass General Brigham, Boston, MA, USA. <sup>49</sup>Department of Neuroscience, University of California Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA. <sup>50</sup>Department of Radiology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA. <sup>51</sup>Department of Nuclear Medicine, University of Cologne, University Hospital of Cologne, Cologne, Germany. <sup>52</sup>Alzheimer Center Limburg, School for Mental Health and Neuroscience, Maastricht University, Maastricht, The Netherlands. <sup>53</sup>Memory and Aging Center, Department of Neurology, University of California, San Francisco, CA, USA. <sup>54</sup>Department of Neurology, Massachusetts General Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA. <sup>55</sup>Center for Alzheimer Research and Treatment, Department of Neurology, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA. <sup>56</sup>Athinoula A. Martinos Center for Biomedical Imaging, Department of Radiology, Massachusetts General Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA. <sup>57</sup>Department of Radiology, Massachusetts General Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA. <sup>58</sup>Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, USA. <sup>59</sup>Department of Imaging and Pathology, Nuclear Medicine and Molecular Imaging, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium. <sup>60</sup>Division of Nuclear Medicine, University Hospitals Leuven, Leuven, Belgium. <sup>61</sup>Department of Neurology of Memory and Language, GHU Paris Psychiatrie & Neurosciences, Hôpital Sainte Anne, Paris, France. <sup>62</sup>Department of Neurology, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA. <sup>63</sup>Departments of Medicine and Epidemiology, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York, NY, USA. <sup>64</sup>Department of Psychiatry and Neurochemistry, Institute of Neuroscience and Physiology, Sahlgrenska Academy, University of Gothenburg, Mölndal, Sweden. <sup>65</sup>Department of Neuropsychiatry, Sahlgrenska University Hospital, Gothenburg, Sweden. <sup>66</sup>Department of Clinical Neurosciences, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK. <sup>67</sup>Gertrude H. Sergievsky Center and Taub Institute for Research on Alzheimer's Disease and the Aging Brain, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA. <sup>68</sup>Department of Neurology, Skåne University Hospital, Lund University, Lund, Sweden. <sup>69</sup>Wallenberg Center for Molecular Medicine, Lund University, Lund, Sweden. <sup>70</sup>Department of Neurology and Neurological Sciences, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford, CA, USA. <sup>71</sup>Department of Psychiatry, University of Cambridge School of Clinical Medicine, Cambridge, UK. <sup>72</sup>Memory Clinic, Skåne University Hospital, Malmö, Sweden. <sup>73</sup>Department of Neurology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA. <sup>74</sup>Douglas Mental Health University Institute, Centre for Studies on the Prevention of Alzheimer's Disease (StoP-AD), Montréal, Québec, Canada. <sup>75</sup>Department of Psychiatry, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada. <sup>76</sup>Department of Radiology & Biomedical Imaging, University of California, San Francisco, CA, USA. <sup>77</sup>Translational Neuroimaging Laboratory, McGill Research Centre for Studies in Aging, Montréal, Québec, Canada. <sup>78</sup>Department of Neurology and Neurosurgery, Faculty of Medicine, McGill University, Montréal,

Québec, Canada. <sup>79</sup>Indiana University, Indianapolis, IN, USA. <sup>80</sup>Cambridge University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust, Cambridge, UK. <sup>81</sup>Medical Research Council Cognition and Brain Sciences Unit, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK. <sup>82</sup>Clinic for Cognitive Neurology, University Hospital of Leipzig and Max Planck Institute for Human Cognitive and Brain Sciences, Leipzig, Germany. <sup>83</sup>Department of Neurology of Memory and Language, GHU Paris Psychiatrie & Neurosciences, Hôpital Sainte-Anne, Paris, France. <sup>84</sup>Rush Alzheimer's Disease Center, Rush University Medical Center, Chicago, IL, USA. <sup>85</sup>Department of Neurological Sciences, Rush University Medical Center, Chicago, IL, USA. <sup>86</sup>Department of Pathology, Rush University Medical Center, Chicago, IL, USA. <sup>87</sup>Wallenberg Centre for Molecular and Translational Medicine, University of Gothenburg, Gothenburg, Sweden. <sup>88</sup>Department of Psychiatry and Neurochemistry, University of Gothenburg, Mölndal, Sweden. <sup>89</sup>Dementia Research Centre, Queen Square Institute of Neurology, University College London, London, UK. <sup>90</sup>UK Dementia Research Institute, London, UK. <sup>91</sup>Laboratory for Cognitive Neurology, Department of Neurosciences, Leuven Brain Institute, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium. <sup>92</sup>Neurology Service, University Hospital Leuven, Leuven, Belgium. <sup>93</sup>Department of Psychiatry, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA. <sup>94</sup>These authors contributed equally: Rik Ossenkoppele, Emma M. Coomans. <sup>95</sup>These authors jointly supervised this work: Colin Groot, Oskar Hansson. \*A list of authors and their affiliations appears at the end of the paper. ✉e-mail: [r.ossenkoppele@amsterdamumc.nl](mailto:r.ossenkoppele@amsterdamumc.nl); [oskar.hansson@med.lu.se](mailto:oskar.hansson@med.lu.se)

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**Mayo Clinic Study on Aging**

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**Clifford R. Jack<sup>50</sup> & Ron C. Petersen<sup>73</sup>**

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**PREVENT-AD Research Group**

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**Judes Poirier<sup>74,75</sup> & Sylvia Villeneuve<sup>74,75</sup>**



## Methods

Written informed consent was obtained from all participants or their designated caregiver and all data collection protocols were approved by each cohort's respective institutional ethical review board. Data analysis protocols for this particular study were approved by the Ethics Committee of Lund University, Lund, Sweden, in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, and all methods were carried out in accordance with the approved guidelines.

### Data collection and operationalization

We searched the MEDLINE and Web of Science databases for tau PET studies published before 15 November 2023. The search terms used were 'PET' and 'tau' in combination with the four most widely used tau PET tracers to date (that is, 'AV1451/flortaucipir/Tauvid', 'MK6240', 'RO948' or 'PI2620'). Based on titles and abstracts we identified 42 unique cohorts that had previously published tau PET data in peer-reviewed journals. These cohorts represented a mix of secondary and tertiary care research studies, population-based studies and the placebo arm of a clinical trial. We approached study contact people to request participant-level data: 38 cohorts accepted and 4 declined; 4 additional cohorts (that is, Barcelona Beta, UCL, Gothenburg University and the Chinese Preclinical Alzheimer's disease Study) provided currently unpublished tau PET data, totaling participant-level data from 42 cohorts for analysis. Tau PET data were shared through transfer of raw PET images to be centrally processed at Lund University in line with previous procedures (16 cohorts,  $n = 4,296$ )<sup>19</sup> or transfer of spreadsheets containing regional standardized uptake value (SUVR) data (26 cohorts,  $n = 7,752$ ). In addition, data were shared regarding clinical diagnosis (42 cohorts), A $\beta$  status (41 cohorts), A $\beta$  modality (39 cohorts), PET (938 cohorts) and/or cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) (10 cohorts), age (42 cohorts), sex (42 cohorts), education (36 cohorts), race or ethnicity (21 cohorts), *APOE*  $\epsilon 4$  status (38 cohorts), *APOE* genotype (35 cohorts) and Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) score (42 cohorts). Cohort-specific methods for defining A $\beta$  status are presented in Supplementary Table 9. We excluded participants with missing tau PET SUVR in the temporal cortex ( $n = 8$ ), missing syndrome diagnosis ( $n = 234$ ) and genetic mutations associated with dementia ( $n = 8$ ) and participants with MCI or dementia who were aged <40 years ( $n = 7$ ).

### Participants

Informed consent was obtained from all participants or their assigned surrogate decision-makers and the institutional review boards for human research of the participating centers approved all studies. CU individuals performed cognitive testing within normal limits and did not exhibit any major psychiatric disorder<sup>60</sup>. MCI was defined according to published criteria<sup>61,62</sup>. These criteria include a decline in memory or another cognitive domain reported by the patient, informant or both, that is, objectively verified by neuropsychological testing, in combination with no or minimal impairment in activities of daily living and not meeting criteria for dementia. Patients with a syndromic dementia diagnosis met diagnostic criteria for AD-type dementia<sup>63</sup> ( $n = 1,804$ ) or non-AD neurodegenerative disorders including FTD ( $n = 162$ , that is, behavioral variant FTD and the semantic and nonfluent variants of primary progressive aphasia combined), PSP ( $n = 141$ ), CBS ( $n = 101$ ), DLB ( $n = 76$ ), PDD ( $n = 39$ ), VaD ( $n = 32$ ) and dementia-not otherwise specified (NOS) ( $n = 122$ ). Note that we reported results for 'all-cause dementia' (that is, all types of dementia combined) in the main text, whereas results for the specific dementia types are reported in Extended Data Fig. 1 and Supplementary Information. In addition, we repeated the main analyses presented in Figs. 1 and 3 specifically for individuals clinically diagnosed with AD-type dementia (Extended Data Fig. 2 and Extended Data Table 4). In addition, for an (indirect) comparison between tau-positivity rates derived from tau PET versus neuropathological examination, we included 5,072 participants from 3 autopsy cohorts (that is, the National Alzheimer's Coordinating

Center database (NACC,  $n = 1,638$ )<sup>64</sup>, the Religious Orders Studies and Rush Memory and Aging Project (ROSMAP,  $n = 1,941$ )<sup>65</sup> and the Arizona Study of Aging and Neurodegenerative Disorders (AZSAND)/Brain and Body Donation Program (AZSAND/BBDP,  $n = 1,672$ )<sup>66</sup>. The combined autopsy dataset consisted of 1,026 CU individuals, 661 individuals with MCI and 3,385 with dementia (Extended Data Table 1). In line with previous work<sup>29</sup>, participants who met the Consortium to Establish a Registry for Alzheimer's Disease criteria (CERAD)<sup>67</sup> for definite, probable or possible AD (indicating the presence of moderate-to-frequent neuritic plaques) were considered A $\beta$  positive. Based on previous results of antemortem tau PET versus postmortem examination in the same individuals, participants in Braak stage V–VI for neurofibrillary tangle pathology were considered tau positive<sup>18,24–27</sup>. We compared the prevalence of postmortem Braak stage V–VI against tau PET positivity in the temporal cortex (Fig. 4) and a whole-brain ROI (Supplementary Fig. 5). Participants with missing antemortem diagnosis, age, CERAD score or Braak stage were excluded from the autopsy dataset.

### Tau PET procedures

[<sup>18</sup>F]Flortaucipir was used in most patients ( $n = 6,480$ , 25 cohorts), followed by [<sup>18</sup>F]MK6240 ( $n = 3,156$ , 11 cohorts), [<sup>18</sup>F]RO948 ( $n = 1,984$ , 3 cohorts) and [<sup>18</sup>F]PI2620 ( $n = 428$ , 4 cohorts). Cohort-specific information on tau PET tracers, scanning procedures and data processing can be found in Supplementary Table 10. For the primary analysis, we focused on a composite temporal meta-ROI (referred to as 'temporal cortex' throughout the text for readability purposes), consisting of the entorhinal cortex, amygdala, parahippocampus, fusiform gyrus and inferior and middle temporal cortices<sup>68</sup>. In addition, we determined tau PET positivity in the entorhinal cortex (missing for  $n = 35$ ) and in a whole-brain ROI (missing for  $n = 2$ ; see Supplementary Table 11 for cohort-specific ROI compositions). Tau PET scans were dichotomized (positive or negative) using quantitative thresholds. For the primary analyses, we defined the cut-off based on cohort-specific thresholds calculated as the mean + 2 s.d. in A $\beta$ -negative CU individuals aged >50 years from the same cohort (see Supplementary Table 12 for cohort-specific thresholds). In sensitivity analyses, we also showed the results when determining the threshold based on the mean + 1 s.d. and 1.5 s.d. in A $\beta$ -negative CU individuals aged >50 years from the same cohort (Extended Data Fig. 3). Furthermore, we defined the cut-off based on tracer-specific Gaussian mixture modeling ([<sup>18</sup>F]flortaucipir: SUVR = 1.40; [<sup>18</sup>F]MK6240: SUVR = 1.43; [<sup>18</sup>F]RO948: SUVR = 1.41; [<sup>18</sup>F]PI2620: SUVR = 1.41 in the temporal cortex; see Supplementary Table 12 for tracer-specific thresholds for the entorhinal and whole-brain ROIs).

### Statistical analysis

Baseline characteristics were compared using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Fisher's exact tests, where appropriate. GEEs were used to estimate probabilities of tau PET positivity. GEEs were selected because they allowed the modeling of subject-level data from all studies simultaneously while accounting for the clustering of participants within studies. Furthermore, GEEs provided population-averaged estimates (that is, coefficients representing the average effect on tau PET positivity across the dataset population) as opposed to subject-specific estimates, where coefficients represented the effect on tau PET positivity for the average individual in the dataset. We assumed a logit link function for binary outcomes with an exchangeable correlation structure to account for within-study correlations related to, for example, site-specific PET scanners and study populations. All data were visually inspected and data distribution was assumed to be normal, but this was not formally tested. The main analyses were performed stratified for syndrome diagnosis and included A $\beta$  status ( $\pm$ ), age, sex and/or *APOE*  $\epsilon 4$  status ( $\pm$ ) as independent variables. Age was entered as a continuous measure centered at the median (that is, 71 years). We tested two-way and three-way interactions between variables and these terms were retained in the model if

they appeared significant by Wald's statistic (indicated in table footnotes and figure legends). We used estimated probabilities and 95% CIs from the GEE analyses in tables and figures. These GEE-estimated probabilities were compared with observed probabilities to determine the goodness of fit between GEE-estimated and actual data and these comparisons are presented in Supplementary Table 3. In addition, we modeled A $\beta$  positivity and tau PET positivity as a function of age and *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 dose (that is, homozygous versus heterozygous versus noncarrier) and as a function of age and sex, and we compared the estimated tau-positivity prevalence as determined in tau PET versus postmortem datasets. The significance level was set at  $\alpha = 0.05$  and the analyses were performed using R v.4.2.1.

## Reporting summary

Further information on research design is available in the Nature Portfolio Reporting Summary linked to this article.

## Data availability

As a result of the multicenter design of the study, individual participant data from each cohort will have to be made available through the principal investigators of the respective cohorts. Generally, anonymized data can be shared by request from qualified academic investigators for the purpose of replicating procedures and results presented in the Article, if the data transfer is in agreement with the data protection regulation at the institution and approved by the local ethics review board.

## Code availability

The codes used for data collection in our study were implemented in R v.4.2.1 and can be requested from the corresponding authors (R.O. or O.H.). The codes used for data analysis were implemented in R v.4.2.1 and are available via GitHub at <https://github.com/OssenKoppeLab>.

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## Author contributions

R.O., E.C., C.G. and O.H. designed the study. R.O., E.C. and C.G. had full access to raw data and carried out the statistical analyses. R.O., E.C., C.G. and O.H. wrote the manuscript and had the final responsibility to submit for publication. All other authors contributed demographic, clinical, biomarker and neuroimaging data, contributed to the interpretation of the results and critically reviewed the manuscript.

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## Competing interests

R.O. received research support from Avid Radiopharmaceuticals, Janssen Research & Development, Roche, Quanterix and Optina Diagnostics. He has given lectures in symposia sponsored by GE Healthcare and serves on advisory boards and/or steering committees for Asceneuron, Biogen and Bristol Myers Squibb. All of the above is paid to his institutions. E.v.d.G. received research support from NWO, ZonMw, Hersenstichting, Alzheimer Nederland, Health-Holland and KWF. J.T. is funded by the Colin J. Adair Charitable Foundation fellowship. Funding for the TRIAD cohort comes from the Weston Brain Institute, Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) (grant nos. MOP-11-51-31; RFN 152985, 159815 and 162303), Canadian Consortium of Neurodegeneration and Aging (CCNA; grant no. MOP-11-51-31-team 1), the Alzheimer's Association (grant nos. NIRG-12-92090 and NIRP-12-259245), Brain Canada Foundation (CFI, project no. 34874, grant no. 33397), the Fonds de Recherche du Québec—Santé (FRQS; Chercheur Boursier, grant no. 2020-VICO-279314) and the Colin J. Adair Charitable Foundation. A.d.B. received research funding from

Alzheimer Association, Alzheimer Nederland, Stichting Dioraphte, Health Holland, Weston Brain Institute and Selfridges Group Foundation. A.J.S. receives support from multiple National Institutes of Health (NIH) grants. He has also received support from Avid Radiopharmaceuticals, a subsidiary of Eli Lilly (in kind contribution of PET-tracer precursor) and participated in scientific advisory boards (Bayer Oncology, Eisai, Novo Nordisk and Siemens Medical Solutions USA, Inc.) and an Observational Study Monitoring Board (MESA, NIH, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute), as well as external advisory committees for multiple National Institute on Aging (NIA) grants. He also serves as Editor-in-Chief of *Brain Imaging and Behavior*, a Springer Nature Journal. J.B.R. is supported by the Medical Research Council (MRC, grant nos. MC\_UU\_00030/14 and MR/T033371/1) and National Institute for Health and Care Research (NIHR) Cambridge Biomedical Research Centre (grant no. NIHR203312), the PSP Association and the Cambridge Centre for Parkinson-plus. M.M. is supported by Race Against Dementia Alzheimer's Research UK (grant no. ARUK-RADF2021A-010), NIHR Cambridge Biomedical Research Centre (grant no. NIHR203312) and the UK Dementia Research Institute through UK DRI Ltd, principally funded by the MRC. The views expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the NIHR or the Department of Health and Social Care. J.M.S. acknowledges the support of the NIHR University College London Hospitals Biomedical Research Centre, Wolfson Foundation, Alzheimer's Research UK, Brain Research UK, Weston Brain Institute, MRC, British Heart Foundation, UK Dementia Research Institute and Alzheimer's Association. J.M.S. received research funding and PET tracer from AVID Radiopharmaceuticals (a wholly owned subsidiary of Eli Lilly) and Alliance Medical, has consulted for Roche, Eli Lilly, Biogen, AVID, Merck and GE and is Chief Medical Officer for Alzheimer's Research UK. V.G. was funded from the Swiss National Science Foundation (project nos. 320030\_169876 and 320030\_185028), VELUX Foundation, Schmidheiny Foundation and Fondation Privée of the University Hospitals of Geneva. Research programs of W.M.v.d.F. have been funded by ZonMW, NWO, EU-JPND, EU-IHI, Alzheimer Nederland, Hersenstichting CardioVascular Onderzoek Nederland, Health-Holland, Topsector Life Sciences & Health, stichting Dioraphte, Gieskes-Strijbis fonds, stichting Equilibrio, Edwin Bouw fonds, Noaber foundation, Pieter Houbolt Fonds, Pasman stichting, stichting Alzheimer & Neuropsychiatrie Foundation, Philips, Biogen MA Inc, Novartis-NL, Life-MI, AVID, Roche BV, Fujifilm, Eisai and Combinostics. W.M.v.d.F. holds the Pasman chair and is recipient of ABOARD, which is a public-private partnership receiving funding from ZonMW (grant no. 73305095007) and Health-Holland, Topsector Life Sciences & Health (PPP-allowance; grant no. LSHM20106). She is a recipient of TAP-dementia ([www.tap-dementia.nl](http://www.tap-dementia.nl)), receiving funding from ZonMw (grant no. 10510032120003) in the context of Onderzoeksprogramma Dementie, part of the Dutch National Dementia Strategy. TAP-dementia receives co-financing from Avid Radiopharmaceuticals, Roche Diagnostics and Amprion. Gieskes-Strijbis Fonds also contributes to TAP-dementia. W.M.v.d.F. has been an invited speaker at Biogen MA Inc, Danone, Eisai, WebMD Neurology (Medscape), Novo Nordisk, Springer Healthcare and European Brain Council. She is a consultant to Oxford Health Policy Forum CIC, Roche, Biogen MA Inc. and Eisai, and participated in advisory boards of Biogen MA Inc., Roche, and Eli Lilly. W.M.v.d.F. is a member of the steering committee of EVOKE/EVOKE+ (Novo Nordisk). All funding is paid to her institution. She is member of the steering committee of PAVE and Think Brain Health. S.K. was financed by grants from the Swedish state under the agreement between the Swedish Government and the county councils, the ALF agreement (grant nos. ALFGBG-965923, ALFGBG-81392 and ALFGBG-771071). The Alzheimerfonden (grant nos. AF-842471, AF-737641, AF-929959 and AF-939825). The Swedish Research Council (grant nos. 2019-02075 and 2019-02075\_15) and Stiftelsen Psykiatriska Forskningsfonden. S.P.

has acquired research support (for the institution) from ki elements/ADDF and Avid. In the past 2 years, he has received consultancy or speaker fees from Bioartec, Biogen, Eisai, Lilly and Roche. M.M. provides consultancy unrelated to the current work to Astex Pharmaceuticals. J.T. has served as a consultant for the Neurotorium educational platform and for Alzheon. P.R.-N. has served at scientific advisory boards and/or as a consultant for Roche, Novo Nordisk, Eisai and Cerveau Radiopharmaceuticals. C.C.R. has received research grants from National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC), Enigma Australia, Biogen, Eisai and Abbvie. He is on the scientific advisory board for Enigma/Mellieur Technologies and has consulted for Prothena, Eisai, Roche and Biogen Australia. S.C.J. has served in the past 2 years on advisory boards for Enigma Biomedical and ALZPath. K.V.L. has received research grants through KU Leuven from Biogen, BMS, Cerevel, CHDI, Janssen Pharmaceuticals, Lantheus/Cerveau, Lundbeck and Rapport. He is a member of the scientific advisory board for Enigma/Mellieur Technologies. V.G. received research support and speaker fees through her institution from GE Healthcare, Siemens Healthineers, Novo Nordisk, Janssen and Novartis. S.K. has served at scientific advisory boards, speaker and/or consultant for Roche, Eli Lilly, Geras Solutions, Optoceutics, Biogen and Bioartec. S.S., M.P. and I.K. are employees and minor shareholders of Eli Lilly and Co. A.D. received research support from Siemens Healthineers, Life Molecular Imaging, GE Healthcare, AVID Radiopharmaceuticals, Sofie, Eisai, Novartis/AAA and Ariceum Therapeutics. He received speaker or honorary fees and/or contributed to advisory boards for Siemens Healthineers, Sanofi, GE Healthcare, Biogen, Novo Nordisk, Invicro, Novartis/AAA, Bayer Vital, Lilly, Peer View Institute for Medical Education and the International Atomic Energy Agency. He holds stock from Siemens Healthineers, Lantheus Holding, Structured therapeutics, Lilly and a patent for 18F-JK-PSMA-7 (PSMA PET imaging tracer; patent no. EP3765097A1; date of patent: 20 January 2021). He has received national and international grants including DFG grants (nos. SFB 1451 C04 and DR 445/9-1) and serves as Associate Editor of the *Journal of Nuclear Medicine*. L.A. received personal compensation for serving as a consultant for Biogen, Two Labs, Florida Department of Health, Genetech, NIH Biobank, Eli Lilly, GE Healthcare, Eisai and Roche Diagnostics and for serving on a Data Safety and Monitoring Board for IQVIA. L.A. receives research support from the National Institute on Aging, the Alzheimer's Association, Roche Diagnostics, AVID radiopharmaceuticals, Life Molecular Imaging and Eli Lilly. G.B.F. received funding through the Private Foundation of Geneva University Hospitals from: APRA (Association Suisse pour la Recherche sur la Maladie d'Alzheimer), Geneva; Fondation Segré, Geneva; Ivan Pictet, Geneva; Race Against Dementia Foundation, London, UK; Fondation Child Care, Geneva; Fondation Edmond J. Safra, Geneva; Fondation Minkoff, Geneva; Fondazione Agusta, Lugano; McCall Macbain Foundation, Canada; Nicole et René Keller, Geneva; Fondation AETAS, Geneva. He has also received funding through the University of Geneva or Geneva University Hospitals: for IISs from ROCHE Pharmaceuticals OM Pharma EISAI Pharmaceuticals Biogen Pharmaceuticals and Novo Nordisk; and funding for competitive research projects from: H2020, Innovative Medicines Initiative (IMI), IMI2, Swiss National Science Foundation and VELUX Foundation; consulting fees from: Biogen, Diadem and Roche; and payment or honoraria for lectures, presentations, speakers' bureaus, manuscript writing or educational events from: Biogen, Roche, Novo Nordisk and GE HealthCare. W.J.J. serves on data monitoring committees for Lilly, holds equity in Optoceutics and Molecular Medicine, receives research support from Biogen and grants from ZonMW, Alzheimer Nederland, St. Rinsum-Ponsen. A.M.B. has received payment for consulting or participation in advisory boards from Cognition Therapeutics, Cognito Therapeutics and CogState. He is a section editor for *Alzheimer's & Dementia*. J.O'B. has acted as a consultant for TauRx, Novo Nordisk, Biogen, Roche, Lilly, GE Healthcare and Okwin



and received grants or academic support from Avid/Lilly, Merck and Alliance Medical. J.A.L. received royalties from Springer for the book *Diabetes in the Brain*, a stipend from Wolters Kluwer as editor of the journal *Alzheimer's Disease and Associated Disorders*, and donated drug and placebo for an NIH-funded clinical trial from EMD Serono. He was a consultant to Merck KGaA in 2022 and to Novo Nordisk in 2024 and 2025. J.D.-G. received research support from GE Healthcare, Roche Diagnostics, Hoffmann—La Roche and Life—MI; participated in symposia sponsored by Biogen, Philips Netherlands, Life-MI and Esteve; acted as a consultant for Roche Diagnostics; and served in the Molecular Neuroimaging Advisory Board of Prothena Biosciences. J.D.-G. is founder, co-owner and member of the Board of Directors of Betascreen SL and is currently a full-time employee of AstraZeneca. W.C.K. has served as a consultant for Cerveau Technologies, Inc. O.H. is an employee of Eli Lilly and Lund University, and he has previously acquired research support (for Lund University) from AVID Radiopharmaceuticals, Biogen, C2N Diagnostics, Eli Lilly, Eisai, Fujirebio, GE Healthcare and Roche. In the past 2 years, he received consultancy or speaker fees from Alzpath, BioArctic, Biogen, Bristol Meyer Squibb, Eisai, Eli Lilly, Fujirebio, Merck, Novartis, Novo Nordisk, Roche, Sanofi and Siemens. Work at Lund University was supported by the ERC (grant no. ADG-101096455), Alzheimer's Association (grant nos. ZEN24-1069572 and SG-23-1061717), GHR Foundation, Swedish Research Council (grant no. 2022-00775), ERA PerMed (grant no. ERAPERMED2021-184), Knut and Alice Wallenberg foundation (grant no. 2022-0231), Strategic Research Area MultiPark (Multidisciplinary Research in Parkinson's disease) at Lund University, Swedish Alzheimer Foundation (grant no. AF-980907), Swedish Brain Foundation (grant no. FO2021-0293), Parkinson Foundation of Sweden (grant no. 1412/22), Cure Alzheimer's fund, Rönström Family Foundation, Konung Gustaf V:s och Drottning Victorias Frimurarestiftelse, Skåne University Hospital Foundation (grant no. 2020-O000028), Regionalt Forskningsstöd (grant no. 2022-1259) and Swedish Federal Government under the ALF agreement (grant no. 2022-Projekt0080). The precursor of [ $^{18}\text{F}$ ]flortaucipir was provided by AVID radiopharmaceuticals and the precursor of [ $^{18}\text{F}$ ]RO948 by Roche. The precursor of [ $^{18}\text{F}$ ]flutemetamol was sponsored by GE Healthcare. The MCSA is supported by the National Institute on Aging (grant no. U01 AG006786), GHR and the Alzheimer's Association. G.S. received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Program under Marie Skłodowska-Curie action (grant no. 101061836), an Alzheimer's Association Research Fellowship (no. AARF-22-972612), the Alzheimerfonden (grant no. AF-980942), Greta och Johan Kocks research grants and travel grants from the Strategic Research Area MultiPark (Multidisciplinary Research in Parkinson's Disease) at Lund University. The data contributed from Columbia University Irving Medical Center were supported by grant funding from the NIA (grant nos. K23AG052633, R01AG063888, P30AG066462, R01AG055299, RF1AG051556, R01AG050440, R01AG055299, K24AG045334 and R00AG065506). Funding for data from Stanford University was supported by NIA (grant nos. P30AG066515 and R01AG074339 to E.C.M. and K99AG071837 to C.B.Y.) and National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (grant no. R01NS115114). The data contributed from the Shatau7-IMATAU study (Paris) were supported by French Ministry of Health (grant no. PHRC-2013-0919), CEA, Fondation pour la recherche sur Alzheimer, Institut de Recherches Internationales Servier, France-Alzheimer. The MCSA is supported by the NIA (grant no. U01 AG006786), GHR and the Alzheimer's Association. The data contributed from the Wisconsin Registry for Alzheimer's Prevention were supported by grant funding from the NIA to the University of Wisconsin (grant nos. R01 AG021155 and R01 AG027161 to S.C.J.). Funding for data from Washington University was supported by the NIA (grant nos. R01AG070941 to S.E.S., P30AG066444, P01AG003991 and P01AG026276 to J.C.M.). Blood plasma measurements were

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NIH ([www.fnih.org](http://www.fnih.org)). The grantee organization is the Northern California Institute for Research and Education and the study is coordinated by the Alzheimer's Therapeutic Research Institute at the University of Southern California. ADNI data are disseminated by the Laboratory for Neuro Imaging at the University of Southern California. ROSMAP is supported by grant nos. P30AG10161, P30AG72975, R01AG15819, R01AG17917, U01AG46152 and U01AG61356. ROSMAP resources can be requested at <https://www.radc.rush.edu> and [www.synapse.org](http://www.synapse.org). The other authors declare no competing interests.

## Additional information

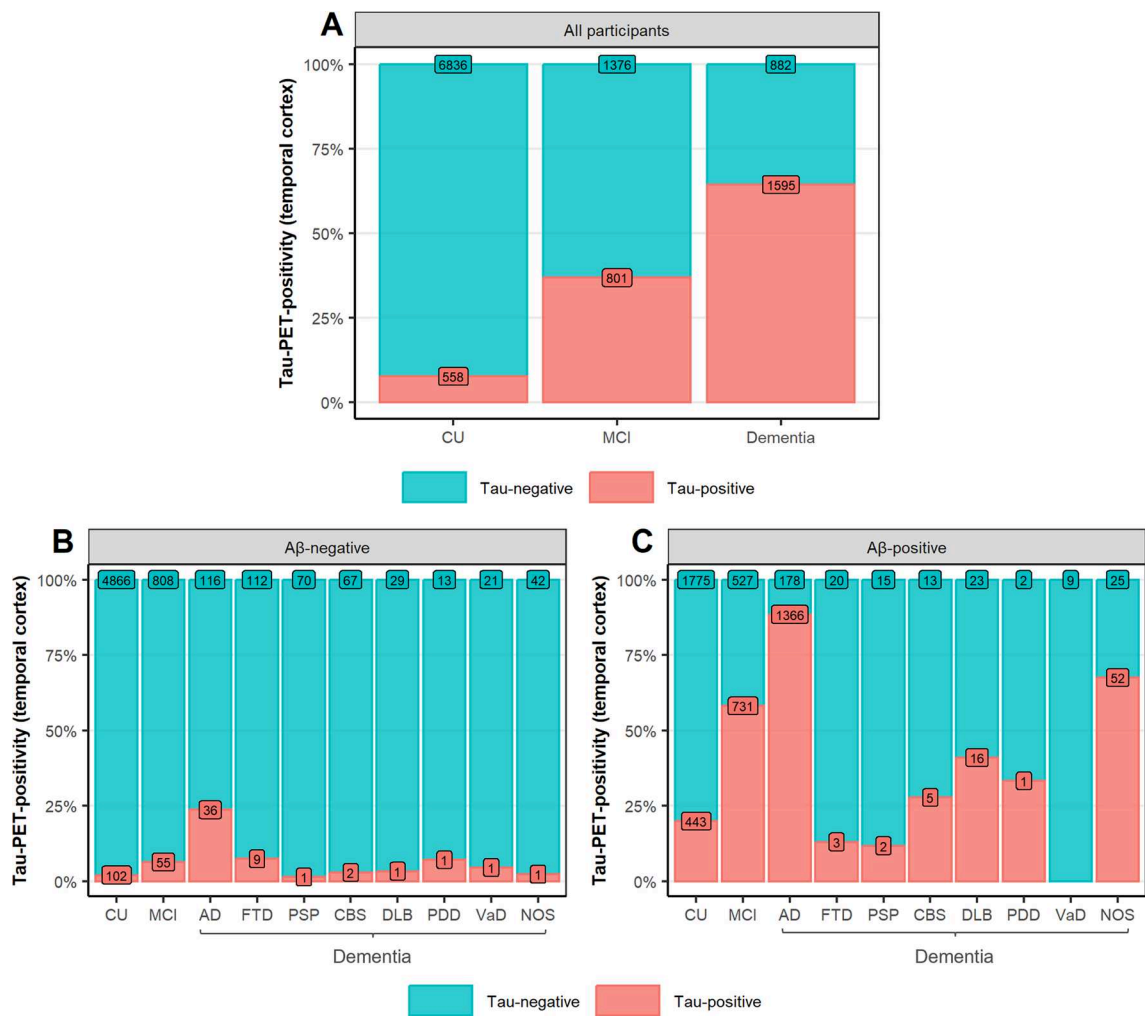
**Extended data** is available for this paper at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-025-02000-6>.

**Supplementary information** The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-025-02000-6>.

**Correspondence and requests for materials** should be addressed to Rik Ossenkoppele or Oskar Hansson.

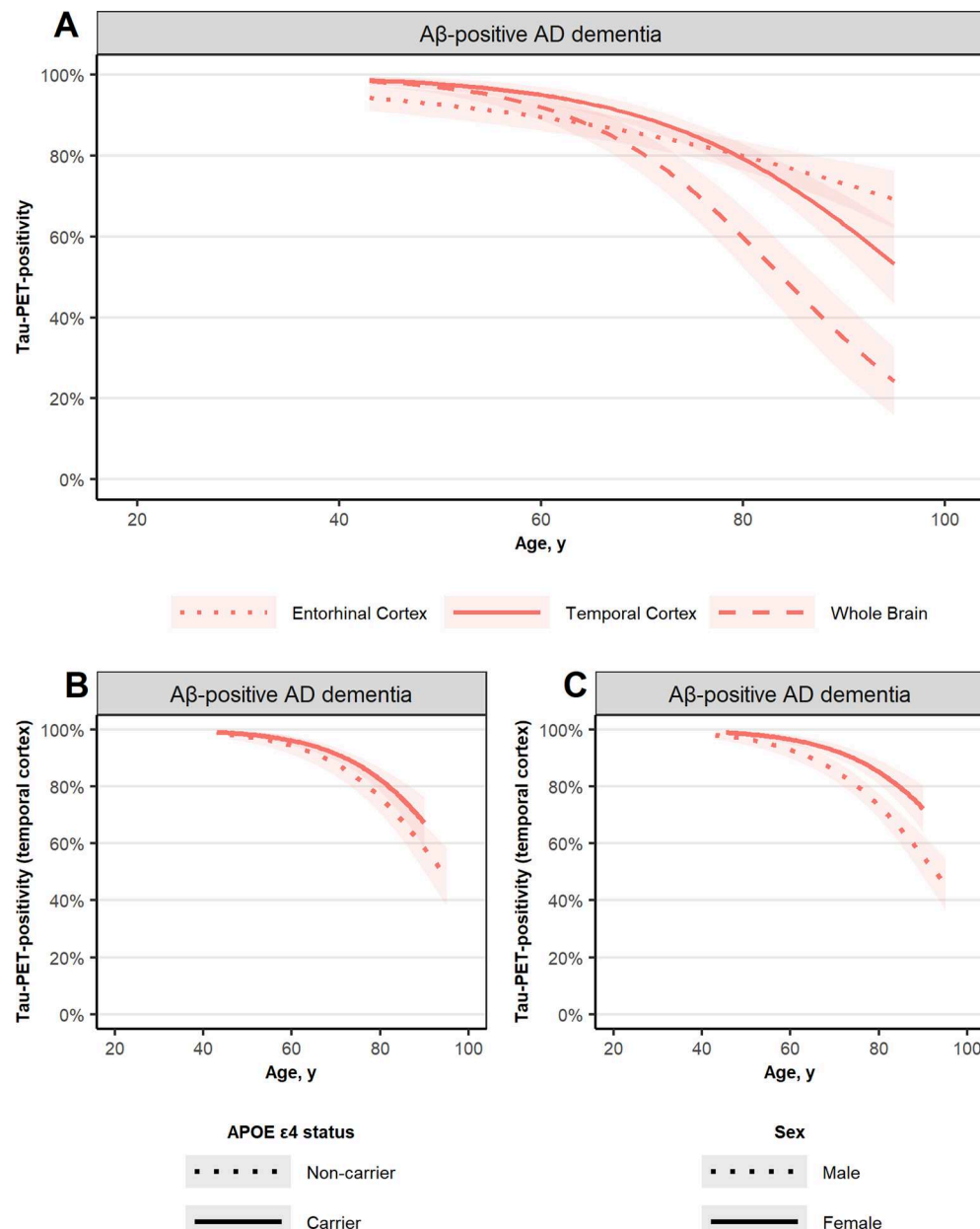
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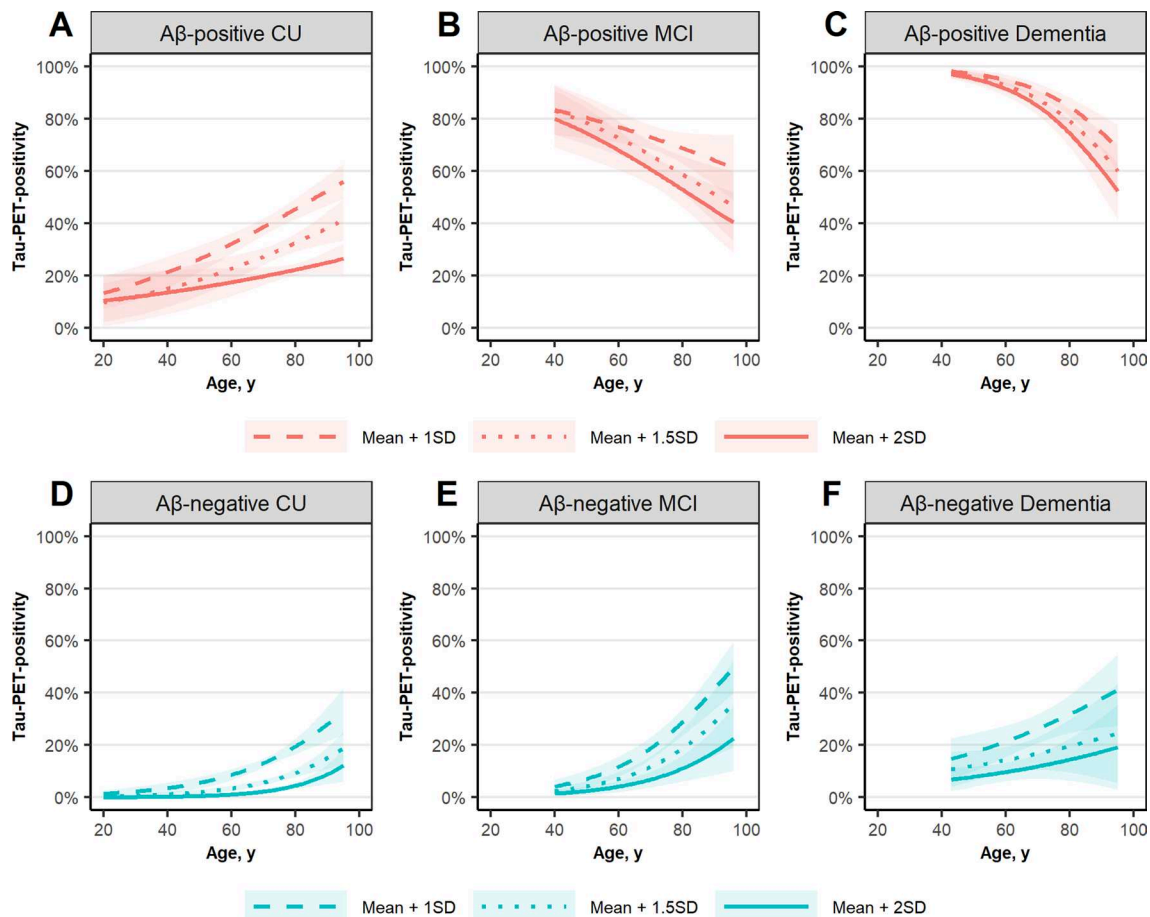
**Extended Data Fig. 1 | Observed tau-positivity in the temporal cortex across diagnostic groups.** Plots show the observed rates of Tau-PET positivity in the temporal cortex by (syndromic and clinical) diagnosis for all participants (panel **a**,  $n = 1,2048$ ) or stratified by A $\beta$ -status (panels **b** [ $n = 6,353$ ] and **c** [ $n = 5,206$ ]). A $\beta$  = Amyloid-beta; AD = Alzheimer's disease, CBS = Corticobasal

syndrome, DLB = Dementia with Lewy bodies, FTD = Frontotemporal dementia, MCI = Mild cognitive impairment, NOS = Not otherwise specified, PDD = Parkinson's disease dementia, PSP = Progressive supranuclear palsy, VaD = Vascular dementia.



**Extended Data Fig. 2 | Prevalence estimates of Tau-PET positivity according to age,  $A\beta$ , cognitive status and sex in AD-type dementia.** Panel **a** resembles Fig. 1f, panel **b** resembles Fig. 3c and panel **c** resembles Fig. 3f, but now in individuals clinically diagnosed with AD-type dementia instead of all-cause dementia. The model presented in panel **a** included age,  $A\beta$ -status and an interaction between age and  $A\beta$ -status ( $n = 1,696$ ). The model presented in panel **b** included age,  $A\beta$ -status,  $APOE \epsilon 4$ -status and an interaction between

age and  $A\beta$ -status ( $n = 1,486$ ). The model presented in panel **c** included age,  $A\beta$ -status, sex and an interaction term between age and  $A\beta$ -status ( $n = 1,696$ ). The y-axes reflect estimated probabilities of Tau-PET-positivity (prevalence estimates) from logistic generalized estimating equations. Shading areas indicates the 95% confidence intervals.  $A\beta$  = Amyloid-beta;  $APOE$  = Apolipoprotein E; PET = Positron emission tomography.



**Extended Data Fig. 3 | Prevalence estimates of Tau-PET positivity in the temporal cortex using lower thresholds.** The plots depict the prevalence estimates of Tau-PET positivity in the temporal cortex as a function of age, Aβ-status and an interaction between age and Aβ-status in CU (panels **a** and **d**,  $n = 7,186$ ), MCI (panels **b** and **e**,  $n = 2,121$ ) and dementia (panels **c** and **f**,  $n = 2,252$ ). Models were stratified by syndrome diagnoses. Tau-PET-positivity was defined

using three different thresholds for Tau-PET positivity (that is, the mean + 1, 1.5 or 2 s.d. in Aβ-negative CU individuals). The y axes reflect estimated probabilities of tau-PET positivity (prevalence estimates) from logistic GEEs. Shaded areas indicates the 95% confidence intervals. Aβ = Amyloid-beta; CU = Cognitively unimpaired; MCI, mild cognitive impairment; PET = Positron emission tomography.



**Extended Data Table 1 | Participant characteristics of the autopsy cohorts**

	<b>CU</b>	<b>MCI</b>	<b>Dementia</b>
<b>N</b>	1,026	661	3,385
<b>Age at death, years</b>	85.8 ± 8.5	87.8 ± 8.0	81.7 ± 11.0
<b>Sex, n female (%)</b>	628 (61.2)	373 (56.4)	1,701 (50.3)
<b><i>APOE</i> ε4, n carrier (%)</b>	187 (19.0)	151 (24.0)	1,408 (44.1)
<b>CERAD, n moderate-to-frequent (%)</b>	473 (46.1)	403 (61.0)	2,628 (77.6)

CERAD, Consortium to Establish a Registry for Alzheimer's Disease criteria.

**Extended Data Table 2 | Prevalence estimates of tau-PET positivity in the entorhinal cortex according to age, A $\beta$  and cognitive status**

Age, y	CU, % (95% CI)			MCI, % (95% CI)			Dementia, % (95% CI)		
	Total	A $\beta$ -negative	A $\beta$ -positive	Total	A $\beta$ -negative	A $\beta$ -positive	Total	A $\beta$ -negative	A $\beta$ -positive
50	2.9	0.6	21.1	32.8	2.3	78.5	68.0	7.6	91.3
	(2.0-3.9)	(0.2-1.0)	(14.1-28.0)	(25.9-39.7)	(0.7-3.9)	(70.4-86.5)	(58.2-77.8)	(3.3-12.0)	(87.9-94.7)
55	4.0	0.9	22.4	35.4	3.3	76.0	67.7	9.0	89.7
	(2.9-5.1)	(0.5-1.4)	(16.3-28.5)	(29.1-41.8)	(1.3-5.3)	(68.6-83.3)	(59.1-76.4)	(4.6-13.4)	(86.2-93.1)
60	5.4	1.4	23.8	38.2	4.7	73.3	67.5	10.6	87.7
	(4.2-6.7)	(0.8-1.9)	(18.5-29.1)	(32.4-44.0)	(2.2-7.2)	(66.8-79.7)	(59.9-75.0)	(6.2-14.9)	(84.3-91.1)
65	7.3	2.1	25.3	41.0	6.6	70.4	67.2	12.4	85.5
	(5.9-8.8)	(1.5-2.6)	(20.9-29.6)	(35.6-46.5)	(3.5-9.8)	(64.8-76.0)	(60.6-73.8)	(7.9-16.8)	(82.2-88.8)
70	9.9	3.1	26.8	43.9	9.3	67.4	66.9	14.4	82.9
	(8.3-11.4)	(2.5-3.6)	(23.2-30.3)	(38.7-49.2)	(5.3-13.2)	(62.5-72.2)	(61.2-72.7)	(9.8-19.0)	(79.7-86.1)
75	13.2	4.5	28.3	46.9	12.8	64.2	66.7	16.8	80.0
	(11.4-14.9)	(3.8-5.2)	(25.3-31.4)	(41.5-52.2)	(7.8-17.8)	(59.4-68.9)	(61.6-71.8)	(11.7-21.9)	(76.7-83.3)
80	17.3	6.7	30.0	49.8	17.5	60.8	66.4	19.4	76.7
	(15.3-19.4)	(5.3-8.1)	(26.9-33.0)	(44.1-55.5)	(11.1-23.9)	(55.5-66.2)	(61.6-71.2)	(13.4-25.4)	(73.1-80.4)
85	22.5	9.7	31.6	52.8	23.4	57.4	66.1	22.4	73.1
	(19.8-25.2)	(6.8-12.6)	(27.9-35.4)	(46.5-59.0)	(15.2-31.6)	(50.7-64.0)	(61.2-71.0)	(15.0-29.8)	(68.6-77.6)
90	28.6	13.9	33.4	55.7	30.6	53.9	65.9	25.6	69.1
	(25.0-32.3)	(8.5-19.3)	(28.4-38.3)	(48.8-62.7)	(20.2-41.0)	(45.5-62.2)	(60.5-71.2)	(16.3-34.9)	(63.4-74.9)

The prevalence estimates of tau positivity in the entorhinal cortex were generated using logistic GEE models stratified by syndrome diagnosis. Prevalence estimates in the total group were modeled using age as determinant. Prevalence estimates according to A $\beta$  status were modeled using age, A $\beta$  status and an interaction term between age and A $\beta$  status and models were stratified by syndrome diagnosis. The analyses presented in this table are based on 7,381 CU participants (68.7 $\pm$ 11.1 years, 56.0% female), of whom 7,174 had A $\beta$  status available (68.7 $\pm$ 11.1 years, 56.0% female), 2,173 participants with MCI (71.3 $\pm$ 8.8 years, 45.1% female), of whom 2,117 had A $\beta$  status available (71.3 $\pm$ 8.8 years, 44.9% female) and 2,459 participants with dementia (69.9 $\pm$ 9.0 years, 50.6% female), of whom 2,234 had A $\beta$  status available (69.9 $\pm$ 9.0 years, 51.2% female).

**Extended Data Table 3 | Prevalence estimates of tau-PET positivity in the whole-brain ROI according to age, A $\beta$  and cognitive status**

Age, y	CU, % (95% CI)			MCI, % (95% CI)			Dementia, % (95% CI)		
	Total	A $\beta$ -negative	A $\beta$ -positive	Total	A $\beta$ -negative	A $\beta$ -positive	Total	A $\beta$ -negative	A $\beta$ -positive
50	3.6	2.0	16.6	32.7	2.5	75.0	77.1	5.3	95.5
	(2.4-4.7)	(1.1-2.8)	(9.8-23.3)	(24.8-40.6)	(0.0-5.1)	(64.8-85.2)	(69.2-84.9)	(1.6-9.0)	(93.5-97.6)
55	4.0	2.1	15.5	32.4	3.1	69.6	73.5	6.1	93.1
	(3.0-5.0)	(1.4-2.8)	(10.2-20.9)	(25.5-39.3)	(0.4-5.8)	(59.9-79.2)	(65.9-81.2)	(2.5-9.8)	(90.4-95.7)
60	4.5	2.2	14.5	32.1	3.8	63.5	69.7	7.1	89.4
	(3.5-5.4)	(1.7-2.8)	(10.4-18.6)	(26.0-38.3)	(1.1-6.5)	(54.8-72.3)	(62.4-77.0)	(3.4-10.8)	(86.1-92.7)
65	5.0	2.4	13.6	31.8	4.7	57.1	65.5	8.1	84.2
	(4.2-5.9)	(1.9-2.8)	(10.5-16.6)	(26.2-37.5)	(2.1-7.4)	(49.3-64.8)	(58.6-72.5)	(4.1-12.2)	(80.1-88.2)
70	5.7	2.5	12.6	31.6	5.8	50.3	61.1	9.3	77.0
	(4.9-6.4)	(2.1-2.9)	(10.5-14.8)	(26.1-37.0)	(3.2-8.5)	(43.4-57.2)	(54.4-67.9)	(4.5-14.1)	(72.1-81.9)
75	6.3	2.7	11.8	31.3	7.2	43.6	56.5	10.7	67.8
	(5.5-7.2)	(2.1-3.3)	(10.2-13.4)	(25.6-36.9)	(4.3-10.1)	(36.9-50.3)	(49.7-63.4)	(4.6-16.7)	(61.7-73.9)
80	7.1	2.8	11.0	31.0	8.9	37.0	51.8	12.2	57.0
	(6.0-8.2)	(2.0-3.7)	(9.5-12.5)	(24.8-37.1)	(5.0-12.7)	(29.9-44.2)	(44.5-59.1)	(4.3-20.1)	(49.5-64.5)
85	7.9	3.0	10.2	30.7	10.8	31.0	47.1	13.9	45.5
	(6.5-9.4)	(1.8-4.2)	(8.5-12.0)	(23.8-37.6)	(5.2-16.5)	(23.2-38.8)	(39.1-55.1)	(3.6-24.2)	(36.7-54.2)
90	8.9	3.2	9.5	30.4	13.2	25.5	42.4	15.8	34.4
	(6.8-10.9)	(1.6-4.8)	(7.3-11.7)	(22.7-38.2)	(4.8-21.6)	(17.1-33.8)	(33.5-51.3)	(2.6-29.0)	(25.0-43.8)

The prevalence estimates of tau positivity in the whole-brain ROI were generated using logistic GEE models stratified by syndrome diagnosis. Prevalence estimates in the total group were modeled using age as determinant. Prevalence estimates according to A $\beta$  status were modelled using age, A $\beta$  status and an interaction term between age and A $\beta$  status, and models were stratified by syndrome diagnosis. The analyses presented in this table are based on 7,394 CU participants (68.7 $\pm$ 11.1 years, 55.9% female), of whom 7,186 had A $\beta$  status available (68.7 $\pm$ 11.1 years, 56.0% female), 2,177 participants with MCI (71.3 $\pm$ 8.8 years, 45.0% female), of whom 2,121 had A $\beta$  status available (71.4 $\pm$ 8.8 years, 44.8% female) and 2,475 participants with dementia (69.9 $\pm$ 9.0 years, 50.7% female), of whom 2,252 had A $\beta$  status available (69.9 $\pm$ 9.0 years, 51.2% female).

**Extended Data Table 4 | Prevalence estimates of tau-PET-positivity in amyloid-positive AD-type dementia**

Age, y	Alzheimer's disease dementia, % (95% CI)		
	Entorhinal cortex	Temporal cortex	Whole brain
<b>50</b>	92.7	97.7	97.0
	(89.4-96.0)	(96.4-99.1)	(95.3-98.7)
<b>55</b>	91.3	96.7	95.1
	(87.9-94.6)	(94.9-98.4)	(92.7-97.4)
<b>60</b>	89.6	95.1	92.0
	(86.3-93.0)	(93.0-97.1)	(88.8-95.2)
<b>65</b>	87.7	92.8	87.4
	(84.4-91.0)	(90.4-95.2)	(83.3-91.5)
<b>70</b>	85.5	89.6	80.6
	(82.2-88.7)	(86.9-92.2)	(75.5-85.6)
<b>75</b>	82.9	85.1	71.3
	(79.6-86.2)	(82.1-88.2)	(65.2-77.5)
<b>80</b>	80.0	79.3	59.8
	(76.4-83.6)	(75.6-83.0)	(52.5-67.2)
<b>85</b>	76.7	71.9	47.2
	(72.4-81.1)	(66.7-77.0)	(38.8-55.6)
<b>90</b>	73.1	63.0	34.9
	(67.6-78.7)	(55.7-70.4)	(26.1-43.7)

The prevalence estimates of tau-PET positivity in the entorhinal cortex, temporal cortex, and whole brain were generated using logistic GEE models according to age and A $\beta$  in participants clinically diagnosed with AD-type dementia ( $n=1,696$ ).



Extended Data Table 5 | Age by *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 status in CU individuals

Age, y	% (95% CI)	
	<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 non-carrier	<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 carrier
<b>50</b>	1.2 (0.8-1.7)	3.4 (2.2-4.6)
<b>55</b>	1.7 (1.2-2.3)	4.7 (3.2-6.2)
<b>60</b>	2.4 (1.7-3.1)	6.5 (4.8-8.3)
<b>65</b>	3.4 (2.5-4.2)	9.0 (6.9-11.1)
<b>70</b>	4.7 (3.7-5.7)	12.3 (9.7-14.8)
<b>75</b>	6.5 (5.2-7.8)	16.5 (13.4-19.6)
<b>80</b>	9.0 (7.3-10.6)	21.8 (18.0-25.6)
<b>85</b>	12.2 (10.0-14.4)	28.3 (23.6-33.0)
<b>90</b>	16.4 (13.3-19.6)	35.8 (30.0-41.6)

The prevalence estimates of tau positivity in the temporal cortex were generated from logistic GEE models including age and *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 status ( $n=6,476$ ).

**Extended Data Table 6 | A $\beta$  and tau positivity by age and APOE in CU individuals**

	A $\beta$ -positivity	Entorhinal tau-positivity	Temporal cortex tau-positivity
<b>Age at 10% prevalence</b>			
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 homozygote	40.5	44.5	54.5
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 heterozygote	49.0	63.5	69.0
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 non-carrier	56.5	77.5	81.0
<b>Age at 15% prevalence</b>			
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 homozygote	45.0	50.5	60.0
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 heterozygote	53.5	70.0	75.0
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 non-carrier	62.5	82.5	87.0
<b>Age at 20% prevalence</b>			
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 homozygote	48.5	55.0	65.0
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 heterozygote	57.0	74.5	79.5
<i>APOE</i> $\epsilon$ 4 non-carrier	67.0	86.5	91.5

The prevalence estimates of A $\beta$  and tau positivity were generated using logistic GEE models including age and *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 dosage, and only included individuals that had A $\beta$  status, entorhinal tau-PET status and temporal cortex tau-PET status available ( $n=6,184$ ). Separate models were performed for estimating the prevalence of A $\beta$  positivity and tau positivity. Models estimating the prevalence of A $\beta$  positivity and entorhinal tau positivity additionally included an interaction term between age and *APOE*  $\epsilon$ 4 dosage.

**Extended Data Table 7 | A $\beta$  and tau positivity by age and sex in CU individuals**

	A $\beta$ -positivity	Entorhinal tau-positivity	Temporal cortex tau-positivity
<b>Age at 10% prevalence</b>			
Women	48.5	67.5	73.0
Men	50.0	73.5	77.5
<b>Age at 15% prevalence</b>			
Women	55.0	74.5	80.5
Men	56.5	80.5	85.0
<b>Age at 20% prevalence</b>			
Women	60.0	79.5	86.0
Men	61.5	85.5	90.5

The prevalence estimates of A $\beta$  and tau positivity were generated using logistic GEE models including age and sex and models only included individuals that had A $\beta$  status, entorhinal tau-PET status and temporal cortex tau-PET status available ( $n=7,173$ ). Separate models were performed for estimating the prevalence of A $\beta$  positivity and tau positivity.

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For all statistical analyses, confirm that the following items are present in the figure legend, table legend, main text, or Methods section.

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| <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | A description of any assumptions or corrections, such as tests of normality and adjustment for multiple comparisons  |
| <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | A full description of the statistical parameters including central tendency (e.g. means) or other basic estimates (e.g. regression coefficient) AND variation (e.g. standard deviation) or associated estimates of uncertainty (e.g. confidence intervals) |
| <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | For null hypothesis testing, the test statistic (e.g. $F$ , $t$ , $r$ ) with confidence intervals, effect sizes, degrees of freedom and $P$ value noted<br><i>Give <math>P</math> values as exact values whenever suitable.</i>                            |
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Our web collection on [statistics for biologists](#) contains articles on many of the points above.

### Software and code

Policy information about [availability of computer code](#)

Data collection implemented in R version 4.2.1 and code can be requested from the corresponding authors

Data analysis implemented in R version 4.2.1 and codes are freely available: <https://github.com/OssenKoppeLab>

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Due to the multicenter design of the study, individual participant data from each cohort will have to be made available through the PIs of the respective cohorts. Generally, anonymized data can be shared by request from qualified academic investigators for the purpose of replicating procedures and results presented in the article, if the data transfer is in agreement with the data protection regulation at the institution and is approved by the local Ethics Review Board. A data availability statement is included in the manuscript



## Research involving human participants, their data, or biological material

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Reporting on sex and gender	Self-reported sex and/or gender information across centers is included in table 1
Reporting on race, ethnicity, or other socially relevant groupings	A subset of centers reported self-reported sex and/or ethnicity status and this information is included in table 1
Population characteristics	Included in manuscript, table 1
Recruitment	Recruitment strategies varied by center, information is included in previous publication
Ethics oversight	Data collection oversight by local IRBs data analysis by Ethics Committee of Lund University

Note that full information on the approval of the study protocol must also be provided in the manuscript.

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## Life sciences study design

All studies must disclose on these points even when the disclosure is negative.

Sample size	12048
Data exclusions	No data excluded from participants that met in- and exclusion criteria
Replication	No
Randomization	n.a.
Blinding	n.a.

## Reporting for specific materials, systems and methods

We require information from authors about some types of materials, experimental systems and methods used in many studies. Here, indicate whether each material, system or method listed is relevant to your study. If you are not sure if a list item applies to your research, read the appropriate section before selecting a response.

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<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Plants

### Methods

n/a	Involved in the study
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> ChIP-seq
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Flow cytometry
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> MRI-based neuroimaging

## Magnetic resonance imaging

### Experimental design

Design type	Processing was performed with various software at participating center (included in supplement)
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Design specifications	see above
Behavioral performance measures	na

## Acquisition

Imaging type(s)	Structural
Field strength	Various
Sequence & imaging parameters	Various
Area of acquisition	Cranium
Diffusion MRI	<input type="checkbox"/> Used <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Not used

## Preprocessing

Preprocessing software	Processing was performed with various software at participating center (included in supplement)
Normalization	See above
Normalization template	See above
Noise and artifact removal	See above
Volume censoring	See above

## Statistical modeling & inference

Model type and settings	Logistic generalized estimating equation (GEE)
Effect(s) tested	Age, amyloid-status, sex, APOE genotype
Specify type of analysis:	<input type="checkbox"/> Whole brain <input type="checkbox"/> ROI-based <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Both
Anatomical location(s)	Describe how anatomical locations were determined (e.g. specify whether automated labeling algorithms or probabilistic atlases were used).
Statistic type for inference	Probabilities of Tau pathology
(See <a href="#">Eklund et al. 2016</a> )	
Correction	na

## Models & analysis

n/a	Involved in the study
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Functional and/or effective connectivity
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Graph analysis
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Multivariate modeling or predictive analysis