#### **ORIGINAL COMMUNICATION**



# **CSF neuroflament proteins as diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis**

Daniela Rossi<sup>1</sup> • Paolo Volanti<sup>2</sup> • Liliana Brambilla<sup>1</sup> • Tiziana Colletti<sup>[3](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-2045-1864)</sup> • Rossella Spataro<sup>3</sup> • Vincenzo La Bella<sup>3</sup>

Received: 4 November 2017 / Revised: 25 December 2017 / Accepted: 29 December 2017 / Published online: 10 January 2018 © Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2018

#### **Abstract**

Elevated cerebrospinal fuid (CSF), Neuroflament Light (NF-L) and phosphorylated Heavy (pNF-H) chain levels have been found in Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS), with studies reporting a correlation of both neuroflaments (NFs) with the disease progression. Here, we measured NF-L and pNF-H concentrations in the CSF of ALS patients from a single tertiary Center and investigated their relationship with disease-related variables. A total of 190 ALS patients (Bulbar, 29.9%; Spinal, 70.1%;  $M/F = 1.53$ ) and 130 controls with mixed neurological diseases were recruited. Demographic and clinical variables were recorded, and ΔFS was used to rate the disease progression. Controls were divided into two cohorts: (1) patients with non-infammatory neurological diseases (CTL-1); (2) patients with acute/subacute infammatory diseases and tumors, expected to lead to signifcant axonal and tissue damage (CTL-2). For each patient and control, CSF was taken at the time of the diagnostic work-up and stored following the published guidelines. CSF NF-L and pNF-H were assayed with commercially available ELISA-based methods. Standard curves (from independent ELISA kits) were highly reproducible for both NFs, with a coefficient of variation  $< 20\%$ . We found that CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels in ALS were significantly increased when compared to CTL-1 (NF-L: ALS, 4.7 ng/ml vs CTL-1, 0.61 ng/ml, *p* < 0.001; pNF-H: ALS, 1.7 ng/ml vs CTL-1, 0.03 ng/ml,  $p < 0.0001$ ), but not to CTL-2. Analysis of different clinical and prognostic variables disclosed meaningful correlations with both NF-L and pNF-H levels. Our results, from a relatively large ALS cohort, confrm that CSF NF-L and pNF-H represent valuable diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers in ALS.

**Keywords** ALS · Neuroflaments · NF-L · pNF-H · Disease progression · CSF

Daniela Rossi and Paolo Volanti contributed equally to this work.

**Electronic supplementary material** The online version of this article [\(https://doi.org/10.1007/s00415-017-8730-6\)](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00415-017-8730-6) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

- Laboratory for Research on Neurodegenerative Disorders, ICS Maugeri, 27100 Pavia, Italy
- <sup>2</sup> ALS Center and Neurorehabilitation Unit, ICS Maugeri, 98073 Mistretta, Italy
- Department of Experimental BioMedicine and Clinical Neurosciences, ALS Clinical Research Center, University of Palermo, Via G La Loggia, 1, 90129 Palermo, Italy

# **Introduction**

Neuroflaments light chain (NF-L) and heavy chain (NF-H) are important, neuron-specifc, cytoskeletal proteins present in the cell bodies and axons, which ensure structural stability and axonal polarization of these cells [\[1](#page-10-0)]. They are encoded by two independent genes, located on chromosome 8p21 and 22q12.2, respectively [\[1](#page-10-0), [2](#page-10-1)].

Growing evidence indicates that NF-L and phosphorylated NF-H (pNF-H) are non-specifc markers of axonal damage, which are reported to be increased in cerebrospinal fuid (CSF) and blood of several neurodegenerative disorders [[1,](#page-10-0) [3](#page-10-2)[–16\]](#page-10-3). In particular, increased CSF and blood NF-L levels have been proposed as diagnostic markers for atypical parkinsonian disorders [[15](#page-10-4), [16\]](#page-10-3), Alzheimer disease [[14](#page-10-5)], frontotemporal dementia [\[6](#page-10-6), [8,](#page-10-7) [12](#page-10-8), [13](#page-10-9)], HIV-related neurodegeneration [[17](#page-10-10)].

Among the neurodegenerative diseases, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) is characterized to be a crippling,

 $\boxtimes$  Vincenzo La Bella vincenzo.labella@unipa.it

severely disabling and rapidly progressive disorder, due to the degeneration of the upper and lower motor neurons. Survival is relatively short, being some 3 years from symptom onset [\[18](#page-10-11)].

A biological marker for ALS is, therefore, highly needed, both for diagnosis (about 7% of ALS diagnoses actually turn out to be other diseases [\[19](#page-10-12)]) and for monitoring the disease progression. ALS diagnosis and evaluation of disease progression are in fact mainly based on a clinical ground [\[20,](#page-10-13) [21](#page-10-14)]. Furthermore, a biomarker for ALS might represent a useful quantitative end-point for clinical trials.

Given the evidence that cortical (upper) motor neurons (UMN) and bulbar/spinal (lower) motor neurons (LMN) have relatively long axons, much effort has been devoted to assay the levels of NF-L and/or pNF-H in the patients' biological fuids (i.e., CSF and blood), as markers of axonal degeneration in ALS [[2,](#page-10-1) [11,](#page-10-15) [22\]](#page-10-16).

Several reports have found that both neuroflaments are increased in the CSF and blood [\[3,](#page-10-2) [23](#page-10-17)[–35\]](#page-11-0), leading to the suggestion that these intermediate flaments might represent useful biomarkers to diferentiate ALS from either ALSmimics  $[23, 27, 31]$  $[23, 27, 31]$  $[23, 27, 31]$  $[23, 27, 31]$  $[23, 27, 31]$  $[23, 27, 31]$  or other neurological and neurodegenerative diseases [\[3](#page-10-2), [11,](#page-10-15) [24](#page-10-19), [26,](#page-10-20) [32](#page-11-2)]. Furthermore, it has been shown that NF-L might have prognostic relevance, as the increased blood and CSF levels seem to correlate with a shorter survival [\[29,](#page-11-3) [33–](#page-11-4)[35](#page-11-0)]. These data raised the key question as to whether blood and/or CSF neuroflament light chain and phosphorylated heavy-chain proteins are now ready to enter into the clinic as: (1) biomarkers for ALS diagnosis, and (2) biochemical outcome measures in clinical trials [\[11](#page-10-15), [36](#page-11-5)].

In this retrospective study, we assessed the diagnostic relevance of CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels by comparing a relatively large cohort of ALS patients, from a single tertiary center, with controls afected by other neurological diseases.

Controls were further divided into two cohorts, i.e., (1) patients with diferent non-acute and/or progressive diseases afecting the Peripheral (PNS) or the Central Nervous System (CNS); and (2) patients with acute/subacute inflammatory diseases of the nervous system and brain tumors/ metastases, which are expected to lead to signifcant axonal and tissue damage.

## <span id="page-1-0"></span>**Patients and methods**

All patients involved in this study (ALS and disease controls) underwent a lumbar puncture during the diagnostic work-up. An informed written consent was signed according to the current guidelines of our University Hospital "P Giaccone", Palermo. The informed consent contains a statement that "the biological material may also be used for research purposes". The study protocol was approved by our institutional Ethics Committee. All the clinical and biological assessments were carried out in accordance with the World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki.

#### **ALS patients and disease controls**

This study included 190 sporadic ALS patients (of which 10 were associated with frontotemporal dementia, ALS-FTD) and 130 controls afected by other neurological disorders. Enrollment was performed in two cohorts during the diagnostic work-up at the ALS Clinical Research Center, Department of Experimental Biomedicine and Clinical Neurosciences (BioNeC), University of Palermo, Italy, between 2006 and 2016.

All ALS patients underwent genetic testing for the major ALS-related genes, i.e., FUS, TARDBP, SOD1, Angiogenin, C9orf72. Patients with familial ALS and/or with mutation/ expansions of the above genes were not included in this study.

Clinical follow-up of the control subjects was performed for at least 6 months. ALS patients were regularly followed up at the ALS Clinical Research Center with periodic visits at 3–6 months interval.

Patients with ALS were diagnosed according to El-Escorial revised criteria [\[20\]](#page-10-13), complemented by the Awaji neurophysiological criteria [[37](#page-11-6)]. In patients with associated ALS-FTD, the dementing disease was diagnosed according to the current consensus criteria [[38](#page-11-7), [39](#page-11-8)].

Severity of symptoms was scored with the revised version of the ALS Functional Rating Scale (ALSFRS-R) [\[21](#page-10-14)], where the higher score (48 points) indicates the absence of functional deficits and the lower score (0 points) defines a locked-in patient with permanent mechanical ventilation. Disease progression was evaluated with the  $\Delta FS$ , identifed by the following formula: (ALSFRS-R at onset − ALS-FRS-R at time of diagnosis)/diagnostic delay (months) [[40](#page-11-9)]. According to the  $\Delta FS$ , three rates of progression could be calculated, i.e., slow ( $\Delta FS < 0.5$ ), intermediate  $(\Delta FS \geq 0.5 - < 1)$ , and rapid ( $\Delta FS \geq 1$ ). Seated Forced Vital Capacity (FVC %) was used to assess respiratory function.

ALS patients were submitted to lumbar puncture and cerebrospinal fuid analysis as routine procedure of the diagnostic work-up. All functional evaluations were made at the time of the diagnostic work-up, which in our ALS population occurs some 1 year after the clinical onset [\[41](#page-11-10)].

Controls were patients with heterogeneous neurological disorders, who were also submitted to lumbar puncture and cerebrospinal fuid analysis during their diagnostic work-up. We did not include in this study patients with Alzheimer disease and other dementias, Parkinson disease and atypical parkinsonism, and adult-onset neurogenetic disorders (e.g., spinocerebellar ataxias, Huntington disease, hereditary spastic paraplegia, etc.).

The control cohort was divided into two groups, according to pathogenesis: (1) the control group 1 (CTL-1,  $n = 82$ ) includes diferent non-infammatory, non-acute onset neurological disorders (see: S-Table 1 for a full list). Note that CTL-1 includes patients with ALS-mimic diseases (in Italic in the list); (2) the control cohort 2 (CTL-2,  $n = 48$ ) is formed by patients with acute/subacute infammatory disorders and tumors/metastases of the nervous system (see: S-Table 2 for a full list). These disorders usually give signifcant neuronal/axonal death or degeneration and, thus, an increased level of cytoskeletal proteins is expected.

Demographic and clinical characteristics of the ALS patients and the two control cohorts are presented in Table [1.](#page-2-0)

For subgroup biomarker analysis, patients with ALS were divided into three phenotypes, according to the site of onset (spinal vs bulbar; the term *spinal*-*onset* includes also patients with respiratory-onset and generalized-onset) and to the presence of an associated frontotemporal dementia. The demographic and clinical characteristics of the spinal-onset ALS (ALS-S), bulbar-onset ALS (ALS-B), and patients with associated ALS-FTD are shown in Table [2](#page-2-1). Note that in the ALS-FTD group, which included eight ALS-S and two ALS-B, the dementia always preceded the onset of motor symptoms.

A cognitive and/or behavioral impairment was, however, present in some 40% of our non-demented ALS population

<span id="page-2-0"></span>**Table 1** Clinical and demographic characteristics of the ALS patients and the disease controls, divided into two groups according to pathogenesis



Data are expressed as median with interquartile ranges

*CTL-1* non-infammatory neurological disorders; *CTL-2* infammatory/autoimmune neurological disorders and tumors/metastases of the Central Nervous system, *n.a.* not applicable

a Evaluation at diagnosis

b Include patients with ALS and frontotemporal lobar dementia (ALS-FTD)

c Diagnostic delay less than 3 weeks is counted as 0

\*Kruskal–Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks

\*\*Chi square



Data are expressed as median with interquartile ranges

*ALS-S* spinal onset (this group includes 5 patients with respiratory onset and two patients with Brait–Fahn– Schwartz disease), *ALS-B* bulbar-onset, *ALS-FTD* patients with associated frontotemporal lobar dementia (this group includes eight ALS-S and two ALS-B)

\*Kruskal–Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks

\*\*Chi square

<span id="page-2-1"></span>**Table 2** Clinical and demographic characteristics of diferent subgroups of ALS patients enrolled for this study (Spataro et al., unpublished results), a result consistent with the current literature [[42–](#page-11-11)[45\]](#page-11-12).

#### **CSF collection and analysis**

CSF was collected between 8:00 a.m. and 10:00 a.m. by lumbar puncture during the diagnostic work-up from both fasted ALS patients and disease controls. Each sample was processed within 1 hr from collection by centrifugation, and then aliquoted in small polypropylene tubes following standard procedures [\[46](#page-11-13)]. All aliquots were coded to ensure anonymity, and stored at  $-80$  °C until further analysis. The collected CSFs from ALS and control patients underwent routine analysis, which included cell (leukocyte) count  $(cells/mm<sup>3</sup>)$ , total protein  $(mg/dl)$  and glucose  $(mg/dl)$  quantification, the CSF/serum albumin concentration ratio  $(Q_{\text{alb}})$ , and evaluation of oligoclonal bands.

The CSF parameters of the ALS patients and the two control cohorts are shown in Table [3](#page-3-0). While the glucose level was comparable between groups, the total protein, the *Q*alb and the number of cells (lymphocytes) were signifcantly higher in the CTL-2 group.

#### **Neuroflament assays**

Single-batch ELISA kits from two diferent commercial sources were used for the NF-L assays (i.e., MyBioSource, San Diego, USA and UmanDiagnostics AB, Umeå, Sweden).

For pNF-H determinations, we used a single-batch ELISA kit from BioVendor Research and Diagnostic Product, Czech Republic.

Analyses were performed according to each manufacturer's instructions.

All samples from ALS patients and disease controls (CTL-1 and CTL-2) were coded, so that the analyst was

unaware of any patient specifc clinical and demographic data.

#### **Determination of NF‑L**

Samples were diluted 1:2 and run in duplicate, together with freshly prepared standards. For both ELISA kits, absorbance measurements were carried out at 450 nm with a reference wavelength set at 630 nm, using a EuroClone plate reader.

#### **Determination of pNF‑H**

Samples were diluted 1:3 and 1:10 with dilution bufer, and run in duplicate, together with freshly prepared standards. Absorbance values were determined by reading the plates at 450 nm, with the reference wavelength set to 630 nm, using a BioTek plate reader.

#### **Calculation of the neuroflament levels and quality control tests**

CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels for all groups were calculated by referring to the corresponding standard curves. Reproducibility of the results was assessed by calculating the average coefficient of variation  $(CV)$  within plates and between plates.

The mean intra-assay CV was  $< 10\%$ , whereas the interassay CV was < 15% for both NF-L and pNF-H.

#### **Statistical analysis**

Analysis of data was carried out with SIGMAPLOT 12.0 software package (Systat Software Inc., San Jose, CA, USA), GRAPHPAD PRISM 5.01 software (GraphPad Inc., La

<span id="page-3-0"></span>**Table 3** Cerebrospinal fuid parameters in ALS patients and in the two disease control groups



Data are expressed as median with interquartile ranges

Data for proteins, glucose, no of cells and *Q*alb are expressed as median with interquartile ranges (between parentheses)

 $y/n =$  bands present (type 2 or 3)/bands absent; values indicate the number of patients

*CTL-1* non-infammatory neurological disorders, *CTL-2* infammatory neurological disorders and tumors/ metastases of the Central Nervous system

\*Kruskal–Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks with post hoc Dunn's analysis (CTL-2 vs ALS and CTL-1)

\*\*Chi square

Jolla, CA, USA), and XLSTAT 2017 software (Addinsoft Inc., New York, NY, USA).

Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves were used to calculate the sensitivity and specifcity of the NF-L and pNF-H data in the CSF of ALS patients vs diferent control subgroups (i.e., CTL-1, CTL-2, ALS-mimics). The optimal cutoff was calculated with the Youden Index. For each cutof, sensitivity, specifcity, the area under curve (AUC) with 95% confidence interval (CI), the likelihood ratio (LR) and the predictive values were analyzed with XLSTAT 2017 software.

Demographic and biochemical variables and neuroflament levels in ALS and control groups were expressed as median with interquartile ranges (IQR).

Nonparametric data comparisons were performed using Mann–Whitney Rank Sum Test or, where appropriate, with the Kruskal–Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks.

Diferences between groups were evaluated using the Chi square test. Survival data were expressed as median with IQR. Survival analysis was restricted to cases with survival time  $\leq 120$  months, to better represent the ALS population, and performed with the Kaplan–Meier method. Survival curves were compared with the Log-Rank test.

All correlations were analyzed with Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient.

 $p$  values  $< 0.05$  were considered significant.

## **Results**

The concentrations of NF-L and pNF-H were assessed in the CSF of ALS patients and of a relatively large cohort of control patients, with heterogeneous neurological diseases. The control cohort was further divided into two main subgroups, according to the disease etiopathogenesis (see "[Patients and](#page-1-0) [methods](#page-1-0)" section).

While all assessments of pNF-H were carried with the same ELISA kit (i.e., Biovendor), CSF NF-L levels were initially assayed using a commercial ELISA Kit from MyBioSource. Preliminary evaluation of this kit showed a very good reproducibility for both the standard curve and the sample analysis (S-Table 3 and S-Table 4). However, we were surprised to detect no diferences in CSF NF-L concentrations between ALS and the two control groups (Table [4\)](#page-4-0).

CSF pNF-H levels were instead increased in ALS with respect to both CTL-1 and CTL-2 controls; however, only the diference in the pNF-H levels between ALS and CTL-1 reached significance [ALS: 1.7 ng/ml (IQR =  $0.76-3.17$ ) vs CTL-1: 0.03 ng/ml (IQR = 0.00–0.31); *p* < 0.05, Kruskal–Wallis One-Way ANOVA on Ranks with post hoc Dunn's analysis, Table [4\]](#page-4-0).

The evidence that CSF NF-L levels in ALS, assayed with the MyBioSource ELISA kit, were not signifcantly diferent from the two control groups was in striking contrast with previously published works, carried out with diferent ELISA kits, both home-made or from commercial sources [\[3](#page-10-2), [10](#page-10-21), [11,](#page-10-15) [22–](#page-10-16)[24,](#page-10-19) [26](#page-10-20), [30](#page-11-14), [31,](#page-11-1) [33–](#page-11-4)[35\]](#page-11-0). In particular, the commercial UmanDiagnostics ELISA kit (*producer*: UmanDiagnostics AB, Umeå, Sweden; *distributor*: IBL, Hamburg, Germany) was the most frequently chosen to quantify NF-L [[16,](#page-10-3) [24,](#page-10-19) [30–](#page-11-14)[32,](#page-11-2) [34,](#page-11-15) [35](#page-11-0)].

We, therefore, adopted the ELISA kit from UmanDiagnostics AB to replicate the NF-L assessments in the CSF of our ALS patients and in the two control disease groups. The results were completely diferent because, using this tool, the median NF-L levels were significantly higher in the ALS cohort when compared to the CTL-1 group [ALS: 4.7 ng/ml (IQR =  $1.18-7.98$ ) vs CTL-1, 0.61 ng/ ml (IQR = 0.31–2.67); *p* < 0.05, Kruskal–Wallis One-Way ANOVA on Ranks with post hoc Dunn's analysis, Table [4](#page-4-0)]. Conversely, no signifcant diferences were found in the NF-L levels between ALS and CTL-2.

These data suggest that neuroflaments are not reliable biomarkers when ALS is compared to diseases in which an acute/subacute neuronal/axonal damage or death is a main feature.

A further remarkable conclusion from these experiments is that NF-L levels in the CSF may greatly vary in relationship to the ELISA kit used to make the assay. We postulate that the discrepancy we found between kits may be ascribed to the different affinity of the kit-specific antibodies for NF-L protein.

<span id="page-4-0"></span>**Table 4** CSF Neuroflament light chain (NF-L) and phosphorylated heavy-chain (pNF-H) levels in ALS patients and in the two control groups, CTL-1 and CTL-2



For the NF-L assay, two ELISA kits from diferent commercial sources were compared. Data are expressed as median with interquartile ranges

\*Kruskal–Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks, with post hoc Dunn analysis (ALS vs CTL-1)

Given that the UmanDiagnostics ELISA kit for the CSF NF-L assessment gave results consistent with the published literature [\[16](#page-10-3), [24](#page-10-19), [34](#page-11-15), [35\]](#page-11-0), all subsequent experiments were, therefore, carried out with this commercial tool.

To supplement the analysis of CSF neuroflaments in ALS, we measured NF-L and pNF-H levels in patients divided into two subgroups according to the site of onset (i.e., ALS-S and ALS-B). ALS-FTD was analyzed as a separate cohort. Table [5](#page-5-0) shows that CSF neuroflaments do not discriminate ALS patients according to the site of onset, or to the presence of an associated dementia. Nevertheless, both neuroflament levels appeared lower in the ALS-FTD group, though the diference did not reach signifcance.

As the diagnostic delay (DD) in ALS-FTD is signifcantly longer than in ALS-S or ALS-B (Table [2](#page-2-1)), we hypothesized that the lower levels of neuroflaments in this ALS subgroup might be related to this variable. The Spearman correlation analysis actually confrmed the existence of a small, however, signifcant, inverse correlation between the diagnostic delay and CSF neurofilaments (DD vs NF-L:  $r = -0.20$ , *p* = 0.006; DD vs pNF-H: *r* = − 0.25, *p* = 0.0006).

CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels were then studied in ALS according to diferent demographic and clinical variables. As shown in Table [6,](#page-6-0) both neuroflament levels were unrelated to age or sex. However, we observed a clear-cut relationship between rate of disease progression, as measured by ΔFS [[40\]](#page-11-9), and both NF-L and pNF-H levels. ALS patients were categorized into three subgroups, according to ΔFS, i.e., slow  $(< 0.5)$ , intermediate  $(\geq 0.5 - < 1)$ , and rapid  $(\geq 1)$ progression, which was found to inversely correlate with survival in our cohort (S-Fig. 1). For both neurofilaments, CSF levels were signifcantly diferent in the three progression cohorts, with higher levels found in the rapid progressing patients (Table [6\)](#page-6-0). The Spearman correlation analysis further confirmed the positive relationship between  $\Delta FS$  and CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels (NF-L, *r* = 0.312, *p* = 0.00001; pNF-H,  $r = 0.315$ ,  $p = 0.00001$ , Fig. [1](#page-7-0)).

Taken together, the above results strongly suggest that both CSF neuroflaments may have a prognostic value, the higher levels at diagnosis being predictive of a relatively short survival.

To further confrm this hypothesis, we performed survival curves of ALS patients dichotomized according to the median CSF values of NF-L or pNF-H. Kaplan–Meier curves showed that survival is significantly shorter for patients with higher CSF NF-L or pNF-H levels at diagnosis (Fig. [2](#page-7-1)). Note that the CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels in ALS showed a positive correlation (NF-L vs pNF-H,  $n = 190$ ,  $r = 0.70, p = 0.0000002, S\text{-Fig. 2)}$ , indicating that a patient with a high level of one neuroflament is likely to have a high level of the other neuroflament protein too.

We conclude that both CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels at diagnosis have a prognostic value in ALS, and they might be adopted as important surrogate biomarkers in clinical trials.

The CTL-1 group included also some ALS-mimics, that is, diseases which may enter into the diferential diagnosis with ALS (i.e., cervical spondylotic myelopathy, motor neuropathy/plexopathy, multifocal motor neuropathy, S-Table 1). CSF neuroflament levels of patients with ALS were, therefore, compared with the CTL-1 subgroup of ALS mimics.

As shown in Fig. [3,](#page-7-2) the CSF levels for both neuroflaments were once again higher in ALS than in the ALS-mimics (Fig. [3a](#page-7-2), NF-L: ALS, 4.7 ng/ml [IQR = 1.18 − 7.98] vs ALS-mimics, 1.11 ng/ml [IQR = 0.46 − 4.60], *p* < 0.001, Mann–Whitney Rank Sum Test; Fig. [3](#page-7-2)b, pNF-H: ALS, 1.70 ng/ml [IQR = 0.76 − 3.17] vs ALS-mimics, 0.30 ng/ ml [IQR = 0.00 − 1.23], *p* < 0.001, Mann–Whitney Rank Sum Test).

To study the sensitivity and specifcity of the observed diferences in CSF neuroflament levels between ALS and controls, we performed several ROC analyses. First, we asked which cutoff value of both CSF neurofilaments would better discriminate between ALS and non-infammatory/ non-tumor neurological diseases (CTL-1).

The ROC curves shown in Fig. [4](#page-8-0) indicate that the best cutoff value for neurofilament levels to distinguish the two groups is as follows: (1) NF-L, 1.838 ng/ml with an AUC of 0.775 CI (0.713–0.837), sensitivity 76.3% and specifcity 72.8% and a Youden index of 0.49 (Fig. [4](#page-8-0)a); (2) pNF-H, 0.460 ng/ml with an AUC of 0.869 CI (0.814–0.924), sensitivity 84% and specifcity 82.9% and a Youden index of 0.669 (Fig. [4](#page-8-0)b).

The ROC values for the two neuroflament biomarkers to discriminate ALS vs all diferent control subgroups (i.e., CTL-1, CTL-2, and ALS-mimics) are instead summarized

<span id="page-5-0"></span>**Table 5** CSF Neuroflament light chain (NF-L) and phosphorylated heavy-chain (pNF-H) levels in ALS, grouped according to diferent phenotypes

Variable	Spinal-onset $(n = 123)$	Bulbar-onset $(n = 57)$	ALS-FTD $(n = 10)$	
$NF-L$ (ng/ml)	$4.23(1.52 - 7.92)$	$4.96(2.20 - 8.02)$	$3.63(1.31 - 8.33)$	$0.78*$
$pNF-H$ (ng/ml)	1.68 (0.69–3.32)	$1.88(1.13-3.14)$	$0.95(0.32-1.69)$	$0.13*$

Data are expressed as median with interquartile ranges

\*Kruskal–Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks



\*\*Kruskal–Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks

\*\*Kruskal-Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks

<span id="page-6-0"></span><sup>2</sup> Springer

in Table [7](#page-8-1). Both NF-L and pNF-H cutoff values yielded a grading of AUC, sensitivity and specificity, in which differentiation of ALS from controls was as follows:  $CTL-1 > ALS$ -mimics  $>CTL-2$ .

We conclude that both neurofilaments show a relatively good performance as diagnostic biomarkers for ALS to dis criminate this motor neuron disorder from non-infamma tory/non-degenerative/non-tumor disease controls (CTL-1) and, with less extent, from ALS-mimics. pNF-H appears slightly more efficient than NF-L.

# **Discussion**

Our study aimed to characterize the diagnostic and prognos tic performance of the CSF levels of two neuroflaments in ALS, i.e., NF-L and pNF-H.

We demonstrated that both cytoskeletal proteins are signifcantly increased in the CSF of ALS patients with respect to controls afected by diferent neurological diseases. In particular, NF-L and pNF-H were able to efficiently discriminate ALS vs controls afected by other neurological disorders, not specifcally linked to progressive neuronal cell death/axonal damage or acute infammation (i.e., the CTL-1 cohort). pNF-H showed better sensitivity and speci ficity than NF-L, with a higher AUC  $(0.869 \text{ pN} - H)$  vs  $0.775$ NF-L).

These results add to the growing literature in the feld [ [3,](#page-10-2) [10](#page-10-21), [11,](#page-10-15) [22](#page-10-16) –[24,](#page-10-19) [26,](#page-10-20) [30](#page-11-14), [31](#page-11-1), [33](#page-11-4) –[35\]](#page-11-0), and they strongly support a role for these two cytoskeletal proteins as very promising biomarkers in ALS.

When ALS patients were compared to disease controls with signifcant neuronal cell death/axonal damage due to diferent causes (i.e., tumors, metastases, infammation; the CTL-2 cohort), the ability of the CSF neuroflaments to dis criminate between the two groups was greatly reduced. The median CSF levels of NF-L and pNF-H were in fact not diferent between ALS and CTL-2, with the ROC analy sis showing reduced specifcity and AUC values for both neuroflaments.

This clearly demonstrates that neuroflaments are nonspecifc markers of those diseases characterized by neuronal cell death/axonal degeneration, especially when evolving at a relatively fast pace. ALS is a disease whose natural history is generally shorter than other neurodegenerative disorders, like Alzheimer disease or Parkinson disease. Only few other neurodegenerative diseases, e.g., multisystem atrophy and prion encephalopathies, show a disease progression compa rable to, or even more aggressive than, ALS. In these disor ders, growing evidence show that CSF neuroflaments and other cytoskeletal proteins, like the Tau protein, are strongly increased [\[16](#page-10-3), [47](#page-11-16), [48](#page-11-17)].





<span id="page-7-0"></span>**Fig. 1** Correlation between CSF neuroflament levels and disease progression (∆FS). Disease progression positively correlated with both CSF NF-L (**a**) and pNF-H (**b**) levels. NF-L and pNF-H data are expressed in ng/ml and ∆FS is determined with the following for-

mula: (ALSFRS-R at onset − ALSFRS-R at time of diagnosis)/diagnostic delay (months). Correlation is performed using the Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient and linear regression analysis

<span id="page-7-1"></span>**Fig. 2** CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels at diagnosis have a prognostic value in ALS. Kaplan– Meier survival curves of ALS patients stratifed according to the median CSF values of NF-L (4.7 ng/ml) or pNF-H (1.7 ng/ ml) at diagnosis. Statistical analysis shows a signifcantly shorter survival of patients with higher CSF NF-L or pNF-H levels (*p* < 0.001; Log-Rank test)

NF-L (ng/ml)



<span id="page-7-2"></span>**Fig. 3** CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels represent useful biomarkers to diferentiate ALS from ALS-mimic patients. ALS-mimics are included in the CTL-1 control group and show diseases that may enter into the diferential diagnosis of ALS (i.e., cervical spondylotic myelopathy, motor neuropathy, multifocal motor neuropathy, see S-Table 1 for more details). CSF NF-L (**a**) and pNF-H (**b**) levels

are signifcantly higher in ALS patients when compared to the ALSmimics group. Data are expressed in ng/ml [NF-L: ALS: 4.7 ng/ml  $(IQR = 1.18-7.98)$ , ALS-mimics: 1.11 ng/ml  $(IQR = 0.46-4.60)$ *p* < 0.001; pNF-H: ALS: 1.70 ng/ml (IQR = 0.76–3.17), ALS-mimics: 0.30 ng/ml (IQR = 0.00–1.23), *p* < 0.001, Mann–Whitney Rank Sum Test]

<span id="page-8-0"></span>**Fig. 4** ROC curves of CSF NF-L and pNF-H to discriminate between ALS and CTL-1 patients. ROC curve analyses have been performed to determine levels of CSF neuroflaments that best diferentiate ALS versus non-infammatory/ non-tumor neurological diseases (CTL-1). Data are expressed in ng/ml; *AUC* area under the curve, *CI* 95% confidence interval, *NPV* negative predictive value, *PPV* positive predictive value



Youden Index = 0.491

0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1 Specificity

AUC = 0.869 CI (0.814-0.924) Sensitivity = 84% CI (78.1-88.5) Specificity = 82.9% CI (73.2-89.6) NPV = 68.7% Likelihood ratio = 4.921 Youden Index = 0.669

<span id="page-8-1"></span>**Table 7** Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) values for the biomarkers Neuroflament Light-Chain (NF-L) and phosphorylated Neuroflament Heavy-Chain (pNF-H) showing their diagnostic ability to discriminate ALS vs diferent groups of neurological disorders



A number of patients are given between square parentheses. CTL-1 includes the group of ALS mimics *AUC* area under curve, *NPV* negative predictive value, *PPV* positive predictive value

Neuroflament light-chain and phosphorylated heavychain proteins can, therefore, be considered biomarkers of neuronal degeneration and death, especially when the underlying pathological process evolves rapidly. When the neurodegenerative process causing neuronal/axonal damage is relatively slow, the impact of the neuroflaments as biomarkers is likely to be minor. In this context, the CSF neuroflament levels are not strictly related to the number of neurons involved in the pathological process.

CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels in the ALS cohort were also higher when confronted to ALS-mimics, with a sensitivity, specifcity and AUC roughly comparable to the disease controls. Other reports found similar outcomes [[31,](#page-11-1) [34,](#page-11-15) [35](#page-11-0)]. pNF-H showed, however, a better performance than NF-L in discriminating ALS from ALS-mimics.

ALS-mimics are neurological diseases that are frequently involved in the diferential diagnosis of ALS [[19\]](#page-10-12). Among them, cervical spondylosis and cervical spondylotic myelopathy, motor mono–poly-neuropathies, plexopathies and multifocal motor neuropathy seem the most challenging [\[19,](#page-10-12) [49](#page-11-18)]. In this work, we did not include other motor neuron diseases, like adult-onset lower motor neuron disease, bulbo-spinal muscular atrophy, hereditary spastic paraparesis, primary lateral sclerosis, etc., which would require a dedicated study.

CSF NF-L and pNF-H are, therefore, promising ALS biomarkers that can support the diagnosis, provided that the shared guidelines for ALS diagnosis are followed [[20](#page-10-13), [37,](#page-11-6) [50\]](#page-11-19). It remains, however, an open question whether CSF and/ or blood neuroflaments are biological markers predictive of an incoming disease onset in asymptomatic carriers [[30](#page-11-14)].

In our ALS cohort, both CSF neuroflaments were not able to discriminate between ALS phenotypes (i.e., spinalonset vs bulbar-onset vs ALS-FTD). Furthermore, age at onset or sex did not show signifcant relationship with both CSF NF-L and pNF-H levels. Similar observations have been made in other studies [[24,](#page-10-19) [29,](#page-11-3) [31](#page-11-1), [35](#page-11-0)]. These analyses were made at diagnosis, and all patients were in a mild–moderate stage of disability (the median ALSFRS-R of our ALS cohort was 38/48; range 30–42). This further confrms that neuroflaments are non-specifc markers for the intrinsic mechanism of neuronal degeneration, which is likely to be unafected by demographic variables.

The severity of the disease, in terms of rate of progression, is instead strictly related to both neuroflament levels, in that the more rapid the disease evolution, as measured by  $\Delta$ FS [\[40](#page-11-9)], the higher the NF-L and pNF-H levels in the CSF. As an indirect support to this result, we showed that high levels of both CSF neuroflaments at diagnosis were associated with a reduced survival. This strongly suggest that both NFs have a potential as prognostic biomarkers of the disease [[11](#page-10-15), [24](#page-10-19), [29](#page-11-3)[–31](#page-11-1), [35](#page-11-0)].

It is now a matter of fact that ALS is highly heterogeneous, with diferent phenotypes [\[51\]](#page-11-20) and, more important, with different rates of progression [[40,](#page-11-9) [52](#page-11-21)]. Both variables are in part implicated in the failure of the most recent clinical trials in the disease [\[53](#page-11-22)].

There is suggestion that future clinical trials should be performed by selecting more homogeneous groups of patients, with the aim to move towards a more personalized therapy. The early randomized clinical trial with riluzole found a better survival effect in bulbar–onset patients [\[54](#page-11-23)], and a recent pilot clinical trial with tauroursodeoxycholic acid enrolled only spinal-onset ALS patients to reduce phe-notypic variability [\[55\]](#page-11-24). Along with  $\Delta FS$ , which allows the grouping of patients according to their rate of progression [[40\]](#page-11-9), CSF neuroflaments appear at present the best prognostic biomarkers in ALS. A recent commentary [[36\]](#page-11-5) and a meta-analysis [[11\]](#page-10-15) have in fact advocated the potential usefulness of CSF neuroflament levels as potential outcome measure in clinical trials.

A question raises as to whether both neuroflament lightchain and phosphorylated heavy-chain proteins should stably enter in the ALS clinic [[11,](#page-10-15) [36\]](#page-11-5). The results from our work represent a further support to it.

Our study unveiled, however, a relevant issue that must be considered when using commercial ELISA kits for a biomarker assays. We found a big variability between commercial kits.

For neuroflament light-chain assay, we initially adopted an ELISA kit from MyBioSource (San Diego, USA), which gave excellent standard curve and high reproducible data. However, we did not found diferences between ALS and disease controls, with a range of CSF NF-L levels nonetheless similar to those reported in other works [\[24](#page-10-19), [29–](#page-11-3)[31,](#page-11-1) [33](#page-11-4)]. These results appeared skewed with respect to the wide published literature on the feld, and raised the suspicion that the antibody used for this ELISA kit was either at low affinity for his ligand or it was cross-reacting with other molecules in the CSF.

A rapid survey of the literature showed that several research groups were using home-made kits [[3,](#page-10-2) [23](#page-10-17)] or, more often, a commercial kit by UmanDiagnostics AB (Umeå, Sweden) purchased either directly from the producer [\[24,](#page-10-19) [29](#page-11-3), [33–](#page-11-4)[35](#page-11-0)] or from the distributor IBL (Hamburg, Germany) [\[30–](#page-11-14)[32\]](#page-11-2). Some works reported using an electrochemioluminescence detection to increase the sensitivity of the assay, especially in blood samples [\[26](#page-10-20), [29](#page-11-3), [33](#page-11-4)]. The S-TAB 5 summarizes the diferent ELISA systems used by the diferent research groups with the corresponding ROC curves (ALS vs controls) for both neuroflaments.

The replication ELISA assay with the UmanDiagnostics AB kit on the same CSF samples from our ALS cohort and disease controls showed a completely diferent scenario, with a signifcant diference in NF-L levels between groups. Thus, the level of the NF-L protein in a biological fuid may strongly depend on the commercial kit and from the primary antibody used to detect the specifc antigen. Note, however, that the two diferent commercial kits (i.e., MyBioSource and UmanDiagnostics) were both able to give highly reproducible standard curves and data.

There are many questions to be answered before neuroflaments can be routinely utilized as biological markers in the ALS clinic. In particular, multicenter studies should be performed with the aim to: (1) achieve a validation of these biomarkers; a recent work attempted a frst validation for both neuroflaments light-chain and phosphorylated heavy-chain proteins [\[32](#page-11-2)], but the number of CSF samples provided by each participating center was small, and some assay variability was observed between the two analyzing

centers; (2) make a comprehensive comparison between different commercial ELISA kits, to verify which one gives the best results in terms of specifcity and sensitivity in order to distinguish ALS from disease controls and ALS-mimics; at present, from the published studies and the present research, the ELISA kit from UmanDiagnostics [[24](#page-10-19), [29](#page-11-3)[–35](#page-11-0)], to assay NF-L, and from BioVendor, to assay pNF-H, appear the most promising candidates; (3) to evaluate the neuroflament biomarkers in subgroups of ALS patients, made homogeneous by phenotype and rate of disease progression. Given that CSF neuroflaments are non-specifc biomarkers of cell death/axonal degeneration, it is important to clearly identify those ALS patients for whom the biomarker might have relevance both in diagnostic and prognostic terms.

In conclusion, we have shown that neuroflaments lightchain and phosphorylated heavy-chain proteins are increased in the CSF of ALS patients, the higher levels being associated with a more rapidly evolving disease and a shorter survival. Our results add to the recent growing literature supporting the two cytoskeletal proteins as very promising diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers for ALS. More multicenter validation studies are, however, needed before neuroflaments can defnitely enter into the ALS clinic.

**Acknowledgements** This work was supported by funds from the Italian Ministry of Health for the Ricerca Corrente to IRCCS Istituti Clinici Scientifci Maugeri SpA SB.

#### **Compliance with ethical standards**

**Conflicts of interest** On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no confict of interest related to the Ms JOON-D-17-01506.

## **References**

- <span id="page-10-0"></span>1. Lee MK, Cleveland DW (1996) Neuronal intermediate flaments. Annu Rev Neurosci 19:187–217
- <span id="page-10-1"></span>2. Petzold A (2005) neuroflament phosphoforms: surrogate markers of axonal injury, degeneration and loss. J Neurol Sci 233:183–198
- <span id="page-10-2"></span>3. Rosengren LE, Karlsson J-E, Karlsson J-O et al (1996) Patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis and other neurodegenerative diseases have increased levels of neuroflament protein in CSF. J Neurochem 67:2013–2018
- 4. Hu YY, He SS, Wang XC et al (2002) Elevated levels of phosphorylated neuroflament proteins in cerebrospinal fuid of Alzheimer disease patients. Neurosci Lett 320:156–160
- 5. Pijnenburg YAL, Janssen JC, Schoonenboom NSM et al (2007) CSF neuroflaments in frontotemporal dementia compared to early onset Alzheimer's disease and controls. Dement Geriatric Cogn Dis 23:225–230
- <span id="page-10-6"></span>6. Mattsson N, Rüetschi U, Pijnenburg YAL et al (2008) Novel cerebrospinal fuid biomarkers of axonal degeneration in frontotemporal dementia. Mol Med Rep 1:757–761
- 7. Ganesalingam J, An J, Bowser R et al (2013) pNfH is a promising biomarker in ALS. Amyotrophic Lat Scler Frontotemp Degen 14:146–149
- <span id="page-10-7"></span>8. Landqvist Waldö M, Santillo AF, Passant U et al (2013) Cerebrospinal fuid neuroflament light chain protein levels in subtypes of frontotemporal dementia. BMC Neurology 13:54e1–54e8
- 9. Scherling CS, Hall T, Berisha F et al (2014) Cerebrospinal fuid neuroflament concentration refects disease severity in frontotemporal degeneration. Ann Neurol 75:116–126
- <span id="page-10-21"></span>10. Abdelhak A, Junker A, Brettschneider J et al (2015) Brain-specifc cytoskeletal markers in cerebrospinal fuid: is there a common pattern between amyotrophic lateral sclerosis and primary progressive multiple sclerosis? Int J Mol Sci 16:17565–17588
- <span id="page-10-15"></span>11. Xu Z, Henderson RD, David M, McCombe PA (2016) Neuroflaments as biomarkers for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS ONE 11(e0164625):e1–e18
- <span id="page-10-8"></span>12. Meeter LH, Dopper EG, Jiskoot LC et al (2016) Neuroflament light chain: a biomarker for genetic frontotemporal dementia. Ann Clin Transl Neurol 3:623–626
- <span id="page-10-9"></span>13. Wilke C, Preische O, Deuschle C et al (2016) Neuroflament light chain in FTD is elevated not only in cerebrospinal fuid, but also in serum. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 87:1270–1272
- <span id="page-10-5"></span>14. Mattsson N, Andreasson U, Zettenberg H et al (2017) association of plasma neuroflament light with neurodegeneration in patients with Alzheimer disease. JAMA Neurol 74:557–566
- <span id="page-10-4"></span>15. Hu X, Yang Y, Gong D (2017) Cerebrospinal fuid levels of neuroflament light chain in multiple system atrophy relative to Parkinson's disease: a meta-analysis. Neurol Sci 38:407–414
- <span id="page-10-3"></span>16. Hansson O, Janelidze S, Hall S et al (2017) Blood-based NfL. A biomarker for diferential diagnosis of parkinsonian disorder. Neurology 88:930–937
- <span id="page-10-10"></span>17. Krut JJ, Mellberg T, Price RW et al (2014) Biomarker evidence of axonal injury in neuroasymptomatic HIV-1 patients. PLoS ONE 9(e88951):e1–e7
- <span id="page-10-11"></span>18. Spataro R, Lo Re M, Piccoli T et al (2010) Causes and place of death in Italian patients with Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis. Acta Neurol Scand 122:217–223
- <span id="page-10-12"></span>19. Traynor BJ, Codd MB, Corr B et al (2000) Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis mimic syndromes: a population-based study. Arch Neurol 57:109–113
- <span id="page-10-13"></span>20. Brooks BR, Miller RG, Swash M, Munsat TL, World Federation of Neurology Research Group on Motor Neuron Diseases (2000) El Escorial revisited: revised criteria for the diagnosis of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Amyotroph Lateral Scler 1:293–299
- <span id="page-10-14"></span>21. Cedarbaum JM, Stambler N, Malta E et al (1999) The ALSFRS-R: a revised ALS functional rating scale that incorporates assessments of respiratory function. BDNF ALS Study Group (Phase III). J Neurol Sci 169:13–21
- <span id="page-10-16"></span>22. Menke RAL, Gray E, Lu C-H et al (2015) CSF neuroflament light chain refects corticospinal tract degeneration in ALS. Ann Clin Transl Neurol 2:748–755
- <span id="page-10-17"></span>23. Reijn TS, Abdo WF, Schelhaas HJ, Verbeek MM (2009) CSF neuroflament protein analysis in the diferential diagnosis of ALS. J Neurol 256:615–619
- <span id="page-10-19"></span>24. Tortelli R, Ruggieri M, Cortese R et al (2012) Elevated cerebrospinal fuid neuroflament light levels in patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: a possible marker of disease severity and progression. Eur J Neurol 19:1561–1567
- 25. Boylan KB, Glass JD, Crook JE et al (2013) Phosphorylated neuroflament heavy subunit (pNF-H) in peripheral blood and CSF as potential prognostic biomarker in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 84:467–472
- <span id="page-10-20"></span>26. Gaiottino J, Norgren N, Dobson R et al (2013) Increased neuroflament light chain blood levels in neurodegenerative neurological disease. PLoS ONE 8(e75091):e1–e9
- <span id="page-10-18"></span>27. Gonçalves M, Tillack L, de Carvalho M et al (2014) Phosphoneuroflament heravy chain and *N*-glycomics from the cerebrospinal fuid in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Clin Chim Acta 438:342–349
- 28. Lu C-H, Petzold A, Topping J et al (2015) plasma neuroflament heavy chain levels and disease progression in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: insights from a longitudinal study. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 86:565–573
- <span id="page-11-3"></span>29. Lu C-H, Macdonald-Wallis C, Gray E et al (2015) Neuroflament light chain. A prognostic biomarker in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Neurology 84:2247–2257
- <span id="page-11-14"></span>30. Weydt P, Oeckl P, Huss A et al (2016) Neuroflament levels as biomarkers in asymptomatic and symptomatic familial amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Ann Neurol 79:152–158
- <span id="page-11-1"></span>31. Steinacker P, Feneberg E, Weishaupt J et al (2016) Neuroflaments in the diagnosis of motoneuron diseases: a prospective study of 455 patients. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 87:12–20
- <span id="page-11-2"></span>32. Oeckl P, Jardel C, Salachas F et al (2016) Multicenter validation of CSF neuroflaments as diagnostic biomarkers for ALS. Amyotr Lat Scler Frontotemp Degen 17:404–413
- <span id="page-11-4"></span>33. Steinacker P, Huss A, Mayer B et al (2017) diagnostic and prognostic signifcance of neuroflament light chain NF-L, but not progranulin and S100B, in the course of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: data from the German MND-net. Amyotr Lat Scler Frontotemp Degen 18:112–119
- <span id="page-11-15"></span>34. Gaiani A, Martinelli I, Bello L et al (2017) Diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Neuroflament light chain levels in defnite subtypes of disease. JAMA Neurol 74:525–532
- <span id="page-11-0"></span>35. Poesen K, De Schaepdryver M, Stubendorf B et al (2017) neuroflaments markers for ALS correlate with extent of upper and lower motor neuron disease. Neurology 88:2302–2309
- <span id="page-11-5"></span>36. Turner MR, Gray E (2015) Are neuroflaments heading for the ALS clinic? J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 87:3–4
- <span id="page-11-6"></span>37. De Carvaho M, Dengler R, Eisen A et al (2008) Electrodiagnosis criteria for diagnosis of ALS. Clin Neurophysiol 119:497–503
- <span id="page-11-7"></span>38. Neary D, Snowden JS, Gustafson L et al (1998) Frontotemporal lobar degeneration: a consensus on clinical diagnostic criteria. Neurology 51:1546–1554
- <span id="page-11-8"></span>39. Bang J, Spina S, Miller BL (2015) Frontotemporal dementia. Lancet 386:1672–1682
- <span id="page-11-9"></span>40. Kimura F, Fujimura C, Ishida S et al (2006) Progression rate of ALSFRS-R at the time of diagnosis predicts survival time in ALS. Neurology 66:265–267
- <span id="page-11-10"></span>41. Cellura E, Spataro R, Taiello AC, La Bella V (2012) Factors afecting the diagnostic delay in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Clin Neurol Neurosurg 114:550–554
- <span id="page-11-11"></span>42. Robinson KM, Lacey SC, Grugan P, Glosser G, Grossman M, McCluskey LF (2006) Cognitive functioning in sporadic

amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: a six month longitudinal study. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 77:668–670

- 43. Phukan J, Pender NP, Hardiman O (2007) Cognitive impairment in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Lancet Neurol 6:994–1003
- 44. Kasper E, Zydatiss K, Schuster C, Machts J, Bittner D, Kaufmann J et al (2016) No change in executive performance in ALS patients: a longitudinal neuropsychological study. Neurodegener Dis 16:184–191
- <span id="page-11-12"></span>45. Burkhardt C, Neuwirth C, Weber M (2017) Longitudinal assessment of the Edinburgh Cognitive and Behavioural Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis Screen (ECAS): lack of practice efect in ALS patients. Amyotroph Lateral Sclerosis Frontotemp Degener 18:202–209
- <span id="page-11-13"></span>46. Teunissen CE, Petzold A, Bennett JL et al (2009) A consensus protocol for the standardization of cerebrospinal fuid collection and biobanking. Neurology 73:1914–1922
- <span id="page-11-16"></span>47. Abdoa FW, Bloema BR, Van Geel WJ et al (2007) CSF neuroflament light chain and tau diferentiate multiple system atrophy from Parkinson's disease. Neurobiol Aging 28:742–747
- <span id="page-11-17"></span>48. Steinacker P, Blennow K, Halbgebauer S et al (2016) Neuroflaments in blood and CSF for diagnosis and prediction of onset in Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease. Sci Rep 6:38737 e1–38737 e6
- <span id="page-11-18"></span>49. Kang DX, Fan DS (1995) The electrophysiological study of differential diagnosis between amyotrophic lateral sclerosis and cervical spondylotic myelopathy. Electromyogr Clin Neurophysiol 35:231–238
- <span id="page-11-19"></span>50. Andersen PM, Abrahams S, Borasio GD et al (2012) EFNS guidelines on the Clinical Management of Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (MALS) – revised report of an EFNS task force. Eur J Neurol 19:360–375
- <span id="page-11-20"></span>51. Swinnen B, Robberecht W (2014) The phenotypic variability of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Nature Rev Neurol 10:661–670
- <span id="page-11-21"></span>52. Appel V, Stewart SS, Smith RG, Appel SH (1987) A rating scale for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: description and preliminary experience. Ann Neurol 22:328–333
- <span id="page-11-22"></span>53. Mitsumoto H, Brooks BR, Silani V (2014) Clinical trials in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: why so many negative trials and how can trials be improved? Lancet Neurol 13:1127–1138
- <span id="page-11-23"></span>54. Bensimon G, Lacomblez L, Meininger V, for the ALS/Riluzole study group (1994) A controlled trial of riluzole in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. New Engl J Med 330:585–591
- <span id="page-11-24"></span>55. Elia AE, Lalli S, Monsurrò MR et al (2015) Tauroursodeoxycholic acid in the treatment of patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Eur J Neurol 23:45–52