



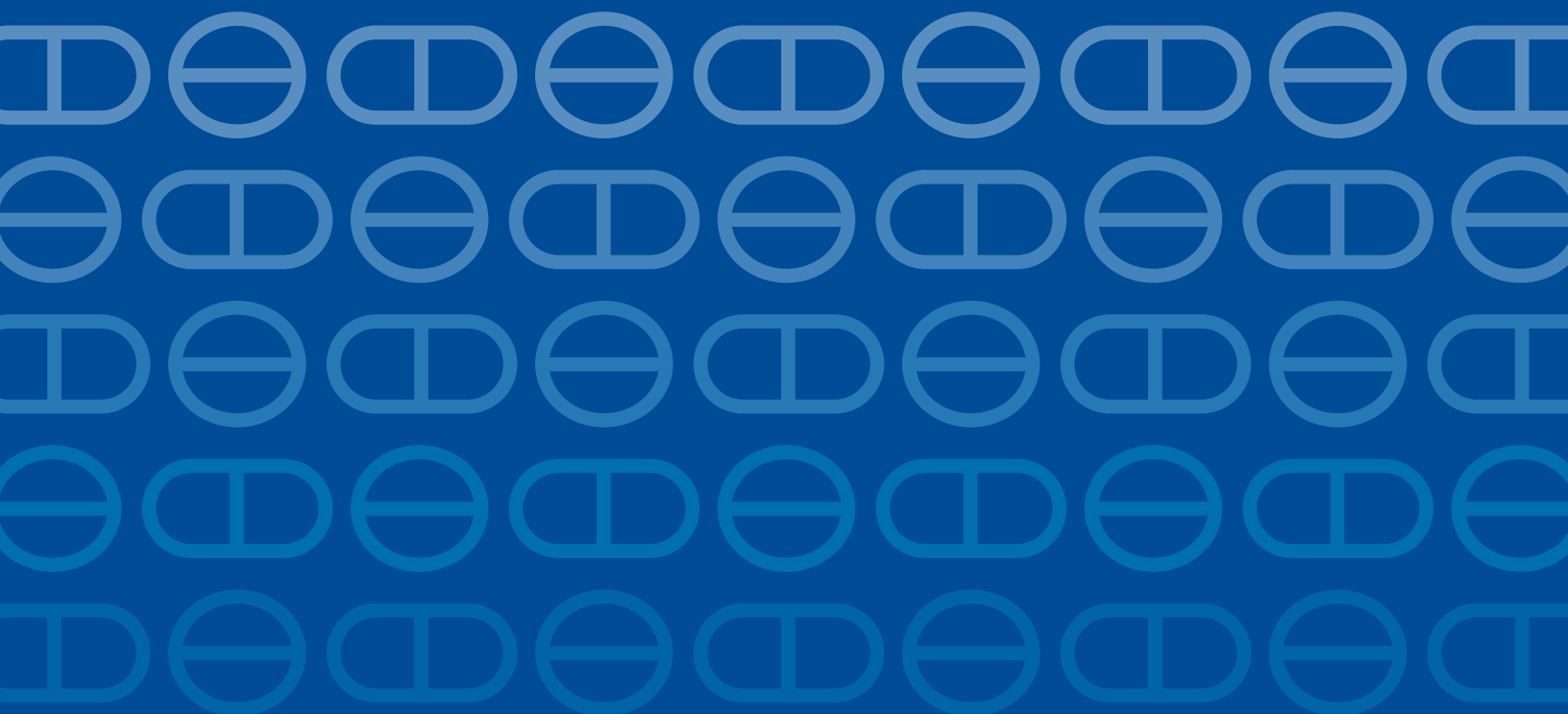
Pharmaceutical Assistance
Contract for the Elderly



Balanced information for better care

Dealing with cognitive impairment in older patients

Evidence-based recommendations for prevention,
diagnosis, and management



Dealing with cognitive impairment in older patients

Evidence-based recommendations for prevention, diagnosis, and management

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Dealing with cognitive impairment

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Activity Overview:

The main goal of the educational program is to help primary care practitioners provide optimal evidence-based care for patients with cognitive impairments related to Alzheimer's disease and related dementias (ADRD). This document describes the definitions, differential diagnosis, and risk factors for dementia and mild cognitive impairment, provides recommendations about screening and evaluation, summarizes current evidence for both non-pharmacological and pharmacological management of cognitive impairment and behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia (BPSD), and reviews best practices for advance care planning.

The education program has several components, which include:

1. Written evidence report (print monograph)
2. Summary document of 4-5 key messages
3. "Academic detailing" educational sessions in physicians' offices with trained outreach educators (pharmacists, nurses, physicians) who present the material interactively
4. Reference cards for easy access to key materials
5. Patient education information (brochure/tear off sheets)

The program's goal is to critically review and synthesize the most current clinical information on these topics into accessible, non-commercial, evidence-based educational material, to be taught interactively to providers by specially trained clinical educators.

Target Audience:

The educational program is designed for primary care physicians practicing internal medicine, primary care, family medicine, and geriatrics, and other health care professionals who deliver primary care.

Learning Objectives:

Upon completing this activity, participants will be able to:

- Describe the risk factors for dementia and evidence around interventions to prevent cognitive impairment.
- Identify patients with cognitive impairment, evaluate for reversible causes, and optimize overall health.
- Recommend treatment of dementia based on severity, and monitor for side effects to determine treatment course.
- Summarize the current evidence regarding the newer monoclonal antibodies targeting amyloid beta deposition.
- Identify causes of behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia, establish a plan to address causes with non-pharmacologic options, reserve antipsychotic medications for distressing or dangerous circumstances.
- Design a series of conversations to establish and update an advance care plan for patients with dementia.
- Utilize resources to support caregivers to provide the best care for their loved ones.

Disclosure Policy:

All individuals in a position to control the content of this activity have been asked to disclose any relationship they have with ineligible companies whose primary business is producing, marketing, selling, re-selling, or distributing healthcare products used by or on patients. All relevant financial relationships have been mitigated.

This material is provided by Alosa Health, a nonprofit organization which accepts no funding from any pharmaceutical company. No commercial support has been received for this activity. The Independent Drug Information Service (IDIS) is supported by the PACE Program of the Department of Aging of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. Additional support for this module has been provided by the John A. Hartford Foundation.

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Media used:

Printed educational material.

Instructions for Participation and Credit:

There are no fees to participate in this activity. To receive credit, participants must (1) read the statements on target audience, learning objectives, and disclosures, (2) study the educational activity, and (3) complete the post-test and activity evaluation. To receive AMA PRA Category 1 Credit™, ANCC contact hours, or Continuing Pharmacy Education (CPE) participants must receive a minimum score of 70% on the post-test.

Tests should be submitted to Alosa Health via email, mail or fax; to complete the evaluation and claim your certificate visit myce.hms.harvard.edu. Credits for pharmacists will be uploaded into CPE Monitor® within 60 days from the date the learner completed the activity.

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Please email any questions to **cme@alosahealth.org** or call **(617) 948-5997**.

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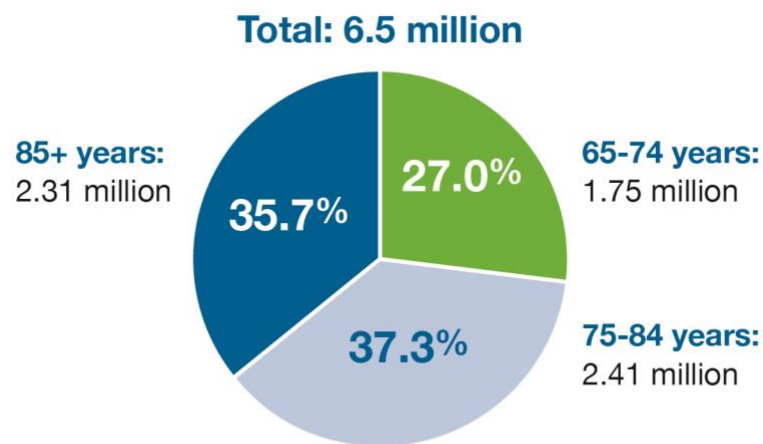
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The challenge of Alzheimer's disease and related dementias (ADRD)

As of 2023, an estimated 6.7 million people have Alzheimer's dementia (AD) in the U.S., with prevalence increasing with age.¹ One in 9 people over the age of 65 has AD, with prevalence rising to 1 in 3 in people over age 85 (Figure 1).¹ Mild cognitive impairment (MCI), an intermediate stage on the spectrum between normal cognitive aging and dementia, is also common, with estimated prevalence of 8%–25% in adults aged 65 and older.²

Figure 1: Ages of people with Alzheimer's disease in the US, 2023¹



Data from the Health and Retirement Study, a nationally representative, population-based longitudinal survey of older U.S. adults (n=10,546) showed a drop in the prevalence of dementia in recent years, from 11.6% in 2000 to 8.8% in 2012.³ Another study from the same data source found a 10% prevalence of dementia in 2016.⁴ The reasons for this trend are unclear, but could be related to rising educational attainment and better control of comorbid conditions such as hypertension and diabetes. However, while overall prevalence appears to have declined, the prevalence and incidence of dementia have remained higher among non-Hispanic Black persons compared with non-Hispanic White persons from 2000 to 2016.⁵ Racial disparities in dementia risk are a product of complex relationships involving structural racism including vascular risk factor burden, access to medical care, socioeconomic status, and educational attainment and quality, requiring careful and sustained attention. Moreover, the COVID-19 pandemic may have exacerbated existing conditions, as it was associated with increased excess mortality for patients with AD and related dementias (ADRD), especially for Asian, Black, and Hispanic populations.⁶ Ultimately, the rise in the total population of older adults will drive a steady increase in the number of people experiencing ADRD in coming decades.

Primary care clinicians must be adept at evaluating older adults for dementia or MCI. They must also be prepared to manage cognitive impairment and related medical issues, maintain patient safety, and support patients and caregivers by linking them with community resources and other health care and

social service providers. Given the time constraints under which many primary care providers operate, it is important that they know their own breadth of expertise and “comfort zone” in evaluating and treating dementia or MCI, and seek consultation when necessary.

This document covers the definitions, differential diagnosis, and risk factors for dementia and MCI, provides recommendations about screening and evaluation, and summarizes current evidence for both preventing future dementia and managing current dementia with non-pharmacological and pharmacological approaches. This document also includes detailed guidance about ways to manage the very common and often challenging behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia (BPSD).

The spectrum of cognitive impairments

Cognitive function changes with time and it is necessary to differentiate between normal and abnormal changes. Typically, two types of memory are preserved with aging: semantic memory (i.e., the ability to recall general facts and concepts, vocabulary, and language) and procedural memory (i.e., how to perform mental or physical tasks of daily living).⁷ Episodic memory (i.e., remembering where objects are and the “what,” “where,” and “when” of daily life) typically declines with age, together with cognitive skills including processing speed, ability to learn new information, and the ability to multi-task or shift between tasks.⁷

Mild cognitive impairment (MCI)

MCI is a syndrome in which a person has modest problems with memory, language, or other mental functioning. These problems are severe enough to be noticeable to other people and to be documented on tests, but not serious enough to interfere with daily life, although greater effort, compensatory strategies, or accommodation may be required.⁸ MCI most commonly involves memory problems, but can also affect language, attention, judgment, or other cognitive functions. The extent to which MCI is a consequence of non-neurological factors such as problems with mood, sleep, medications, and general medical illness vs. being a herald of dementia caused by underlying neuropathology, is uncertain in any given patient. A 2018 report found that 15% of patients over 65 with MCI developed dementia within two years.² Other clinical studies of older adults with MCI have demonstrated a relatively rapid conversion to a diagnosis of AD (14%-19% per year), with higher risk of conversion in patients with a positive amyloid- β (A β) biomarker (22-50% conversion to dementia within two years).⁹⁻¹¹ However, these data also indicate that many patients with MCI do not progress to dementia within these time frames.

The term major neurocognitive disorder (NCD) has replaced the term “dementia” in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th Edition, although the term “dementia” is retained as a descriptor for certain sub-types of major NCD. The key feature of NCDs is that the primary clinical deficit is in cognitive function that is acquired rather than developmental. Dementia is a syndrome involving impairment in cognitive functioning that interferes with a person’s ability to carry out usual activities. It can involve impairments in at least one cognitive domain: (1) memory; (2) language; (3) reasoning, judgment, and handling of complex tasks (i.e., executive dysfunction); (4) higher-order perceptual/motor functioning; (5) personality, behavior, or comportsment; and/or (6) social cognition. Dementia is not diagnosed when changes in cognition and function can be accounted for by a reversible physiological condition (i.e., dehydration, urinary tract infection, or drug side effect), an acute confusional state, delirium, or another

mental disease (e.g., depression or schizophrenia). Most dementia follows a progressive course, with a median life expectancy after diagnosis of five to six years, although this varies widely.

Dementia

AD is the most common but not the only cause of dementia. The cardinal features of the major types of dementia are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Major types of dementia^{1,8}

Type of dementia	Prevalence*	Clinical features	Comments
Alzheimer's disease (AD)	60–80% of dementia cases	Insidious symptom onset with progression to profound memory loss with one or more of: aphasia, apraxia, agnosia, or impaired executive function.	Symptoms generally begin after age 60. May coexist with vascular dementia.
Vascular dementia (VD)	5%–10% of those with dementia have VD alone, although VD is often involved in other dementia forms	Stepwise rather than gradual deterioration, focal neurological deficits, emotional lability, impaired judgment, early neuropsychiatric symptoms, and/or gait disorders.	Sudden decline usually indicates a stroke, which may be large or small. Progressive subcortical small vessel ischemia can cause slower, stepwise progression.
Dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB)	5%–25% of all dementia cases ¹²	Involves any two of the following: visual hallucinations, parkinsonism, and fluctuation in mental state in the absence of delirium. Other features include repeated falls, syncope, autonomic dysfunction, neuroleptic sensitivity, and REM sleep disorder.	Earlier age of onset than either AD or VD. Cognitive impairment affects both memory and ability to carry out complex tasks and can fluctuate within a day, so may be confused with delirium.
Frontotemporal dementia (FTD)	<10% of cases of dementia	Early changes in personality (disinhibition, apathy, loss of empathy) and/or language (primary progressive aphasia).	Apathy, emotional blunting, and disinhibited behaviors may make it difficult to differentiate from depression or bipolar disorder.
*Prevalence figures do not sum to 100% because of the wide variability in prevalence estimates and the possibility that patients may have more than one type of dementia simultaneously.			

Dementia can also be a secondary manifestation of a variety of conditions, including:⁸

- traumatic brain injury
- substance misuse
- medication side effects (including over-the counter, prescribed and non-prescribed drugs)
- hypothyroidism (and occasionally hyperthyroidism)

- vitamin B₁₂ deficiency
- other severe metabolic derangement
- HIV
- Huntington's disease
- Parkinson's disease
- prion disease
- normal pressure hydrocephalus
- chronic traumatic encephalopathy (see below)

Delirium

In contrast to dementia, delirium is an acute, reversible mental disorder characterized by impaired attention, disorganized thinking, and an altered level of consciousness.⁸ Delirium generally follows a rapidly waxing and waning course, with a range of hyperactive or hypoactive states. Symptoms include disorientation to time, place, and person; sensory misperceptions; psychomotor agitation or retardation; sleep disturbances; and memory impairment. Although delirium onset is typically sudden, it may take weeks or months for an episode of delirium to resolve.⁸

Establishing the time course by obtaining collateral information about cognitive function prior to the acute presentation is critical to distinguish delirium from dementia. Delirium is often caused by reversible medical conditions such as infection (including urinary tract and respiratory), pain, drug intoxication or withdrawal, seizures, head trauma, and metabolic disturbances such as hypoxia, hypoglycemia, fluid/electrolyte disturbance, and hepatic, cardiac or renal impairment. Management of the precipitating medical problem will often result in improvement in delirium.

Although delirium is distinct from dementia, patients with dementia are at higher risk of developing delirium. Delirium may also herald the onset of MCI or dementia. Patients with delirium may not return to their prior level of functioning and may subsequently experience a steady progression of cognitive dysfunction. Because delirium may involve hallucinations, it can complicate a diagnosis of dementia, particularly dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB).

Chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE)

While Alzheimer's disease and CTE have long been recognized as sharing some similar neuropathological features (mainly the presence of neurofibrillary tangles and hyper-phosphorylated tau proteins), they have generally been described as distinct entities, with CTE being associated with more rapid and focal tau accumulation in more superficial cortical layers than what is classically observed in AD.¹³ Trauma has been associated with an increased risk of developing dementia and accelerates the progression of disease.¹⁴ The diagnosis of CTE requires a prior history of head trauma (generally repetitive), and the demonstration of specific neuropathological features (tauopathy). CTE has been diagnosed in people with extensive exposure histories, ranging from traditional impact-acceleration injuries to blast exposure. People at highest risk include contact sports players and soldiers.

Symptoms reported retrospectively by family, friends, and colleagues following the diagnosis of CTE include changes in mood, behavior, cognition, and motor function.¹⁴ Mood disturbances (e.g., irritability, depression, apathy) and behavioral changes (including impulsivity, aggression, and judgment issues) are common in CTE. Sometimes these behavioral changes are associated with violent outbursts. Cognitive changes can be debilitating. Short-term memory loss and learning deficiencies are frequently reported.

Motor deficits, particularly in older subjects, include decreased reaction time, eye movement disorders, and recurrent falls.

As with Alzheimer's disease, very effective disease-modifying treatments do not exist for CTE. The emphasis is on prevention by avoiding repeated head trauma and/or using protective equipment. Symptomatic treatments such as acetylcholinesterase inhibitors or atypical antipsychotics as used in other dementia syndromes are sometimes used for CTE.

Risk factors for cognitive impairment

Many conditions and diseases increase the risk of cognitive impairment and dementia. Genetic, environmental, and lifestyle risk factors play interrelated roles. Non-modifiable risk factors for dementia include:

- older age
- family history
- female sex
- Down syndrome
- lower IQ
- genetic factors (e.g., ApoE ε4, APP, PSEN1&2)

Potentially modifiable risk factors for dementia have increasingly drawn attention, though overall, there is limited evidence for specific interventions that address these modifiable risk factors and their effect on reducing the incidence of dementia. A 2020 Lancet Commission systematic review and meta-analysis estimated that about 40% of dementia is attributable to a combination of modifiable risk factors, but did not assess the effectiveness of modifying any specific one of them.¹⁵

- education only to ages 11 or 12 (i.e., limited educational attainment)
- midlife
 - hearing loss
 - physical activity level
 - hypertension
 - obesity
- later life
 - smoking
 - depression
 - physical inactivity
 - social isolation
 - diabetes (both type 1 and type 2)

A 2022 cross-sectional study similarly found that one-third of AD RD cases were associated with a combination of these risk factors.¹⁶ However, the authors found that the modifiable risk factors associated with the largest proportion of AD RD in the U.S. may have shifted from physical inactivity, depression, and smoking to midlife obesity, physical inactivity, and low education. The study also found that the proportion of AD RD association with these modifiable factors was relatively higher in men vs. women and among Black Americans, American Indians and Alaska Natives, and Hispanics compared with Asians, Whites, and non-Hispanics.

However, a 2017 systematic review of prospective trials and quasi-experimental observational studies from the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality found mostly low-strength evidence that a wide variety of interventions aimed at preventing or delaying the onset of cognitive impairment or ADRD had little to no benefit.¹⁷ The lack of strong evidence for such interventions points to the logistically and ethically difficult nature of conducting randomized control trials that evaluate individual interventions for such risk factors.

Observational studies and prospective cohort studies have provided some evidence for associations between individual risk factor modification and the incidence of ADRD. For example, an analysis of data from the U.K. Whitehall II study found that multimorbidity (defined as presence of ≥ 2 chronic diseases), particularly when present earlier in life, was associated with subsequent risk of dementia (when present at age 55, hazard ratio [HR] 2.4; 95% CI: 1.80-3.3).¹⁸ A 2023 study followed a cohort of patients with normal cognition for 10 years and found that those who adopted healthy lifestyle factors, including a healthy diet, regular exercise, active social contact, active cognitive activity, and absence of smoking and alcohol had slower memory decline.¹⁹

The following sections summarize the evidence base for specific modifiable risk factors, much of which is drawn from observational data.

Education

Higher levels of educational achievement appear in some studies to be linked with a lower risk of dementia, possibly because education creates and sustains neural or synaptic connections that build up a “cognitive reserve” that helps buffer the neuronal erosion/degeneration of dementia.²⁰ A population-based longitudinal survey of U.S. adults aged 65 years or older from 2000 (n=10,546) to 2012 (n=10,511) examining the effects of education on dementia risk found that greater years of education was associated with a lower risk of incident dementia:³

- 12 years of education: odds ratio (OR) 0.42 (95% CI: 0.37-0.48)
- 13-15 years: OR 0.36 (95% CI: 0.30-0.44)
- ≥ 16 years: OR 0.27 (95% CI: 0.21-0.35)

On the other hand, a 2019 prospective cohort study of 2,899 older adults found that although higher education levels were associated with higher baseline cognitive functioning, education level was not associated with either the age of onset of dementia or the rate of cognitive decline in those diagnosed with dementia.²¹

Hearing loss

Hearing loss is common in older adults. A population-based study of 3,285 adults found steady increases in prevalence with age: 11% between ages 44-54; 25% between ages 55-64; and 43% between ages 65-84.²² Hearing loss was associated with a greater risk of dementia in a meta-analysis of three studies (relative risk [RR] 1.94; 95% CI: 1.38-2.73).²³ A 2023 analysis of a representative sample of older adults in the U.S. found that the prevalence of dementia was 1.61 times greater in patients with moderate to severe hearing loss compared to normal hearing.²⁴ Another 2023 meta-analysis found that use of restorative devices for those with hearing loss was associated with a 19% decrease in risk of long-term cognitive decline.²⁵ A 2020 population-based cohort study conducted in Italy found that age-related

central auditory processing disorders were associated with MCI (OR 1.5; 95% CI: 1.01-2.21) and dementia (OR 2.2; 95% CI: 1.12-4.42).²⁶

Blood pressure control

The harmful effects of hypertension on cognitive function were recognized as early as the 1960s, when a study of psychomotor speed among air traffic controllers and pilots demonstrated reduced performance in patients with hypertension.²⁷ Hypertension has also been associated with reduced abstract reasoning (executive dysfunction), slowing of mental processing speed, and, less frequently, memory deficits.²⁸

Although Alzheimer's dementia and vascular dementia have traditionally been considered distinct entities, these conditions often coexist.²⁹ In an analysis of 4,629 patients with AD, 80% showed evidence of vascular pathology and 32% had a diagnosed cerebrovascular disease; some patients had both conditions.³⁰ Hypertension disrupts the structure and function of cerebral blood vessels, leads to ischemic damage of regions critical for cognitive function, and may promote Alzheimer pathology.³¹

Consistent evidence shows an association between hypertension in midlife with altered cognitive function in both midlife and late life.³¹ The association of blood pressure (BP) in late life with cognition is less clear. The inconsistent results across studies, especially in older age, may reflect differences in the cognitive domains assessed, differences in study design, and differences in characteristics of the study populations that may confound the hypertension-cognition association.

Although observational studies show a cumulative effect of hypertension on cerebrovascular damage, evidence from clinical trials that antihypertensive treatment improves cognition is suggestive but not conclusive. The 2019 Systolic Blood Pressure Intervention Trial (**SPRINT-MIND**) tested the effect of more intensive BP control on cognitive outcomes in persons without diabetes or preexisting stroke.³² The trial randomized 9,361 participants to systolic BP goals of either <120 mm Hg or <140 mm Hg. After a median follow-up of 5.1 years there was a small difference in the rate of newly-diagnosed dementia (146 cases in the intensive group vs. 176 cases in the standard group; HR 0.83; 95% CI: 0.67-1.04), but it narrowly missed the conventional definition of statistical significance; the rate of developing mild cognitive impairment was modestly but significantly lower in the intensive group (14.6 vs. 18.3 cases per 1,000 person years; HR 0.81; 95% CI: 0.69-0.95).³² By contrast, a 2021 Cochrane review found that there was not current high-certainty randomized controlled trial evidence for the effect of hypertension treatment on dementia and cognitive impairment.³³ The studies included in the review provided what the Cochrane authors considered low-certainty evidence that treatment of hypertension leads to less cognitive impairment but this difference was not seen as clinically significant.

Obesity

The relationship between obesity and dementia is complex and can be difficult to quantify because body mass index (BMI) in older adults with dementia is typically lower than age peers, with weight loss appearing to start years before clinical onset. A combination of pre-dementia apathy, loss of initiative, and reduced olfactory function could explain this association.³⁴

Exactly how obesity might contribute to dementia risk remains poorly understood. Obesity in midlife and at older ages is associated with brain atrophy.^{35,36} Evidence also suggests that a variant of the fat mass and obesity-associated gene affects brain structure, causing deficits in the frontal and occipital lobes.³⁷ Obesity is also likely to influence cognition through its impact on vascular risk factors and pathology.³⁸

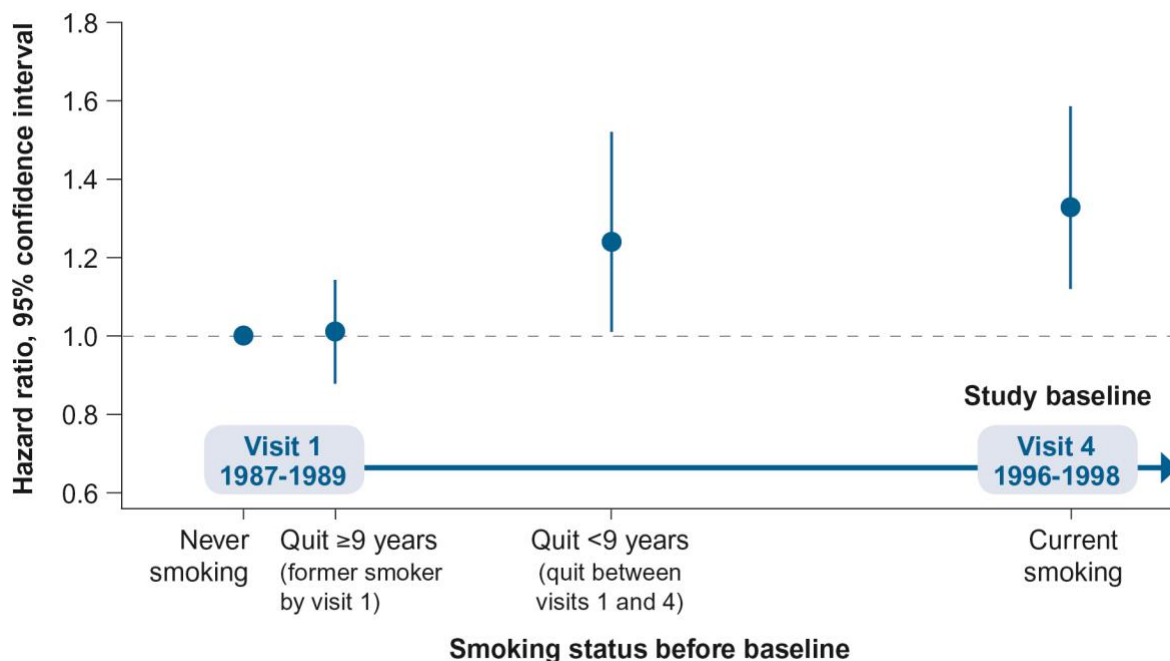
An analysis of data from the U.K. Whitehall II study (n=10,308), which followed participants for at least 28 years, found that having obesity at age 50 was associated with an increased risk of dementia (HR 1.93; 95% CI: 1.35-2.75), but that having obesity at ages 60 or 70 was *not* significantly associated with dementia.³⁸ A similar pattern was found in a systematic review and meta-analysis of 13 studies, in which having obesity had a positive association on incident dementia for those below the age of 65 years (RR 1.41; 95% CI: 1.20–1.66), but not in those aged 65 and over (RR 0.83; 95% CI: 0.74–0.94).³⁹

Smoking

Cigarette smoking, even in low doses, increases the risk for vascular disease and stroke, which provides a strong biological rationale for a relationship between smoking and cognitive decline. Cigarette smoke also contains neurotoxins (e.g., heavy metals), which may heighten the risk of cognitive dysfunction.⁴⁰ Observational data support an association between current smoking and dementia or cognitive decline.^{41,42} The extent of this association may be underestimated given methodological limitations such as selective loss of susceptible smokers due to death or dropout from a study over time (particularly if participants are required to attend clinic visits during follow-up to have cognition measured).

A 2019 cohort study using data from the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities study (n=13,002) found that compared to participants who never smoked, current smoking significantly increased the risk of dementia (HR 1.33; 95% CI: 1.12-1.59), as did smoking within nine years of baseline measurement of cognitive functioning (HR 1.24; 95% CI: 1.01-1.52; Figure 2).⁴³ Participants who quit smoking more than nine years before baseline had no significant increase in dementia risk compared to never-smokers.

Figure 2: Association between smoking status and risk of dementia⁴³



Depression

Depressive symptoms can be a part of the clinical presentation of dementia, which can blur the causal relationship between the two conditions, especially as depressive cognitive disorders can mimic the cognitive profiles of neurodegenerative conditions (often referred to as 'pseudodementia'). Longitudinal cohort studies show a link between number of depressive episodes and risk of dementia, which strengthens the assertion that depression is a risk factor for dementia.⁴⁴ The mechanism is likely to be multifactorial, as depression is linked to cerebrovascular pathology, and affects stress hormones, neuronal growth factors, and hippocampal volume.⁴⁵

An analysis of the Whitehall II cohort study (n=10,189) found no increased risk for dementia among those reporting depressive symptoms in 1985 (mean follow-up 27 years). However, those with depressive symptoms in 2003 (mean follow-up 11 years) *did* have an increased risk (HR 1.72; 95% CI: 1.21-2.44).⁴⁶ A 2022 prospective cohort study in Finland with a mean follow up period of 25 years found that self-reported symptoms of psychological distress were significantly associated later on with increased risk of dementia.⁴⁷

Social isolation

A growing body of evidence suggests that social isolation may be a risk factor for dementia as well as of associated risk factors such as hypertension, coronary heart disease, and depression.²³ Social isolation may also result in cognitive inactivity, which appears to be linked to faster cognitive decline and low mood. A 2022 study demonstrated that socially isolated individuals had a 1.26-fold increased risk of dementia (95% CI 1.15-1.37), and lower gray matter volumes on MRI in the temporal, frontal, and hippocampal regions.^{47,48}

Longitudinal studies suggest that social interaction may prevent or delay dementia but there is a lack of evidence for interventions focused on social activity that prevent cognitive decline or dementia. People who live alone, have never married, or are divorced or widowed have an increased risk of all-cause dementia.⁴⁹ Systematic reviews and meta-analyses of social activity have found some evidence after 2 to 21 years of follow up that low engagement in social activity and poor social networks were significantly associated with poor late-life cognitive function⁵⁰ and social engagement was modestly protective.⁵¹ In addition, prospective cohort studies found that more frequent social contact later in life was associated with a lower dementia risk.^{52,53} The relatively short follow-up period in some studies precludes strong conclusions about the direction of causation.

Diabetes

Observational studies have long suggested that patients with diabetes have an elevated risk of developing AD,^{54,55} but the relationship has not been clear. Diabetes contributes to vascular dysfunction, which increases stroke risk, but in autopsy studies patients with diabetes did not have more amyloid plaques or tau tangles than people without diabetes.⁵⁶

The relationship between hypoglycemia and dementia appears to be bidirectional. Severe hypoglycemic episodes were associated with a nearly two-fold increased risk of incident dementia in a systematic review of 10 studies (RR 1.77; 95% CI: 1.35-2.33).⁵⁷ Conversely, having dementia and diabetes more than triples the risk of having a subsequent hypoglycemic event (HR 3.1; 95% CI: 1.5-6.6).⁵⁸

Despite evidence for an association between diabetes and incident dementia, treatment of diabetes has not been demonstrated to reduce the incidence of dementia. In the Action to Control Cardiovascular Risk in Diabetes (ACCORD) trial, for example, intensive glycemic control vs. usual care did not lead to a difference in cognitive outcomes at 40 months.⁵⁹

Exercise and physical activity

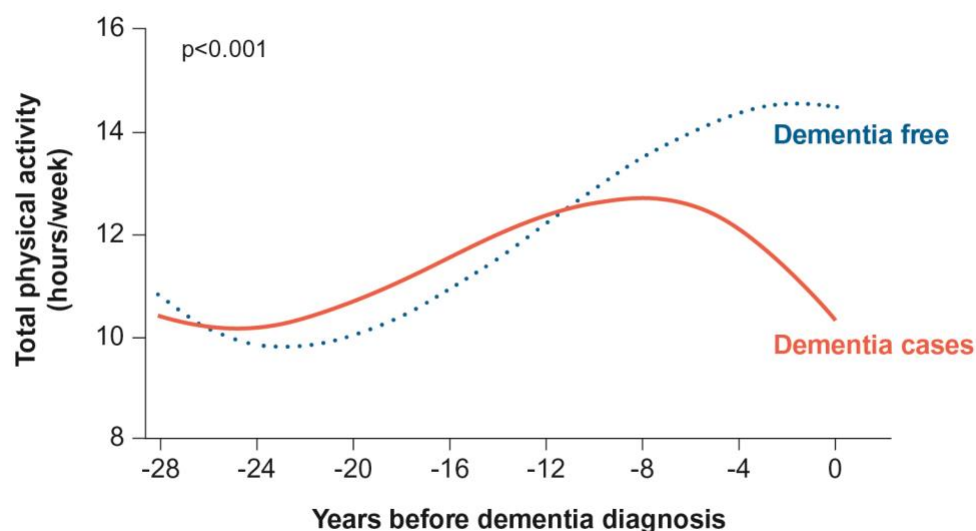
The hypothesized potential mechanisms for physical exercise to improve cognition or prevent dementia could be indirect (effects on other modifiable risk factors such as obesity, insulin resistance, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and general cardiovascular fitness) or direct (increased neurogenesis, cerebral blood flow, and levels of brain derived neurotrophic factor).⁶⁰

Observational data have generally supported an association between higher levels of exercise or physical activity and a reduced risk for dementia. However, the data are difficult to interpret because people with dementia become less physically active as their disease progresses, and perhaps before a diagnosis is formally established as well.

The 2018 HUNT study in Norway found that at least weekly midlife moderate-to-vigorous physical activity was associated with reduced dementia risk over a 25-year follow up period, though the confidence intervals were wide.⁶¹ However, a 2017 analysis of data from the Whitehall II cohort study with a mean follow-up of 27 years found no difference in physical activity between dementia cases and dementia-free controls 20 years before diagnosis (Figure 3).⁶² In fact, physical activity in people with dementia began to decline up to nine years before diagnosis.

By contrast, a meta-analysis of 15 prospective cohort studies following 33,816 patients without dementia for 1 to 12 years found that greater physical activity was associated with a lower incidence of cognitive decline, with high levels of exercise being the most protective (HR 0.62; 95% CI: 0.54-0.70).⁶³ In this study, even low-to-moderate exercise appeared beneficial (HR 0.65; 95% CI: 0.57-0.75). Another meta-analysis of 19 observational studies of relatively young adults found an increased incidence of dementia (HR 1.4; 95% CI: 1.2-1.7) in those who were physically inactive in the 10 years preceding the diagnosis.⁶⁴ However, it is also possible that the decreased physical activity in this period was due to early cognitive impairment.

Figure 3: Reduced physical activity in years prior to dementia diagnosis⁶²



Disappointingly, randomized trials of exercise interventions to improve cognition in healthy older adults have been less successful than might have been expected in light of the associations seen in longitudinal cohort studies. Meta-analyses have reported either no overall evidence that exercise improves cognition in healthy older adults,⁶⁵ or benefits that were limited to specific cognitive domains. A 2014 meta-analysis reviewed 25 studies of aerobic exercise, resistance training, or tai chi.⁶⁶ Fifteen studies reported significant improvements for exercise vs. controls on measures of executive function, memory or composite measures of cognition. However, the only significant results from the meta-analysis were for resistance training improving reasoning compared to controls (two studies, 135 participants, mean difference 3.16; 95% CI: 1.07-5.24) and tai chi improving processing speed and attention vs. no-exercise controls (two studies, 156 participants).⁶⁶

A 24-month trial of 1,766 sedentary older adults without cognitive impairment did not find any effects on cognition between the group randomized to modest physical activity (30 min. walking, 10 min. stretching, and 10 min. lower body weights weekly) compared to talks about health education with 10 min. of stretching weekly (Table 2).⁶⁷ A 2022 randomized control trial found no significant differences in improvement in memory or executive function after six months of mindfulness training, exercise, or both.⁶⁸

Taken together, these findings raise the likelihood that for the relationship between less physical activity and the onset of cognitive impairment, the causality may be from the latter to the former, rather than the other way around.

Table 2: Cognitive outcomes in a trial of physical activity⁶⁷

Outcome	Physical activity		Health education		Odds ratio (95% CI)	p-value
	# / total	%	# / total	%		
Mild cognitive impairment	70/686	10.2	62/682	9.1	1.14 (0.79-1.62)	0.48
Dementia	28/743	3.8	29/747	3.9	0.96 (0.57-1.63)	0.88
Mild cognitive impairment or dementia	98/743	13.2	91/747	12.1	1.08 (0.80-1.46)	0.61

Anticholinergic medications

Anticholinergic drugs (e.g., some antihistamines, antidepressants, and medications for gastrointestinal [GI] and bladder disorders) can have short-term adverse effects, including confusion and memory loss in older people, and some evidence exists for long-term adverse effect on cognition.⁶⁹

A nested case-control study of 58,769 patients with dementia (60% of whom had AD) and 225,574 matched controls found increased risks of dementia with rising doses of anticholinergics, from OR 1.06 (95% CI: 1.03-1.09) at the lowest doses, to OR 1.49 (95% CI: 1.44-1.54) at the highest doses.⁶⁹ The greatest risk were associated with antipsychotics and bladder antimuscarinics, and the population attributable fraction of these medications for dementia was calculated to be 10%.²³ Another prospective cohort study of 19,114 community-dwelling patients aged 65 or older found that increased anticholinergic exposure was associated with an increased risk of dementia after a follow up of 4.7 years (HR 1.4; 95% CI: 1.0-1.8).⁷⁰ However, not all these studies were able to rule out the problem of confounding by indications, or reverse causation: that is, the possibility that some drugs (such as the antipsychotics) were prescribed to treat early symptoms of a developing or existing dementia, rather than causing it.

Benzodiazepines

Many observational studies have examined the relationship of benzodiazepine use and dementia risk, with mixed results. A frequently acknowledged limitation is that here as well, reverse causation may explain the observed associations (i.e., benzodiazepines may be prescribed for prodromal symptoms of dementia such as anxiety or insomnia). A 2018 systematic review and meta-analysis of 15 studies that attempted to account for the possibility of reverse causation found that any benzodiazepine use was nonetheless associated with a significantly increased risk of dementia (OR 1.39; 95% CI: 1.21-1.59).⁷¹

Deprescribing benzodiazepines (i.e., tapering supervised by a health care professional) can involve substitution of other drugs (e.g., melatonin or trazodone for sleep), provision of psychological support, and patient education. A review of various deprescribing programs for benzodiazepines found success rates after six-12 months of between 27% and 80%.⁷² A cluster randomized trial involving 30 community pharmacies and 303 long-term users of benzodiazepines compared a patient empowerment intervention with a tapering protocol vs. wait-list control.⁷³ After six months, 27% of patients in the intervention group had discontinued benzodiazepines vs. 5% in the control group, and 62% of those in the intervention group had initiated a conversation about reducing their use with a physician or pharmacist.⁷³

Nutrients

A wide range of vitamins, antioxidants, and macronutrients have been examined for potential roles in either contributing to or protecting from dementia, generally with disappointing results. Many studies are observational, some with conflicting results. Among the few randomized clinical trials that have been conducted, most have not demonstrated any protective effect for individual vitamins, multivitamins, fatty acids, or other supplements.^{74,75} A systematic review and a Cochrane review of randomized controlled trials (RCTs) of supplements, minerals, and vitamins found a lack of evidence to support their use to preserve cognitive function or prevent dementia.⁷⁶⁻⁷⁹

More recently, the 2023 **COSMOS-Web** study, which initially focused on the prevention of cancer and heart disease, randomized 3,562 older adults to multivitamin or placebo. To measure cognition, the investigators used annual internet-based memory assessments over three years.⁸⁰ Immediate recall

improved in patients taking a multivitamin at one- and three-years follow-up. However, no significant changes were seen in other, secondary outcomes for episodic memory, novel task recognition, or executive function. The COSMOS-Mind trial found very small cognitive effects from multivitamins in a secondary analysis of a primary trial with a variety of outcomes.⁸¹ Some speculate that improvement in cognition that may occur with multivitamins might be the result of their treating an undiagnosed deficiency in some patients, such as vitamin B₁₂.

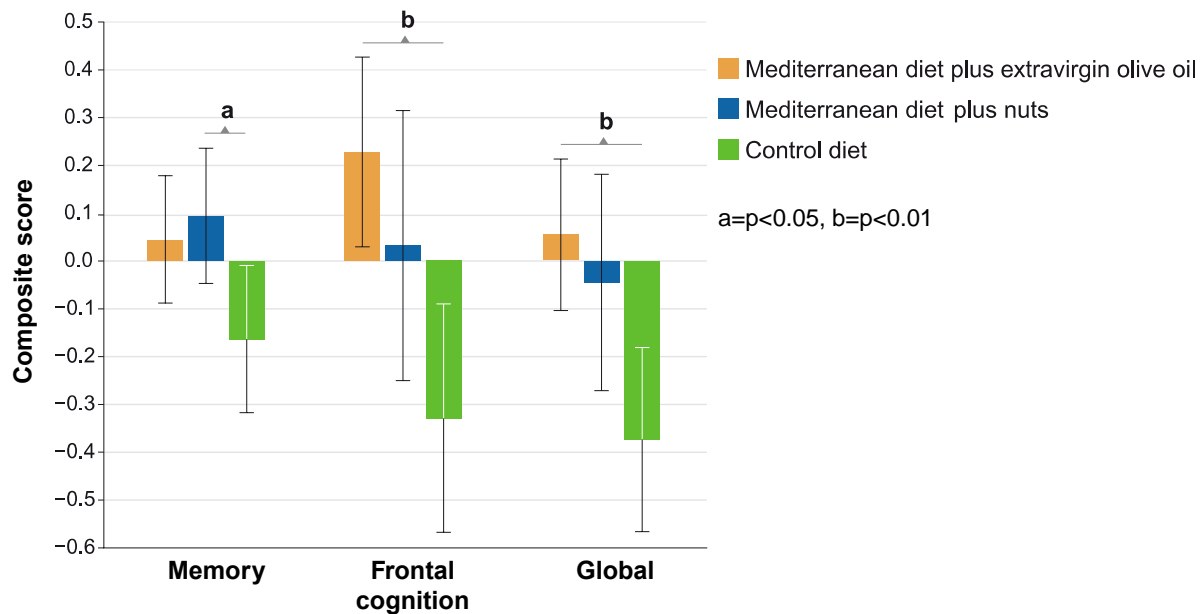
Despite the uncertainty about evidence for their effects on mental functioning, multivitamins are generally safe when taken as directed, and low-cost, if generic preparations are used. Given the minimal and inconsistent effects of studies of multivitamins on cognition, patients who express an interest in taking them may do so, presuming no contraindications. Assessing for deficiencies where specific supplementation may address cognitive concerns, such as vitamin B₁₂, is also a reasonable strategy.

Food and dietary factors

Some clinical trial data show protective effects against cognitive decline for olive oil, nuts, and a Mediterranean diet.⁷⁴ Adherence to a Mediterranean-type diet may be associated with slower cognitive decline in patients diagnosed with MCI. Some of these findings are based on observational studies.⁸²⁻⁸⁴ For example, a retrospective study of 482 patients with MCI followed for a mean of 4.3 years found that patients with the highest level of adherence to a Mediterranean diet had a 48% lower risk of developing AD in the study period than those with the lowest level of dietary adherence.⁸² A 2023 prospective cohort study with a follow up period of 9 years found lower all-cause dementia risk (HR 0.77; 95% CI: 0.64-0.91).⁸⁵

The **PREDIMED** trial of 447 cognitively healthy people were randomized to three dietary groups (Mediterranean diet plus olive oil; Mediterranean diet plus nuts; and a control diet) and were followed for a median of 4.1 years (Figure 4 next page).⁸⁶ It found improvements in memory and frontal cognition in the two intervention groups, compared to declines in cognitive functioning in the control group.

Figure 4: Improvements in cognition with Mediterranean diet⁸⁶



Given the relatively low risk of harm and its proven benefit for cardiovascular outcomes, it may be reasonable to prescribe a Mediterranean diet, which emphasizes vegetables, fruits, whole grains, and fish, while limiting foods containing trans-fats, cholesterol, added sugars, and salt.

Sleep

Disruptions in sleep rhythms have been associated with biologic changes seen with developing or worsening of AD and other dementias.⁸⁷ A longitudinal study with a 2-year follow up demonstrated that patients with obstructive sleep apnea experienced faster rate of brain amyloid burden and tau protein aggregation.⁸⁸ In addition, treatment of OSA was associated with improvements in both slow-wave sleep and CSF amyloid-beta levels.⁸⁷ Ongoing research is examining the ties between circadian rhythm disruption and dementia, but suggests a need to screen for underlying sleep disturbance in patients endorsing cognitive disturbance.

Frailty

Frailty is characterized by a reduced ability to maintain homeostasis in response to stressors, with clinical features including low energy, slow gait, weakness, weight loss, and fatigue – all factors common in dementia as well. The prevalence of frailty increases from about 11% in adults aged >65 years to 25% in adults aged >85 years, and >50% in institutionalized older adults.^{89,90} A meta-analysis of three studies found a significantly increased risk of dementia among frail patients as compared to “robust” patients (HR 1.33; 95% CI: 1.07-1.67).⁹¹ A 2021 prospective cohort study found that a 10% increase in a frailty index was associated with an increased risk of dementia (HR 1.17; 95% CI: 1.07-1.18).⁹²

While the mechanisms and pathophysiology underlying the increased risks of dementia in frail older people are not clear, both frailty and dementia are heterogeneous entities that share multiple risk factors

for their development, including diabetes, myocardial infarction, hypertension, congestive heart failure, cerebrovascular disease, and chronic inflammation.

A cross-sectional analysis of data from the Rush Memory and Aging Project (n=456) found that patients with low levels of frailty can tolerate a higher level of AD symptoms and, conversely, when frailty is high even a few AD symptoms are more likely to result in a diagnosis.⁹³

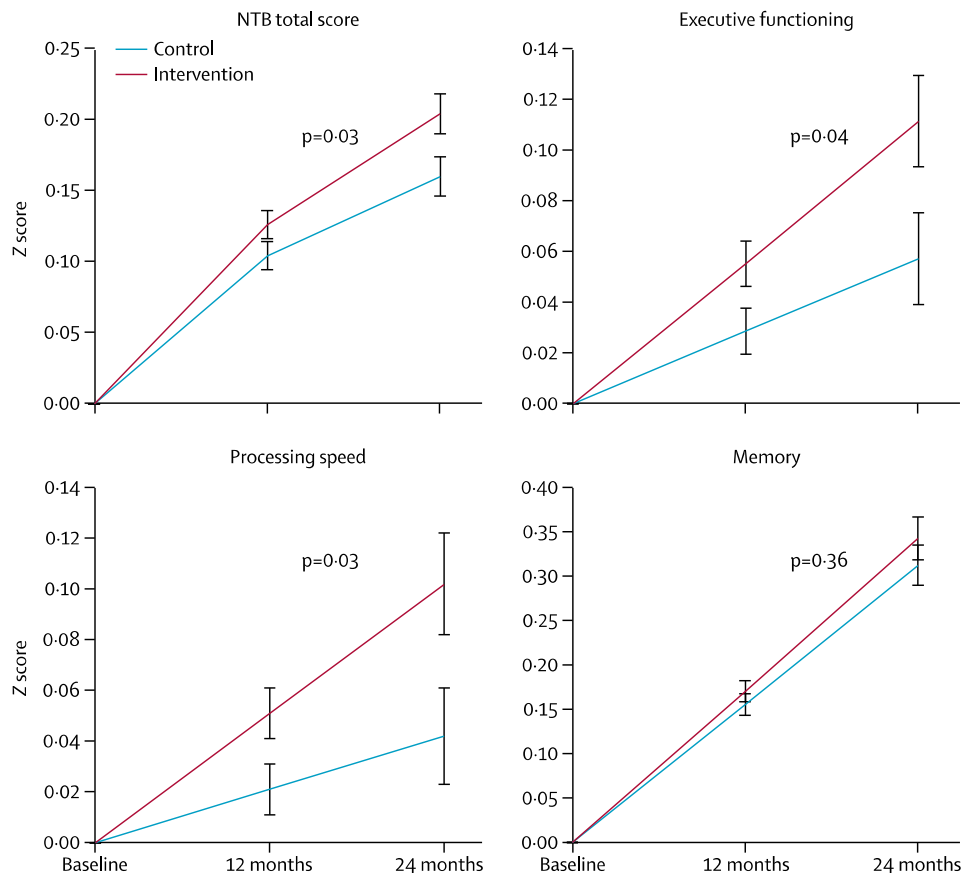
BOTTOM LINE: Approximately 40% of dementia is attributable to a combination of potentially modifiable risk factors. Blood pressure control and Mediterranean style diet may slow cognitive decline. Prevention efforts aimed at other risk factors remain unproven, though they may benefit overall health.

Multimodal interventions for prevention

A 2021 Cochrane review of nine RCTs evaluating the effect of multi-domain interventions found no evidence for prevention of incident dementia.⁹⁴ The review included the following 4 major studies:

The Finnish Geriatric Intervention Study to Prevent Cognitive Impairment and Disability (**FINGER**) trial involved 1,260 adults aged >60 years who were at high risk of dementia based on their age, sex, education, systolic blood pressure, total cholesterol and physical activity.⁹⁵ It compared cognition in the intervention group to controls who received general health advice. The intervention consisted of about 200 meetings (300 hours) with health professionals and trainers over two years and included individualized nutrition planning, exercise, cognitive training, and vascular risk factor monitoring. Despite the intervention's intensity, the effects were relatively small. Participants in the intervention group showed a statistically significant (but clinically questionable) mean advantage vs. the control group in a composite measure of cognition (neuropsychological test battery [NTB] total score), executive function, and processing speed, but not memory (Figure 5).

Figure 5: Results from FINGER multimodal intervention to improve cognitive function⁹⁵



Note: when interpreting effect sizes such as Z scores, consider that 0.20 is a small effect size, 0.50 is a moderate effect size, and 0.80 is a large effect size.

The Prevention of Dementia by Intensive Vascular Care (**preDIVA**) study sought to prevent dementia by reducing vascular risk factors in a six-year multi-domain, nurse-administered intervention.⁹⁶ There were 3,526 participants from general practices randomized to an intervention consisting of monitoring smoking habits, diet, physical activity, weight, and blood pressure with individually tailored lifestyle advice supported by motivational interviewing vs. usual care. Blood glucose and lipid concentrations were assessed every two years in both groups and, when indicated, medication was given as needed for hypertension, diabetes, or dyslipidemia. After 6.7 years, there was no significant difference in dementia incidence between the intervention and usual care group (HR 0.92; 95% CI: 0.71-1.19).

The Multidomain Alzheimer Preventive Trial in France (**MAPT**) randomized 1,680 older adults with memory complaints, limitations in one instrumental activity of daily living, or slow gait speed to one of four groups: an intervention consisting of cognitive training, physical activity, and nutrition plus polyunsaturated fatty acid supplementation; the multidomain intervention plus placebo; polyunsaturated fatty acids alone; or placebo.⁹⁷ After 3 years, there were no significant differences between groups in measures of cognitive decline.

The Healthy Aging Through Internet Counseling in the Elderly (**HATICE**) trial randomized 2,724 adults at high risk for cardiovascular disease to an interactive internet-based coach-supported program of self-management vs. a control group who received internet-based advice about cardiovascular statistics.⁹⁸ After 18 months of follow-up there was a very modest change in the CAIDE dementia risk score (mean

score difference -0.15 points on a 15-point scale, $P=0.04$) and no significant difference in cognitive function as measured by the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE).

Several additional multidomain prevention trials, such as World Wide FINGERS, are ongoing.

Screening for cognitive impairment and dementia

In 2020, the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) updated guidance regarding screening for cognitive impairment in older adults concluded that “the current evidence is insufficient to assess the balance of benefits and harms for screening” in unselected community-dwelling older adults *without* signs or symptoms of cognitive impairment.⁹⁹ Only a single randomized clinical trial ($n=4,005$, 1-year follow-up) has assessed whether screening for cognitive impairment by primary care providers affects patient outcomes, and it failed to demonstrate any benefit or harm from general screening.¹⁰⁰

It is important to recognize that this USPSTF recommendation does not apply to conducting an assessment of *signs and symptoms reported or recognized by the patient, family, or clinician* for diagnostic purposes,⁹⁹ which may include the following situations:

- patients with subjective cognitive complaints, conveyed either by the patient or a knowledgeable informant
- patients with mood or anxiety complaints, conveyed either by the patient or a knowledgeable informant
- selected patients at risk for adverse safety outcomes (e.g., living alone, poor medication adherence, working in professions in which cognitive dysfunction places them or others at risk)

Medicare covers testing and screening for cognitive impairment as a part of annual wellness visits (AWV), though evidence is mixed on whether screening with the AWV increases diagnoses of dementia.¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰³

One study found that though AWV cognitive impairment screening did not increase dementia diagnoses, it increased some measures of cognitive care, including laboratory testing.¹⁰²

BOTTOM LINE: Universal screening for cognitive impairment in older adults without recognized signs and symptoms of cognitive impairment is not necessary. By contrast, patients with cognitive or mood complaints and those at risk for adverse safety outcomes can benefit from an appropriate evaluation.

Evaluation and diagnosis of cognitive impairment and dementia

A focused differential diagnosis of dementia or MCI is appropriate for older people with an insidious onset and gradual progression of memory loss as the main presenting symptoms. Features such as early age of onset, rapid onset, progression over days to weeks, atypical (non-memory related) cognitive deficits, and unusual associated neurological or general medical symptoms should prompt referral to a specialist for consideration of atypical causes.

A diagnosis of dementia requires: (1) a significant decline in cognitive function from a previous level of performance and (2) evidence of cognitive dysfunction on a mental status examination or formal neuropsychological testing.¹⁰⁴ Selected labs and studies are recommended to establish a clinical diagnosis (see below) to assess potentially reversible or modifiable factors.

History

The goals of a history pertaining to cognitive impairment include: (1) determining the nature and time course of the cognitive dysfunction; (2) reviewing a patient's usual activities and changes that have arisen due to cognitive dysfunction; (3) conducting a focused review of other pertinent information from the medical history, social history, family history, and review of systems.

The medical history should particularly assess:

- detailed review of medications with potential to affect cognition, including all prescriptions (including from other health care professionals), as well as over-the-counter products and herbal remedies or dietary supplements
- non-prescribed drug and alcohol intake
- family history of cognitive impairment, dementia, neurological, or psychiatric conditions
- bowel/bladder incontinence
- review of mood, anxiety, sleep, and pain
- history of head trauma, encephalitis, meningitis, seizures, or other neurological or psychiatric illness
- educational and occupational history

Eliciting examples of a patient's cognitive functioning from both patients and informants can help determine which domain(s) of cognition are affected. Frequent repetition of questions and difficulty remembering recent events, for example, suggest impairment of **episodic memory**. Difficulties retrieving words, speaking fluently, or understanding spoken or written material suggest impairment of **language**. Problems finding routes, locating objects in plain view, or putting on clothes correctly reflect impairments in **higher order visual/spatial functions**. Inability to complete tasks requiring multiple steps, to maintain focus on a single task, or to hold information "in mind" for short periods of time suggest impairments in **attention and executive functions**. AD typically causes impairment of episodic memory out of proportion to impairments in other cognitive domains early in its time course.

Table 3: Differentiating dementia from normal cognitive aging

Warning sign	Features	What's normal?
1. Memory loss that affects job skills or other usual tasks	Forgetting recently learned information is one of the earliest signs of dementia. A person with dementia becomes forgetful more often and is unable to recall information.	<i>Occasionally forgetting names or appointments</i>
2. Difficulty performing activities of daily living	Finding it hard to plan or complete everyday tasks. Patients may lose track of the steps to prepare a meal, place a telephone call, or play a game	<i>Occasionally forgetting why you came into a room or what you planned to say</i>
3. Problems with language	Forgetting simple words or substitutes unusual words, making speech or writing hard to understand. For example, they may be unable to name a watch, for example, and instead ask for "that thing for time."	<i>Sometimes having trouble finding the right word, particularly if the word is less frequently used</i>
4. Disorientation to time and place	Becoming lost in their own neighborhood, forgetting where they are or how they got there, and not knowing how to get back home.	<i>Forgetting the day of the week or why you went into a room in your house</i>
5. Poor or decreased judgment	Dressing inappropriately, such as wearing several layers on a warm day or little clothing in the cold. Showing poor judgment about money, such as giving away large sums to telemarketers.	<i>Making a questionable or debatable decision from time to time</i>
6. Problems with abstract thinking	Having unusual difficulty performing complex mental tasks, such as forgetting what numbers are and how they should be used.	<i>Finding it challenging to balance a checkbook</i>
7. Misplacing things	Putting things in unusual places: a toothbrush in the freezer, or keys in the sugar bowl.	<i>Temporarily misplacing keys or a wallet</i>
8. Changes in mood	Having rapid mood swings – from calm to tears to anger – for no apparent reason.	<i>Occasionally feeling sad or moody</i>
9. Changes in behavior	Manifesting unexpected agitation, aggression, wandering, or sexual disinhibition.	<i>Occasionally losing your temper or feeling frustrated</i>
10. Changes in personality	Rapidly changing personality, in which the patient becomes extremely confused, suspicious, fearful, or dependent on a family member.	<i>People's personalities do not usually change dramatically or suddenly with age</i>
11. Loss of initiative	Becoming passive and apathetic, sitting in front of the TV for hours, sleeping more than usual, or not wanting to do usual activities.	<i>Sometimes feeling weary of work or social obligations</i>
12. Psychosis	Having hallucinations (audio or visual) and/or delusions (often paranoid in nature).	<i>Hallucinations and delusions are never normal</i>

Reviewing a patient's usual activities (e.g., driving, managing personal finances/paying bills, completing chores, engaging in hobbies, medication compliance, grooming/bathing) provides an opportunity to assess for additional symptoms and complications associated with cognitive impairment including potential safety issues that merit attention.

Detailed cognitive examination

If cognitive impairment is suspected, it is important to use a validated instrument because routine history and physical examinations are not always sensitive for detecting impairment. Despite the severe limitations of currently available treatment, patients and caregivers are likely to benefit from a better understanding of cognitive impairment as well as from interventions aimed at safety, optimizing cognition, planning for the future, and enhancing overall well-being.

Initial evaluation of cognitive impairment in primary care can be quick. Examples of screening instruments that take five minutes or less to administer include: the Clock Drawing Test, the Mini-Cog assessment, the Memory Impairment Screen, the Mental Status Questionnaire or Short Portable Mental Status Questionnaire, the Verbal Fluency test, the AD8 Dementia Screening Interview, and Clock-in-the-Box. These instruments have variable, but acceptable, sensitivity for the detection of cognitive impairment.¹⁰⁵ A 2021 Cochrane review, for example, found that the accuracy of baseline MMSE scores ranged from sensitivities of 23% to 76% and specificities from 40% to 94%.¹⁰⁶ A 2020 systematic review and meta-analysis of 57 observational studies evaluating the accuracy of brief cognitive tests found that many were highly sensitive and specific for distinguishing clinical Alzheimer-type dementia from normal cognition.¹⁰⁷ For example, for distinguishing AD from normal cognition:

- The Clock Drawing Test had median sensitivity of 0.79 and specificity of 0.88 in an analysis of eight studies.
- The Mini-Mental State Examination had sensitivity 0.88 and specificity of 0.94 in an analysis of seven studies.
- The Montreal Cognitive Assessment had sensitivity of 0.94 and specificity of 0.94 in two studies. Accuracy was lower for all tests for distinguishing Alzheimer's from MCI.

Using both a cognitive measure and a functional questionnaire may increase yield in screening and also reduce cultural and educational bias as opposed to using cognitive measures alone.¹⁰⁸ The Mini-Cog and the AD8 are cognitive and functional instruments, respectively, that have been reasonably well-validated.

The **Mini-Cog Test** uses a simple scored 3-item word recall test in combination with a clock drawing test. The patient is first asked to repeat and remember three unrelated words, allowing a maximum of three trials to repeat the words correctly. The patient is next asked to draw the face of a clock, and after all the numbers have been placed to draw the hands to read "10 minutes after 11 o'clock (11:10)." Finally, the patient is asked to recall the three words from earlier. The test is scored by adding the number of words recalled after the delay (0 to 3) and either 0 points for an incorrect clock or 2 points for a correct clock. Using a cutoff of 3 or greater to indicate "non-demented" and 2 or less to indicate "demented," the Mini-Cog has a sensitivity of 76%–100% and specificity of 54%–85% for detecting signs of dementia, when validated against clinical diagnostic criteria as a gold standard.¹⁰⁵

The **AD8 Dementia Screening Interview** consists of eight yes/no questions pertaining to a patient's memory, thinking, and functioning in usual activities, answered by either the patient or an informant who knows the patient well. Two or more "yes" answers suggest the presence of dementia with a sensitivity of 96.5% and specificity of 83.4%, again using clinical diagnostic criteria as a gold standard.¹⁰⁹ A 2019 Cochrane review found similar values, including a sensitivity of 92% and a specificity of 64%.¹¹⁰

The **Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE)** is a 30-point questionnaire assessing orientation to time and place, attention and recall, and language, among other areas. A 2015 review found pooled sensitivity and specificity for detecting dementia from 108 studies of the MMSE were 81% and 89%, respectively.¹¹¹

A 2020 systematic review including 32 studies of MMSE found a pooled sensitivity and specificity of 89% and 89% to detect dementia, respectively.¹⁰⁵ The MMSE score may be affected by age, education, and language. Given the comparable sensitivities of the Mini-Cog and AD8 vs. the MMSE, the greater amount of time required to administer the MMSE, and the fact that the MMSE is not in the public domain, the Mini-Cog and AD8 may represent more efficient means of selecting which patients require a more detailed diagnostic evaluation.

The Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA) includes 18 questions that assess orientation, memory, language, attention, and executive function.¹¹¹ Total MoCA score can range from 0-30 (higher score indicating better functioning) with scores <26 points suggesting MCI or dementia. The MoCA is more sensitive for detecting MCI than the MMSE (MoCA MCI sensitivity 89%, specificity 75% vs. MMSE MCI sensitivity 62% and specificity 87%).¹¹¹ Clinicians need to complete an online training and certification program before accessing and using MoCA.¹¹²

Neuropsychological testing may be useful if a diagnosis is unclear. The testing involves evaluating multiple cognitive domains: attention, orientation, executive function, memory, language, calculations, mental flexibility, conceptualization and has a sensitivity of 80-98% and specificity of 44-98%.^{113,114} The testing may help identify patterns suggesting a particular cause of dementia, and quantify clinical worsening at a more granular level than the screening assessments above.

Table 4: Dementia screening and diagnostic tool sensitivity and specificity^{109,111,113}

Dementia tool*	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)
Mini-Mental State Exam	81	89
MoCA	91	81
Mini-Cog	91	86
AD8	96	83
Neuropsychological testing	80-98	44-98

*Compared to clinical diagnosis

A detailed assessment of cognitive domains can confirm the profile of impairment suggested by the history, and also provides an additional measure of severity. In many cases MoCA provides sufficient information to aid in generating a differential diagnosis and can be administered in only about 10 minutes. MoCA has advantages over the MMSE in that it is more sensitive for detecting executive dysfunction, uses a more robust 5 item (vs. 3 item) word list for memory testing, assesses whether the patient benefits from cues or multiple choice for words not recalled after a delay, and provides subtests organized by cognitive domains.¹¹⁵ Alzheimer's disease and related dementias classically produce memory impairment at all levels – acquisition, retrieval, and storage. Referral for formal neuropsychological testing can be particularly useful for evaluating atypical cases, for detecting subtle impairments at an early stage, and when time does not permit a detailed cognitive examination in the office.

Physical, laboratory, and imaging evaluation

A physical exam and laboratory workup can help uncover potentially modifiable factors that may cause or contribute to cognitive dysfunction. Components include:

- physical
 - assessment for parkinsonism (tremor, rigidity, bradykinesia, postural instability)
 - assessment of focal neurological signs that might suggest stroke or tumor
 - gait abnormalities
 - assessment for motor neuron disease (fasciculations, hyperreflexia, increased muscle tone, muscle atrophy)
- laboratory
 - comprehensive metabolic profile
 - complete blood count and differential
 - thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH)
 - vitamin B₁₂ level
 - urinalysis

In recent years, plasma phosphorylated tau181 has demonstrated high accuracy for differentiating between AD and frontotemporal degeneration, although the test is not yet available for clinical use.^{116,117} Recent studies have also extolled the possibility of plasma biomarkers, including P-tau217, to predict longitudinal cognitive decline in patients with preclinical AD.^{118,119}

Neuroimaging

Neuroimaging with computed tomography (CT) or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) may reveal the presence or extent of vascular disease, focal patterns of atrophy suggestive of AD or other conditions, presence or absence of hydrocephalus, and evidence regarding other conditions potentially associated with dementia such as cerebral amyloid angiopathy. Rarely, imaging may reveal a modifiable condition not detected by neurological examination such as a subdural hematoma or a brain tumor.

Although the American Academy of Neurology recommends in its guidelines either a head CT or MRI in the initial evaluation for dementia, particularly among those with focal signs, the recommendation can be controversial due to the low likelihood of providing clear evidence of a neurodegenerative cause compared to more advanced imaging modalities (see below), or of identifying a structural lesion unexplained from either neurologic examination or history.¹²⁰ Imaging may be reasonable in those suspected to have a reversible cause of dementia that can be diagnosed with imaging studies, such as normal pressure hydrocephalus (NPH), subdural hematoma, or a malignancy.¹²⁰

Functional brain imaging with 18-F fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography (FDG-PET) or single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) reveals distinct regions of hypometabolism (PET) and hypoperfusion (SPECT) in patients with suspected AD. FDG-PET may be most useful in distinguishing AD from FTD (frontotemporal dementia) in patients with atypical presentations, as well as discriminating from non-neurodegenerative conditions, such as depression.¹²¹ FDG-PET and SPECT are the only functional neuroimaging methods currently widely available for clinical use, though there may be geographic and financial barriers to access.

Amyloid PET tracers that measure brain amyloid lesion burden may help differentiate AD from other causes of dementia.¹²² These tracers have been approved by regulatory agencies in the U.S. and

elsewhere as qualitative assessments of amyloid plaque density. A negative amyloid PET scan decreases the likelihood that a patient with dementia has AD, but a positive scan is not conclusive for diagnosis and does not rule out coexisting pathology.

A 2020 systematic review and meta-analysis of 15 brain imaging studies found the following median sensitivities and specificities for distinguishing neuropathologically-defined AD from non-AD in patients with dementia (Table 5).

Table 5: Sensitivity and specificity of brain imaging studies¹²³

Imaging study	Sensitivity	Specificity
Amyloid PET	0.91	0.92
FDG-PET	0.89	0.74
SPECT	0.64	0.83
MRI	0.91	0.89

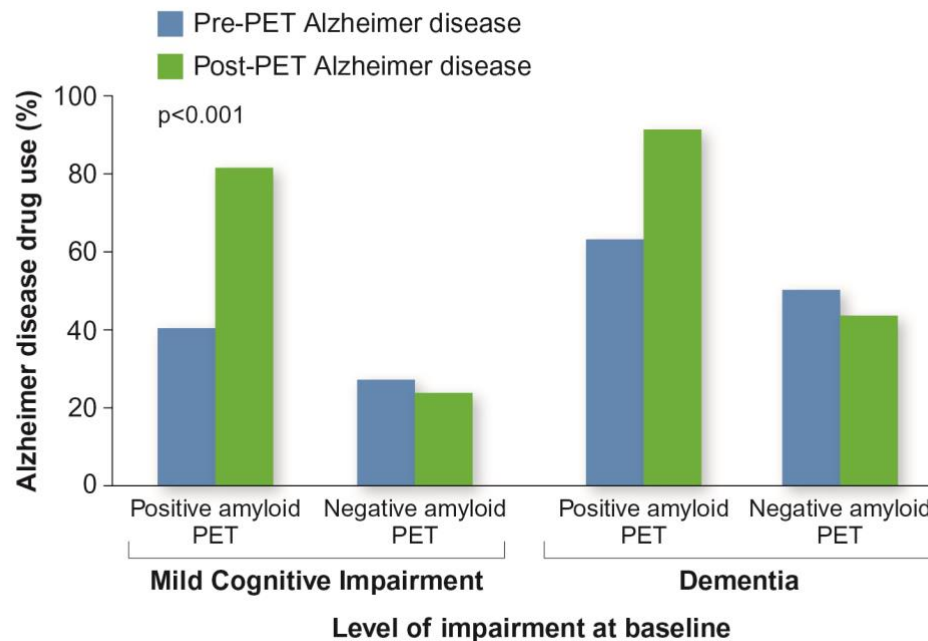
A consensus opinion of the Amyloid Imaging Task Force, the Society of Nuclear Medicine, and the Alzheimer's Association concluded that amyloid imaging is not appropriate in patients who meet the core clinical criteria for probable AD and have a typical age of onset, and such a scan should not be used to determine dementia severity.¹²⁴ Currently, these scans are not covered by many health insurances plans.

Amyloid PET imaging may be appropriate in patients with focal signs of dementia when all three of the following criteria are met:¹²⁴

- etiology remains unclear after a comprehensive evaluation by a dementia specialist
- AD is high on the differential diagnosis
- knowledge of amyloid PET status is expected to alter diagnosis and management

A multi-center study of 11,409 Medicare beneficiaries with MCI (n=6,905) or dementia (n=4,504) evaluated changes in management 90 days after amyloid PET scanning.¹²⁵ The diagnosis changed from Alzheimer's disease to non-Alzheimer's disease in 25.1% of patients and from non-Alzheimer's disease to Alzheimer's disease in 10.5% of patients. The use of AD medications rose significantly after positive PET scans in patients with MCI or dementia, and declined marginally in patients with negative PET scans (Figure 6 next page).

Figure 6: Changes to medication therapy after amyloid PET scan¹²⁵



Tau PET imaging tracers could be potentially useful as markers of the tauopathy of Alzheimer's disease. Several studies have demonstrated that tau tracers better track disease progression and better associate with patterns of atrophy and clinical features compared to amyloid PET.^{126,127} One tracer, flortaucipir F-18, has been approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for determining the burden of neurofibrillary tangles in patients being evaluated for Alzheimer's disease. A 2021 study found that tau PET tracers, including F-18, demonstrated strong prognostic utility of cognitive change over time and outperformed MRI and amyloid PET markers.¹²⁸ There is limited insurance coverage for this approach.

Genetic testing

Genetic testing for AD has not been routinely recommended because results are neither sensitive nor specific.¹²⁹ However, new evidence about apolipoprotein E (ApoE ϵ 4) and response to anti-amyloid therapies may change this. The **CLARITY** randomized trial (described below) found that patients with mutations in ApoE ϵ 4, especially homozygotes, appeared to benefit less from lecanemab and were also more likely to have side effects. This may widen use of ApoE ϵ 4 testing to inform the decision of whether to refer patients for consideration of this treatment. This is discussed more fully below.

Apart from evaluation for anti-amyloid treatment, referral to a genetic counselor for consideration of testing for gene mutations associated with familial AD has thus far been recommended only for patients with early-onset AD and/or a family history of early-onset dementia or those with a family history suggesting an autosomal dominant mode of transmission. Fewer than 1% of AD cases are due to familial autosomal dominant gene mutations, such as amyloid precursor protein (APP), presenilin 1 (PSEN 1), and presenilin 2 (PSEN 2), which show 95-100% penetrance.¹²⁹ However, ApoE ϵ 4 has three alleles that influence susceptibility for AD, with effects that vary with the population studied as well as the presence or absence of other risk factors for AD. Tests for ApoE ϵ 4 are readily available to patients through clinical labs and companies like 23andMe. However, because having an ApoE ϵ 4 allele is neither necessary nor

sufficient to cause AD, numerous consensus statements and articles have recommended against using ApoE ε4 genotyping for predicting AD risk.¹²⁹

Cerebrospinal fluid testing

The use of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) markers for predicting conversion from MCI to dementia has been studied. Common markers include:

- increased levels of phosphorylated tau protein and total tau
- lower levels of amyloid beta 42 (Aβ42) peptide, a low ratio of Aβ42 to Aβ40 levels, and a low ratio of Aβ42 to tau levels

Other CSF studies can help assess atypical causes of dementia, including assessment for infectious, inflammatory, or neoplastic conditions. These tests can include specific tests for infectious pathogens, as well as oligoclonal bands, CSF autoantibodies, cytology and flow cytometry, as well as 14-3-3 protein and real-time quaking-induced conversion (RT-QuIC) assay to assess for Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (CJD).

Specific CSF biomarkers of AD pathology have been studied in a variety of studies.¹³⁰⁻¹³² Elevated levels of phosphorylated tau are thought to be associated with increased neurofibrillary tangle burden, and decreased Aβ42 is felt to reflect the accelerated deposition of amyloid protein in brain tissues.

CSF biomarkers can be used to augment, but not replace, a complete evaluation for dementia. As these tests tend to have a higher sensitivity for AD pathology, negative CSF biomarkers decrease the likelihood that AD is the driving cause of a dementia, though positive biomarkers neither rule out a reversible cause nor confirm that a patient's cognitive decline is due to AD.

BOTTOM LINE: Patients with cognitive impairment should undergo a careful history, evaluation with cognitive testing, and assessment for reversible causes such as depression, vitamin deficiency, NPH, alcohol or medications affecting cognition, or disorders of thyroid, kidney, or liver.

Clinicians should consider referrals, including for neuropsychological testing, to specialists where appropriate. Genetic testing is not necessary except in patients with early-onset or rapidly progressive dementia and a family history, those with a family history suggesting an autosomal dominant mode of transmission, or assessment for referral for possible anti-amyloid treatment.

Managing dementia

Non-pharmacological options for dementia management

Optimizing general health

Identifying and treating non-neurological conditions that can negatively affect cognition is an important first step towards optimizing cognitive status. General medical illnesses, medications, and psychiatric illnesses can affect frontal-associated brain networks important for attention and executive functions.

Treating such illnesses may help with cognition and provide patients with more reserve with which to compensate for the effects of the underlying cause of their MCI or dementia.

Examples of medical conditions and medications with the potential to exacerbate cognitive dysfunction include:¹³³

- medical conditions
 - cardiac, pulmonary, renal, or hepatic disease
 - endocrine dysfunction, particularly hypothyroidism
 - depression
 - anxiety
 - delirium
 - sleep disorders, particularly obstructive sleep apnea and insomnia
 - chronic pain
 - vitamin B₁₂ deficiency
 - NPH
- medications
 - anticholinergics
 - antipsychotics
 - antihistamines
 - benzodiazepines
 - non-benzodiazepine sedative/hypnotics
 - opioids
 - alcohol and other drugs (e.g., cannabis)

Treatment of neuropsychiatric symptoms of dementia, including depression and anxiety, can secondarily benefit cognition (see the BPSD section on page 42).

General lifestyle interventions

Lifestyle changes that can provide psychological, physical, and cognitive benefits include getting regular exercise, stimulating cognitive activities, engaging in social activities, and eating a healthy diet. In making lifestyle recommendations to patients and caregivers, consider that apathy and anxiety about reduced functionality are common and may lead to resistance to such changes. Goals should be realistic, adaptable, and pleasurable (or at least not negative) for the patient. Using structured environments, such as scheduled group activities, may improve compliance and provide the additional benefit of social interaction. Establishing a regular routine including a consistent schedule for eating, taking medications, exercising, sleep, chores, hobbies, social activities, and other pleasurable activities can reduce the complexity and effort supporting desired behaviors.

Exercise

Physical exercise is associated with a range of benefits in older people, including improving balance and reducing falls,¹³⁴ improving mood,¹³⁵ and improving function.¹³⁶ However, to date, evidence that exercise-based interventions can slow or reverse cognitive decline has been mixed, at best.

In a review of 14 studies evaluating exercise programs and cognitive outcomes in people with MCI, 92% of cognitive outcomes reported were non-significant, and only 42% of effect sizes were classified as potentially clinically relevant (effect size >0.20).¹³⁷ A systematic review of 41 studies found no

improvements in memory-related outcomes with exercise.¹³⁸ In one high-quality study, there was no effect of a year-long moderate aerobic exercise group compared with an active control group that did relaxation and exercises to improve balance and flexibility.¹³⁹ The results of less high quality studies were mixed but did not indicate generalized cognitive improvement compared to controls.¹³⁸

A trial of 100 adults with MCI, randomized to resistance training or cognitive training, reported that resistance training very modestly improved the primary cognitive outcome (change on the 70-point Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale–cognitive [ADAS-Cog]) (effect size - 0.33 points; 95% CI: -0.73 to -0.06 points) at six months.¹⁴⁰

The Finnish **FINALEX trial** randomized 210 home-dwelling AD patients being cared for by a spouse to a program of home exercise (one hour, twice weekly for 12 months), a group exercise program (one hour, twice weekly for 12 months), or a control group.¹⁴¹ At follow-up, participants in both of the exercise groups had significantly fewer falls than the control group and improved measures of functional independence, but there was no significant difference across the groups in the cognitive assessments included as part of the Functional Independence Measure. Similar results were found in the Dementia and Physical Activity (**DAPA**) trial of moderate- to high-intensity exercise training.¹⁴² In this trial of 494 people with dementia, with one-year follow-up, exercise improved six-minute walking distance, but was not associated with any significant changes in cognitive function.

Exercise may improve physical functioning in patients with dementia and reduce problems related to agitation, wandering, and insomnia, although randomized trials are small (n=20-40), of low quality, and with substantial heterogeneity between studies.^{66,143-145}

Addressing hearing loss

Approximately two-thirds of adults over 70 years old have some degree of hearing loss, which is independently associated with dementia, though less than 20% receive treatment with hearing aids.¹⁴⁶ Whether the use of hearing aids or other amplification devices can reverse or stem cognitive decline in later years is uncertain. A review of six studies (most of low-to-moderate quality) of hearing interventions with cognitive outcomes assessed over longer than three years found that three reported a positive association of hearing aid use with cognitive decline or incident cognitive impairment while three reported no such association.¹⁴⁷ A small study evaluated 20 patients with dementia and their caregivers one month after giving the patients a hearing amplification device. Participants with high symptom burden at baseline showed improvement in depression and neuropsychiatric outcomes.¹⁴⁸ The intervention had no effect on measures of caregiver burden. However, caregivers described improved engagement with their loved ones, such as laughing more, telling more stories, asking more questions, and having more patience.¹⁴⁸

Enhancing personal safety

Preserving the safety of patients with dementia can mean reducing their independence, and this tension should be recognized as the disease/condition progresses. Finding the right balance between safety and independence can be challenging. Driving is perhaps the most common example of this issue and can be especially fraught.¹⁴⁹

The ability to drive represents both real and metaphorical freedom that many are unwilling to give up. But the risks posed by driving by patients with dementia often require preventive actions. In a study following 50 patients with AD vs. 50 age-matched controls without dementia, the proportion of car crashes was almost five times higher in those with dementia over five years (47% vs. 10%).¹⁵⁰

Clinicians can play a valuable role in decisions about “giving up the keys” because they are trusted and generally perceived as neutral. Discussions about driving should be part of advance care planning (ACP) and the topic can be raised repeatedly over time, with an awareness of how emotionally charged the topic can be. Clinicians can focus attention on changes in driving ability related to medications or illness, rather than on the age of the person. Whenever possible, attempt to engage and empower the patient to make informed decisions, rather than forcing a decision on them. Explore all options, including having a driving evaluation or looking for alternatives to driving (there may be a range of services beyond public transportation). More information about driving and dementia can be found at the Alzheimer’s Association (qrco.de/Alz_driving) and AAA (qrco.de/AAA_driver_safety). Some states require clinicians to report patients with certain medical conditions that could impair driving ability to the Department of Motor Vehicles. Clinicians should be aware of their state’s reporting laws.

Other potentially unsafe situations or activities include cooking without supervision, operating potentially hazardous power tools or appliances, and keeping firearms or other weapons at home. Patients with dementia who have a propensity to wander, but who do not require around-the-clock supervision for other indications, may benefit from wearing an identification bracelet or an electronic monitor, and/or by measures to prevent them from leaving the house unsupervised. Self-administration of medications should be monitored for errors, and assistance provided when necessary. Pill boxes with designated slots for different days and times can help reduce confusion about what medications should be taken when.

Social interactions

Only very limited evidence exists about the effect of social activity interventions on cognition. One trial randomized 149 older adults to a social activity intervention vs. usual care and found that subjects with impaired executive function at baseline showed improvements of 44% and 51% in measures of executive function and memory at follow-up of between 4-8 months compared to controls.¹⁵¹ Another pilot RCT compared cognitive training, a health promotion course, and a book-club as interventions for people with subjective memory problems (but not dementia) and found no between-group differences in cognitive outcomes.¹⁵² An additional observational study of 462,619 patients found that social isolation was associated with a 1.26-fold increased risk of dementia (95% CI: 1.15-1.37), as well as with decreased gray matter volumes in structural MRI data in a subset of 32,263 patients.⁴⁸

Cognitive interventions

A range of interventions to preserve or improve cognitive functioning in patients with MCI or dementia have been tested in trials and studies, with generally weak results.^{153,154} A review of 15 RCTs of cognitive stimulation in patients with mild-to-moderate dementia found only minimal effects.¹⁵⁵ Another Cochrane review of cognitive training exercises for dementia and MCI in Parkinson’s disease found no evidence of cognitive improvement.¹⁵⁶ Nonetheless, despite limited evidence for efficacy, cognitive interventions are increasingly used, with the hope that they might optimize and extend cognitive and functional skills for the longest possible period.¹⁵⁷

Three major types of cognitive interventions are:¹⁵⁸

- **Cognitive stimulation:** engagement with activities and materials involving cognitive processing, usually in a social context, with an emphasis on enjoyable activities.
- **Cognitive training:** individual or group training exercises geared to specific cognitive functions, which may include practice and repetition, and computer-assisted learning.

- **Cognitive rehabilitation:** working on personal goals, often using external cognitive aids and/or learning strategies.

Some evidence supports the use of cognitive stimulation for people with mild to moderate dementia who are treated with cholinesterase inhibitors. Improvements in quality of life have been demonstrated, in addition to modest improvements in cognitive function, and such interventions are likely to be cost effective. One study evaluated the effect of six months of cognitive stimulation (reality orientation therapy) in addition to donepezil (Aricept) compared to donepezil alone in patients with mild to moderate AD. All participants had been treated with donepezil for at least three months.¹⁵⁹ There was a small, statistically significant benefit of combined therapy compared to donepezil alone, with a net difference between the two groups of 2.9 points on the 70-point ADAS–Cog ($P=0.01$). This difference is not likely clinically significant.

A variant cognitive intervention that has been used in patients with AD is the activation of procedural motor memory, which is often preserved in mild and moderate AD. For example, patients with severely impaired recent memory are often able to achieve normal motor learning and skill retention in tasks such as learning to dance.¹⁵⁷

Dual cognitive support involves activating prior knowledge by linking the recall of new material to personal and salient life events. This type of support may be more effective when the information to be recalled has an emotional significance to the patient.¹⁶⁰

BOTTOM LINE: Despite limited evidence for their efficacy, non–pharmacological interventions such as exercise and cognitive training are increasingly used with the goal of helping to preserve physical function and quality of life for people with MCI and dementia.

Pharmacological interventions

Because not enough is known about the underlying causes and mechanisms of AD/DRD, the medications available to treat them are of limited efficacy. Drugs in two therapeutic classes have received full FDA approval to treat dementia-related cognitive dysfunction: cholinesterase inhibitors (e.g., donepezil, galantamine, rivastigmine) and N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor antagonist memantine. A product combining memantine and donepezil is also available to decrease polypharmacy/pill burden. Two monoclonal antibody treatments targeting amyloid plaques in the brain, including aducanumab (Aduhelm) and lecanemab (Leqembi), have received accelerated approval from the FDA, although the former is rarely used because it failed to convincingly demonstrate clinical benefit. Full approval of lecanemab is expected in mid-2023. Another amyloid-active monoclonal antibody, donanemab, will be reviewed by the FDA in late 2023 or 2024. Clinical trials indicate that the latter two agents confer only modest symptomatic benefits in very slightly slowing the rate of decline in cognitive function.¹⁶¹

When interpreting the evidence related to drugs approved for dementia, it is critical to keep in mind that these drugs were approved on the basis of changes in test scores as their primary efficacy end points, rather than measures of patient functioning or quality of life. Table 6 summarizes the tests most commonly used in clinical trials of dementia drugs and the minimal score changes that are considered clinically important.

Table 6: Common tests and minimal clinically important scores

	Scale	Range	Direction	Minimal clinically important difference (MCID)
Cognition	MMSE	0-30	Higher is better	≥3
	ADAS-Cog	0-70	Lower is better	≥4
	SIB	0-100	Higher is better	≥7
Global	CIBIC-plus	1-7	Lower is better	≥1
	CDR-SB	1-18	Lower is better	0.5-2
Behavior	NPI	0-144	Lower is better	≥4

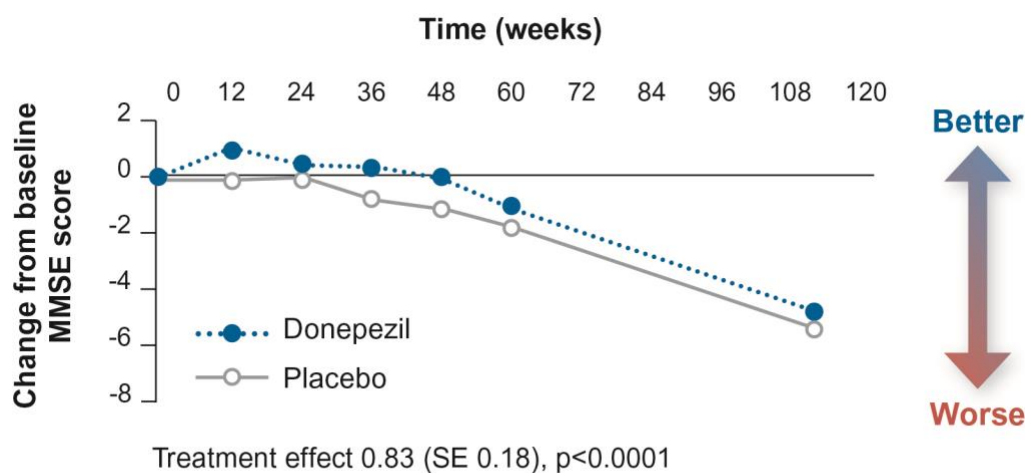
MMSE: mini-mental state examination; ADAS-Cog: Alzheimer's disease assessment scale-cognitive subscale; SIB: Severe impairment battery; CIBIC-plus: Clinician's Interview-based impression of change plus caregiver input; CDR-SB: Clinical dementia rating – sum of boxes; NPI: neuropsychiatric inventory

Cholinesterase inhibitors

The cholinesterase inhibitors donepezil (Aricept, Adlarity, generics), galantamine (Razadyne, generics), and rivastigmine (Exelon, generics) are intended to increase activity of the neurotransmitter acetylcholine in the central nervous system by inhibiting cholinesterase at the synaptic cleft. Acetylcholine is important for memory and attention, and AD is associated with degeneration of cell populations in the basal forebrain that provide cholinergic projections to widespread areas of the cerebral cortex.¹⁶² However, attempts to address this underlying pathophysiology have not translated well to substantial clinical benefit.

Most trials of cholinesterase inhibitors have been short-term (six months or less) and in community-dwelling patients with mild to moderate AD dementia, though memantine has been studied in patients with greater impairment. Overall, these trials have found statistically significant but clinically marginal effects on cognitive function and global functional status.¹⁶³ This benefit, when it occurs, is manifested by a small reduction in the rate of cognitive decline, rather than its reversal. There is no evidence of increasing benefits with longer duration of therapy. One of the few long-term studies was the AD2000 study of 565 community-dwelling patients with mild-to-moderate AD who were followed for 3 years. The trial showed a small effect on the rate of decline of cognitive function and functional status “below minimally relevant thresholds” at 2 years (see Figure 7) but no difference in nursing home admission or progression of disability at 3 years.¹⁶⁴

Figure 7: Modest improvements of MMSE score (MCID ≥ 3) disappears within 12 months¹⁶⁴



Cholinesterase inhibitors in MCI

A 2012 Cochrane Review of nine studies of cholinesterase inhibitors in patients with MCI found no significant differences in cognitive test scores, no differences in Activities of Daily Living (ADL), and only weak evidence for a slowing in the progression to dementia over a 3-year period.¹⁶⁵ Two 2013 systematic reviews further concluded that cholinesterase inhibitors were ineffective in preventing dementia and did not improve cognition or function in patients with MCI.^{138,166}

Cholinesterase inhibitors in AD

Most evidence of cholinesterase inhibitors in AD is summarized in a 2006 Cochrane review, which found only modest results of questionable clinical significance:¹⁶⁷

- mean difference in ADAS-Cog: -2.37 points (range: 0-70, clinically important difference ≥ 4 point reduction)
- mean difference in MMSE: 1.37 points (range: 0-30, clinically important difference ≥ 3 point improvement)
- mean difference in ADL: 2.40 points (range: 0-100)

A 2020 systematic review and meta-analysis of 55 studies evaluated non-BPSD outcomes of drug treatments for AD. It found mostly low-strength evidence suggesting that compared with placebo, cholinesterase inhibitors produced small average improvements in cognition (median standardized mean difference [SMD], 0.30 [range: 0.24 to 0.52]), no difference to small improvements in function (median SMD, 0.19 [range: -0.10 to 0.22]), no difference in the likelihood of at least moderate improvement in global clinical impression (median absolute risk difference, 4% [range: 2% to 4%]), and increased withdrawals due to adverse events.¹⁶⁸

A few studies in community-dwelling patients or nursing home residents with severe AD showed some modest benefit in cognitive function and functional status.¹⁶⁹⁻¹⁷³ However, the practical value of such modest benefits may be limited in these patients and should be weighed against the risk of side effects. Response to treatment can vary substantially. Up to half of patients receiving cholinesterase inhibitors

show no discernible benefit and only a small minority of patients, estimated as 1 in 5, derive a strong benefit (e.g., 7 or more points on the ADAS-Cog or 3 or more points on MMSE, equivalent to stemming a year or more of natural cognitive decline).^{174,175}

Escalating the dose to 23 mg per day does not affect cognitive decline. A randomized double-blind study (n=1,467) examined the effect of increasing the dose of donepezil from 10 to 23 mg/day in patients with moderate to severe AD.¹⁷⁶ The results showed a statistically significant but clinically modest impact on the Severe Impairment Battery (SIB) cognitive function score after 24 weeks (SIB score greater with donepezil 23 mg/day than with donepezil 10 mg/day: +2.6 points vs. +0.4 points; P<0.001).¹⁷⁶ A Cochrane meta-analysis of two trials comparing donepezil 10 mg/day vs. 23 mg/day found no differences in efficacy outcomes, but fewer participants on 10 mg/day experienced adverse events or withdrew from treatment.¹⁶³

In the few studies comparing cholinesterase inhibitors head-to-head there is no suggestion of superior efficacy for any one over the others.¹⁶⁷

Cholinesterase inhibitors have been studied in patients with other types of dementia, with results as modest or equivocal as those seen in studies in patients with AD:

- Lewy Body dementia: some evidence to support use of donepezil^{177,178}
- Parkinson's disease dementia: limited clinical improvement from rivastigmine¹⁷⁹ (rivastigmine has a specific approval for PDD¹⁸⁰)
- Vascular dementia: possible improvement in cognition,^{181,182} although the change is unlikely to be clinically important¹⁸³
- Frontotemporal dementia: no convincing evidence of benefit¹⁸⁴

It can be difficult to determine whether a patient who initially responds to treatment is continuing to benefit as time passes and cognition worsens, because one cannot know what the patient's course would have been in the absence of treatment.

Safety

Medications with anticholinergic activity may reduce the efficacy of the cholinesterase inhibitors and can also cause delirium in patients receiving such treatment.¹⁸⁵ These drugs include antihistamines, tricyclic antidepressants, antipsychotics, and drugs used for urinary incontinence, such as oxybutynin, tolterodine, and solifenacin. These medications can reduce or negate any beneficial effect on cognition by cholinesterase inhibitors.¹⁸⁶

The most common adverse effects of cholinesterase inhibitors are gastrointestinal, and include anorexia, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea.¹⁸⁷ These drugs can also cause dizziness, hypertension, syncope, bradycardia, QT interval prolongation, muscle cramps, arrhythmia, angina pectoris and heart block.¹⁸⁶ Meta-analyses suggest that the frequency of dizziness with cholinesterase inhibitors is 10% (8% with donepezil, 10% with galantamine, and 22% with oral rivastigmine).¹⁸⁸ Compared with placebo, cholinesterase inhibitors are associated with 53% increase in the risk of syncope, but not with falls, fractures, or accidental injury.¹⁸⁹ In clinical trials, 29% of patients stopped therapy due to adverse effects.¹⁹⁰ Donepezil may cause fewer adverse effects than oral rivastigmine.¹⁶⁷ A 2017 pragmatic trial in which patients were randomly assigned to donepezil, galantamine, or rivastigmine found that at 18 weeks, rates of discontinuation for any reason were similar for the three drugs (39%, 53%, and 59%, respectively).¹⁹¹ A transdermal version of donepezil (Adlarity) was approved in 2022 for all stages of AD

based only on bioequivalence studies with oral donepezil (i.e., without any clinical efficacy studies). There is no evidence comparing the safety and efficacy of transdermal and oral donepezil formulations.

Doses of cholinesterase inhibitors should be started low, and slowly up-titrated to minimize adverse effects.¹⁷⁴ Transdermal administration of rivastigmine appears to improve GI tolerability compared to oral rivastigmine.

Dosing

Table 7 shows recommended dosing of the cholinesterase inhibitors. Standard maintenance doses are 10-23 mg/day for donepezil, 16–24 mg/day for galantamine, and 9.5 mg/day for transdermal rivastigmine. Because different doses of the same drug have rarely been studied head-to-head, it is not clear whether doses lower than these standard maintenance doses have similar efficacy. Patients with severe AD may achieve incremental cognitive benefits from doses higher than 10 mg/day but are also more likely to experience side effects.¹⁷⁶

Table 7: Dosing of cholinesterase inhibitors¹³³

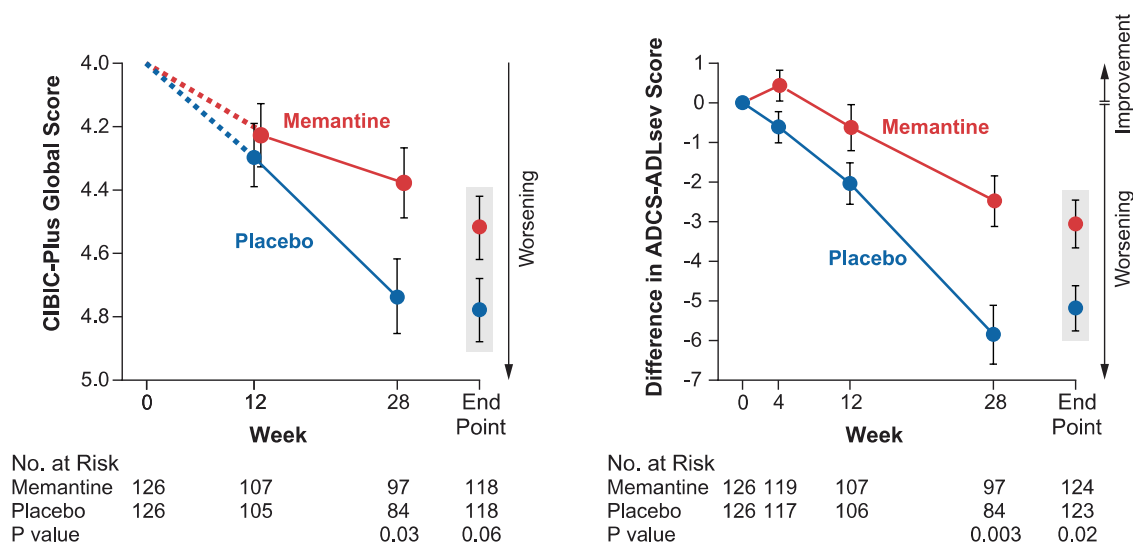
Drug	Starting dose	Titration	Target dose
donepezil (Aricept) - oral	5 mg once daily	Increase to 10 mg once daily after 4–6 weeks according to response. Further increases in increments of 5 mg to maximum dose of 23 mg/day can be considered in selected patients who show marked improvement on lower doses.	10 mg/day
donepezil (Adlarity) - patch	5 mg/day patch applied weekly	Increase to 10 mg patch weekly after 4-6 weeks according to response 10 mg/day patch may be used in patients already taking oral donepezil	10 mg/day
galantamine (Razadyne)	4 mg orally (immediate-release) twice daily, 8 mg/d 8 mg orally (extended-release) once daily	Increase by 8 mg/day every 4 weeks according to response, to a maximum 24 mg/day in two divided doses Increase by 8 mg/day every 4 weeks, maximum 24 mg/day	16-24 mg/day Maximum dose: 24 mg
rivastigmine (Exelon)–oral	1.5 mg orally twice daily	Increase by 3 mg/day every 2 weeks according to response, maximum 12 mg/day in two divided doses	Maximum dose 12 mg/day
rivastigmine (Exelon) – transdermal	4.6 mg/24 hour patch once daily	Increase to 9.5 mg/24 hour patch once daily after 4 weeks according to response; starting dose varies if switching from oral to transdermal therapy. 13.3 mg/24 hour patch may be considered in selected patients with marked improvement on lower doses.	9.5-13.3 mg/day

NMDA antagonist (memantine)

Memantine (Namenda) is a non-competitive NMDA receptor antagonist. By inhibiting the NMDA receptor, memantine is thought to reduce glutamate-mediated excitotoxicity and thus potentially improve the functioning of neurons.¹⁹²

Clinical trials suggest slight reduction in the rate of cognitive deterioration with memantine in patients with moderate to severe AD dementia, but not mild AD dementia (Figure 8).¹⁹³⁻¹⁹⁵ Most studies are short-term and were conducted in patients with moderate to severe AD. Some studies show a modest, short-term effect on loss of cognitive function and functional status. A few studies in patients with mild AD did not show consistent benefits.^{195,196} Evidence from two trials with approximately 750 participants suggests a small clinical effect for memantine in patients with mild-to-moderate vascular dementia (mean difference of 2.15 points on ADAS-Cog; 95% CI: 1.05-3.25 points), but there is limited or very low-quality evidence for a benefit in other types of dementia.¹⁹⁵

Figure 8: Modest treatment effect of memantine in moderate-severe AD¹⁹³



Memantine has been well-tolerated in clinical trials.¹⁹⁷ Most studies found the overall incidence of adverse effects and dropout rates due to adverse effects to be similar to that of placebo.¹⁹⁷ The most common adverse effects are agitation, urinary incontinence, urinary tract infection, insomnia, and diarrhea.¹⁹³ A meta-analysis showed that memantine was not associated with increased risk of falls, syncope, fractures, or accidental injury compared with placebo.¹⁸⁹ In general, memantine is better tolerated than cholinesterase inhibitors (Table 8), and may be trialed before a cholinesterase inhibitor if patients have significant bradycardia or GI disease.¹³³

Table 8: Comparison of adverse effects for cholinesterase inhibitors vs. memantine¹³³

	Cholinesterase inhibitors	Memantine
Adverse effects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nausea/vomiting • Loss of appetite • Increased frequency of bowel movements • Vivid dreams • Insomnia • Local skin irritation (galantamine patch only) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dizziness • Headache • Constipation • Hallucination
Cautions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peptic ulcer disease • Respiratory disease • Seizure disorder • Urinary tract obstruction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cardiovascular disease • Seizure disorder • Severe hepatic impairment
Contraindications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bradycardia 	

Dosing

The standard dose of memantine is 20 mg/day (immediate release formulation), and dosages of immediate release memantine above 20 mg/day have not been studied. An extended-release formulation is available in daily doses of up to 28 mg/day.

Table 9: Dosing of memantine¹³³

Drug	Starting dose	Titration	Target dose
memantine (Namenda)	5 mg once daily	Increase by 5 mg/day every week to a target dose of 10 mg twice daily; give in two divided doses if dose >5 mg per day	20 mg/day, 10 mg/day if renal insufficiency
	7 mg once daily (extended-release)	Increase by 7 mg/day every week to a target dose of 21–28 mg/daily	28 mg/day, 14 mg/day if renal insufficiency

Consideration of discontinuing cholinesterase inhibitors and memantine

There is limited evidence to suggest that withdrawal of cholinesterase inhibitors in AD may result in worse cognition, neuropsychiatric status, and functional status.¹⁹⁸ A post-hoc analysis of the DOMINO trial¹⁷³ found that withdrawal of donepezil in patients with moderate to severe AD increased the risk of nursing home placement after 12 months of treatment, but made no difference at 3 years of follow up.¹⁹⁹

Discontinuation of memantine may also lead to worsening cognition, though a 2021 Cochrane systematic review found only one trial that evaluated the effects of withdrawing memantine.¹⁹⁸ The trial only evaluated the effect of withdrawing memantine and cholinesterase inhibitors together and did not report the effects of withdrawing memantine only.

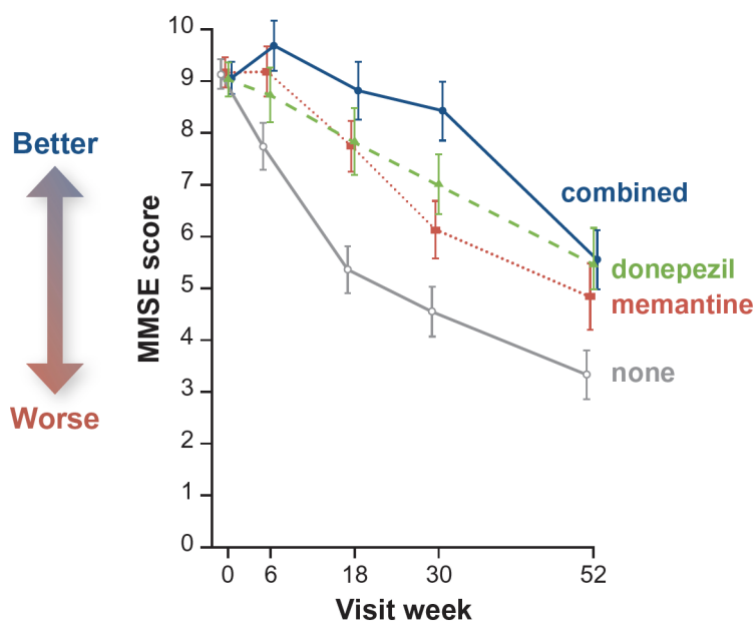
In light of the weak evidence base, clinical judgment combined with caregiver and family preferences must be used to determine how long patients should be treated with these agents.²⁰⁰ In addition, when

discontinuing donepezil or memantine, a taper of a 50% dose reduction or stepwise reduction every 4 weeks to the lowest dose prior to discontinuation should be employed.

Dual therapy with memantine and a cholinesterase inhibitor

The effect of adding memantine to a cholinesterase inhibitor in patients with moderate to severe AD had been hoped to provide a small advantage over each drug alone, but benefits become less significant over time and the difference relative to placebo may not be clinically relevant (Figure 9).²⁰¹⁻²⁰³ A 52-week study in 295 community-dwelling patients with moderate to severe AD dementia found no additional benefit from combination therapy at the study endpoint, and patients demonstrated similar benefits from donepezil or memantine.¹⁷³

Figure 9: Addition of memantine to donepezil in patients with moderate-severe AD²⁰²



A 2020 systematic review and meta-analysis of 55 studies found that in adults with moderate-to-severe AD, adding memantine to a cholinesterase inhibitor inconsistently improved cognition, improved global clinical impression, but not function.¹⁶⁸

Table 10: Dosing of the combination of memantine and donepezil

Drug	Starting dose	Titration
memantine/ donepezil (Namzaric) ²⁰⁴	Patients stable on donepezil 10 mg: 7 mg/10 mg once daily in the evening	Increase the memantine component by 7 mg/day, no more frequently than weekly to a target dose of 28 mg/10 mg once daily
	Patients stable on donepezil 10 mg and memantine 10 mg twice daily or 28 mg daily: 28 mg/10 mg once daily in the evening	No titration required; patients initiated on maximum dose.

Overall, cholinesterase inhibitors and NMDA receptor agonists have minimal efficacy and often cause side effects. Given their modest and transient benefits, the French Pharmacoeconomic Committee no longer recommends the use of these drugs,²⁰⁵ while other groups (e.g., the British National Health Service's NICE) recommend they be prescribed only by neurologists or clinicians with specific expertise in dementia.²⁰⁶ However, it may be reasonable for clinicians to offer a trial of these medications after careful consideration of potential benefits vs. risks within the context of the patient's goal, with a plan in place for monitoring both response and side effects, and for consideration of discontinuation if no ongoing benefit is evident.

Monoclonal antibodies

Aducanumab

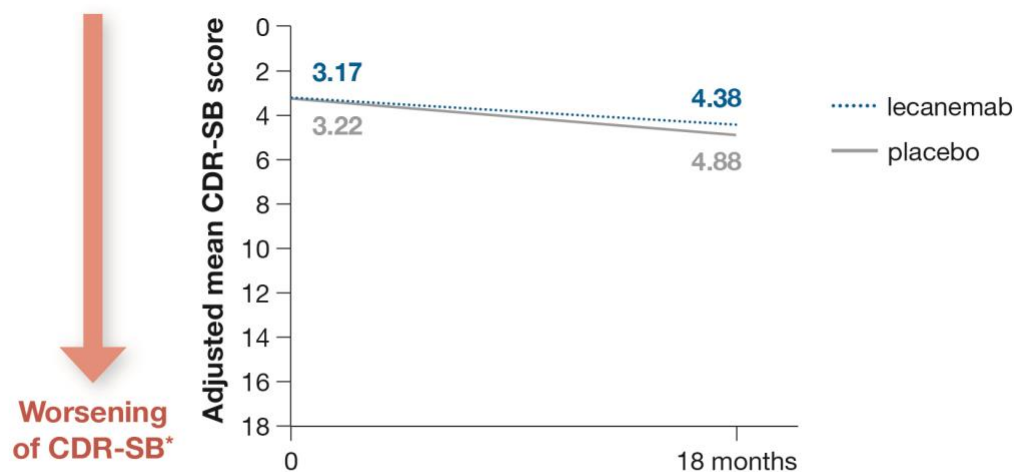
Aducanumab (Aduhelm) is a monoclonal antibody that targets amyloid beta. Two phase III trials, initially terminated in 2019 due to futility, were restarted months later after its manufacturer, Biogen, claimed that analysis of a larger dataset from the trials suggested that the drug reduced clinical decline in patients when they received higher doses. However, aducanumab failed to meet its clinical endpoint in one phase III trial, and in the other, appeared to reduce the rate of decline compared to placebo by 27%. Members of the FDA advisory committee unanimously voted to reject the drug. However, FDA granted it accelerated approval in 2021 based only on the surrogate marker of amyloid level reduction in imaging studies. The approval elicited considerable controversy, especially in view of its initial cost of \$56,000 per year. Based on the absence of clinical benefit, the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid (CMS) and a number of insurers refused to cover the drug outside of FDA or National Institutes of Health (NIH)-approved clinical trials, and use of aducanumab has been negligible. Given its lack of well documented clinical efficacy, the drug is rarely prescribed.

Lecanemab

Another monoclonal antibody, lecanemab (Leqembi), manufactured by Biogen/Esai, targets soluble amyloid-beta protofibrils. The 2023 phase III randomized trial **CLARITY-AD** assessed the safety and

efficacy of lecanemab.²⁰⁷ It included patients aged 50-95 diagnosed with either MCI or mild AD. Amyloid positivity was determined by PET or CSF studies. Patients were administered either lecanemab or placebo intravenously every two weeks for 18 months. The primary clinical endpoint was change in the Clinical Dementia Rating – Sum of Boxes (CDR-SB) score. On this 18-point scale, for which the Minimum Clinically Important Difference (MCID) has been judged to be 0.5 – 2, at 18 months the decline of cognitive performance in patients receiving lecanemab was 0.45 points less than that seen in those given placebo (Figure 10); this was interpreted as a relative 27% reduction in the rate of decline. On the ADAS-Cog-14 scale (MCID ≥ 4), patients receiving lecanemab performed 1.44 points better than those who received placebo at 18 months. Importantly, the drug did not produce an improvement in cognitive functioning; rather, it resulted in a slight slowing of the rate of decline. Lecanemab did, however, significantly reduce amyloid levels compared to placebo.

Figure 10: Change in CDR-SB at 18 months with lecanemab vs. placebo²⁰⁷



*Clinical dementia rating—sum of boxes scale

The clinical significance of a 0.45 reduction in the CDR-SB scale is controversial. Prior studies have indicated that across all stages of AD, on average, a 1 to 2 point decrease in CDR-SB reflects a clinically meaningful change.²⁰⁸ Patients in earlier stages of AD, including MCI, had lower clinically meaningful thresholds. Other studies have defined a difference of at least 0.5 to define a clinically meaningful change.²⁰⁹

In the CLARITY-AD trial, lecanemab was also associated with a substantially higher rate of adverse events. More than 25% of lecanemab patients had infusion-related reactions, 13% had amyloid-related imaging abnormalities (ARIA) with brain effusions and/or edema (ARIA-E), and 14% had ARIA with microhemorrhage and hemosiderosis (ARIA-H). In a pooled analysis of patients with AD treated with anti- β -amyloid ($A\beta$) immunotherapy, 80.4% of patients were asymptomatic, and most symptoms were resolved with dose adjustment or drug cessation.²¹⁰ Subjects who were ApoE $\epsilon 4$ homozygotes were more likely to experience symptomatic ARIA and less likely to derive benefit from lecanemab; a smaller effect was seen in heterozygotes. Three catastrophic cerebral hemorrhages were reported later in patients given lecanemab, raising concerns about the concurrent use of tPA or anticoagulants, and whether the

use of anticoagulants should be a contraindication for lecanemab initiation.²¹¹ Monitoring and management of ARIA is an ongoing area of investigation.

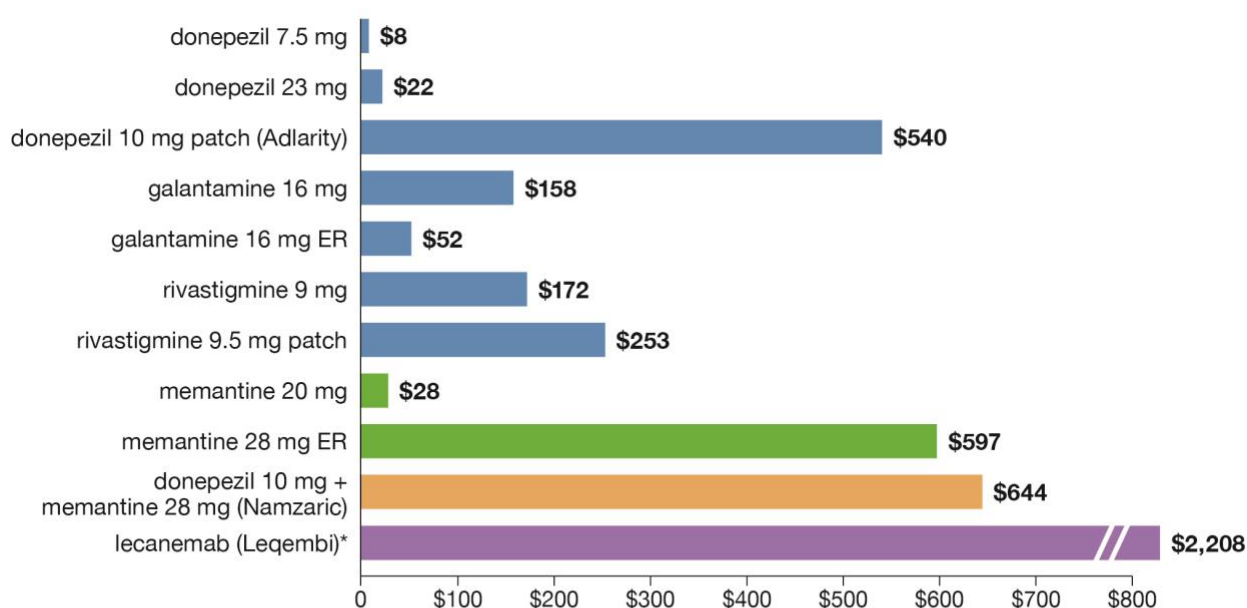
Administration of lecanemab will also require considerable logistical and burdensome steps, including intravenous infusions every two weeks, a PET scan or lumbar puncture to assess brain amyloid levels prior to lecanemab initiation, and regular MRIs to detect ARIA. The current list price of \$26,500 per year for lecanemab does not include the costs of pre-treatment assessment, the biweekly IV infusions, or the required follow-up MRI testing. Patients with more advanced AD may not be eligible for lecanemab, as they were not studied in its pivotal trial and there is no evidence of benefit in this group.

Based on these findings, the FDA granted accelerated approval to lecanemab in January 2023 and will grant full approval in mid-2023. CMS has determined that Medicare will cover amyloid-active drugs such as lecanemab only if a patient is enrolled in research that will collect further data, but this requirement could be met by having a patient enter into a registry.²¹² When lecanemab receives full FDA approval, CMS could also readdress this coverage requirement. The Veterans Affairs Health System has agreed to cover lecanemab based on strict inclusion and exclusion criteria.²¹³ Other payors have not yet made coverage determinations. An open-label phase of the CLARITY-AD trial is ongoing.

Prices of drugs to manage dementia

Based on the World Health Organization Defined Daily Doses (DDD), the price of cholinesterase inhibitors, memantine or the combination of donepezil and memantine are summarized in Figure 11.

Figure 11: Costs of a 30-day supply of medications for dementia



*Monthly price based on annual price released on January 9, 2023 by Eisai/Biogen. Infusion billed through Medicare Part B. Pharmacy prices from goodrx.com, March 2023. Listed doses are based on Defined Daily Doses by the World Health Organization. All doses shown are generics when available, unless otherwise noted. These prices are a guide; patient costs will be subject to copays, rebates, and other incentives. These doses should not be used as a guide for treatment.

Other pharmacological therapies in dementia

A number of other therapies have been suggested for cognitive impairment in dementia, but there is not sufficient evidence to recommend any of them.

Table 11: Other treatments proposed for cognitive impairment

Therapy	Evidence
Vitamin E	Trials investigating vitamin E in patients with MCI and AD have produced mixed results. Some studies suggest that vitamin E 2000 IU/day confers a minimal benefit in delaying functional progression in patients with mild to moderate AD dementia, but other studies found no benefit at this dose in patients with MCI or at a dose of 800 IU/day in patients with mild to moderate AD dementia. ²¹⁴⁻²¹⁷ (Note: high doses of Vitamin E can increase bleeding risk in those on anticoagulants, particularly warfarin.)
HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors (statins)	There is insufficient evidence to recommend statins for reducing the risk of, or for the treatment of, dementia (including AD). Two large studies in patients with mild to moderate AD suggested no benefit. ^{218,219}
Estrogen	A Cochrane review concluded that there is no evidence that estrogen maintains or improves cognitive function in women who already have Alzheimer's disease. ²²⁰ The Women's Health Initiative Memory study found that conjugated equine estrogen (with or without progesterone) in postmenopausal women aged ≥65 years did not improve global cognitive function, or decrease the risk of MCI or dementia, and may actually adversely affect these outcomes. ²²¹⁻²²⁴
NSAIDs	NSAIDs and aspirin are not recommended for the prevention or treatment of Alzheimer's disease. Multiple trials in mild to moderate AD dementia have failed to demonstrate benefit. ²²⁵ Although aspirin is widely prescribed for patients with a diagnosis of vascular dementia, there is no good evidence to support this practice. ²²⁶
Folic acid, vitamin B ₆ and vitamin B ₁₂	Systematic reviews and RCTs have found no evidence that combined treatment with folic acid, vitamin B ₆ and vitamin B ₁₂ has beneficial effects on cognitive function in either healthy people, or in those with cognitive impairment or dementia. ²²⁷⁻²²⁹
Ginkgo biloba	A 2009 Cochrane systematic review and a subsequent trial found no convincing evidence that ginkgo biloba has predictable and clinically significant benefit for patients with dementia or cognitive impairment. ²³⁰ A 6-year RCT with 3,069 people aged ≥75 years with normal cognition or MCI found no advantage of ginkgo biloba over placebo in reducing the incidence of Alzheimer's disease or dementia. ²³¹
Omega-3 fatty acids	Trials of docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) and other omega-3 fatty acids in patients with mild to moderate AD dementia have demonstrated no benefit. ^{232,233,}

Managing dementia

A diagnosis of dementia can induce substantial fear about what the future holds for both patients and their families. Direct but compassionate communication about the diagnosis and what can and cannot be predicted is essential to allay concerns, set realistic expectations, and promote an engaged, safe lifestyle.

Although existing treatments for dementia are far from satisfactory, appropriate use of available interventions can have a substantial positive effect on the well-being of patients.²³⁴ In some cases, this

could mean the difference between the ability to continue living independently and the need for institutional care.

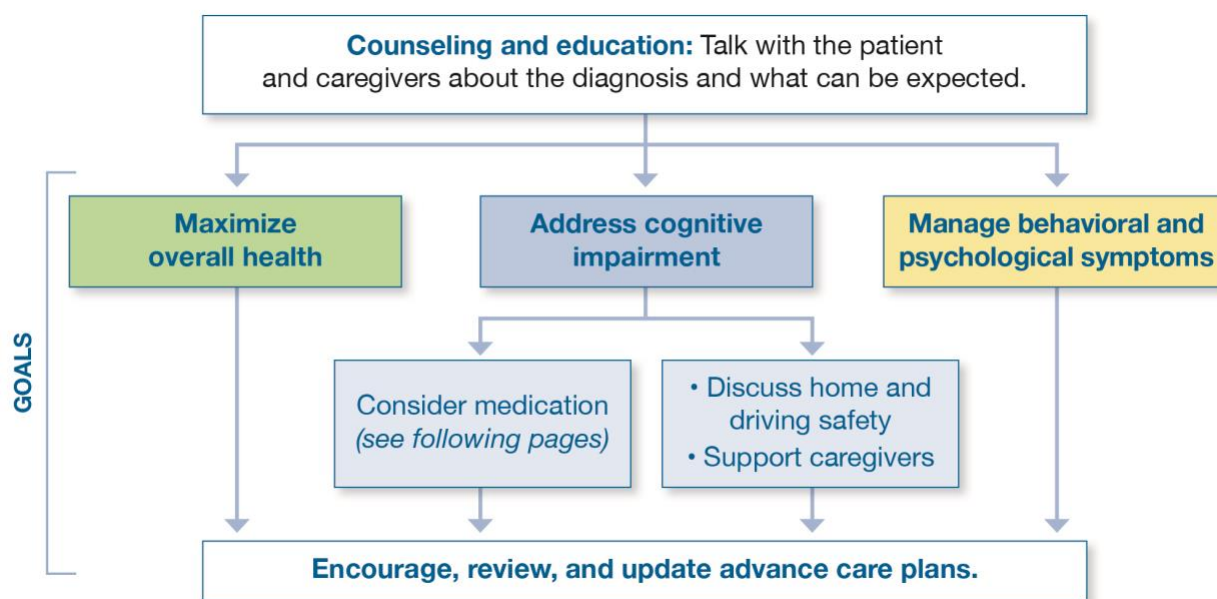
Consultations with medical, neurological, or psychiatric subspecialties may be helpful, depending upon the circumstance. Geriatric psychopharmacologists, geriatric psychiatrists, neuropsychiatrists or behavioral neurologists can provide guidance with respect to the use of medications.

Social workers and nurses with expertise in dementia may be well equipped to offer strategies for dealing with specific or recurrent problematic situations; providing psychotherapy when appropriate; providing guidance about services such as day programs, home services, respite care, and dementia care units; providing guidance about financial and legal planning; and making referrals to community resources. Information and support are also available through non-profit organizations such as the Alzheimer's Association (alz.org), the Association for Frontotemporal Degeneration (theaftd.org), the Lewy Body Dementia Association (lbda.org), CurePSP (psp.org), and other disease-specific groups.

One general approach to managing patients with dementia is Dementia Care Mapping™ (DCM).²³⁵ Developed at the University of Bradford, England, in the 1980s, DCM is a process of continuous quality improvement aimed at improving the quality of person-centered care over time. Caregivers are encouraged to consider care from the point of view of the person living with dementia and to continually monitor the health and wellbeing of patients, changing care dynamically in response to observations and feedback. (For more information see: <https://www.bradford.ac.uk/dementia/training-consultancy/dcm/>)

Managing a patient with dementia requires the clinician to focus on present issues while keeping an eye on preparations for the future (Figure 12). A patient's wishes pertaining to end of life care and surrogate medical and financial decisions should be discussed early on (generally before a moderate stage of dementia is reached) while he or she has the capacity to make informed decisions in these areas, (see section on advance care planning below). Legal consultation with an elder law attorney may be appropriate, particularly for patients who have shared assets with a living spouse or partner.

Figure 12: A framework for management



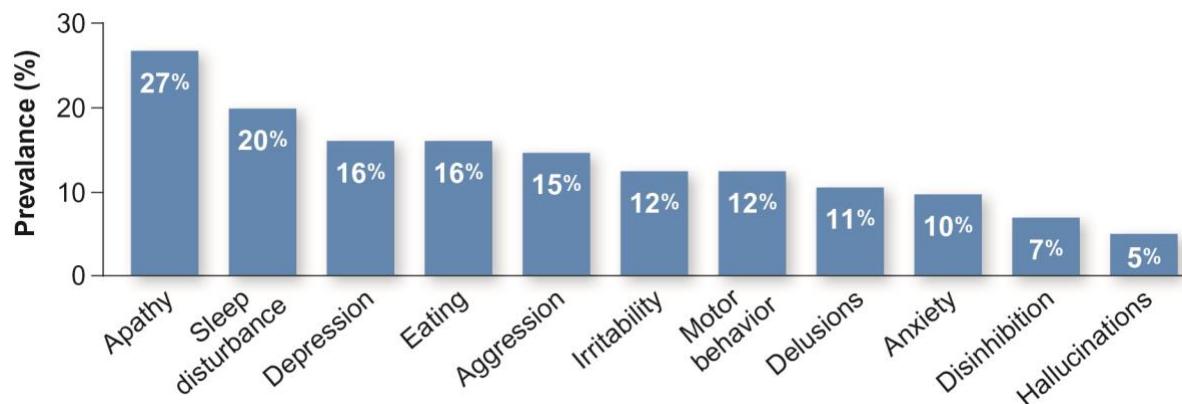
BOTTOM LINE: Cholinesterase inhibitors (for patients with mild, moderate, or severe dementia) and memantine (for those with moderate or severe dementia) offer on average only small benefit of equivocal clinical significance. Side effects with both drugs are common (although generally less severe with memantine). Therefore, start with a low dose and titrate according to package inserts. Reassess at 3-6 months to determine if risk-benefit relationship warrants continued treatment and discontinue therapy if no ongoing benefit is evident.

The use of monoclonal antibody medications is evolving but has only been studied in patients with MCI or mild AD. The patient burden is substantial in terms of the need for pre-treatment lumbar puncture or PET scan, every-two-week IV infusion for the duration of treatment, and repeated follow-up MRI scans throughout treatment to detect brain swelling or hemorrhage. Frequent infusion-related symptoms occur.

Managing BPSD

Dementia is sometimes accompanied by symptoms such as yelling, physical aggression, apathy, hostility, sexual disinhibition, defiance, wandering, psychotic symptoms (hallucinations or delusions), emotional lability, and paranoid ideation and behavior.^{236,237} In a cohort study of community-dwelling adults with dementia, 61% engaged in at least one neuropsychiatric disturbance and 32% had moderate-to-severe disturbance at some point during their illness.²³⁸ Higher rates of BPSD (i.e., 50%–80%) have been reported among residents of nursing care facilities.²³⁹

Figure 13: Prevalence of BPSD symptoms among patients with dementia from Cache County Study (n=362)²⁴⁰



Many medications have been prescribed to help manage real or perceived behavioral problems in elderly patients; these include antidepressants, benzodiazepines, and antipsychotic medications (APMs). Since at least the 1980s, however, the widespread use of APMs to manage behavioral problems has been questioned because of evidence that APMs offer minimal benefits as chronic treatment for behavioral problems, while posing significant risks including extrapyramidal symptoms, metabolic derangements, cardiac events, pneumonia, stroke, and death.²⁴¹⁻²⁴⁵ Non-drug strategies can often effectively address many behavioral issues with far fewer risks than drugs. In specific clinical circumstances, APMs may have

a limited role, but such instances are far less common than would justify the current high levels of use. During the initial months of the COVID-19 pandemic, APM prescribing increased in at least six countries and did not decrease to pre-pandemic levels after the acute phase of the pandemic had ended. The use of APMs in the U.S. is in the approximate average of the countries studied.²⁴⁶

BPSD overview

BPSD can range from behaviors that are merely annoying to those that endanger the patient and/or others. Apathy, depression, and aggression are most common, followed (in descending order) by sleep disturbances, anxiety, delusions, and hallucinations.^{238,247} The symptoms with the greatest potential for harm are aggression, psychosis, and mood disorders.²³⁸ (Note: the term “agitation,” while occasionally used to describe some of these symptoms, is non-specific and is rarely helpful in creating a treatment plan, and the term “psychosis” should not be seen as parallel to the symptoms of schizophrenia, which can appropriately be managed with antipsychotic medications.) This set of symptoms is often used as a single primary outcome measure in clinical trials. As a result, the efficacy of therapies for specific symptoms in AD can be difficult to determine.²³⁸

Some BPSD symptoms fluctuate over the course of dementia, while others are more persistent. One study of patients with mild AD found that wandering and purposeless/inappropriate activities persisted or increased in severity over two years in about 85% of patients who had these symptoms at baseline, while paranoid ideation persisted in approximately 66% of patients.²⁴⁷ Hallucinations and depressive symptoms were the least persistent symptoms: less than half of the patients with depressive symptoms still had the symptoms one year later. Depressive symptoms often occur in the early stages of dementia; as dementia progresses, other behavioral and psychological symptoms often come to predominate.

BPSD can sometimes be difficult to differentiate from delirium, which can cause similar symptoms but generally has an abrupt onset with time-limited symptoms characterized by incoherent and disorganized speech (Table 12).²⁴⁸

Table 12: Differentiating delirium from BPSD²⁴⁸

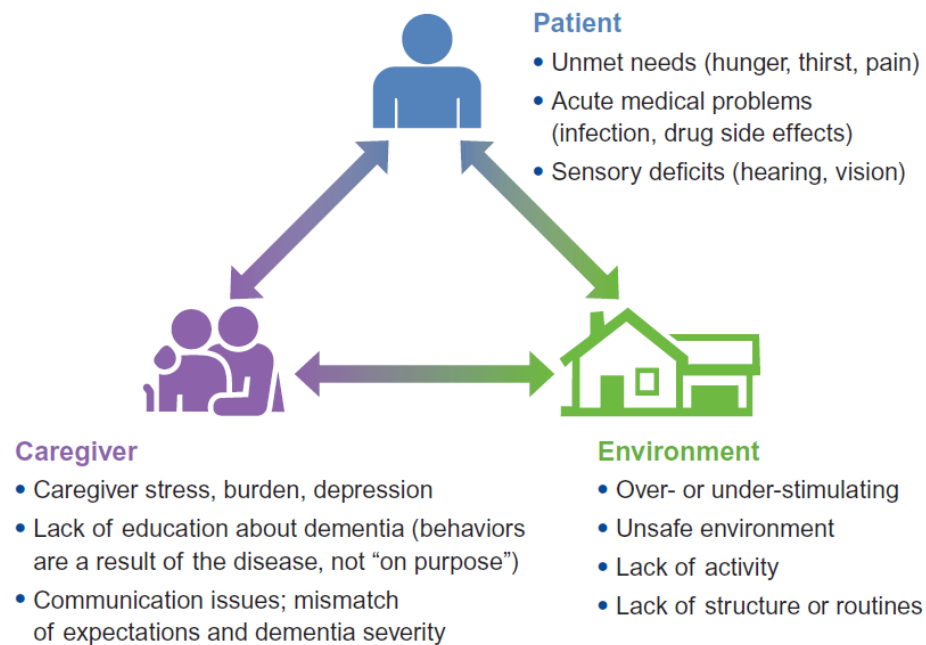
	Delirium	Dementia
Onset	Abrupt, although initial loss of mental clarity can be subtle	Insidious and progressive
Duration	Hours to days (although it can be prolonged in some cases)	Months to years
Attention	Reduced ability to focus, sustain, or shift attention is a hallmark feature that occurs early in presentation	Normal except in severe dementia
Consciousness (i.e., awareness of the environment)	Fluctuating (thus assessment at multiple time points is necessary); reduced level of consciousness and impaired orientation.	Generally intact
Speech	Incoherent and disorganized; distractible in conversation	Ordered, but development of anomia or aphasia is possible
Cause	Underlying medical condition, substance intoxication, or side effect of drugs	Underlying neurological process (e.g., amyloid plaque accumulation in Alzheimer's disease)
Other features	Hyperactive, hypoactive, and mixed forms, as determined by the type of psychomotor disturbance, are possible; disruption in sleep duration and architecture; perceptual disturbances	Symptoms vary depending on underlying pathology (e.g., fluctuations in cognition are a feature of Lewy body dementia)

Acute vs. non-acute BPSD

Management of BPSD should be based on the characteristics and severity of the symptoms. Therefore, it is helpful to differentiate between two broad classes of BPSD: acute and non-acute. People with acute BPSD are in severe distress, may pose an imminent danger to themselves or others, or have severely disruptive or dangerous behaviors. People with non-acute BPSD do not have symptoms that rise to this level of urgency. Instead, their symptoms may be inconvenient or annoying, may disrupt their functioning, or otherwise may erode quality of life. Non-acute BPSD calls for a different clinical and behavioral approach than acute BPSD, using a different range and ordering of therapeutic options. APMs may sometimes be needed for management of crises caused by acute BPSD but are seldom appropriate for the ongoing management of non-acute BPSD.

One approach to handling patients with identified BPSD is “describe, investigate, create, and evaluate” (DICE). This approach was developed by a multidisciplinary panel of dementia care experts organized by the University of Michigan Program for Positive Aging to address interlinked risk factors at the level of patients, caregivers, and the environment (Figure 14).^{249,250}

Figure 14: Factors addressed in the DICE model²⁴⁹



Step 1: Describe. Elicit a thorough description of symptoms and the context in which they occur from caregivers and the person with dementia (if possible). Note possible antecedents or triggers, the symptoms that are most distressing or problematic, and treatment goals. (Note: if the situation poses a safety risk, consider psychotropic drug use to reduce harm and allow for a full description of behavior.)

Step 2: Investigate. Search for potentially modifiable underlying causes of BPSD including clinical conditions, drug adverse effects, psychological issues, and environmental stressors. Include an evaluation of the caregiver’s relationship with the person with dementia, their communication styles, expectations, their estimations of the patient’s abilities, and their level of stress. As above, if the situation poses a safety risk, consider psychotropic drug use to reduce harm and allow for a full description of behavior.

Step 3: Create. Create and implement a treatment plan that targets identified causes with non-pharmacologic approaches and, if appropriate, pharmacological approaches. Include the person with dementia, if possible, in the plan creation, as well as caregivers.

Step 4: Evaluate. Assess whether the treatment plan was implemented effectively, whether targeted symptoms improved, whether the patient’s and caregiver’s distress were reduced, and whether there were any unintended consequences to any elements of the plan. Assessment should be ongoing, and if psychotropic drugs were prescribed, evaluate whether a dose reduction or discontinuation is possible.

Identifying potentially reversible triggers can be challenging if the patient’s cognitive impairment is severe. Family and caregivers may be able to help by describing the patient’s routine and normal level of functioning.

Adverse drug effects

Adverse drug effects are one of the most common reversible conditions in geriatric medicine, and many medications routinely used by older adults can cause or worsen behavioral and psychological problems. For example, anticholinergic agents used for a variety of indications can increase the risk of visual hallucinations, agitation, irritability, delirium, and aggressiveness. Psychotropics, such as benzodiazepines, can impair cognition, be disinhibiting, and may contribute to gait instability and falls. Identifying possible drug-related triggers for BPSD presents an opportunity to effect a cure by stopping the offending drug or lowering the dose. This has led to the recommendation that “any new symptom in an older patient should be considered a possible drug side effect until proven otherwise.”²⁵¹

BOTTOM LINE: Manage BPSD based on the characteristics and severity of the symptoms. People with *acute* BPSD are in severe distress, pose an imminent danger to themselves or others, or have severely disruptive or dangerous behaviors. People with *non-acute* BPSD do not pose an emergency situation, although their symptoms may be inconvenient, may disrupt their functioning, or otherwise may diminish quality of life. Non-acute BPSD calls for a different clinical and behavioral approach than acute BPSD, using a different range or ordering of therapeutic options.

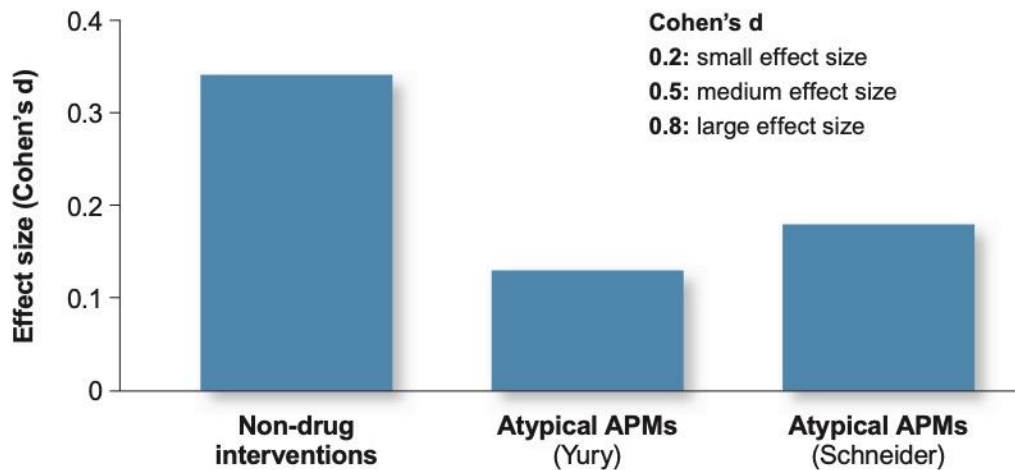
Non-drug management strategies

Non-drug management of BPSD can often produce equivalent outcomes, in a much shorter time, and at less risk than drug treatment, and is thus the first choice for managing behavior problems.²⁵² Although some studies of non-drug interventions are relatively small, un-controlled, or non-randomized, the evidence supporting the efficacy of non-pharmacological interventions is broad. In part, the weakness of non-drug studies may reflect the relative lack of research funding for non-drug vs. pharmacologic interventions. In addition, many of the methodologies used in drug testing (e.g., blinding and random assignment) are more challenging in studies that test the efficacy of non-drug interventions. Many trials also use combinations of specific strategies, which can make it difficult to assess the quality of evidence for individual non-pharmacological interventions.

Dementia care management is a collaborative care model integrating multi-professional and multimodal strategies to improve outcomes for dementia patients and caregivers including medication management and caregiver support and education. A meta-analysis of 13 trials evaluating the dementia care management model suggested some short-term improvements in patient and caregiver outcomes although the trials were too heterogeneous to allow strong conclusions.²⁵³ A cluster randomized trial of general practices in Germany (n=634) found that a dementia care management approach reduced neuropsychiatric symptoms and modestly reduced caregiver burden after one year of follow-up.²⁵⁴

Effect sizes in studies of non-pharmacologic interventions tend to be modest, although the same is true for effect sizes generally found in studies of the efficacy of APMs. Sometimes effect sizes for non-pharmacologic interventions are higher than those typical of drug studies. For example, a meta-analysis of 13 non-drug interventions for BPSD by Brodaty et al. found a pooled-estimate standardized effect size of 0.34 (95% CI: 0.04–0.26; P=0.006).²⁵² This compares with a net effect size of 0.13 from a 2007 meta-analysis of studies comparing atypical APMs to placebo, and an effect size of 0.18 in a 2006 meta-analysis of APMs in the treatment of BPSD (Figure 15).^{255,256}

Figure 15: Comparison of effect sizes for non-drug and drug interventions for BPSD^{252,255,256}



Non-pharmacological interventions can target patients themselves, or those who care for them. Both types of interventions may reduce the incidence of BPSD and/or reduce caregiver burden. Interventions generally fall into three broad categories:

1. **Unmet needs interventions** assume that BPSD may sometimes represent a form of communication about an underlying need, such as for stimulation (e.g., repetitive speech or calling out as an expression of a need for auditory stimulation). Symptoms may also be a response to inadequately treated pain, other discomfort, or isolation.
2. **Learning and behavioral interventions** address the possibility that BPSD may be the product of unintentional reinforcement (e.g., a patient with dementia learns that he or she can get attention by screaming).
3. **Environmental vulnerability and reduced stress-threshold interventions** assume that some behavior problems result from a mismatch between the person's environment and their abilities to cope with the situation (e.g., a nursing home resident becomes agitated by too much noise or loud music).

Behaviors likely to respond to non-pharmacological interventions include: aggression, disruption, shadowing, depression, and repetitive behaviors. Non-pharmacologic interventions should be matched to the specific needs and capabilities of the patient, and they can be used concurrently with any medications that might be employed.²⁵⁷⁻²⁵⁹

Table 13: Evidence supporting non-pharmacological strategies for BPSD

Interventions supported by large, randomized or controlled clinical trials	
Staff or caregiver training/education programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education in geriatric psychopharmacology for nursing home staff with goal of avoiding unnecessary psychoactive medications²⁶⁰ • Planning activities with caregivers for their care recipients^{252,261} • Modifying care recipient's physical and social environment (e.g., removing clutter, removing hazards, organizing, task simplification)^{262,263} • Interdisciplinary skills training for nursing home staff²⁶⁴
Potentially helpful interventions supported by evidence from small, uncontrolled studies	
Environmental modifications ^{265,266}	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support normal sleep/wake cycles • Structure activities to reduce boredom • Reduce unnecessary stimulation • Create home-like environment
Music therapy ²⁶⁷	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Receptive music therapy (listening to music by a therapist who sings or selects recorded music for the recipients) • Active music therapy (recipients engage in music-making by playing small instruments, with possible encouragement to improvise with instruments, voice, or dance.) Also: music played when doing routine daily care, etc.
Bright light therapy ²⁶⁸	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exposure to simulated or natural lighting to promote circadian rhythm synchronization
Aromatherapy ²⁶⁹	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of plant and herb-based essential oils (indirect inhalation via room diffuser, direct inhalation, aromatherapy massage, or applying essential oils to the skin)
Exercise plus caregiver training behavior modification ²⁷⁰	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Home-based exercise program combined with caregiver training in behavioral management techniques
Pet therapy ^{268,271}	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Several small studies suggest that the presence of a dog may reduce aggression and agitation and promote social behavior in people with dementia

As disease progresses, patients with AD and related dementia typically have greater difficulty communicating with others. Here are some recommendations for communication strategies that may help prevent BPSD or help calm a patient in distress:²⁴⁹

- identify yourself and others if the patient does not remember
- explain what is happening, when it is happening, one step at a time
- use calm, reassuring tones
- ensure you can be heard
- avoid negative words and tone
- ask one thing at a time
- speak slowly
- allow the patient sufficient time to respond
- offer simple choices

- help the patient find words for self-expression, and confirm your own understanding of what has been said
- lightly touch to reassure, calm, or redirect
- use relaxing sensory stimuli, such as music or soft lighting if they enjoy it
- take time and allow silence, so the patient can process information

Management of physiological factors

A number of common though often–overlooked physiological factors may play a primary or contributing role in BPSD, and these should be explored whenever feasible before pharmacological interventions are attempted:²⁷²

- symptoms resulting from conditions such as
 - pain
 - constipation
 - nocturia
 - hunger or thirst
 - dehydration
- medical conditions such as
 - urinary tract infections
 - alcohol or substance misuse
 - hyponatremia
 - hyper– or hypothyroidism
 - hypercalcemia
 - vitamin B₁₂ or folic acid deficiency

Dietary and eating–related issues should be carefully assessed. An inability to chew properly or swallow easily can increase agitation, and therefore a patient’s dental integrity, use of dentures, and swallowing ability should be assessed. If a patient’s appetite or cycle of hunger/satiety is not synchronized with the timing of meals provided, consider options to individualize the availability of food and/or food choice. Difficulty preparing or eating meals, confusion about mealtimes, apathy, agitation, and paranoid ideation about food and fluids may all contribute to weight loss, which is common in patients with dementia. Avoiding alcohol and caffeine can promote good sleep hygiene.

Environmental strategies

Behavioral and psychological symptoms are often understandable responses to a wide range of factors that make life uncomfortable, frightening, worrisome, irritating, or boring for people with dementia. Paying close attention to such environmental factors, and eliminating or correcting them, should be the first priority for caregivers, whether in a home or an institution.²⁷² This requires patience, diligence, and a willingness to see the world through the eyes and other senses of the person whose behaviors are difficult. Because sensory deficits are common in older adults, and because vision and hearing deficits can increase fearfulness, anxiety, and agitation, any patient with non–acute BPSD should be assessed for these deficits. If present, these deficits should be corrected promptly with glasses, improved lighting, magnifying devices, hearing aids, or other approaches.

Other environmental factors that can worsen BPSD include: temperature (too hot or too cold), noise (in or outside the room or dwelling unit), lighting (too much, too little, or quality), unfamiliarity (new people, new furniture, new surroundings), disrupted routines, needing assistance but not knowing how to ask, being

uncomfortable from sitting or lying in one position for too long, or inability to communicate easily because of language or speech difficulties.

Management of psychological factors

Patients with BPSD may benefit from psychological interventions such as individual, family, or group psychotherapy, depending on their level of cognitive functioning. Such interventions may help patients understand or express their feelings, correct or address cognitive errors or maladaptive thinking patterns, and suggest practical steps for changing behaviors or responses to different situations.

BOTTOM LINE: Use non-drug interventions first for managing non-acute BPSD: focus on identifying and correcting any reversible environmental, psychological, or physiological factors that might be causing or contributing to symptoms, and then try specific approaches shown to be potentially helpful in addressing BPSD.

Pharmacologic management of BPSD

The evidence base for drug treatment of BPSD is generally modest, and no medications are FDA-approved for these indications.²⁷³⁻²⁷⁵ One medication, brexpiprazole, received priority review from the FDA in January 2023 and in early 2023 was still being evaluated by the FDA for approval. Without guidance from large, randomized trials, medication use for BPSD has evolved anecdotally based on clinicians using many classes of medications off-label including pain medications, cholinesterase inhibitors, NMDA modulators, antidepressants, anticonvulsants, dextromethorphan-quinidine, anxiolytics, and antipsychotics.

In evaluating the evidence base for pharmacologic treatments for BPSD it is helpful to remember that the minimal clinically important difference for scores on the Neuropsychiatric Inventory (NPI), a commonly used metric, is a 4-point or more reduction on a 0-144 scale (lower scores represent better functioning/behavior).

If BPSD is not disruptive, dangerous, or distressing to the patient or caregiver (i.e., the patient has non-acute BPSD), medications are usually not warranted, although they may be indicated for non-BPSD symptoms such as depression, anxiety, or psychosis. If a medication must be used, it is critical to focus on one or more specific target symptoms. This kind of focus can provide a clear basis for ongoing monitoring and symptom re-evaluation.

Pharmacologic interventions are generally **not** warranted to address behaviors such as:

- wandering
- unsociability
- poor self-care
- restlessness
- nervousness
- fidgeting
- hoarding
- sexual disinhibition, if non-aggressive
- “sundowning” (increased confusion and restlessness in early evening)
- shadowing (constantly following or mimicking caregivers)

- uncooperativeness without aggressive behavior
- inattention or indifference to surroundings

Given the inherent difficulty of determining efficacy if multiple medications are used to address a given condition, any trial of a medication for BPSD should be completed with a single medication whenever possible. If the single medication works poorly, it should be discontinued after an adequate trial period, and an alternative medication should be initiated. Assess suboptimal responses to determine whether the partial effect was due to developments other than the medication (e.g., a change in clinical status); do not automatically assume that the medication should be continued and/or another medication added for additional effect. Before any medication is administered, inform patients (as feasible), family members, and/or caregivers of the possible risks of pharmacotherapy.

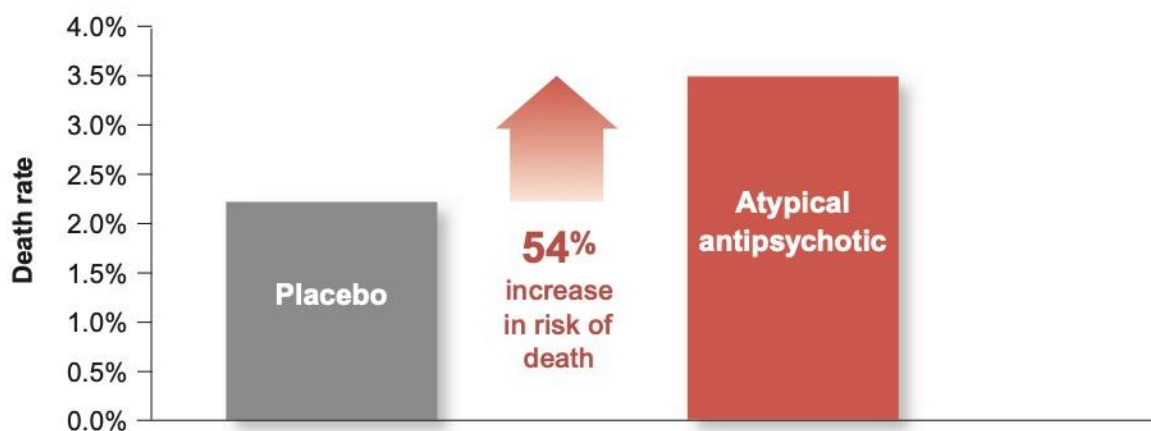
Psychotropic medications traditionally used for BPSD may cause a variety of serious adverse effects including confusion, falls, fractures, delirium, and over-sedation. Elderly patients are particularly vulnerable to injury from psychotropic medications because of slower metabolic clearance, increased central nervous system sensitivity, and reduced physiologic reserve. In older patients, start with low doses of the medications and titrate to a minimal effective dose to reduce the likelihood of adverse events.

After starting a medication, monitor patients closely for both adverse effects and drug–drug interactions. If a medication is successful in addressing a specific target symptom, reassess the patient regularly and adjust dose accordingly. Behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia are subject to remission on their own, and patients may not need these medications for long periods, even if successful.

Antipsychotic medications

Antipsychotic medications (APMs) should be avoided in patients with non–acute BPSD until other medications have been tried. They have minimal efficacy for the symptoms typical of non–acute BPSD and have a relatively high risk of side effects, including stroke and death.

Figure 16: Meta-analysis of 15 RCTs shows atypical APMs increase mortality risk at 12 weeks²⁴¹



No APMs are currently approved in the U.S. for BPSD, despite at least 17 randomized controlled trials, most of them unpublished, that sought evidence of effectiveness for this indication.²⁵⁵ Meta–analyses of these studies has indicated limited efficacy and significant potential for harm from side effects.²⁷⁶ A recent

Cochrane review found some evidence that typical APMs might decrease agitation and psychosis slightly and that atypical APMs reduce agitation slightly.²⁷⁷ However, the authors concluded that the apparent effectiveness of the drugs may be explained by the natural course of BPSD; simple sedation may also account for some of their observed effects. A 2018 Cochrane review found low-quality evidence that discontinuation of antipsychotics seemed to have little or no important effect on BPSD, which the authors surmised may be because most BPSD are intermittent and do not usually persist for more than three months.²⁷⁸ Thus, although APMs may help control acute BPSD in certain patients, they must always be used carefully.

Use APMs simultaneously with behavioral treatments, and only if potentially reversible or remediable causes have been ruled out. Indications include:

- physically aggressive or violent behavior that poses a danger to the patient or others
- hallucinations or delusions that are distressing to the patient, lead to dangerous behavior, or significantly impair normal functioning

If an APM is necessary, first try oral medication if the patient will accept it. Aripiprazole and risperidone may provide modest benefit, but other APMs have questionable benefits and/or greater risks.²⁴⁹ In a non-cooperative agitated patient with acute BPSD, a parenteral agent may be indicated. Haloperidol may be used in an emergency situation, but it should not be used long-term.²⁰⁰

Typical antipsychotics

Reviews and meta-analyses of clinical trials involving typical antipsychotics (e.g., haloperidol, thioridazine, and chlorpromazine) in the management of BPSD found modest improvement in aggression over 3-8 weeks of treatment compared to placebo.^{200,279-281} No consistent evidence shows that any one typical antipsychotic is more effective than another,²⁸⁰ and there are insufficient data to draw conclusions about the efficacy of typical vs. atypical antipsychotics for BPSD.²⁸²

Discontinuation rates due to adverse effects were significantly higher with typical antipsychotics than with placebo,²⁸⁰ and the troublesome adverse effects associated with typical antipsychotics (e.g., extrapyramidal side effects) limit their usefulness. Stroke risk also may be higher with typical antipsychotics compared to atypical antipsychotics.²⁸³ Importantly, recent studies show that haloperidol use is associated with a 50-100% higher risk of death compared to other antipsychotics.²⁴⁵ Chlorpromazine is no longer recommended for intramuscular treatment in emergencies with aggressive psychotic patients due to its risk of inducing severe hypotension.²⁸⁴

Atypical antipsychotics

The evidence base for the effectiveness of atypical antipsychotics for BPSD is generally weak, but at least some degree of confidence in efficacy exists for aripiprazole (Abilify) and risperidone (Risperdal), whereas olanzapine (Zyprexa) and quetiapine (Seroquel) were not found effective in meta-analyses of their various published and unpublished trials.^{190,255,285,286}

The **Clinical Antipsychotic Trials of Intervention Effectiveness-Alzheimer's Disease (CATIE-AD)** study compared the effect of atypical antipsychotic drugs (olanzapine, risperidone, or quetiapine considered together as a group) vs. placebo in 421 outpatients with AD on psychiatric and behavioral symptoms, functional abilities, cognition, care needs, and quality of life over 12 weeks.²⁸⁷ There were no significant differences between the antipsychotic and placebo groups in measures of cognition, functional

skills, care needs, or quality of life, except for worsening of functional skills in the olanzapine treatment group compared to placebo.²⁸⁷

The atypical antipsychotic pimavanserin (Nuplazid) may alleviate symptoms of Parkinson's disease psychosis without worsening motor symptoms because it acts on serotonin 5HT_{2A} receptors with no appreciable affinity for dopaminergic receptors.²⁸⁸ The 2021 **HARMONY** trial employed an open label phase for 12 weeks of pimavanserin in patients who have psychosis with AD, Parkinson's disease dementia, dementia with Lewy bodies, frontotemporal dementia, or vascular dementia.²⁸⁹ Following the open-label phase, those who had a reduction from baseline of at least 30% in the psychosis score were then randomly assigned to pimavanserin or placebo for up to 26 weeks. The rate of relapse of psychosis was lower in the pimavanserin vs. placebo groups (13% vs. 28%, respectively). However, the effect was driven largely by those with Parkinson's disease dementia, and adverse events were more frequent in the pimavanserin group. The FDA has not yet approved pimavanserin for dementia-related psychosis.

Withdrawal of antipsychotics

Antipsychotics should be tapered slowly to minimize the risk of a withdrawal syndrome (unless significant adverse effects or a drug interaction necessitates abrupt cessation). A reduction in antipsychotic dose by 25–50% every two weeks and ceasing after two weeks on the minimum dose is generally recommended. Close attention should be paid to behavior in response to reducing doses since as previously noted one study of patients with AD showed an increased risk of relapse of psychosis and agitation when risperidone was discontinued.²⁷⁴

Steps for responsible APM prescribing when it is required:

1. Identify and document the behavior being targeted (e.g., physically aggressive behavior, hallucinations, etc.).
2. Start a trial of APM for a limited duration (e.g., 4 weeks).
3. Start at the lowest dose and gradually titrate to response while monitoring side effects.

Drug	Starting dose	Maximum dose
aripiprazole	2–5 mg	15 mg
olanzapine	1.25–5 mg	10 mg
quetiapine	12.5–25 mg	300 mg
risperidone	0.25–0.5 mg	2 mg
paliperidone	1.5 mg	3–6 mg

4. Evaluate the drug effect on the targeted behavior and discontinue if efficacy is weak or side effects are problematic.
5. Attempt gradual dose reduction while monitoring for recurrence of BPSD symptoms.

BOTTOM LINE: Due to their substantial risks and weak evidence base for efficacy, APMs should be used rarely and with considerable caution for non-acute BPSD. APMs may, however, be required to control acute episodes of aggression, self-harm, or dangerous psychotic symptoms.

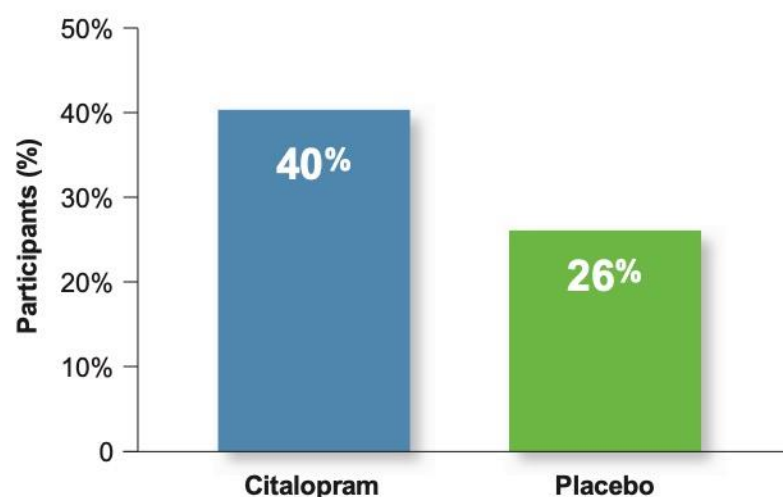
The best evidence of efficacy is for aripiprazole and risperidone, depending on the symptom being targeted. None are FDA-approved for this indication, and the benefits of treating the symptom should outweigh the well-established risks, including mortality.

Antidepressants

Up to 40% of patients with dementia have substantial depressive symptoms at some stage of their illness, and some of the symptoms of depression (e.g., irritability, sleep disturbances) overlap with those of BPSD.²⁷³ Alleviating depression in patients with dementia has been reported to lessen behavior disturbances, improve activities of daily living, and reduce caregiver distress, although study results are mixed and effect sizes are small.²⁴⁰ Recent systematic reviews found that evidence is of variable quality and does not provide strong support for the efficacy of antidepressants for treating depression in dementia.^{290,291}

However, there is some evidence to suggest that antidepressants may be helpful for non-depression BPSD.²⁷⁵ Antidepressants may be a reasonable choice for treating symptoms of non-acute BPSD. Among the classes of antidepressants, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) have been the most widely studied. A Cochrane review of antidepressants for BPSD found modest evidence for efficacy and tolerability with certain agents.²⁹² In two studies, the SSRIs sertraline and citalopram reduced symptoms of agitation compared to placebo. A trial randomized 186 patients with AD and significant agitation to citalopram 30 mg or placebo for nine weeks. Improved scores on the modified Alzheimer's Disease Cooperative Study-Clinical Global Impression of Change (mADCS-CGIC) scale showed that 40% of patients on citalopram compared to 26% of patients on placebo had moderate or marked improvement in severity of agitation in AD (Figure 17). Weighing against this improvement in the citalopram group were a modest impairment of cognition (-1.05 points on MMSE; $P=0.03$) and QTc prolongation (18.1 msec; $P=0.01$) (Figure 17).²⁹³

Figure 17: Participants with AD and moderate or marked improvement in agitation (mADCS-CGIC)
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Sertraline and citalopram appear to be tolerated reasonably well compared to placebo or antipsychotics.²⁹² Another review assessed 19 trials of antidepressants (including eleven trials with SSRIs

and three trials with trazodone) for the treatment of BPSD. Effectiveness was demonstrated in 11 of the 19 trials and these agents were well-tolerated in 14 of the trials.²⁷⁵ A 12-week randomized controlled trial in non-depressed patients with dementia showed that the SSRI citalopram was as effective as the antipsychotic risperidone in decreasing “psychosis” and agitation, with a better side effect profile.²⁹⁴

Citalopram now carries a warning about QTc prolongation and the maximum dose recommended was reduced to 40 mg (20 mg in older adults).²⁹⁵ Its S-isomer, escitalopram, did not produce this abnormality and is therefore the preferred form of this drug, although no trial has evaluated escitalopram in patients with BPSD.

A Cochrane review of two small trials of trazodone found that it was not more effective compared with placebo in controlling BPSD.²⁹⁶ Another small randomized controlled trial compared the SSRI fluvoxamine and risperidone (n=60).²⁹⁷ The medications were equally effective but the side effects were less severe with fluvoxamine and there was one sudden death on risperidone (probably due to a myocardial infarction). Small trials of other SSRIs, including fluoxetine and paroxetine, for BPSD found minimal evidence that the drugs were better than placebo.²⁹⁸⁻³⁰⁰

It may be prudent to consider one or two trials of either sertraline or escitalopram for non-acute BPSD, even in the absence of overt symptoms of depression, before proceeding to other medication options. In using these drugs, it is important to be alert to the possibility of SSRI-induced adverse effects including:

- syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone (SIADH) secretion leading to hyponatremia, which is more common in elderly patients, especially those taking a thiazide diuretic^{301,302}
- increased risk of upper GI bleeding in patients with other risk factors such as concurrent use of NSAIDs, anticoagulants, and antiplatelet agents³⁰³
- significantly increased risk of falling and resulting fracture³⁰⁴

BOTTOM LINE: The antidepressants escitalopram and sertraline appear to provide the most favorable risk-benefit profile for addressing non-acute BPSD, though not specifically for depression. One or two trials of these medications should be the first-line approach after non-drug strategies have been tried. Before prescribing an SSRI for BPSD, rule out hyponatremia, review medications, and check for a history of GI bleeding.

Other pharmacological options for BPSD

Benzodiazepines and similar drugs

Avoid the long-term use of benzodiazepines and similar-acting medications (e.g., zolpidem) in the treatment of both acute and non-acute BPSD, because the risks of these agents may outweigh their benefits in patients over 60.³⁰⁵ They may cause or exacerbate a range of problems including:^{305,306,}

- cognitive impairment
- rebound insomnia (i.e., if taken as needed, patients sleep worse on the nights that they omit it than if they had taken placebo)³⁰⁷
- falls
- accidents
- paradoxical agitation
- physical dependence with regular use³⁰⁸

- aspiration and its consequences
- death³⁰⁹

A low-dose short-acting benzodiazepine can be considered for specific anxiety-provoking activities (e.g., bathing).

Pain medications

Randomized controlled trials have shown that daily pain assessment and a step-wise approach to the use of pain medications may reduce BPSD in patients with moderate to severe dementia in nursing homes.^{310,311} A 2011 study of 352 nursing home residents cluster randomized to a stepwise pain treatment protocol including acetaminophen and opioid analgesics reduced agitation by 17% compared to control, with no difference in functional status and cognition, over an 8-week trial.³¹⁰ A 2022 Cochrane review, however, found no clear evidence of benefit in an algorithm-based pain management intervention compared to pain education for reducing pain intensity or challenging behavior,³¹² and since publication of the 2011 trial understanding has grown about the risks of opioid use.

Cholinesterase inhibitors and memantine

Although some studies of cholinesterase inhibitors and memantine have found small, statistically significant beneficial effects on BPSD as measured by the NPI and other scales, the clinical significance of these changes is unclear. A 2008 meta-analysis found that treatment of BPSD with cholinesterase inhibitors produced only a very modest benefit limited to patients with mild AD (NPI: -1.92 points [MCID ≥ 4] in patients with mild AD vs. -0.06 points in patients with severe AD).³¹³ An updated 2015 review found a small improvement in NPI scores, but also significantly higher study drop-out due to adverse effects.³¹⁴ In patients with mild to moderate vascular dementia, cholinesterase inhibitors showed no behavioral or functional benefits, except for a minimal difference on the Alzheimer's Disease Functional Assessment and Change Scale.³¹⁵ Rivastigmine may modestly improve BPSD (in particular visual hallucinations) in patients with dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB).³¹⁶

The situation for memantine is similar. A 2008 post-hoc pooled analysis of six RCTs of patients with moderate to severe AD found small but statistically significant beneficial effects of memantine on the NPI in treatment and prevention of symptoms such as delusions, hallucinations, disinhibition, irritability, agitation, and aggression.³¹⁷ Another pooled analysis of three RCTs showed similar results.³¹⁸ However, these effects were so small as to be not considered clinically meaningful.²⁸⁰

If a patient is undergoing a trial of a cholinesterase inhibitor or memantine for cognitive impairment, wait whenever possible to see if this will be helpful for the BPSD before starting another medication.

Dextromethorphan-quinidine (Nuedexta)

Nuedexta is a patented combination of two old components: dextromethorphan, (the d-isomer of a sedating semisynthetic morphine derivative) and quinidine (an antiarrhythmic that can cause potentially dangerous QTc prolongation). (Note: this combination is *not* FDA-approved for the treatment of BPSD, and is instead FDA-approved for pseudobulbar affect, a condition of emotional lability associated with neurologic conditions such as amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, multiple sclerosis, and dementia.)

Anecdotal evidence and limited trial data led to its assessment for the management of agitation associated with AD. An industry-sponsored phase II trial randomized 220 adults with AD to dextromethorphan-quinidine or placebo.³¹⁹ In the primary analysis patients randomized to

dextromethorphan-quinidine had reductions of 1.5 to 1.8 on the 12-point NPI agitation/aggression score ($P<0.001$), perhaps attributable in part to the sedating properties of dextromethorphan. However, the combination did not significantly improve quality of life ($P=0.16$) or activities of daily living ($P=0.16$).

Both components in this drug carry the risk of important drug-drug interactions: dextromethorphan taken with any one of several antidepressants can cause a life-threatening serotonergic syndrome. Quinidine, if taken with one of scores of medications that also prolong the Q-T interval, can produce dangerous and potentially fatal arrhythmias.

In the phase II trial described above 61.2% of patients given the combination of drugs had adverse events vs. 43.3% for controls. In the treated group, serious adverse events included femoral fracture, myocardial infarction, and stroke. One common adverse event was falling, which occurred in 8.6% of treated patients vs. 3.9% of those given placebo. Overall, a lack of demonstrated benefit and an increase in adverse events compared to placebo limits its usefulness.

Other medications with limited evidence of efficacy for BPSD

The anticonvulsants gabapentin³²⁰ and carbamazepine have been studied in uncontrolled case series or time-limited trials in patients with BPSD, with mixed results.^{280,321} These agents might be considered at a low dose and in a time-limited trial for dementia-related agitation/aggression if other interventions have been exhausted, with close monitoring for response, adverse effects, and drug interactions.^{200,322}

Prazosin (Minipress, Vasoflex, others) is an alpha-1 receptor antagonist used primarily in the treatment of benign prostatic hypertrophy. This class of drugs might have some role in some patients with BPSD, especially to reduce agitation and aggression. A small ($n=22$) placebo-controlled 8-week study of prazosin found that patients in the treatment group had significantly more improvement on two agitation rating scales, with no differences between the groups in blood pressure or adverse events (at a mean dose of 6 mg).³²³ This study needs replication with larger samples of patients.

Several agents have some limited support from case studies and case reviews for the treatment of patients with aggressive sexual disinhibition in whom medical and medication causes have been ruled out. These include SSRI antidepressants (first choice), anti-androgens, luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone (LHRH) agonists, or estrogen.^{324,325}

Investigating the possible relationship between decline of melatonin function and the symptoms of dementia, a Cochrane review of three randomized controlled trials of melatonin therapy found little benefit in the scores on tests of cognition. There was some improvement in behavioral and affective symptoms in patients taking melatonin (2.5 mg/day).³²⁶

Fall risk with psychoactive drugs

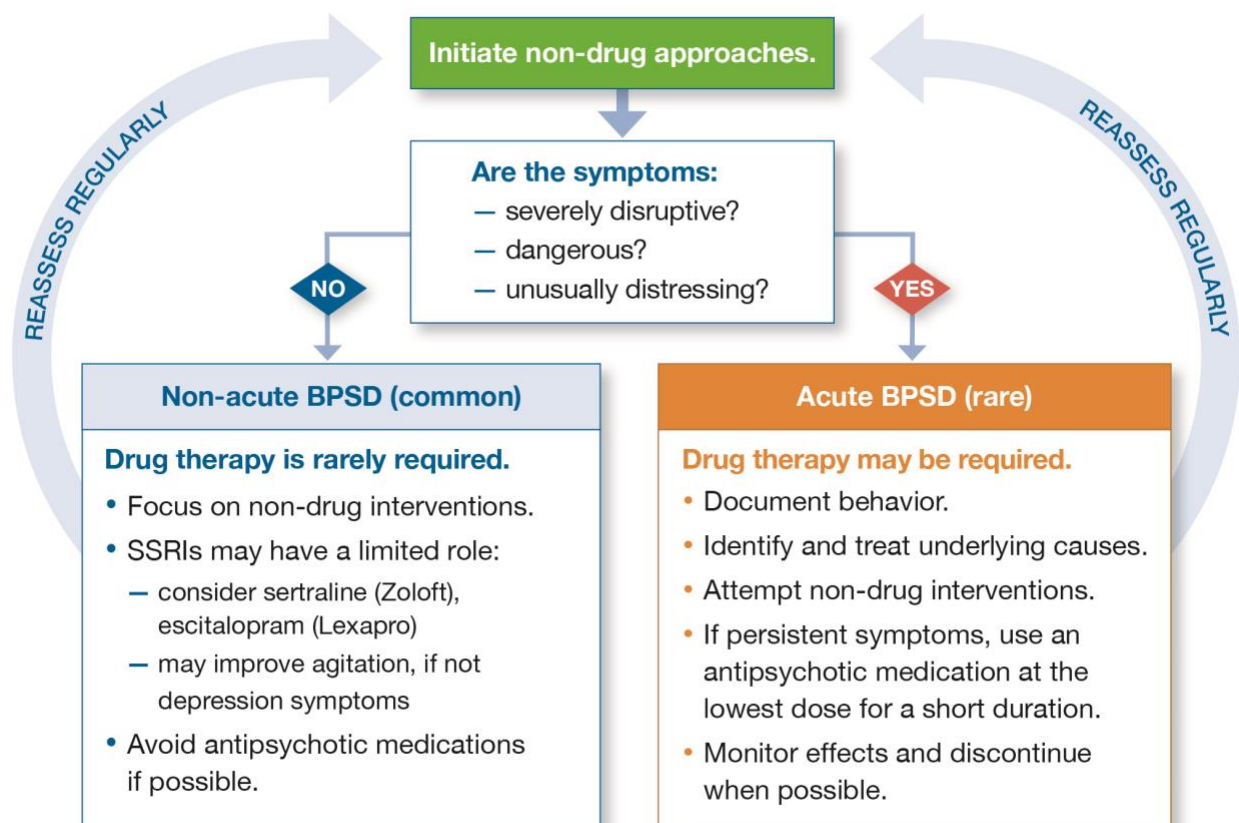
Most of the drug classes reviewed above have been shown to increase the risk of falls, both in the initiation phase and with long-term use (Table 14).

Table 14: Fall risk with psychoactive drugs used for BPSD³²⁷⁻³²⁹

Long-term use	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval
Antidepressants (SSRIs, SNRIs, TCAs)	1.72	1.40-2.11
Antipsychotics (typicals, atypicals)	1.71	1.44-2.04
Benzodiazepines	1.60	1.46-1.75
Sedative/hypnotics	1.31	1.14-1.50
Initiation		
Benzodiazepine plus antipsychotics	11.4	1.50-89.0
Non-SSRI antidepressant (e.g., tricyclics)	4.70	1.30-16.2
SSRI antidepressant	0.80	0.20-3.40

BOTTOM LINE: In managing BPSD, follow the general principles summarized in Figure 18 below.

Figure 18: Algorithm for managing BPSD²⁴⁹



Advance care planning for dementia

Advance care planning (ACP) is a continuous, dynamic process of reflection and dialogue between people with dementia or other serious illness and those close to them, and with their health care providers about preferences and values related to end-of-life care. The goal is to ensure that the medical care a patient receives is aligned with his or her own values and wishes and avoids unwanted or unnecessary treatments (e.g., feeding tubes, emergency department visits, and hospitalizations). Although they are both collaborative endeavors, ACP differs from shared decision-making in that ACP is focused on future treatment and care, whereas shared decision making is focused on making a current decision about treatment.

Although many patients and practically all health care professionals know about ACP, most people have not completed the most common documents involved in ACP. A systematic review of 150 studies with nearly 800,000 patients found that only 37% had completed advance directives, 29% had a living will, and 33% had defined health care proxies.³³⁰ The completion rate for advance directives was similar between those with chronic illnesses and healthy adults. However, a recent study found that patients with dementia completed ACP less frequently and might be more likely to receive higher-intensity end of life care than those with cancer.³³¹

ACP documents such as advance directives and health care proxies should be written when the person still has legal capacity, and completed as soon as possible following a diagnosis of dementia (if not already done). Because laws vary from state to state, advance directive forms must be appropriate to and recognized by the state in which care is being or will be provided.

Because research shows that ACP conversations are not often initiated by the person living with dementia, health care professionals should take it upon themselves to do so. A diagnosis of dementia should not automatically be equated with so much a loss of mental capacity that a conversation about advance care is not possible.³³² Discussions about advance care should include descriptions of the kinds of issues common in dementia, such as loss of cognition, reduced physical functioning, swallowing problems, and infections. Documents that may be involved include a living will, a health care proxy, power of attorney, and do not resuscitate (DNR)/do not intubate (DNI)/do not hospitalize (DNH) orders.

Explore the person's disease awareness and expectations and their ideas about their disease trajectory. If the person lacks awareness or is reluctant to talk about end-of-life issues, do not insist. Instead, explore their perceptions of what quality of life means to them, and ask about any fears or concerns about the future. Try to understand the whole person by exploring their life story, values, norms, and preferences.

In discussing advance care, it can be helpful for clinicians to know the typical pattern of dementia progression, particularly for issues related to pneumonia and eating difficulties. Data from a cohort study of 323 nursing home residents with advanced dementia (global deterioration scale stage 7) followed for 18 months found that complications are very common by the end of follow-up.³³³

Table 15: Events experienced by nursing home residents with advanced dementia³³³

Events	18-month incidence
Eating problems	86%
Death	55%
Febrile episodes	53%
Pneumonia	41%
Burdensome interventions in last 3 months of life	41%

Attempt to solicit from patients their preferences for end-of-life care, which can range from “comfort only” (symptomatic treatments and palliative care/hospice) to “life prolongation” (hospitalization and life support) or some in-between level of care (Table 16), and recognize that these preferences may change with time, hence requiring repeated inquiries. Patients should also identify health care agents who can make the patient’s wishes known in the event that they are incapacitated and unable to do so.

Table 16: Goals of care applied to two common dementia-related issues³³³

Goals of care	Pneumonia	Eating problems
Comfort	Antipyretics and oxygen	Palliative hand feeding (may not provide sufficient calories)
Life prolongation	Hospitalize for life-prolonging treatment	Tube feeding (Note: professional societies recommend against tube feeding because it does not improve survival, malnutrition, or rate of aspiration)
In-between	Antibiotics, while avoiding hospitalization	Palliative hand feeding with aspiration precautions

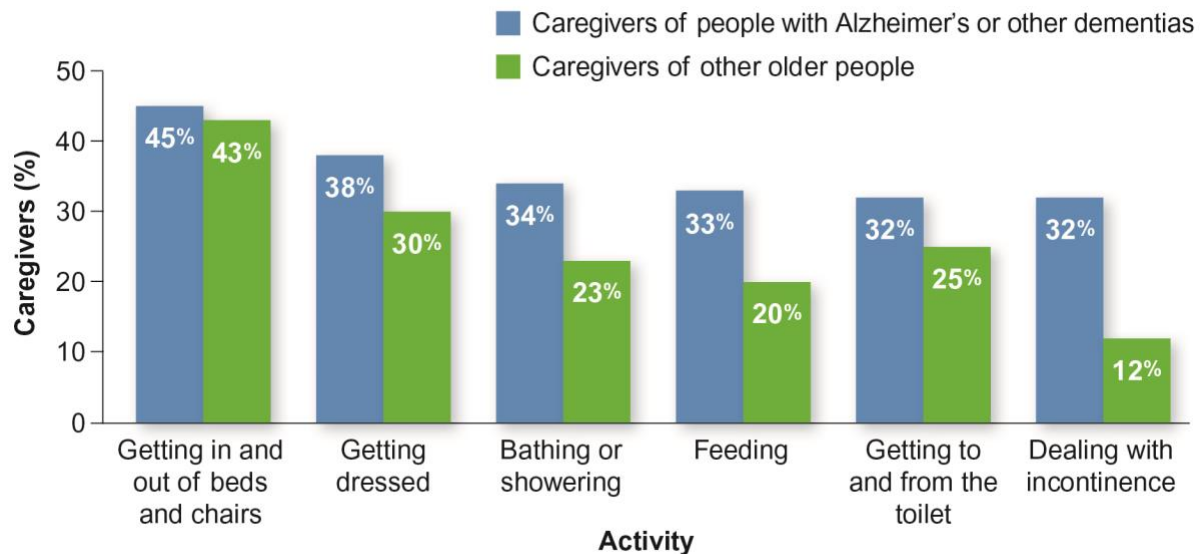
Providing patients with clear, visual information about the realities of advanced dementia and the differences between comfort care and life prolongation care can improve their experience. A 2017 trial randomized 302 dyads of nursing home residents with advanced dementia and their decisionmakers to either a video focused on goals-of-care and a structured discussion about ACP, vs. a general information video and usual care.³³⁴ After nine months of follow-up, those in the intervention group reported better quality of communications, greater goal concordance (88.4% vs. 71.2%, $P=0.001$), and fewer hospital transfers (RR 0.47; 95% CI: 0.26-0.88).

BOTTOM LINE: Advance care planning is a dynamic, continuous process to ensure goal-concordant care in patients with dementia. Start conversations early, discuss the expected clinical course, and identify treatment preferences and goals of care.

Caregiver support

At least 15 million family members and friends provide unpaid care for a person with AD or another dementia in the United States.¹²⁵ The effectiveness of long-term management of patients with dementia is largely dependent on these caregivers. It is therefore important for clinicians to assess the role and needs of the caregiver and be prepared to offer support and referral to other professionals, organizations, or resources that may help them remain healthy. Caregiver burden is a real and common concern.

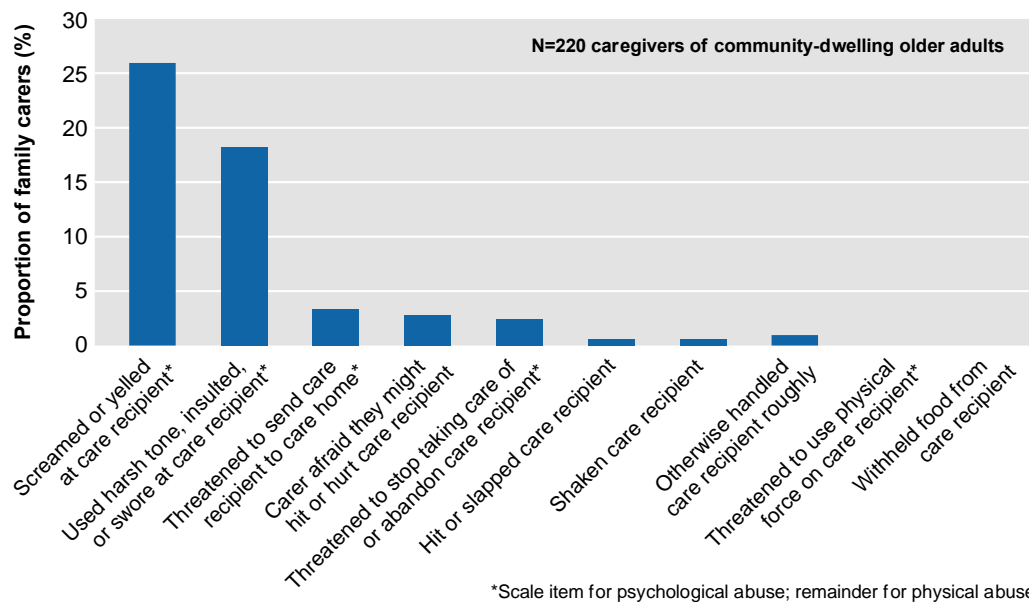
Figure 19: Community caregiver tasks¹²⁵



Caring for a person with AD can be very demanding, and these caregivers are at increased risk for depression and illness.³³⁵ In a study of 254 caregivers of patients with AD, 85% reported some degree of depression, and 84% felt that caring for the elder was a burden.³³⁶ These factors can also increase the chances that an elder will be abused.

In a study of 220 caregivers of community-dwelling older adults, a range of negative or abusive behaviors were self-reported by the caregivers.³³⁷

Figure 20: Self-reported caregiver behaviors³³⁷



Ideally, caregivers would receive assistance in their responsibilities, periodic assessment of their own health and welfare, support from family and friends, and respite care, but this often does not occur. A variety of psychosocial and pharmacological interventions have shown mild to modest efficacy in mitigating caregiver burden and distress. In meta-analyses, psychosocial interventions (e.g., support groups or educational interventions for caregivers of dementia patients) have shown positive effect sizes ranging from 0.09-0.23.³³⁸ Pharmacologic interventions for the person with dementia (e.g., use of anticholinergics or antipsychotic medications) show effect sizes ranging from 0.18-0.27. Many studies have shown improvements in caregiver burden-associated symptoms (e.g., mood, coping, self-efficacy) even when caregiver burden itself was minimally improved.³³⁸

Teaching caregivers how to change or modify their interactions with the patient can be effective.^{270,339} For example, caregivers can be taught communication skills such as: not interrupting, allowing time for responses, minimizing distractions, speaking slowly, and avoiding talking about the patient as though he or she is not present.

Caregivers need to understand that nursing home placement or extensive in-home services might be needed at some point and that this should not be considered a failure on their part.³⁴⁰ Discussing the benefits and disadvantages of institutional care with caregivers can be challenging, particularly in cases in which the patient has previously expressed a desire to avoid such care. It can be helpful to remind caregivers that earlier comments may have been made without a full appreciation of the current circumstances, and that expectations almost always change with chronic illnesses.³⁴¹ Stressed or “burned-out” caregivers cannot provide the best care, and decisions that avoid this situation can therefore be in the patient’s best interest.

It’s also important to help caregivers understand that just because a person’s memory is failing, his or her emotional responsiveness may well remain intact.³⁴² People with even severe declarative or short-term memory loss have been found to continue to feel the emotions of an event even after they have forgotten the event itself,³⁴² continuing to feel sad from an upsetting event, for example, or happy after a positive

event. Thus, a visit or telephone call from a family member might have a lingering positive influence on a patient's mood even if the patient quickly forgets the visit or call.

Some suggestions for supporting caregivers and reducing their stress include:³³⁸

- Engage the caregiver as a member of the care team.
 - ask about caregiving problems, health status, and elder abuse
- Encourage the caregiver to ensure their own self-care.
 - suggest respite care and home meal delivery service to relieve caregiver
- Provide education and information.
 - offer skills training about safe transfer, support groups, and social worker help
- Encourage use of technology (e.g., mobility monitors, lift systems for transfers).
- Refer for assistance with care (e.g., Alzheimer's Association, home care services).

BOTTOM LINE: Caring for a person with dementia is demanding and raises the risk for physical and mental disorders. Family and other caregivers need support and attention from primary care providers, social workers, and other health care professionals to maintain their own health and to be able to continue caring for the person with dementia.

Conclusions

Accurately diagnosing dementia in patients with either suspected cognitive impairment or known risk factors is essential to facilitate timely interventions, which may improve health and overall quality of life. The chief roles of the physician and other health care professionals are:

- To look for and address any underlying causes of cognitive impairment, including drug side effects
- To counsel and educate patients and caregivers about non-pharmacological and pharmacological interventions that can reduce stress and anxiety and optimize safety and quality of life
- To address exacerbating factors such as concurrent medical conditions and adverse drug effects, that can worsen the underlying cognitive decline

Primary care providers play a pivotal role in the diagnosis and care of people with dementia. They are frequently the point of first contact with the healthcare system and often remain a key source of ongoing care throughout this challenging long-term illness.

Universal screening for cognitive impairment is not necessary, although patients with cognitive or mood complaints and those at risk, particularly those with depression, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), traumatic brain injury (TBI), and concurrent neurologic conditions stand to benefit from early evaluation and diagnosis. The short cognitive tests and functional questionnaires reviewed in this document can reliably identify cognitive impairment and dementia beyond what can be learned from a standard routine history and physical examination alone. Such testing can identify patients who should undergo more detailed evaluations by neurologists or other specialists for further workup, and perhaps to assess whether a patient is a candidate for biweekly intravenous monoclonal antibody treatment, despite its limited efficacy, important risks, and substantial patient-caregiver burden.

Several of non-pharmacological strategies can help support functional status and preserve quality of life for both patients with dementia and their caregivers, and these should be fully explored given their lack of adverse effects. Medications such as cholinesterase inhibitors and memantine may modestly reduce cognitive decline and non-cognitive symptoms of dementia in some patients. Given the small benefits and frequent side effects of these drugs, caution is advised in their use, with limited duration of therapeutic trials guided by regular assessment of response. Unfortunately, in most cases, this determination is unavoidably subjective.

Goals in managing patients with behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia include identifying and modifying triggers and initiating non-drug interventions first in most patients. If medication treatment is necessary, consider empirical pain management, SSRI antidepressants, cholinesterase inhibitors, or memantine, as appropriate in the individual patient. Antipsychotic medications should be used only if there is a risk of the patient harming themselves or others, and alternative therapies are unsuccessful. Frequent reassessment of the need for ongoing medication use as well as monitoring for specific side effects are critical.

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About this publication

These are general recommendations only; specific clinical decisions should be made by the treating clinician based on an individual patient's clinical condition.



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