Abstract

Objectives: To examine in an observational study (1) relationships between cholinesterase inhibitors (ChEI) and memantine use, and functional and cognitive end points and mortality in patients with Alzheimer’s disease (AD); (2) relationships between other patient characteristics and these clinical end points; and (3) whether effects of the predictors change across time.

Methods: The authors conducted a multicenter, natural history study that included three university-based AD centers in the United States. A total of 201 patients diagnosed with probable AD with modified Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) scores ≥ 30 at study entry were monitored annually for 6 years. Discrete-time hazard analyses were used to examine relationships between ChEI and memantine use during the previous 6 months reported at each assessment, and time to cognitive (MMSE score ≤ 10) and functional (Blessed Dementia Rating Scale score ≥ 10) end points and mortality. Analyses controlled for clinical characteristics, including baseline cognition, function, and comorbid conditions, and presence of extrapyramidal signs and psychiatric symptoms at each assessment interval. Demographic characteristics included baseline age, sex, education, and living arrangement at each assessment interval.

Results: ChEI use was associated with delayed time in reaching the functional end point and death. Memantine use was associated with delayed time to death. Different patient characteristics were associated with different clinical end points.

Conclusions: Results suggest long-term beneficial effects of ChEI and memantine use on patient outcomes. As for all observational cohort studies, observed relationships should not be interpreted as causal effects.

Keywords: Alzheimer’s disease; Cholinesterase inhibitors; Memantine; Outcomes; Longitudinal studies

1. Introduction

Since their introduction, cholinesterase inhibitors (ChEIs) and, later, the N-methyl-D aspartate receptor antago-
However, such trials are not only costly to conduct, there also are ethical concerns associated with exposing patients to placebo in trials of long duration because ChEIs and memantine have become the standard of care for patients with AD. In the absence of these trials, observational studies based on practice-based populations may be one of the only ways to evaluate the effects of these medications [12].

Several studies have assessed the effects of ChEIs and/or memantine treatment in real-world clinic settings [13–22]. Results from these studies have been mixed. In one of the first observational studies on the effects of ChEI on patient outcomes, Doody and colleagues [13] found slowed decline in cognitive function after a year in patients treated with ChEIs compared with untreated patients. Comparing patients treated with ChEI or ChEI + memantine combination therapy with an untreated earlier cohort of patients, Atri and associates [17] also reported slower decline in cognition and function in the treated group. Persistent treatment has been shown to be associated with slowed decline in cognition and function, but effects may be lost if treatment is disrupted [3,18]. On the other hand, in another study comparing a cohort of patients treated with ChEIs with an earlier cohort of untreated patients, Lopez and coworkers [14,19] reported no association between ChEI use and time to cognitive and functional decline or to death, but significant delays in nursing home admission.

In an earlier study using a large, multicenter cohort of patients with probable AD who were monitored prospectively up to 6 years from early-disease stages, we reported that patterns of ChEI and memantine use changed substantially over time and were consistent with practice guidelines of initiating ChEIs in mild to moderate AD, and adding memantine in moderate to severe AD [23]. In the current study, we take advantage of the availability of important clinical characteristics (eg, comorbid conditions, psychiatric symptoms) that were not controlled for before, the long follow-up period, and more current data, and further investigated the following questions: Are ChEIs or memantine use associated with length of time to reach cognitive and functional outcomes and death? Are these associations stable over time?

2. Methods

2.1. Sample

Data are drawn from the Predictors 2 cohort, consisting of patients recruited from Columbia University Medical Center, Johns Hopkins School of Medicine, and Massachusetts General Hospital. The study was approved by each local institutional review board. The inclusion/exclusion criteria have been described fully elsewhere [24–26]. Briefly, subjects met Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, edition 3, revised, criteria for primary degenerative dementia of the Alzheimer type and National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Stroke/Alzheimer’s Disease and Related Disorders Association criteria for probable AD. Enrollment required a modified Mini-Mental State Examination score ≥ 30, equivalent to approximately ≥ 16 on the Folstein MMSE [27,28]. Clinical diagnosis of AD has been confirmed in 93% of those with postmortem evaluation [26].

Study recruitment began in 1997, when widespread use of ChEIs began in the United States, and is ongoing. After the baseline assessment, patients were monitored annually. Those who missed a particular visit could respond at a subsequent visit. The cohort used in the current analysis included 201 patients who were monitored for up to 6 years and provided data for 785 visits. Of these 201 patients, 13 had 6 years of follow-up visits, 27 had 5 years of follow-up visits, 37 had 4 years of follow-up visits, 34 had 3 years of follow-up visits, and 41 had 2 years of follow-up visits. One hundred twenty-three patients (61%) did not miss any visits, 15 patients (7%) missed one visit, 19 patients (9%) missed two visits, 22 patients (10%) missed three visits, and the rest of the patients missed four or more visits. Median follow-up for the cohort was 4 years (mean, 3.5 years; SD, 2.0).

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. Clinical end points

We used MMSE scores to assess patients’ cognitive status and constructed a dichotomous variable indicating an MMSE score ≤ 10 at each visit. We used Blessed Dementia Rating Scale (BDRS) Parts I and II (Instrumental and Basic Activities of Daily Living) to assess patients’ functional status and constructed a dichotomous variable indicating a BDRS score ≥ 10 at each visit. We chose these cutoff points because similar scores have been used as outcomes in many studies. Exploratory analyses of neighboring end points (ie, MMSE score ≤ 8 and BDRS score ≥ 8) did not change estimation results substantively. Patient deaths were most often reported by family members when we attempted to complete follow-up visits. For patients who could not be contacted, information on death was obtained through the National Death Index.

2.2.2. Main independent variables: ChEI and memantine use

All prescription and over-the-counter medication use during the previous 6 months were reported at each visit by the patient and informant on a medication acquisition form. Information reported included name of medication, number of days taking the medication, dosage, and number of pills per day. Because ChEIs have been shown to have similar efficacy despite slightly different pharmacological properties, we combined all ChEIs into one group.

Because of the consistency of medication use reported in this sample, we constructed dichotomous variables indicating ChEI and memantine use during the 6 months prior to each assessment as our main independent variables instead
of using more complex measures that take into account number of days of use or medication dosages.

2.2.3. Other substantive control variables

To isolate the effects of ChEI and memantine use, we controlled for the following time-variant variables in the analysis. Columbia University Scale for Psychopathology in AD, a semistructured interview administered by physicians or trained research technicians, was used to measure psychotic symptoms [29]. A modified Unified Parkinson’s Disease Rating Scale was used to measure presence of extrapyramidal signs [30,31]. Information on patients’ living arrangements at each assessment was dichotomized as living at home or in a long-term care facility. The following time-invariant characteristics were included in the analysis: baseline cognition, function, number of comorbidities, baseline age, sex, education, and study site [26,32]. Because ChEIs and memantine were approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration for treatment of AD at different times, year of study entry was included to control for availability of medications on the market and any differences that could be related to different entry times into the study. Because most of the sample population was white (n = 188, 94%), ethnicity was not included in the models.

2.3. Analysis

We used discrete-time hazard models to examine the relationships between ChEI and memantine use, and time to cognitive and functional end points and mortality. We used binary, time-specific event indicators for BDRS scores, MMSE scores, and death to reflect the first year a patient reached a clinical end point. Right censoring occurred when a patient did not reach a clinical end point by their most recent assessment. Such patients would have a zero on the time-specific event indicator for all assessment intervals up to the most recent assessment. Observations with missing outcomes were dropped from the analysis.

The estimated discrete-time hazard is the conditional probability that patients reach a clinical end point in an assessment interval, given that they did not reach the end point in an earlier interval. Although multiple observations from each patient may be correlated in longitudinal data, this conditional probability can be treated as if it came from a distinct, independent observation, and therefore it is not necessary to account for clustering effects within the individual [33]. For each outcome, we first estimated a set of models that included only time effects (year = 0, 1, 2, ..., 5). This set of models describes for the entire sample the hazard profile for each clinical end point. If the estimated coefficients are approximately the same, the risk of reaching a clinical end point is unrelated to time and the hazard function is flat. If the estimated coefficient increases over time, the risk of reaching a clinical end point increases and the hazard function increases over time. We tested the constant hazard assumption using a likelihood ratio test based on model deviance statistics.

Next, we examined bivariate relationships between each potential substantive covariate (eg, ChEI use) and the clinical end points after controlling for time effects. These main effects models contain the underlying proportionality assumption that each covariate has the same effect on the outcome in every time period. We tested the proportionality assumption of each covariate using deviance statistics obtained from the unconstrained model that included the main effect of the covariate and an interaction term of the covariate and time in the constrained main effects model. If the unconstrained covariate model did not fit better than the main effects model, the covariate did not violate the proportionality assumption and only main effects for that covariate were included in subsequent analyses. If the unconstrained covariate model fit better than the main effects model, both the covariate and its interaction with time were included in subsequent analyses [34].

Last, we estimated a full, multivariate model that included (1) all six binary time-effects indicators, (2) main effects for covariates that did not violate the proportionality assumption, and (3) main effects and interaction with time effects for covariates that violated the proportionality assumption. To account for possible clustering (eg, within sites), robust standard errors were reported. The results of this full model allowed interpretation for each individual covariate effect on our clinical end points after adjusting for all other covariates.

3. Results

3.1. Baseline characteristics

At baseline, patients’ average age was 76 years (SD, 8.1 years), 123 were female (61%), and 176 (88%) lived at home (Table 1). Patients were highly educated, with an average of 14 years of schooling (SD, 3.1 years). Average MMSE score was 22.0 (SD, 3.4) and average BDRS score was 3.6 (SD, 2.1). Sixty-eight patients had psychotic symptoms (34%) and 29 had extrapyramidal signs (16%). Almost half the patients (n = 96, 48.4%) reported no comorbid conditions, a third (n = 67, 34.1%) reported one, and the remaining 38 patients (19%) reported two or more comorbid conditions.

Table 2 presents data on the number patients who were available for observation at each assessment interval, and the number and proportion of those who were taking ChEIs or memantine. Because only patients with mild AD were included at study entry, four fifths of the 201 patients (n = 161) reported using ChEIs at baseline and only 2% (n = 4) reported using memantine, all of whom used it in combination with ChEIs. By year 6, the proportion of patients who reported using ChEIs decreased slightly to 74.4%, the proportion of patients who reported using memantine increased to 48.8%, and the proportion of patients who reported not
taking either ChEIs or memantine remained relatively steady. Overall, 182 patients (91%) reported taking ChEIs at some point during the study and 19 patients (9.5%) were never treated with ChEIs. Eighty-one patients (40.2%) reported taking memantine at some point during the study 120 patients (59.7%) were never treated with memantine. Patients who were treated with ChEIs at some point were monitored for an average of 3.6 years (SD, 2.0 years) compared with 2.1 years (SD, 1.7 years) for those who were never treated with ChEIs. Patients who were treated with memantine at some point were monitored for an average of 4.4 years (SD, 1.5 years) compared with 2.9 years (SD, 2.0 years) for those who were never treated with memantine.

Throughout the study period, the proportion of patients who used specific ChEIs remained relatively stable. During the visits in which patients reported taking ChEIs, 61.7% reported taking donepezil; 13.6%, galantamine; and 4.8%, rivastigmine. We examined in detail the extent and consistency of using individual medications among those who reported taking the medication. Table 3 presents baseline data on the proportion of patients who reported taking each medication every day during the previous 6 months and the proportion of those who took effective dosages for each medication. At baseline, 80.6% of patients who were taking donepezil reported taking it every day, and 98.3% of those who were taking donepezil reported taking it at effective doses. During the study period, in 93.3% of the visits in which patients reported taking donepezil, they also reported that they took it every day during the previous 6 months, and almost all reported taking it at effective doses.

### 3.2. Unconditional hazard models

Figure 1 describes the hazard profile for the entire sample (ie, the conditional probability that an individual would reach a clinical end point given that the individual did not reach the end point in an earlier interval). The hazard function for each outcome increased over time and was most pronounced in patient function. Likelihood ratio tests of the constant hazard assumption was rejected for all outcomes (all P < .01).

### 3.3. Multivariate discrete-time hazard analyses

Table 4 reports coefficient estimates of final multivariate models that examined time to reach functional and cognitive end points and mortality. Consistent with unconditional hazard models, estimated hazard for each outcome increased significantly over time. Year of study entry and site were not associated significantly with any outcome.

After controlling for patient characteristics, ChEI use was associated with longer time to reaching the functional end point (estimated coefficient, −1.282; standard error, 0.433; computed odds ratio [OR], 0.278) and mortality (OR, 0.409). Memantine use was associated with longer time to mortality (OR, 0.443). (Full computations of odds ratios are available on request.) Better baseline cognition was associated with longer time to reaching all end points. For each point improvement in baseline MMSE score, estimated odds of reaching the functional end point was 11% lower, of reaching the cognitive end point was 21% lower, and of dying was 13% lower. Better baseline function was also associated with longer time to reaching the functional end point and mortality. A 1-point worsening in baseline
has been associated with slowed decline in cognition and function [3,18], we explored patterns of discontinuation as related to reaching clinical outcomes in these 56 patients. Bivariate distributions between medication use and clinical end points did not show patients were taken off ChEIs as their conditions deteriorated, although power to detect differences was limited. Among the 81 patients who used memantine at some point during the study, the vast majority continued treatment once started, only six patients discontinued after one or two assessments, one of whom reported resuming at a later time.

4. Discussion

In this study, we assessed long-term effects of ChEIs and memantine on the natural history of AD outside the context of controlled trials and open-label extension studies to provide a more real-world perspective. A large cohort of patients from early stages of AD was monitored prospectively for 6 years. After controlling for important clinical characteristics, we found ChEI use was associated with longer time to reaching functional end points and death, and memantine use was associated with delayed mortality. As for all observational cohort studies, common caution in interpreting results is needed. In particular, the effects of ChEI and memantine use observed in this study should not be interpreted as causal effects.

A small number of studies have examined the relationship between ChEI use and mortality. An early randomized trial on tacrine use reported a trend toward lower mortality among those who received higher doses (>120 mg/day) in open-label follow up [5]. Another study reported significantly lower 3-year mortality in tacrine users than nonusers [20]. However, a more recent observational study comparing patients on ChEIs with a matched, historical sample of patients who were never exposed to ChEIs reported no association between ChEI use and cognitive and functional status at 1-year of follow-up or 3-year mortality [14]. Another

![Fig. 1. Unconditional hazard model for functional, cognitive, and mortality end points. BDRS, Blessed Dementia Rating Scale; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination.](image-url)
study reported ChEI use alone or ChEI + memantine use were not associated with time to death [19].

A direct comparison of our results with these studies is difficult because of differences in study samples and methodologies. Perhaps the closest study to ours is that of Lopez and colleagues [19], in which 443 patients with probable AD with at least one annual follow-up in a large urban Alzheimer’s Disease Research Center were monitored since 1997. Several differences in patient characteristics between these two studies should be noted. First, compared with the Lopez study [19], patients in our sample were, on average, 3 years older (mean age, 76 years vs 73 years), but with higher MMSE scores at study entry (mean MMSE score, 21.9 vs 18.2). It is possible that patients in our sample had an earlier start in ChEI therapy, similar to those who participate in clinical trials, and that this may have led to the stronger mortality effects observed in our study [35–37]. Compared with the study by Lopez and colleagues [19], in which only 3% of subjects were never treated with ChEIs, 10% of our patients reported never having been treated with ChEIs. Interestingly, compared with the treated patients, the never-treated group in our study was older whereas they were significantly younger in the study by Lopez and colleagues [19].

It is also important to note methodological differences between these studies. For example, although we included all recruited patients in our analyses, analysis in the study by Lopez and colleagues [19] was restricted to patients with at least one follow-up. Differential rates of decline or differential effectiveness of medications in patients who did not have any follow-up data may have contributed to differences in study results. In several earlier studies, patients who were not treated with ChEIs were derived from historical cohorts that may have confounding effects on the results [14,17]. It is likely that patients in the treated, more recent cohorts were diagnosed earlier than those in the untreated, earlier cohorts. Improvements in medical care in more recent cohorts may have contributed to the relative slowing of disease progression in treated groups. These possibilities should be tested empirically in future studies.

Although estimated associations between ChEI and memantine use and clinical end points are independent of patient characteristics that we controlled for in the models, unobserved characteristics that may differ between groups may remain and may lead to possible biases in our results. It is possible that patients who took these drugs have naturally slower disease progression and their milder disease course was attributed to drug treatment. As in all observational studies, we cannot rule out the possibility of effects influencing observed relationships between treatment and outcomes. It is possible that from frequent, consistent contact with AD center staff, medical management of our patients, particularly those who were treated actively with medications, were better than those without such access or who were untreated, and may have biased our results.

Several studies that examined the effects of ChEI + memantine combination therapy reported additional beneficial effects of combination therapy in slowed cognitive and functional decline and delayed nursing home placement [17,19]. In this study, the vast majority of patients

### Table 4

Multivariate results of discrete-time hazard models of time to reach functional and cognitive endpoints and mortality*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Functional end point (BDRS score ≥ 10)</th>
<th>Cognitive end point (MMSE score ≤ 10)</th>
<th>Death</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coef. (SE)</td>
<td>Coef. (SE)</td>
<td>Coef. (SE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ChEI use</td>
<td>−1.282 (0.433)</td>
<td>−0.379 (0.573)</td>
<td>−0.894 (0.387)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memantine use</td>
<td>−0.274 (0.388)</td>
<td>0.500 (0.498)</td>
<td>0.813 (0.450)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseline MMSE score</td>
<td>−0.095 (0.056)</td>
<td>−0.241 (0.074)</td>
<td>0.142 (0.051)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseline BDRS score</td>
<td>0.707 (0.196)</td>
<td>0.068 (0.238)</td>
<td>0.307 (0.136)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseline BDRS score × year</td>
<td>−0.085 (0.055)</td>
<td>−0.041 (0.070)</td>
<td>−0.023 (0.037)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of EPS</td>
<td>1.727 (0.483)</td>
<td>0.836 (0.552)</td>
<td>0.832 (0.405)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of psychiatric symptoms</td>
<td>1.071 (0.772)</td>
<td>2.258 (0.863)</td>
<td>0.758 (0.616)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of psychiatric symptoms × year</td>
<td>−0.072 (0.209)</td>
<td>−0.526 (0.249)</td>
<td>−0.109 (0.170)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseline comorbidities</td>
<td>−0.023 (0.376)</td>
<td>−0.288 (0.465)</td>
<td>−0.332 (0.287)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseline comorbidities × year</td>
<td>−0.036 (0.107)</td>
<td>0.140 (0.139)</td>
<td>0.099 (0.070)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseline age</td>
<td>−0.093 (0.023)</td>
<td>−0.116 (0.026)</td>
<td>0.011 (0.019)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>−0.533 (0.805)</td>
<td>0.384 (0.855)</td>
<td>−0.152 (0.636)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female × year</td>
<td>0.357 (0.217)</td>
<td>0.191 (0.248)</td>
<td>−0.031 (0.173)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>−0.066 (0.108)</td>
<td>0.148 (0.134)</td>
<td>−0.074 (0.087)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education × year</td>
<td>0.030 (0.030)</td>
<td>−0.021 (0.040)</td>
<td>0.022 (0.025)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living in a nursing home</td>
<td>0.609 (0.364)</td>
<td>0.072 (0.526)</td>
<td>0.247 (0.375)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations: BDRS, Blessed Dementia Rating Scale; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; Coef., coefficient; SE, standard error; ChEI, cholinesterase inhibitor; EPS, extrapyramidal signs.

*All models controlled for indicators of assessment interval, year of study entry, and site. Robust standard errors are reported.

\( p < .01 \)

\( p < .05 \)

\( p < .1 \)
who used memantine used it in combination with ChEIs, with memantine monotherapy reported in only 20 visits from 14 patients. Therefore, we could not distinguish the effects of memantine monotherapy vs ChEI + memantine combination therapy. However, the statistically significant effects of both ChEI and memantine suggest beneficial effect of ChEI + memantine combination therapy in delaying mortality.

Our ability to estimate duration of medication use was limited by our data collection method. At each visit, patients were asked about medication use in the previous 6 months; however, follow-up was performed annually. Therefore, medication use was known for half the interval between visits. This loss of information adds noise to estimation models. However, unless there were systematic biases in medication use or discontinuation at 6-month intervals that were not captured in the data, this loss of information should not bias our estimation results.

There are several important strengths of our study. First, there is the large number of well-characterized AD patients who were monitored prospectively from early disease stages and examined by the same measures, in the same memory disorders units, and by the same group of clinicians over multiple years with good follow-up rates. In contrast to AD clinical trial and open-label extension studies that typically include data of, at most, 1 or 2 years, the duration of our study is substantially longer. Second, our study avoids the limitations of most clinical trials, which often have stringent inclusion and exclusion criteria. The sample of patients included in this study and results obtained from these patients therefore reflect more real-world clinical practice. Third, this study addresses several methodological issues in longitudinal analyses. Because data on clinical outcomes are often collected at discrete-time intervals (eg, annually), the commonly used continuous-time methods (eg, Cox models) are limited. We used the more appropriate discrete-time survival models, included both time-invariant and time-variant covariates, and relaxed the often violated proportional hazards assumption when appropriate [33,34,38]. Therefore, our results go beyond findings from short-term clinical trials and provide evidence of the effects of ChEIs and memantine that is fuller and more nuanced, and has real-world clinical relevance in the treatment of patients with AD.

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RESEARCH IN CONTEXT

1. Systematic review: Randomized, controlled trials that examine the effects of cholinesterase inhibitors and memantine on patient outcomes over long periods of time are difficult to conduct, and observational studies are limited with mixed results.

2. Interpretation: Our results extend beyond the context of controlled trials and open-label extension studies; our sample has less stringent inclusion/exclusion criteria and is more current, with a substantially longer study duration. Our methodology allows a more nuanced analysis so results have more real-world relevance in the treatment of patients with Alzheimer’s disease.

3. Future discussions: Future directions include considering instrumental variables or propensity score approaches to address some study limitations, such as the possible that patients who took cholinesterase inhibitors and memantine have naturally slower disease progression, and their milder disease course was attributed to drug treatment, or the possibility of other variables influencing observed relationships between treatment and outcomes. We will extend our study from our current clinical sample to community samples.

References