

# Treatment and Management of Dementia Due to Alzheimer's Disease

Jennifer Rose V. Molano, MD\*

Robin Bratt, RN, MSN, CNP

Rhonna Shatz, DO

## Address

\*Department of Neurology and Rehabilitation Medicine, The University of Cincinnati College of Medicine, 260 Stetson St., Suite 2300P.O. Box 670525, Cincinnati, OH 45267-0525, USA

Email: molanoje@ucmail.uc.edu

Published online: 3 July 2015

© Springer Science+Business Media New York 2015

This article is part of the Topical Collection on *Dementia*

**Keywords** Alzheimer's disease · Treatment · Management · Dementia

## Opinion statement

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a progressive neurological disorder typically associated with episodic memory loss as the initial symptom, but individuals <65 years old may present with executive dysfunction, word finding difficulties, or visual processing deficits. In those with AD, curative treatments are not available, but there are interventions which may modify disease course, symptom appearance and severity, enhance quality of life for patient and caregivers, and maintain safety. Both pharmacological and non-pharmacological interventions are important.

## Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a neurodegenerative disorder associated with episodic memory loss in the presence of misfolded amyloid and tau proteins and other pathologies. Patients with AD pathology may be asymptomatic for years prior to the onset of symptoms, progressing through a stage of subjective cognitive impairment with early recognition of changes but no detectable cognitive abnormalities, mild cognitive impairment, where cognition is impaired but functional abilities are essentially intact, prior to developing dementia, in which cognitive symptoms interfere with daily functioning [1]. This paper

targets treatment for those with dementia due to Alzheimer's disease as it pertains to clinical practice.

As a part of the Physician Consortium for Performance Improvement (PCPI), the American Academy of Neurology created dementia quality measures, establishing the need for cognitive assessment, dementia staging, behavioral assessment, functional assessment, and screening for depression at least annually in all stages of dementia. Counseling on safety precautions, management of neuropsychiatric symptoms, and caregiver education and support should be integrated into treatment

plans at least annually. Within 2 years of diagnosis or assumption of care, palliative care counseling and advance care plans should be implemented and documented in the chart [2••].

## Diet and lifestyle

- A plethora of articles have focused on dietary and lifestyle guidelines in preventing AD. Some of these recommendations include minimizing intake of saturated and trans fats, increasing consumption of vegetables, legumes, fruits, and whole grains, obtaining vitamin E 15 mg daily from foods such as seeds, nuts, and whole grains, getting vitamin B12 2.4 µg daily from foods or supplements, and incorporating 40 min of exercise 3 days/week [3].
- Recommendations also include using supplements with iron or copper as well as products with aluminum sparingly, though more research is needed to investigate the role of these elements on the development of AD. Sleep and regular mental activity may also be important [3].
- A combination of diet, exercise, cognitive training, and vascular risk monitoring may improve or maintain cognition in those at higher risk for developing dementia (based on cardiovascular risk factors) and those with cognition that is average or slightly lower than expected for age [4•].

Specific recommendations in those with dementia are as follows:

### Diet

- The Mediterranean diet which emphasizes the increased consumption of fruits, vegetables, legumes, whole grains, and unsaturated fatty acids, as well as decreased consumption of dairy products, meats, and saturated fatty acids has been well-studied in those with AD. A systematic review of the literature showed that those with higher adherence to the Mediterranean diet had lower risk for conversion from normal cognition to MCI or dementia and conversion from MCI to dementia [5, 6].
- Others, such as the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) and a Japanese style diet may be beneficial [6], but further investigation is warranted.

### Nutritional supplements

- Antioxidants, vitamins, omega-3-fatty acids, plant flavonoids, medium-chain triglycerides such as coconut oil, herbs such as

huperzine A, and spices such as turmeric all have been studied as potential supplements for AD treatment. However, results have been variable, and further studies need to be performed to determine the relationship between the efficacies of these supplements in those with AD [7].

- There is limited data on the efficacy of nutritional supplements when added to traditional treatments for AD. When added to cholinesterase inhibitors, vitamin E may decrease functional decline but not cognition [8].
- Medium-chain triglycerides produce ketone bodies, an alternative source of energy for the brain. In APOE4-negative patients, the nutritional supplement, Axona, has shown short-term improvement in memory, but primarily for those negative for the apolipoprotein E4 allele. Though based on the same pathway, the use of coconut oil has not been studied to determine its effectiveness in those with AD [7].

## Exercise

- A Cochrane database review showed that exercise may improve activities of daily living and possibly cognition in those with dementia. However, due to statistical heterogeneity, caution with interpreting the results is advised. The type, frequency, and duration of exercise also need to be determined [9].
- A recent randomized controlled trial showed that a combination of aerobic and resistance training may be more beneficial than aerobic exercise or social interaction alone [10].
- The Dementia and Physical Activity (DAPA) study in the UK is the largest randomized control trial on investigating the effect of aerobic and resistance exercise in those with dementia [11].

## Sleep issues

- Sleep issues are common in those with AD. In the early stages of AD, sleep fragmentation, frequent nocturnal awakenings, and reduction of slow wave sleep may occur. In the later stages of AD, patients may have increased daytime sleepiness, increased REM latency and possible reduction of REM sleep [12].
- In patients with AD, tau pathology in the suprachiasmatic nucleus can lead to an irregular sleep-wake rhythm. "Sundowning" or increased behaviors such as agitation and aggression at nighttime may be heightened by circadian rhythm dysfunction [13].
- FDA-approved medications for the treatment of insomnia include non-benzodiazepine receptor agonists such as zolpidem, zaleplon, and zopiclone; melatonin agonists such as ramelteon, sedating antidepressants such as doxepin; and an orexin-antagonist, suvorexant.

However, data is limited on the efficacy of these medications in those with dementia, and side effects may worsen cognition especially in sedating anti-depressants.

- Per a Cochrane Database review, more research needs to be performed to determine the efficacy of pharmacological treatments in those with dementia. In moderate-to-severe dementia, trazodone 50 mg in the evening may assist in increasing sleep efficiency, though this medication is not FDA approved for insomnia [14].
- A meta-analysis of melatonin studies by Xu et al. found melatonin therapy may be effective in improving sleep efficiency and prolonging total sleep time without adverse effects, but there is not any evidence that this improvement impacts cognitive function [15].
- Adherence to walking, bright light exposure or a combination of the two interventions during the day may be effective in improving sleep for those with AD [16].
- Look for other sleep disorders. Obstructive sleep apnea can be seen in 33–53 % of patients with probable Alzheimer's disease. If snoring or witnessed apneas are present, further evaluation with polysomnography may be indicated [12].
- Caregiver involvement may be essential in optimizing the sleep-wake cycle in those with Alzheimer's disease [17].

### Other lifestyle factors

- Though intellectual stimulation and socialization is encouraged, more studies need to be performed to determine whether these activities can be used to modify cognitive decline in those with dementia [18].

## Treatment

Treatment of cognitive and neuropsychiatric symptoms aims to maximize cognitive functioning and enhance the ability to perform activities of daily living. Decreasing burden of caregiving, promoting meaningful interactions that support quality of life, and delaying the need for institutionalization are other goals. At the end of life, treatment shifts to a comfortable death with dignity.

### Treatment of cognitive deficits

#### Acetylcholinesterase inhibitors

- Acetylcholinesterase Inhibitors (AChEI) have class 1A evidence for a statistically significant benefit over basic supportive care for cognition, function, and global outcomes [19, 20]. Efficacy and side effects may be dose dependent.

- Medications in this class include donepezil, rivastigmine, and galantamine. There have been no proven clinically meaningful differences between the agents [21]. If intolerable side effects are present, changing to another agent can be considered.
- Maximal improvement of cognitive measures in mild-to-moderate AD is noted at 3 months on treatment with stabilization lasting for 6–12 months [22].
- AChEI may attenuate decline on cognitive scores and faster decline is evident when treatment is stopped; however, evidence of a more rapid decline has not been definitively proven [23].
- Duration of treatment is not well established, but trials have demonstrated benefit at 4 and 7 years [24, 25].
- Meta-analysis results suggest that the efficacy of AChEI on cognition is beneficial for all stages of disease severity [26].

**Class effects**

<b>Contraindications</b>	Bradycardia and heart block. Caution in epilepsy. Active gastric ulcers/gastritis, steroid-dependent asthma/chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and pneumonia.
<b>Main drug interactions</b>	CYP2D6 substrate and CYP3A4 substrate Beta-blockers exacerbate bradycardia. Medications that inhibit the effects of donepezil include antibiotics such as ciprofloxacin clarithromycin, or erythromycin. Medications with anticholinergic effects such as tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs), cyclobenzaprine and bethanochol may interfere with AChEI effects. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs increase bleeding risk. TCAs and bupropion may have additive effects on lowering the seizure threshold. Exaggerates succinylcholine-type muscle relaxation during anesthesia.
<b>Main side effects</b>	Nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, anorexia, dizziness, muscle cramps, fatigue, and vivid dreams. Bradycardia may cause syncope. Side effects are usually dose dependent.
<b>Cost effectiveness</b>	All AChEIs were more cost effective than basic supportive care [19].
<b>Special points</b>	Recommend taking with breakfast to reduce insomnia, nightmares, and nausea. Long-acting formulations may be better tolerated.

**Donepezil (Aricept)**

<b>Standard dose</b>	Oral 10 mg daily or extended release formulation 23 mg daily
<b>Contraindications</b>	See "Class Effects."
<b>Main side effects</b>	See "Class Effects."
<b>Drug interactions</b>	See "Class Effects."
<b>Special points</b>	FDA approved for mild, moderate, and severe Alzheimer’s dementia. Start 5 mg daily with breakfast × 30 days followed by 10 mg × 90 days. Consider an increase to 15 mg daily for 30–90 days followed by 20 mg daily or 23 mg daily for moderate-to-severe dementia. However, there may be relatively little benefit and a clear increase in side effects with the 23 mg dose.
<b>Cost</b>	Generic 10 mg, \$110.00 (30 tabs) Aricept disintegrating tablet, \$400.00 (30 tabs) Aricept 23 mg, \$400.00 (30 tabs)

### Rivastigmine (Exelon)

<b>Standard dose</b>	Transdermal 4.6–13.3 mg/24 h Oral 1.5 mg twice daily to 6 mg twice daily
<b>Contraindications</b>	See “Class Effects.”
<b>Drug interactions</b>	See “Class Effects.”
<b>Main side effects</b>	See “Class Effects.”
<b>Special points</b>	FDA approved for mild, moderate, and severe Alzheimer’s dementia
	Oral Start at 1.5 mg twice daily; increase each dose by 1.5 mg every 2–4 weeks; max dose 6 mg twice daily. Best taken with food. Re-titrate if treatment is interrupted >3 days. Oral tablets are often poorly tolerated; consider switch to patches
	Transdermal patch Start at 4.6 mg/24 h for 1 month; can increase to 9.5 mg/24 for 1 month then 13.3 mg/24 h (moderate-to-severe dementia) thereafter
<b>Cost</b>	Exelon patch 4.6, 9.5, and 13.3 mg, approximately \$300.00 (30 patches) Exelon oral solution 2 g/mL (120 mL), \$540.00

### Galantamine (Razadyne)

<b>Standard dose</b>	At 16–24 mg daily. Immediate release formulation is divided into twice a day dosing.
<b>Contraindications</b>	See “Class Effects.” Discontinue if QTc interval >500 ms
<b>Drug interaction</b>	See “Class Effects.” Medications that prolong the QTc interval.
<b>Main side effects</b>	See “Class Effects.”
<b>Special points</b>	Oral 8 mg daily for 30 days followed by 16 mg daily for 30 days, then 24 mg daily. Consider increasing to 32 mg daily for cognitive symptoms or treatment of neuropsychiatric symptoms.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• May be beneficial in mixed AD with cerebrovascular disease [22]</li> <li>• Prolongation in the QTc interval can occur.</li> <li>• Monitor potassium and magnesium levels, which can exacerbate arrhythmia.</li> </ul>
<b>Cost</b>	Galantamine 8 mg tabs, \$520.00 (60 tabs) Razadyne ER 16 mg, \$270.00 and 24 mg, \$835.00 (30 tabs)

### N-Methyl-D-Aspartic acid receptor antagonists

- A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials supports evidence for stabilization of cognition, functionality, behavior, and caregiver distress in patients with moderate to severe AD with memantine [26].
- Memantine was well tolerated [20].

- Can be used as monotherapy or prescribed with an AChEI. A synergistic effect has been observed with use of both an AChEI and memantine to slow the rate of cognitive decline in those with moderate dementia [23].

## Memantine (Namenda)

<b>Standard dose</b>	Ten milligrams twice daily or extended release 28 mg daily	
<b>Contraindications</b>	Allergy. Caution in severe renal disease	
<b>Drug interactions</b>	Some anti-arrhythmic medications such as procainamide, quinidine, and flecainamide compete for renal clearance and increase serum levels of both drugs. Midodrine.	
<b>Main side effects</b>	Headache, constipation or diarrhea, and worsening confusion or agitation.	
<b>Special points</b>	FDA approved for moderate-to-severe Alzheimer's dementia.	
	Intermediate release titration	Start 5 mg PO daily, then increase by 5 mg/day each week until 10 mg twice daily
	Extended release titration	Start 7 mg×1 week, then 14 mg×1 week, then 14 mg×1 week then 28 mg daily. Both immediate release and extended release have "starter packs."
<b>Cost</b>	Namenda 10 mg twice daily, approximately \$300.00 Namenda oral solution 10 mg/5 mL, approximately \$600.00 Namenda XR 7, 14, 21, and 28 mg. Manufacturing issues since May 2014 have interfered with availability. Approximately \$700.00 for 30 tabs.	

## Other considerations

- A practical treatment algorithm has recently been published [27].
  - For mild-to-moderate AD, monotherapy is recommended with an AChEI.
  - In moderate-to-severe AD, monotherapy or a combination of an AChEI with memantine can be considered.
  - Patients should be monitored for side effects or abrupt change.
  - Discontinuing medications should be considered if the patient has severe loss of cognitive and functional abilities.
- Switching AChEIs can be considered if the medication is not tolerated or becomes ineffective. Resolution of side effects is recommended prior to switching to another AChEI due to intolerance. If there is no benefit on cognition or function after one year of treatment, switching to another AChEI can be switched immediately. However, if the patient is showing progression of symptoms after initiating the medication, adding memantine may be more beneficial than switching to another AChEI [28•].
- Clinical judgment is advised, including an assessment of medication compliance and other co-morbidities prior to adjusting medications [28•].

- Treatment of neuropsychiatric symptoms and non-pharmacological strategies also should continue to be addressed.

## Treatment of neuropsychiatric symptoms

### Non-pharmacological strategies

- Although cognitive impairment is the clinical hallmark of AD, neuropsychiatric symptoms (NPS) are exceedingly more common and dominate the presentation [29]. Providers are often called upon to “fix” NPS; however, no pharmacologic solution addresses potential underlying causes of behaviors that may be most distressful to families [30].
- Non-pharmacological strategies are recognized as first-line treatment for neuropsychiatric symptoms of Alzheimer’s dementia [29, 30].
- Non-pharmacologic interventions aim to provide the caregivers with the competence and skills to tolerate and manage problematic behaviors. In addition, interventions are targeted at the affected person address basic intellectual, psychosocial, or physical human needs. The overall goal of therapy is to promote a supportive psychosocial, physical, and cognitively stimulating environment that enhances quality of life for both the individuals with Alzheimer’s disease and the immediate caregiver(s) [31–33].
- The most effective programs for treating NPS use a variety of interventions that are individualized to both the caregiver and care recipient who each bring unique characteristics to the relationship. The programs are intensive, usually requiring multidisciplinary teams [31–33, 34••]. Effective programs may delay nursing home placement. In those already in a nursing home, non-pharmacological strategies have equal or higher efficacy than pharmacological treatments without the risk of harm.
- Family caregivers are critical to maintaining recipient’s health, safety, and enabling the patient to stay at home. Providers need to monitor for caregiver burden which can be assessed with a variety of tools from simple screens to in-depth assessments through resources such as the Family Caregiver Alliance and the Alzheimer’s Disease Association [35].
- Annual systematic screening for NPS with a reliable tool such as the Neuropsychiatric Inventory Questionnaire [36] and implementation of preventive action plans is recommended [2••]. While most office visits may be time-limited in providing comprehensive assessments and guidance through a problem-solving process, providers can collaborate with social workers or train nursing staff to make appropriate referrals.
  - Screen for NPS at each visit. If not present, Provide resources about dementia, dementia stages, and common behavior symptoms relative to the stage.



Reinforce importance of early detection of behavior issues and notification of health care provider.

Reinforce need of the individuals with AD to have adequate stimulation and a structured daily routine.

Counsel caregivers of the importance of self-care and emphasize their prominent role as caregiver in the treatment plan.

- Screen for and address behavioral risk factors including
  - Caregiver distress
  - Patient pain
  - Sleep disturbance
  - Inadequate nutrition
  - Infection or acute illnesses, including dental disease and constipation
  - Medication interactions or changes (try to remove anti-cholinergic meds)
  - Absence of routine (irregular bedtime and waking hours, meals, activities, caregivers)
  - Absence of physical, cognitive, and social stimulation
  - Sensory loss (sight, hearing)
  - Safety
    - When behaviors are present, a more formal assessment and intervention is required. One approach is the evidence informed descriptive model developed by a team of experts—"DICE" [29].

**Describe** the behavior: ask the caregiver to describe an NPS event "as if in a movie." If possible, get recipients input as well.

**Investigate** to identify possible causes of the problem behavior: look at antecedents leading up to behavior and identify possible triggers, such as pain, fear of falling, boredom, pain, and caregiver fatigue.

**Create** a management plan:

- Address medical and physical factors, e.g., antibiotics for urinary tract infection, discontinuation of sedating medications and review sleep hygiene.
- Address caregiver needs such as a referral to psychologist for depression or a referral to support groups and caregiver dementia training to build appropriate skills to approach patient with NPS. In-home occupational therapy may be appropriate for home safety assessment, maximizing and supporting activities of daily living, adjusting the physical environment and finding appropriate pleasurable stimulating activities.
- Brainstorm strategies with caregiver to decrease frequency and severity of most problematic behaviors by avoiding triggers or preventing escalation, e.g., using a calm voice.
- Reinforce that pharmacologic strategies have limited effect on behaviors and put the patient at undue risk. Use only if mitigating strategies fail.

**Evaluate:** Identify strategies that are working and make refinements as needed.

---

## Pharmacological treatment

- Approximately 97 % of patients will experience at least one NPS. Most commonly reported are depression, anxiety, or apathy [29, 37].
- Anxiety, depression, aggression, delusions, and disinhibitions tend to be perceived as “severely” or “extremely” distressing by caregivers [38].
- Untreated NPS can lead to increase mortality, caregiver burden, earlier nursing home placement, and exaggerate cognitive and functional disabilities.
- Recognizing the negative impact of NPS, the PCPI established metrics to decrease NPS severity and frequency, which can be found at <http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/physician-consortium-performance-improvement.page>.
- There are no FDA-approved pharmacotherapies to treat NPS in dementia. However, pharmacological interventions are necessary when non-pharmacological interventions are unsuccessful, symptoms are severe enough for patient or caregiver harm, or when patient exhibits psychosis of AD [39]. The thresholds for severity remain unclear [40].
- Consider targeting treatment toward the most distressing presenting symptoms and matching to the most relevant drug class.
- Restlessness, non-purposeful activity, unfriendliness, poor self-care, emotional disengagement, repetitive verbalizations of questioning, rejection or refusal of care, shadowing, and wandering may not likely be affected by psychotropic medication.

---

## Apathy

- Apathy is associated with diminished motivation of goal-directed behavior. It is characterized by emotional indifference and lack of initiation and interest in daily activities and interpersonal relationships. Symptoms of apathy overlap with depression, are difficult to distinguish, and often occur together [41–43].
- NPS in persons with AD tend to occur early in the disease process and with increasing frequency as the disease progresses [42].
- The likely pathology of AD-related apathy results from cholinergic deficits and neuropathic changes in brain areas such as the anterior cingulate, frontal-subcortical circuit that are important for both the cognitive momentum to complete thoughts or actions, and the assignment of an appropriate affective value [41].
- Apathy adversely affects functional independence [42]. Caregivers are required to meet basic needs for patients unmotivated to act.
- Non-pharmacological recommendations are to optimize levels of appropriate stimulation and activities and to provide caregiver support to tolerate apathy.

- Best evidence for pharmacological treatment of apathy includes any AChEI. Memantine, psychostimulants, and atypical anti-psychotics may be considered, though there is insufficient evidence to support their use [42].

---

#### *AChEIs including Donepezil, Galantamine, and Rivastigmine*

---

- Level II evidence for modest effect in AD-related apathy. A review of one randomized controlled trial and eight open label studies that included a total of 7655 patients treated with AChEI (6752 on rivastigmine) concludes that 379 (4.95 %) had improved apathy scores that reached statistical significance [42, 43].

---

#### *Memantine*

---

- Level II B (two double-blinded randomized controlled trials) supports significant improvements in apathy levels [42]. Doses may be beneficial at 10–30 mg daily.

---

#### *Amphetamines*

---

- Two small randomized controlled trials for methylphenidate 10 mg twice a day suggest a modest improvement in arousal, processing speed, and some aspects of motivation, but doses were often decreased due to side effects [43].

---

### **Anxiety/Depression/Irritability**

- Serotonergic and dopaminergic neurotransmission is impaired in AD and likely contributes to depressive, anxious, and agitation symptoms. The exact mechanism of depression related to AD is not understood. More recent neuropathological studies suggest alterations in glutamatergic transmission [44].
- Non-pharmacologic treatment includes setting expectations at a patient's level of ability and creating pleasurable experiences. In addition, psychological treatments can reduce depressive symptoms in people with dementia [45].
- A recent review of ten randomized controlled trials and three meta-analyses that examined the evidence for efficacy and safety of anti-depressants in treating depression in dementia was inconclusive [46].
- In addition, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) have been associated with increased falls in nursing home patients. Treatment recommendations are to treat significant persistent depressed mood with an SSRI based on minimal anti-cholinergic activity [46].

*Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors***Citalopram**

<b>Standard dose</b>	Ten to forty milligrams daily
<b>Contraindications</b>	Gastrointestinal bleeding; monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Not recommended in those with bradycardia, uncompensated congestive heart failure, congenital QT prolongation syndrome, hypokalemia, recent myocardial infarction, and hypomagnesaemia. Discontinue with QTc interval >500 ms.
<b>Drug interactions</b>	CYP2C19 substrate, CYP2C19 weak inhibitor, and other serotonergic drugs. Medications with antiplatelet effects medication that lower sodium (hydrochlorothiazide, carbamazepine). Medications that prolong QTc (antipsychotics, odansetron). Serotonergic medications (fentanyl, TCAs, antipsychotics).
<b>Main side effects</b>	Gastrointestinal distress, anorexia, weight loss, sedation, insomnia, sexual side effects, and paradoxical agitation. Prolonged QT interval.
<b>Special points</b>	A maximum dose of 20 mg/day in individuals >60 years is recommended by the FDA for risk of arrhythmia due to QTc interval prolongation. Twenty-milligram dose typically increases QTc by 5.3–7.9 ms, and 40 mg dose typically increases QTc interval by 12.6 mg (90 % CI, 10.9–14.3 ms) [47].
<b>Cost</b>	Ten milligrams, \$80.00 (30 tabs); 20 mg, \$100.00 (30 tabs); 40 mg, \$90.00 (30 tabs); and 10 mg/5 mL (240 mL), \$200.00

**Sertraline**

<b>Standard dose</b>	At 50–200 mg/day
<b>Contraindications</b>	Monamine oxidase inhibitors and pimoside
<b>Drug interactions</b>	CYP2C19 substrate, CYP2D6 substrate, CYP3A4 substrate, and CYP2D6 weak inhibitor (some anticonvulsants, antipsychotics, benzodiazepines, anti-arrhythmic, antibiotics), other serotonergic medications (triptans TCA, cyclobenzaprine, tramadol, fentanyl), and NSAIDs anti-platelet and anti-coagulant agents
<b>Main side effects</b>	Diarrhea (may appear at any time after initiating treatment), anorexia, weight loss, sedation, insomnia, sexual side effects, and paradoxical agitation.
<b>Special points</b>	Start at 25–50 mg daily. May increase in 2-week intervals. Effect may not be appreciated for 4–6 weeks. Taper off to discontinue.
<b>Cost</b>	Sertraline 50 mg, \$16.00 (30 tabs) and 100 mg, \$19.00 (30 tabs). Oral solution 20 mg/mL and 60 mL, \$100.00

**Aggression/Agitation**

- There are variable definitions of “clinically significant aggression and agitation” that may be characterized by a range of mood, verbal and motor disturbances such as calling out, cursing, threatening or actual physical aggression or combativeness, pacing, and wandering.

- Acute psychomotor delirium or agitation may be considered a medical emergency and may require immediate treatment [48].

#### AChEI and Memantine

---

- Treatment with AChEIs has best evidence for benefit in mild-to-moderate symptoms; there is little benefit for severe agitation or aggression [49]. Benefit may be seen with donepezil 10 mg and galantamine 24 mg dosing [20].
- Memantine had no clear benefit for severe NPS [23].

#### SSRIs

---

- Evidence (randomized controlled trial, limited studies, class B evidence) of benefit for anti-depressant vs. placebo to reduce agitation and psychosis is fair quality [50]. Evidence is strongest for citalopram (escitalopram) and sertraline. These SSRIs may be equal to anti-psychotics with better side effect profile [51, 52].
- SSRIs may improve NPS by modulating serotonergic neurotransmission that may be impaired in AD [50].

### Citalopram

<b>Standard dose</b>	Studies used doses of 30–40 mg/day, which is above the recommended doses of 20 mg for individuals older than 60 years.
<b>Contraindications</b>	See above.
<b>Main side effects</b>	See above.
<b>Special points</b>	Citalopram 30 mg daily may be equivalent to risperidone 1.25 mg/day for aggression and hostility [51]. In the recent Citalopram for Agitation in Alzheimer Disease (CitAD) Study, citalopram 30 mg daily also was more effective than placebo in improving agitation and caregiver distress [52]. Note again that both of these studies used doses that were above the recommended doses of 20 mg in individuals older than 60 years old. Caution is advised for cardiac adverse effects if the 30 mg dose is used.
<b>Cost</b>	See above.

### Sertraline

<b>Standard dose</b>	At 50–200 mg.
<b>Contraindications</b>	See above.
<b>Main side effects</b>	See above.
<b>Drug interactions</b>	See above.
<b>Special points</b>	See above.
<b>Cost</b>	See above.

*Non-sedating, non-benzodiazepine anxiolytic partial 5HT receptor agonists*

- Modest efficacy (no randomized controlled trials, many open label, class C evidence) for anxiety, mixed anxiety/depression, agitation and aggression without the sedation, and falls associated with psychotropics and benzodiazepines [53].

**Buspirone**

<b>Standard dose</b>	At 5–20 mg three times a day.
<b>Contraindications</b>	Monoamine oxidase inhibitor use for 14 days (due to hypertension), linezolid, and methylene blue.
<b>Drug interactions</b>	Grapefruit increases levels and should be avoided. Buspirone increases effects of Haldol. CYP3A4 substrate, strong serotonergic effects; CPY3A4 substrate (avoid inhibitors like ketoconazole). Increase effects of warfarin.
<b>Main side effects</b>	Dizziness, headache, sleep disturbances, and gastrointestinal disturbance.
<b>Special points</b>	Start 5 mg twice a day or three times a day, then increase by 5 mg daily every 2–3 days. Maximum dose is 60 mg/day.
<b>Cost</b>	Five milligrams, \$45.00 (90 tabs); 10 mg, \$100.70 (60 tabs); 15 mg, \$100.00 (60 tabs); and 30 mg, \$150.00 (60 tabs).

*Mood stabilizers*

- Although frequently used, a systematic review concluded that valproic acid and divalproex are not effective in treating aggression or agitation in Alzheimer's disease, can cause brain volume loss, and may accelerate cognitive decline [54]. There is insufficient data for management of NPS with lamotrigine, oxycarbamazepine, topiramate, or gabapentin [55].

**Carbamazepine**

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Some benefit over placebo in a randomized controlled trial for management of agitation (evidence "C," inconsistent patient-oriented evidence) [56].</li> </ul>
<b>Standard dose</b>	Average dose 300 mg (low dose compared with seizure or bipolar disorder).
<b>Contraindications</b>	Avoid with TCA (especially nefazadone) and monoamine oxidase inhibitors.
<b>Main side effects</b>	Sedation, hyponatremia, leukopenia, ataxia, postural instability, rash, weakness, and disorientation.
<b>Drug interactions</b>	Strong enzyme inducer of CYP450 3A4 and keep acetaminophen doses to max dose 2 g/day.
<b>Special points</b>	Black box warning for toxic epidermal necrolysis and Steven-Johnson Syndrome. Monitor for aplastic anemia and suicide. Limit use in the very old due to increased risk of side effects (falls and sedation). Start 100 mg twice a day then increase to every 8 h.

**Cost** Carbamazepine 100 mg chewable, \$30.00 (90 tabs); 200 mg tablet, \$12.00 (60 tabs); and 200 mg ER, \$80.00 (60 tabs)

### Benzodiazepines

There are multiple recommendations in the literature to avoid chronic use in elders. There is a paucity of evidence for use of benzodiazepines for psychosis or NPS in dementia in clinical trials. For acute aggression or delirium in an individual with AD, "rescue" treatment with benzodiazepines may be appropriate [48].

### Lorazepam

<b>Standard dose</b>	Lorazepam 0.25–1.0 mg by mouth as needed.
<b>Contraindications</b>	Avoid rescue treatment with benzodiazepines in individuals with respiratory disease.
<b>Main side effects</b>	Sedation, falls, and confusion in chronic use. Case studies of paradoxical agitation. High risk of respiratory depression.
<b>Special points</b>	Frequently implicated for inducing delirium and worsening pre-existing cognitive impairment. Risk of tolerance and dependency with long-term use. First-line treatment for acute aggressive agitation for patients with Parkinson's disease or Lewy body disease.
<b>Cost</b>	Lorazepam 0.5 mg, \$13.00 (30 tabs); 1 mg, \$15.00 (90 tabs); and 2 mg, \$25.00 (30 tabs). Solution 2 mg/mL (30 mL), \$60.00.

### Hallucinations/Delusions/Paranoia with or without aggression

#### AChEI and/or Memantine

- AChE-I have small but significant effect over placebo in mild-to-moderate symptoms but not acute aggression (classes A–B) [49].
- Memantine may benefit mild-to-moderate irritability, agitation or aggression, and psychosis over 3–6 months (class A–B) [57].

#### Conventional antipsychotics

- Antipsychotics may improve on aggression and psychosis but are poorly tolerated [58].
- Limited by side effects: extrapyramidal symptoms, sedation, falls, orthostatic hypotension, prolonged QTc interval, and tardive dyskinesia.
- Conventional antipsychotics have higher rates of cerebrovascular adverse events and death than atypical antipsychotics [59].
- A retrospective case-control study on 90,786 participants reports an increased risk of mortality (3.8 % for haloperidol, 3.7 % for risperidone, 2.5 % for olanzapine, and 2.0 % for quetiapine). Higher doses increased risk [60].

## Haloperidol

<b>Standard dose</b>	Chronic symptoms 0.5–5 mg twice a day or three times a day. Start 0.5 mg twice a day to three times a day. For acute psychomotor agitation, 5 mg IV or IM.
<b>Contraindications</b>	Concomitant use of solid potassium formulations, medications with known effects to prolong QTc interval, quinidine. Interacts with warfarin, certain antibiotics, etc. Congestive heart failure and recent myocardial infarction.
<b>Main side effects</b>	Tardive dyskinesia, EPS, dystonia, anticholinergic effects, sedation, orthostatic hypotension, and cognitive impairment.
<b>Special points</b>	Prescribing practice has changed since 2008 in response to specific concerns about the adverse effects of typical anti-psychotics. Haloperidol remains a controversial treatment of aggression and psychosis in dementia [40]. Check ECG for baseline QTc. It is our opinion that haloperidol should never be used in those with dementia.
<b>Cost</b>	Haloperidol 0.5 or 1 mg (30 tabs), \$12.00; 2 mg, \$23.00 (30 tabs); and 5 mg tab, \$4.00 (30 tabs).

*Atypical antipsychotics*

## Class Effects

- Efficacy is modest for benefit on NPS (randomized controlled trials, good evidence) and appears to be most effective in reducing anger, hostility, and psychosis [54, 57, 60, 61] There are high rates of intolerable side effects of olanzapine and risperidone [62•]. Evidence level II–III, A–B.
- Strongest evidence for effect on NPS is for risperidone (Class I randomized controlled trial studies, well done). Approved for use in the UK, Australia, and Canada for psychosis in dementia. There is additional evidence supporting efficacy to treat NPS with olanzapine and aripiprazole [55, 61, 63]; however, benefit may be small.
- Atypical antipsychotics were associated with worsening cognitive function that is both statistically significant and clinically relevant [62•, 64]
- In 2005, the FDA issued a black box warning for use of atypical antipsychotics in people with dementia based on 17 placebo-controlled trials which reported an increased risk of death that is 1.6–1.7 times the rate of placebo (number needed to harm (NNH) varied from 26 to 87) and stroke (NNH=53) [63, 65••].
  - Death was most often attributed to cardiovascular events or infection.
  - Risk is evident by 30 days and absolute risk of mortality increases over time [40, 59].
  - Efficacy, safety, and tolerability thus should be carefully considered against clinical need [66].
    - Consensus recommendations suggest use of atypical antipsychotics as first-line agents only in presence of major depression, psychosis with risk of harm, and aggression with risk of harm. Discuss risks, benefits, and goals of treatment with caregivers. Evaluate response to treatment and monitor for side effects. Stop if ineffective or unacceptable side effects. Use low



doses. Wean off as soon as possible [29]. Results of the dementia antipsychotic withdrawal trial (DART-AD) demonstrated a doubling of survival rates at 3 years in patients randomized to the cease antipsychotic treatment arm (class A) [67].

- Discontinuation of antipsychotics in most individuals on chronic treatment did not exhibit worsening behavior (higher risk of exacerbation in those on high doses and with more severe NPS) [68]. Consider discontinuation of antipsychotics unless two previous attempts led to clear exacerbation.

<b>Contraindications</b>	Hypersensitivity to drug class, low potassium, low magnesium, congenital prolonged QTc, and arrhythmia. Discontinue for a QTc interval >500 ms. Multiple cautions include hepatic impairment, diabetes, leukopenia, Parkinson's, or Lewy body disease
<b>Main side effects</b>	Sedation, orthostatic hypotension, fall-related injury, weight gain, elevated glucose, dyslipidemia, extrapyramidal symptoms, worsened cognitive impairment, and anti-cholinergic effects. Increased urinary and upper respiratory infections.
<b>Drug interactions</b>	Additive effect with hypotensive agents, sedating agents, serotonergic agents, and anti-cholinergic agents. Watch additive effect on QT interval, e.g., ciprofloxacin
<b>Special points</b>	Lowers seizure threshold. Follow complete blood count.

---

## Quetiapine

<b>Standard dose</b>	At 50–200 mg
<b>Contraindications</b>	See "Class Effects."
<b>Main side effects</b>	See "Class Effects."
<b>Drug interactions</b>	See "Class Effects."
<b>Special points</b>	Quetiapine has lowest association with mortality, but it also has least evidence of beneficial effect. Moderate level of strength of evidence for use in agitation with prominent generalized anxiety. It is equally effective as paroxetine and escitalopram to treat anxiety [63].
<b>Cost</b>	At 25 mg, \$310.00 (60 tabs); 50 mg, \$500.00 (60 tabs); 100 mg, \$510.00 (60 tabs); 200 mg, \$875.00 (60 tabs); 300 mg, \$1200.00 (60 tabs); and 400 mg, \$1325.00 (60 tabs).

---

## Risperidone

<b>Standard dose</b>	At 0.5–3 mg. Start 0.25 mg daily then increase by 0.25–0.5 mg/day every week. Doses greater than 4 mg are rarely more effective. Study doses typically 0.5–2 mg/day (class IB).
<b>Contraindications</b>	Pre-existing leukopenia or neutropenia.
<b>Drug interactions</b>	See "Class Effects."
<b>Main side effects</b>	Orthostatic hypotension.
<b>Special points</b>	Consensus recommendations suggest maximum doses of 1.0 to 1.5 mg/day. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• May be helpful for agitation with obsessive-compulsive behaviors [63].</li> </ul>
<b>Cost</b>	At 0.25 mg, \$80.00 (60 tabs); 0.5 mg, \$150.00 (60 tabs); 1 mg, \$100.00 (60 tabs); 2 mg, \$270.00 (60 tabs); 3 mg, \$600.00 (60 tabs); and 4 mg, \$300.00 (60 tabs).

## Olanzapine

<b>Standard dose</b>	At 5–10 mg/day. Start 2.5–5 mg by mouth daily in older adults, female or those with risk for hypotension. Increase by 2.5 mg daily every 1–2 weeks. Doses >10 mg daily rarely more effective
<b>Contraindications</b>	Do not give with solid potassium dose formulations. Discontinue if absolute neutrophil count <1000/mm <sup>3</sup> .
<b>Drug interactions</b>	See “Class Effects.”
<b>Main side effects</b>	More anti-cholinergic effects than others in this class.
<b>Special points</b>	May have more benefit on aggression than psychosis.
<b>Cost</b>	At 2.5 mg tab, \$11.00; 5 mg, tab \$13.00; 7.5 mg, \$14.0; and disintegrating tabs, \$50–100/tab.

### Third-generation anti-psychotics (Partial D2 Receptor Agonist)

- Also called dopamine stabilizers. Act as agonist in areas that dopamine concentration is low and antagonist where dopamine levels are high. Lack effects in areas of normal dopamine levels, notably the nigral striatum.

## Aripiprazole

<b>Standard dose</b>	Start 2 mg by mouth daily for 1 week. Increase to 5 mg by mouth daily and then 5 mg/week. Goal dose is 5–10 mg daily. Average dose for efficacy is 10 mg. Doses greater than 15 mg/day are rarely effective.
<b>Contraindications</b>	Discontinue for absolute neutrophil count <1000/mm <sup>3</sup> .
<b>Main side effects</b>	Somnolence (8 %) and accidental death (8 %). Worsened cognitive impairment (0.8 point drop on Mini-Mental State Examination), orthostatic hypotension, tachycardia, decreased seizure threshold, tremor, and gastrointestinal disturbances [69]
<b>Special points</b>	Extrapyramidal symptoms, weight gain, prolactin elevation, cardiovascular adverse effects, and electrocardiogram changes equal to placebo. Mintzer et al. reports mortality rates appear to be dose related: placebo, 3 %; 2 mg dose, 3 %; 5 mg dose, 2 %; and 10 mg dose, 7 % but deemed not statistically significant [70]. No deaths in the treatment arm [69]. Good evidence for management of psychosis [70].
<b>Cost</b>	At 2 mg, \$775.00 (30 tabs); 5 mg, \$785.00 (30 tabs); 10 mg, \$760.00 (30 tabs); 15 mg, \$690.00 (30 tabs); and 20 mg, \$1,055.00 (30 tabs)

## Emerging therapies

- Currently available drugs such as the acetylcholinesterase inhibitors may improve cognitive and behavioral symptoms but do not change the progression of the underlying pathology of AD [71].

- Agents that block amyloid production or improve amyloid clearance have failed to show benefit bringing into question the amyloid hypothesis, but the timing of intervention with these therapies may be a reason for their lack of efficacy [71].
  - An important consideration is that clinically apparent AD is the manifestation of a disease process that is 10–25 years in the making. Research is also being directed toward identification of appropriate biochemical markers of preclinical AD and preventing clinical symptoms as a long-term goal [72].
  - Agents that target protein misfolding, mitochondrial dysfunction, tau phosphorylation, and diabetes, which have shown promise and are under current investigation [71].
  - In addition to drug modulating therapies and cognitive enhancing drugs, there are ongoing evaluations of medications to target the distressing NPS of AD.
- 
- Non-pharmacological strategies including activity therapy, home occupational therapy interventions, and transcranial magnetic stimulation are currently under investigation with support from NIH.
  - Medications with better side effect profiles are also being studied to address depression, agitation, aggression and psychosis. A small randomized controlled trial of the alpha-adrenoceptor blocker prazosin indicates potential benefit in the treatment of NPS in AD patients and a large RCT is underway (class B evidence) [73].

## Caregiver education and support

- Caregivers need to be formally established and not assumed. They are an essential component of the treatment plan and should be aware of their role, the need for training and support from other individuals and institutions, and the importance of preventive strategies for “burnout.” Especially with spouses or elderly caregivers, clinicians should carefully assess the caregiver’s own cognitive abilities; a failure to implement caregiving plans or persistent failure of non-medical interventions may signal an impaired caregiver.
- Caregiver education and support require both general information and treatment strategies that are individualized to each unique dementia care recipient-caregiver dyad. The progression of AD may follow a predictable progression, and the person with AD will exhibit various neuropsychiatric symptoms at various points along the trajectory. However, the type of neuropsychiatric symptoms, severity, frequency, and response to treatment will vary across individuals [34••].
- Baseline personalities should be considered. The caregiver, on the other hand, may not perceive themselves as a natural caregiver or resent being placed in the caregiver role. Personality characteristics such as flexibility, creativity, pessimism, sense of humor, and willingness to sacrifice may affect how the

- caregiver is able to adapt as the individual with AD changes [34••].
- Moreover, general health, strength, and size of social networks and finances will influence the caregiver's response and sense of burden. As the disease progresses, the caregiver has to face a series of losses while developing more sophisticated strategies to support a more dependent loved one [34••].
  - Finally, the historical relationship between the caregiver and recipient will influence the dyad throughout the disease. The dyad relationship is dynamic. Positive or negative changes in the behavior of the individual with AD similarly influence changes in caregiver behavior and vice versa. Therefore, each individual with Alzheimer's disease will be treated uniquely based on symptoms that can be tolerated and managed by the caregivers in their life to maximize quality of life of all involved [34••].
  - Programs for support may include seminars/lectures, structured peer group sessions, psychotherapy, or dementia care training

## Safety precautions

- Those with dementia are at higher risk for falls. Assessing for fall risk and providing suggestions to mitigate fall risk is warranted in patients with AD dementia [74].
- Those with dementia are at a higher risk for driving. Assessing for driving risk is also warranted in those with AD dementia. Patients may need to discontinue driving and take a driving evaluation. Suggesting alternative transportation may assist in easing the transition [75].
- Medication adherence may also be challenging in those with dementia. Oversight with medications and aids to remind patients to take their medications may be useful in patients with AD dementia [76].
- Other safety precautions include removing harmful objects from the household, including firearms [27].

## Palliative care and advance care planning

- End of life planning should begin early. The American Academy of Neurology/American Medical Association/Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services quality performance measures require palliative care counseling and advance care plans to be implemented within two years of diagnosis or assumption of care [2••]. The documents should be placed in the chart.
- Early consideration of end of life issues reduces stress of introducing end of life planning at a critical juncture, ensures patient input and identification of patient centered meaningful goals, and eases family and caregiver burden of trying to guess or estimate patient wishes at times of critical change. Additionally, other terminal conditions may

occur and often do before severe dementia stages are reached. Overall, the goal is a “good death.”

- Counseling should include:
  - Elder law referrals for legal and financial planning which provide the most benefit if initiated early
  - Preparation of advanced directives
  - Initial identification of end of life wishes. Revisit these goals and directives at least every 2 years throughout disease course. Caregivers should be integrated into the discussion early but in later stages, they may be more integral to the discussion.
- Cognition should be measured annually and function staged to determine proactive identification of patient and caregiver needs and rate of change for prognosis purposes. Acceleration in the annual rate of decline is associated with an inflection point from severe dementia to terminal decline and indicates likelihood of death within 2 years. On the other hand, a rapid change occurring in earlier stages suggests medical comorbidity which potentially can be identified, treated, and/or considered in overall prognostication (infection, metabolic, medication side effect, inflammatory/paraneoplastic, sleep apnea, impaired sleep hygiene, etc.). Cognitive status can be measured with screening mental status examinations, formal neuropsychological testing. Functional staging can be measured with items such as the Clinical Dementia Rating scale [77].
- Other medical conditions may intervene, such as congestive heart failure or cancer and need to be incorporated in staging and prognostication
- Identify and encourage interaction with community hospice and specialty resources (e.g., Alzheimer’s Association, Parkinson’s Association).
- Future initiatives are being devised to adopt technology to aid in end-of-life planning [78]. There is limited benefit of current advanced directives tool due to low completion rates, lack of availability when needed, lack of current tools for helping patients and families identify personal values, and inability to easily modify these tools as disease progresses, other diseases intervene, and support systems change. Web-based tools should be developed such as clouds, chat rooms, Webinars, Internet support groups, and multimedia capabilities with interactive software that can better target and engage different groups (e.g., children, different ethnic and cultural groups, non-English speakers, etc.).

## Conclusions

A comprehensive approach is warranted in the treatment and management of those with AD. Treatment is currently symptomatic. Non-

pharmacological strategies, caregiver support, and safety precautions should be considered.

## Compliance with Ethics Guidelines

### Conflict of Interest

Jennifer Rose V. Molano, Robin Bratt, and Rhonna Shatz declare no conflicts of interest.

### Human and Animal Rights and Informed Consent

This article does not contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any of the authors.

## References and Recommended Reading

Papers of particular interest, published recently, have been highlighted as:

- Of importance
- Of major importance

1. McKhann GM et al. The diagnosis of dementia due to Alzheimer's disease: recommendations from the National Institute on Aging and the Alzheimer's Association workgroup. *Alzheimer's Dement*. 2011;7(3):263–9.
  - 2.•• Odenheimer G et al. Quality improvement in neurology: dementia management quality measures. *Neurology*. 2013;81:1545–9.
- Brief overview of the dementia management quality measures with a link to the Physician Consortium for Performance Improvement Website.
3. Barnard ND et al. Dietary and lifestyle guidelines for the prevention of Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol Aging*. 2014;35:S74–8.
  - 4.• Ngandu T et al. A 2 year multi-domain intervention of diet, exercise, cognitive training and vascular risk monitoring versus control to prevent cognitive decline in at-risk elderly people (FINGER); a randomized controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2015. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(15)60461-5.
- Large, randomized controlled trial showing the importance of lifestyle modification in modifying cognitive decline.
5. Singh B et al. Association of Mediterranean diet with mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Alzheimers Dis*. 2014;39(2):271–82.
  6. van de Rest O et al. Dietary patterns, cognitive decline, and dementia: a systematic review. *Adv Nutri*. 2015. doi:10.3945/an.114.007617.
  7. Swaminathan A, Jicha GA. Nutrition and prevention of Alzheimer's disease. *Front Aging Neurosci*. 2014. doi:10.3389/fnagi.2014.00282.
  8. Ripjima A, Meulenbroek O, Olde Rikkert MGM. Cholinesterase inhibitors and add-on nutritional supplements in Alzheimer's disease: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials. *Ageing Res Rev*. 2014;16:105–12.
  9. Forbes D et al. Exercise programs for people with dementia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2013;12, CD006489.
  10. Bossers WJ et al. A 9-week aerobic and strength training program improves cognitive and motor function in patients with dementia: a randomized, controlled trial. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2015. doi:10.1016/j.jagp.2014.12.191.
  11. Brown D et al. Development of an exercise intervention to improve cognition in people with mild to moderate dementia: dementia and Physical Activity (DAPA) trial, registration ISRCTN32612072. *Physiotherapy*. 2015. doi:10.1016/j.physio.2015.01.002.
  12. Chokroverty S. Sleep and neurodegenerative diseases. *Semin Neurol*. 2009;29(4):446–67.
  13. Kondratova AA et al. The circadian clock and pathology of the aging brain. *Nat Rev Neurosci*. 2012;13(5):325–35.
  14. McCleery J, Cohen DA, Sharpley AL. Pharmacotherapies for sleep disturbances in Alzheimer's disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2014;3, CD009178.
  15. Xu J et al. Melatonin for sleep disorders and cognition in dementia: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Am J Alzheimers Dis Other Dement*. 2015. doi:10.1177/1533317514568005.
  16. McCurry SM et al. Increasing walking and bright light exposure to improve sleep in community-dwelling persons with Alzheimer's disease: results of a randomized, controlled trial. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2011;59:1393–402.
  17. Molano J, Vaughn BV. Approach to insomnia in patients with dementia. *Neurol Clin Pract*. 2014;4(1):7–15.

18. Ruthirakuhan M et al. Use of physical and intellectual activities and socialization in the management of cognitive decline of aging and dementia: a review. *J Aging Res.* 2012. doi:10.3233/JAD-130866.
  19. Hyde C et al. Evolution of the effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of acetylcholinesterase inhibitors and memantine for Alzheimer's disease: systematic review and economic model. *Age and Aging.* 2013;42:14–20.
  20. Tan CC et al. Efficacy and safety of donepezil, galantamine, rivastigmine, and memantine for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2014;41(2):615–31. doi:10.3233/JAD-132690.
  21. Birks J. Cholinesterase inhibitors for Alzheimer's disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2006;1, CD005593.
  22. Massoud F, Gauthier S. Update on the pharmacological treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *Curr Neuropharmacol.* 2010;8(1):69–80.
  23. Di Oliviera FF et al. Pharmacological modulation of cognitive and behavioral symptoms in patients with Alzheimer's disease. *J Neuro Sci.* 2014;336(1–2):103–8.
  24. Kavanaugh S, VanBaelen B, Sch uble B. Long term effects of galantamine on cognitive function in Alzheimer's disease: a large scale international retrospective study. *J Alzheimer's Disord.* 2011;27:521–30.
  25. Lyle S et al. Treatment of whole population sample of Alzheimer's disease with donepezil over a 4 year period: lessons learned. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord.* 2008;25:226–31.
  26. Di Santo SG et al. A meta-analysis of the efficacy of donepezil, rivastigmine, galantamine, and memantine in relation to severity of Alzheimer's disease. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2013;35(2):349–61. doi:10.3233/JAD-122140.
  27. Cummings JL et al. A practical algorithm for managing Alzheimer's disease: what, when and why? *Ann Clin Transl Neurol.* 2015;2(3):307–23.
  - 28.● Massoud F, Desmarais JE, Gauthier S. Switching cholinesterase inhibitors in older adults with dementia. *Int Psychogeriatr.* 2011;23(3):372–8.
- Good review of studies that have investigated the switch of cholinesterase inhibitors in AD, with a practical approach in addressing intolerance and lack of efficacy with these medications.
29. Kales HC, Gitlin LN, Lyketsos CG. Management of neuropsychiatric symptoms of dementia in clinical settings: recommendations from multidisciplinary expert panel. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2014;62:762–9.
  30. Gitlin LN, Kales HC, Lyketsos CG. Managing behavioral symptoms in dementia using nonpharmacologic approaches: an overview. *JAMA.* 2012;308(19):2020–9.
  31. Smits CH et al. Effects of combined intervention programs for people with dementia living at home and their caregivers: a systematic review. *Int Geriatr Psychiatry.* 2007;22(12):1181–93.
  32. Rosalynn Carter Institute for Caregiving. What Makes A Caregiver Program Effective? 2012. [http://www.rosalynncarter.org/what\\_makes\\_caregiver\\_programs\\_effective/](http://www.rosalynncarter.org/what_makes_caregiver_programs_effective/).
  33. Gitlin LN et al. Targeting and managing behavioral symptoms in individuals with dementia: a randomized trial of a nonpharmacological intervention. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2010;58(8):1465–74.
  - 34.●● Kales HC and Gitlin LN. Assessment and management of behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia. *BMJ* 2015;5:350:h369 doi:10.1136/bmj369.
- Excellent summary of NPS, factors contributing to symptoms, evidence for non-pharmacological and pharmacological interventions, theoretical framework and strategies for assessment, evaluations and management strategies for the clinician, initiating treatment plan and suggestions for collaboration and referral. Comprehensive reference list includes many historically and currently relevant articles on which knowledge is being built.
35. Adelman RD et al. Care giver burden: a clinical review. *JAMA.* 2014;311(10):1052–9.
  36. Cummings JL et al. The neuropsychiatric inventory: comprehensive assessment of psychopathology in dementia. *Neurology.* 1994;44:2308–14.
  37. Steinberg M et al. Point and 5 year period prevalence of neuropsychiatric symptoms in dementia: the Cache county study. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry.* 2008;23:170–7.
  38. Thyrian JR et al. Burden of behavioral and psychiatric symptoms in people screened positive for dementia in primary care: results of the Delphi Study. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2015. doi:10.3233/JAD-143114.
  39. Madhusoodanan S, Ting MB. Pharmacological management of behavior symptoms associated with dementia. *World J Psychiatry.* 2014;4(4):72–9.
  40. Corbett A, Smith J, Creese B, Ballard C. Treatment of behavioral and psychological symptoms of Alzheimer's disease. *Curr Treat Options Neurol.* 2012;14:113–25.
  41. Tagariello P, Girardi P, Amore M. Depression and apathy in dementia: same syndrome or different constructs: a critical review. *Arch Gerontol Geriatr.* 2009;49(2):246–9.
  42. Berman K, Brodaty H, Withall A, Seeher K. Pharmacologic treatment of apathy in dementia. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry.* 2012;20(2):104–22.
  43. Rea R et al. Review article: apathy in Alzheimer's disease: any effective treatment? *Sci World J.* 2014. doi:10.1155/2014/421385.
  44. Enache D, Winblad B, Aarsland D. Depression in dementia: epidemiology, mechanisms, and treatment. *Curr Opin Psychiatry.* 2011;24(6):461–7.
  45. Ortega V et al. Psychological treatments for depression and anxiety in dementia and mild cognitive impairment. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2014;1, CD009125.
  46. Leong C. Antidepressants for depression in patients with dementia: a review of the literature. *Consult Pharm.* 2014;29(4):254–63.
  47. Federal Drug Administration. FDA Drug Safety Communication: Revised recommendations for Celexa (citalopram hydrobromide) related to a potential risk of

- abnormal heart rhythms with high doses. 2012. <http://www.fda.gov/Drugs/DrugSafety/ucm297391.htm>.
48. Nassisi D et al. The evaluation and management of the acutely agitated patient. *Mt Sinai J Med*. 2006;73(7):976–84.
  49. Trihn NH et al. Efficacy of cholinesterase inhibitors in the treatment of neuropsychiatric symptoms and functional impairment in Alzheimer's disease; a meta-analysis. *JAMA*. 2003;289(2):210–6.
  50. Seitz DP et al. Antidepressants for agitation and psychosis in dementia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2011;2, CD008819.
  51. Pollock BG et al. A double blind comparison of citalopram and risperidone for the treatment of behavioral and psychotic symptoms associated with dementia. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2007;15:942–52.
  52. Porsteinsson AP et al. CitAD Research Group. Effect of citalopram on agitation in Alzheimer disease: the CitAD randomized clinical trial. *JAMA*. 2014;311(7):682–91.
  53. Desai AK, Grossberg GT. Buspirone in Alzheimer's disease. *Expert Rev Neurother*. 2003;3(1):19–28.
  54. Lonergan E, Luxenberg J. Valproate preparations for agitation in dementia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2009;3, CD003945.
  55. Amann B et al. Anticonvulsants in the treatment of aggression in the demented elderly. *Clin Pract Epidemiol Ment Health*. 2009;5:14.
  56. Seitz DP et al. Pharmacologic treatments for neuropsychiatric symptoms of dementia in long term care: a systematic review. *Int Psychogeriatrics*. 2013;25(2):185–203.
  57. Wilcock GK et al. Memantine for agitation/aggression and psychosis in moderately severe to severe Alzheimer's disease: a pooled analysis of three studies. *J Clin Psychiatry*. 2008;69(3):341–8.
  58. Schneider LS, Tariot PN, Dagerman KS, Davis SM. Effectiveness of atypical antipsychotics drugs in patients with Alzheimer's disease. *NEJM*. 2006;355(15):1525–38.
  59. Wang PS et al. Risk of death in elderly users of conventional vs. atypical antipsychotic medications. *N Engl J Med*. 2005;353(22):2335–41.
  60. Maust DT et al. Antipsychotics, other psychotropics, and risk of death in patients with dementia: number needed to harm. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2015;72(5):438–45.
  61. Ballard C, Waite J. The effectiveness of atypical antipsychotics for the treatment of aggression and psychosis in Alzheimer's disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2006;1, CD003476.
  - 62.• Vigen CLP et al. Cognitive effects of atypical antipsychotic medications in patients with Alzheimer's disease: outcomes from CATIE-AD. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2011;168:831–9.
- Describes risk of worsening cognitive impairment with atypical antipsychotics.
63. Maher AR et al. Efficacy and comparative effectiveness of atypical antipsychotic medications for off label uses in adults: a systemic review and meta-analysis. *J Am Med Assoc*. 2011;306(12):1359–69.
  64. Corbett A, Burns A, Ballard C. Don't use antipsychotics routinely to treat agitation and aggression in people with dementia. *BMJ*. 2014;349:g6420. doi:10.1136/bmj.g6420.
  - 65.•• Schneider LS, Dagerman KS, Insel P. Risk of death with atypical antipsychotic drug treatment for dementia: meta-analysis of randomized placebo controlled trials. *JAMA*. 2005;294:1934–43.
- Study that initiated the FDA warning black box warning for atypical antipsychotics.
66. Ma H et al. The efficacy and safety of atypical antipsychotics for the treatment of dementia: a meta-analysis of randomized placebo-controlled trials. *J Alzheimer's Dis*. 2014;42(3):915–37.
  67. Ballard C et al. The dementia antipsychotic withdrawal trial (DART-AD): long term follow up of a randomized placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet Neurol*. 2009;8(2):151–7.
  68. Declercq T. Withdrawal versus continuation of chronic antipsychotics drugs for behavioral and psychological symptoms in older people with dementia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2002; 3. CD007726.
  69. De Deyn PP et al. Aripiprazole in the treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *Expert Opin Pharmacother*. 2013;14(4):459–74.
  70. Mintzer JE et al. Aripiprazole for the treatment of psychoses in institutionalized patients with Alzheimer dementia: a multicenter randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled assessment of three fixed doses. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2007;15(11):918–31.
  71. Anand R et al. Therapeutics of Alzheimer's disease: past, present, and future. *Neuropharmacology*. 2014;76:27–50.
  72. Sperling RA et al. Toward defining the preclinical stages of Alzheimer's disease: recommendations from the National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dement*. 2011;7(3):280–92.
  73. Wang LY et al. Prazosin for the treatment of behavioral symptoms in patients with Alzheimer disease with agitation and aggression. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2009;17:744–51.
  74. Thurman DJ et al. Practice parameter: assessing patients in a neurology practice for risk of falls (an evidence-based review). *Neurology*. 2008;70:473–9.
  75. Iverson DJ et al. Practice parameter update: evaluation and management of driving risk in dementia. Report of the Quality Standards Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology. *Neurology*. 2010;74:1316–24.
  76. Arlt S et al. Adherence to medication in patients with dementia. *Drugs Aging*. 2008;25(12):1033–47.
  77. Morris JC. The clinical dementia rating (CDR): current vision and scoring rules. *Neurology*. 1993;43:2412–4.
  78. Chiachiaro J, Arnold RM, White DB. Reengineering advance care planning to create scalable, patient- and family-centered interventions. *JAMA*. 2015;313(11):1103–4.