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## 1. Introduction

Dementia is a general term used to describe a chronic and/or progressive decline in cognitive and functional ability. It is a disease of worldwide significance; the World Health Organization estimated that 47.5 million people worldwide were living with dementia in 2015 [1]. Along with the difficulties experienced by those living with the disease, dementia places extremely high stressors on caregivers. The economic impact is also substantial; in the United States alone, the health care costs are estimated at 604 billion dollars per year at present and are expected to increase [2]. As a result of these wide-ranging impacts, the

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jalz.2017.04.013

1552-5260/© 2017 Published by Elsevier Inc. on behalf of the Alzheimer's Association.

medical field has devoted much time and resources in studying the causes and prevention of this disease [1].

Currently, despite substantial efforts, there is no effective treatment for the cure or prevention of dementia [3]. In recent years, attention has turned to the identification of effective early intervention strategies, implemented at a stage when there is the time and potential to modify or slow disease progression [3-5]. The development of a risk profile for dementia is predicated upon evidence that the modification of several potent risk factors will reduce the probability of developing dementia. A similar approach has been followed successfully in the cardiovascular field in the Framingham Heart Study (FHS) in 1970s [6–8], but its application to dementia has been more limited.

In 2006, the Cardiovascular Risk Factors, Aging, and Dementia (CAIDE) study developed a score index to predict the risk of dementia on the basis of risk factor profiles present in middle age [9]. This analysis found that midlife vascular risk 135

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136 at that time, there was still a lack of research about other po-137 tential types of risk factors that could be used to improve the 138 model and more accurately predict dementia risk in late life. 139 To fill this gap, Barnes et al. developed a dementia risk index 140 141 for use in late life based on 6 years of follow-up in the larger 142 Cardiovascular Health Study [10]. However, this index in-143 cludes measures that may not be readily available from all 144 patients, such as cerebral magnetic resonance imaging and 145 Doppler sonography of the carotid arteries [11]. Following 146 147 these efforts, other researchers focused on developing a 148 simpler risk score to enable primary care clinicians to deter-149 mine the risk of developing dementia in elderly populations. 150 Using 8 years of follow-up data from a New York-based sam-151 ple, a score system was developed for predicting late-onset 152 153 Alzheimer disease risk in elderly individuals using more 154 commonly available measures [11]. More recently, research 155 on dementia risk scores was conducted by analyzing four 156 separate longitudinal cohorts in the United States, including 157 the FHS [12]. This analysis identified high-risk patients by 158 159 defining a cutoff on scores and targeted this high-risk group 160 as those most likely to benefit from increased cognitive 161 screening in a primary care setting [12]. However, for indi-162 vidual patients and their primary care physicians, it may be 163 more useful to predict their future dementia probability 164 165 risk with a personalized risk score system. This type of pre-166 diction system requires lengthier follow-up data to capture 167 the relevant risk factors and the corresponding dementia inci-168 dence. The FHS has monitored the cognitive status of Orig-169 inal Cohort participants since 1976, and detailed dementia 170 171 surveillance data have been collected over the last 30 years 172 [13–15]. In this study, we purposely centered our analysis 173 on potential predictors that are readily available to the 174 general practitioner (GP), and avoided risk factors, such as 175 APOE status, which are not usually used in general 176 🤇 177 practice to develop a risk score that predicted the 5-, 10-, 178 and 20-year individual dementia risk in older individuals. 179

factors could be combined to predict the risk of dementia, but

#### <sup>181</sup> 182 **2. Method**

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# <sup>183</sup> *2.1. Participants*

185 Initiated in 1948, the FHS is an ongoing, multigenera-186 tional longitudinal cohort study. At the time of recruitment, 187 the town of Framingham was considered adequately the 188 189 representative of the US population at that time [16]. Mem-190 bers of the Original Cohort of 5209 residents, which were a 191 2/3 sample of the entire town population, have undergone 192 biennial examinations, which have included medical history, 193 physical examinations, and laboratory testing since study 194 195 inception [17]. The first detailed cognitive assessment bat-196 tery was administered to participants from the Original 197 Cohort between examination cycles 14 and 15 (1976-198 1978); and the ongoing surveillance for cognitive decline 199 and dementia began with the 15th examination cycle. There-200 201 fore, we chose the 15th examination (1977-1979) as base-

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line and included 30 years of follow-up data in the analysis [18]. To meet the eligibility criteria for this study, participants had to be 60 years or older and dementia free at the time of the 15th examination cycle. All FHS protocols and participant consent forms were approved by the Institutional Review Board of Boston University School of Medicine; all participants provided written informed consent.

#### 2.2. Surveillance for dementia

The dementia-free cohort population was established by screening all participants using a brief neuropsychological test battery 1 year prior and concurrent to the 15th examination cycle [19]. Since 1976, participants' cognitive status has been monitored regularly at cycle examinations, as described in the following.

The Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) screening test was administered to participants beginning at the 17th examination cycle [20]. Between 1981 and 1999, a participant was flagged for more detailed cognitive assessment using education-adjusted MMSE cutoffs and also by comparing their MMSE performance at each examination to their own scores at previous examinations. A drop of 3 or more points from an immediately preceding examination or a drop of 5 or more points across all examinations triggered recommendation for further follow-up. Participants were also asked to participate in this additional assessment if they self-reported memory loss, if a family member reported symptoms of memory loss in the participant, or if an FHS physician or study staff member referred them for this assessment. Beginning in 1999 in addition to continued administration of the MMSE at the regular health examination, all surviving members of the cohort were invited for a more extensive cognitive assessment and administered a battery of neuropsychological tests regardless of prevalent cognitive status. The entire cohort continued to be followed for dementia progression until the date of death.

A panel of at least one neurologist and one neuropsychologist reviewed each case of possible dementia. The details of this consensus diagnostic process have been previously described [21].

### 2.3. Risk factors

Demographic characteristics, lifestyle factors, and medical histories were collected during the 15th examination through self-report questionnaires, and a physical examination was performed by a physician. The candidate risk factors extracted from the 15th examination included the following: age, gender, marital status, weight, height, smoking status, alcohol use, daily consumption of coffee and tea, low-salt diet, and coexisting conditions. Marital status included five categories (single, married, widowed, divorced, and separated).

Height and weight were measured, and body mass index (BMI) (kg/m<sup>2</sup>) was calculated. BMI was divided into

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