

Anti-inflammatories in Alzheimer's disease - potential therapy or spurious correlate?

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Short title: NSAIDs in Alzheimer's disease

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Search terms: Alzheimer's disease, NSAID, inflammation, Cognitive decline

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Keywords: Alzheimer's disease, NSAID, inflammation, progression, anti-inflammatory

Abbreviations:

AD	Alzheimer's disease
ADAS	Alzheimer disease assessment scale
ADNI	Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative
AIC	Akaike information criterion
ApoE	Apolipoprotein E
CN	Cognitively normal
COX	Cyclooxygenase
EMCI	Early mild cognitive impairment
GLMM	Generalized linear mixed model
ID	Identification
LMCI	Late mild cognitive impairment
MCI	Mild cognitive impairment
MMSE	Mini-mental state examination
MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging
NLRP3	NOD-like receptor family, pyrin domain containing 3
NSAID	Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory
PET	Positron emission tomography

Abstract

Epidemiological evidence suggests non-steroidal anti-inflammatories (NSAIDs) reduce the risk of Alzheimer's disease. However, clinical trials have found no evidence of NSAID efficacy. This incongruence may be due to the wrong NSAIDs being tested in robust clinical trials or the epidemiological findings being caused by confounding factors. Therefore, this study used logistic regression and the innovative approach of negative binomial generalised linear mixed modelling to investigate both prevalence and cognitive decline, respectively, in the Alzheimer's Disease NeuroImaging dataset for each commonly used NSAID and paracetamol.

Use of most NSAIDs were associated with reduced Alzheimer's disease prevalence yet no effect on cognitive decline was observed. Paracetamol had a similar effect on prevalence to these NSAIDs suggesting this association is independent of the anti-inflammatory effects and that previous results may be due to spurious associations. Interestingly, diclofenac use was significantly associated with both reduce incidence and slower cognitive decline warranting further research into the potential therapeutic effects of diclofenac in Alzheimer's disease.

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a debilitating age related dementia which is typified by initial loss of short term memory and spatial awareness, followed by mid and long term memory loss, confusion, personality changes, frailty, loss of motor function and death normally 5-7 years following initial diagnosis (Wattmo *et al.*, 2014). AD is the most prevalent form of dementia, constituting 60-80% of dementia cases affecting an estimated 26 million people globally (Alzheimers Association, 2015). Because of the severe social and economic costs, AD has been the focus of extensive research yet the pathophysiology of AD remains poorly understood and disease modifying treatments continue to be elusive. However, the role of neuroinflammation as a key etiological feature is now widely accepted due the consensus of epidemiological, neuroimaging, preclinical and genetic evidence. Because of this, anti-inflammatories have been thoroughly researched as putative disease modifying agents.

Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), which inhibit cyclooxygenase (COX) enzymes and subsequent prostanoid production, are the most commonly used anti-inflammatory drugs with over 110 million prescriptions annually in the USA alone (Conaghan, 2012). The prevalence of NSAIDs use makes them an ideal candidate for epidemiological investigations into the potential therapeutic effects of anti-inflammatories in AD. Numerous epidemiological studies in a range of ethnodemographic populations have identified that NSAID use is associated with a lower risk of developing AD (Breitner *et al.*, 1995, Cote *et al.*, 2012, Fischer *et al.*, 2008, in 't Veld *et al.*, 2001, Landi *et al.*, 2003, Stewart *et al.*, 1997, Szekely *et al.*, 2008, Vlad *et al.*, 2008), and this association was suggested to be causal by numerous intervention based studies in animal models (Yan *et al.*, 2003, Lim *et al.*, 2000, Weggen *et al.*, 2001). This led to a number of clinical trials of varying quality on NSAIDs and AD progression. Many of these trials were short term (6-12 months) and had low numbers of patients due to the lack of private funding available for existing drugs. Of the non-selective traditional NSAID clinical trials, Pasqualetti *et al.* performed the most extensive trial with 132 patients followed for 1 year. A total of 51 and 46 patients from the ibuprofen and placebo group completed the trial, respectively, and no differences in AD Assessment Scale (ADAS) or the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) were observed between treatment groups (Pasqualetti *et al.*, 2009). This is still a relatively small group of patients given the variability of the disease and relatively short period of observation. Larger trials have been performed with patented novel NSAIDs including trials of celecoxib with 425 subjects (Soininen *et al.*, 2007), rofecoxib with 692 subjects (Reines *et al.*, 2004); and tarenfluribil with 1684 subjects (Green *et al.*, 2009), all were conducted for at least one year and all demonstrated no significant effect of the NSAIDs on AD progression (Imbimbo *et al.*, 2010). Several potential explanations for the discrepancy between the efficacy of NSAIDs in the epidemiological and clinical research fields have been put forward: (i) The NSAIDs effects seen in epidemiological research could be indirect through a hidden variable not investigated by the research. (ii) NSAIDs may require a long period of administration before they can provide a protective effect. This hypothesis is supported by epidemiological evidence; Stewart *et al.* (1997) analysed a longitudinal cohort study of 1686 elderly individuals and found that the risk of AD was only significantly decreased after more than two years of NSAID usage. (iii) The clinical trials methodology were not optimized for the treatments in that they should have: only included early AD or Mild Cognitively Impaired (MCI) individuals with confirmed amyloid positivity and neuroinflammation through PET imaging, had larger numbers, and a longer period of treatment (Stewart *et al.*, 1997, Szekely & Zandi, 2010, Wyss-Coray, 2006). (iv) The NSAIDs selected for the high quality clinical trials were chosen for the novelty and patentability of the drugs; as these drugs were not the focus of the epidemiological or preclinical research it possible that there are different therapeutic profiles of

traditional NSAIDs and potentially the dominant mechanisms of action is independent of COX inhibition (Stewart *et al.*, 1997, Szekely & Zandi, 2010, Wyss-Coray, 2006). (v) While NSAIDs may reduce the risk of developing AD, they do not slow the progression of the disease; suggesting that NSAIDs act on initiating pathological processes of the disease not the downstream cascade of propagating mechanisms. The latter two of these explanations (iv & v) are addressed in the present study by investigating the association of individual NSAID use and cognitive decline (as opposed to incidence/prevalence) in MCI and AD subjects, as measured by the MMSE and ADAS scores, in the Alzheimer's disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) case controlled longitudinal study dataset. From this it was found that most NSAIDs were not associated with any change in cognitive decline including celecoxib, aspirin, ibuprofen and naproxen. However, there was evidence that diclofenac was associated with slower cognitive decline. Though not technically an NSAID, paracetamol (acetaminophen) was included in the analysis as a common pain reliever which has indication overlap with NSAIDs and little mechanistic overlap. Interestingly, paracetamol use was associated with accelerated cognitive decline. Collectively this study concludes that the majority of NSAIDs do not affect the propagating mechanisms of AD and that the therapeutic potential of a subset of NSAIDs including diclofenac is likely to be independent of COX inhibition.

Methods

Data acquisition

Data used in the preparation of this article were obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database (adni.loni.usc.edu). The ADNI was launched in 2003 as a public-private partnership, led by Principal Investigator Michael W. Weiner, MD. The primary goal of ADNI has been to test whether serial magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), positron emission tomography (PET), other biological markers, and clinical and neuropsychological assessment can be combined to measure the progression of mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and early Alzheimer's disease (AD). The subjects were recruited from over 50 sites across the U.S. and Canada. ADNI has undergone three stages of recruitment each with differences in the imaging and biomarker analyses, these have been named ADNI-1, ADNI-GO and ADNI-2. Collectively these protocols have recruited 1631 adults into the study consisting of age appropriate cognitively normal individuals, people with early or late MCI, and people with early AD. The follow up duration of each group is specified in the protocols for ADNI-1, ADNI-2 and ADNI-GO with 120 months as the maximum. Subjects were evaluated upon entry into the study, then at the 6 and 12 month time points, and yearly after this. For up-to-date information, see www.adni-info.org.

Data cleaning

The dataset of the medical history (RECMHIST.csv), recurrent medicines (RECCMEDS.csv) and patient summary data (ADNIMERGE.csv) were downloaded on the 3rd of May 2018. To allow for adjustment for relevant nuisance variables string search methods were applied to generate the explanatory variables of headaches, arthritis, smoking, cardiovascular pathology and diabetes, where necessary (supplement 5.4). Cardiovascular pathology was defined as a subject diagnosed with hypertension or high cholesterol (supplement 5.4.2). Terms varied widely and spelling errors were present and so manual confirmation of correct identification was required. A similar process was required to identify recurrent oral administration of NSAIDs (supplement 5.2). Only oral administration was included because topical applications are not likely to reach relevant concentrations. The search terms required a mixture of pharmacological and brand names. While a range of NSAIDs were searched for only aspirin, ibuprofen, diclofenac, celecoxib and naproxen had sufficient numbers for analysis (supplement 5.2) and

paracetamol was included as a mechanistically distinct pain-reliever with similar potencies and indications as NSAIDs. Individuals diagnosed as cognitively normal, MCI or AD were included in the study, those with no diagnosis but reported subjective memory concerns (SMC) were removed as the subjective nature of self-diagnosis may be a source of variability.

Distribution selection

To investigate cognitive decline over time generalised linear mixed modelling (GLMM) was applied. The selection of distribution was thoroughly performed both prior and following model construction investigating numerous distribution families (supplement 7.4, 7.5, 8.4, 8.5). Using graphical evaluation and Akaike information criterion (AIC) to evaluate the appropriateness of the distribution family, the negative binomial model was found to be the optimal distribution for both the MMSE and ADAS scores. For the simplicity of the model, the MMSE score was converted from a count of correct answers with a maximum of 30 into a count of incorrect answers (supplement 7.3), this has the advantage of now having the same directional relationship with disease severity as the ADAS score, with higher values correlating with worse cognitive performance and greater disease severity. Negative binomial models are optimal for overdispersed Poisson (count) data, suggesting that MMSE and ADAS scores can be modelled as a count of errors (supplement 7.5 & 8.5).

Model construction

Selecting parameterisation method

From the initial distribution analyses it was found that the variance was greater than the mean indicating that the data were over-dispersed as a Poisson model supporting the use of negative binomial models (supplement 7.5 & 8.5)(Bolker *et al.*, 2011, Hardin *et al.*, 2007). There are several parameterisation methods which describe the relationship between the mean and the variance in the negative binomial model (over-dispersion). The two most common (and the only methods available in the glmmadmb package on R version 3.5.1 (R Core Team) with RStudio version 1.1.453 (Fournier DA *et al.*, 2012, Skaug H *et al.*, 2013)) are the 'nbinom1' method, which assumes the variance = $k \times \text{mean}$, and 'nbinom2' method, which assumes the variance = $\text{mean} (1 + \text{mean}/k)$. The latter is most commonly used, particularly in count datasets, and is derived from a Gamma/Poisson model of a heterogeneous relationship between variance and mean (Hardin *et al.*, 2007). The former describes a simple proportional relationship between variance and mean and is less commonly used due to its inflexibility(Hardin *et al.*, 2007). Optimal parameterisation method was investigated using AIC and log-likelihood both prior to, and following, the construction of the full models and the 'nbinom1' parameterisation was selected (supplement 7.6 & 8.6).

Building of initial main effect model

Building of the GLMMs followed the protocol outlined by Hosmer *et al.* (Hosmer *et al.*, 2013). To construct the negative binomial GLMM models the package glmmadmb was used on R version 3.5.1 with RStudio version 1.1.453 (Fournier DA *et al.*, 2012, Skaug H *et al.*, 2013). This package estimates parameters using the maximum likelihood method with the Laplace approximation to assess the marginal likelihood and provides coefficient summaries based on Wald approximations. The minimal model used had the explanatory variable of time (month) included as well as subject ID as a random effect (supplement 7.8 & 8.8). Then each biologically relevant explanatory variable was individually added to the minimal model and then compared against the minimal model using the log likelihood ratio test with p-value estimated using the Chi-squared distribution and AIC to investigate if the model was significantly improved by the inclusion of the variable (supplement 7.8 & 8.8). Relevant nuisance

explanatory variables were first investigated, followed by pain-reliever use. These included ApoE4 genotype, age, diagnosis (control, MCI or Alzheimer's disease), gender, education level, vascular pathology, smoking, headaches, arthritis, diabetes and drug use (naproxen, celecoxib, diclofenac, aspirin, ibuprofen or paracetamol). All significant variables were then included in the model and their continued input into the model in the presence of the other explanatory variables was evaluated using the Wald approximation statistics, Log likelihood ratio tests and AICs (supplement 7.9-7.12 & 8.9-8.12). Variables that ceased to contribute significantly to the model were dropped and the final main effect model of all significant variables was then constructed with $p < 0.05$ considered as statistically significant (supplement 7.12.8 & 8.12.8). Biologically relevant interaction terms were then investigated within the main effect model.

Inclusion of biologically relevant two-way interaction terms

The inference of multivariable interaction terms becomes difficult, therefore, a common approach is to investigate only biologically relevant two-way interaction terms (Hosmer *et al.*, 2013). Similar to the main effect analyses, each two-way interaction term was added to the main effect model in isolation (supplement 7.13 & 8.13). Model was again assessed with the log likelihood ratio test and AIC values (supplement 7.13 & 8.13). A final model was constructed including all significant interactions ($p < 0.05$) and Wald approximation statistics were scrutinized for non-significant coefficients (supplement 7.14 & 8.14). Each interaction was then dropped in isolation from the model and compared against the full model including the variables that were dropped as main effect terms. The worsening of the model was assessed with the log likelihood ratio test and AIC values (supplement 7.14-7.17 & 8.14-8.17). Covariance matrices were constructed of the final model and no substantial multicollinearity was found between included explanatory variables (supplement 7.22 & 8.22). The full model was then tested with time (month) treated as a factor (as opposed to a continuous numerical variable) and years in education treated as a continuous numeric variable (rather than being grouped into education levels of early, middle, tertiary and post-graduate) (supplement 7.18-7.19 & 8.18-8.19). Treating month as a factor introduced a substantial increase in the degrees of freedom into the model (supplement 7.18 & 8.18), which resulted in levels of the models with insufficient data to stabilize the model resulting in issues of model convergence, even when more simple models with fewer explanatory variables were attempted. Treating years in education as a numeric variable worsened model fit; this is probably due to the lack of correlation between numerical years and the (log) dependent variable (supplement 7.19 & 8.19). Coefficient plots were generated with Laplace approximated confidence intervals to allow a quick visualisation of the effects of significant explanatory variables on the modelled decline over time (supplement 7.15 & 8.15). The variance/covariance matrices were used to generate Laplace plots of modelled decline given different combinations of the significant explanatory variables (supplement 9). To address issues of drop-out from the study for any reason, the analyses was repeated over the timeframe of 48 months (which has limited drop-out). The results were largely unaffected, suggesting drop-out was not having a strong bias effect on the full timeframe analyses (supplement 7.18, 8.18). We used uncorrected p-values in the results to not limit the sensitivity of the study. The corrected p-values (Holm-Šídák) are reported in the supplements. Example cognitive decline plots are displayed in the results section, these relationships can be fully explored at this interactive website depicting cognitive decline:

<https://braininflammationgroup-universityofmanchester.shinyapps.io/Rivers-Auty-ADNI/>

Final models for MMSE and ADNI

Below are the final models selected by the methods above for both MMSE and ADAS score.

MMSE decline ~ Time + Age (of participant) + Gender + Education level + Diagnosis (cognitive) + ApoE4 genotype + Diclofenac use + Aspirin use + Education level x Time + Diagnosis x Time + ApoE4 genotype x Time + Gender x Time + Paracetamol use x Time + Diclofenac use x Time + (Patient ID as a random variable)

ADAS decline ~ Time + Age (of participant) + Gender + Education level + Diagnosis (cognitive) + ApoE4 genotype + Headache + Diclofenac use + Ibuprofen use + Education level x Time + Diagnosis x Time + ApoE4 genotype x Time + Gender x Time + Paracetamol use x Time + (Patient ID as a random variable)

Prevalence analysis

Baseline prevalence of AD was analysed with Chi-squared statistics and adjusted logistic regression. Stepwise logistic regression with AIC as the selection criteria on the confounding variables was performed to generate the base model. Each pain reliever was added to the model and the improvement was evaluated based on Log likelihood ratio tests. P-values were adjusted using Holm-Šidák multiple comparison adjustment method (supplement 6.4.4).

Assumption check of residuals

The Pearson residuals were extracted and plotted against the explanatory variables grouped by individual ID. The ungrouped Pearson residuals were also plotted. No trends were observed for any explanatory variable, indicating the appropriateness of the negative binomial models (supplement 7.21 & 8.21).

Data availability

For transparency and repeatability, the code and results of the complete analyses summarised in the manuscript are included in full in the supplemental material. The data for the analyses presented here are available through application to the ADNI data repository at www.adni-info.org.

Results

Baseline statistics

This study included 1619 individuals of whom 338 (21%) had AD, 560 (35%) had late mild cognitive impairment (LMCI), 306 (19%) had early mild cognitive impairment (EMCI) and 415 (26%) were cognitively normal (CN). The proportions of each cognitive diagnosis did significantly differ with pain-reliever use (supplement 6.4.4). Celecoxib, diclofenac, ibuprofen, paracetamol, aspirin and naproxen use were all associated with a substantially reduced AD prevalence compared to the no pain-reliever group (table 1, fig. 1, supplement 6.4), this effect remained after adjusting for confounding variables (supplement 6.4.4). This corresponded to significantly different mean baseline ADAS and MMSE scores (table 1, supplement 6.4). Other baseline metrics were nominally similar including gender proportions, mean age, ApoE4 status, educational attainment and diabetes prevalence (table 1, supplement 6). Headache, arthritis and cardiovascular risk factors were elevated in the pain-reliever groups (table 1, supplement 6). This is unsurprising as these pain-relievers are indicated for these conditions. Arthritis prevalence was highest in more potent pain-reliever groups such as celecoxib and diclofenac (73% and 77%, respectively), compared to 28% prevalence in the no pain-reliever group (table 1, supplement 6.4.10).

The Effect of NSAIDs on Cognitive Scores

Aspirin, ibuprofen, naproxen and celecoxib were not found to be associated with any significant change in cognitive decline as measure by MMSE or ADAS (table 2 & 3, fig 2, supplement 7.17 & 8.17). Paracetamol use was associated with significantly accelerated decline in both MMSE and ADAS scores, however, the effect size is of limited clinical relevance (table 2 & 3, fig. 2). Diclofenac was found to be the only NSAID which was associated with reduced cognitive decline as measured by the MMSE score (table 2 & 3, fig. 2), and this effect approached significance for the ADAS score (supplement 8.17) with clinically meaningful effect sizes (fig. 2). The effect of diclofenac on MMSE decline remained significant ($p=0.039$) after correcting for multiple comparisons (supplement 7.17).

There was some evidence of a main effect of aspirin and ibuprofen being associated with slightly improved MMSE and ADAS scores, respectively (table 2 & 3, fig. 2, supplements 7.17 & 8.17). This suggests that their use is associated with a mild fixed positive effect on cognitive scores, but they were not associated with altered progression of cognitive decline (table 2 & 3, fig. 2, supplements 7.17 & 8.17). Diclofenac was associated with a significant positive effect on ADAS scores when included in the model only as a main effect (table 2 & 3, fig. 2, supplement 7.17 & 8.17), however, this main effect was not significant once the interaction term with time was included, suggesting the predominate effect of diclofenac is on cognitive decline.

As expected, there were significant main effects and effects on progression conferred by cognitive diagnosis with AD and LMCI both having worse MMSE and ADAS values and accelerated decline (table 2 & 3, fig. 3, supplements 7.16 & 8.16). However, EMCI was not associated with accelerated progression of cognitive decline compared to the CN diagnosis, suggesting EMCI has limited prognostic utility (table 2 & 3, fig. 3, supplements 7.16 & 8.16).

Education level had a complex relationship with cognitive decline. Post-graduate level study was set as the reference level. All other education levels had worse cognitive performance as main effects, however, their progression slopes were less severe, with tertiary level education associating with the slowest progression (table 2 & 3, fig. 3, supplements 7.16 & 8.16). A simplified inference of this is that post-graduate level studies was associated with initial good performance in the cognitive tasks but faster decline compared to tertiary, secondary and early education levels (table 2 & 3, fig. 3, supplements 7.16 & 8.16).

Age did have a significant main effect on MMSE and ADAS scores associating with worse cognitive scores (table 2 & 3, fig. 3, supplements 7.16 & 8.16). However, there was no evidence that age was associated with altered progression (supplements 7.16 & 8.16).

ApoE4 genotype had a substantial gene dose main effect on MMSE and ADAS score associating with worse cognitive performance (table 2 & 3, fig. 3, supplements 7.16 & 8.16), as well as an association with substantially accelerated cognitive decline (table 2 & 3, fig. 3, supplements 7.16 & 8.16).

There was no discernible significant association of cardiovascular risk factors, smoking or diabetes on MMSE or ADAS score as a main effect or altering progression, therefore, for model parsimony they were not included in the final models (supplements 7.16 & 8.16).

Discussion

Here we used the innovative approach of negative binomial generalized linear modelling to analyse the association between pain-reliever use and cognitive decline in CN, MCI and AD individuals in the ADNI dataset. From this we found that, while pain-reliever use was associated with a lower prevalence of AD, there were no similarly positive associations with delayed cognitive decline, with the exception of diclofenac use. This is congruent with the decades of epidemiological evidence which suggests that NSAID use lowers the prevalence of AD (Breitner *et al.*, 1995, Cote *et al.*, 2012, Fischer *et al.*, 2008, in 't Veld *et al.*, 2001, Landi *et al.*, 2003, Stewart *et al.*, 1997, Szekely *et al.*, 2008, Vlad *et al.*, 2008) and the limited number of clinical trials which have found no effect of NSAIDs on disease progression (Alzheimer's Disease Anti-inflammatory Prevention Trial Research Group, 2013, Green *et al.*, 2009, Lyketsos *et al.*, 2007, Pasqualetti *et al.*, 2009, Scharf *et al.*, 1999). This suggests that either the therapeutic window of pain-relievers of AD is pre-symptomatic, acting on the initiating mechanisms of cognitive decline and not the propagating mechanisms of AD, or there is a hidden variable which explains the lower prevalence of AD in pain-reliever users, for example healthy user bias (Shrank *et al.*, 2011). Our analysis supports the latter. Healthy user bias is common in epidemiological research, it is caused by the effect of healthier individuals seeking and using therapies such as pain-relievers, resulting in spurious associations of therapy use and reduced disease prevalence. Our prevalence analysis shows similar reductions in the proportion of AD diagnoses between all pain-relievers, even structurally and functionally dissimilar compounds such as aspirin (weak COX1 and COX2 inhibitor), celecoxib (potent COX2 inhibitor) and paracetamol (endocannabinoid modulator, unlikely to inhibit COX1 and 2 at physiological concentrations (Klinger-Gratz *et al.*, 2018)). The similarity in effects on AD incidence, despite structural and functional difference supports the existence of a hidden variable such as the healthy user bias. Furthermore, individuals taking any of the investigated drugs at the beginning of the study were less likely to drop-out (due to very poor health, death or other). This again supports the healthy user bias conclusion, as healthier subjects were more likely to remain in the study. This alternative explanation of the epidemiological AD prevalence literature, is further supported by the placebo controlled AD Anti-inflammatory Prevention Trial (ADAPT) trial (2013), which investigated the effects of celecoxib or naproxen on AD incidence in 2528 cognitively normal elderly people and found no positive effects, suggesting that COX inhibition is ineffective even in the presymptomatic stages of the disease.

Unlike the other pain-relievers, diclofenac use was associated with a slower cognitive decline as measured by MMSE scores and approached significance with ADAS scores. Though not thoroughly researched, there is evidence that diclofenac is a promising avenue of therapeutic development for AD. Landi *et al.* (2003) performed a cross-sectional study of 2708 community dwelling elderly people. They utilized logistic regression on the proportions of those diagnosed with AD in each NSAID category and found that diclofenac had the greatest effect on risk of AD diagnosis with an odds ratio of 0.21 (95%CI of 0.05 – 0.90). Similarly, in the present study, diclofenac had the lowest prevalence of AD of all pain-relievers tested, suggesting a potential prophylactic effect, as well as the reported potential therapeutic effect on disease progression. Furthermore, a small underpowered clinical trial was performed by Scharf *et al.* (1999). This was a single centre trial recruiting mild to moderate AD patients defined by an MMSE of 11 to 25. A total of 41 patients were recruited and 24 were randomly allocated to the placebo group and 17 to the daily diclofenac treatment group and the patients were followed up for cognitive assessment after six months of treatment (Scharf *et al.*, 1999). Due to the lack of power of the study and short time span, no strong inferences should be made, however, the trends largely concur with the Landi *et al.* (2003) study and the present study; the placebo group declined cognitively with a mean

MMSE score decline of -0.86 (SD 3.21) and an ADAS increase of 1.93 (SD 5.55), while the diclofenac MMSE score improved on average 0.41 (SD 2.69) and the ADAS stayed relatively stable with a slight increase of 0.25 (SD 4.5)(Scharf *et al.*, 1999). Given that the other NSAIDs tested in clinical trials did not slow the progression of AD and were not associated with slower decline in the present study despite also being potent inhibitors of the COX enzymes, it is fair to hypothesise that any potential effects of diclofenac on AD are likely not through this mechanism of action. Unlike the other pain-relievers investigated in this research, diclofenac also inhibits the release of the inflammatory cytokine interleukine-1 β (IL-1 β) (26, supplement 1) by inhibiting the activation of the intracellular receptor NLRP3 (Nod-like receptor family, pyrin domain containing 3). The NLRP3 receptor in microglia has been shown to be central to the neuroinflammatory response observed in mouse models of AD (Daniels *et al.*, 2016) and inhibition of the NLRP3 receptor with similar compounds has been found to be therapeutic in several animal models of AD (Daniels *et al.*, 2016, Dempsey *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, studies have found that the genetic deletion of this receptor completely abated the AD phenotype in mouse models (Dostert *et al.*, 2008, Heneka *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, NLRP3 inhibition may be the defining feature of diclofenac. However, it should be noted that only 30 subjects were diclofenac consumers with sufficient data for inclusion in the analysis. Therefore, any strong inference of efficacy should be avoided as future research is needed on this promising NSAID.

The results of the analyses presented here found substantial evidence for ApoE4 causing accelerated cognitive decline. The lipoprotein ApoE4 is a well-established risk factor for the development of AD (Szekely *et al.*, 2008, Notkola *et al.*, 1998, Cornelius *et al.*, 2004). Several studies have also found that ApoE4 alleles are associated with accelerated cognitive decline and accelerated cortical tissue atrophy (Bartzikis *et al.*, 2006, Lo *et al.*, 2011, Mielke *et al.*, 2011, Morra *et al.*, 2009, Rawle *et al.*, 2018, Tilvis *et al.*, 2004, Whitehair *et al.*, 2010, Young *et al.*, 2014, Kim *et al.*, 2017, Kanai *et al.*, 1999, Vijayaraghavan *et al.*, 2016). However, a limitation common in the existing literature is the use of multi-level linear modelling for non-Gaussian discrete cognitive scores (Kanai *et al.*, 1999, Kim *et al.*, 2017, Lo *et al.*, 2011, Mielke *et al.*, 2011, Rawle *et al.*, 2018, Vemuri *et al.*, 2014, West *et al.*, 2008, Whitehair *et al.*, 2010), therefore, the present study, with 744 individuals with at least one ApoE4 gene, investigating both ADAS and MMSE measures of cognitive decline and applying discrete distribution GLMM analyses with the negative binomial models, represents a robust and important contribution to the field.

Previous research has reported that NSAIDs only alter AD incidence in ApoE4 carriers, suggesting an interaction between the potential therapeutic mechanism of NSAIDs and the pathological mechanisms of ApoE4. This was first reported in a thorough study by Szekely *et al.* (2008) who looked at AD incidence in 3229 elderly people during a 10 year period. They found that NSAID use was associated with a hazard ratio of 0.88 in non-ApoE4 carriers and 0.34 in ApoE4 carriers (compared to matched individuals). The present study investigated a three-way interaction of NSAIDs, ApoE4 genotype and time (month), and no significant effects were observed (supplement 7.20 & 8.20). This suggests that if the Szekely *et al.* finding is due to NSAID-ApoE4 interactions, and not hidden nuisance variables present in the analysis, then this therapeutic effect may only be useful for the prophylactic treatment to prevent AD in ApoE4 individuals and not effective in altering the progression of the disease.

Conclusion

The present study is a thorough investigation into the effects of NSAID and paracetamol use on AD and MCI cognitive decline. Also investigated were the effects of gender, smoking status, headaches, arthritis, diabetes, age, vascular pathology, ApoE4 genotype and education level. Due to the discrete nature of

the dependent variables MMSE and ADAS scores, GLMMs were investigated and the negative binomial distribution was found to be a robust approach which outperformed other models. Ibuprofen and aspirin use were associated with improved cognitive performance at baseline, however, neither were associated with an altered cognitive decline. Naproxen and celecoxib use were not associated with any significant alterations in cognitive performance and paracetamol use was associated with accelerated cognitive decline although this effect size was negligible. This suggests that NSAIDs and paracetamol are not promising therapeutics for altering the progression of cognitive decline in MCI and AD individuals. However, diclofenac use was associated with slower cognitive decline, and as this was the only NSAID to do so, this suggests that COX inhibition is not the likely mechanism of action. Therefore, the full interactome of diclofenac should be investigated for potential therapeutic avenues. Collectively, the present study found interesting future avenues of research particularly the effects of paracetamol and diclofenac on AD progression and improved the evidence for our existing understanding of factors which effect AD such as the ApoE4 genotype by applying innovative statistical methods.

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Table 1: Baseline statistics of ADNI cohort by pain-reliever use.

	Aspirin	Celecoxib	Diclofenac	Ibuprofen	Naproxen	Paracetamol	No analgesic	Statistics
Diagnosis								
CN	247 (29%)	19 (30%)	14 (47%)	79 (31%)	52 (28%)	119 (30%)	99 (21%)	$\chi^2 (18)=78.1$ $p<0.0001$
EMCI	174 (20%)	13 (20%)	5 (17%)	55 (22%)	45 (24%)	75 (19%)	67 (14%)	
LMCI	302 (35%)	25 (39%)	8 (27%)	92 (36%)	68 (37%)	140 (35%)	165 (35%)	
AD	138 (16%)	7 (10%)	3 (10%)	29 (11%)	21 (11%)	66 (17%)	141 (30%)	
ADAS	16.4 (9.0) ^{***}	15.8 (8.3) ^{ns}	12.3 (8.5) [*]	15.0 (8.5) ^{***}	15.4 (8.9) ^{ns}	16.2 (8.8) ^{ns}	19.7 (10.3)	$\chi^2 (6)=57.5$ $p<0.0001$
MMSE	27.3 (2.6) ^{***}	27.2 (2.6) ^{ns}	28.0 (2.4) ^{ns}	27.7 (2.2) ^{***}	27.6 (2.4) ^{ns}	27.4 (2.5) ^{ns}	26.4 (2.8)	$\chi^2 (6)=48.7$ $p<0.0001$
Gender								
Male	323 (38%)	31 (48%)	15 (50%)	117 (46%)	95 (51%)	204 (51%)	223 (47%)	$\chi^2 (6)=29.5$ $p<0.0001$
Female	538 (62%)	33 (52%)	15 (50%)	138 (54%)	91 (49%)	196 (49%)	249 (53%)	
Age	74.3 (6.7) ^{ns}	73.4 (6.9) ^{ns}	75.22 (6.4) ^{ns}	72.7 (6.8) [*]	72.9 (7.1) ^{ns}	74.3 (7.2) ^{ns}	73.9 (8.1)	$F (6)=3.7$ $P=0.001$
ApoE4								
-/-	467 (54%)	35 (54%)	18 (60%)	145 (57%)	102 (55%)	231 (58%)	236 (50%)	$\chi^2 (12)=7.5$ $p=0.822$
+/-	305 (35%)	24 (38%)	10 (33%)	88 (35%)	67 (36%)	133 (33%)	184 (39%)	
+/+	89 (10%)	5 (8%)	2 (7%)	22 (9%)	17 (9%)	36 (9%)	52 (11%)	
Education								
Primary	318 (37%)	21 (33%)	10 (33%)	83 (33%)	56 (30%)	128 (32%)	161 (34%)	$\chi^2 (18)=15.7$ $p=0.613$
Secondary	251 (29%)	18 (28%)	11 (37%)	77 (30%)	59 (32%)	119 (30%)	126 (27%)	
Tertiary	166 (19%)	12 (19%)	3 (19%)	50 (20%)	40 (22%)	92 (23%)	92 (19%)	
Post-grad	126 (15%)	13 (20%)	6 (20%)	45 (18%)	31 (17%)	61 (15%)	93 (19%)	
Headache	67 (8%)	11 (17%)	4 (13%)	31 (12%)	20 (11%)	52 (13%)	33 (7%)	$\chi^2 (6)=19.2$ $p=0.004$
Arthritis	342 (40%)	47 (73%)	23 (77%)	127 (50%)	98 (53%)	215 (54%)	132 (28%)	$\chi^2 (6)=19.2$ $P<0.001$
Diabetes	92 (7%)	7 (7%)	4 (9%)	26 (7%)	21 (8%)	46 (7%)	33 (4.7%)	$\chi^2 (6)=6.9$ $p=0.330$
Smoker	205 (24%)	17 (27%)	8 (27%)	71 (28%)	40 (22%)	107 (27%)	127 (27%)	$\chi^2 (6)=4.5$ $p=0.614$
Cardiovascular risk factors	555 (64%)	44 (69%)	16 (53%)	158 (62%)	114 (61%)	273 (68%)	261 (55%)	$\chi^2 (6)=19.8$ $p=0.003$
Total	861	64	30	255	186	400	472	

All data are in N (%) except for ADAS, MMSE or Age which are expressed as mean (SD). CN=cognitively normal, EMCI and LMCI = early and late mild cognitive impairment, AD=Alzheimer's disease, ADAS= Alzheimer's disease assessment scale, MMSE=mini-mental state examination. Statistical analyses are Chi-squared test for proportions, maximum likelihood generalised linear modelling for score data, or general linear modelling for parametric data.

Table 2: Summary of the final negative binomial GLMM with MMSE failures as the dependent variable.

MMSE	Estimate	Stand Error	Z value	p-value	Statistics of inclusion
Intercept	-0.588	0.063	-9.33	p < 0.00001	-
Fixed effects					
Diagnosis					
CN	-	-	-	-	-
EMCI	0.708	0.066	12	p < 0.00001	χ^2 (3)=1147.2, p<0.00001
LMCI	1.242	0.056	22.38	p < 0.00001	
AD	2.11	0.062	33.9	p < 0.00001	
Gender					
Female	-	-	-	-	χ^2 (1)=2.2, p=0.138010
Male	0.096	0.040	2.36	p = 0.01806	
Age	0.018	0.003	6.96	p < 0.00001	χ^2 (1)=48.2, p<0.00001
ApoE4					
-/-	-	-	-	-	χ^2 (2)=60.6, p<0.00001
+/-	0.121	0.042	2.84	p = 0.00446	
+/+	0.226	0.065	3.49	p = 0.00048	
Education					
Primary	0.352	0.057	6.14	p < 0.00001	
Secondary	0.362	0.056	6.5	p < 0.00001	χ^2 (3)=47.4, p<0.00001
Tertiary	0.2	0.050	4.04	p = 0.00005	
Post-grad	-	-	-	-	
Aspirin	-0.075	0.037	-2.02	p = 0.04345	χ^2 (1)=4.0, p=0.045500
Paracetamol	-0.093	0.045	-2.07	p = 0.03882	χ^2 (1)=1.8, p=0.179712
Diclofenac	0.023	0.146	0.015	p = 0.87712	χ^2 (1)=1.0, p=0.317311
Interaction with time (months)					
Diagnosis					
CN	-	-	-	-	-
EMCI	-0.00332	0.0010	-3.18	p = 0.00145	χ^2 (3)=79.8, p<0.00001
LMCI	0.00286	0.0007	3.95	p = 0.00008	
AD	0.00880	0.0014	6.12	p < 0.00001	
Gender					
Female	-	-	-	-	χ^2 (2)=8.4, p=0.003752
Male	-0.00172	0.0006	-2.92	p = 0.00355	
ApoE4					
-/-	-	-	-	-	χ^2 (2)=120.6, p<0.00001
+/-	0.00588	0.0006	9.52	p < 0.00001	
+/+	0.00777	0.0009	8.32	p < 0.00001	
Education					
Primary	-0.00250	0.0008	-3.06	p = 0.00224	
Secondary	-0.00226	0.0008	-2.79	p = 0.00532	χ^2 (3)=26.6, p<0.00001
Tertiary	-0.00375	0.0007	-5.05	p < 0.00001	
Post-grad	-	-	-	-	
Paracetamol	0.00129	0.0006	2.18	p = 0.02928	χ^2 (1)=4.8, p=0.0284597
Diclofenac	-0.00468	0.0016	-2.89	p = 0.00380	χ^2 (1)=8.4, p=0.0037522

Shown are the maximum likelihood estimates with Laplace estimates of the standard error, Z- value and p-value from the Wald approximation, as well as, the significance of inclusion of the variable in the model evaluated using the log-likelihood ratio test chi squared. CN=cognitively normal, EMCI and LMCI=early and late mild cognitive impairment, AD=Alzheimer's disease, ADAS= Alzheimer's disease assessment scale, MMSE=mini-mental state examination.

Table 3: Summary of the final negative binomial GLMM with ADAS score as the dependent variable.

ADAS	Estimate	Stand Error	Z value	p-value	Statistics of inclusion
Intercept	2.991	0.032	92.09	p < 0.00001	-
Fixed effects					
Diagnosis					
CN	-	-	-	-	-
EMCI	0.357	0.035	10.18	p < 0.00001	χ^2 (3)=1124.4, p<0.00001
LMCI	0.771	0.03	25.69	p < 0.00001	
AD	1.248	0.035	35.84	p < 0.00001	
Gender					
Female	-	-	-	-	χ^2 (1)=7.4, p=0.006524
Male	0.106	0.023	4.6	p < 0.00001	
Age	0.0133	0.003	8.52	p < 0.00001	χ^2 (1)=71.4, p<0.00001
ApoE4					
-/-	-	-	-	-	χ^2 (2)=63.6, p<0.00001
+/-	0.096	0.024	3.92	p < 0.00001	
+/+	0.149	0.039	3.86	p = 0.0011	
Education					
Primary	0.181	0.033	5.41	p < 0.00001	
Secondary	0.148	0.032	4.66	p < 0.00001	χ^2 (3)=26.2, p=0.00009
Tertiary	0.105	0.028	3.72	p = 0.00020	
Post-grad	-	-	-	-	
Headache	-0.087	0.039	-2.23	p = 0.02563	χ^2 (1)=5.0, p=0.025347
Paracetamol	-0.035	0.026	-1.35	p = 0.17759	χ^2 (1)=0.8, p=0.371093
Ibuprofen	-0.093	0.030	-3.14	p = 0.00170	χ^2 (1)=9.8, p=0.0017451
Diclofenac	-0.224	0.080	-2.8	p = 0.00518	χ^2 (1)=7.8, p=0.0052246
Interaction with time (months)					
Diagnosis					
CN	-	-	-	-	-
EMCI	-0.00162	0.0004	-3.98	p = 0.00007	χ^2 (3)=65.4, p<0.00001
LMCI	0.00021	0.0003	0.74	p = 0.46177	
AD	0.00448	0.0007	6.17	p < 0.00001	
Gender					
Female	-	-	-	-	χ^2 (2)=67.0, p<0.00001
Male	-0.00210	0.0003	-8.22	p < 0.00001	
ApoE4					
-/-	-	-	-	-	χ^2 (2)=186.2, p<0.00001
+/-	0.00298	0.0003	11.31	p < 0.00001	
+/+	0.00476	0.0004	10.61	p < 0.00001	
Education					
Primary	-0.00135	0.0004	-3.74	p = 0.00019	
Secondary	-0.00149	0.0003	-4.29	p = 0.00002	χ^2 (3)=50.6, p<0.00001
Tertiary	-0.00214	0.0003	-6.91	p < 0.00001	
Post-grad	-	-	-	-	
Paracetamol	0.00056	0.0003	-2.21	p < 0.00001	χ^2 (1)=4.8, p=0.0284597

Shown are the maximum likelihood estimates with Laplace estimates of the standard error, Z- value and p- value from the Wald approximation, as well as, the significance of inclusion of the variable in the model evaluated using the log-likelihood ratio test chi squared. CN=cognitively normal, EMCI and LMCI = early and late mild cognitive impairment, AD=Alzheimer's disease, ADAS= Alzheimer's disease assessment scale, MMSE=mini-mental state examination.

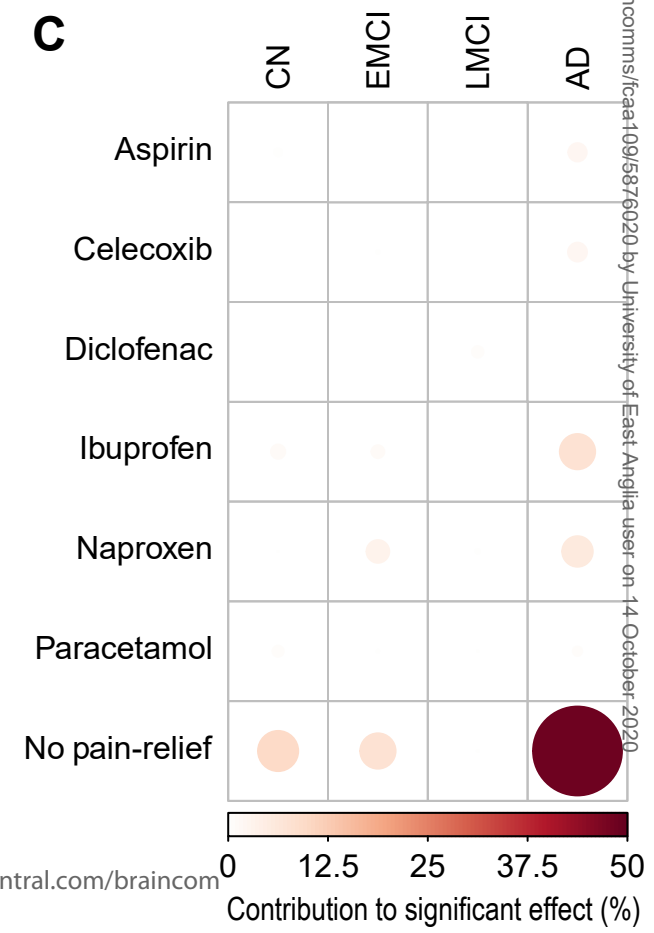
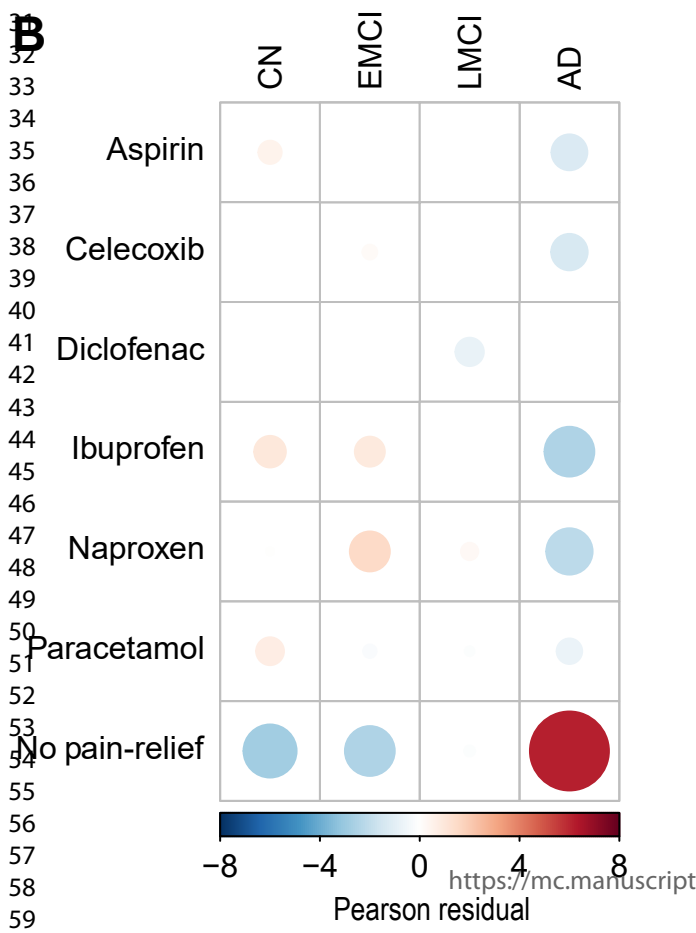
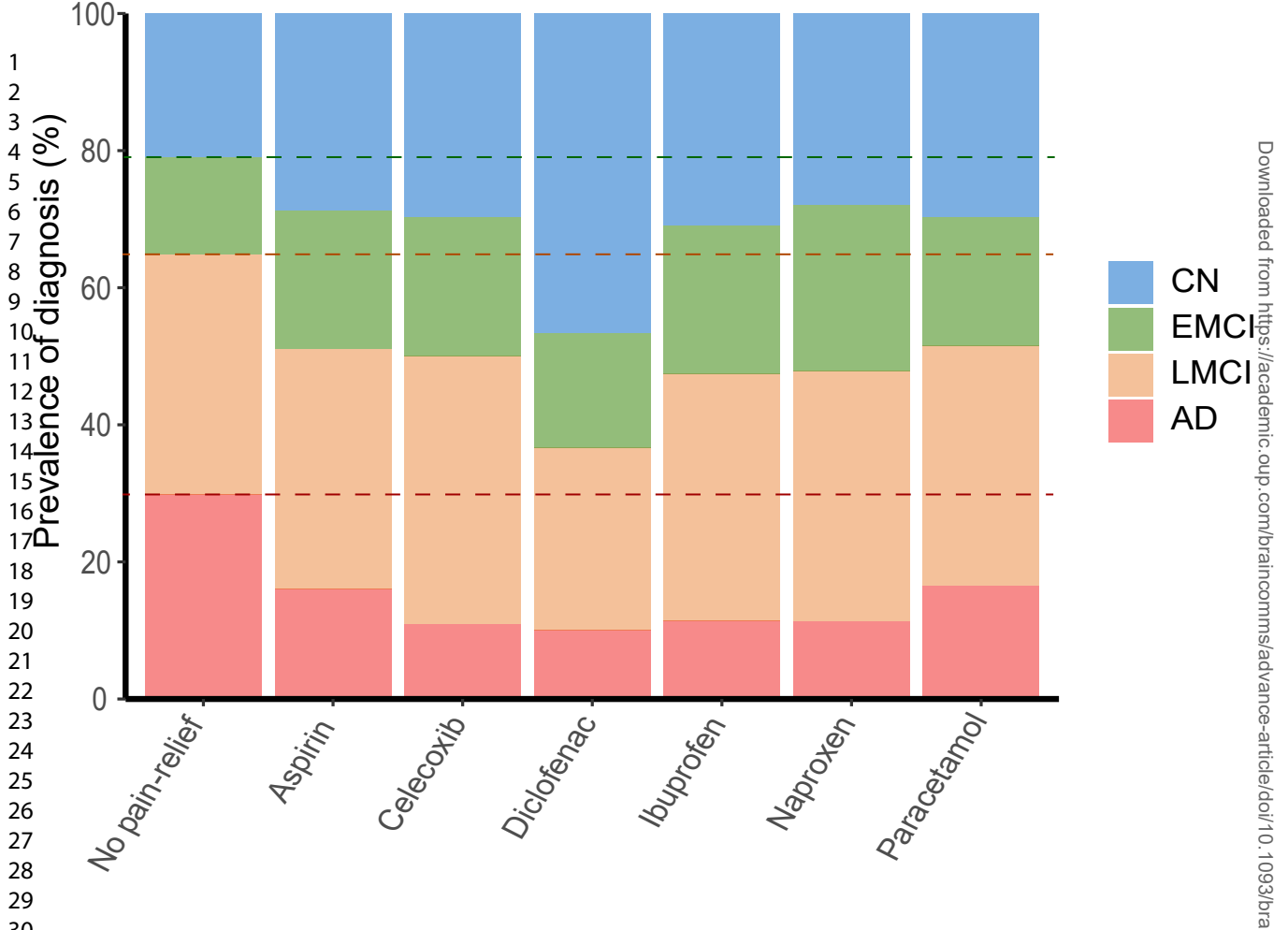
Figure 1: At baseline, use of any pain-reliever was associated with lower prevalence of Alzheimer's disease (AD) and a corresponding higher prevalence of cognitively normal (CN) diagnoses. **A)** Proportion of cognitive diagnosis between pain reliever groups. Dotted lines show proportion divisions of No pain-reliever group. **B)** Pearson residuals demonstrate the size and direction of the effect of pain-reliever use on cognitive diagnosis. **C)** Contribution analysis of the significant association of pain-reliever subgroup and cognitive diagnosis reveals little difference between pain-reliever and the largest contribution to the significant effect is the No pain-relief group having a higher prevalence of AD and a lower prevalence of CN, compared to the other groups. CN=cognitively normal, EMCI and LMCI = early and late mild cognitive impairment, AD=Alzheimer's disease, ADAS= Alzheimer's disease assessment scale, MMSE=mini-mental state examination.

Figure 2: The effect of pain-reliever use on predicted cognitive decline as measure by MMSE (i) and ADAS (ii) scores. These models show the predicted decline of a LMCI, Female 70 year old, and how this decline changes when pain-relief use is included in the model. Any NSAID use (**A**); Aspirin (**B**); Celecoxib (**C**); Diclofenac (**D**); Ibuprofen (**E**); Naproxen (**F**); Paracetamol (**G**); Lines are predicted value, shaded area are 95% CI. LMCI = late mild cognitive impairment, ADAS= Alzheimer's disease assessment scale, MMSE=mini-mental state examination.

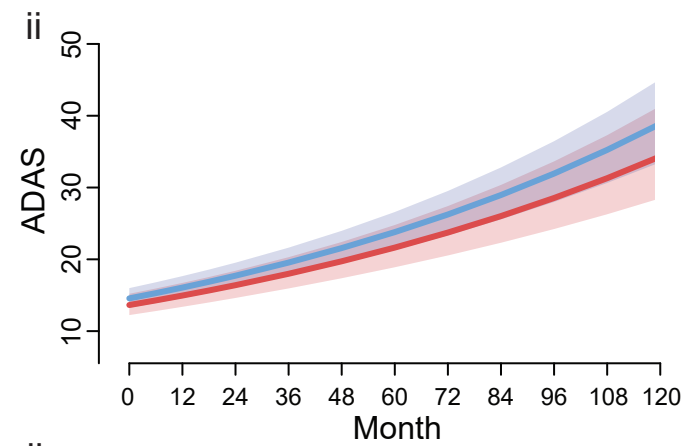
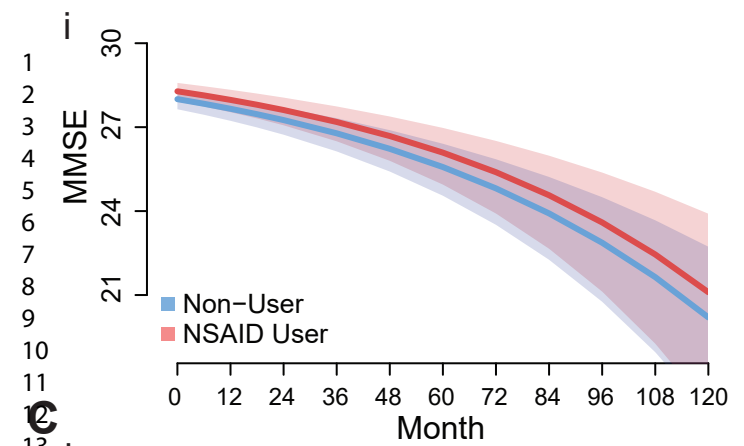
Figure 3: The effect of significant explanatory variables on predicted cognitive decline as measure by MMSE (i) and ADAS (ii) scores. These models show the predicted decline of a LMCI (except A), Female (except C), 70 year old, and how this decline changes when additional variables are included. Cognitive diagnosis was predictably the most influential variable, with Alzheimer's disease (AD) and late mild cognitive impairment (LMCI) associated with rapid cognitive decline; early MCI (EMCI) and cognitively normal (CN) did not have appreciatively different rates of decline (**A**). ApoE4 showed a very strong gene dose association with accelerated cognitive decline (**B**). Gender showed mild differences with males having faster cognitive decline (**C**). Education had variable effects on cognitive decline with tertiary level education associated with the slowest decline (**D**). Lines are predicted value, shaded area are 95% CI.

Competing interests

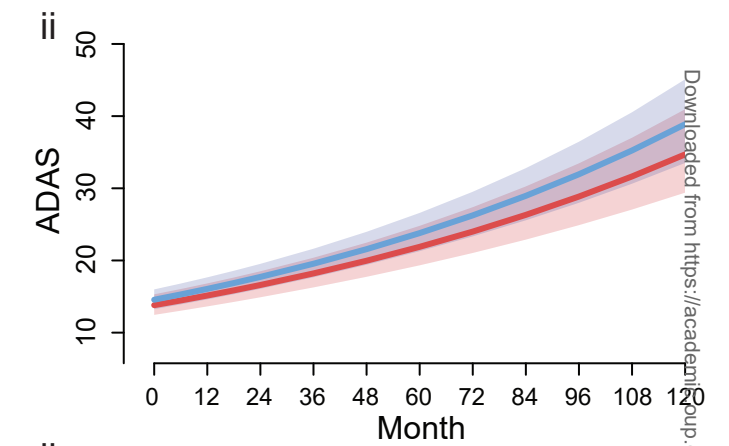
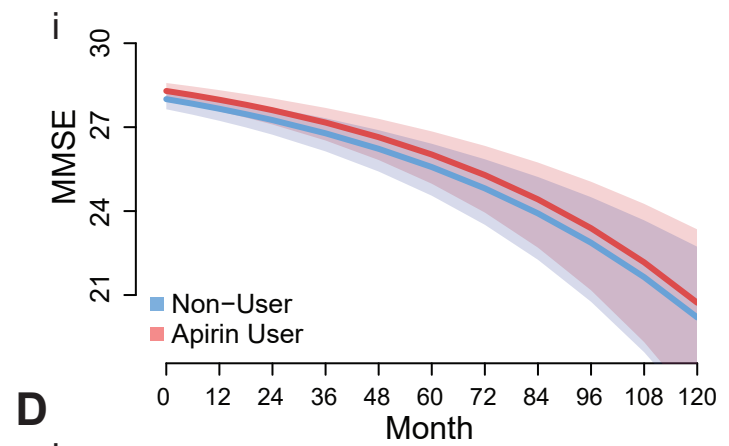
The authors have no competing interests to report.



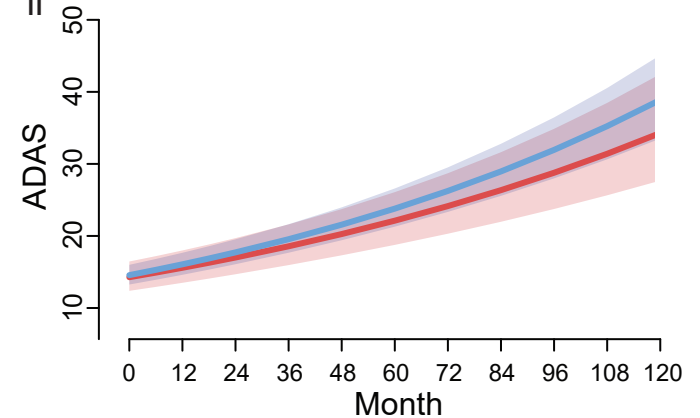
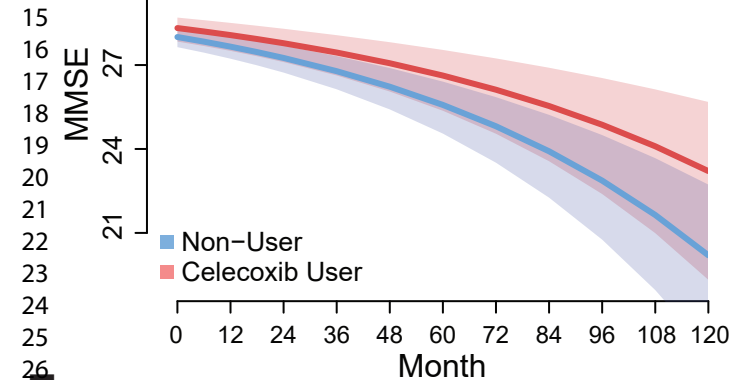
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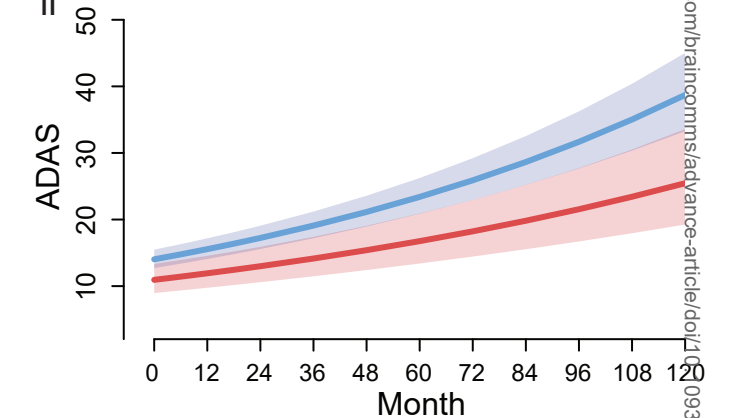
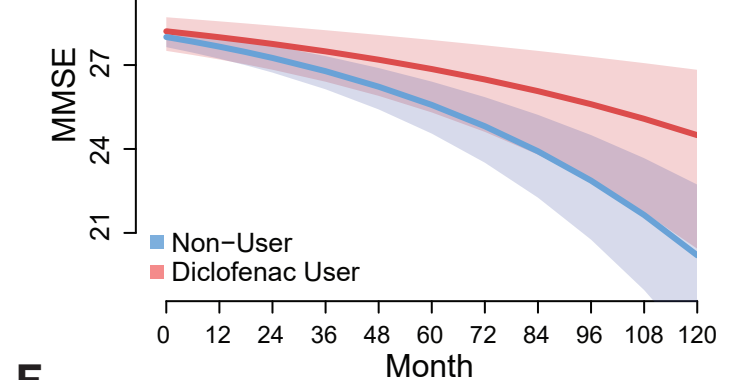
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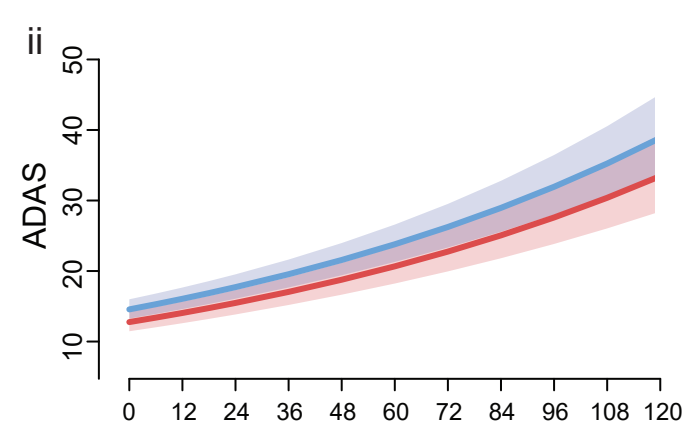
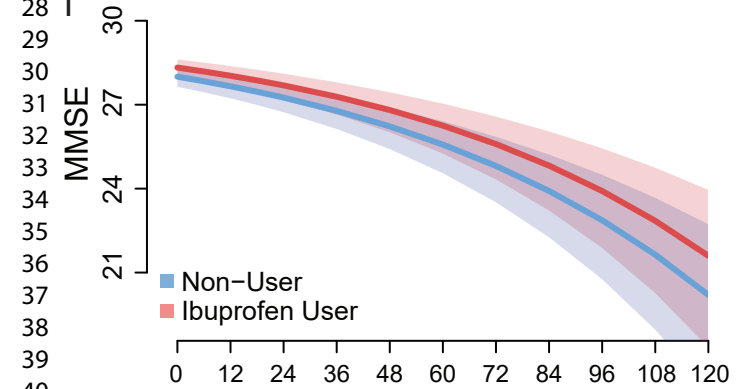
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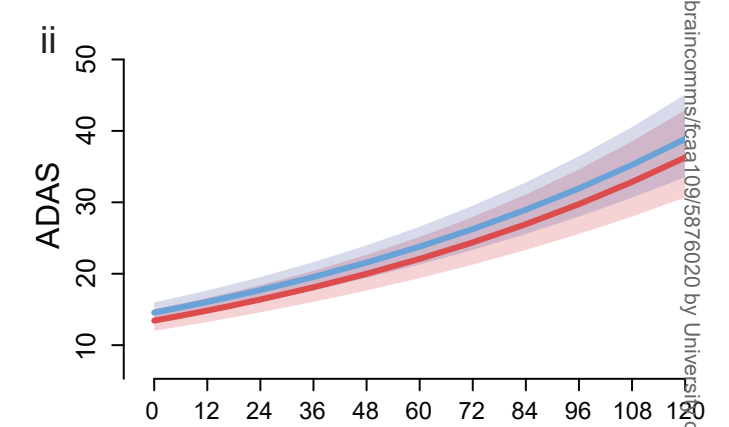
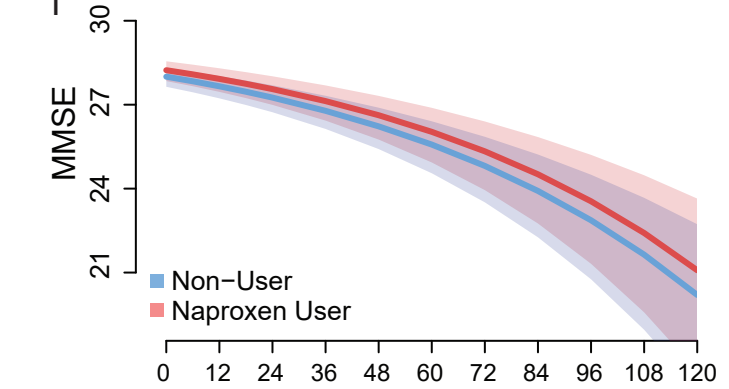
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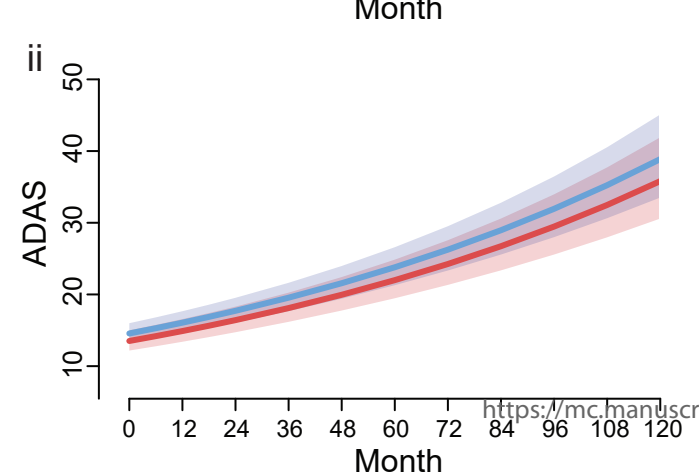
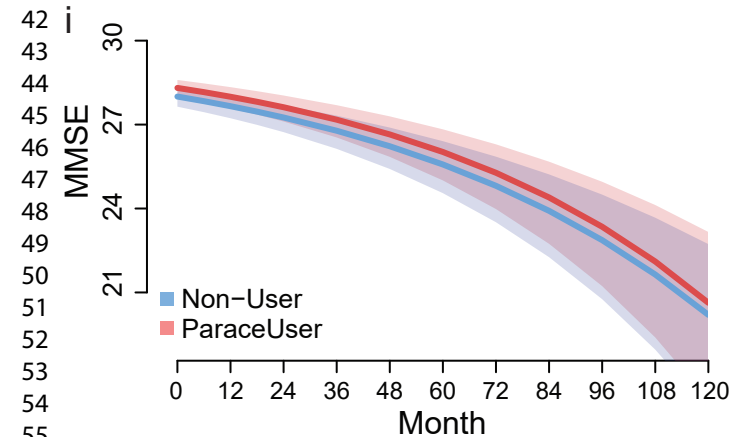
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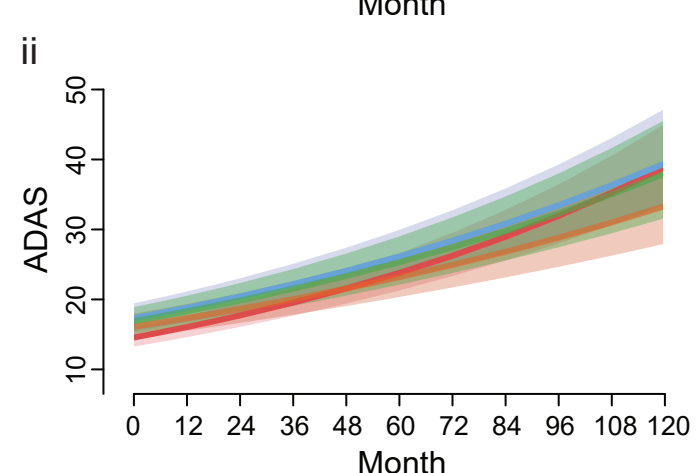
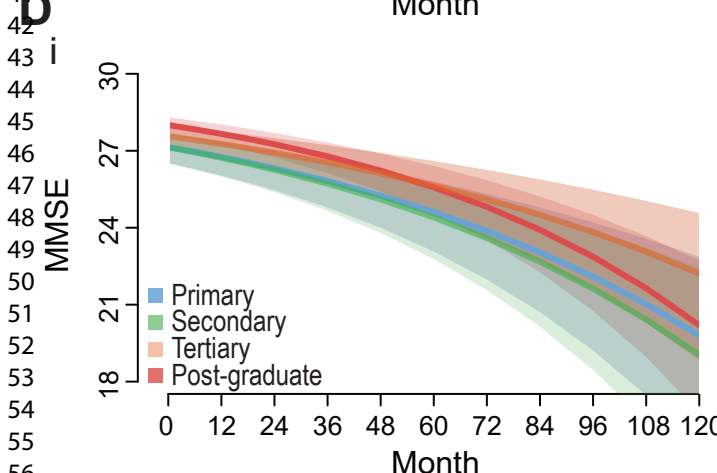
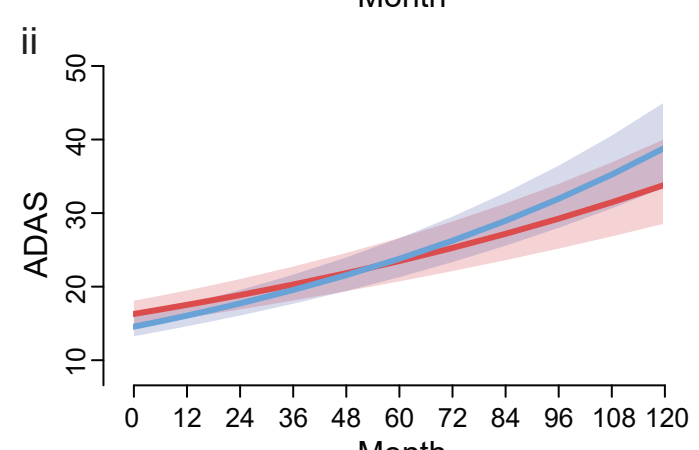
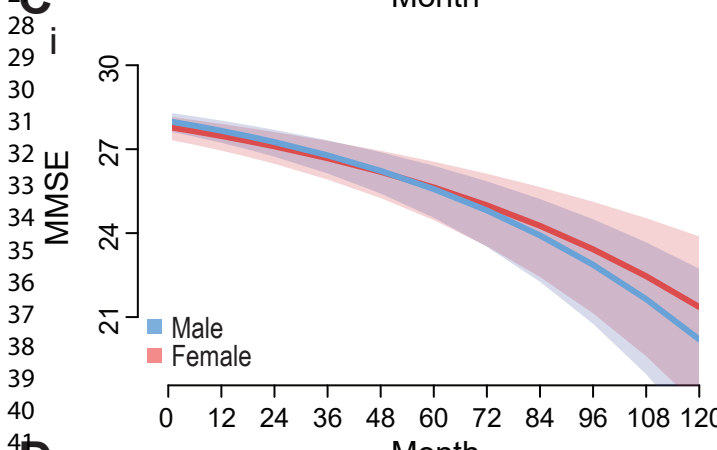
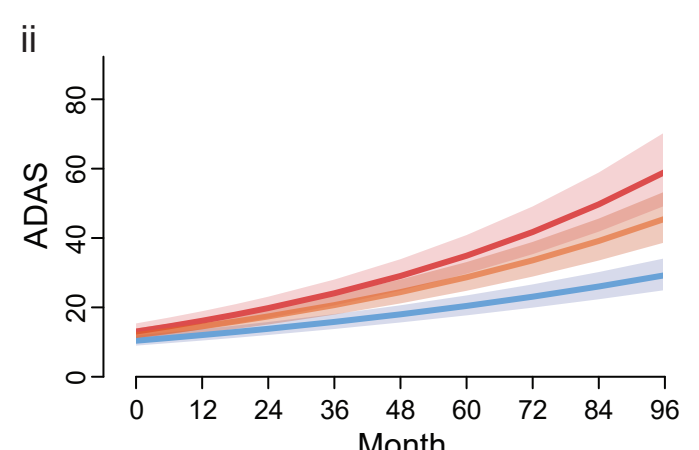
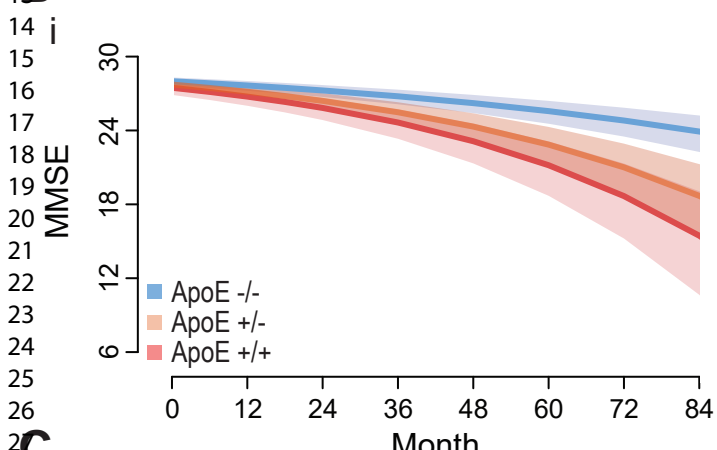
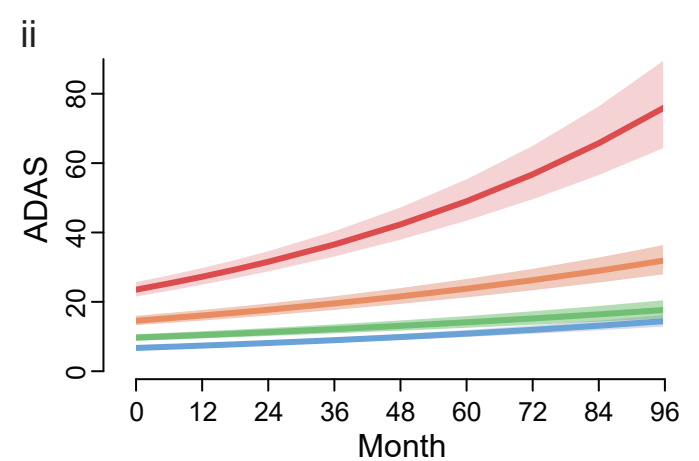
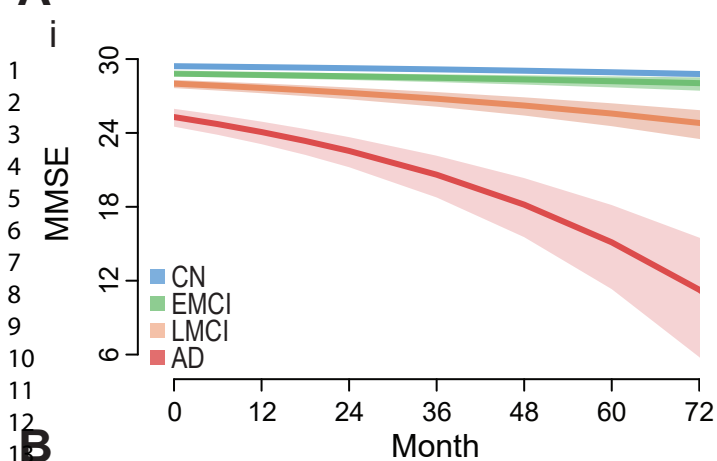


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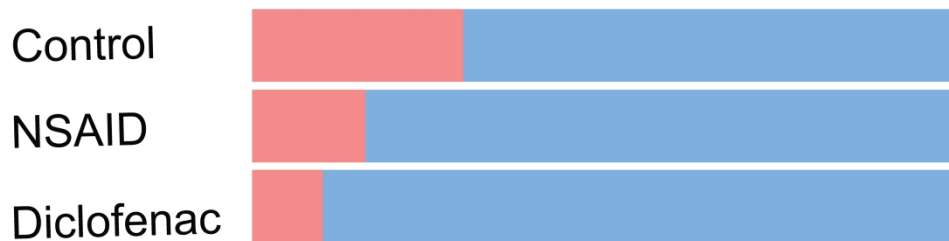
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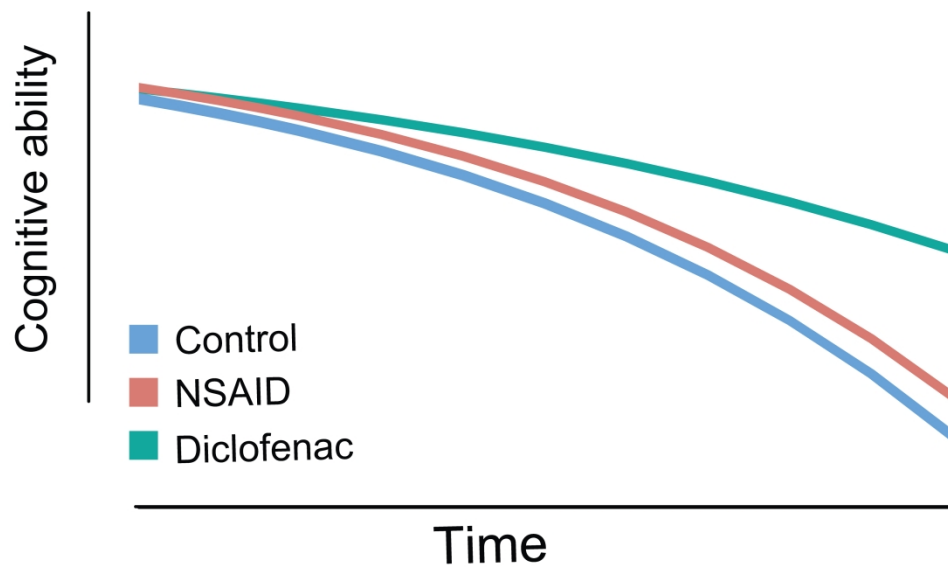


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Alzheimer's Prevalence



Alzheimer's Progression



Graphical abstract

The therapeutic potential of non-steroidal anti-inflammatories (NSAIDs) in Alzheimer's disease is a contentious issue due to the incongruence between epidemiological, preclinical and clinical research. Using innovative statistical methods, we demonstrate that while most NSAIDs did not slow the progression of cognitive impairment, diclofenac dramatically improved cognitive outcomes.