

Alma Mater Studiorum Università di Bologna
Archivio istituzionale della ricerca

Normative data for COGITAB: An Italian tablet-based test battery conceived for the preclinical phase of Alzheimer's disease

This is the final peer-reviewed author's accepted manuscript (postprint) of the following publication:

Published Version:

Beltrami, D., Barletta-Rodolfi, C., Bertini, F., Braglia, L., Calzà, L., Corbo, M., et al. (2023). Normative data for COGITAB: An Italian tablet-based test battery conceived for the preclinical phase of Alzheimer's disease. *APPLIED NEUROPSYCHOLOGY. ADULT*, 1, 1-11 [10.1080/23279095.2023.2219797].

Availability:

This version is available at: <https://hdl.handle.net/11585/936833> since: 2023-07-27

Published:

DOI: <http://doi.org/10.1080/23279095.2023.2219797>

Terms of use:

Some rights reserved. The terms and conditions for the reuse of this version of the manuscript are specified in the publishing policy. For all terms of use and more information see the publisher's website.

This item was downloaded from IRIS Università di Bologna (<https://cris.unibo.it/>).
When citing, please refer to the published version.

(Article begins on next page)

This is the final peer-reviewed accepted manuscript of:

Daniela Beltrami, Caterina Barletta-

Rodolfi, Flavio Bertini, Luca Braglia, Laura Calzà, Massimo Corbo, Federico Gasparini, Alessandro Marti, Danilo Montesi, Marta Pisano, Maria

Luisa Rusconi, Matteo Sozzi, Cecilia Tonon & Enrico Ghidoni (2023) Normative data for COGITAB: An Italian tablet-based test battery conceived for the preclinical phase of Alzheimer's disease, *Applied Neuropsychology: Adult*.

The final published version is available online at:

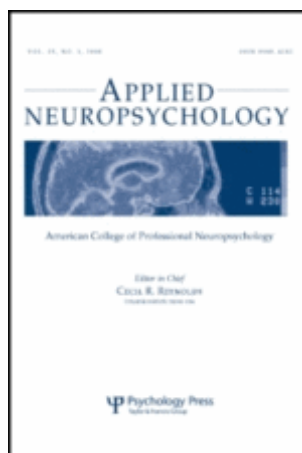
<https://doi.org/10.1080/23279095.2023.2219797>

Terms of use:

Some rights reserved. The terms and conditions for the reuse of this version of the manuscript are specified in the publishing policy. For all terms of use and more information see the publisher's website.

This item was downloaded from IRIS Università di Bologna (<https://cris.unibo.it/>)

When citing, please refer to the published version.



Normative data for COGITAB: an Italian tablet-based test battery conceived for the preclinical phase of Alzheimer's disease

| | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| Journal: | <i>Applied Neuropsychology: Adult</i> |
| Manuscript ID | HAPN-2023-0036.R3 |
| Manuscript Type: | Original Article |
| Date Submitted by the Author: | 26-May-2023 |
| Complete List of Authors: | <p>beltrami, daniela; Reggio Emilia Local Agency - IRCCS Advanced Technologies and Care Models in Oncology, Clinical Neuropsychology, Cognitive Disorders and Dyslexia Unit, Neurology, Department of Neuro-Motor Diseases</p> <p>Barletta-Rodolfi, Caterina; Reggio Emilia Local Agency - IRCCS Advanced Technologies and Care Models in Oncology, Clinical Neuropsychology, Cognitive Disorders and Dyslexia Unit, Neurology, Department of Neuro-Motor Diseases</p> <p>Bertini, Flavio; University of Parma, Department of Mathematical, Physical and Computer Sciences</p> <p>Braglia, Luca; Reggio Emilia Local Agency - IRCCS Advanced Technologies and Care Models in Oncology, Research and Statistics Infrastructure</p> <p>Calzà, Laura; Università di Bologna, Interdepartmental Centre for Industrial Research in Health Sciences and Technologies</p> <p>Corbo, Massimo; Casa Cura Igea (CCI), Department of Neurorhehabilitation Sciences</p> <p>Gasparini, Federico; Reggio Emilia Local Agency - IRCCS Advanced Technologies and Care Models in Oncology, Clinical Neuropsychology, Cognitive Disorders and Dyslexia Unit, Neurology, Department of Neuro-Motor Diseases</p> <p>Marti, Alessandro; Reggio Emilia Local Agency - IRCCS Advanced Technologies and Care Models in Oncology, Clinical Neuropsychology, Cognitive Disorders and Dyslexia Unit, Neurology, Department of Neuro-Motor Diseases</p> <p>Montesi, Danilo; University of Bologna, Department of Computer Science and Engineering</p> |

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

| | |
|-----------|---|
| | <p>Pisano, Marta; Reggio Emilia Local Agency - IRCCS Advanced Technologies and Care Models in Oncology, Clinical Neuropsychology, Cognitive Disorders and Dyslexia Unit, Neurology, Department of Neuro-Motor Diseases</p> <p>Rusconi, Maria Luisa; University of Bergamo, Department of Human and Social Sciences</p> <p>Sozzi, Matteo; ASST "A. Manzoni", Department of Neuroscience</p> <p>Tonon, Cecilia; Reggio Emilia Local Agency - IRCCS Advanced Technologies and Care Models in Oncology, Clinical Neuropsychology, Cognitive Disorders and Dyslexia Unit, Neurology, Department of Neuro-Motor Diseases</p> <p>Ghidoni, Enrico; Reggio Emilia Local Agency - IRCCS Advanced Technologies and Care Models in Oncology, Clinical Neuropsychology, Cognitive Disorders and Dyslexia Unit, Neurology, Department of Neuro-Motor Diseases</p> |
| Keywords: | Digital cognitive assessment tool, Alzheimer's disease, Preclinical AD, Cognitive screening |
| | |



Abstract

The number of people with dementia is increasing worldwide. Two main approaches have been adopted to identify subjects with Alzheimer's disease (AD): the neuropsychological evaluation and the identification of biomarkers of AD. The first method is less invasive and easier to perform. This study assesses the psychometric properties of COGITAB, a novel web application designed to be sensitive to the subtle cognitive changes distinctive of the early Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI) and the preclinical phase of AD. We enrolled 518 healthy controls, classified according to several risk factors and the presence of a family history of dementia. The participants were given COGITAB after a neuropsychological screening. The COGITAB Total Score (TS) was significantly affected by age and years of education. Acquired risk factors and family history of dementia significantly impacted only the COGITAB total execution time (TET), not the TS. This study provides normative data for a newly developed web application. Control subjects with acquired risk factors performed slower, giving an important role to the TET recording. Further studies should examine the ability of this new technology to discriminate between healthy subjects and subjects with initial cognitive decline, even when not detected by standard neuropsychological assessments.

Keywords: Digital cognitive assessment tool; Alzheimer's disease; Preclinical AD; cognitive screening

Introduction

As a result of the aging of the population, dementia is emerging as a major health problem. It is estimated that more than 44 million people worldwide are affected by Alzheimer's disease (AD) or a related form of dementia, and it is believed that this number will reach approximately 150 million in 2050, as reported by the U.S. National Institute of Aging. The costs for dementia are also significant, at approximately US\$1 trillion per year, rising to 2 trillion over the next 10 years (Patterson, 2018).

The development of disease-modifying drugs represents a promising chance for individuals suffering of AD, especially at the preclinical or prodromal stages of AD (Mild Cognitive Impairment, MCI, due to AD). An early diagnosis is also important for nonpharmacological interventions, to globally improve physical and cognitive functions, ADL skills, and behavioral and psychological symptoms (Lowrani et al., 2020). In fact, although much of the risk of developing AD can be attributed to genetics, some acquired factors may predispose an individual to a cognitive decline: vascular diseases (Mayeux & Stern, 2012; Imtiaz et al., 2014), excessive alcohol consumption (Kim et al., 2012; Piazza-Gardner et al., 2013; Panza et al., 2013), depression (Byers & Yaffe, 2011; Vilalta-Franch et al., 2013; Zverova et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2018) and insomnia (Shi et al., 2018); smoking cessation is highly recommended to reduce the incidence of dementia (Durazzo et al., 2014).

Therefore, an early diagnosis could be the best way to promptly access medical and support services, increasing the chances of early interventions to maintain a good quality of life for as long as possible, thus reducing the cost of care, and permitting more time to deal with legal, financial and care decisions (Bondi et al., 2008; Rentz et al., 2013; Sperling et al., 2014).

It is known that neuropathological process of AD may begin many years before the onset of clinical symptoms (Dubois et al. 2014) and that the preclinical or prodromal phase is

1
2
3 characterized by the alteration of AD biomarkers, including amyloid β 42 ($A\beta$ 42) and tau in
4 the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), amyloid deposition, magnetic resonance imaging alterations,
5 fluoro-2-deoxyglucose (FDG)-PET abnormalities and cognitive changes (Han et al., 2017;
6 Schindler et al., 2017; Alzheimer's Association, 2020).
7
8
9
10

11
12
13 Despite the importance of biomarkers for the diagnosis of AD, neuropsychological evaluation
14 plays a significant role in early diagnosis offering advantages to the high costs and invasiveness
15 of organic biomarker analysis (Tarnanas et al., 2014).
16
17
18
19

20 A recent review about cognitive changes in preclinical AD (Mortamais et al., 2017) shows that
21 the earliest variations involve episodic and semantic memory, as well as executive functions.
22 A decline in episodic memory is typically the earliest and most robust symptom of MCI and
23 dementia, and it can arise 6-10 years before the onset of the symptomatic phase (Bäckman et
24 al., 2001; Bondi et al., 2008; Sperling et al., 2011; Mortamais et al., 2017;). Because it is not
25 clear whether immediate or delayed measures are the most sensitive for early dementia, the
26 analysis of both is recommended. Associative memory is especially sensitive to early AD
27 (Parra et al., 2010, Della Sala et al., 2012) and older adults with deficits in this cognitive area
28 are at increased risk for dementia (Buschke et al., 2017; Mowrey et al., 2018); moreover, there
29 is evidence of deficits in short-term associative memory in older adults with AD, familial AD
30 and asymptomatic carriers of the E280A single presenilin-1 mutation (Parra, Abrahams, Fabi
31 et al., 2009; Parra, Abrahams, Logie et al., 2010). The assessment of executive functioning is
32 often missed in short cognitive screening, especially regarding the so-called “hot” components
33 (Allain et al., 2013), which involve “emotional”, “belief” or “desires”, such as experiences of
34 reward and punishment, regulation of social behavior and decision making. “Cold”
35 components, such as the coordination mechanism of the central executive, inhibition and
36 shifting, can be affected many years before the clinical phase and the decline seems to
37 accelerate two or three years before (Grober et al., 2008; Allain et al., 2013).
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Meta-analysis (Wild et al., 2008; Ismail et al., 2010; Zygouris et al., 2014; Tsoi et al., 2015)
4 indicated cognitive screening as an excellent tool in terms of accuracy, availability and cost, to
5 discriminate between cognitively healthy participants and people affected by MCI or dementia.
6
7
8
9
10 In the past few years, research focused on automated tests, which can be administered via a
11 tablet/smartphone or computer (for a review, see Thabtah et al., 2020), and differed for various
12 properties from the traditional paper and pencil screening.
13
14
15

16
17 Most of the existing tests focus on discrimination among subjects with MCI or dementia and
18 cognitively healthy subjects (Wild et al., 2008; Ismail et al., 2010; Tsoi et al., 2015; Zygouris
19 et al., 2014; Mortamais et al., 2017;). Despite being very accurate in detecting early or mild
20 cognitive decline, these tests do not seem to register the slight changes that are distinctive of a
21 preclinical phase (Mortamais et al., 2017). This is why a more cognitively demanding and
22 sensitive tool is needed.
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31

32 We have developed a new web application named COGITAB which is conceived to be almost
33 self-administered via a tablet in a general practitioner's (GP) office in approximately 30
34 minutes. Primary care is an ideal place to early identify people with cognitive concerns, but
35 also to manage the risk of developing dementia after the patient is screened. COGITAB was
36 designed to be quick to administer and easy to score. It is run, scored, and processed by software
37 and it will provide an immediate non-numerical outcome of a subject's performance compared
38 with the normative sample.
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 In the present study (phase one), we preliminarily analyzed the Italian normative data of this
49 new cognitive battery, and we examined its user-friendliness and feasibility, underlying
50 possible weaknesses or problems. These aspects are indispensable for future validation and
51 dissemination phases. Moreover, we explored the possible differences related to the presence
52 of a family history of dementia (genetic factors) and of some acquired risk factors for AD
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 development (e.g. vascular diseases, smoking, depression, anxiety, etc.) that can negatively
4
5 impact cognitive efficiency.
6
7

8 The aim of a second ongoing study (phase two) was to investigate the validity of COGITAB
9
10 for cognitive screening of subjects with objective and subjective cognitive impairment. For the
11
12 first group we recruited patients diagnosed with early dementia and Mild Cognitive Disorder
13
14 (MCI). The second sample was composed of patients diagnosed with Subjective Cognitive
15
16 Disorder (SCD), claiming a persistent decline in cognitive capacities despite a normal
17
18 performance on standard neuropsychological tests. In the case of a positive outcome in terms
19
20 of diagnostic accuracy, a third “dissemination” step (phase three) will take place. GPs and other
21
22 specialists will be exhaustively instructed about how to correctly manage the tool (for further
23
24 details, see COGITAB Battery and Discussion).
25
26
27

28 29 **Materials and Methods**

30 31 *Participants*

32 We enrolled 537 participants aged between 45 and 75 years, with varied levels of education (5-
33
34 18 years) from two regions of northern Italy (Emilia Romagna, Lombardia). The inclusion
35
36 criteria were having Italian as one’s native language, absence of current or previous disabling
37
38 neurological pathologies, blindness, deafness or other serious sensory impairment, intellectual
39
40 or cognitive disability, and serious psychiatric diseases.
41
42
43
44
45

46 Nineteen participants were discarded because of the incompleteness of the anamnestic
47
48 interview or COGITAB procedure because of technical issues (e.g. inadequate internet
49
50 connection).
51
52

53 The final sample was composed of 518 subjects (231 males; 287 females) aged between 45 and
54
55 75 years (mean=59.26; SD=8.22) with varied years of education (range: 5-18; mean=12.63;
56
57 SD=3.88). A description of age and years of education can be found in Table 1.
58
59
60

1
2
3 Each participant was classified according to two categories: acquired risk factors (high vs. low)
4 and family history of dementia (yes vs. no). High risk was determined if at least two of the
5
6 following conditions were detected: health risk factors (at least two between hypertension,
7
8 diabetes, minor cardiovascular disease, thyroid dysfunction, dyslipidemia and other internal
9
10 pathologies), lifestyle risk factors (smoking, drinking or drug addiction) or psychological risk
11
12 factors (subclinical anxiety or depression, and the feeling of a physiological memory decline
13
14 without any previous request for clinical assessment). The most common recurring risk factors
15
16 were dyslipidemia and hypertension (both in pharmacological treatment), subclinical
17
18 anxiety/depression and smoking habit. None of the participants reported alcohol or drug
19
20 addiction. A family history of the disease was based on the presence of first-third degree
21
22 relatives with a neurodegenerative pathology. In fact, even in the absence of a first degree
23
24 family history, a second or third-degree family history can be indicative of an elevated risk
25
26 (Cannon-Albright et al., 2019). Participants were divided into four groups: 271 low risk without
27
28 a family history, 71 high risk without a family history, 129 low risk with a family history and
29
30 47 high risk with a family history. The age distribution among the four cohorts is reported in
31
32 Table 2.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 ***Procedure***

41
42 Each session lasted approximately 60 minutes. The procedure was approved by the local
43
44 research ethics committees and fully explained to the subjects, informed written consent was
45
46 obtained.
47
48
49

50 All participants were first requested to complete a clinical interview conducted by a
51
52 neuropsychologist (anagraphic data and clinical information; occupation/retirement; family
53
54 history of dementia; lifestyle habits, psychosocial and physiopathological factors). After the
55
56 anamnestic phase, the participants were assessed using the Mini-mental State Examination
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 (MMSE) and Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA), which are two 30-point screening tests
4
5 widely used in clinical practice to detect cognitive decline.
6
7

8 After this cognitive screening, the examiner manually entered information regarding the
9
10 subject code, the presence of subclinical anxiety/depression and family history of dementia,
11
12 on a tablet which was then placed on the table about 15 cm in front of the subject. COGITAB
13
14 was introduced as follows: “Now, you’ll be asked to follow the instructions that will appear on
15
16 the screen. The same instructions will be audible by tapping the speaker icon that you’ll see on
17
18 the screen”. The first three requests (date, month and year of birth) allowed the subject to
19
20 become familiar with the instrument, possibly receiving suggestions on the correct way to tap
21
22 the screen (e.g., “wait a while before tapping again”, “press the screen more slightly”, etc.).
23
24
25

26
27 After this first phase, the examiner was exclusively available for technical support, such as
28
29 internet connection issues. The examiner was previously instructed on how to use COGITAB
30
31 and on how to answer to the subject’s possible questions. The COGITAB evaluation lasted for
32
33 about 30 minutes.
34
35

36
37 To assess possible variations in COGITAB performance over time, we scheduled a second
38
39 complete evaluation after approximately 16 months (mean=16.20; SD=4.86). Unfortunately,
40
41 because of the Covid-19 pandemic, only a small sample of 45 participants accepted the follow-
42
43 up (Table 3).
44
45

46 ***COGITAB battery***

47
48
49 COGITAB was designed as a web application that implemented a client server architectural
50
51 pattern. A web application is a program that uses a browser and web technologies to perform
52
53 tasks over the internet, while a client-server pattern allows us to partition workloads between
54
55 two modules, the service requester (i.e., the client, a computer or a tablet) and the provider of
56
57 a service (i.e., the server). In COGITAB, the client module includes the user interfaces and
58
59
60

1
2
3 logic of the tasks and runs in a web browser, while the server module provides the cognitive
4 tests, safely stores the results and provides authorized users with a report of the outcomes for
5 each subject. These design solutions provide the following advantages: COGITAB runs on
6 multiple platforms (browsers and devices) regardless of the operating system and underlying
7 hardware; all users access the same version, and updates can be performed easily just by
8 updating the server; all the results are stored in a centralized server and are protected using
9 high-level solutions. This makes it possible to conduct comparative analyses over time for the
10 same patient and to pursue advanced epidemiological studies.
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

22 The two modules use state-of-the-art open-source web technologies; in particular, the client
23 module was developed using the Angular JS framework and the following front-end
24 technologies: HTML version 5, CSS version 3, and JavaScript version 5. The server module
25 was developed using the framework Django the following back-end technologies: Python
26 version 2.7 and PostgreSQL version 9. COGITAB can be administered through any browser
27 using a tablet or computer; however, it was optimized for Google Chrome and Mozilla Firefox
28 browsers running on a 10-inch tablet or greater.
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 COGITAB is composed of ten subtests (see Table 4 for a summary) conceived to assess those
40 cognitive domains found to be compromised early in MCI and preclinical dementia. Temporal
41 orientation, episodic and semantic memory, and visuo-constructive and visuo-spatial abilities
42 are examined. Executive functions such as divided attention, shifting, verbal fluency,
43 perceptual speed, and inhibition/switching are also analyzed. Moreover, the subjects were
44 asked to self-evaluate their own performance, thus testing meta-cognitive skills, which have
45 predictive value regarding their progression to dementia in MCI patients (Vogel, Stokholm et
46 al., 2004; Vogel, Hasselbalch et al., 2005; Galeone et al., 2011; Wolfsgruber et al., 2014), even
47 though levels of awareness are heterogeneous among them (Roberts et al., 2009). Instructions
48 were made available as text and via audio. Most of the subtests were inspired by existing
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 cognitive tests, such as the Trail Making Test (Reitan, 1958), object recognition and lexical
4 access tasks (Sartori & Job, 1988), the Stroop Test (Stroop, 1935), the Judgment of Line
5 Orientation Test (Benton, 1978), the Multiple Features Target Cancellation Test or the Bell
6 Test (Marra et al., 2013; Gauthier et al., 1989) and the Rivermead Behavioral Memory Test
7 (Wilson et al., 1985). The exposure time was reduced and different cognitive functions were
8 examined in parallel to create more cognitively demanding tasks. The most articulated,
9 challenging and ecological task of COGITAB is the third one. The subject was requested to
10 remember a character (face, name and surname), a shopping itinerary and all the purchased
11 items, in terms of categories and quantities. The same questions were submitted right after the
12 exposure and after 20 minutes. This task examined visual and verbal immediate and delayed
13 memory, associative memory, recall and recognition processes, and implicit memory.
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 At the end of the test, data were automatically sent to a central server, and the examiner has
30 access to an easy and immediate total score (TS), which was computed considering correct
31 answers, errors and reaction times (Table 4, last column). The total execution time (TET),
32 which reflects the overall activity duration, was also registered. The outcome datasheet was
33 enriched with different quantitative (single scores, number of errors, latencies, reaction times,
34 etc. for every single task) and qualitative details (type of errors, visual reproduction of the
35 single tasks, etc.). After the tool validation, these details will be available to
36 neuropsychologists, neurologists, and geriatricians in case of GP prescriptions for further
37 diagnostic assessment. For a screening use (GP office), we designed an easier and more
38 intuitive non-numerical outcome report that is still underway (see Discussion).
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51

52 ***Statistical Analysis***

53
54
55 The present study is descriptive in nature and aimed at describing the normative data of a
56 sample of healthy subjects. The sample size was not determined according to a prespecified
57 target/outcome. We analyzed data from 518 patients, a method that was judged to be both
58
59
60

1
2
3 adequate for the linear regression model used for equivalent score determination and feasible
4
5 from a logistic/organizational standpoint.
6

7
8 The performed tests were considered to show statistically significant results if the p -values
9
10 were < 0.05 ; confidence intervals of estimates were two tailed and calculated considering a
11
12 0.95 confidence level. Statistical analyses were performed using R version 4.0.4.
13

14
15 The primary aim was to describe the distribution of TSs. We estimated the mean and confidence
16
17 interval, median and (bootstrap) confidence interval, distribution quantiles, asymmetry index,
18
19 kurtosis index and Shapiro–Wilk test p value to assess the normality of the sample.
20

21
22 Furthermore, we computed the equivalent scores (ESs) following the Capitani and Laiacona
23
24 procedure (2017). The analysis entailed outer and inner tolerance limit calculations, regression
25
26 equation estimation and correction factor determination, and equivalent score table derivation.
27

28
29 The analysis consisted of estimating the relationship between the score (dependent variable)
30
31 and sex, age and education (independent variables) by a linear regression model; this model is
32
33 then used to estimate correction factors applied to the raw score obtained by an individual to
34
35 produce an adjusted score (corrected given age and education) comparable with those produced
36
37 by other individuals. Finally, the adjusted scores can be classified into different levels or
38
39 equivalent scores, given the table of the equivalent scores, where the ES is on the 0-4 scale. An
40
41 ES score of 0 indicates an adjusted score under the outer tolerance limit (suggesting an
42
43 abnormal situation), an ES of 4 is for the patient with an adjusted score above the median of
44
45 adjusted scores, and ES scores of 1-3 suggest an increasing level of performance.
46
47

48
49 TS and TET were analyzed with ANOVA and ANCOVA-style linear regression models: the
50
51 first used the presence of a family history, risk group and their interaction as main covariates;
52
53 the latter adjusted estimates by sex, age, and years of education. We also measured the
54
55 correlation between TSs and self-evaluations. MMSE and MoCA adjusted scores were also
56
57 analyzed across the four cohorts by the Kruskal–Wallis test.
58
59
60

1
2
3 Finally we assessed the variation between test and retest scores. The retest assessment was
4 conducted approximately 16 months later (Bartels et al., 2010).
5
6
7

8 **Results**

9

10 All the subjects performed normally at the traditional cognitive screening tests (MMSE
11 adjusted score mean=29, SD=1.24; MoCA adjusted score mean=25.23, SD=2.46) according to
12 the respective standardization studies (Measso et al., 1993 and Conti et al., 2014). MMSE and
13 MoCA performances were positively correlated (ρ 0.29, [0.21, 0.37], $p < 0.001$). Table 5
14 shows mean and confidence interval, median and (bootstrap) confidence interval, asymmetry,
15 kurtosis and p value from the Shapiro–Wilk test for each cohort, all corroborating the
16 approximately normal shape of the distribution.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 A linear regression model was used to assess the influences of age, education and sex on the
27 TS ($F(3,514)=44.134, p < 0.0001$). Because only age and education (respectively $t(514)=-10.03,$
28 $p < 0.0001$; $t(514)=4.50, p < 0.0001$) were significantly associated with the TS, the final
29 estimated model was $y = 80.13 - 0.64(\text{age} - 59.26) - 0.02(\text{age} - 59.26)^2 + 0.60(\text{education} - 12.63),$
30 where 59.26 was the average age of the normative sample and 12.63 was the average years of
31 education. We derived the correction grid accordingly with raw score adjustments (for some
32 education/age values; see Table 6 and the appendix for full reference of adjustments). The
33 adjustment had to be added to the raw score to obtain the adjusted score (adjusted score = raw
34 score + y).
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 The adjusted scores of the normative samples were used to develop rules to classify adjusted
50 scores into five ES by using the outer tolerance limit (59, the 18th ordered adjusted score of
51 the normative sample), adjusted scores median (79.9) and z values of the normal distribution.
52 The criteria used to categorize individuals' adjusted scores can be found in Table 7. The scores
53 of group 0 were lower than the outer tolerance limits; scores of group 4 were higher than the
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 median value of the sample; those of groups 1, 2, and 3 were intermediate between the central
4 value and the pathology threshold on a quasi-interval scale.
5
6

7
8 To explore possible differences related to the family history of dementia and acquired risk
9 factors, the COGITAB TS was compared between the four cohorts (Table 8). Only the high-
10 risk group was associated with a diminished mean score (-6.2 points, CI: -9.656 to -2.791,
11 $p < 0.001$). However, once controlled for sex, age and education, the high-risk group effect was
12 no longer significant ($p = 0.128$). Therefore, neither the family history nor the risk factors
13 showed a significant impact on TS.
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

22 The TSs positively correlated with self-observations ($p < 0.001$). The subjective perception of a
23 good cognitive performance was actually related to a higher TS, suggestive of good meta-
24 cognitive skills (Table 9).
25
26
27
28
29

30 We analyzed the TET similarly to the TS. The high-risk group was slower than the lower-risk
31 group (approximately +2.1 minutes; CI: 1.17 to 3.01, $p < 0.001$); when controlling for sex, age
32 and education the difference was 1.3 minutes (CI 0.4 to 2.2); the family history group showed
33 no association at all (p value = 0.514) (Table 10).
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 As previously described, a small sample of 45 participants underwent COGITAB a second time
41 after about 16 months to analyze the practice effect and test-retest correlation. We observed a
42 nonsignificant slight enhancement in the retest (+3.5 points, CI=-0.23 to 8.30, $p = 0.065$; $r = 0.25$,
43 CI -0.05 to 0.51, $p = 0.098$, Table 11).
44
45
46
47
48

49 Finally, despite being somewhat limited by the small sample of test/retest observation, we
50 estimated the linear model useful for Reliable Change Index estimation, using the retest score
51 as explained variable, baseline score and age as covariate, following Duff (2012). The
52 estimated model was $\text{retest} = 121.733 + 0.124 \cdot \text{score} - 0.816 \cdot \text{age}$, with reasonably normally
53 distributed residuals (Shapiro Wilks test $p = 0.147$) and a standard error of 9.16. In this
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 framework a physician interested in judging a change to be clinically significant could apply
4
5 the equation $(\text{retest} - (121.733 + 0.124 \cdot \text{score} - 0.816 \cdot \text{age}))/9.16$ and compare this score with
6
7 the standard normal distribution cutoffs (e. g. accepting a 5% false positive rate, a value below
8
9 -1.645 should suggest a clinically relevant decrease in the score).

12 13 **Discussion**

14
15 The early detection of cognitive decline is crucial for preventing cognitive deterioration and
16
17 for aiding in therapeutic intervention. Moreover it can help people with dementia to have access
18
19 to important resources and support, talk to family and friends, and to appropriately deal with
20
21 legal, financial and care decisions.
22
23

24
25 The assessment of subtle cognitive changes is a cheaper and less invasive way to detect early
26
27 signs of preclinical AD (Tarnanas et al., 2014) compared with the analysis of AD biomarkers.
28
29

30
31 Most existing psychometric tests focus on the detection of early dementia or MCI, and most of
32
33 them need an expert examiner to actively submit the tasks, spending a lot of time and financial
34
35 resources, and possibly excluding or delaying the evaluation of those with slight cognitive
36
37 decline or even in a silent phase. COGITAB was conceived for an accessible and brief
38
39 evaluation of those cognitive domains found to be compromised early in MCI, and especially
40
41 in preclinical AD. This new web application was designed to be almost self-administered via
42
43 tablet in a GP office. In the present study we preliminarily presented the tool features and its
44
45 normative data in a sample of cognitively healthy subjects. An ongoing validation study that
46
47 includes patients with subjective and objective cognitive diseases is necessary to determine
48
49 diagnostic accuracy.
50
51
52

53
54 Because it is known that a family history of AD and certain acquired risk factors may
55
56 predispose an individual to a cognitive decline, we also investigated the impact of these
57
58 conditions on COGITAB performances. Each participant was classified based on the presence
59
60

1
2
3 of family history of dementia and specific acquired risk factors. Statistical analysis showed that
4 the COGITAB TS was normally distributed, without ceiling and floor effects. Younger and
5 well-educated participants performed significantly better than older and/or less educated
6 subjects. Correction grids with age/education adjustments and ESs for the TS were provided,
7 thus allowing us to judge future performances as pathological, normal or excellent. For
8 example, the adjusted score of an individual aged 50 years old, with 16 years of education, who
9 achieves a raw score of 80, is 73.86 which corresponds to an ES=3.

10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20 The TS was not significantly influenced by either the family history of dementia or the acquired
21 risk factors. The only discriminating factor among the four cohorts was the TET. Participants
22 with higher risk factors (mainly dyslipidemia/hypertension under pharmacological treatment
23 and/or subclinical anxiety/depression and/or smoking habit) were significantly slower (more
24 than one minute) than those belonging to the low risk groups, regardless of the presence of a
25 family history of AD. This finding suggests that recording the execution speed can possibly
26 contribute to the assessment of cognition. Future studies should determine whether it is also
27 essential for the detection of cognitive changes. Because most of the cognitive screening tools
28 commonly used by GPs, geriatricians and general neurologists do not consider the execution
29 time, this is an important observation.

30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43 Compared with the traditional paper-and-pencil tests, this new technological approach has
44 some advantages. First of all, computerized tests allow us to control the stimulus presentation
45 time and accurately collect promising data (e.g., reaction times, TET) in a more cost-effective
46 and more accessible way. As the use of technological devices, such as smartphones and tablets,
47 continues to spread worldwide, familiarity with these devices is growing, and they are almost
48 replacing the use of paper and pencils in many tasks. Nowadays computerized tests can be
49 considered as reliable as paper-and-pencil tests. Even individuals with lower technological
50 familiarity can comfortably use a touchscreen device (Holzinger et al., 2002; Canini et al.,
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 2014). The COGITAB procedure was well tolerated by the subjects who described an overall
4 positive experience and low frustration levels only related to possible technical problems.
5
6

7
8 Moreover no extensive specific training is needed to administer the test. However, to minimize
9 potential risks (e.g. misinterpretation of the results, inappropriate setting or recommendation,
10 useless or expensive clinical prescriptions, etc.), the examiner (GP and other specialists) needs
11 to be exhaustively instructed about how to prepare the setting, how to introduce the tool, how
12 to address possible questions and doubts, how to communicate the results and when/how to
13 possibly address the individual to a specialist diagnostic path. For easier clinical use, which
14 will be available only after a proper validation study, we are developing an immediate and
15 intuitive outcome report. Based on the ES obtained by the patient, a message will be
16 automatically provided on the screen of the tablet. In the case of $ES=3/4$, a green light will
17 appear, suggesting a normal performance compared with the normative sample; in the case of
18 $ES=1/2$, an orange light will appear, suggesting a GP prescription for possible further
19 neuropsychological assessment or a retest after about 16 months; in the case of $ES=0$, a red
20 light will appear, suggesting the need for a detailed neuropsychological/neurological
21 evaluation. Specific instruction will highlight the nondiagnostic power of the outcome.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40

41 The present study has some limitations.

42
43 As we specified, this is a preliminary study aimed at the investigation of the normative data in
44 a sample of cognitively healthy subjects. Only after a proper validation study, which is ongoing
45 and include clinical cohorts composed of individuals affected by MCI and SCD, it will be
46 possible to extensively discuss the results. The construct validity of every single sub-test will
47 be also explored.
48
49
50
51
52
53

54 Moreover, SCD patients and subjects with lower ESs ($ES=0, 1$ or 2) should be longitudinally
55 monitored to determine possible development of MCI or dementia.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Although COGITAB was conceived as being completely self-administered, the participants
4 needed a support for solving technical problems to ensure an optimal saving of the data. The
5 presence of the examiner ensured immediate feedback in the case of possible doubts or
6 difficulties, thus protecting the performance reliability of the tool.
7
8
9

10
11
12 It is worth noting that the population with only primary schools was rather limited. Clinicians
13 should be careful about the generalization of findings to individuals with lower levels of
14 education.
15
16
17
18
19

20 Another limitation of the current study was the absence of an extensive neuropsychological,
21 neuroradiologic and biomarker analysis to exclude slight cognitive impairment or brain
22 alterations in the control subjects. However, all the participants obtained excellent
23 performances at the traditional cognitive screening, resulting negative for cognitive deficits,
24 with previous significant neurological problems being denied. A first longitudinal follow-up
25 (16 months later) shows cognitive stability in all the tests (MMSE, MoCA and COGITAB).
26 Furthermore, the positive correlation between self-evaluations and higher total scores
27 suggested good meta-cognitive skills.
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 The test retest COGITAB low consistency (nonsignificant slight enhancement of 3.5 points)
40 can possibly be related to an insufficient representativeness of the small sample size. However
41 either practice effects or other factors cannot be excluded. Further analyses about the test-retest
42 reliability are needed. Further follow-ups will be essential to confirm the absence of an
43 underlying neurodegenerative process. Ongoing statistical analysis will examine the
44 distribution of COGITAB subtest scores to provide specific cutoffs. The predictive value of
45 performance in every single task will be discussed in future reports.
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

55 **Funding details**

56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 This work was supported by the OPLON project (Opportunities for active and healthy
4 LONgevity, Smart Cities, Ministero Università e Ricerca, SCN_00176); Associazione Italiana
5
6 Malattia di Alzheimer Reggio Emilia (AIMA) provided us with the tablets; a private sponsor
7
8 supported the research with two annual scholarships.
9
10
11

12 **Acknowledgements**

13
14
15 Special thanks go to Jessica Ternelli, Valeria Giuffrida, Valentina Iandolo, Nicole Monti, Sara
16
17 Baduino, Giulia Testa and Sara Lavolpe for their contribution to data collection and to Stefano
18
19 Gombi for implementing the first COGITAB prototype.
20
21
22

23 **References**

- 24
25
26 Allain, P., Etcharry-Bouyx, F., & Verny, C. (2013). Executive functions in clinical and
27
28 preclinical Alzheimer's disease. *Revue neurologique*, 169(10), 695-708.
29
30 Alzheimer's Association (2020). 2020 Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. *Alzheimers*
31
32 *Dement*, 16(3), 391–460.
33
34 Bäckman, L., Small, B. J., Fratiglioni, L. (2001). Stability of the preclinical episodic memory
35
36 deficit in Alzheimer's disease. *Brain*, 124, 96–102.
37
38 Bartels, C., Wegrzyn, M., Wiedl, A., Ackermann, V., & Ehrenreich, H. (2010). Practice effects
39
40 in healthy adults: a longitudinal study on frequent repetitive cognitive testing. *BMC*
41
42 *neuroscience*, 11, 118.
43
44 Benton, A. L., Varney, N. R., & Hamsher, K. D. (1978). Visuospatial judgment: A clinical test.
45
46 *Archives of neurology*, 35(6), 364–367.
47
48 Bondi, M. W., Jak, A. J., Delano-Wood, L., Jacobson, M. W., Delis, D. C., & Salmon, D. P.
49
50 (2008).
51
52 Neuropsychological Contributions to the Early Identification of Alzheimer's Disease.
53
54 *Neuropsychol Rev*, 18(1), 73–90.
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Buschke, H., Mowrey, W. B., Ramratan, W. S., Zimmerman, M. E., Loewenstein, D. A., Katz,
4 M. J., & Lipton, R. B. (2017). Memory Binding Test distinguishes amnesic mild cognitive
5 impairment and dementia from cognitively normal elderly. *Arch Clin Neuropsychol*, 32 (1),
6 29–39.
7
8
9
10
11
12 Byers, A.L., & Yaffe, K. (2011). Depression and risk of developing dementia. *Nat Rev Neurol.*,
13 7(6), 323–31.
14
15
16
17 Canini, M., Battista, P., Della Rosa, P. A., Catricalà, E., Salvatore, C., Gilardi, M. C., &
18 Castiglioni, I. (2014). Computerized Neuropsychological Assessment in Aging: Testing
19 Efficacy and Clinical Ecology of Different Interfaces. *Computational and Mathematical*
20 *Methods in Medicine*.
21
22
23
24
25
26 Capitani, E., & Laiacona, M. (2017). Outer and inner tolerance limits: their usefulness for the
27 construction of norm and the standardization of neuropsychological tests. *Clin Neuropsychol*,
28 31(6-7), 1219–1230.
29
30
31
32
33 Conti, S., Bonazzi, S., Laiacona, M., Masina, M., Vanelli, & Coralli, M. (2015). Montreal
34 Cognitive Assessment (MoCA) – Italian version: regression based norms and equivalent
35 scores. *Neurological Science*, 26, 209–214.
36
37
38
39
40 Della Sala, S., Parra, M. A., Fabi, K., Luzzi, S., & Abrahams, S. (2012). Short-term memory
41 binding is impaired in AD but not in non-AD dementias. *Neuropsychologia*, 50(5), 833-840.
42
43
44
45 Dubois, B., Feldman, H. H., Jacova, C., Hampel, H., Molinuevo, J. L., Blennow, K., DeKosky,
46 S. T., Gauthier, S., Selkoe, D., Bateman, R., Cappa, S., Crutch, S., Engelborghs, S., Frisoni, G.
47 B., Fox, N. C., Galasko, D., Habert, M.-O., Jicha, G. A., Nordberg, A., Pasquier, F.,
48 Cummings, J. L. (2014). Advancing research diagnostic criteria for Alzheimer’s disease: the
49 IWG-2 criteria. *Lancet Neurol*. 13(6), 614–29.
50
51
52
53
54
55
56 Duff, K. (2012) Evidence-based indicators of neuropsychological change in the individual
57 patient: relevant concepts and methods. *Arch Clin Neuropsychol*. 2012 May; 27(3):248-61.
58
59
60

1
2
3 Durazzo, T. C., Mattsson, N., & Weiner, M.W. (2014). Smoking and increased Alzheimer's
4 Disease risk: a review of potential mechanisms, *Alzheimers Dement*, 10(3 Suppl), 122-45.

5
6
7 Galeone, F., Pappalardo, S., Chieffi, S., Iavarone, A., & Carlomagno, S. (2011). Anosognosia
8 for memory deficit in amnesic mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's Disease. *Int J.*
9
10
11
12
13 *Geriatr. Psychiatry*, 26, 695–701.

14
15 Gauthier, L., Dehaut, F., & Joanette, Y. (1989). The bells test: a quantitative and qualitative
16 test for visual neglect. *International journal of clinical neuropsychology*, 11(2), 49–54.

17
18
19 Grober, E., Hall, C. H., Lipton, R. B., Zonderman, A. B., Resnick, S. M., & Kawas, C. (2008).
20 Memory impairment, executive dysfunction, and intellectual decline in preclinical Alzheimer's
21 disease. *Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society*, 14(2), 266–278.

22
23
24
25
26 Han, S. D., Nguyen, C. P., Stricker, N. H, & Nation, D. A. (2017). Detectable
27 Neuropsychological Differences in Early Preclinical Alzheimer's Disease: A Meta-Analysis.
28
29
30
31
32 *Neuropsychol Rev.*, 27(4), 305–325.

33
34 Holzinger, A. (2002). Finger Instead of Mouse: Touch Screens as a Means of Enhancing
35 Universal Access. *Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence (Subseries of Lecture Notes in*
36
37
38
39 *Computer Science)*, 2615, 387-397.

40
41
42
43
44
45
46 Imtiaz, B., Tolppanen, A., Kivipelto, M., & Soininen, H. (2014). Future directions in
47 Alzheimer's disease from risk factors to prevention, *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 88(4), 661–
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
670.

56
57
58
59
60
Ismail, Z., Rajji, T. K., & Shulman, K. I. (2010). Brief cognitive screening instruments: an
update. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry*, 25(2), 111–120.

Kim, J. W., Lee, D. Y., Lee, B. C., Jung, M. H., Kim, H., Choi, Y. S. & Choi, I. G. (2012).
Alcohol and cognition in the elderly: a review. *Psychiatry Investig*, 9(1), 8-16.

- 1
2
3 Lowrani, M., Indarwati, R., & Lestari, P. (2020). Non-pharmacological therapy for the elderly
4 to prevent dementia through cognitive stimulation therapy: A systematic review. *Jurnal*
5
6 *Ners* 15(2), 221-229.
7
8
9
10 Marra, C., Gainotti, G., Scaricamazza, E., Piccininni, C., Ferraccioli, M., & Quaranta, D.
11
12 (2013). The Multiple Features Target Cancellation (MFTC): an attentional visual conjunction
13 search test. Normative values for the Italian population. *Neurological Sciences*, 34(2), 173–
14 180.
15
16
17
18
19 Mayeux, R., & Stern, Y. (2012). Epidemiology of Alzheimer disease. *Cold Spring Harbor*
20 *perspectives in medicine*, 2(8), a006239.
21
22
23
24 Measso, G., Cavarzeran, F., Zappalà, G., Lebowitz, B.D., Crook, T. H., Pirozzolo, F. J.,
25
26 Amaducci, L. A., Massari, D., & Grigoletto, F. (1993). The Mini-mental State Examination:
27 normative study of an italian random sample. *Developmental Neuropsychology*, 9(2), 77–95.
28
29
30
31 Mortamais, M., Ash, J. A., Harrison, J., Kaye, J., Kramer, J., Randolph, C., Pose, C., Albala,
32
33 B., Ropacki, M., Ritchie, C. W., & Ritchie, K. (2017). Detecting cognitive changes in
34 preclinical Alzheimer's disease: A review of its feasibility. *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 13(4),
35 468-492.
36
37
38
39
40 Mowrey, W. B., Lipton, R. B., Katz, M. J., Ramratan, W. S., Loewenstein, D. A., Zimmerman,
41
42 M. E., & Buschke, H. (2018). Memory binding test predicts incident dementia results from the
43 Einstein aging study. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease*, 62(1), 293–304.
44
45
46
47 Panza, F., Frisardi, V., Seripa, D., Logroscino, G., Santamato, A., Imbimbo, B. P., Scafato, E.,
48
49 Pilotto, A., & Solfrizzi, V. (2012). Alcohol consumption in mild cognitive impairment and
50 dementia: harmful or neuroprotective? *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*, 27(12), 1218–1238.
51
52
53
54 Parra, M. A., Abrahams, S., Fabi, K., Logie, R., Luzzi, S., & Della Sala, S. (2009). Short-term
55 memory binding deficits in Alzheimer's disease. *Brain*, 132 (Pt 4), 1057–1066.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Parra, M. A., Abrahams, S., Logie, R. H., & Della Sala, S. (2010). Visual short-term memory
4 binding in Alzheimer's disease and depression. *J. Neurol.*, 257(7), 1160–1169.
5
6
7
8 Patterson, C. (2018). World Alzheimer Report 2018: The state of the art of dementia research:
9 New frontiers. *Alzheimer's Disease International (ADI)*, London.
10
11
12 Piazza-Gardner, A. K., Gaffud, T. J., & Barry, A. E. (2013). The impact of alcohol on
13 Alzheimer's disease: a systematic review. *Aging Ment Health*, 17(2), 133-146.
14
15
16
17 Reitan, R. M. (1958). Validity of the Trail Making Test as an indicator of organic brain damage.
18 *Perceptual and motor skills*, 8(3), 271–276.
19
20
21
22 Rentz, D. M., Rodriguez, M. P., Amariglio, R., Stern, Y., Sperling, R., & Ferris, S. (2013).
23 Promising developments in neuropsychological approaches for the detection of preclinical
24 Alzheimer's disease: a selective review. *Alzheimer's Research & Therapy*, 5, 58.
25
26
27
28 Roberts J, Clare L, & Woods R. (2009). Subjective Memory Complaints and Awareness of
29 Memory Functioning in Mild Cognitive Impairment: A Systematic Review. *Dement Geriatr*
30 *Cogn Disord*, 28(2), 95–109.
31
32
33
34
35 Sartori, G., & Job, R. (1988). The oyster with four legs: A neuropsychological study on the
36 interaction of visual and semantic information. *Cognitive Neuropsychology*, 5(1), 105–132.
37
38
39
40 Schindler, S. E., Jasielc, M. S., Weng, H., Hassenstab, J. J., Grober, E., McCue, L. M., Morris,
41 J. C., Holtzman, D. M., Xiong, C., & Fagan, A. M. (2017). Neuropsychological measures that
42 detect early impairment and decline in preclinical Alzheimer disease. *Neurobiol Aging*, 56, 25–
43 32.
44
45
46
47
48
49 Shi, L., Chen, S. J., Ma, M. Y., Bao, Y. P., Han, Y., Wang, Y. M., Shi, J., Vitiello, M. V., &
50 Lu, L. (2018). Sleep disturbances increase the risk of dementia: a systematic review and meta-
51 analysis. *Sleep Med Rev.*, 40, 4–16.
52
53
54
55
56 Sperling, R. A., Aisen, P. S., Beckett, L. A., Craft, S., Fagan, A. M., Iwatsubo, T., Jack, C. R.,
57 Kaye, J., Montine, T. J., Park, D. C., Reiman, E. M., Rowe, C. C., Siemers, E., Stern, Y., Yaffe,

- 1
2
3 K., Carrillo, M. C., Thies, B., Morrison-Bogorad, M., Wagster, M. V., & Phelps, C. H. (2011).
4
5 Toward defining the preclinical stages of Alzheimer's disease: Recommendations from the
6
7 National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for
8
9 Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 7, 280–292.
10
11
12 Sperling, R. A., Rentz, D. M., Johnson, K. A., Karlawish, J., Donohue, M., Salmon, D. P., &
13
14 Aisen, P. (2014). The A4 Study: Stopping AD before Symptoms Begin? *Sci Transl Med*, 6,
15
16 228.
17
18
19 Stroop, J. R. (1935). Studies of Interference in Serial Verbal Reactions. *Journal of*
20
21 *Experimental Psychology*, 18, 643-662.
22
23
24 Tarnanas, I., Tsolaki, M., Nef, T., Müri, R. M., & Mosimann, U. P. (2014). Can a novel
25
26 computerized cognitive screening test provide additional information for early detection of
27
28 Alzheimer's disease? *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 1–9.
29
30
31 Thabtah, F., Peebles, D., Retzler, J., & Hathurusingha, C. (2020). Dementia Medical Screening
32
33 using Mobile Applications: A Systematic Review with A New Mapping Model. *Journal of*
34
35 *Biomedical Informatics*, 103573.
36
37
38 Tsoi, K. K. F., Chan, J. Y. C., Hirai, H. W., Wong, S. Y. S., & Kwok, T. C. Y. (2015). Cognitive
39
40 tests to detect dementia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Intern Med.*, 175(9),
41
42 1450–1458.
43
44
45 Vilalta-Franch, J., Lopez-Pousa, S., Llinas-Regla, J., Calvo-Perxas, L., Merino-Aguado, J., &
46
47 Garre-Olmo, J. (2013). Depression subtypes and 5-year risk of dementia and Alzheimer disease
48
49 in patient, aged 70 years. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*, 28(4), 341–50.
50
51
52 Vogel, A., Hasselbalch, S. G., Gade, A., Ziebell, M., & Waldemar, G. (2005). Cognitive and
53
54 functional neuroimaging correlate for anosognosia in mild cognitive impairment and
55
56 Alzheimer's disease. *Int. J. Geriatr. Psychiatry*, 20, 238–246.
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Vogel, A., Stokholm, J., Gade, A., Andersen, B. B., Hejl, A. M., & Waldemar, G. (2004).
4 Awareness of deficits in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease: do MCI patients
5 have impaired insight? *Dement. Geriatr. Cogn. Disord.*, 17, 181–187.
6
7

8
9
10 Wild, K., Howieson, D., Webbe, F., Seelye, A., & Kaye, J. (2008). Status of computerized
11 cognitive testing in aging: a systematic review. *Alzheimers Dement.*, 4(6), 428–437.
12
13

14
15 Wilson, B. A., Cockburn, J., & Baddeley, A. (1985). *The Rivermead behavioural memory test*
16 *(RBMT)*. Thames Valley Test Company, Bury St Edmunds.
17
18

19
20 Wolfsgruber, S., Wagner, M., Schmidtke, K., Frölich, L., Kurz, A., Schulz, S., Hampel, H.,
21 Heuser, I., Peters, O., Reischies, F.M., Jahn, H., Luckhaus, C., Hüll, M., Gertz, H.-J., Schröder,
22 J., Pantel, J., Rienhoff, O., Rütger, E., Henn, F., Wiltfang, J., Jessen, F. (2014). Memory
23 concerns, memory performance and risk of dementia in patients with mild cognitive
24 impairment. *PLoS ONE* 9, e100812.
25
26
27
28
29

30
31 Wu, K. Y., Lin, K. J., Chen, C. H., Chen, C. S., Liu, C. Y., Huang, S. Y., Yen, T-C., & Hsiao,
32 I-T (2018). Diversity of neurodegenerative pathophysiology in nondemented patients with
33 major depressive disorder: Evidence of cerebral amyloidosis and hippocampal atrophy. *Brain*
34 *Behav.* 8(7).
35
36
37
38
39

40
41 Zverova, M., Fisar, Z., Jirak, R., Kitzlerova, E., Hroudova, J., & Raboch, J. (2013). Plasma
42 cortisol in Alzheimer's disease with or without depressive symptoms. *Med Sci Monit.*, 19, 681-
43
44
45
46
47

48
49 Zygouris, S., & Tsolaki, M. (2014). Computerized Cognitive Testing for Older Adults: A
50 Review. *American Journal of Alzheimer's Disease & Other Dementias*, 30(1), 13–28.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 **Normative data for COGITAB: an Italian tablet-based test battery**
4
5
6 **conceived for the preclinical phase of Alzheimer's disease**
7
8
9
10
11
12
13

14 **Authors**

15
16 Daniela Beltrami^a, Caterina Barletta-Rodolfi^{a*}, Flavio Bertini^b, Luca Braglia^d, Laura Calzà^{g,h}, Massimo
17 Corbo, Federico Gasparini^a, Alessandro Marti^a, Danilo Montesi^c, Marta Pisano^a, Maria Luisa Rusconi^e,
18 Matteo Sozzi^f, Cecilia Tonon^a, Enrico Ghidoni^a
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 ^a Clinical Neuropsychology, Cognitive Disorders and Dyslexia Unit, Neurology, Department of Neuro-Motor
27 Diseases, AUSL IRCCS, Reggio Emilia, Italy
28

29 ^b Department of Mathematical, Physical and Computer Sciences, University of Parma, Parma, Italy
30

31 ^c SmartData Research Group, Department of Computer Science and Engineering, University of Bologna, Bologna,
32 Italy
33

34 ^d Research and Statistics Infrastructure, AUSL - IRCCS di Reggio Emilia, Reggio Emilia, Italy
35

36 ^e Department of Human and Social Sciences, University of Bergamo, Bergamo, Italy
37

38 ^f Department of Neuroscience, Neurology. ASST "A. Manzoni", Lecco, Italy
39

40 ^g Interdepartmental Centre for Industrial Research in Health Sciences and Technologies, University of Bologna,
41 Bologna, Italy
42

43 ^h Department of Pharmacy and Biotechnology, University of Bologna, Bologna, Italy
44

45 ⁱ Casa Cura Igea (CCI), Department of Neurorehabilitation Sciences, Milano, Italy
46
47
48

49
50
51 Corresponding author: Daniela Beltrami (daniela.beltrami@ausl.re.it)
52
53
54
55

Abstract

The number of people with dementia is increasing worldwide. Two main approaches have been adopted to identify subjects with Alzheimer's disease (AD): the neuropsychological evaluation and the identification of biomarkers of AD. The first method is less invasive and easier to perform. This study assesses the psychometric properties of COGITAB, a novel web application designed to be sensitive to the subtle cognitive changes distinctive of the early Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI) and the preclinical phase of AD. We enrolled 518 healthy controls, classified according to several risk factors and the presence of a family history of dementia. The participants were given COGITAB after a neuropsychological screening. The COGITAB Total Score (TS) was significantly affected by age and years of education. Acquired risk factors and family history of dementia significantly impacted only the COGITAB total execution time (TET), not the TS. This study provides normative data for a newly developed web application. Control subjects with acquired risk factors performed slower, giving an important role to the TET recording. Further studies should examine the ability of this new technology to discriminate between healthy subjects and subjects with initial cognitive decline, even when not detected by standard neuropsychological assessments.

Keywords: Digital cognitive assessment tool; Alzheimer's disease; Preclinical AD; cognitive screening

Introduction

As a result of the aging of the population, dementia is emerging as a major health problem. It is estimated that more than 44 million people worldwide are affected by Alzheimer's disease (AD) or a related form of dementia, and it is believed that this number will reach approximately 150 million in 2050, as reported by the U.S. National Institute of Aging. The costs for dementia are also significant, at approximately US\$1 trillion per year, rising to 2 trillion over the next 10 years (Patterson, 2018).

The development of disease-modifying drugs represents a promising chance for individuals suffering of AD, especially at the preclinical or prodromal stages of AD (Mild Cognitive Impairment, MCI, due to AD). An early diagnosis is also important for nonpharmacological interventions, to globally improve physical and cognitive functions, ADL skills, and behavioral and psychological symptoms (Lowrani et al., 2020). In fact, although much of the risk of developing AD can be attributed to genetics, some acquired factors may predispose an individual to a cognitive decline: vascular diseases (Mayeux & Stern, 2012; Imtiaz et al., 2014), excessive alcohol consumption (Kim et al., 2012; Piazza-Gardner et al., 2013; Panza et al., 2013), depression (Byers & Yaffe, 2011; Vilalta-Franch et al., 2013; Zverova et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2018) and insomnia (Shi et al., 2018); smoking cessation is highly recommended to reduce the incidence of dementia (Durazzo et al., 2014).

Therefore, an early diagnosis could be the best way to promptly access medical and support services, increasing the chances of early interventions to maintain a good quality of life for as long as possible, thus reducing the cost of care, and permitting more time to deal with legal, financial and care decisions (Bondi et al., 2008; Rentz et al., 2013; Sperling et al., 2014).

It is known that neuropathological process of AD may begin many years before the onset of clinical symptoms (Dubois et al. 2014) and that the preclinical or prodromal phase is

1
2
3 characterized by the alteration of AD biomarkers, including amyloid β 42 (A β 42) and tau in
4 the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), amyloid deposition, magnetic resonance imaging alterations,
5 fluoro-2-deoxyglucose (FDG)-PET abnormalities and cognitive changes (Han et al., 2017;
6 Schindler et al., 2017; Alzheimer's Association, 2020).
7
8
9
10

11
12
13 Despite the importance of biomarkers for the diagnosis of AD, neuropsychological evaluation
14 plays a significant role in early diagnosis offering advantages to the high costs and invasiveness
15 of organic biomarker analysis (Tarnanas et al., 2014).
16
17
18
19

20 A recent review about cognitive changes in preclinical AD (Mortamais et al., 2017) shows that
21 the earliest variations involve episodic and semantic memory, as well as executive functions.
22 A decline in episodic memory is typically the earliest and most robust symptom of MCI and
23 dementia, and it can arise 6-10 years before the onset of the symptomatic phase (Bäckman et
24 al., 2001; Bondi et al., 2008; Sperling et al., 2011; Mortamais et al., 2017;). Because it is not
25 clear whether immediate or delayed measures are the most sensitive for early dementia, the
26 analysis of both is recommended. Associative memory is especially sensitive to early AD
27 (Parra et al., 2010, Della Sala et al., 2012) and older adults with deficits in this cognitive area
28 are at increased risk for dementia (Buschke et al., 2017; Mowrey et al., 2018); moreover, there
29 is evidence of deficits in short-term associative memory in older adults with AD, familial AD
30 and asymptomatic carriers of the E280A single presenilin-1 mutation (Parra, Abrahams, Fabi
31 et al., 2009; Parra, Abrahams, Logie et al., 2010). The assessment of executive functioning is
32 often missed in short cognitive screening, especially regarding the so-called “hot” components
33 (Allain et al., 2013), which involve “emotional”, “belief” or “desires”, such as experiences of
34 reward and punishment, regulation of social behavior and decision making. “Cold”
35 components, such as the coordination mechanism of the central executive, inhibition and
36 shifting, can be affected many years before the clinical phase and the decline seems to
37 accelerate two or three years before (Grober et al., 2008; Allain et al., 2013).
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Meta-analysis (Wild et al., 2008; Ismail et al., 2010; Zygouris et al., 2014; Tsoi et al., 2015)
4 indicated cognitive screening as an excellent tool in terms of accuracy, availability and cost, to
5 discriminate between cognitively healthy participants and people affected by MCI or dementia.
6
7
8
9
10 In the past few years, research focused on automated tests, which can be administered via a
11 tablet/smartphone or computer (for a review, see Thabtah et al., 2020), and differed for various
12 properties from the traditional paper and pencil screening.
13
14
15

16
17 Most of the existing tests focus on discrimination among subjects with MCI or dementia and
18 cognitively healthy subjects (Wild et al., 2008; Ismail et al., 2010; Tsoi et al., 2015; Zygouris
19 et al., 2014; Mortamais et al., 2017;). Despite being very accurate in detecting early or mild
20 cognitive decline, these tests do not seem to register the slight changes that are distinctive of a
21 preclinical phase (Mortamais et al., 2017). This is why a more cognitively demanding and
22 sensitive tool is needed.
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31

32 We have developed a new web application named COGITAB which is conceived to be almost
33 self-administered via a tablet in a general practitioner's (GP) office in approximately 30
34 minutes. Primary care is an ideal place to early identify people with cognitive concerns, but
35 also to manage the risk of developing dementia after the patient is screened. COGITAB was
36 designed to be quick to administer and easy to score. It is run, scored, and processed by software
37 and it will provide an immediate non-numerical outcome of a subject's performance compared
38 with the normative sample.
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 In the present study (phase one), we preliminarily analyzed the Italian normative data of this
49 new cognitive battery, and we examined its user-friendliness and feasibility, underlying
50 possible weaknesses or problems. These aspects are indispensable for future validation and
51 dissemination phases. Moreover, we explored the possible differences related to the presence
52 of a family history of dementia (genetic factors) and of some acquired risk factors for AD
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 development (e.g. vascular diseases, smoking, depression, anxiety, etc.) that can negatively
4
5 impact cognitive efficiency.
6
7

8 The aim of a second ongoing study (phase two) was to investigate the validity of COGITAB
9
10 for cognitive screening of subjects with objective and subjective cognitive impairment. For the
11
12 first group we recruited patients diagnosed with early dementia and Mild Cognitive Disorder
13
14 (MCI). The second sample was composed of patients diagnosed with Subjective Cognitive
15
16 Disorder (SCD), claiming a persistent decline in cognitive capacities despite a normal
17
18 performance on standard neuropsychological tests. In the case of a positive outcome in terms
19
20 of diagnostic accuracy, a third “dissemination” step (phase three) will take place. GPs and other
21
22 specialists will be exhaustively instructed about how to correctly manage the tool (for further
23
24 details, see COGITAB Battery and Discussion).
25
26
27

28 29 **Materials and Methods**

30 31 *Participants*

32 We enrolled 537 participants aged between 45 and 75 years, with varied levels of education (5-
33
34 18 years) from two regions of northern Italy (Emilia Romagna, Lombardia). The inclusion
35
36 criteria were having Italian as one’s native language, absence of current or previous disabling
37
38 neurological pathologies, blindness, deafness or other serious sensory impairment, intellectual
39
40 or cognitive disability, and serious psychiatric diseases.
41
42
43
44
45

46 Nineteen participants were discarded because of the incompleteness of the anamnestic
47
48 interview or COGITAB procedure because of technical issues (e.g. inadequate internet
49
50 connection).
51
52

53 The final sample was composed of 518 subjects (231 males; 287 females) aged between 45 and
54
55 75 years (mean=59.26; SD=8.22) with varied years of education (range: 5-18; mean=12.63;
56
57 SD=3.88). A description of age and years of education can be found in Table 1.
58
59
60

1
2
3 Each participant was classified according to two categories: acquired risk factors (high vs. low)
4 and family history of dementia (yes vs. no). High risk was determined if at least two of the
5
6 following conditions were detected: health risk factors (at least two between hypertension,
7
8 diabetes, minor cardiovascular disease, thyroid dysfunction, dyslipidemia and other internal
9
10 pathologies), lifestyle risk factors (smoking, drinking or drug addiction) or psychological risk
11
12 factors (subclinical anxiety or depression, and the feeling of a physiological memory decline
13
14 without any previous request for clinical assessment). The most common recurring risk factors
15
16 were dyslipidemia and hypertension (both in pharmacological treatment), subclinical
17
18 anxiety/depression and smoking habit. None of the participants reported alcohol or drug
19
20 addiction. A family history of the disease was based on the presence of first-third degree
21
22 relatives with a neurodegenerative pathology. In fact, even in the absence of a first degree
23
24 family history, a second or third-degree family history can be indicative of an elevated risk
25
26 (Cannon-Albright et al., 2019). Participants were divided into four groups: 271 low risk without
27
28 a family history, 71 high risk without a family history, 129 low risk with a family history and
29
30 47 high risk with a family history. The age distribution among the four cohorts is reported in
31
32 Table 2.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 ***Procedure***

41
42
43 Each session lasted approximately 60 minutes. The procedure was approved by the local
44
45 research ethics committees and fully explained to the subjects, informed written consent was
46
47 obtained.
48
49

50
51 All participants were first requested to complete a clinical interview conducted by a
52
53 neuropsychologist (anagraphic data and clinical information; occupation/retirement; family
54
55 history of dementia; lifestyle habits, psychosocial and physiopathological factors). After the
56
57 anamnestic phase, the participants were assessed using the Mini-mental State Examination
58
59
60

1
2
3 (MMSE) and Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA), which are two 30-point screening tests
4
5 widely used in clinical practice to detect cognitive decline.
6
7

8 After this cognitive screening, the examiner manually entered information regarding the
9
10 subject code, the presence of subclinical anxiety/depression and family history of dementia,
11
12 on a tablet which was then placed on the table about 15 cm in front of the subject. COGITAB
13
14 was introduced as follows: “Now, you’ll be asked to follow the instructions that will appear on
15
16 the screen. The same instructions will be audible by tapping the speaker icon that you’ll see on
17
18 the screen”. The first three requests (date, month and year of birth) allowed the subject to
19
20 become familiar with the instrument, possibly receiving suggestions on the correct way to tap
21
22 the screen (e.g., “wait a while before tapping again”, “press the screen more slightly”, etc.).
23
24
25

26
27 After this first phase, the examiner was exclusively available for technical support, such as
28
29 internet connection issues. The examiner was previously instructed on how to use COGITAB
30
31 and on how to answer to the subject’s possible questions. The COGITAB evaluation lasted for
32
33 about 30 minutes.
34
35

36
37 To assess possible variations in COGITAB performance over time, we scheduled a second
38
39 complete evaluation after approximately 16 months (mean=16.20; SD=4.86). Unfortunately,
40
41 because of the Covid-19 pandemic, only a small sample of 45 participants accepted the follow-
42
43 up (Table 3).
44
45

46 ***COGITAB battery***

47
48
49 COGITAB was designed as a web application that implemented a client server architectural
50
51 pattern. A web application is a program that uses a browser and web technologies to perform
52
53 tasks over the internet, while a client-server pattern allows us to partition workloads between
54
55 two modules, the service requester (i.e., the client, a computer or a tablet) and the provider of
56
57 a service (i.e., the server). In COGITAB, the client module includes the user interfaces and
58
59
60

1
2
3 logic of the tasks and runs in a web browser, while the server module provides the cognitive
4 tests, safely stores the results and provides authorized users with a report of the outcomes for
5 each subject. These design solutions provide the following advantages: COGITAB runs on
6 multiple platforms (browsers and devices) regardless of the operating system and underlying
7 hardware; all users access the same version, and updates can be performed easily just by
8 updating the server; all the results are stored in a centralized server and are protected using
9 high-level solutions. This makes it possible to conduct comparative analyses over time for the
10 same patient and to pursue advanced epidemiological studies.
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

22 The two modules use state-of-the-art open-source web technologies; in particular, the client
23 module was developed using the Angular JS framework and the following front-end
24 technologies: HTML version 5, CSS version 3, and JavaScript version 5. The server module
25 was developed using the framework Django the following back-end technologies: Python
26 version 2.7 and PostgreSQL version 9. COGITAB can be administered through any browser
27 using a tablet or computer; however, it was optimized for Google Chrome and Mozilla Firefox
28 browsers running on a 10-inch tablet or greater.
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 COGITAB is composed of ten subtests (see Table 4 for a summary) conceived to assess those
40 cognitive domains found to be compromised early in MCI and preclinical dementia. Temporal
41 orientation, episodic and semantic memory, and visuo-constructive and visuo-spatial abilities
42 are examined. Executive functions such as divided attention, shifting, verbal fluency,
43 perceptual speed, and inhibition/switching are also analyzed. Moreover, the subjects were
44 asked to self-evaluate their own performance, thus testing meta-cognitive skills, which have
45 predictive value regarding their progression to dementia in MCI patients (Vogel, Stokholm et
46 al., 2004; Vogel, Hasselbalch et al., 2005; Galeone et al., 2011; Wolfsgruber et al., 2014), even
47 though levels of awareness are heterogeneous among them (Roberts et al., 2009). Instructions
48 were made available as text and via audio. Most of the subtests were inspired by existing
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 cognitive tests, such as the Trail Making Test (Reitan, 1958), object recognition and lexical
4 access tasks (Sartori & Job, 1988), the Stroop Test (Stroop, 1935), the Judgment of Line
5 Orientation Test (Benton, 1978), the Multiple Features Target Cancellation Test or the Bell
6 Test (Marra et al., 2013; Gauthier et al., 1989) and the Rivermead Behavioral Memory Test
7 (Wilson et al., 1985). The exposure time was reduced and different cognitive functions were
8 examined in parallel to create more cognitively demanding tasks. The most articulated,
9 challenging and ecological task of COGITAB is the third one. The subject was requested to
10 remember a character (face, name and surname), a shopping itinerary and all the purchased
11 items, in terms of categories and quantities. The same questions were submitted right after the
12 exposure and after 20 minutes. This task examined visual and verbal immediate and delayed
13 memory, associative memory, recall and recognition processes, and implicit memory.
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28

29 At the end of the test, data were automatically sent to a central server, and the examiner has
30 access to an easy and immediate total score (TS), which was computed considering correct
31 answers, errors and reaction times (Table 4, last column). The total execution time (TET),
32 which reflects the overall activity duration, was also registered. The outcome datasheet was
33 enriched with different quantitative (single scores, number of errors, latencies, reaction times,
34 etc. for every single task) and qualitative details (type of errors, visual reproduction of the
35 single tasks, etc.). After the tool validation, these details will be available to
36 neuropsychologists, neurologists, and geriatricians in case of GP prescriptions for further
37 diagnostic assessment. For a screening use (GP office), we designed an easier and more
38 intuitive non-numerical outcome report that is still underway (see Discussion).
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51

52 ***Statistical Analysis***

53
54
55 The present study is descriptive in nature and aimed at describing the normative data of a
56 sample of healthy subjects. The sample size was not determined according to a prespecified
57 target/outcome. We analyzed data from 518 patients, a method that was judged to be both
58
59
60

1
2
3 adequate for the linear regression model used for equivalent score determination and feasible
4
5 from a logistic/organizational standpoint.
6

7
8 The performed tests were considered to show statistically significant results if the p -values
9
10 were < 0.05 ; confidence intervals of estimates were two tailed and calculated considering a
11
12 0.95 confidence level. Statistical analyses were performed using R version 4.0.4.
13

14
15 The primary aim was to describe the distribution of TSs. We estimated the mean and confidence
16
17 interval, median and (bootstrap) confidence interval, distribution quantiles, asymmetry index,
18
19 kurtosis index and Shapiro–Wilk test p value to assess the normality of the sample.
20

21
22 Furthermore, we computed the equivalent scores (ESs) following the Capitani and Laiacona
23
24 procedure (2017). The analysis entailed outer and inner tolerance limit calculations, regression
25
26 equation estimation and correction factor determination, and equivalent score table derivation.
27

28
29 The analysis consisted of estimating the relationship between the score (dependent variable)
30
31 and sex, age and education (independent variables) by a linear regression model; this model is
32
33 then used to estimate correction factors applied to the raw score obtained by an individual to
34
35 produce an adjusted score (corrected given age and education) comparable with those produced
36
37 by other individuals. Finally, the adjusted scores can be classified into different levels or
38
39 equivalent scores, given the table of the equivalent scores, where the ES is on the 0-4 scale. An
40
41 ES score of 0 indicates an adjusted score under the outer tolerance limit (suggesting an
42
43 abnormal situation), an ES of 4 is for the patient with an adjusted score above the median of
44
45 adjusted scores, and ES scores of 1-3 suggest an increasing level of performance.
46
47

48
49 TS and TET were analyzed with ANOVA and ANCOVA-style linear regression models: the
50
51 first used the presence of a family history, risk group and their interaction as main covariates;
52
53 the latter adjusted estimates by sex, age, and years of education. We also measured the
54
55 correlation between TSs and self-evaluations. MMSE and MoCA adjusted scores were also
56
57 analyzed across the four cohorts by the Kruskal–Wallis test.
58
59
60

1
2
3 Finally we assessed the variation between test and retest scores. The retest assessment was
4 conducted approximately 16 months later (Bartels et al., 2010).
5
6
7

8 **Results**

9

10 All the subjects performed normally at the traditional cognitive screening tests (MMSE
11 adjusted score mean=29, SD=1.24; MoCA adjusted score mean=25.23, SD=2.46) according to
12 the respective standardization studies (Measso et al., 1993 and Conti et al., 2014). MMSE and
13 MoCA performances were positively correlated (ρ 0.29, [0.21, 0.37], $p < 0.001$). Table 5
14 shows mean and confidence interval, median and (bootstrap) confidence interval, asymmetry,
15 kurtosis and p value from the Shapiro–Wilk test for each cohort, all corroborating the
16 approximately normal shape of the distribution.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26

27 A linear regression model was used to assess the influences of age, education and sex on the
28 TS ($F(3,514)=44.134, p < 0.0001$). Because only age and education (respectively $t(514)=-10.03,$
29 $p < 0.0001$; $t(514)=4.50, p < 0.0001$) were significantly associated with the TS, the final
30 estimated model was $y = 80.13 - 0.64(\text{age} - 59.26) - 0.02(\text{age} - 59.26)^2 + 0.60(\text{education} - 12.63),$
31 where 59.26 was the average age of the normative sample and 12.63 was the average years of
32 education. We derived the correction grid accordingly with raw score adjustments (for some
33 education/age values; see Table 6 and the appendix for full reference of adjustments). The
34 adjustment had to be added to the raw score to obtain the adjusted score (adjusted score = raw
35 score + y).
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48

49 The adjusted scores of the normative samples were used to develop rules to classify adjusted
50 scores into five ES by using the outer tolerance limit (59, the 18th ordered adjusted score of
51 the normative sample), adjusted scores median (79.9) and z values of the normal distribution.
52 The criteria used to categorize individuals' adjusted scores can be found in Table 7. The scores
53 of group 0 were lower than the outer tolerance limits; scores of group 4 were higher than the
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 median value of the sample; those of groups 1, 2, and 3 were intermediate between the central
4 value and the pathology threshold on a quasi-interval scale.
5
6

7
8 To explore possible differences related to the family history of dementia and acquired risk
9 factors, the COGITAB TS was compared between the four cohorts (Table 8). Only the high-
10 risk group was associated with a diminished mean score (-6.2 points, CI: -9.656 to -2.791,
11 $p < 0.001$). However, once controlled for sex, age and education, the high-risk group effect was
12 no longer significant ($p = 0.128$). Therefore, neither the family history nor the risk factors
13 showed a significant impact on TS.
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

22 The TSs positively correlated with self-observations ($p < 0.001$). The subjective perception of a
23 good cognitive performance was actually related to a higher TS, suggestive of good meta-
24 cognitive skills (Table 9).
25
26
27
28
29

30 We analyzed the TET similarly to the TS. The high-risk group was slower than the lower-risk
31 group (approximately +2.1 minutes; CI: 1.17 to 3.01, $p < 0.001$); when controlling for sex, age
32 and education the difference was 1.3 minutes (CI 0.4 to 2.2); the family history group showed
33 no association at all (p value = 0.514) (Table 10).
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 As previously described, a small sample of 45 participants underwent COGITAB a second time
41 after about 16 months to analyze the practice effect and test-retest correlation. We observed a
42 nonsignificant slight enhancement in the retest (+3.5 points, CI=-0.23 to 8.30, $p = 0.065$; $r = 0.25$,
43 CI -0.05 to 0.51, $p = 0.098$, Table 11).
44
45
46
47
48

49 Finally, despite being somewhat limited by the small sample of test/retest observation, we
50 estimated the linear model useful for Reliable Change Index estimation, using the retest score
51 as explained variable, baseline score and age as covariate, following Duff (2012). The
52 estimated model was $\text{retest} = 121.733 + 0.124 \cdot \text{score} - 0.816 \cdot \text{age}$, with reasonably normally
53 distributed residuals (Shapiro Wilks test $p = 0.147$) and a standard error of 9.16. In this
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 framework a physician interested in judging a change to be clinically significant could apply
4
5 the equation $(\text{retest} - (121.733 + 0.124 \cdot \text{score} - 0.816 \cdot \text{age}))/9.16$ and compare this score with
6
7 the standard normal distribution cutoffs (e. g. accepting a 5% false positive rate, a value below
8
9 -1.645 should suggest a clinically relevant decrease in the score).

12 13 **Discussion**

14
15 The early detection of cognitive decline is crucial for preventing cognitive deterioration and
16
17 for aiding in therapeutic intervention. Moreover it can help people with dementia to have access
18
19 to important resources and support, talk to family and friends, and to appropriately deal with
20
21 legal, financial and care decisions.
22
23

24
25 The assessment of subtle cognitive changes is a cheaper and less invasive way to detect early
26
27 signs of preclinical AD (Tarnanas et al., 2014) compared with the analysis of AD biomarkers.
28
29

30
31 Most existing psychometric tests focus on the detection of early dementia or MCI, and most of
32
33 them need an expert examiner to actively submit the tasks, spending a lot of time and financial
34
35 resources, and possibly excluding or delaying the evaluation of those with slight cognitive
36
37 decline or even in a silent phase. COGITAB was conceived for an accessible and brief
38
39 evaluation of those cognitive domains found to be compromised early in MCI, and especially
40
41 in preclinical AD. This new web application was designed to be almost self-administered via
42
43 tablet in a GP office. In the present study we preliminarily presented the tool features and its
44
45 normative data in a sample of cognitively healthy subjects. An ongoing validation study that
46
47 includes patients with subjective and objective cognitive diseases is necessary to determine
48
49 diagnostic accuracy.
50
51
52

53
54 Because it is known that a family history of AD and certain acquired risk factors may
55
56 predispose an individual to a cognitive decline, we also investigated the impact of these
57
58 conditions on COGITAB performances. Each participant was classified based on the presence
59
60

1
2
3 of family history of dementia and specific acquired risk factors. Statistical analysis showed that
4 the COGITAB TS was normally distributed, without ceiling and floor effects. Younger and
5 well-educated participants performed significantly better than older and/or less educated
6 subjects. Correction grids with age/education adjustments and ESs for the TS were provided,
7 thus allowing us to judge future performances as pathological, normal or excellent. For
8 example, the adjusted score of an individual aged 50 years old, with 16 years of education, who
9 achieves a raw score of 80, is 73.86 which corresponds to an ES=3.

10
11
12 The TS was not significantly influenced by either the family history of dementia or the acquired
13 risk factors. The only discriminating factor among the four cohorts was the TET. Participants
14 with higher risk factors (mainly dyslipidemia/hypertension under pharmacological treatment
15 and/or subclinical anxiety/depression and/or smoking habit) were significantly slower (more
16 than one minute) than those belonging to the low risk groups, regardless of the presence of a
17 family history of AD. This finding suggests that recording the execution speed can possibly
18 contribute to the assessment of cognition. Future studies should determine whether it is also
19 essential for the detection of cognitive changes. Because most of the cognitive screening tools
20 commonly used by GPs, geriatricians and general neurologists do not consider the execution
21 time, this is an important observation.

22
23
24 Compared with the traditional paper-and-pencil tests, this new technological approach has
25 some advantages. First of all, computerized tests allow us to control the stimulus presentation
26 time and accurately collect promising data (e.g., reaction times, TET) in a more cost-effective
27 and more accessible way. As the use of technological devices, such as smartphones and tablets,
28 continues to spread worldwide, familiarity with these devices is growing, and they are almost
29 replacing the use of paper and pencils in many tasks. Nowadays computerized tests can be
30 considered as reliable as paper-and-pencil tests. Even individuals with lower technological
31 familiarity can comfortably use a touchscreen device (Holzinger et al., 2002; Canini et al.,
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 2014). The COGITAB procedure was well tolerated by the subjects who described an overall
4 positive experience and low frustration levels only related to possible technical problems.
5
6

7
8 Moreover no extensive specific training is needed to administer the test. However, to minimize
9 potential risks (e.g. misinterpretation of the results, inappropriate setting or recommendation,
10 useless or expensive clinical prescriptions, etc.), the examiner (GP and other specialists) needs
11 to be exhaustively instructed about how to prepare the setting, how to introduce the tool, how
12 to address possible questions and doubts, how to communicate the results and when/how to
13 possibly address the individual to a specialist diagnostic path. For easier clinical use, which
14 will be available only after a proper validation study, we are developing an immediate and
15 intuitive outcome report. Based on the ES obtained by the patient, a message will be
16 automatically provided on the screen of the tablet. In the case of $ES=3/4$, a green light will
17 appear, suggesting a normal performance compared with the normative sample; in the case of
18 $ES=1/2$, an orange light will appear, suggesting a GP prescription for possible further
19 neuropsychological assessment or a retest after about 16 months; in the case of $ES=0$, a red
20 light will appear, suggesting the need for a detailed neuropsychological/neurological
21 evaluation. Specific instruction will highlight the nondiagnostic power of the outcome.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40

41 The present study has some limitations.

42
43 As we specified, this is a preliminary study aimed at the investigation of the normative data in
44 a sample of cognitively healthy subjects. Only after a proper validation study, which is ongoing
45 and include clinical cohorts composed of individuals affected by MCI and SCD, it will be
46 possible to extensively discuss the results. The construct validity of every single sub-test will
47 be also explored.
48
49
50
51
52
53

54 Moreover, SCD patients and subjects with lower ESs ($ES=0, 1$ or 2) should be longitudinally
55 monitored to determine possible development of MCI or dementia.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Although COGITAB was conceived as being completely self-administered, the participants
4 needed a support for solving technical problems to ensure an optimal saving of the data. The
5 presence of the examiner ensured immediate feedback in the case of possible doubts or
6 difficulties, thus protecting the performance reliability of the tool.
7
8
9

10
11
12 It is worth noting that the population with only primary schools was rather limited. Clinicians
13 should be careful about the generalization of findings to individuals with lower levels of
14 education.
15
16
17
18
19

20 Another limitation of the current study was the absence of an extensive neuropsychological,
21 neuroradiologic and biomarker analysis to exclude slight cognitive impairment or brain
22 alterations in the control subjects. However, all the participants obtained excellent
23 performances at the traditional cognitive screening, resulting negative for cognitive deficits,
24 with previous significant neurological problems being denied. A first longitudinal follow-up
25 (16 months later) shows cognitive stability in all the tests (MMSE, MoCA and COGITAB).
26 Furthermore, the positive correlation between self-evaluations and higher total scores
27 suggested good meta-cognitive skills.
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 The test retest COGITAB low consistency (nonsignificant slight enhancement of 3.5 points)
40 can possibly be related to an insufficient representativeness of the small sample size. However
41 either practice effects or other factors cannot be excluded. Further analyses about the test-retest
42 reliability are needed. Further follow-ups will be essential to confirm the absence of an
43 underlying neurodegenerative process. Ongoing statistical analysis will examine the
44 distribution of COGITAB subtest scores to provide specific cutoffs. The predictive value of
45 performance in every single task will be discussed in future reports.
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

55 **Funding details**

56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 This work was supported by the OPLON project (Opportunities for active and healthy
4 LONgevity, Smart Cities, Ministero Università e Ricerca, SCN_00176); Associazione Italiana
5
6 Malattia di Alzheimer Reggio Emilia (AIMA) provided us with the tablets; a private sponsor
7
8 supported the research with two annual scholarships.
9
10
11

12 **Acknowledgements**

13
14
15 Special thanks go to Jessica Ternelli, Valeria Giuffrida, Valentina Iandolo, Nicole Monti, Sara
16
17 Baduino, Giulia Testa and Sara Lavolpe for their contribution to data collection and to Stefano
18
19 Gombi for implementing the first COGITAB prototype.
20
21
22

23 **References**

- 24
25
26 Allain, P., Etcharry-Bouyx, F., & Verny, C. (2013). Executive functions in clinical and
27
28 preclinical Alzheimer's disease. *Revue neurologique*, 169(10), 695-708.
29
30 Alzheimer's Association (2020). 2020 Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. *Alzheimers*
31
32 *Dement*, 16(3), 391–460.
33
34
35 Bäckman, L., Small, B. J., Fratiglioni, L. (2001). Stability of the preclinical episodic memory
36
37 deficit in Alzheimer's disease. *Brain*, 124, 96–102.
38
39
40 Bartels, C., Wegrzyn, M., Wiedl, A., Ackermann, V., & Ehrenreich, H. (2010). Practice effects
41
42 in healthy adults: a longitudinal study on frequent repetitive cognitive testing. *BMC*
43
44 *neuroscience*, 11, 118.
45
46
47 Benton, A. L., Varney, N. R., & Hamsher, K. D. (1978). Visuospatial judgment: A clinical test.
48
49 *Archives of neurology*, 35(6), 364–367.
50
51
52 Bondi, M. W., Jak, A. J., Delano-Wood, L., Jacobson, M. W., Delis, D. C., & Salmon, D. P.
53
54 (2008).
55
56 Neuropsychological Contributions to the Early Identification of Alzheimer's Disease.
57
58 *Neuropsychol Rev*, 18(1), 73–90.
59
60

- 1
2
3 Buschke, H., Mowrey, W. B., Ramratan, W. S., Zimmerman, M. E., Loewenstein, D. A., Katz,
4 M. J., & Lipton, R. B. (2017). Memory Binding Test distinguishes amnesic mild cognitive
5 impairment and dementia from cognitively normal elderly. *Arch Clin Neuropsychol*, 32 (1),
6 29–39.
7
8
9
10
11
12 Byers, A.L., & Yaffe, K. (2011). Depression and risk of developing dementia. *Nat Rev Neurol.*,
13 7(6), 323–31.
14
15
16
17 Canini, M., Battista, P., Della Rosa, P. A., Catricalà, E., Salvatore, C., Gilardi, M. C., &
18 Castiglioni, I. (2014). Computerized Neuropsychological Assessment in Aging: Testing
19 Efficacy and Clinical Ecology of Different Interfaces. *Computational and Mathematical*
20 *Methods in Medicine*.
21
22
23
24
25
26 Capitani, E., & Laiacona, M. (2017). Outer and inner tolerance limits: their usefulness for the
27 construction of norm and the standardization of neuropsychological tests. *Clin Neuropsychol*,
28 31(6-7), 1219–1230.
29
30
31
32
33 Conti, S., Bonazzi, S., Laiacona, M., Masina, M., Vanelli, & Coralli, M. (2015). Montreal
34 Cognitive Assessment (MoCA) – Italian version: regression based norms and equivalent
35 scores. *Neurological Science*, 26, 209–214.
36
37
38
39
40 Della Sala, S., Parra, M. A., Fabi, K., Luzzi, S., & Abrahams, S. (2012). Short-term memory
41 binding is impaired in AD but not in non-AD dementias. *Neuropsychologia*, 50(5), 833-840.
42
43
44
45 Dubois, B., Feldman, H. H., Jacova, C., Hampel, H., Molinuevo, J. L., Blennow, K., DeKosky,
46 S. T., Gauthier, S., Selkoe, D., Bateman, R., Cappa, S., Crutch, S., Engelborghs, S., Frisoni, G.
47 B., Fox, N. C., Galasko, D., Habert, M.-O., Jicha, G. A., Nordberg, A., Pasquier, F.,
48 Cummings, J. L. (2014). Advancing research diagnostic criteria for Alzheimer’s disease: the
49 IWG-2 criteria. *Lancet Neurol*. 13(6), 614–29.
50
51
52
53
54
55
56 Duff, K. (2012) Evidence-based indicators of neuropsychological change in the individual
57 patient: relevant concepts and methods. *Arch Clin Neuropsychol*. 2012 May; 27(3):248-61.
58
59
60

1
2
3 Durazzo, T. C., Mattsson, N., & Weiner, M.W. (2014). Smoking and increased Alzheimer's
4 Disease risk: a review of potential mechanisms, *Alzheimers Dement*, 10(3 Suppl), 122-45.

5
6
7 Galeone, F., Pappalardo, S., Chieffi, S., Iavarone, A., & Carlomagno, S. (2011). Anosognosia
8 for memory deficit in amnesic mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's Disease. *Int J.*
9
10
11
12 *Geriatr. Psychiatry*, 26, 695–701.

13
14
15 Gauthier, L., Dehaut, F., & Joanette, Y. (1989). The bells test: a quantitative and qualitative
16 test for visual neglect. *International journal of clinical neuropsychology*, 11(2), 49–54.

17
18
19 Grober, E., Hall, C. H., Lipton, R. B., Zonderman, A. B., Resnick, S. M., & Kawas, C. (2008).
20 Memory impairment, executive dysfunction, and intellectual decline in preclinical Alzheimer's
21 disease. *Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society*, 14(2), 266–278.

22
23
24
25
26 Han, S. D., Nguyen, C. P., Stricker, N. H, & Nation, D. A. (2017). Detectable
27 Neuropsychological Differences in Early Preclinical Alzheimer's Disease: A Meta-Analysis.
28
29
30
31 *Neuropsychol Rev.*, 27(4), 305–325.

32
33
34 Holzinger, A. (2002). Finger Instead of Mouse: Touch Screens as a Means of Enhancing
35 Universal Access. *Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence (Subseries of Lecture Notes in*
36
37
38 *Computer Science)*, 2615, 387-397.

39
40
41
42
43
44
45 Imtiaz, B., Tolppanen, A., Kivipelto, M., & Soininen, H. (2014). Future directions in
46 Alzheimer's disease from risk factors to prevention, *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 88(4), 661–
47
48
49 670.

50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
Ismail, Z., Rajji, T. K., & Shulman, K. I. (2010). Brief cognitive screening instruments: an
update. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry*, 25(2), 111–120.

Kim, J. W., Lee, D. Y., Lee, B. C., Jung, M. H., Kim, H., Choi, Y. S. & Choi, I. G. (2012).
Alcohol and cognition in the elderly: a review. *Psychiatry Investig*, 9(1), 8-16.

- 1
2
3 Lowrani, M., Indarwati, R., & Lestari, P. (2020). Non-pharmacological therapy for the elderly
4 to prevent dementia through cognitive stimulation therapy: A systematic review. *Jurnal*
5
6 *Ners* 15(2), 221-229.
7
8
9
10 Marra, C., Gainotti, G., Scaricamazza, E., Piccininni, C., Ferraccioli, M., & Quaranta, D.
11
12 (2013). The Multiple Features Target Cancellation (MFTC): an attentional visual conjunction
13 search test. Normative values for the Italian population. *Neurological Sciences*, 34(2), 173–
14 180.
15
16
17
18
19 Mayeux, R., & Stern, Y. (2012). Epidemiology of Alzheimer disease. *Cold Spring Harbor*
20 *perspectives in medicine*, 2(8), a006239.
21
22
23
24 Measso, G., Cavarzeran, F., Zappalà, G., Lebowitz, B.D., Crook, T. H., Pirozzolo, F. J.,
25
26 Amaducci, L. A., Massari, D., & Grigoletto, F. (1993). The Mini-mental State Examination:
27 normative study of an italian random sample. *Developmental Neuropsychology*, 9(2), 77–95.
28
29
30
31 Mortamais, M., Ash, J. A., Harrison, J., Kaye, J., Kramer, J., Randolph, C., Pose, C., Albala,
32
33 B., Ropacki, M., Ritchie, C. W., & Ritchie, K. (2017). Detecting cognitive changes in
34 preclinical Alzheimer's disease: A review of its feasibility. *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 13(4),
35 468-492.
36
37
38
39
40 Mowrey, W. B., Lipton, R. B., Katz, M. J., Ramratan, W. S., Loewenstein, D. A., Zimmerman,
41
42 M. E., & Buschke, H. (2018). Memory binding test predicts incident dementia results from the
43 Einstein aging study. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease*, 62(1), 293–304.
44
45
46
47 Panza, F., Frisardi, V., Seripa, D., Logroscino, G., Santamato, A., Imbimbo, B. P., Scafato, E.,
48
49 Pilotto, A., & Solfrizzi, V. (2012). Alcohol consumption in mild cognitive impairment and
50 dementia: harmful or neuroprotective? *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*, 27(12), 1218–1238.
51
52
53
54 Parra, M. A., Abrahams, S., Fabi, K., Logie, R., Luzzi, S., & Della Sala, S. (2009). Short-term
55 memory binding deficits in Alzheimer's disease. *Brain*, 132 (Pt 4), 1057–1066.
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Parra, M. A., Abrahams, S., Logie, R. H., & Della Sala, S. (2010). Visual short-term memory
4 binding in Alzheimer's disease and depression. *J. Neurol.*, 257(7), 1160–1169.
5
6
7
8 Patterson, C. (2018). World Alzheimer Report 2018: The state of the art of dementia research:
9 New frontiers. *Alzheimer's Disease International (ADI)*, London.
10
11
12 Piazza-Gardner, A. K., Gaffud, T. J., & Barry, A. E. (2013). The impact of alcohol on
13 Alzheimer's disease: a systematic review. *Aging Ment Health*, 17(2), 133-146.
14
15
16
17 Reitan, R. M. (1958). Validity of the Trail Making Test as an indicator of organic brain damage.
18 *Perceptual and motor skills*, 8(3), 271–276.
19
20
21
22 Rentz, D. M., Rodriguez, M. P., Amariglio, R., Stern, Y., Sperling, R., & Ferris, S. (2013).
23 Promising developments in neuropsychological approaches for the detection of preclinical
24 Alzheimer's disease: a selective review. *Alzheimer's Research & Therapy*, 5, 58.
25
26
27
28 Roberts J, Clare L, & Woods R. (2009). Subjective Memory Complaints and Awareness of
29 Memory Functioning in Mild Cognitive Impairment: A Systematic Review. *Dement Geriatr*
30 *Cogn Disord*, 28(2), 95–109.
31
32
33
34
35 Sartori, G., & Job, R. (1988). The oyster with four legs: A neuropsychological study on the
36 interaction of visual and semantic information. *Cognitive Neuropsychology*, 5(1), 105–132.
37
38
39
40 Schindler, S. E., Jasielc, M. S., Weng, H., Hassenstab, J. J., Grober, E., McCue, L. M., Morris,
41 J. C., Holtzman, D. M., Xiong, C., & Fagan, A. M. (2017). Neuropsychological measures that
42 detect early impairment and decline in preclinical Alzheimer disease. *Neurobiol Aging*, 56, 25–
43 32.
44
45
46
47
48
49 Shi, L., Chen, S. J., Ma, M. Y., Bao, Y. P., Han, Y., Wang, Y. M., Shi, J., Vitiello, M. V., &
50 Lu, L. (2018). Sleep disturbances increase the risk of dementia: a systematic review and meta-
51 analysis. *Sleep Med Rev.*, 40, 4–16.
52
53
54
55
56 Sperling, R. A., Aisen, P. S., Beckett, L. A., Craft, S., Fagan, A. M., Iwatsubo, T., Jack, C. R.,
57 Kaye, J., Montine, T. J., Park, D. C., Reiman, E. M., Rowe, C. C., Siemers, E., Stern, Y., Yaffe,

- 1
2
3 K., Carrillo, M. C., Thies, B., Morrison-Bogorad, M., Wagster, M. V., & Phelps, C. H. (2011).
4
5 Toward defining the preclinical stages of Alzheimer's disease: Recommendations from the
6
7 National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for
8
9 Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 7, 280–292.
10
11
12 Sperling, R. A., Rentz, D. M., Johnson, K. A., Karlawish, J., Donohue, M., Salmon, D. P., &
13
14 Aisen, P. (2014). The A4 Study: Stopping AD before Symptoms Begin? *Sci Transl Med*, 6,
15
16 228.
17
18
19 Stroop, J. R. (1935). Studies of Interference in Serial Verbal Reactions. *Journal of*
20
21 *Experimental Psychology*, 18, 643-662.
22
23
24 Tarnanas, I., Tsolaki, M., Nef, T., Müri, R. M., & Mosimann, U. P. (2014). Can a novel
25
26 computerized cognitive screening test provide additional information for early detection of
27
28 Alzheimer's disease? *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 1–9.
29
30
31 Thabtah, F., Peebles, D., Retzler, J., & Hathurusingha, C. (2020). Dementia Medical Screening
32
33 using Mobile Applications: A Systematic Review with A New Mapping Model. *Journal of*
34
35 *Biomedical Informatics*, 103573.
36
37
38 Tsoi, K. K. F., Chan, J. Y. C., Hirai, H. W., Wong, S. Y. S., & Kwok, T. C. Y. (2015). Cognitive
39
40 tests to detect dementia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Intern Med.*, 175(9),
41
42 1450–1458.
43
44
45 Vilalta-Franch, J., Lopez-Pousa, S., Llinas-Regla, J., Calvo-Perxas, L., Merino-Aguado, J., &
46
47 Garre-Olmo, J. (2013). Depression subtypes and 5-year risk of dementia and Alzheimer disease
48
49 in patient, aged 70 years. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*, 28(4), 341–50.
50
51
52 Vogel, A., Hasselbalch, S. G., Gade, A., Ziebell, M., & Waldemar, G. (2005). Cognitive and
53
54 functional neuroimaging correlate for anosognosia in mild cognitive impairment and
55
56 Alzheimer's disease. *Int. J. Geriatr. Psychiatry*, 20, 238–246.
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Vogel, A., Stokholm, J., Gade, A., Andersen, B. B., Hejl, A. M., & Waldemar, G. (2004).
4 Awareness of deficits in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease: do MCI patients
5 have impaired insight? *Dement. Geriatr. Cogn. Disord.*, 17, 181–187.
6
7
8
9
10 Wild, K., Howieson, D., Webbe, F., Seelye, A., & Kaye, J. (2008). Status of computerized
11 cognitive testing in aging: a systematic review. *Alzheimers Dement.*, 4(6), 428–437.
12
13
14 Wilson, B. A., Cockburn, J., & Baddeley, A. (1985). *The Rivermead behavioural memory test*
15 *(RBMT)*. Thames Valley Test Company, Bury St Edmunds.
16
17
18
19 Wolfsgruber, S., Wagner, M., Schmidtke, K., Frölich, L., Kurz, A., Schulz, S., Hampel, H.,
20 Heuser, I., Peters, O., Reischies, F.M., Jahn, H., Luckhaus, C., Hüll, M., Gertz, H.-J., Schröder,
21 J., Pantel, J., Rienhoff, O., Rütger, E., Henn, F., Wiltfang, J., Jessen, F. (2014). Memory
22 concerns, memory performance and risk of dementia in patients with mild cognitive
23 impairment. *PLoS ONE* 9, e100812.
24
25
26
27
28
29
30 Wu, K. Y., Lin, K. J., Chen, C. H., Chen, C. S., Liu, C. Y., Huang, S. Y., Yen, T-C., & Hsiao,
31 I-T (2018). Diversity of neurodegenerative pathophysiology in nondemented patients with
32 major depressive disorder: Evidence of cerebral amyloidosis and hippocampal atrophy. *Brain*
33 *Behav.* 8(7).
34
35
36
37
38
39
40 Zverova, M., Fisar, Z., Jirak, R., Kitzlerova, E., Hroudova, J., & Raboch, J. (2013). Plasma
41 cortisol in Alzheimer's disease with or without depressive symptoms. *Med Sci Monit.*, 19, 681-
42
43
44
45
46
47 Zygouris, S., & Tsolaki, M. (2014). Computerized Cognitive Testing for Older Adults: A
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

| Sex | N | Age (years) Mean (SD) | Education (years) Mean (SD) |
|---------|-----|--------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Males | 231 | 59.0 (± 8.2) | 12.5 (± 3.9) |
| Females | 287 | 59.4 (± 8.2) | 12.8 (± 3.8) |
| Overall | 518 | 59.2 (± 8.2) | 12.6 (± 3.9) |

Table 1. Demographic data of the study population

For Peer Review Only

| | N | Mean (SD) |
|------------------------------------|-----|-------------------|
| Low risk without a family history | 271 | 57.6 (\pm 8.4) |
| High risk without a family history | 71 | 63.3 (\pm 7.3) |
| Low risk with a family history | 129 | 58.9 (\pm 7.6) |
| High risk with a family history | 47 | 63.7 (\pm 6.6) |
| All | 518 | 59.3 (\pm 8.2) |

Table 2. Age distribution among the four cohorts (Kruskal–Wallis test $p < 0.001$)

| Sex | N | Age (years) Mean (SD) | Education (years) Mean (SD) |
|---------|----|--------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Males | 16 | 66.4 (±4.2) | 13.0 (±4.6) |
| Females | 29 | 64.0 (±6.2) | 14.8 (±5.5) |
| Overall | 45 | 64.9 (±5.8) | 14.4 (±5.2) |

Table 3. Demographic data of retest population

For Peer Review Only

| <i>N.</i> | <i>Task</i> | <i>Description</i> | <i>Cognitive function assessed</i> | <i>Scoring (range)</i> |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|---|--|
| 1 | 1 Personal information | The subject is asked to enter some basic information, such as birth date, sex and the number of years of school attended | Personal orientation | Qualitative |
| 2 | 2 Temporal orientation | Participants should type the date (day of the week, month and year) | Temporal orientation | Accuracy (0-4) |
| 3 | 3 The shopping day | This is the most articulated and ecological task. A character placed in the middle of the screen introduces himself with a face, name and surname (e.g., "Good morning! My name is Albert Jones. Please remember my name!"); the participant is asked to pay attention to the grocery list (categories and quantities of the purchased items) and to the itinerary ("Now I'll show you my route on the map. Pay attention because later I'm going to ask you about it"). He is then required to retrace the route he was shown earlier on the screen and to answer a few questions about the purchases (e.g., "What did I buy from the cake shop?"; "How many slices of cake did I buy?"). The same questions are asked again after the completion of Parts 4 to 8, later illustrated and which take approximately 20 minutes to complete. The participant is moreover required to recognize the face of the character among 7 other faces and to recall his name and surname. This test was inspired by the RBMT. | Visual/verbal immediate/delayed implicit and explicit memory (recall and recognition), associative memory | Accuracy Immediate recall (0-40) Delay recall (0-53) |
| 4 | 4 Numbers and letters | Participants should connect varied categories of items that are displayed on the screen: numbers from the smallest to the largest (e.g., 1-2-3), letters in alphabetical order (e.g., A-B-C), and alternating numbers and letters (e.g., 1-A-2-B). This is a shorter version of the TMT. | Executive functioning, visual search speed, shift, speed of processing, mental flexibility | Accuracy Speed (0-7) |
| 5 | 5 Completion of a geometric shape | The subject is instructed to carefully watch a cube (which appears on the screen for a few seconds) and then to complete the missing parts of the same shape. This subtest is a more difficult version of other copy of complex figure tests since the geometric model disappears after a few seconds. | Visual-spatial memory, iconic reproduction, visuo-constructive praxis abilities | Accuracy (0-3) |
| 6 | 6 Picture selection | Inspired by the MFTC and the Bell Test, the request of this task is to select as quickly as possible all the items identical to one or two of the models previously shown (a dog in the first trial; a cat and a man in the second trial). | Visual-spatial exploration, selective and divided attention, psychomotor speed, inhibition abilities | Accuracy Speed (0-10) |
| 7 | 7 Visual fluency | Several sketches appear on the screen one at a time. The participant is asked to select the drawing only when the first letter of its name corresponds to a specific target (letter C for the first trial, e.g., "CAT"; letters A and F for the second trial, e.g., "AIRPLANE" or "FLOWER"). Object recognition and lexical access tasks influenced this test. | Selective and divided attention, visual recognition, executive functioning, verbal fluency | Accuracy Speed (0-10) |
| 8 | 8 Correct answer inhibition | The request is to select as quickly and as accurately as possible the wrong answer (e.g., "What is Everest? A mountain; a lake". "A lake" is correct). This subtest was inspired by the Stroop test, which is a well-established test of response inhibition. | Semantic memory, inhibition, control interference abilities | Accuracy Speed (0-13) |
| 9 | 9 Line orientation | This subtest was inspired by the Judgment of Line Orientation Test. In contrast to the Benton version, however, the subject should carefully watch a couple of lines for a few seconds and then, once they disappear, to match those lines to a set of lines arranged in a semicircle. | Visual-spatial abilities, iconic memory | Accuracy (0-10) |
| 10 | 10 Self-assessment | "That's the end of the test! How do you think it went?" (Very bad/Bad/Don't know/Good/Very good). | Meta-cognitive ability | Qualitative |
| <i>Total Score (TS)</i> | | | | 0-150 |

Table 4. COGITAB tasks descriptions

| | N | Min | Max | MEAN | Lower.CI | Upper.CI | MEDIAN | Lower.CI.1 | Upper.CI.1 | SD | Asim | Curt | Shapiro_p |
|------------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-------|----------|----------|--------|------------|------------|-------|-------|------|-----------|
| Low risk without a family history | 271 | 38 | 127 | 80.46 | 78.77 | 82.15 | 80.00 | 78.00 | 81.00 | 14.12 | 0.04 | 3.55 | 0.25 |
| High risk without a family history | 71 | 48 | 96 | 74.24 | 71.51 | 76.97 | 74.50 | 71.00 | 78.00 | 11.52 | -0.20 | 2.51 | 0.49 |
| Low risk with a family history | 129 | 44 | 108 | 79.17 | 77.24 | 81.11 | 80.00 | 75.00 | 80.00 | 11.13 | -0.29 | 3.32 | 0.28 |
| High risk with a family history | 47 | 36 | 102 | 74.23 | 70.05 | 78.42 | 74.00 | 68.00 | 77.00 | 14.26 | -0.36 | 3.15 | 0.61 |
| All | 518 | 36 | 127 | 78.72 | 77.58 | 79.87 | 79.00 | 77.00 | 80.00 | 13.30 | -0.04 | 3.59 | 0.10 |

Table 5. Description of the distribution of the TS. Mean, median and confidence interval; SD=standard deviation. Asim=skewness (0=symmetrical distribution; >0=positive skew; <0=negative skew); Curt=Kurtosis index (3=normal distribution; <3=platykurtic distribution; >3=leptokurtic distribution); Shapiro_p= $p < 0.05$ indicates a nonnormal distribution of TS.

| Education (years) | Age (years) | | | | | | |
|----------------------|-------------|------|------|------|-----|------|------|
| | 45 | 50 | 55 | 60 | 65 | 70 | 75 |
| 5 | -0.2 | 0.5 | 2.3 | 5.1 | 8.9 | 13.8 | 19.8 |
| 8 | -2.1 | -1.3 | 0.5 | 3.3 | 7.1 | 12.0 | 18.0 |
| 13 | -5.1 | -4.3 | -2.6 | 0.3 | 4.1 | 9.0 | 15.0 |
| 16 | -6.9 | -6.1 | -4.4 | -1.5 | 2.3 | 7.2 | 13.2 |
| 18 | -8.1 | -7.3 | -5.6 | -2.8 | 1.1 | 6.0 | 11.9 |

Table 6. Correction grid with age and education adjustments for individual scores. Adjusted score=raw score+adjustment. Adjustment= $0.64(\text{age}-59.26)+0.02(\text{age}-59.26)^2-0.60$ (education-12.63).

| | Min | Max | Frequency | Criteria |
|------|------|-------|-----------|-------------|
| ES 0 | 37.0 | 59.0 | 18 | ≤ 59.0 |
| ES 1 | 59.1 | 67.2 | 41 | (59.0-67.2) |
| ES 2 | 67.4 | 73.8 | 82 | (67.2-73.8) |
| ES 3 | 73.8 | 79.9 | 118 | (73.8-79.9) |
| ES 4 | 79.9 | 129.8 | 259 | > 79.9 |

Table 7. Equivalent scores for the total score. ES=0 corresponds to an adjusted score under the outer tolerance limit (suggesting an abnormal situation); ES=4 is above the median of the adjusted score; ES=1, 2, 3 suggests increasing levels of ability. The upper limit of the interval score for criteria is included in the interval itself.

| | Anova | | | Ancova | | |
|--|-------|----------------|----------------|--------|-----------------|----------------|
| | Est | 95% CI | <i>p</i> value | Est | 95% CI | <i>p</i> value |
| (Intercept) | 80.5 | (78.9 to 82) | <0.001 | 84.1 | (77.2 to 91.1) | <0.001 |
| High-risk group | -6.2 | (-9.7 to -2.8) | <0.001 | -2.5 | (-5.8 to 0.7) | 0.128 |
| Family history group | -1.3 | (-4 to 1.5) | 0.358 | -1.2 | (-3.8 to 1.4) | 0.352 |
| High-risk group x Family history group | 1.3 | (-4.3 to 6.9) | 0.651 | 0.9 | (-4.2 to 6) | 0.736 |
| Female | | | | -1.1 | (-3.2 to 1.1) | 0.336 |
| age 56-65 | | | | -2.7 | (-5.2 to -0.3) | 0.029 |
| age 66-75 | | | | -12.3 | (-15.1 to -9.5) | <0.001 |
| educ 6-8 | | | | -3.8 | (-10.9 to 3.2) | 0.289 |
| educ 9-13 | | | | 0.9 | (-6 to 7.7) | 0.804 |
| educ >13 | | | | 2.7 | (-4.2 to 9.7) | 0.442 |

Table 8. Anova and Ancova linear models on COGITAB score

| | N | Spearman Rho | <i>p</i> |
|------------------------------------|-----|--------------|----------|
| Low risk without a family history | 271 | 0.24 | <0.001 |
| High risk without a family history | 71 | 0.02 | 0.861 |
| Low risk with a family history | 129 | 0.02 | 0.815 |
| High risk with a family history | 47 | 0.27 | 0.066 |
| All | 518 | 0.19 | <0.001 |

Table 9 Correlation between TS and self-observations; $p < 0.05$ indicates a correlation different from 0.

| | Anova | | | Ancova | | |
|--|-------|---------------|----------------|--------|----------------|----------------|
| | Est | 95% CI | <i>p</i> value | Est | 95% CI | <i>p</i> value |
| (Intercept) | 13.5 | (13.1 to 14) | <0.001 | 12.7 | (10.7 to 14.6) | <0.001 |
| High-risk group | 2.1 | (1.2 to 3) | <0.001 | 1.3 | (0.4 to 2.2) | 0.005 |
| Family history group | 0.3 | (-0.4 to 1.1) | 0.383 | 0.2 | (-0.5 to 0.9) | 0.514 |
| High-risk group x Family history group | 0.0 | (-1.5 to 1.4) | 0.950 | 0.0 | (-1.5 to 1.4) | 0.953 |
| Female | | | | 0.5 | (-0.1 to 1.1) | 0.078 |
| age 56-65 | | | | 1.3 | (0.6 to 2) | <0.001 |
| age 66-75 | | | | 2.6 | (1.9 to 3.4) | <0.001 |
| educ 6-8 | | | | 0.8 | (-1.2 to 2.7) | 0.427 |
| educ 9-13 | | | | -0.9 | (-2.8 to 1) | 0.331 |
| educ >13 | | | | -0.5 | (-2.4 to 1.4) | 0.618 |

Table 10. Anova and Ancova linear models of COGITAB execution time (minutes)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

| | N | Mean _diff | lower | upper | p_value | Spearman an Rho | Lower.CI | Upper.CI | <i>p</i> |
|------------------------------------|----|---------------|-------|-------|---------|--------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Low risk without a family history | 14 | 6.3 | 0.2 | 12.4 | 0.043 | 0.32 | -0.25 | 0.73 | 0.259 |
| High risk without a family history | 10 | -2.1 | -15.0 | 10.7 | 0.714 | 0.20 | -0.62 | 0.64 | 0.956 |
| Low risk with a family history | 16 | 6.9 | 2.0 | 11.7 | 0.009 | 0.40 | -0.12 | 0.75 | 0.128 |
| High risk with a family history | 5 | -3.6 | -17.0 | 9.8 | 0.497 | 0.29 | -0.80 | 0.93 | 0.633 |
| All | 45 | 3.5 | -0.2 | 7.3 | 0.065 | 0.25 | -0.05 | 0.51 | 0.098 |

Table 11 Practice effect and correlation between test and retest measures. Spearman's rho (r_s)= r_s between .20 and .39 indicates a weak correlation, r_s between .40 and .59 indicates a moderate correlation; Lower. CI and Upper. CI = lower and upper confidence intervals of Spearman's rho; $p < 0.05$ indicates a correlation different from 0.

Appendix A. Correction grid with age and education adjustments for individual scores

| Education (years) | Age (years) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 | 53 | 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 |
| 5 | -0.25 | -0.18 | -0.08 | 0.07 | 0.26 | 0.49 | 0.76 | 1.07 | 1.43 | 1.82 | 2.26 | 2.74 | 3.27 | 3.83 | 4.43 |
| 6 | -0.85 | -0.79 | -0.68 | -0.53 | -0.35 | -0.12 | 0.16 | 0.47 | 0.83 | 1.22 | 1.66 | 2.14 | 2.66 | 3.23 | 3.83 |
| 7 | -1.45 | -1.39 | -1.28 | -1.14 | -0.95 | -0.72 | -0.45 | -0.13 | 0.22 | 0.62 | 1.06 | 1.54 | 2.06 | 2.62 | 3.23 |
| 8 | -2.06 | -1.99 | -1.89 | -1.74 | -1.55 | -1.32 | -1.05 | -0.74 | -0.38 | 0.02 | 0.46 | 0.94 | 1.46 | 2.02 | 2.63 |
| 9 | -2.66 | -2.59 | -2.49 | -2.34 | -2.15 | -1.92 | -1.65 | -1.34 | -0.98 | -0.59 | -0.15 | 0.33 | 0.85 | 1.42 | 2.02 |
| 10 | -3.26 | -3.20 | -3.09 | -2.95 | -2.76 | -2.53 | -2.25 | -1.94 | -1.59 | -1.19 | -0.75 | -0.27 | 0.25 | 0.82 | 1.42 |
| 11 | -3.86 | -3.80 | -3.69 | -3.55 | -3.36 | -3.13 | -2.86 | -2.54 | -2.19 | -1.79 | -1.35 | -0.87 | -0.35 | 0.21 | 0.82 |
| 12 | -4.47 | -4.40 | -4.30 | -4.15 | -3.96 | -3.73 | -3.46 | -3.15 | -2.79 | -2.39 | -1.96 | -1.47 | -0.95 | -0.39 | 0.22 |
| 13 | -5.07 | -5.01 | -4.90 | -4.75 | -4.56 | -4.33 | -4.06 | -3.75 | -3.39 | -3.00 | -2.56 | -2.08 | -1.56 | -0.99 | -0.39 |
| 14 | -5.67 | -5.61 | -5.50 | -5.36 | -5.17 | -4.94 | -4.66 | -4.35 | -4.00 | -3.60 | -3.16 | -2.68 | -2.16 | -1.59 | -0.99 |
| 15 | -6.27 | -6.21 | -6.11 | -5.96 | -5.77 | -5.54 | -5.27 | -4.95 | -4.60 | -4.20 | -3.76 | -3.28 | -2.76 | -2.20 | -1.59 |
| 16 | -6.88 | -6.81 | -6.71 | -6.56 | -6.37 | -6.14 | -5.87 | -5.56 | -5.20 | -4.80 | -4.37 | -3.89 | -3.36 | -2.80 | -2.19 |
| 17 | -7.48 | -7.42 | -7.31 | -7.16 | -6.97 | -6.74 | -6.47 | -6.16 | -5.80 | -5.41 | -4.97 | -4.49 | -3.97 | -3.40 | -2.80 |
| 18 | -8.08 | -8.02 | -7.91 | -7.77 | -7.58 | -7.35 | -7.08 | -6.76 | -6.41 | -6.01 | -5.57 | -5.09 | -4.57 | -4.01 | -3.40 |

| Education (years) | Age (years) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|-------------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 60 | 61 | 62 | 63 | 64 | 65 | 66 | 67 | 68 | 69 | 70 | 71 | 72 | 73 | 74 | 75 |
| 5 | 5.08 | 5.77 | 6.50 | 7.27 | 8.09 | 8.94 | 9.84 | 10.78 | 11.76 | 12.78 | 13.84 | 14.95 | 16.09 | 17.28 | 18.51 | 19.78 |
| 6 | 4.48 | 5.17 | 5.90 | 6.67 | 7.48 | 8.34 | 9.23 | 10.17 | 11.15 | 12.18 | 13.24 | 14.34 | 15.49 | 16.68 | 17.91 | 19.18 |
| 7 | 3.88 | 4.56 | 5.29 | 6.07 | 6.88 | 7.74 | 8.63 | 9.57 | 10.55 | 11.57 | 12.64 | 13.74 | 14.89 | 16.08 | 17.31 | 18.58 |
| 8 | 3.27 | 3.96 | 4.69 | 5.46 | 6.28 | 7.13 | 8.03 | 8.97 | 9.95 | 10.97 | 12.03 | 13.14 | 14.29 | 15.47 | 16.70 | 17.98 |
| 9 | 2.67 | 3.36 | 4.09 | 4.86 | 5.67 | 6.53 | 7.43 | 8.37 | 9.35 | 10.37 | 11.43 | 12.54 | 13.68 | 14.87 | 16.10 | 17.37 |
| 10 | 2.07 | 2.76 | 3.49 | 4.26 | 5.07 | 5.93 | 6.82 | 7.76 | 8.74 | 9.76 | 10.83 | 11.93 | 13.08 | 14.27 | 15.50 | 16.77 |
| 11 | 1.47 | 2.15 | 2.88 | 3.66 | 4.47 | 5.32 | 6.22 | 7.16 | 8.14 | 9.16 | 10.23 | 11.33 | 12.48 | 13.67 | 14.90 | 16.17 |
| 12 | 0.86 | 1.55 | 2.28 | 3.05 | 3.87 | 4.72 | 5.62 | 6.56 | 7.54 | 8.56 | 9.62 | 10.73 | 11.87 | 13.06 | 14.29 | 15.57 |
| 13 | 0.26 | 0.95 | 1.68 | 2.45 | 3.26 | 4.12 | 5.02 | 5.95 | 6.94 | 7.96 | 9.02 | 10.13 | 11.27 | 12.46 | 13.69 | 14.96 |
| 14 | -0.34 | 0.35 | 1.08 | 1.85 | 2.66 | 3.52 | 4.41 | 5.35 | 6.33 | 7.35 | 8.42 | 9.52 | 10.67 | 11.86 | 13.09 | 14.36 |
| 15 | -0.95 | -0.26 | 0.47 | 1.25 | 2.06 | 2.91 | 3.81 | 4.75 | 5.73 | 6.75 | 7.82 | 8.92 | 10.07 | 11.26 | 12.49 | 13.76 |
| 16 | -1.55 | -0.86 | -0.13 | 0.64 | 1.46 | 2.31 | 3.21 | 4.15 | 5.13 | 6.15 | 7.21 | 8.32 | 9.46 | 10.65 | 11.88 | 13.15 |
| 17 | -2.15 | -1.46 | -0.73 | 0.04 | 0.85 | 1.71 | 2.61 | 3.54 | 4.52 | 5.55 | 6.61 | 7.72 | 8.86 | 10.05 | 11.28 | 12.55 |
| 18 | -2.75 | -2.06 | -1.33 | -0.56 | 0.25 | 1.11 | 2.00 | 2.94 | 3.92 | 4.94 | 6.01 | 7.11 | 8.26 | 9.45 | 10.68 | 11.95 |