

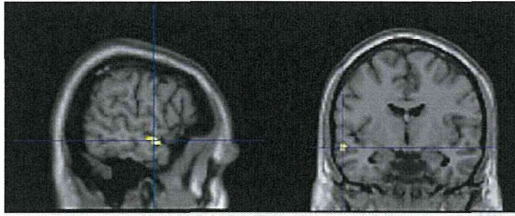
Fig. 1. Correlations between 6MWDs and memory performance tests. Pearson correlation coefficients (r) and standardized beta values (controlling for age and sex) are presented. **a** WMS-R LM-I (immediate recall). **b** WMS-R LM-II (delayed recall). **c** ROCFT (immediate recall). **d** ROCFT (delayed recall).

Results

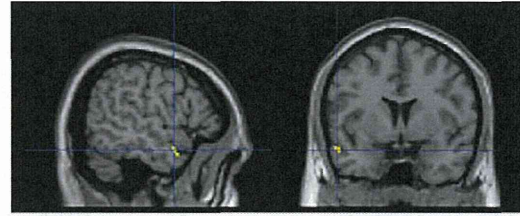
Simple correlations were examined between the 6MWD and memory tests (fig. 1). Higher scores in all memory tests were significantly associated with a better performance on the 6MWT (WMS-R LM-I, $r = 0.394$, $p < 0.001$; WMS-R LM-II, $r = 0.303$, $p = 0.003$; ROCFT (immediate), $r = 0.374$, $p < 0.001$; ROCFT (delay), $r = 0.360$, $p < 0.001$). Although the relationship between the WMS-R LM-II and 6MWT was not statistically significant when the linear regression model was adjusted for age and sex (WMS-R LM-II, $\beta = 0.170$, $p = 0.057$), the other three memory tests were associated with the 6MWT even after controlling for age and sex [WMS-R LM-I, $\beta = 0.250$, $p = 0.005$; ROCFT (immediate), $\beta = 0.227$, $p = 0.011$; ROCFT (delay), $\beta = 0.192$, $p = 0.035$].

Using multiple regression analysis in SPM8, we examined regions where gray matter density showed a positive correlation with exercise capacity. After adjusting for age and sex, gray matter density in the left middle temporal gyrus, middle occipital gyrus, and hippocampus showed positive correlations with the 6MWD (FWE, $p < 0.05$) (fig. 2). For the MNI coordinates, cluster size, peak F values, and Z values, please refer to table 2. Figure 3 shows the highly linear relationship between 6MWD and adjusted gray matter density in the left hippocampus.

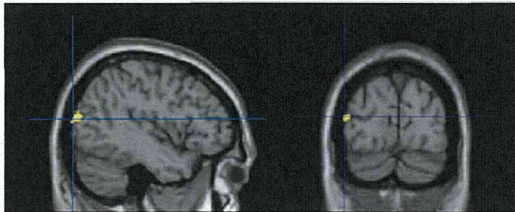
Left middle temporal gyrus [x = -59, y = -6, z = -12]



Left middle temporal gyrus [x = -54, y = 5, z = -21]



Left middle occipital gyrus [x = -44, y = -85, z = 13]



Left hippocampus [x = -17, y = -16, z = -12]

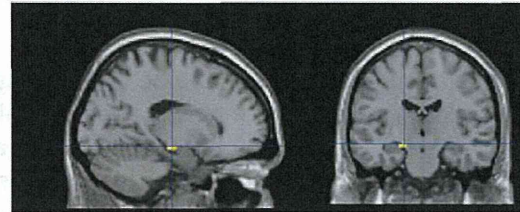
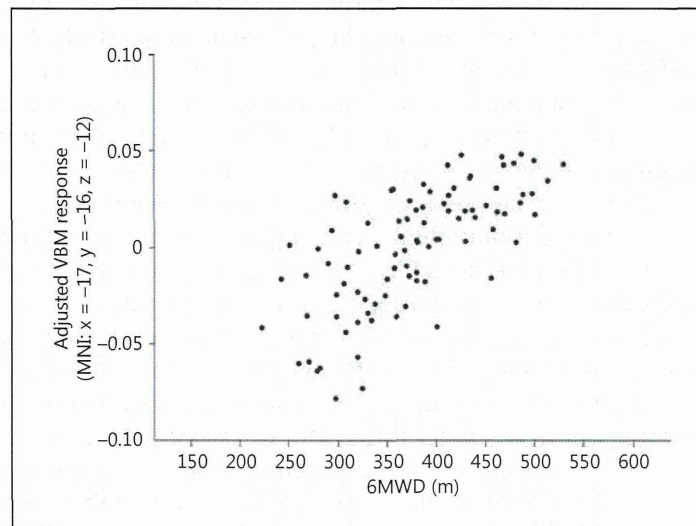


Fig. 2. Brain regions showing an association between a better performance in the 6MWT and a greater gray matter volume. After adjusting for age and sex, gray matter density in the left middle temporal gyrus, middle occipital gyrus, and hippocampus showed positive correlations with the 6MWD.

Fig. 3. Correlation between VBM response in the left hippocampus peak voxel (adjusted for effects of age and sex) and the 6MWD.



Discussion

We confirmed that memory performance was significantly positively associated with exercise capacity as assessed by a 6MWD in older adults with MCI. After adjusting for age and sex, gray matter density in the left middle temporal gyrus, middle occipital gyrus, and hippocampus showed positive correlations with exercise capacity.

Previous epidemiological studies in aging populations have suggested beneficial effects of increased physical activity on brain health and function [30, 31]. In a cross-sectional study of 75 healthy older individuals, a positive association between physical activity and memory performance was reported [32]. An interventional study among older adults indicated a

Table 2. VBM results of a 6MWD and volume regions of interest after adjusting for age and sex

Location	Cluster size, K	Peak F	Z-score	FWE, p	MNI coordinates, mm		
					x-axis	y-axis	z-axis
Left middle temporal gyrus	79	32.81	5.13	0.004	-59	-6	-12
	27	27.58	4.74	0.024	-54	5	-21
Left middle occipital gyrus	105	28.87	4.84	0.016	-44	-85	13
Left hippocampus	46	29.54	4.89	0.013	-17	-16	-12

correlation between an increase of total physical activity and improved episodic memory after low- and medium-intensity physical training [33]. Pereira et al. [34] demonstrated that verbal memory performance was improved after completion of a 3-month aerobic exercise regime among adults aged 21–45 years. This improvement in verbal memory performance positively correlated with an improvement of the participants' cardiovascular fitness level and with the cerebral blood volume in the dentate gyrus of the hippocampus. These results support the present study, indicating associations between a greater 6MWD and a better memory function among older adults with MCI.

One advantage of the present results is the indication of the association between exercise capacity performance and gray matter volumes using MRI data among MCI subjects. In a large cross-sectional study of elderly subjects without dementia, physical fitness was highly and significantly associated with hippocampal volumes [8]. Another cross-sectional study also indicated that increased cardiorespiratory fitness was associated with a better preservation of gray matter volumes, particularly in the medial temporal lobes, including the hippocampus and parahippocampal gyrus [35]. Moreover, recent RCTs of aerobic exercise for older adults provided evidence for positive associations between aerobic exercise and greater brain volumes in specific regions. An RCT in a large cohort of older adults documented significantly larger hippocampal volumes after 1 year of aerobic exercise compared with the control intervention of simple stretching and toning [7]. The results of this study also confirmed that an increased exercise capacity performance was associated with greater brain volumes in specific regions, including the left middle temporal gyrus, middle occipital gyrus, and hippocampus even after adjusting for age and sex among MCI subjects.

A previous study using VBM analysis revealed that there was a significantly greater gray matter loss in converters from MCI to probable AD relative to nonconverters in the hippocampal area, inferior and middle temporal gyrus, posterior cingulate, and precuneus [36]. In a longitudinal study where individuals in late adulthood were followed up for 9 years, a greater physical activity predicted greater volumes of the frontal, occipital, entorhinal, and hippocampal regions [12]. Gray matter volumes in the medial temporal lobe, including the entorhinal, parahippocampal, and hippocampal regions, may contribute to the prediction of subsequent cognitive decline and conversion from MCI to AD [37], and may be important for maintaining memory function [38]. We demonstrated linear relationships between VBM response in the left hippocampus peak voxel and the 6MWD in figure 3. This association may indicate protective effects of exercise capacity on cognitive decline in older adults with MCI.

Recent interventional studies suggested that physical activity and aerobic exercise have beneficial effects on memory function. These effects are possibly mediated by gray matter volume and neurotrophic factors, especially brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) [7, 33], which is highly concentrated in the hippocampus [39] and is important for synaptic plasticity [40]. In a previous study including young adult males, both acute and chronic exercise improved medial temporal lobe function concomitant with increased concentrations of BDNF

in the serum. This suggests a possible functional role for this neurotrophic factor in exercise-induced cognitive enhancement [41]. Exercise has consistently been shown to enhance learning and persistently upregulate expression of BDNF in the hippocampus of rodent models [42, 43]. These previous results may support the present findings that exercise capacity is related to brain volume including the medial temporal lobe. However, this study did not provide evidence of mechanisms for protective effects of aerobic fitness on brain volume through neurotrophic factors. Future studies are needed to provide insight into how mechanisms that increase fitness may enhance cognition, especially memory, and prevent age-related structural brain changes.

Several possible limitations should be considered when interpreting our findings. We are conscious of the limitations of our cross-sectional design. Longitudinal and interventional studies should be designed to clarify the relationship between exercise capacity and cognitive function among MCI subjects. In addition, we recognize that there is important information regarding the effect of exercise capacity on the conversion rate from MCI to AD. Our results indicate that a higher exercise capacity may be related to a better memory function and a greater gray matter volume in several brain regions. This has been found in other studies including healthy older adults [44] or AD patients [35]. However, in the present and previous studies, different methods of assessment were used to identify fitness levels. Previous studies that examined the relationships between aerobic fitness and brain volume used the measurement of peak oxygen consumption [35, 44]. We assessed participants' exercise capacity with the 6MWT. This measure is widely used in clinical settings to identify exercise capacity and is associated with peak oxygen consumption in older adults. We did not include data from healthy older persons and patients with AD in the present study. Additional neurological analyses that include data from healthy older adults and AD patients are needed to determine the relationships between exercise capacity and brain changes in AD-related processes. Although a previous neuroimaging study suggested that the apolipoprotein E ϵ 4 genotype in MCI might be associated with structural changes typically found in the early stages of AD [45], our data did not consider the effects of genetic factors, such as the presence of the apolipoprotein E risk allele.

In conclusion, a higher exercise capacity measured by the 6MWT is associated with a better memory function and a greater gray matter density, including the left middle temporal gyrus, middle occipital gyrus, and hippocampus in older adults with MCI. To strengthen our findings, future studies are required to examine the effects of intervention on exercise capacity and the related change in brain volume in the specific regions and memory function among MCI subjects.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank the Obu City Office for their assistance with participant recruitment. We would also like to thank the technical staff from the Department of Radiology, National Hospital for Geriatric Medicine, National Center for Geriatrics and Gerontology for MRI data acquisition. This work was supported by a grant from the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (Project for optimizing long-term care; B-3) to T.S. and a grant-in-aid for JSPS Fellows (23-9862) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science to H.M.

Disclosure Statement

There are no conflicts of interest.

References

- Petersen RC, Doody R, Kurz A, Mohs RC, Morris JC, Rabins PV, Ritchie K, Rossor M, Thal L, Winblad B: Current concepts in mild cognitive impairment. *Arch Neurol* 2001;58:1985–1992.
- Petersen RC, Stevens JC, Ganguli M, Tangalos EG, Cummings JL, DeKosky ST: Practice parameter: early detection of dementia: mild cognitive impairment (an evidence-based review). Report of the Quality Standards Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology. *Neurology* 2001;56:1133–1142.
- Barnes DE, Yaffe K, Satariano WA, Tager IB: A longitudinal study of cardiorespiratory fitness and cognitive function in healthy older adults. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 2003;51:459–465.
- Larson EB, Wang L, Bowen JD, McCormick WC, Teri L, Crane P, Kukull W: Exercise is associated with reduced risk for incident dementia among persons 65 years of age and older. *Ann Intern Med* 2006;144:73–81.
- Voss MW, Nagamatsu LS, Liu-Ambrose T, Kramer AF: Exercise, brain, and cognition across the life span. *J Appl Physiol* 2011;111:1505–1513.
- Colcombe SJ, Erickson KI, Scalf PE, Kim JS, Prakash R, McAuley E, Elavsky S, Marquez DX, Hu L, Kramer AF: Aerobic exercise training increases brain volume in aging humans. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 2006;61:1166–1170.
- Erickson KI, Voss MW, Prakash RS, Basak C, Szabo A, Chaddock L, Kim JS, Heo S, Alves H, White SM, Wojcicki TR, Mailey E, Vieira VJ, Martin SA, Pence BD, Woods JA, McAuley E, Kramer AF: Exercise training increases size of hippocampus and improves memory. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2011;108:3017–3022.
- Erickson KI, Prakash RS, Voss MW, Chaddock L, Hu L, Morris KS, White SM, Wojcicki TR, McAuley E, Kramer AF: Aerobic fitness is associated with hippocampal volume in elderly humans. *Hippocampus* 2009;19:1030–1039.
- Weinstein AM, Voss MW, Prakash RS, Chaddock L, Szabo A, White SM, Wojcicki TR, Mailey E, McAuley E, Kramer AF, Erickson KI: The association between aerobic fitness and executive function is mediated by prefrontal cortex volume. *Brain Behav Immun* 2012;26:811–819.
- Yaffe K, Fiocco AJ, Lindquist K, Vittinghoff E, Simonsick EM, Newman AB, Satterfield S, Rosano C, Rubin SM, Ayonayon HN, Harris TB: Predictors of maintaining cognitive function in older adults: the Health ABC study. *Neurology* 2009;72:2029–2035.
- Chang M, Jonsson PV, Snaedal J, Bjornsson S, Saczynski JS, Aspelund T, Eiriksdottir G, Jonsdottir MK, Lopez OL, Harris TB, Gudnason V, Launer LJ: The effect of midlife physical activity on cognitive function among older adults: AGES-REYKJAVIK Study. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 2010;65:1369–1374.
- Erickson KI, Raji CA, Lopez OL, Becker JT, Rosano C, Newman AB, Gach HM, Thompson PM, Ho AJ, Kuller LH: Physical activity predicts gray matter volume in late adulthood: the Cardiovascular Health Study. *Neurology* 2010;75:1415–1422.
- Baker LD, Frank LL, Foster-Schubert K, Green PS, Wilkinson CW, McTiernan A, Plymate SR, Fishel MA, Watson GS, Cholerton BA, Duncan GE, Mehta PD, Craft S: Effects of aerobic exercise on mild cognitive impairment: a controlled trial. *Arch Neurol* 2010;67:71–79.
- van Uffelen JG, Chinapaw MJ, van Mechelen W, Hopman-Rock M: Walking or vitamin B for cognition in older adults with mild cognitive impairment? A randomised controlled trial. *Br J Sports Med* 2008;42:344–351.
- Cyarto EV, Lautenschlager NT, Desmond PM, Ames D, Szoeki C, Salvado O, Sharman MJ, Ellis KA, Phal PM, Masters CM, Rowe CC, Martins RN, Cox KL: Protocol for a randomized controlled trial evaluating the effect of physical activity on delaying the progression of white matter changes on MRI in older adults with memory complaints and mild cognitive impairment: the AIBL Active trial. *BMC Psychiatry* 2012;12:167.
- Cataneo DC, Kobayasi S, Carvalho LR, Paccanaro RC, Cataneo AJ: Accuracy of six minute walk test, stair test and spirometry using maximal oxygen uptake as gold standard. *Acta Cir Bras* 2010;25:194–200.
- Steffen TM, Hacker TA, Mollinger L: Age- and gender-related test performance in community-dwelling elderly people: Six-Minute Walk Test, Berg Balance Scale, Timed Up & Go Test, and gait speeds. *Phys Ther* 2002;82:128–137.
- Bateman RJ, Xiong C, Benzinger TL, Fagan AM, Goate A, Fox NC, Marcus DS, Cairns NJ, Xie X, Blazey TM, Holtzman DM, Santacruz A, Buckles V, Oliver A, Moulder K, Aisen PS, Ghetti B, Klunk WE, McDade E, Martins RN, Masters CL, Mayeux R, Ringman JM, Rossor MN, Schofield PR, Sperling RA, Salloway S, Morris JC: Clinical and biomarker changes in dominantly inherited Alzheimer's disease. *N Engl J Med* 2012;367:795–804.
- Prins ND, van der Flier WM, Brashear HR, Knol DL, van de Pol LA, Barkhof F, Scheltens P: Predictors of progression from mild cognitive impairment to dementia in the placebo-arm of a clinical trial population. *J Alzheimers Dis* 2013;36:79–85.
- Korf ES, Wahlund LO, Visser PJ, Scheltens P: Medial temporal lobe atrophy on MRI predicts dementia in patients with mild cognitive impairment. *Neurology* 2004;63:94–100.
- Petersen RC: Mild cognitive impairment as a diagnostic entity. *J Intern Med* 2004;256:183–194.
- Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR: 'Mini-mental state'. A practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. *J Psychiatr Res* 1975;12:189–198.
- Yesavage JA: Geriatric depression scale. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1988;24:709–711.
- Wechsler D: Wechsler Memory Scale-Revised Manual. San Antonio, The Psychological Corporation, 1987.
- Meyers J, Meyers K: Rey Complex Figure Test and Recognition Trial: Professional Manual. Odessa, Psychological Assessment Resources, 1995.

- 26 Cooper KH: A means of assessing maximal oxygen intake. Correlation between field and treadmill testing. *JAMA* 1968;203:201–204.
- 27 Ashburner J: A fast diffeomorphic image registration algorithm. *Neuroimage* 2007;38:95–113.
- 28 Ashburner J, Friston KJ: Unified segmentation. *Neuroimage* 2005;26:839–851.
- 29 Eickhoff SB, Heim S, Zilles K, Amunts K: Testing anatomically specified hypotheses in functional imaging using cytoarchitectonic maps. *Neuroimage* 2006;32:570–582.
- 30 Ravaglia G, Forti P, Lucicesare A, Pisacane N, Riatti E, Bianchin M, Dalmonte E: Physical activity and dementia risk in the elderly: findings from a prospective Italian study. *Neurology* 2008;70:1786–1794.
- 31 Sattler C, Erickson KI, Toro P, Schroder J: Physical fitness as a protective factor for cognitive impairment in a prospective population-based study in Germany. *J Alzheimers Dis* 2011;26:709–718.
- 32 Floel A, Ruscheweyh R, Kruger K, Willemer C, Winter B, Volker K, Lohmann H, Zitzmann M, Mooren F, Breitenstein C, Knecht S: Physical activity and memory functions: are neurotrophins and cerebral gray matter volume the missing link? *Neuroimage* 2010;49:2756–2763.
- 33 Ruscheweyh R, Willemer C, Kruger K, Duning T, Warnecke T, Sommer J, Volker K, Ho HV, Mooren F, Knecht S, Floel A: Physical activity and memory functions: an interventional study. *Neurobiol Aging* 2011;32:1304–1319.
- 34 Pereira AC, Huddleston DE, Brickman AM, Sosunov AA, Hen R, McKhann GM, Sloan R, Gage FH, Brown TR, Small SA: An in vivo correlate of exercise-induced neurogenesis in the adult dentate gyrus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2007;104:5638–5643.
- 35 Honea RA, Thomas GP, Harsha A, Anderson HS, Donnelly JE, Brooks WM, Burns JM: Cardiorespiratory fitness and preserved medial temporal lobe volume in Alzheimer disease. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord* 2009;23:188–197.
- 36 Chetelat G, Landeau B, Eustache F, Mezenge F, Viader F, de la Sayette V, Desgranges B, Baron JC: Using voxel-based morphometry to map the structural changes associated with rapid conversion in MCI: a longitudinal MRI study. *Neuroimage* 2005;27:934–946.
- 37 Ferreira LK, Diniz BS, Forlenza OV, Busatto GF, Zanetti MV: Neurostructural predictors of Alzheimer's disease: a meta-analysis of VBM studies. *Neurobiol Aging* 2011;32:1733–1741.
- 38 Apostolova LG, Morra JH, Green AE, Hwang KS, Avedissian C, Woo E, Cummings JL, Toga AW, Jack CR Jr, Weiner MW, Thompson PM: Automated 3D mapping of baseline and 12-month associations between three verbal memory measures and hippocampal atrophy in 490 ADNI subjects. *Neuroimage* 2010;51:488–499.
- 39 Phillips HS, Hains JM, Laramee GR, Rosenthal A, Winslow JW: Widespread expression of BDNF but not NT3 by target areas of basal forebrain cholinergic neurons. *Science* 1990;250:290–294.
- 40 Kang H, Schuman EM: Long-lasting neurotrophin-induced enhancement of synaptic transmission in the adult hippocampus. *Science* 1995;267:1658–1662.
- 41 Griffin EW, Mullally S, Foley C, Warmington SA, O'Mara SM, Kelly AM: Aerobic exercise improves hippocampal function and increases BDNF in the serum of young adult males. *Physiol Behav* 2011;104:934–941.
- 42 Gobbo OL, O'Mara SM: Exercise, but not environmental enrichment, improves learning after kainic acid-induced hippocampal neurodegeneration in association with an increase in brain-derived neurotrophic factor. *Behav Brain Res* 2005;159:21–26.
- 43 Griffin EW, Bechara RG, Birch AM, Kelly AM: Exercise enhances hippocampal-dependent learning in the rat: evidence for a BDNF-related mechanism. *Hippocampus* 2009;19:973–980.
- 44 Colcombe SJ, Erickson KI, Raz N, Webb AG, Cohen NJ, McAuley E, Kramer AF: Aerobic fitness reduces brain tissue loss in aging humans. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 2003;58:176–180.
- 45 Thomann PA, Roth AS, Dos Santos V, Toro P, Essig M, Schroder J: Apolipoprotein E polymorphism and brain morphology in mild cognitive impairment. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord* 2008;26:300–305.

ORIGINAL ARTICLE: EPIDEMIOLOGY,
CLINICAL PRACTICE AND HEALTH**Evaluation of multidimensional neurocognitive function using a tablet personal computer: Test–retest reliability and validity in community-dwelling older adults**

Hyuma Makizako,^{1,4} Hiroyuki Shimada,¹ Hyuntae Park,² Takehiko Doi,¹ Daisuke Yoshida,¹ Kazuki Uemura,^{1,4} Kota Tsutsumimoto¹ and Takao Suzuki³

¹Section for Health Promotion, Department for Research and Development to Support Independent Life of Elderly, ²Section for Physical Activity and Health, Department of Functioning Activation, Center for Gerontology and Social Science, ³National Institute of Longevity Science, National Center for Geriatrics and Gerontology, Aichi, and ⁴Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, Tokyo, Japan

Aim: This study sought to confirm the test–retest reliability and validity of the National Center for Geriatrics and Gerontology functional assessment tool (NCGG-FAT), a newly developed assessment of multidimensional neurocognitive function using a tablet personal computer (PC).

Methods: This study included 20 community-dwelling older adults (9 females, aged 65–81 years). Participants were administered the NCGG-FAT twice, separated by approximately 30 days to determine test–retest reliability. To test the validity of the measure, participants underwent established neurocognitive measurements, including memory, attention, executive function, processing speed and visuospatial function within a week from the first administration of the NCGG-FAT.

Results: Test–retest reliability was in an acceptable range for each component of the NCGG-FAT, with intraclass correlation coefficients ranging from 0.764 to 0.942. Each task in the NCGG-FAT showed a moderate to high correlation with scores on widely-used conventional neurocognitive tests ($r = 0.496$ to 0.842).

Conclusion: We found that the NCGG-FAT using a tablet PC was reliable in a sample of community-dwelling older adults. The NCGG-FAT might be useful for cognitive screening in population-based samples and outcomes, enabling assessment of the effects of intervention on multidimensional cognitive function among older adults. *Geriatr Gerontol Int* 2013; 13: 860–866.

Keywords: aged-population, assessment, cognitive functioning, screening.

Introduction

Declining cognitive function is one of the most important health problems in an aging population, and older adults showing cognitive decline are at increased risk for progressing to mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and dementia. MCI is a heterogeneous condition associated with the transitional phase between normal cognitive aging and dementia,^{1,2} and might be the optimum stage at which to intervene with preventive therapies.^{3,4}

The prevalence of MCI in older populations has been estimated in previous community-based epidemiological studies, and the reported prevalence estimations of MCI have varied widely.⁵ For instance, the reported prevalence of MCI in adults aged 70 years and older ranges from 16% to 39%,^{6,7} and the reported progression rates to dementia and Alzheimer's disease (AD) for individuals with MCI vary from 6% to 25% per year, depending on the criteria for MCI.⁸ A reliable quantitative tool for assessing neuropsychological function is required for early and accurate screening of MCI.

Variable neurocognitive tests are used to determine cognitive decline in a clinical community-based setting. Most of these measures for assessment of multidimensional cognitive functions among older adults need to be administered by well-trained assessors, such as clinicians, clinical psychologists and speech or occupational therapists. However, it is difficult to manage

Accepted for publication 24 October 2012.

Correspondence: Dr Hyuma Makizako PhD, Section for Health Promotion, Department for Research and Development to Support Independent Life of Elderly, Center for Gerontology and Social Science, National Center for Geriatrics and Gerontology, 35 Gengo, Morioka-machi, Obu, Aichi 474-8551, Japan. Email: makizako@ncgg.go.jp

large numbers of well-trained assessors to assess multidimensional cognitive functions in clinical community-based settings with large populations. As such, developing a valid tool for assessing multidimensional neurocognitive function that does not require a specialized assessor is important in countries with large populations of older adults, because the capacity to administer specific assessments with specialized assessors is limited for large samples.

We developed the National Center for Geriatrics and Gerontology functional assessment tool (NCGG-FAT), which includes measurements for evaluating multidimensional neurocognitive function using a tablet personal computer (PC). The purpose of the present study was to confirm the test-retest reliability and validity of the NCGG-FAT among Japanese adults aged 65 years or older. If the test-retest reliability and validity of our assessment system for evaluating multidimensional neurocognitive function using a tablet PC can be confirmed, the system could be useful for cognitive screening in large populations of older adults.

Methods

Participants

A total of 20 older adults (nine females), aged 65–81 years, and independently in a community, participated in the present study, after giving written informed consent. None of the participants had a history of major psychiatric illness (e.g., schizophrenia or bipolar disorder), other serious neurological or musculoskeletal diagnoses, or clinical depression. All participants showed general cognitive functioning (Mini-Mental State Examination⁹ scores between 24 and 30) and did not meet the definition of MCI using the Petersen criteria.¹⁰ Although seven participants reported subjective memory complaints, none of them showed objectively determined memory impairment, as assessed by the education-adjusted score on the Wechsler Memory Scale-Revised (WMS-R) Logical Memory II.¹¹ Table 1 shows a summary of participant characteristics in the present study. The study protocol was approved by the ethics committee of the National Center for Geriatrics and Gerontology.

Protocol

To examine test-retest reliability, participants were administered the computerized multidimensional neurocognitive task battery on two separate occasions, separated by approximately 30 days to determine test-retest reliability of the tablet version of the multidimensional neurocognitive task battery. To examine validity, participants underwent comprehensive neurocognitive evaluation, including measures of memory, attention,

Table 1 Summary of participant characteristics

Characteristics	Value
Mean age (years)	71.6 ± 4.6
Male, <i>n</i> (%)	11 (55.0)
Mean education (years)	10.8 ± 1.9
Current diseases/conditions, <i>n</i> (%)	
Heart disease	4 (20.0)
Diabetes	2 (10.0)
Cancer	3 (15.0)
Hypertension	9 (45.0)
Fractures (after age 60 years)	1 (5.0)
Cognitive status	
General cognitive function	
MMSE (score)	27.5 ± 2.0
Memory	
WMS-R Logical Memory-I, score	20.4 ± 7.4
WMS-R Logical Memory-II, score	15.9 ± 6.8
Attention/executive function	
Written TMT-A (s)	97.9 ± 19.7
Written TMT-B (s)	130.4 ± 29.7
Processing speed	
Digit Symbol-Coding subtest of the WAIS-III, score	62.1 ± 16.3
Visuospatial function	
Block Design subtest of the WAIS-III, score	34.8 ± 8.2

Values are expressed as mean ± SD. MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; TMT-A, Trail Making Test-part A; TMT-B, Trail Making Test-part B; WAIS-III, Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale III; WMS-R, Wechsler Memory Scale-Revised.

executive function, processing speed and visuospatial function within a week after the first administration of the computerized multidimensional neurocognitive task battery. The neurocognitive assessment had a standardized format, and was administered by licensed and well-trained clinical speech therapists.

Component of the NCGG-FAT

The computerized multidimensional neurocognitive task battery was presented on an i-Pad (Apple, Cupertino, CA, USA) with a 9.7-inch touch display. The task instructions and questions were presented with a letter size of at least 1.0 × 1.0 cm² on the display. This battery consists of eight tasks to assess memory (task 1, -2, -3 and -4), attention and executive function (task 5 and -6), processing speed (task 7) and visuospatial function (task 8). The participants were given approximately 20–30 min to complete the battery, which consisted of following eight initial tasks. An operator supported each participant to set up the tablet PC, understand the task protocols and record their data. Participants only needed to touch the display to complete tasks using a digital pen.

Task 1: Story memory-I (immediate recognition) and task 2: story memory-II (delayed recognition)

In task 1 and task 2, the participants heard a short story (approximately 1 min in length) through an auditory system using headphones. They were instructed to remember the details of a story, then immediately select the correct answer that described the details of the story from four choices (Story memory-I), then again after 20–30 min (Story memory-II). All 10 questions in each task were shown and we calculated the total number of correct answers.

Task 3: Word list memory-I (immediate recognition) and task 4: word list memory-II (delayed recall)

Task 3 and task 4 involved immediate recognition and delayed recall of a 10-word target list. In task 3, which tested word list memory, participants were instructed to memorize 10 words that were shown on the tablet PC. In this task, each of 10-target words was shown for 2 s. A total of 30 words, including 10 target and 20 distracter words was then shown, and participants were asked to choose the 10 target words immediately (Word list memory-I). This was repeated for three trials. The average number of correct answers was calculated with a score range of 0 to 10. Additionally, participants were instructed to recall (write down) the 10 target words after approximately 20 min (Word list memory-II). We calculated the total number of recalled target words. One point was given for each correctly recalled word completed within 60 s for a maximum score of 10.

Task 5: The tablet version of the Trail Making Test-part A and task 6: the tablet version of TMT-part B

The tablet version of the Trail Making Test (TMT) consists of part A and B, as well as the original written version of TMT.¹² In the tablet version of TMT-A, participants were required to touch the target numbers shown randomly on the panel as rapidly as possible, in consecutive order (1–15). In the tablet version of TMT-B, participants must touch target numbers or letters alternately between consecutive numbers and letters (Japanese Kana characters). We recorded the time (in seconds) taken to complete each task, within a maximum period of 90 s.

Task 7: The tablet version of the Symbol Digit Substitution Task

In the tablet version of the Symbol Digit Substitution Task (SDST), nine pairs of numbers and symbols were provided at the top of the display. A target symbol was shown at the center of the display. Participants then chose a number corresponding to a target symbol at the

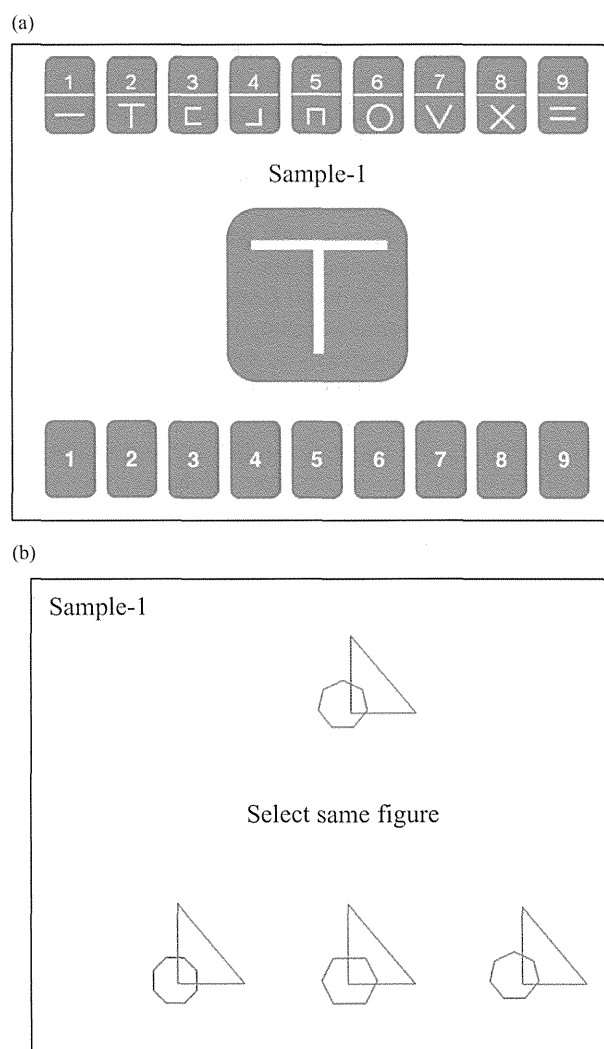


Figure 1 Samples of the representative tests on the tablet personal computer. (a) Task 7, the tablet version of the Symbol Digit Substitution Task. (b) Task 8, figure selection. The task instructions and questions in the original version of the National Center for Geriatrics and Gerontology functional assessment tool were presented in Japanese.

bottom of the display as rapidly as possible (Fig. 1). The score was the number of correct numbers chosen within 90 s. One point was given for each correctly chosen number completed within the time limit.

Task 8: Figure selection

In the figure selection task, participants were required to select the same figure from three choices shown at the bottom of the display. This task consists of nine questions and one point is given for each correctly selected figure (Fig. 1). The time limit for each question was within 15 s. We calculated the total number of correct answers (0–9).

Assessment instruments for validity

The conventional neurocognitive tests included the WMS-R Logical Memory, the Word Recognition subtest of the Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale-cognitive subscale (ADAS-cog), the TMT, the Digit Symbol-Coding subtest of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) III and the Block Design subtest of the WAIS-III to examine the validity of the NSGG-FAT. These neurocognitive tests were administered by licensed and well-trained clinical speech therapists.

WMS-R Logical Memory

WMS-R Logical Memory was used to assess the validity of story memory tasks (task 1 and 2) in the tablet PC version of multidimensional neurocognitive tests. In the WMS-R Logical Memory, two short stories (story A and B) were read aloud to the participant, who was instructed to recall details of the stories immediately (Logical Memory I) and after 30 min (Logical Memory II).¹¹ We calculated the total score (i.e. sum score of story A and B) of WMS-R in the Logical Memory I and II tasks.

Word recognition subtest of ADAS-cog

ADAS-cog consists of 11 tasks including the assessment of memory, comprehension, orientation in time and place, praxis, and attention.¹³ We used the Word Recognition subtest of ADAS-cog as assessment measures for validity of word list memory tasks (task 3 and 4) in the tablet PC version of multidimensional neurocognitive tests. In the Word Recognition subtest of ADAS-cog, participants read out 12 words. They were then asked to identify 12 target words that were mixed with 12 distracter words. This process was repeated for three trials, with new distracters for each trial. The average error score was calculated with an error score range of 0–12. In addition, participants were instructed to recall the 12 target words after 30 min. We calculated the total number of recalled target words. One point was given for each correctly recalled word completed within 90 s for a maximum score of 12.

TMT

We used the TMT¹² to assess attention and executive function. The TMT consists of two parts, A and B. Part A requires the participant to draw a line as rapidly as possible, joining consecutive numbers (1–25). In Part B, the participant was required to draw a line alternately between consecutive numbers and letters (1-A-2-B-12-L). In the Japanese version of the TMT-B, letters from the Roman alphabet are exchanged for Kana characters. We recorded the amount of time (in

seconds) it took to complete each task. These tests evaluated the validity of the tablet version of TMT-A and -B (task 5 and 6).

Digit Symbol-Coding subtest of the WAIS-III

Participants were measured processing speed by the Digit Symbol-Coding subtest of the WAIS-III.¹⁴ In the Digit Symbol-Coding subtest, participants copy symbols that are paired with numbers. Using the key provided at the top of the exercise form, the participant draws the symbol under the corresponding number. The score, which has been found to decline with old age,¹⁵ is the number of correct symbols drawn within 120 s. One point is given for each correctly drawn symbol completed within the time limit for a maximum score of 133. Higher scores indicate better processing speed. This test evaluated the validity of the tablet version of the SDST (task 7).

Block Design subtest of the WAIS-III

The Block Design subtest of the WAIS-III¹⁶ was used to assess visuospatial function and examine the validity of the figure selection test using a tablet PC (task 8). In the Block Design task, participants were presented with increasingly difficult patterns consisting of blocks with red, white, and red and white sides, then asked to arrange the same pattern using blocks that had all white sides, all red sides, and red and white sides. The number of correctly arranged blocks was used as a performance variable. The maximum score for this subtest was 68. A previous study in Sweden showed the reliability of impaired glucose metabolism and a cognitive measure of visuospatial function in predicting progression from MCI to AD.¹⁷

Data analysis

Means, standard deviations and proportions were calculated to describe the samples, and provide summary information of the measures used. A *P*-value of <0.05 was considered to show statistical significance. All data entry and analysis were carried out using SPSS Windows 19.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). The test-retest reliability of each component of the NCGG-FAT was assessed by intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) with a 95% confidence interval (CI). For the validity of each neurocognitive task of the NCGG-FAT, we used Pearson's correlation coefficients to test relationships between each score of the NCGG-FAT items and each score of the conventional neurocognitive tests.

Results

The score of each component of the NCGG-FAT for the entire sample are presented in Table 2. Table 3