

Optimizing Subjective Cognitive Decline to Detect Early Cognitive Dysfunction

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Abstract.

Background: The utility of subjective cognitive decline (SCD) as an indicator of preclinical AD is overshadowed by its inconsistent association with objective cognition.

Objective: This study examines if manipulations of SCD measurement affect its association with early cognitive dysfunction characteristic of preclinical AD.

Methods: Cognitively healthy older adults ($n=110$) completed SCD questionnaires that elicited complaints in general, compared to 5 years ago (retrospective SCD) and compared to their peers (age-anchored SCD) in binary and Likert scales. Outcome cognitive tasks included an associative memory task (Face-Name Test), a visual short-term memory binding task (STMB test), and a clinical neuropsychological list learning test (Selective Reminder Test).

Results: SCD complaints, when compared to age-matched peers (age-anchored SCD) was endorsed less frequently than complaints compared to 5 years ago (retrospective SCD) ($p<0.01$). In demographically adjusted regressions, age-anchored ordinal-rated SCD was associated with short term memory binding ($\beta=-0.22$, $p=0.040$, $CI=-0.45$, -0.01), associative memory ($\beta=-0.26$, $p=0.018$, $CI=-0.45$, -0.06), and list learning ($\beta=-0.31$, $p=0.002$, $CI=-0.51$, -0.12). Retrospective and general ordinal-rated SCD was associated with associative memory ($\beta=-0.25$, $p=0.012$, $CI=-0.44$, -0.06 ; $\beta=-0.29$, $p=0.003$, $CI=-0.47$, -0.10) and list learning only ($\beta=-0.25$, $p=0.014$, $CI=-0.45$, -0.05 ; $\beta=-0.28$, $p=0.004$, $CI=-0.48$, -0.09).

Conclusion: Ordinal age-anchored SCD appears better suited than other SCD measurements to detect early cognitive dysfunction characteristic of preclinical AD.

Keywords: Cognitive dysfunction, measurement, neuropsychological tests, preclinical Alzheimer's disease, subjective cognitive decline, task-specific factors

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INTRODUCTION

In an attempt to improve the therapeutic window for Alzheimer's disease (AD), efforts have focused on identifying individuals when they are in the earliest stage of AD which precedes overt cognitive and functional impairment [1]. This preclinical stage is defined by the presence of AD biomarkers, conceptualized within the ATN (amyloid, tau, neurodegeneration) framework, in the absence of clinically impaired cognitive function [2]. However, identifying individuals through biomarker testing is invasive, costly, and hard to access. Moreover, biological gold standards of pre-clinical AD (e.g., amyloid positivity) do not provide direct information about the clinical transition to AD dementia; indeed, a significant proportion of individuals who meet neuropathological criteria for AD upon autopsy were clinically normal in life [3].

Subjective cognitive decline (SCD) is the subjective perception that one's cognition has declined, before such decline is evident on standard diagnostic testing. SCD, hypothesized to precede mild cognitive impairment, was suggested as a marker of preclinical AD decades ago [4, 5]. Recently, a series of studies have linked SCD to brain-based AD biomarkers such as amyloid and tau accumulation and brain degeneration, and various longitudinal studies have shown that increased SCD increases the risk of future cognitive impairment and dementia [6–11]. In contrast to biomarkers, SCD is non-invasive, inexpensive, and easily obtainable. Perhaps most importantly, it may be the first indication of a transition to a symptomatic stage of disease. Although emerging work is reinforcing the potential use of SCD as a marker of preclinical AD [12], there are important questions about SCD that first need to be addressed in order to elucidate SCD's true utility as a harbinger of preclinical AD.

SCD is a complex, multidimensional construct influenced by several factors that can hamper its reflection of the pathological process underlying preclinical AD. Such factors can be grouped broadly into *person-specific factors* (i.e., individuals' characteristics such as mood, personality, etc.), and *task-specific factors* (i.e., the specific way SCD is measured), the latter being the focus of the current paper. As highlighted by Rabin et al. [13], a variety of SCD measures have been used across different studies, with relatively little attention being paid to the role that such variability plays in producing inconsistent associations between SCD and outcomes of interest (e.g., cognition) across studies.

In addition to considering how SCD is elicited, it is important to understand if how we record *responses* (e.g., binary or ordinal scale) affects the association between SCD and outcomes of interest. Although there is evidence that ordinal scales capture important variability in a construct [14, 15], it is also possible that requiring individuals to make a binary judgment regarding the presence of memory difficulties may filter out variability that is not meaningful. However, previous research examining psychological constructs seems to suggest that increasing the number of items leads to improvement in score reliability and that reducing items to two options can reduce measurement precision [15–19]. Given that subjective complaints likely represent a spectrum, Likert scales might be most appropriate to capture variability in SCD.

Endorsement of SCD varies depending on *how* it is elicited [20]. For example, in a retrospective study by Tandetnik et al. [20], the frequency of SCD was significantly lower when elicited in an age-anchored framework—i.e., when older adults were asked about their cognition in comparison to age-matched peers—than when they were asked about their cognition in general. In that study, age-anchored SCD related more closely to objective memory performance, and in a second study, age-anchored SCD, not retrospective SCD, was linked to amyloid deposition [8, 20]. These findings suggest that age-anchored SCD best captures objective measures of cognitive and brain health in part by normalizing age-related cognitive decline, and/or having less susceptibility to psychosocial factors such as mood or attitudes about aging [21–23].

In all likelihood, the inconsistent association between SCD and objective cognition is not only a product of person and task-specific factors, but the degree to which objective cognitive tests (used as the “gold standard”) are sensitive enough to detect early cognitive dysfunction characteristic of preclinical AD. Efforts are being made to identify measures sensitive to such dysfunction, both by developing novel targeted tasks, as well as combining standard clinical neuropsychological measures to enhance their sensitivity to amyloid positivity and clinical progression in normal controls [24]. In this study, we use two relatively novel computerized tasks, a visual short-term memory binding task and Face-Name associative memory task, as gold standards for the presence of early cognitive dysfunction characteristic of AD. Developed to detect AD-related cognitive change and previously linked to AD biomarkers [25, 26], these

139 tasks can help to hone the utility of SCD for capturing
140 important cognitive variability in clinically normal
141 older adults.

142 The aim of the current prospective study was to
143 examine the extent to which the association between
144 SCD and objective cognition varies according to
145 how each is measured. Toward this end, the assess-
146 ment of SCD was manipulated along two dimen-
147 sions, reference point and response scale, using a
148 within-participant design. The three reference points
149 included: 1) Retrospective (compared to 5 years ago);
150 2) Age-anchored (compared to others one's age); and
151 3) General (no reference point). The two response
152 scales included binary and ordinal (6-point scale).
153 We examined the resulting six SCD measurement
154 frameworks in relation to multiple objective cognitive
155 outcomes of memory including: 1) verbal list learn-
156 ing, a clinical neuropsychological measure frequently
157 used to detect memory decline in mild cognitive
158 impairment and dementia [27, 28] and, 2) cogni-
159 tive tasks with demonstrated sensitivity to preclinical
160 AD [26, 29]. We had two primary hypotheses: 1)
161 Age-anchored SCD would be endorsed to a lesser
162 extent than SCD as defined against the two other ref-
163 erence points; and 2) Of the six SCD frameworks,
164 age-anchored SCD measured via ordinal scale would
165 relate most strongly to our objective cognitive out-
166 comes. To our knowledge, this is the first prospective
167 manipulation and examination of how task-specific
168 factors influence the link between SCD and objective
169 cognition.

170 METHODS

171 *Participants*

172 A total of 165 cognitively healthy older adults
173 were deemed eligible for this study given our inclu-
174 sion and exclusion criteria described below. Of these,
175 32 declined participation, 21 could not be reached/
176 contacted and 2 participants dropped out, leaving
177 a final sample of 110 participants. Participants had
178 a mean age of 72 years (SD=8, range=54–90),
179 mean education of 17 years (SD=2, range=12–20),
180 and were 82% White, 12% Black, 3% Asian. Six
181 percent identified themselves as Hispanic. Partici-
182 pants were recruited from the Memory Disorders
183 Clinic ($n=7$) at Columbia University Medical Cen-
184 ter, as well as ongoing studies of cognitive aging
185 with full neuropsychological assessment available
186 including: the Alzheimer's Disease Research Cen-
187 ter, Cognitive Reserve and Reference Ability Neural

188 Network (CR/RANN), and the Testing Olfaction in
189 Primary care to detect Alzheimer's disease and other
190 Dementias (TOPAD) studies ($n=103$). As part of
191 the inclusion criteria for this study, participants were
192 required to perform within clinically normal limits
193 (≥ -1.5 SD using demographically adjusted norma-
194 tive data) on standardized assessments of memory,
195 executive function, and language (see Supplemen-
196 tary Table 1 for description of tests). SCD was not
197 measured directly as part of the recruitment process,
198 allowing for a spectrum of SCD endorsement. Par-
199 ticipants were excluded if they reported or had any
200 past or current neurological conditions such as stroke,
201 traumatic brain injury, brain tumor, etc., or major psy-
202 chiatric disorders noted in their medical records or
203 medical history interview. This study was approved
204 by the Institute Review Board (IRB) at Columbia
205 University as Human Subjects protocol AAAR5197.
206 Participants were consented prior to testing with a
207 full written consent.

208 *Measures*

209 *Subjective cognitive decline*

210 The SCD questionnaire comprises 20 items, many
211 of which were selected due to their inclusion across
212 several validated SCD questionnaires [30–32]. Items
213 were chosen by a clinical neuropsychologist (S.C.)
214 to span both memory and non-memory abilities. In
215 order to examine how task-specific factors affect the
216 association between SCD and cognition, prospec-
217 tive manipulations of SCD measurement included
218 two rating scales (binary and ordinal) and three ref-
219 erence points. The 20-item SCD questionnaire was
220 administered in its entirety to each participant, in a
221 counterbalanced fashion, using the three separate ref-
222 erence groups defined as: 1) Retrospective (compared
223 to the participant's own performance 5 years ago);
224 2) Age-Anchored (compared to others one's age);
225 and 3) General (no reference point). As highlighted
226 above, for each item, participants provided a binary
227 response (yes/no) followed by a 7-point ordinal scale,
228 regardless of the binary response. These rating scales
229 reflected how much of a 'problem' the cognitive com-
230 plaint was. Specifically, the scale in this study was
231 originally administered using a possible range of 1
232 (problem) to 7 (no problem scale). However, during
233 analyses and for the purposes of future research, the
234 scale has been revised to 0 (no problem) to 6 (prob-
235 lem) to ensure that the absence of SCD is equal to a
236 score of zero (see Supplementary Table 2 for instruc-
237 tions, items of the questionnaire, and recoded items).

238 Examples of the recoded rating scales which were
239 placed in front of participants in a horizontal A4
240 sheet are included in Supplementary Figures 1–3. The
241 combination of reference points and response scales
242 produced six separate SCD measurement frame-
243 works including: Retrospective binary, retrospective
244 ordinal, age-anchored binary, age-anchored ordinal,
245 general binary, and general ordinal. Recoded ordinal
246 scales ranged from 0–120 while binary scales range
247 from 0–20 with higher scores indicating increased
248 self-reported subjective complaints.

249 *Objective cognition: Memory*

250 Measures included a clinical neuropsychological
251 list learning test and two more recently developed
252 cognitive tasks shown to be sensitive to cognitive
253 changes in preclinical AD. The Selective Reminding
254 Test (SRT) [27] is the list learning task assessment
255 used to detect episodic memory impairment [33]
256 that is implemented in the clinic and research set-
257 tings from which the participants were recruited. The
258 SRT is a cued verbal list learning task of 6 trials,
259 with 12 words each. Main outcome measures include
260 Total Recall, ranging from 0 to 72 and Total Delayed
261 Recall, ranging from 0 to 12.

262 The two cognitive tasks, selected based on evi-
263 dence that they can detect early cognitive deficits re-
264 flective of preclinical AD that are not detected by
265 clinical neuropsychological assessment, were the Sh-
266 ort-Term Memory Binding (STMB) and Face-Name
267 Associative Memory Exam (FNAME). The STMB
268 test requires the integration of multi-modal infor-
269 mation in short-term memory [25, 34]. Specifically,
270 individuals must integrate two features of a stimu-
271 lus (shape and color) and hold this representation in
272 their short-term memory [29]. While unaffected by
273 age [35] or non-AD dementia [36], this STMB task
274 has high sensitivity and specificity for preclinical AD
275 when standard clinical neuropsychological measures
276 are within normal limits [29]. The main dependent
277 variable of the STMB task represents total stimuli
278 correctly recognized, ranging from 0–16 with higher
279 scores indicating better performance.

280 Associative memory was measured with FNAME
281 task [26, 37]. This challenging task requires partici-
282 pants to learn both names and occupations associated
283 with faces. Associative memory is assessed in a learn-
284 ing trial, an immediate memory trial and a delayed
285 memory trial. Performance on the FNAME across
286 names trials has been associated with amyloid burden
287 in healthy older adults and holds promise as a cog-
288 nitive indicator of preclinical AD, thus was included as

289 main outcome measure in this study [26]. Thus, our
290 dependent measure included one main score repre-
291 senting associative memory for names (i.e., the sum
292 of name learning immediate and delayed) that ranged
293 from 0–48 with higher scores indicating better per-
294 formance.

295 *Procedures*

296 All participants completed each of the three ver-
297 sions of the SCD questionnaire, providing both binary
298 (yes/no) ordinal scale (0–6) responses for each item.
299 These measures were counterbalanced across partici-
300 pants (for a total of 6 SCD measurement frameworks)
301 to limit order effects on the responses. Following
302 SCD measurement, participants completed all other
303 cognitive assessments described above, to ensure that
304 experience with the cognitive testing did not directly
305 influence their responses on the SCD interviews.

306 *Statistical analyses*

307 Statistical analyses were conducted with IBM SP
308 SS v.26 and R v.3.5.2 (R Core Team, 2018). Descrip-
309 tive statistics were conducted for demographic, SCD
310 and cognitive variables. To test Hypothesis 1, Fried-
311 man’s Two-Way Analysis of Variance by Ranks Test
312 for related samples was conducted to examine differ-
313 ences in SCD reference points and scale as a function
314 of reference point as data did not meet assumptions
315 for parametric analysis. Pairwise comparisons with a
316 Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons were
317 also conducted to examine differences between pairs
318 of SCD reference points. To test Hypothesis 2, Spear-
319 man correlations with 1000 sample bootstrapping
320 were conducted to examine associations between
321 ordinal and binary SCD response scales for each
322 reference point and the main outcomes of interest.
323 Confidence intervals from bootstrapping were con-
324 ducted to be representative of the population in this
325 study (e.g., community recruited individuals) which
326 limits its generalizability to other key population such
327 as clinic-based individuals with SCD. A Bonferroni cor-
328 rection for these correlations was set at $p=0.008$.
329 Linear regression models were then conducted to
330 examine the different SCD measurement frameworks
331 in the response scale with strongest associations,
332 after controlling for person-specific factors such as
333 demographic variables and mood, in relation to cog-
334 nition. Assumptions for regressions were checked
335 examining residuals of each model for lack of signifi-
336 cant outliers (> 3 standard deviations on standardized
337 residuals), normality and homoscedasticity.

RESULTS

Subjective cognitive decline

Figure 1 depicts the distribution of all SCD scales, and descriptives are included in Table 1. On Likert scales, 4% ($n=4$) did not report any general SCD, 5% ($n=5$) did not report any retrospective SCD, and 8% ($n=9$) did not report any age-anchored SCD. On Binary scales, 22% ($n=24$) did not report any general SCD, 26% ($n=29$) did not report any retrospective SCD, and 35 ($n=32\%$) did not report any age-anchored SCD. SCD scales showed good reliability with Cronbach alpha's ranging from 0.916 to 0.932 for ordinal scales and 0.908 to 0.913 for binary scales.

Friedman's test revealed significant differences in ordinal-rated SCD across the three reference points ($\chi^2(2)=9.74, p=0.008$). Specifically, Bonferroni adjusted pairwise comparisons revealed that age-anchored SCD ($Mdn = 17.00, IQR = 21.00$) was lower than retrospective SCD ($Mdn = 20.00, IQR = 21.50, p=0.009$). No significant differences were observed between general SCD ($Mdn = 18.00, IQR = 21.00$) versus retrospective ($p=0.594$) or age-anchored SCD ($p=0.217$; see Fig. 1). With regard to binary SCD scales, significant differences were also observed in SCD across the three reference points ($\chi^2(2)=31.72, p<0.001$). Bonferroni adjusted pairwise comparisons revealed that age-anchored SCD was lower ($Mdn = 2.00, IQR = 6.00$) than retrospective ($Mdn = 4.00, IQR = 8.00, p<0.001$) and general ($Mdn = 4.00, IQR = 8.00, p<0.001$). No significant differences were observed between general and retrospective

Table 1
Descriptives of SCD endorsement within sample ($n = 110$)

Descriptives of SCD scales	Mean (SD)	Median (IQR)	Range
Binary-rated SCD			
General	5.34 (5.21)	4.00 (8.00)	0–19
Retrospective	5.14 (5.23)	4.00 (8.00)	0–20
Age-anchored	3.51 (4.48)	2.00 (6.00)	0–20
Ordinal-rated SCD			
General	20.45 (14.38)	18.50 (20.75)	0–52
Retrospective	21.20 (16.15)	20.00 (21.75)	0–77
Age-anchored	18.45 (15.36)	17.00 (68.00)	0–68

SCD ($p = 1.00$; see Fig. 1). Spearman correlations revealed that all 6 SCD measures were moderately to highly correlated (ρ range = 0.40–0.84, $p < 0.001$).

Cognition

Cognitive performance is summarized in Table 2.

Bivariate associations

Binary SCD

There were no significant associations between cognitive outcomes and binary-rated SCD, in any of the three reference points for the 6 SCD framework analyses (ρ -range = -0.19–0.05; CI -range = -0.40–0.26; p -range = 0.059–0.997). See Table 3 for all bivariate results.

Ordinal-rated SCD

Ordinal rated SCD was associated with SRT Immediate recall in the general ($\rho = 0.22, CI = -0.41$ – $-0.001, p = 0.032$) and age-anchored framework

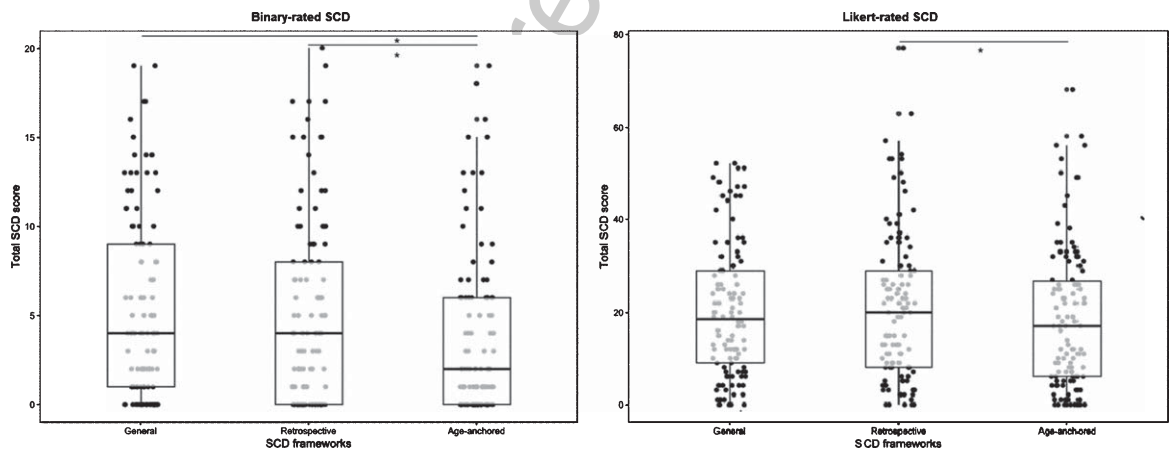


Fig. 1. Binary-rated and Ordinal-rated SCD ratings across reference groups. Boxplot with median and standard error (bars) represented for each SCD reference group. *Significant differences of p value < 0.05 .

Table 2
Raw scores performance on memory measures

Mean, standard deviations and range of memory performance	Mean (SD)	Range
Clinical Memory Assessment		
SRT Total Immediate (raw 0–72)*	52.24 (7.90)	34–70
SRT Total Immediate (percentile)	64.72 (28.31)	6.97–99.82
SRT Delayed (raw 0–12)	8.45 (2.22)	4–12
SRT Delayed (percentile)	63.26 (28.98)	6.68–99.11
Cognitive Tasks		
STMB (raw 0 – 16)	10.89 (1.91)	6–15
FNAME Names (raw 0 – 48)	18.02 (10.72)	1–45

*N = 106.

($\rho = 0.23$ $CI = -0.40 - -0.02$ $p = 0.025$). However, these associations did not survive multiple comparisons adjustment. No significant associations were observed with regards to the SRT delayed score or the STMB (ρ -range = $-0.17 - -0.14$; CI -range = $-0.34 - 0.08$; p -range = $0.095 - 0.192$). After adjustment for multiple comparisons, all three ordinal-rated SCD scales were associated with performance on the FNAME task (ρ -range = $-0.33 - -0.28$, CI -range = $-0.49 - -0.08$, p -range = $0.001 - 0.003$) (see Table 3).

Regression analyses

Given the advantage of ordinal over binary SCD response scales observed in bivariate associations, twelve demographically adjusted regression models were conducted to examine the three-ordinal-rated SCD scales (retrospective, age-anchored, and general) as predictors of the objective cognitive outcome measures. All three models examining SCD as a predictor of associative memory (FNAME) produced similar results ($p \leq 0.001$) with SCD emerging as a significant predictor in each model ($p \leq 0.05$) (see

Table 4). Demographics including age and education were also associated with FNAME in all models ($p < 0.05$), while gender was associated with FNAME in only one model (e.g., general SCD, $p < 0.05$). In contrast, only age-anchored SCD significantly predicted STMB (see Table 5).

Finally, with regards to performance on a clinical memory assessment (SRT Total Immediate Recall) all three models of SCD significantly predicted SRT Total recall ($p < 0.05$; Table 6). However, as shown in Table 7, although all three SCD similarly associated with SRT delayed recall ($b = -0.17, -0.21$), only SCD general was significantly associated with it ($p < 0.05$).

DISCUSSION

This study examined how SCD task specific factors (aspects of SCD measurement) affect its level of endorsement, and its association with sensitive markers of memory functioning among ostensibly cognitively healthy older adults. Specifically, we examined if SCD measurement frameworks including both reference points (i.e., SCD in general, compared to 5 years ago, and compared to others your age), and response scales (i.e., binary versus ordinal) affect level of endorsement, and degree of association with objective memory tasks. Overall, as hypothesized, age-anchored SCD was endorsed less frequently than general or retrospective SCD. Regarding response scale (i.e., binary versus ordinal), correlational analyses showed that ordinal-rated SCD was associated with cognitive outcomes to a relatively higher extent than the binary-rated SCD. Finally, regression analyses revealed that age-anchored SCD, measured using an ordinal rating scale, mapped most consistently onto objective cognitive measures which were carefully selected to be sensitive to memory deficits that may emerge early in the context of AD.

Table 3
Bivariate associations of memory measures and SCD

Spearman Bivariate analyses	FNAME		STMB		SRT Immediate Total Recall		SRT Delayed	
	Rho (p)	CI	Rho (p)	CI	Rho (p)	CI	Rho (p)	CI
Binary-rated SCD								
Age-anchored	-0.14 (0.158)	-0.32, 0.06	-0.19 (0.059)	-0.40, 0.01	-0.01 (0.908)	-0.20, 0.19	0.05 (0.591)	-0.15, 0.26
Retrospective	-0.19 (0.055)	-0.37, -0.01	-0.14 (0.179)	-0.32, 0.06	-0.001 (0.997)	-0.20, 0.21	-0.01 (0.955)	-0.21, 0.20
General	-0.17 (0.082)	-0.35, 0.04	-0.03 (0.800)	-0.22, 0.16	-0.05 (0.638)	-0.24, 0.16	-0.04 (0.708)	-0.24, 0.16
Ordinal-rated SCD								
Age-anchored	-0.29 (0.003)*	-0.46, -0.09	-0.16 (0.101)	-0.36, 0.06	-0.23 (0.025)	-0.40, -0.02	-0.14 (0.151)	-0.32, 0.07
Retrospective	-0.28 (0.004)*	-0.45, -0.08	-0.11 (0.283)	-0.30, 0.09	-0.16 (0.107)	-0.35, 0.05	-0.13 (0.192)	-0.32, 0.08
General	-0.33 (0.001)*	-0.49, -0.14	-0.09 (0.397)	-0.27, 0.12	-0.22 (0.032)	-0.41, -0.001	-0.17 (0.095)	-0.34, 0.03

Significant associations $p < 0.05$ are in bold. *Significant after Bonferroni correction $p < 0.008$. CI, confidence intervals.

Table 4
Demographically adjusted regression analyses of SCD as a predictor associative memory FNAME

Regression models of SCD in relation to FNAME	Model 1 (Age-Anchored)			Model 2 (Retrospective)			Model 3 (General)		
	β	<i>P</i>	CI	B	<i>p</i>	CI	β	<i>p</i>	CI
SCD	-0.26	0.018	-0.45, -0.06	-0.25	0.012	-0.44, -0.06	-0.29	0.003	-0.47, -0.10
Age	-0.24	0.011	-0.43, -0.06	-0.23	0.017	-0.42, -0.04	-0.23	0.014	-0.42, -0.04
Education	0.21	0.027	0.02, 0.40	0.22	0.023	0.03, 0.40	0.22	0.019	0.04, 0.41
Sex (1 – female)	0.16	0.089	-0.02, 0.34	0.16	0.083	-0.01, 0.36	0.18	0.047	0.04, 0.36
Depression	0.018	0.853	-0.18, 0.21	0.003	0.971	-0.16, 0.17	0.023	0.812	-0.16, 0.21
Model <i>p</i> -value		0.001			0.002			0.001	
<i>R</i> ²		0.17			0.17			0.19	
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²		0.13			0.13			0.15	
Standard error		10.02			10.08			9.92	
Akaike Information Criterion		508.19			504.88			506.01	
Schwartz Bayesian Criterion		524.34			520.97			522.16	

Significance at $p < 0.05$ is bolded.

Table 5
Demographically adjusted regression analyses of SCD as a predictor of visual short term memory binding

Regression models of SCD as predictor of STMB	Model 1 (Age-Anchored)			Model 2 (Retrospective)			Model 3 (General)		
	β	<i>p</i>	CI	β	<i>p</i>	CI	β	<i>p</i>	CI
SCD	-0.22	0.040	-0.45, -0.01	-0.11	0.337	-0.33, 0.10	-0.07	0.515	-0.26, 0.14
Age	-0.11	0.302	-0.32, 0.10	-0.11	0.303	-0.32, 0.10	-0.13	0.207	-0.33, 0.09
Education	0.09	0.409	-0.12, 0.29	0.11	0.302	-0.10, 0.32	0.11	0.298	-0.10, 0.32
Sex	0.01	0.889	-0.19, 0.21	0.04	0.685	-0.17, 0.26	0.04	0.722	-0.16, 0.25
Depression	-0.01	0.931	-0.22, 0.20	-0.07	0.539	-0.28, 0.14	-0.07	0.508	-0.28, 0.14
Model <i>p</i> -value		0.212			0.532			0.670	
<i>R</i> ²		0.07			0.04			0.03	
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²		0.02			0.01			-0.02	
Standard error		1.89			1.91			1.92	
Akaike Information Criterion		135.25			137.12			139.35	
Schwartz Bayesian Criterion		150.99			152.81			155.10	

Significance at $p < 0.05$ is bolded.

443 With respect to response scale, ordinal ratings
444 appeared preferable to binary ratings. Indeed, ordinal
445 scales may capture a more comprehensive and
446 fine-grained picture of the construct of interest, in this
447 case, SCD, than is possible with a binary rating. There
448 is ample research from educational and psychological
449 disciplines examining differences and overall utility
450 of various response scales. While some research
451 has found no meaningful differences across binary
452 versus ordinal scales [38], others have found ordinal
453 scales to produce more stable results and reduce
454 measurement error [14, 15]. Indeed, multiple studies
455 have found that increasing response options from
456 two to seven can increase reliability, validity and discriminability [14, 15]. To some extent, the utility of

458 ordinal scales may reflect differences in person specific
459 factors such as individuals' response biases, as
460 individuals likely vary in their threshold for shifting
461 from a "No" response to a "Yes" response. That is,
462 two individuals may endorse a score of 4 on an ordinal
463 scale but differ in their binary response. Results from
464 the current study support the use of ordinal scales
465 in quantifying SCD in order to capture variability in
466 objective memory among cognitively normal older
467 adults.

468 Another SCD task specific factor that was examined
469 in this study was the manipulation of reference
470 points. Results from this study showed that age-
471 anchored SCD was endorsed the least, and was most
472 frequently associated with the memory outcomes.

Table 6
Demographically adjusted regression analyses of SCD as a predictor of list learning

Regression models of SCD as predictor of SRT Total Immediate Score	Model 1 (Age-Anchored)			Model 2 (Retrospective)			Model 3 (General)		
	β	<i>p</i>	CI	β	<i>p</i>	CI	β	<i>p</i>	CI
SCD	-0.31	0.002	-0.51, -0.12	-0.25	0.014	-0.45, -0.05	-0.28	0.004	-0.48, -0.09
Age	-0.13	0.192	-0.33, 0.07	-0.12	0.273	-0.32, -0.09	-0.12	0.265	-0.32, -0.08
Education	0.14	0.146	-0.05, 0.33	0.15	0.138	-0.04, 0.34	0.15	0.116	-0.03, 0.34
Sex	0.01	0.943	-0.002, 0.002	0.02	0.877	-0.18, 0.20	0.04	0.666	-0.15, 0.23
Time [^]	0.27	0.008	0.07, 0.46	0.28	0.007	0.07, 0.48	0.28	0.006	0.08, 0.48
Depression	0.20	0.048	0.002, 0.39	0.16	0.103	-0.03, 0.35	0.18	0.073	0.02, 0.37
Model <i>p</i> -value		0.001			0.004			0.002	
<i>R</i> ²		0.20			0.18			0.19	
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²		0.15			0.12			0.14	
Standard error		7.30			7.45			7.35	
Akaike Information Criterion		424.26			424.54			425.70	
Schwartz Bayesian Criterion		442.84			443.05			444.28	

Significance at $p < 0.05$ is bolded. [^]Time between SRT and SCD assessment.

Table 7
Demographically adjusted regression analyses of SCD as a predictor of list learning delayed recall

Regression models of SCD as predictor of SRT Delayed Recall Score	Model 1 (Age-Anchored)			Model 2 (Retrospective)			Model 3 (General)		
	β	<i>P</i>	CI	β	<i>p</i>	CI	β	<i>p</i>	CI
SCD	-0.17	0.095	-0.37, -0.03	-0.19	0.063	-0.38, 0.01	-0.21	0.038	-0.40, -0.01
Age	-0.17	0.108	-0.38, -0.04	-0.17	0.144	-0.35, 0.05	-0.16	0.138	-0.36, 0.05
Education	0.10	0.450	-0.12, 0.27	0.09	0.395	-0.11, 0.29	0.08	0.422	-0.17, 0.27
Sex	0.06	0.551	-0.14, 0.24	0.07	0.487	-0.13, 0.26	0.07	0.451	-0.12, 0.27
Time [^]	0.25	0.016	0.04, 0.45	0.26	0.014	0.06, 0.46	0.26	0.013	0.06, 0.37
Depression	0.16	0.102	-0.03, 0.36	0.16	0.102	-0.03, 0.35	0.18	0.075	-0.01, 0.17
Model <i>p</i> -value		0.009			0.007			0.005	
<i>R</i> ²		0.16			0.17			0.17	
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²		0.11			0.11			0.12	
Standard error		2.12			2.11			2.10	
Akaike Information Criterion		162.57			160.13			160.92	
Schwartz Bayesian Criterion		181.08			178.57			179.43	

Significance at $p < 0.05$ is bolded. [^]Time between SRT and SCD assessment.

473 Given the high prevalence of cognitive complaints
474 in older adults [39, 40], it is important that we distin-
475 guish between complaints that may be age-related
476 versus those which may reflect incipient disease.
477 Increased endorsement of retrospective and general
478 SCD compared to age-anchored suggests that by
479 providing an age-anchor, individuals focus on those
480 complaints that go beyond those they feel they can
481 attribute to age. Indeed, in the most recent SCD work-
482 ing group, SCD compared to others one's age was
483 identified as an SCD plus criterion—a criterion con-
484 sidered to increase the likelihood of preclinical AD
485 [12]. It should be acknowledged that other factors

486 may influence the way in which people adjust their
487 ratings across SCD reference groups; for example,
488 age-anchored could be least endorsed as a reaction to
489 social threat, such that individuals rate their abilities
490 in a more positive light than others their age [41, 42].
491 If this were the case, however, one would expect this
492 response pattern to obscure the association between
493 SCD and cognition.

494 A secondary issue examined in this study was the
495 extent to which SCD mapped on to cognitive func-
496 tioning depending on the instrument selected as the
497 main outcome. Efforts are being made to identify
498 tests which are most sensitive to the earliest stages
499

of AD, and recent clinical trials have suggested that a composite score of several clinical neuropsychological measures is useful in tracking progression among amyloid positive normal controls [24]. In the current study, we assessed cognitive functions not typically measured as part of a clinical neuropsychological assessment, including visual short term memory binding and face-name associative memory, both shown to be sensitive to AD biomarkers [25, 26]. Among these cognitive tasks, the current study found divergent results; while the FNAME was associated with all SCD frameworks, the STMB was associated with age-anchored SCD only, potentially reflecting inherent differences within these tasks. For example, the STMB seems to be both sensitive and specific to early changes in patients with AD and not with key demographic factors such as age or education [25, 36]. On the other hand, the FNAME has been shown to be associated with age [43]. The current study replicated these differential associations, and also suggested that FNAME was associated with education as well. It may therefore be that FNAME captures elements of age-related cognitive difficulties or educational background that reveal themselves in each of the three SCD frameworks. However, the associations between SCD and FNAME remained after adjusting for these demographic variables, leaving the dissociation between STMB and FNAME an open question. It is possible that the FNAME captures elements of subjective cognition that reflect a wider range of factors (e.g., biological and/or social) than do the other cognitive tasks administered in the current study. Longitudinal data tracking the evolution of performance on cognitive outcomes over time will help to clarify the relevance of the differential associations between these outcomes and different types of SCD at baseline.

Finally, with respect to a traditional clinical assessment tool, demographically adjusted models showed that SRT Total Immediate Recall score was associated with all SCD assessments. With regards to delayed recall, although all SCD reference points had similar effect sizes only general SCD was significantly associated with delayed recall. These results were in line with those observed with the associative memory test. These results showed that at least in this sample SCD was able to capture early cognitive dysfunction within traditional cognitive assessments.

Taken together, these findings support the idea that age-anchoring SCD assessment and asking older adults to rate their experience on an ordinal-scale optimizes its association with important measures

of cognition including associative verbal memory, short-term memory binding of features, and list learning. The relative value of age-anchored SCD, consistent with findings from previous imaging and cognitive studies [8, 20], is in line with the idea that a certain degree of cognitive change such as memory decline is expected and experienced with typical aging, and underscores the importance of refining SCD assessment. Age-anchored SCD can be a clinically meaningful screener given its sensitivity to a range of early memory difficulties previously shown to be associated with biomarkers of AD in cognitively normal individuals. In contrast to administering the measures themselves which requires at least 30 minutes of a computer-based administration, SCD can be assessed quickly and easily, by phone or mail if necessary, and requires no training or specific administration procedures. The relative clinical utility, or unique value, of SCD versus these objective tasks as indicators of preclinical AD remains to be determined and is the focus of ongoing work

This study has several potential limitations that should be considered when interpreting results. First, although age-anchored SCD was endorsed to a lesser degree than retrospective or general SCD, the total SCD scores across the reference point frameworks were relatively similar. This similarity might have arisen specifically as a function of the within-person design of the study in which each participant completed all three SCD frameworks consecutively (in a counterbalanced order across participants). Such a design, while resistant to differences across individuals, may result in a “blending together” of responses or response style across the 60 SCD items rated in close proximity to one another. A between-subjects design may have detected a larger difference between age-anchored SCD versus general or retrospective SCD. Spacing the SCD ratings apart might also have detected a larger difference; however, such an approach would require the introduction of other assessments in the interim time which could potentially influence SCD ratings, raising a new set of challenges. Further, although reference point was counterbalanced, SCD response scale (e.g., binary versus ordinal) was not. Participants always endorse binary prior to ordinal and thus it is not clear if order effects might have impacted the way that individuals responded to these scales. Participants from this study were included if they performed within normal limits on neuropsychological measures irrespective of baseline SCD. This could have reduced the power of our study as many individuals did not experience

any SCD, and the current study was not powered to formally examine differences in SCD as a function of recruitment source. Indeed, there were only 7 participants recruited from the clinic; previous work has demonstrated that individuals report higher SCD in clinic-based samples than in community based samples [44]. The low number of clinic-based participants in the current sample reflects the fact that most individuals coming into the Aging and Dementia clinic with cognitive complaints were found to have some level of cognitive impairment on testing, and/or to have other documented neurologic or psychiatric disease. Future studies should directly examine the potentially moderating role of recruitment source on the association between SCD measurement frameworks and cognitive outcomes.

To conclude, this study highlights the importance of considering both SCD and cognitive measures when determining the utility of SCD as a marker of preclinical AD. This study showed that ordinal-rated, age-anchored SCD most closely approximates objective memory functioning above and beyond several person-specific factors such as demographics and mood (e.g., depression). Further work is needed to examine additional task-specific factors such as whether measuring concern about memory difficulties strengthens the link between SCD and objective cognition, as well as evaluating the extent to which other person-specific factors not examined in this study (e.g., race/ethnicity, personality, attitudes about aging, or metacognition) may moderate the association between SCD and objective markers of AD observed in this study. Simultaneous consideration of both task and person-specific factors is critical for optimal modeling of SCD, and empirically-based development of SCD assessments for detecting preclinical AD.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

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