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Evidence of vestibular and balance dysfunction in patients with mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease

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- 1 **Evidence of Vestibular and Balance Dysfunction in Patients with Mild Cognitive**
- 2 **Impairment and Alzheimer's Disease**
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ABSTRACT

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OBJECTIVES: Given the expected rise in dementia prevalence, early diagnosis is vital. As a growing body of literature has identified a potential association between vestibular function and cognition, vestibular assessment may aid in early screening. This study aims to better comprehend the proposed association between vestibular function and Alzheimer’s disease (AD) by comparing vestibular parameters (vestibular function testing and clinical balance measures) between a group with Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI), AD, and healthy controls with age-normal cognition.

DESIGN: Cross-sectional analysis of the *ANONYMOUS* study, an ongoing prospective single-centre longitudinal cohort study. This study included 100 older adults (55-84 years). A total of 33 participants with MCI, 17 participants with AD, and 50 age, sex, and hearing-matched healthy controls were included.

RESULTS: Participants with AD demonstrated a delayed latency of the p13 component measured by cervical Vestibular-Evoked Myogenic Potentials (cVEMP) compared to healthy controls and participants with MCI. Other measures including n23 latency, presence of intact responses, rectified amplitude, mean rectified voltage (measured by cVEMP) and lateral vestibulo-ocular reflex gain (measured by video Head Impulse Test (vHIT)) did not differ between groups. The Timed Up-and-Go (TUG), Performance-Oriented Mobility Assessment – Balance subscale (POMA-B), and Functional Gait Assessment (FGA) differed significantly between the three groups. Here, more cognitively impaired groups were associated with worse clinical balance scores.

CONCLUSIONS: Vestibular and balance deficits were more prevalent in groups with increasing cognitive decline. Regarding vestibular function testing, p13 latency as measured by cVEMP

29 was delayed in participants with AD. Other cVEMP or vHIT measures did not differ between
30 groups. All three clinical balance assessments (TUG, POMA-B, and FGA) resulted in worse
31 scores along the AD continuum. Future research integrating vestibular parameters that add
32 value (including otolith function testing, balance, and spatial navigation) is recommended to
33 validate the association between vestibular function and cognition while avoiding redundant
34 testing.

35 **KEYWORDS**

36 Inner ear function, Dementia, Otology

37 **INTRODUCTION**

38 The number of older adults, including those affected by dementia, continues to grow.
39 Worldwide around 55 million people suffered from dementia in 2021 and by 2050 this
40 number is expected to rise to 139 million (World Health Organization 2021). Alzheimer's
41 disease (AD) is the leading cause of dementia and accounts for up to seventy percent of all
42 dementia cases, according to the World Health Organization (2019) (World Health
43 Organization 2019). Because of its daunting economic, social, and psychological burden,
44 dementia -including AD - is considered to be a public health priority.

45 People with AD generally evolve from an intermediate state of cognitive decline, namely Mild
46 Cognitive Impairment (MCI). Daily life activities are preserved in people with MCI, but
47 disturbed in people with AD. Therefore, when including biomarkers in the diagnostic process,
48 the terms prodromal AD or MCI due to AD and dementia due to AD should be used instead of
49 the more general terms MCI and AD, respectively. However, for precision, both MCI and

50 prodromal AD will be described as “MCI” and both AD and dementia due to AD will be
51 described as “AD”.

52 When diagnosing AD from a neuropsychological point of view, episodic memory loss is still
53 the go-to strategy despite its low sensitivity and specificity (Coughlan et al. 2018). However,
54 difficulties with spatial navigation, such as getting lost in familiar places, losing or misplacing
55 objects, and disorientation, are often reported to be one of the first cognitive losses observed
56 in AD (Tu et al. 2015; Yew et al. 2013). Indeed, neuropathology of AD begins in brain structures
57 crucial for successful navigation, such as the medial temporal lobe (including the
58 hippocampus and entorhinal cortex) and parietal structures (Coughlan et al. 2018; Ghosh et
59 al. 2022). Therefore, including navigation and orientation in the diagnostic process may help
60 in differentiating AD from other types of dementia (Tu et al. 2015; Yew et al. 2013). Note that
61 orientation in familiar environments remains preserved in healthy aging, in contrast to AD
62 (Coughlan et al. 2018; Serino et al. 2015). As such, spatial navigation might be a more sensitive
63 and specific cognitive fingerprint in addition to recent episodic memory deficits during the
64 neuropsychological diagnostic process of AD.

65 The importance of accentuating spatial navigation in AD gains awareness, but it may be of
66 interest to expand this scope further and explore vestibular function in the broad sense in AD,
67 because of important interactions between spatial cognition, peripheral vestibular end-organ
68 function, and balance. A recent systematic review structured measurements of the vestibular
69 system in patients with MCI or AD, compared with a healthy control group with age-normal
70 cognition (Bosmans et al. 2021). A higher prevalence of vestibular loss has been observed
71 with increasing cognitive loss along the AD continuum. This cognitive loss was mainly
72 associated with loss of otolith function, whereas semicircular canal function remained

73 preserved. In particular, p13 latency and amplitude as measured by the Vestibular-Evoked
74 Myogenic Potentials (VEMP) test were the most promising parameters (Bosmans et al. 2021).
75 An included study by Wei et al. (2019) observed a dose-response relationship between
76 vestibular loss and the level of cognitive impairment. A note of caution is due here since the
77 number of available studies in the systematic review was limited (n = 7), and outcome
78 measures and inclusion criteria were heterogeneous. As such, the authors stressed the need
79 for further research (Bosmans et al. 2021). A recent retrospective study by Cohen et al. (2022)
80 included measures of vestibular function in patients with MCI and AD. They described more
81 vestibular impairments in patients with MCI and AD compared to healthy controls,
82 particularly on Dix-Hallpike manoeuvres and cervical VEMP (cVEMP), supporting previous
83 literature (Cohen et al. 2022). In addition to peripheral vestibular end-organ dysfunction,
84 imbalance can also be associated with AD. People with AD carry a higher incidence of
85 imbalance, gait abnormalities and falls, often resulting in fractures (Biju et al. 2022; Dev et al.
86 2021; Dyer et al. 2020). A recent study observed patients with AD to fall twice as frequently
87 as their non-AD peers (Dev et al. 2021). Wandering, related to spatial disorientation, is a
88 common complaint of AD patients (Alzheimer's Association 2020). Thus, the association
89 between vestibular function in the broad sense and the AD continuum is supported by many
90 studies, but the interactions between the different aspects of vestibular function (spatial
91 navigation, peripheral vestibular end-organ function, and balance) within the AD continuum
92 remain currently underexplored and unreplicated.

93 We hypothesize a dose-response-type relationship of vestibular function loss and clinical
94 decreased balance performance with progression of cognitive impairment in our groups. This
95 study aims to better comprehend the proposed association between vestibular function and
96 AD. The main objective is to compare vestibular parameters (vestibular function testing and

97 clinical balance measures) between a group with MCI, AD, and healthy controls with age-
98 normal cognition. Additionally, the suitability of vestibular and balance parameters to predict
99 cognition was explored.

100 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

101 **Participants**

102 Participants were recruited from the **ANONYMOUS** study. This is an ongoing prospective
103 longitudinal cohort study evaluating the effect of hearing loss and vestibular decline on
104 cognitive functioning in older adults **REFERENCE TO PROTOCOL, ANONYMOUS**. The current
105 study included cross-sectional data of the **ANONIMIZED** study. Participant recruitment was
106 performed at the departments of Otorhinolaryngology and Neurology of **ANONYMOUS**
107 **HOSPITAL**. The ethical committee of the **ANONYMOUS HOSPITAL** (EC number
108 B300201938949) approved this protocol. All participants gave their written informed consent
109 per the Declaration of Helsinki before participation. The study protocol builds upon the
110 Clinical Trials protocol with identifier **ANONYMOUS**.

111 **People with Cognitive Impairment**

112 Inclusion criteria were 1) age between 55-84 years; 2) diagnosis of MCI or AD; 3) fluent in
113 Dutch; 4) ability to obtain informed consent from the participant or a legally authorized
114 representative. A diagnosis of MCI or AD was based on the National Institute on Aging-
115 Alzheimer's Association (NIA-AA) criteria (Albert et al. 2011; McKhann et al. 2011). A formal
116 neuropsychological exam was performed at the beginning of testing to support the diagnosis
117 of MCI and AD. This neuropsychological exam included the Mini-Mental State Examination
118 (MMSE) (Folstein et al. 1975) and Repeatable Battery for the Assessment of

119 Neuropsychological Status for Hearing Impaired Individuals (RBANS-H) (Claes et al. 2016;
120 Randolph et al. 1998). For more information about the RBANS-H, please refer to Claes et al.
121 (2016). Participants with an RBANS-H total score \leq percentile 16, which means that they
122 scored 1 SD or lower from the mean, were considered patients with MCI. A formal diagnosis
123 of AD was made by the attending neurologist based additionally on (hetero)anamnesis (in all
124 patients), brain MRI (in all patients), additional formal extensive neuropsychological exam (in
125 all patients), blood analysis (in all patients), brain FDG-PET scan (in 16/17 patients), and
126 cerebrospinal fluid AD biomarker analysis (in 7/17 patients). All exams needed to be
127 suggestive of AD and should not be indicative of an alternative diagnosis.

128 Patients were excluded if MMSE score \leq 12 to ensure reliable understanding and following of
129 instructions (Harun et al. 2017).

130 Healthy Controls

131 For each subject with cognitive impairment, a healthy control was matched based on age, sex,
132 and hearing function (based on pure tone audiometry averaged unaided threshold of 1 kHz,
133 2 kHz, and 4 kHz in the best hearing ear). In addition, to ensure preserved cognitive function,
134 a neuropsychological test battery (RBANS-H) was performed at the beginning of testing (Claes
135 et al. 2016). Participants with an RBANS-H total score above percentile 16 were included in
136 the healthy control group.

137 **Vestibular Function Testing**

138 Testing of the Peripheral Vestibular End-organ

139 *Cervical Vestibular Evoked Myogenic Potentials (cVEMPs)*

140 cVEMPs measured function of the sacculus and intactness of the vestibulocollic reflex (VCR)
141 using the Neuro-Audio device with electromyography feedback (Neurosoft, DIFRA).
142 Participants lay in supine position and lifted and rotated their head to one side, thus
143 tensioning the contralateral sternocleidomastoid (SCM) muscle, while short 500 Hz tone
144 bursts were presented in the ipsilateral ear through insert-earphones at suprathreshold level
145 (95 dB nHL). A typical cVEMP potential was biphasic and characterized by two distinctive
146 peaks (p13, n23). The presence of an intact VCR was measured based on normative ranges as
147 described by Li et al. (2014). Outcome measures included presence of intact responses (none,
148 1 ear, or both ears), and for each present response p13 latency (ms), n23 latency (ms),
149 rectified amplitude (μV), and SCM muscle contraction level (mean rectified voltage, MRV, μV).

150 *Video Head Impulse Test (vHIT)*

151 The vHIT measured semicircular canal function and the accompanying vestibulo-ocular reflex
152 (VOR) using the ICS Impulse (Otometrics, Natus, Pleasanton, California, USA). Participants
153 focused on a fixation dot at eye level 1 meter in front of them. The researcher performed
154 short, high-velocity head thrusts in the direction of all six (lateral, superior, and posterior; left
155 and right ear) semicircular canals. Lateral VOR gains were measured, resulting in two values
156 per participant (left and right lateral VOR gain).

157 *Primary and Secondary Outcome Measures*

158 Based on the systematic review by Bosmans et al. (2021), the latency of the p13 as measured
159 by the cVEMP was chosen as the primary outcome measure for the peripheral vestibular end-
160 organ function. Secondary outcome measures were cVEMP presence, n23 latency, rectified
161 amplitude, MRV, and lateral VOR gains measured by the vHIT.

162 Clinical Balance Assessments

163 *Timed Up-and-Go (TUG)*

164 The TUG evaluated balance, walking pattern, fall risk, and mobility (Shumway-Cook et al.
165 2000). Participants started in a chair with their backs against the back of the chair. Then, they
166 were instructed to rise from the chair, walk 3 meters, turn, walk back to the chair, and sit
167 down again. They were encouraged to do this as quickly as possible but safely. This task was
168 repeated 3 times and the mean time to complete this task was measured. In addition,
169 individual mean completion times were categorized as “normal” or “abnormal”. This
170 classification was based on age- and sex-specific normative scores published by Steffen et al.
171 (2002). For our analyses, a score was abnormal when it exceeded the mean plus one SD, hence
172 10” for people in their sixties, 12” for men in their seventies, 11” for women in their seventies,
173 11” for men in their eighties, and 14” for women in their eighties.

174 *Performance-Oriented Mobility Assessment (POMA) by Tinetti*

175 The POMA test evaluated balance abilities in a chair and while standing (POMA-B) and
176 dynamic balance during gait on an even walkway (POMA-G) (Köpke et al. 2006; Tinetti 1986).
177 Higher scores indicate more independence, with a maximum score of 16 for the POMA-B. A
178 cut-off score of ≤ 14 for the POMA-B was chosen for abnormal scores (Harada et al. 1995).

179 *Functional Gait Assessment (FGA)*

180 The FGA evaluated postural stability and balance during walking. Participants crossed a 6-
181 meter long walkway with different instructions each time. Instructions included changing
182 walking speed, walking with horizontal or vertical head turns, performing a 180° turn, walking
183 up and down stairs, stepping over an obstacle, walking with arms folded across the chest and

184 with feet aligned heel to toe in tandem, walking with closed eyes, and walking backwards
185 (Beninato et al. 2014; Wrisley et al. 2010). A maximum score of 30 could be obtained. A cut-
186 off score of ≤ 22 for the FGA was chosen for abnormal scores, indicating an increased fall risk
187 (Beninato et al. 2014; Wrisley and Kumar 2010).

188 *Primary and Secondary Outcome Measures*

189 Because of its time efficiency, simplicity for use in clinical practice, and feasibility to conduct
190 in a small consulting room, the primary outcome measure for balance was the mean TUG
191 score. Secondary outcome measures included the POMA-B total score and FGA total score
192 and classification of individual normal and abnormal scores for the TUG, POMA-B, and FGA.
193 The POMA-G was not included in further analyses because of an expected and observed
194 ceiling effect.

195 **Demographic characteristics**

196 The MMSE is a routinely used screening device for cognitive impairment and takes 5-10
197 minutes to administer (Folstein et al. 1975). Based on the MMSE score, a more extensive
198 neuropsychological assessment can be indicated.

199 The RBANS-H is a comprehensive neuropsychological evaluation of cognitive function as well
200 as its subdomains, including immediate memory, visuospatial/constructional cognition,
201 language, attention, and delayed memory (Claes et al. 2016; Randolph et al. 1998). Because
202 of its accompanying slideshow presentation, cognitive function can be adequately evaluated
203 in individuals with hearing impairment.

204 Hearing function was evaluated using the Fletcher index high of the best hearing ear, unaided
205 (Fl_{high} ; average threshold of 1 kHz, 2 kHz, and 4 kHz). To resemble real-world hearing status

206 more closely, the best-aided speech-in-noise (SPIN) test in free field was assessed by the
207 Leuven Intelligibility Sentences Test (van Wieringen et al. 2008). Analysis included the best-
208 aided condition, where participants wore their hearing aid(s) if they had them.

209 Education level was calculated as the number of years spent in school, starting from
210 the age of 6 years old.

211 **Statistical Analysis**

212 Levene's tests and data visualisation using histograms confirmed equal variances for all
213 measures and a normal data distribution. Continuous variables and outcome measures were
214 compared between the three groups (healthy controls, MCI, and AD) with ANOVA. Results of
215 continuous data were further clarified using post-hoc comparisons with the Tukey-Kramer
216 method, with *eta squared* (η^2) indicating the effect size of the full model (with $\geq .01$ indicating
217 small, $\geq .06$ medium, and $\geq .14$ large effect size) and *Cohen's d* (with 95% confidence interval)
218 indicating the effect size of each pairwise comparison (with $\geq .2$ indicating small, $\geq .5$ medium,
219 and $\geq .8$ large effect size). The Pearson's Chi-squared statistic was used for categorical
220 variables, with *phi (w)* indicating the effect size (with $\geq .1$ indicating small, $\geq .3$ medium, and
221 $\geq .5$ large effect size). Post-hoc comparisons were made by performing pairwise comparisons
222 for all combinations. In addition, a multiple linear regression model using the backward
223 elimination technique was used to explore the suitability of vestibular and balance
224 parameters to predict cognitive status (RBANS-H percentile score) for individuals. A *p*-value
225 of $<.05$ was used as the stopping rule. For all statistical analyses, the program JMP Pro 15
226 (Medmenham, UK) was used.

227 **RESULTS**

228 **Study Population**

229 Demographic characteristics of people with cognitive impairment (MCI and AD) and healthy
230 controls matched on age, sex, and hearing level can be found in Table 1. Hearing loss is a
231 recognized risk factor for dementia and is often associated with vestibular dysfunction
232 (Livingston et al. 2020; Lucieer et al. 2016; Santos et al. 2015). Therefore, the matching
233 procedure used the Fletcher index high of the best hearing ear, unaided. To resemble real-
234 world hearing status more closely, the best-aided speech-in-noise (SPIN) test in free field was
235 included in the analysis of participant characteristics. The three groups did not differ in
236 hearing level. Education level was included as a demographic characteristic, resulting in a
237 significant difference. This needs to be considered when interpreting results. For
238 transparency reasons, cognitive measurements including the RBANS-H total percentile score
239 and MMSE are also included. MMSE scores only serve as an exclusionary criterion. Median
240 [range] for the RBANS-H total percentile were 62 [18, 95] for healthy controls, 9 [1, 16] for
241 MCI, and 0.2 [0, 2] for AD ($p < .0001$). Median [range] for the MMSE were 29 [24, 30] for
242 healthy controls, 27 [23, 30] for MCI, and 19 [14,25] for AD ($p < .0001$).

243 **Vestibular Function Testing**

244 An overview of the vestibular function tests, their mean scores and standard deviations per
245 group, their p-values, effect sizes, and post-hoc comparisons can be found in Table 2. A visual
246 overview represented by boxplots can be found in Fig. 1. Regarding the primary outcome
247 measure of vestibular function testing, participants with AD demonstrated a significantly
248 delayed latency of the p13 component measured by cVEMP in comparison with the MCI and
249 healthy control group, who did not differ in p13 latency ($p = .001$; $\eta^2 = .13$, medium effect;
250 difference in means healthy controls vs. AD = 1.02; 1.10 SD). Secondary outcome measures

251 of vestibular function testing (including n23 latency, presence of intact responses, rectified
252 amplitude, and MRV as measured by cVEMP; and lateral VOR gain as measured by vHIT)
253 demonstrated no significant differences between the three groups. Effect sizes for these
254 variables ranged from trivial to small effects. In 98 out of a total of 200 ears, an intact cVEMP
255 response was found (healthy controls: 49/100; MCI: 34/62; AD: 15/30).

256 Regarding clinical balance assessments, the primary outcome measure mean TUG scores
257 demonstrated a significant difference between healthy controls and people with cognitive
258 impairment (participants with MCI and AD combined) ($p < .0001$; $\eta^2 = .26$, large effect). People
259 with cognitive impairment took longer to complete this task successfully. Post-hoc
260 comparisons indicated that the TUG time-to-complete was able to differentiate healthy
261 controls from the MCI group in a significant way ($p = .0014$; $d = 0.8$, large effect; difference in
262 means healthy controls vs. AD = 4.33; 1.96 SD). A similar pattern was observed in the total
263 score of the FGA ($p = .0001$; $\eta^2 = .18$, large effect). People with cognitive impairment obtained
264 lower scores in comparison to healthy controls. Here, a differentiation between healthy
265 controls and the MCI group was significant ($p = .0049$; $d = 0.7$, medium effect). On the other
266 hand, the MCI and AD groups obtained equivalent scores ($p = .3734$; $d = 0.4$, small effect;
267 difference in means healthy controls vs. AD = 5.15; 1.22 SD). Last, the POMA-B score was
268 significantly decreased in participants with AD compared with the MCI and healthy control
269 group ($p = .0031$; $\eta^2 = .12$, medium effect). Here, equivalent scores were obtained for the
270 healthy control and MCI group ($p = .4581$; $d = 0.3$, small effect). However, the MCI and AD
271 groups differed significantly ($p = .0461$; $d = 0.7$, medium effect; difference in means healthy
272 controls vs. AD = 1.45; 1.28 SD).

273 Similar results were obtained when individually classifying each balance result as “normal” or
274 “abnormal”. Again, the TUG demonstrated a significant difference between healthy controls
275 and people with cognitive impairment ($p < .0001$; $w = .42$, medium effect). The POMA-B
276 classification differentiated in a significant way between the AD group and the healthy control
277 and MCI group combined ($p = .0019$; $w = .31$, medium effect). Finally, the FGA classification
278 differed significantly between groups ($p = .0494$; $w = .21$, small effect). Post-hoc comparisons
279 did not reveal significant differences between pairwise comparisons.

280 To explore whether vestibular and balance parameters were suitable to predict cognition in
281 this population, a multiple linear regression model using the backward elimination technique
282 was conducted. Input of the initial model included demographic parameters (age, sex, and
283 years of education), hearing function (Fletcher index high of the best hearing ear), peripheral
284 vestibular end-organ parameters (cVEMP: p13 latency, n23 latency, rectified amplitude, MRV;
285 vHIT: lateral gain), and clinical balance (TUG, POMA-B, FGA) to predict RBANS-H total scaled
286 score. We used the RBANS-H total scaled score instead of the percentile score as this scaled
287 score was more accurate in describing distinctly low scores (e.g.: percentile < 0.1 reflected
288 scaled scores 47 through 54 in the current dataset). This scaled score followed the distribution
289 of the Wechsler IQ scale (100[SD,15]) (Weiss et al. 2006). A backward elimination regression
290 model was able to reduce to five parameters which were: TUG, sex, and cVEMP: p13 latency,
291 n23 latency, and rectified amplitude. These five final predictors added significance to the final
292 equation (TUG, $p < .0001$, $\eta^2 = .3078$; sex, $p = .0291$, $\eta^2 = .0265$; cVEMP p13 latency, $p = .0006$,
293 $\eta^2 = .0683$; cVEMP n23 latency, $p = .0047$, $\eta^2 = .0453$; cVEMP rectified amplitude, $p = .0364$,
294 $\eta^2 = .0243$). The final equation was statistically significant ($F(5,89) = 19.3093$, $p < .0001$) with
295 an R^2 of .5203. The equation for predicting cognition via the RBANS-H total scaled score is
296 established as follows:

297 RBANS-H total scaled score

298 $= 157.37 + (\text{Sex}) \begin{pmatrix} \text{female} \rightarrow -3.31 \\ \text{male} \rightarrow +3.31 \end{pmatrix} - 3.65 * (\text{TUG mean}) - 6.24$

299 $* (\text{cVEMP p13 latency}) + 2.73 * (\text{cVEMP n23 latency}) - 12.08$

300 $* (\text{cVEMP rectified amplitude})$

301

302 **DISCUSSION**

303 This study aimed to better comprehend the proposed association between vestibular
 304 function and AD by comparing vestibular parameters (vestibular function testing and clinical
 305 balance assessments) between a group with MCI, AD, and healthy controls with age-normal
 306 cognition. These groups were matched on age, sex, and hearing level. In general, vestibular
 307 and balance deficits were more prevalent in the groups with increasing cognitive decline.
 308 Regarding vestibular function testing, only p13 latency as measured by cVEMP demonstrated
 309 an increase in latency in participants with AD compared to the MCI and healthy control
 310 groups. Other variables of the cVEMP (measuring saccular function) or vHIT (measuring
 311 semicircular canal function) demonstrated no difference among the three groups. This
 312 implied that saccular function, rather than semicircular canal function, may underlie the
 313 association between vestibular loss and cognitive impairment. In addition, saccular function
 314 testing (in particular p13 latency as measured by cVEMP) may allow for early detection of
 315 individuals at risk for MCI and AD with a potential fall risk. These results support and extend
 316 previous literature on this topic (for a review, see Bosmans et al. (2021) and Agrawal et al.
 317 (2020)). Hence, this manuscript was able to confirm and replicate what existing literature has
 318 shown. A note of caution is due here as in the current study, intact cVEMP responses needed
 319 to have p13 and n23 latencies within the latency ranges defined by Li et al. (2014) (p13: 11.81-

320 15.59 ms; n23: 18.15-25.64 ms). However, multiple studies reporting cVEMP latencies applied
321 different criteria. A recent systematic review with meta-analysis by Macambira et al. (2017)
322 provided an overview of mean p13 and n23 latencies of studies comparing young and older
323 adults. However, multiple mean p13 and n23 latencies in both young and older adult groups
324 of this meta-analysis fell outside the ranges defined by Li et al. (2014), complicating
325 comparisons across studies. This emphasizes the need for generally-accepted latency ranges
326 and reporting of cVEMP variables to guarantee reliable interpretations and implications.

327 Regarding clinical balance assessment, participants with AD showed poorer performance on
328 all three included tests (TUG, POMA-B, and FGA). The TUG and FGA were able to differentiate
329 healthy controls from participants with cognitive impairment (MCI and AD combined). On the
330 other hand, the POMA-B differentiated in a later stage along the AD continuum (healthy
331 control and MCI versus AD). Caution should be exercised, however, when extrapolating the
332 results of balance tests in order to assess vestibular function. In principle, static balance tasks
333 are more appropriate to get an idea of vestibular function (sensory organization test) through
334 changes in sensory test conditions (Cohen et al. 2019; Verbecque et al. 2021). Balance tasks
335 including locomotion provide a better idea about the functional impact of a vestibular
336 problem (Vereck et al. 2007), but one should be aware that additional aspects such as non-
337 vestibular sensory inputs, motor and executive functions may be involved in locomotion. This
338 must be kept in mind, especially in a population with cognitive impairment.

339 Fig. 2 provides a schematic overview of actual clinical balance assessment data and how they
340 change with cognitive decline. People with age-normal cognition demonstrated little deficits
341 in any of the three clinical balance assessments. More than half of participants with AD
342 demonstrated abnormal clinical balance function in all assessments. However, included

343 balance assessments converge from normal to abnormal at different rates, resulting in
344 heterogeneous outcomes in the MCI stage. The combination of these three clinical balance
345 assessments could give the impetus to construct a timeline and aid in pinpointing where a
346 subject with cognitive impairment is located on the AD continuum, based on their balance
347 function. Future research can extend this concept by integrating the vestibular-related
348 parameters that add value and step away from redundant testing. As a recommendation,
349 otolith function testing (including saccular and utricular function), spatial cognition, clinical
350 balance, and subjective balance measurements (fear of falling, balance confidence, etc.)
351 should be further investigated, whereas horizontal semicircular canal testing (by means of
352 VOR testing) appears to be less relevant in a population with cognitive impairment. However,
353 an important side note is that topographical memory has been related to horizontal
354 semicircular canal functioning (Previc et al. 2014). Another important side note is that one
355 study observed significantly reduced VOR gains in the anterior and posterior semicircular
356 canals in patients with MMSE scores < 21 in comparison to healthy controls, while observing
357 no significant differences in VOR gains of the horizontal semicircular canals (Yargholi et al.
358 2018). By plotting these parameters on a timeline covering the AD continuum, we may gain a
359 more extensive understanding about the gradual changes of the vestibular system and its
360 associated regions. This may increase our knowledge about the potential of vestibular
361 rehabilitation or other vestibular interventions such as a vestibular implant to slow the
362 progression of AD.

363 A first limitation of the current study is that we considered participants with an RBANS-H total
364 score \leq percentile 16 (hence \leq 1 SD from the mean) as patients with MCI. According to
365 guidelines by Albert et al. (2011), cognitive scores are typically 1 to 1.5 SD below the mean
366 for the appropriate normative data. Our study uses the less stringent approach regarding

367 inclusion of participants with MCI, which has to be taken into account. Furthermore,
368 biomarkers were not routinely tested in our MCI group, resulting in a heterogeneous group
369 consisting of MCI due to AD as well as other causes of MCI. Another limitation of the current
370 study is the absence of caloric irrigation, rotatory chair, and ocular VEMP (oVEMP) data to
371 fully map peripheral vestibular end-organ function. Future research untangling vestibular
372 function and its association with cognitive decline should include a complete and
373 complementary battery of vestibular function tests, with special focus on cVEMP and oVEMP
374 testing. We hypothesize that measures of horizontal semicircular canal function (vHIT,
375 rotatory chair, and caloric irrigation) will demonstrate no change in people with advancing
376 degrees of AD. This hypothesis is based on considerable evidence describing distinct pathways
377 for motoneurons involved in the vestibulo-ocular reflex (VOR; associated with semicircular
378 canal function) and saccular pathways (involved with the vestibulocollic reflex; VCR)
379 transmitting vestibular information to higher brain areas. Here the VCR decreases
380 simultaneously with cognitive decline, whereas the VOR gain would remain intact (Bosmans
381 et al. 2021). However, this distinction should be nuanced as there is a large semicircular canal
382 projection to the hippocampus in the form of head-direction cells so a higher-order
383 semicircular canal influence should not be completely dismissed (Previc 1998, 2013). Keeping
384 that in mind, otolith function (as measured by both oVEMP for the utricle and cVEMP for
385 the saccule) may underlie the association between vestibular function and cognitive
386 impairment and would therefore be interesting to further explore in a population with varying
387 degrees of AD.

388

CONCLUSION

389 This cross-sectional study included participants with MCI, AD, and healthy controls and found
390 that vestibular and balance deficits were more prevalent in groups with increasing cognitive
391 decline. P13 latency as measured by cVEMP was delayed in participants with AD. Other
392 cVEMP or vHIT measures did not differ between groups. All three included clinical balance
393 assessments (TUG, POMA-B, and FGA) resulted in worse scores in participants with AD.
394 However, included balance assessments converged from normal to abnormal at different
395 rates, resulting in heterogeneous outcomes in the MCI stage. Future research integrating a
396 complete assessment of otolith function testing, balance, and spatial cognition is
397 recommended to fully comprehend the gradual changes of the vestibular system and its
398 associated regions in advancing degrees of cognitive decline.

399 **STATEMENTS AND DECLARATIONS**

400 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

401 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

402 *A separate "Acknowledgments and Author Contribution Statement" document has been*
403 *uploaded.*

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513

514

TABLES

515 **Table 1. Demographic, hearing, and cognitive characteristics of people with cognitive**
516 **impairment (Mild Cognitive Impairment and Alzheimer's disease) and healthy controls. p-**

517 Values in *italics* are the result of the Pearson's Chi-squared statistic, whereas all other p-values
518 reflect results of ANOVA. Education level indicates the number of years spent in school,
519 starting from 6 years old. SD, standard deviation; Fl_{high}, Fletcher index high; dB HL, decibel
520 hearing level; SPIN, speech-in-noise; SRT, speech reception threshold; RBANS-H, Repeatable
521 Battery for the Assessment of Neuropsychological Status for Hearing Impaired Individuals;
522 MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination.

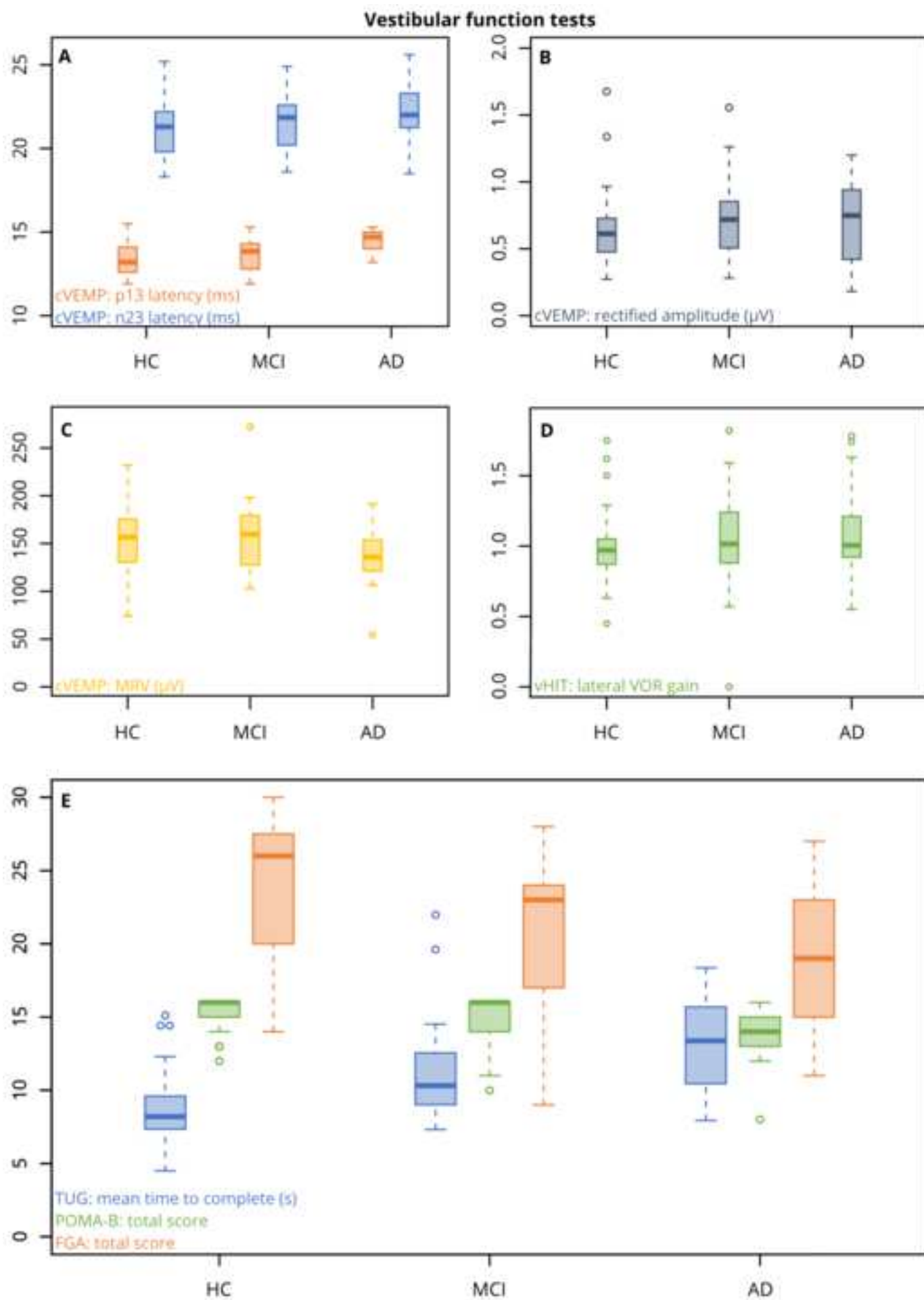
523 **Table 2. Results of vestibular function tests in healthy controls, Mild Cognitive Impairment,**

524 **and Alzheimer's disease.** Degrees indicate an interpretation of effect size (° = small, °° =
525 medium, °°° = large). The Pearson's Chi-squared statistic was used for categorical variables,
526 with phi (w) indicating the effect size. Categorical post-hoc comparisons were made by
527 performing pairwise comparisons for all combinations. Here, phi (w) is reported as a measure
528 of effect size. cVEMP, cervical Vestibular-Evoked Myogenic Potentials; MRV, mean rectified
529 voltage; vHIT, video Head Impulse Test; VOR, vestibulo-ocular reflex; TUG, Timed Up-and-Go;
530 POMA-B, Performance-Oriented Mobility Assessment Balance subscale; FGA, Functional Gait
531 Assessment; HC, healthy controls; MCI, Mild Cognitive Impairment; AD, Alzheimer's disease.

FIGURES

Fig. 1 Visual overview of vestibular function tests, including testing of the peripheral vestibular end-organ and clinical balance assessments. A) cVEMP: p13 and n23 latency, B) cVEMP: rectified amplitude, C) cVEMP: MRV, D) vHIT: lateral VOR gain, E) clinical balance assessments. Whiskers indicate range; boxes, IQR; bold line, median. As different parameters are expressed in various units, the appropriate unit is defined between brackets. cVEMP, cervical Vestibular-Evoked Myogenic Potentials; MRV, mean rectified voltage; vHIT, video Head Impulse Test; HC, healthy controls; MCI, Mild Cognitive Impairment; AD, Alzheimer's disease; FGA, Functional Gait Assessment; POMA-B, Performance-Oriented Mobility Assessment Balance subscale; TUG, Timed Up-and-Go.

Fig. 2 Schematic overview of changes in balance through the Alzheimer's disease continuum. Each clinical balance result was per subject classified as "normal" or "abnormal". This classification was plotted against the RBANS-H total score. Each coloured line represents the logistic fit of a clinical balance assessment by the RBANS-H total score. HC, healthy controls; MCI, Mild Cognitive Impairment; AD, Alzheimer's disease; TUG, Timed Up-and-Go; POMA-B, Performance-Oriented Mobility Assessment – Balance subscale; FGA, Functional Gait Assessment.



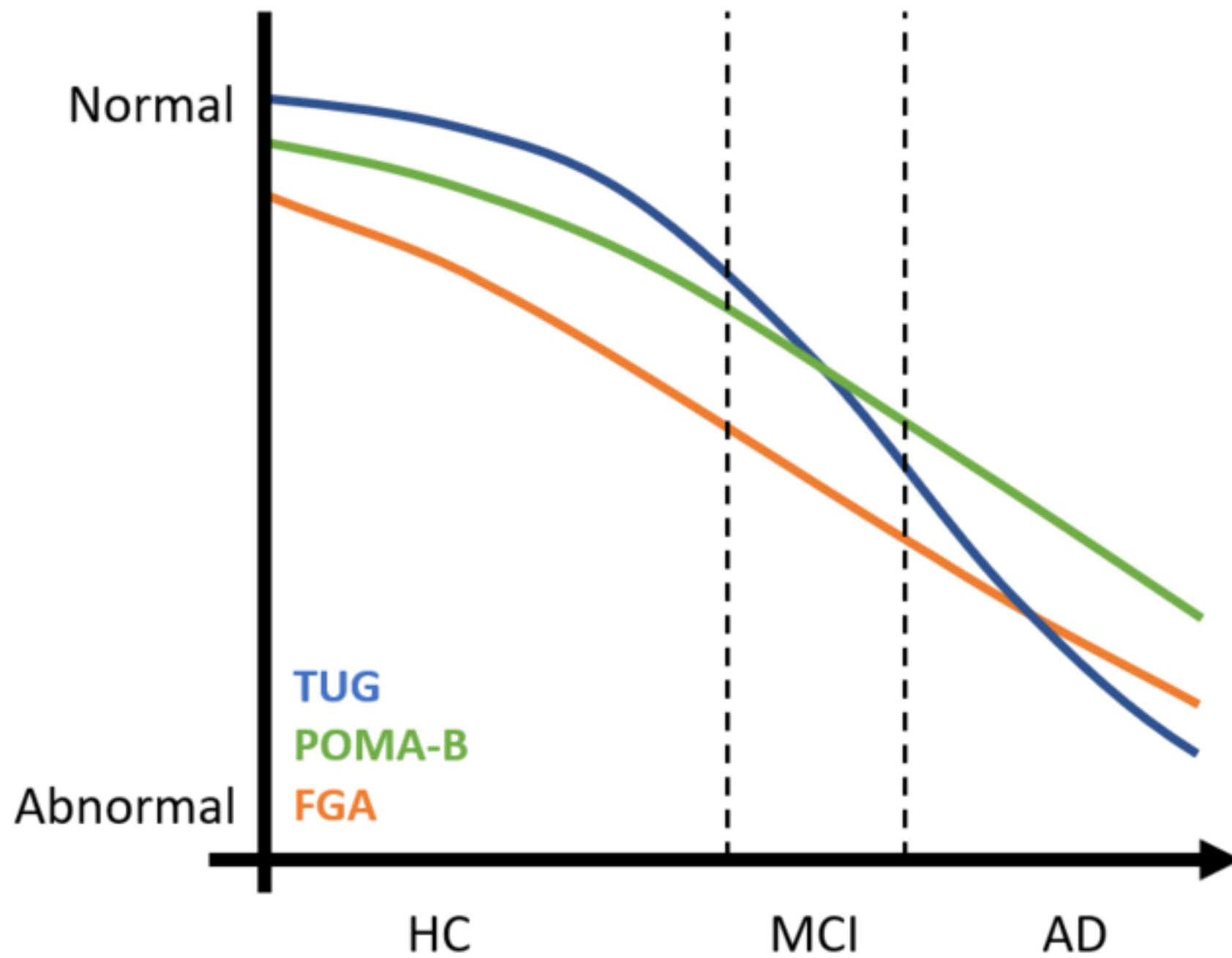


Table 1. Demographic, hearing, and cognitive characteristics of people with cognitive impairment (Mild Cognitive Impairment and Alzheimer's disease) and healthy controls. p-Values in *italics* are the result of the Pearson's Chi-squared statistic, whereas all other p-values reflect results of ANOVA. Education level indicates the number of years spent in school, starting from 6 years old. SD, standard deviation; FI_{high}, Fletcher index high; dB HL, decibel hearing level; SPIN, speech-in-noise; SRT, speech reception threshold; RBANS-H, Repeatable Battery for the Assessment of Neuropsychological Status for Hearing Impaired Individuals; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination.

	Healthy Controls (n = 50)	Mild Cognitive Impairment (n = 33)	Alzheimer's disease (n = 17)	p-Value
Age (year: mean (SD))	74 (6.3)	74 (6.0)	76 (5.3)	.5206
Sex (n: M/F)	28/22	17/16	11/6	.6729
Education level (year: mean (SD))	13.7 (0.4)	12.4 (0.6)	11.6 (0.8)	.0319
Hearing level				
FI _{high} best ear (unaided dB HL: mean (SD))	43.0 (17.0)	43.3 (20.1)	39.4 (13.3)	.7194
SPIN (best-aided SRT: mean (SD))	-0.8 (4.0)	0.1 (3.9)	-0.2 (2.1)	.5358
Cognition				
RBANS-H total percentile (mean (SD))	59.4 (20.6)	8.5 (4.8)	0.3 (0.5)	<.0001
MMSE (mean (SD))	28.5 (1.6)	26.8 (1.9)	19.5 (3.4)	<.0001

Table 2. Results of vestibular function tests in healthy controls, Mild Cognitive Impairment, and Alzheimer’s disease. Degrees indicate an interpretation of effect size (° = small, °° = medium, °°° = large). The Pearson’s Chi-squared statistic was used for categorical variables, with phi (w) indicating the effect size. Categorical post-hoc comparisons were made by performing pairwise comparisons for all combinations. Here, phi (w) is reported as a measure of effect size. cVEMP, cervical Vestibular-Evoked Myogenic Potentials; MRV, mean rectified voltage; vHIT, video Head Impulse Test; VOR, vestibulo-ocular reflex; TUG, Timed Up-and-Go; POMA-B, Performance-Oriented Mobility Assessment Balance subscale; FGA, Functional Gait Assessment; HC, healthy controls; MCI, Mild Cognitive Impairment; AD, Alzheimer’s disease.

	HC	MCI	AD	<i>p</i> -Value	η ²	Post-hoc comparison	Cohen’s d [95% CI]
Peripheral vestibular end-organ							
cVEMP: p13 latency	13.4 (0.9)	13.7 (0.9)	14.4 (0.7)	.0010	.13°°	(HC = MCI) < AD	HC – AD: 1.1 [0.5,1.7]°°° HC – MCI: .3 [-0.2,0.7]° MCI – AD: .9 [0.2,1.5]°°
cVEMP: n23 latency	21.4 (1.7)	21.6 (1.6)	22.3 (1.9)	.1991	.03°	HC = MCI = AD	HC – AD: .5 [-0.1, 1.1]°° HC – MCI: .1 [-0.3, 0.6] MCI – AD: .4 [-0.2, 1.0]°
cVEMP: presence	0: 15 1: 21 2: 14 NA: 0	0: 9 1: 10 2: 12 NA: 2	0: 4 1: 7 2: 4 NA: 2	Chi-square (df=3): .8177	w: .09	HC = MCI = AD	HC – AD: w = .03 HC – MCI: w = .08 MCI – AD: w = .10°
cVEMP: rectified amplitude	0.6 (0.2)	0.7 (0.3)	0.7 (0.3)	.3579	.02°	HC = MCI = AD	HC – AD: .3 [-0.3, 0.8]° HC – MCI: .3 [-0.1, 0.7]° MCI – AD: .0 [-0.6, 0.7]
cVEMP: MRV	158.1 (33.9)	150.5 (37.9)	136.9 (32.9)	.0684	.05°	HC = MCI = AD	HC – AD: .6 [0.1, 1.1]°° HC – MCI: .2 [-0.2, 0.6]° MCI – AD: .4 [-0.2, 0.9]°

vHIT: Lateral VOR gain	1.0 (0.2)	1.0 (0.3)	1.1 (0.3)	.1049	.02°	HC = MCI = AD	HC – AD: .4 [-0.0,0.8]° HC – MCI: .3 [-0.1,0.6]° MCI – AD: .1 [-0.3,0.5]
Clinical balance assessments							
TUG: mean (SD)	8.8 (2.2)	11.1 (3.3)	13.1 (3.4)	<.0001	.26°°°	HC < (MCI = AD)	HC – AD: 1.5 [0.9,2.1]°°° HC – MCI: 0.8 [0.4,1.3]°°° MCI – AD: 0.7 [0.1,1.3]°°
TUG: classification	Normal: 43 Abnormal: 4 NA: 3	Normal: 19 Abnormal: 13 NA: 1	Normal: 7 Abnormal: 10	Chi-square (df=2): <.0001	w: .42°°	HC < (MCI = AD)	HC – AD: w = .50°°° HC – MCI: w = .38°° MCI – AD: w = .15°
POMA-B: total score	15.3 (1.1)	14.9 (1.6)	13.8 (1.9)	.0031	.12°°	(HC = MCI) > AD	HC – AD: 1.0 [0.4,1.6]°°° HC – MCI: .3 [-0.2,0.7]° MCI – AD: .7 [0.1,1.3]°°
POMA-B: classification	Normal: 38 Abnormal: 9 NA: 3	Normal: 24 Abnormal: 9	Normal: 6 Abnormal: 11	Chi-square (df=2): .0019	w: .31°°	(HC = MCI) > AD	HC – AD: w = .38°° HC – MCI: w = .09 MCI – AD: w = .31°°
FGA: total score	24.4 (4.2)	21.1 (4.8)	19.3 (4.9)	.0001	.18°°°	HC < (MCI = AD)	HC – AD: 1.1 [0.6,1.7]°°° HC – MCI: .7 [0.3,1.2]°° MCI – AD: .4 [-0.2,1.0]°
FGA: classification	Normal: 32 Abnormal: 15 NA: 3	Normal: 17 Abnormal: 16	Normal: 6 Abnormal: 11	Chi-square (df=2): .0494	W: .21°	HC = MCI = AD	HC – AD: w = .25° HC – MCI: w = .14° MCI – AD: w = .13°