Cognitive rehabilitation in patients with nonamnestic mild cognitive impairment

Majid Barekatain, Maryam Alavirad¹, Mahgol Tavakoli², Golita Emsaki², Mohammad Reza Maracy³

Department of Psychiatry, Behavioral Sciences Research Center, School of Medicine, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, ¹Department of Psychiatry, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, ²Department of Psychology, School of Educational Sciences and Psychology, University of Isfahan, ³Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

Background: The nonamnesic type of mild cognitive impairment (na-MCI) is predementia state with subtle decline incognitive domains except memory. Although cognitive rehabilitation (CR) has been investigated in amnesic type of MCI, we could not find any trial that rehabilitated na-MCI exclusively. We studied the effectiveness of CR on na-MCI. **Materials and Methods:** This study was a blinded, randomized clinical trial. Individuals with age of 60 years or more, complete self-directedness and diagnosis of na-MCI, based on Neuropsychiatry Unit Cognitive assessment tool, were selected. The 51 patients were randomly assigned into three groups: CR, lifestyle (LS) modification, and the control group (CG). Neuropsychological tests for executive functioning were assessed at the baseline, after the interventions, and 6 months later. **Results:** The mean score of the "design fluency" test increased significantly in CR, compared to LS and CG (P = 0.007). In "five-point" test, mean score increased significantly in CR (P = 0.03). There was higher mean score of Behavioral Rating Inventory of Executive Function for adults in CR (P = 0.01). **Conclusion:** Consideration of the MCI subtypes allows us to target specific cognitive domains, such as information processing, for better CR outcome. CR may result in better performance of executive functioning of daily living.

Key words: Cognitive rehabilitation, mild cognitive impairment, nonamnestic

How to cite this article: Barekatain M, Alavirad M, Tavakoli M, Emsaki G, Maracy MR. Cognitive rehabilitation in patients with nonamnestic mild cognitive impairment. J Res Med Sci 2016;21:95.

INTRODUCTION

World's population is experiencing aging,^[1] that leads to serious health, economic, political, and social complications. Degenerative process in aging usually affects cognitive state negatively. The cognitive decline may result in disrupted ability to work, live independently, or maintain normal social interaction, which finally will be diagnosed with dementia. It is expected that more than 16 million of elder adults will suffer dementia until 2050 in the United States. The cost of this developing trend in dementia will be more than 1 trillion dollars.^[2]

Mild cognitive impairment (MCI) has been established as a transitional syndrome between normal cognitive

Quick Response Code:	
la néa 25/lai	Website:
	www.jmsjournal.net
	DOI:
回新新开始	10.4103/1735-1995.193173

state and dementia.^[3,4] The reported prevalence of MCI in the elders has been 3–42%.^[5] All of the cognitive domains including memory, language, visuospatial capacity, praxis, and executive function may be impaired by MCI. MCI can be divided into amnestic MCI (a-MCI) and nonamnestic MCI (na-MCI) depending on whether or not memory is impaired.^[4,6] These subtypes are further subdivided into "single-domain" or "multi-domain," depending on the number of cognitive domains impaired.^[7] Comprehensive diagnosis of MCI would be relied on low performances on at least two neuropsychological tests within a cognitive domain. Memory and executive functioning are considered the main cognitive domains for a-MCI and na-MCI, respectively.^[8]

Many clinical trials have been proposed to decrease the progression of MCI to dementia with pharmacological

This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 3.0 License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as the author is credited and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

For reprints contact: reprints@medknow.com

Address for correspondence: Prof. Majid Barekatain, Department of Psychiatry, Behavioral Sciences Research Center, School of Medicine, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Nour Hospital, Ostandari Street, Isfahan, Iran. E-mail: barekatain@med.mui.ac.ir Received: 12-05-2016; Revised: 22-06-2016; Accepted: 18-07-2016

or nonpharmacological interventions.^[9,10] Pharmacological treatments, such as cholinesterase inhibitors, memantine, huperzine A, Vitamin E, and Ginkgo biloba did not show any benefits to decelerate progression of MCI into dementia.^[9] Nonpharmacological interventions have been also taken into consideration because of lower side effects, patients' preference, and lack of effectiveness of the drugs. Change from a sedentary lifestyle to moderate physical activity has beneficial effects on cognitive functioning, and preliminary evidence suggests that such change may reduce the incidence of dementia.^[10] Among the nonpharmacological therapies in MCI, cognitive rehabilitation (CR) has been highlighted.[11] CR is the process of relearning cognitive skills that have been lost due to brain impairment. If skills cannot be relearned, other capacities will be used to compensate the lost cognitive functions.^[12] Some studies have shown that CR interventions may be effective on memory improvement in a-MCI, especially for compensatory strategies of prospective and episodic memory deficits.[13,14]

In many neurological conditions, CR has been shown to be effective on executive functioning, attention, and speed of information processing.^[15-20] In multiple sclerosis, CR was effective on the speed of processing.^[15,16] The effectiveness of CR in acquired brain injury was also reported.^[17-19] CR was effective in mild to severe head trauma at any time after trauma.^[19] CR also had positive effects on the function of the frontal lobe in patients with Parkinson's disease.^[20]

To the best of our knowledge, all of the CR interventions have been designed for MCI as a single entity or for a-MCI as a specific subtype. We could not find any rehabilitation trial that was dedicated exclusively for na-MCI. Thus, we sought to evaluate the impact of CR on na-MCI.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study design and participants

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee and the Research Council of the Behavioral Sciences Research Center, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences. All study participants provided written informed consent before the evaluations. The experimental principles were in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. This was a blinded, randomized clinical trial. After the announcement about the screening of cognitive functioning for the retired staff of public schools in Isfahan, Iran, 213 persons agreed to be screened [Figure 1]. Through a semi-structured clinical interview, a neuropsychiatrist screened 213 participants. Individuals with the age of 60 years or more, at least 5 years of education, complete self-directedness in activities of daily living, lack of any active or history of major psychiatric and neurological disorders, and lack of any drug misuse were

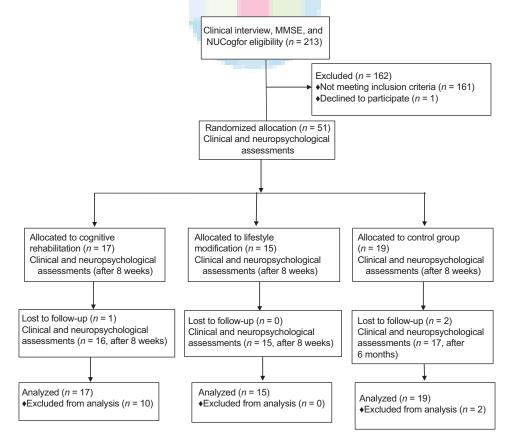


Figure 1: Study assignment and outcomes

screened for na-MCI. Patients with diagnosis of dementia and individuals who used medications that may affect cognitive state were excluded from the study. Based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria, 51 patients were recruited to this study. The participants were assigned into three groups using block-designed randomization that each block contained of three samples. Participants in the first group underwent "CR," the second trained for "Life Style" (LS) modification, and the third was "Control Group" (CG) who received only educational pamphlets after the end of the study [Figure 1]. Participants in each group were unaware of the existence of other groups. The baseline characteristics of the groups are presented in Table 1.

Neuropsychological assessments

Mini–mental state examination (MMSE) was used for all of the 213 participants to exclude patients with dementia.^[21] The Neuropsychiatry Unit Cognitive assessment tool (NUCog) was selected to confirm MCI diagnosis.^[22] It contains five

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the study	
participants in three groups	

	n (%)				
	CR group (<i>n</i> =17)	Life style modification group (<i>n</i> =15)	Control group (<i>n</i> =19)		
Gender					
Male	1 (5.6)	3 (20)	2 (10.5)	0.45	
Female	16	12	17		
Education					
High school or less	8 (44.1)	4 (23.5)	7 (36.8)	0.59	
University	9	11	12		
Diabetes					
Yes	6 (35.3)	2 (13.3)	5 (26.3)	0.36	
No	11	13	14		
Hypertension					
Yes	7 (41.2)	6 (40)	5 (26.3)	0.58	
No	10	9	4		
Ischemic heart disease					
Yes	2 (11.8)	1 (6.7)	3 (15.8)	0.71	
No	15	14	16		
Hyperlipidemia					
Yes	6 (35.3)	3 (20)	7 (36.8)	0.52	
No	11	12	12		
Hypothyroidism					
Yes	3 (17.6)	1 (6.7)	4 (21.1)	0.5	
No	14	14	15		
Osteoarthritis					
Yes	3 (17.6)	4 (26.7)	6 (31.6)	0.62	
No	14	11	13		
Insomnia					
Yes	2 (11.8)	1 (6.7)	1 (5.3)	0.75	
No	15	14	18		
Chronic pain					
Ye	1 (5.9)	2 (13.3)	1 (5.3)	0.64	
No	16	13	18		

CR = Cognitive rehabilitation

cognitive domains of attention, visual-spatial, memory, executive function, and language, which has a maximum score of 20 for each domain. In the Persian version of NUCog, the cutoff point for separating MCI from normal individuals and patients with dementia are 86.5, 75, respectively.^[23] Subjects with memory score of 16 or more in the memory subscale and 11 or less in the executive function subscale were considered as na-MCI.

Widely accepted neuropsychological tests were selected as a battery to address executive function. The selected tests were: Tower of London (TOL) test to assess executive functioning, especially deficits in planning,^[24] Color trail test (CTT) to measure remote divided attention and sustained attention,^[24,25] Five-point test for figural fluency function to assess divergent thinking and shifting cognitive set,^[24] Go-no go test for sustained attention and response control,^[24] category fluency test to evaluate self-monitoring and working memory,^[24] and design fluency test to measure cognitive flexibility and fluency in generation of visual patterns.^[26]

Clinical assessments

The Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview was used to rule out major psychiatric disorders.^[27] General Health Questionnaire was also carried out to determine mental health state and individuals with scores lower than 22 were enrolled.^[28]

The Behavioral Rating Inventory of Executive Function in Adults (BRIEF-A) was used to evaluate the behavioral aspects of executive functioning in daily living throughout this study.^[29]

Health-promoting lifestyle profile test was used to measure the healthy-promoting behaviors' of lifestyle at 6 dimensions: Nutrition, exercise, health responsibility, stress management, interpersonal support, and self-actualization.^[30]

Remediation programs Cognitive rehabilitation group

Group sessions were conducted 2 h/week for a total of 8 weeks. The first session was dedicated to explain the basic elements of the protocol, obtaining information, and gathering participants' cognitive problems. All participants collaboratively agreed on symptoms of attention and executive functioning as the problem areas that they would like to manage better. The next three sessions were matched for the "attention process training" emphasized on direct attentional training that was a hierarchical treatment protocol.^[31] The fifth and sixth sessions were matched for "goal management therapy" that used metacognitive strategies to improve patients' ability to organize and achieve goals in "real-life" situations. Participants learned how to use mindful attention and goal setting to recognize and stop "absentmindedness" and "automatic pilot" to reduce daily errors and "slips."^[32,33] The last two sessions dedicated to problem-solving therapy that facilitated identification of problems, awareness of various aspects of problems, generation of alternatives, initiation of action, and self-monitoring.^[34,35]

Lifestyle group

Lifestyle modification has beneficial effects on quality of life, and preliminary evidence suggested that such change may reduce the incidence of dementia. However, its evidence on cognitive benefits toward more intellectual engagement has been insufficient.[10] Nutritional supplements to treat deficiency may improve cognitive performance, but supplements on top of a healthy diet cannot be recommended.^[36] In the lifestyle modification group, discussion about theoretical and practical items for healthy LSs was explained. The role of physical activity in prevention of cognitive problem, importance of nutrition in preserving normal cognition, relation of biorhythms (especially quality and quantity of sleep) and cognition, impact of enriched social relationship in healthy aging, and role of stress in brain degeneration and stress management were explained during the eight sessions of LS group.

Procedure

Clinical interview and selection of eligible individuals were conducted by a neuropsychiatrist. Identified goals were selected by the research team and adapted operationalized rehabilitation protocol for CR was designed. Therapy was administered in a university clinic by a Ph.D. student in psychology who was well-trained in CR program, had a minimum of 10 supervised hours with adult rehabilitation clients, and completed an instructional program for using the materials. The rehabilitation tasks chosen for each session were specific to the participants' existing abilities and emphasize on the cognitive profile. There were written materials corresponding to specific topics that could be modified to match each participant's level of education and comprehension. Patients were given homework to practice the skills during the consequent week. They should practice homework and describe feedback in the next session. All participants were evaluated at the baseline, at the end of interventions 2 months later, and at the 6th month after the starting day by a trained resident of psychiatry (rater) with the neuropsychological and clinical assessment tools. The rater was unaware of the participants' allocation into the 3 groups. A well-trained psychiatry resident evaluated the participants with MMSE and NUcog. She was not aware of the participants' assignment or type of intervention.

Statistical analysis

The distribution pattern of the variables was checked in the study groups, using Shapiro test that supported normality.

Leven's test and Box's test supported homogeneity of the variances and the covariances during follow-up times and between the groups, respectively. Demographic data were analyzed using one-way ANOVA. The repeated measures ANOVA used to compare "between and within subjects" effects. *Post hoc* analysis was done using Bonferroni test. The significance level was set at 0.05. All analysis was performed by intention to treat method. Statistical analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0 (IBM, Somers, USA) statistical software.

RESULTS

The average age of the study was 65.3 ± 4.8 years. The average age of LS, CR, and CG groups were 63.9 ± 4.0 , 66.2 ± 5.5 , 65.7 ± 4.7 orderly, which did not show any significant differences (*P* = 0.37).

Demographic characteristics of the three groups depicted in Table 1. In baseline, mean scores of NUCog were 78.4 ± 2.4 , 79.0 ± 3.25 , 79.7 ± 2.5 for CR, LS, and CG groups, respectively (P = 0.37).

Table 2 showed comparisons of mean scores of the neuropsychological and the clinical assessments between the three groups through repeated measures. The interaction effect between time and group effects was significant for BRIEF test (P < 0.01). This means that CR significantly increased the quality of executive functioning of daily living through the time of the study.

DISCUSSION

CR usually includes specific cognitive tasks or stimulus programs to improve current cognitive state or prevent more cognitive decline in MCI.^[9-14] The previous studies revealed that cognitive training programs may improve memory performance.^[37] However, there has been controversy about the effectiveness of rehabilitation on other cognitive domains except the memory.^[37]

Many studies reported the effectiveness of CR for executive functioning in healthy elders, Parkinson's disease, multiple sclerosis, and traumatic brain injury.^[15-20] Executive function is considered like a shelter which provides numbers of behavioral capabilities and related skills for better independent activities.^[38] We proposed to evaluate the rehabilitation of executive function by "attentional training,"^[31] "goal management therapy,"^[32,33] and "problem-solving"^[34,35] methods.

This study showed that in the field of information processing, the mean score of "design fluency" test increased significantly in CR, compared to LS and

	Mean±SD			Р		
	CR	Lifestyle modification	Control group	Follow-up*	Group effect**	
Go/no-go						
Baseline	3±0	2.8±0.4	2.7±0.6	0.231	0.2	
After 8 weeks	3±0	2.9±0.3	2.9±0.2			
6 months later	3±0	2.9±0.3	3±0			
Color trials test						
Base line	1.1±0.7	0.9±0.6	1.1±0.4	0.1	0.7	
After 8 weeks	0.9±0.6	0.9±0.5	0.9±0.4			
6 months later	1.2±0.6	1.1±0.5	1.2±0.8			
Design fluency						
After 8 weeks	9.7±4.9	12.2±4	14±5.6	<0.001	0.007	
After 8 weeks	12±4	17.2±4	16.5±8.8	P (1, 2)=0.001, P (1, 3)=0.001,	P (1, 2)=0.03, P (1, 3)=0.01,	
6 months later	10.4±4.9	17±4.9	17.5±6.4	P (2, 3)=1	P (2,3)=1	
Category fluency						
Base line	16±4.44	18.15±3.64	19.67±3.5	0.2	0.2	
After 8 weeks	18.40±4.95	19.92±2.28	18.40±2.7			
6 months later	17.60±3.79	19.38±4.11	19.40±3.48			
ive point						
Base line	20.13±7.81	25.85±12.33	25.50±6.9	0.4	0.03	
After 8 weeks	19.60±6.7	25.92±5.90	26.57±5.37		P (1,2)=0.1, P (1,3)=0.04, P (2,3)	
6 months later	22±8.15	25.84±8.6	28±7.14			
Tower of London						
Base line	30.80±3.34	30.54±3.68	32.47±2.16	0.025	0.616	
After 8 weeks	31.93±3.36	33.23±1.96	32.46±2.23	P(1, 2)=0.057, P(1, 3)=0.022,		
6 months later	32.73±3.05	32.76±2.00	32.86±1.92	P (2, 3)=1		
MMSE						
Base line	27.67±1.49	29±1.35	27.53±1.99	0.5	0.09	
After 8 weeks	28.20±1.01	28.30±1.45	27.60±1.63			
6 months later	28±1.96	28.92±1.44	27.86±1.72			
Behavioral rating inventory of executive function in adults						
Base line	124.27±25.21	107.54±18.94	110.79±16.60	<0.001	0.145	
After 8 weeks	116.20±24.86	102.23±22.92	103.57±12.41	P (1, 2) <0.001, P (1, 3)=0.001, P (2, 3)=0.679		
6 months later	110.60±21.29	109.60±24.40	95.50±12.37			
Health promoting lifestyle profile test						
Base line	138.7±21.6	135.7±30.6	144.6±24.9	0.075	0.772	
After 8 weeks	142.4±33.9	151.6±28.3	144.2±21.6			
6 months later	135.1±25.8	146.0±25.9	143.0±22.3			

Table 2: Comparisons between executive function tests in the three groups within follow-up times using analysis of covariance repeated measures

*Time, 1 = Baseline, 2 = After 8 weeks of intervention, 3 = After 6 months, **Group, 1 = Rehabilitation group, 2 = lifestyle group, 3 = Control group, Comparison between paired groups were made with Bonferoni test. MMSE = Mini–mental state examination; CR = Cognitive rehabilitation; SD = Standard deviation

CG. This test is considered to address the assessment of problem-solving, planning, and organizing deals as parts of executive functioning. In "five-point" test, mean score increased significantly in CR compared to CG. This result also supported rising of information processing. Alternation in attention control, which includes supervisory processes, self-monitoring, and inhibition, was assessed by "category fluency" and "go-no go" test. The mean scores of category "fluency test" did not increased significantly following the interventions. However, an increasing trend in performance was seen in CR than the other two groups. The "go-no go" test did not reveal any differences between the 3 groups.

Similar interventions in Parkinson's disease and traumatic brain injury revealed improvement in attention control, especially inhibition and shift of attention.^[18,20] However, in this study, CR did not improve attention control. It may due to the lesser impairment of attention inhibition in MCI.^[39]

The CTT test that assesses flexibility and switching did not show any differences between the 3 groups. In a systematic review and meta-analysis study about the effectiveness of computer-based cognitive training in MCI, CTT test results also did not show any effect.^[40]

TOL test was used to assess goal setting including planning and problem solving. No differences between the three groups were recorded. However, "goal management therapy" were effective in traumatic brain injury.^[19]

BRIEF-A is sensitive to measure subtle executive changes in MCI in real life.^[29] The changes in the mean score of BRIEF-A showed improvement of subtle executive functioning in CR compared to LS and CG groups. Although many of the neuropsychological tests did not reveal any difference, it was noteworthy that improvement in activities of daily shown after rehabilitation. A systematic review on CR and cognitive training for early-stage Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia showed conflicting result that rehabilitation interventions did not apply a significant effect on the daily life of patients with early-stage Alzheimer.^[41]

Several studies pointed to the effectiveness of CR in younger patients with Parkinson's disease, multiple sclerosis, and head trauma.^[15-20] For long-lasting functional benefits, any CR program needs to restore the neural connections that support the cognitive skills. In other words, brain neuroplasticity is an essential element for cognitive remediation. Considering the fact that neuroplasticity reduces with age,^[6] patients with MCI, that usually are elders, may have less potential capacity to obtain changes in neuronal connections. This may explain the reason for less effectiveness of CR in MCI in comparison with other brain disorders.^[41]

Awareness to cognitive deficits might increase the chance for recovery after rehabilitation interventions.^[41] Thus, patients with na-MCI that have less insight into their decline of executive functioning (in comparison to a-MCI and insight to memory decline) may obtain less benefit from rehabilitation.^[4,41]

The health-promoting lifestyle profile test did not show any effectiveness between the 3 groups. Similar studies revealed results with controversies.^[36]

Strengths and limitations

The subjects of this study were selected from patients with na-MCI exclusively. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study, which dedicated to CR interventions on na-MCI subtype. One of the strengths of this study was its design as a randomized, blinded clinical trial with CG. Various neuropsychological and clinical tools, which evaluated the many aspects of cognitive and behavioral functioning, were used. None of the cases took psychotherapeutic drugs or any agent for better cognitive performance. The limitations of this study were low sample size, which did not permit generalization of the results. The follow-up period was relatively short for a longstanding condition such as MCI. Lack of brain imaging and other biomarkers to confirm the diagnosis of MCI was another limit. We administered same neuropsychological tests at baseline and at posttreatment, which might lead to learning effect. However, we tried to overcome this problem by considering the CG.

CONCLUSION

Consideration of subtypes in patients with MCI could allow us to target specific cognitive domains, increasing the likelihood of a positive response to cognitive remediation. In na-MCI, information processing would be selected as the probable target for effective rehabilitation programs. Although CR did not show prominent improvement in neuropsychological capacity, it could result in better performance of executive functioning of daily living.

Acknowledgments

We thank the "association of retired staff of public schools" in Isfahan, Iran.

Financial support and sponsorship

This project was the thesis of Maryam Alavirad, which was funded by the Isfahan University of Medical Sciences (Research number 393560).

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTION

MB contributed in the conception of the work, conducting the study, supervision of data gathering, interpretation of the results, writing the manuscript, and revising the draft of the final version of the manuscript. MA contributed in the conception of the work, data gathering, and writing the manuscript. MT contributed in the conception of the work, planning the intervention, and supervision of the interventions performance. GE contributed in the performance of the interventions. MRM performed statistical analysis and interpretations of the results. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

REFERENCES

- 1. Department of economic and social affairs population devision. World population aging. New York: United Nations; 2013.
- Lunenfeld B, Stratton P. The clinical consequences of an ageing world and preventive strategies. Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol 2013;27:643-59.

- Petersen RC. Mild cognitive impairment as a diagnostic entity. J Intern Med 2004;256:183-94.
- Ghosh S, Libon D, Lippa C. Mild cognitive impairment: A brief review and suggested clinical algorithm. Am J Alzheimers Dis Other Demen 2014;29:293-302.
- Huckans M, Hutson L, Twamley E, Jak A, Kaye J, Storzbach D. Efficacy of cognitive rehabilitation therapies for mild cognitive impairment (MCI) in older adults: Working toward a theoretical model and evidence-based interventions. Neuropsychol Rev 2013;23:63-80.
- Barekatain M, Askarpour H, Zahedian F, Walterfang M, Velakoulis D, Maracy MR, *et al.* The relationship between regional brain volumes and the extent of coronary artery disease in mild cognitive impairment. J Res Med Sci 2014;19:739-45.
- 7. Gauthier S, Reisberg B, Zaudig M, Petersen RC, Ritchie K, Broich K, *et al.* Mild cognitive impairment. Lancet 2006;367:1262-70.
- Jak AJ, Bondi MW, Delano-Wood L, Wierenga C, Corey-Bloom J, Salmon DP, *et al.* Quantification of five neuropsychological approaches to defining mild cognitive impairment. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry 2009;17:368-75.
- Karakaya T, Fußer F, Schröder J, Pantel J. Pharmacological treatment of mild cognitive impairment as a prodromal syndrome of Alzheimerx s disease. Curr Neuropharmacol 2013;11:102-8.
- Rodakowski J, Saghafi E, Butters MA, Skidmore ER. Non-pharmacological interventions for adults with mild cognitive impairment and early stage dementia: An updated scoping review. Mol Aspects Med 2015;43:38-53.
- Miotto EC, Serrao VT, Guerra GB, Lúcia M, Scaff M. Cognitive rehabilitation of neuropsychological deficits and mild cognitive impairment. Dement Neuropsychol 2008;2:139-45.
- 12. Cicerone KD, Dahlberg C, Malec JF, Langenbahn DM, Felicetti T, Kneipp S, *et al.* Evidence-based cognitive rehabilitation: Updated review of the literature from 1998 through 2002. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2005;86:1681-92.
- O'Sullivan M, Coen R, O'Hora D, Shiel A. Cognitive rehabilitation for mild cognitive impairment: Developing and piloting an intervention. Neuropsychol Dev Cogn B Aging Neuropsychol Cogn 2015;22:280-300.
- 14. Reijnders J, van Heugten C, van Boxtel M. Cognitive interventions in healthy older adults and people with mild cognitive impairment: A systematic review. Ageing Res Rev 2013;12:263-75.
- Fink F, Rischkau E, Butt M, Klein J, Eling P, Hildebrandt H. Efficacy of an executive function intervention programme in MS: A placebo-controlled and pseudo-randomized trial. Mult Scler 2010;16:1148-51.
- 16. Mattioli F, Stampatori C, Zanotti D, Parrinello G, Capra R. Efficacy and specificity of intensive cognitive rehabilitation of attention and executive functions in multiple sclerosis. J Neurol Sci 2010;288:101-5.
- 17. Cicerone KD, Langenbahn DM, Braden C, Malec JF, Kalmar K, Fraas M, *et al.* Evidence-based cognitive rehabilitation: Updated review of the literature from 2003 through 2008. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2011;92:519-30.
- Bogdanova Y, Yee MK, Ho VT, Cicerone KD. Computerized cognitive rehabilitation of attention and executive function in acquired brain injury: A systematic review. J Head Trauma Rehabil 2015. [Epub ahead of print].
- 19. Rohling ML, Faust ME, Beverly B, Demakis G. Effectiveness of cognitive rehabilitation following acquired brain injury: A meta-analytic re-examination of Cicerone *et al.*'s (2000, 2005) systematic reviews. Neuropsychology 2009;23:20-39.
- Sinforiani E, Banchieri L, Zucchella C, Pacchetti C, Sandrini G. Cognitive rehabilitation in Parkinson's disease. Arch Gerontol Geriatr Suppl 2004;9:387-91.
- 21. 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;12:189-98.

- 22. Walterfang M, Siu R, Velakoulis D. The NUCOG: Validity and reliability of a brief cognitive screening tool in neuropsychiatric patients. Aust N Z J Psychiatry 2006;40:995-1002.
- 23. Barekatain M, Walterfang M, Behdad M, Tavakkoli M, Mahvari J, Maracy MR, *et al.* Validity and reliability of the Persian language version of the Neuropsychiatry Unit Cognitive assessment tool. Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord 2010;29:516-22.
- Strauss E, Sherman EM, Spreen O. A Compendium of Neuropsychological Tests: Administration, Norms, and Commentary. 3rd ed. New York: Oxford University Press; 2006.
- 25. Tavakoli M, Barekatain M, Emsaki G. An Iranian normative sample of the color trails test. Psychol Neurosci 2015;8:75-81.
- Jones-Gotman M, Milner B. Design fluency: The invention of nonsense drawings after focal cortical lesions. Neuropsychologia 1977;15:653-74.
- Sheehan DV, Lecrubier Y, Sheehan KH, Amorim P, Janavs J, Weiller E, et al. The Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview (M.I.N.I.): The development and validation of a structured diagnostic psychiatric interview for DSM-IV and ICD-10. J Clin Psychiatry 1998;59 Suppl 20:22-33.
- Montazeri A, Harirchi AM, Shariati M, Garmaroudi G, Ebadi M, Fateh A. The 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12): Translation and validation study of the Iranian version. Health Qual Life Outcomes 2003;1:66.
- 29. Rabin LA, Roth RM, Isquith PK, Wishart HA, Nutter-Upham KE, Pare N, *et al.* Self- and informant reports of executive function on the BRIEF-A in MCI and older adults with cognitive complaints. Arch Clin Neuropsychol 2006;21:721-32.
- Zeidi I, Hajiagha A, Zeidi B. Reliability and validity of Persian version of the health-promoting lifestyle profile. J Mazand Univ Med Sci 2012;22 Supple 1:103-13.
- **31.** Sohlberg M, Mateer C. Attention process training: A program for cognitive rehabilitation to address persons with attentional deficits ranging from mild to severe. 3rd ed.. Wake Forest, NC: Lash and Associates Publishing/Training Inc.; 2005.
- Levine B, Robertson IH, Clare L, Carter G, Hong J, Wilson BA, et al. Rehabilitation of executive functioning: An experimental-clinical validation of goal management training. J Int Neuropsychol Soc 2000;6:299-312.
- 33. van Hooren SA, Valentijn SA, Bosma H, Ponds RW, van Boxtel MP, Levine B, *et al.* Effect of a structured course involving goal management training in older adults: A randomised controlled trial. Patient Educ Couns 2007;65:205-13.
- von Cramon D, Matthes-von Cramon G, Mai N. Problem-solving deficits in brain-injured patients: A therapeutic approach. Neuropsychol Rehabil 1991;1:45-64.
- Rath JF, Langenbahn DM, Simon D, Sherr RL, Fletcher J, Diller L. The construct of problem solving in higher level neuropsychological assessment and rehabilitation. Arch Clin Neuropsychol 2004;19:613-35.
- 36. Naeini AM, Elmadfa I, Djazayery A, Barekatain M, Ghazvini MR, Djalali M, *et al.* The effect of antioxidant Vitamins E and C on cognitive performance of the elderly with mild cognitive impairment in Isfahan, Iran: A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial. Eur J Nutr 2014;53:1255-62.
- Gates NJ, Valenzuela M, Sachdev PS, Singh NA, Baune BT, Brodaty H, *et al.* Cognitive and memory training in adults at risk of dementia: A systematic review. BMC Geriatr 2011;21:11-9.
- 38. Crawford JR. Introduction to the assessment of attention and executive functioning. Neuropsychol Rehabil 1998;8:209-11.
- 39. Zhang Y, Han B, Verhaeghen P, Nilsson LG. Executive functioning in older adults with mild cognitive impairment: MCI has effects on

planning, but not on inhibition. Neuropsychol Dev Cogn B Aging Neuropsychol Cogn 2007;14:557-70.

40. Shao YK, Mang J, Li PL, Wang J, Deng T, Xu ZX. Computer-based cognitive programs for improvement of memory, processing speed and executive function during age-related cognitive decline:

A meta-analysis. PLoS One 2015;10:e0130831.

41. Clare L, Woods RT, Moniz Cook ED, Orrell M, Spector A. Cognitive rehabilitation and cognitive training for early-stage Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2003; 4:CD003260.

