

High-Definition Transcranial Direct Current Stimulation Improves Delayed Memory in Alzheimer's Disease Patients: A Pilot Study Using Computational Modeling to Optimize Electrode Position

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Abstract.

Background: The optimal stimulation parameters when using transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS) to improve memory performance in patients with Alzheimer's disease (AD) are lacking. In healthy individuals, inter-individual differences in brain anatomy significantly influence current distribution during tDCS, an effect that might be aggravated by variations in cortical atrophy in AD patients.

Objective: To measure the effect of individualized HD-tDCS in AD patients.

Methods: Nineteen AD patients were randomly assigned to receive active or sham high-definition tDCS (HD-tDCS). Computational modeling of the HD-tDCS-induced electric field in each patient's brain was analyzed based on magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scans. The chosen montage provided the highest net anodal electric field in the left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC). An accelerated HD-tDCS design was conducted (2 mA for 3 × 20 min) on two separate days. Pre- and post-intervention cognitive tests and T1 and T2-weighted MRI and diffusion tensor imaging data at baseline were analyzed.

Results: Different montages were optimal for individual patients. The active HD-tDCS group improved significantly in delayed memory and MMSE performance compared to the sham group. Five participants in the active group had higher scores on delayed memory post HD-tDCS, four remained stable and one declined. The active HD-tDCS group had a significant positive correlation between fractional anisotropy in the anterior thalamic radiation and delayed memory score.

Conclusion: HD-tDCS significantly improved delayed memory in AD. Our study can be regarded as a proof-of-concept attempt to increase tDCS efficacy. The present findings should be confirmed in larger samples.

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease, computational modeling, NIBS, noninvasive brain stimulation, tDCS, transcranial direct current stimulation

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INTRODUCTION

While ultimately searching for a cure for Alzheimer's disease (AD), research on treatment options to slow cognitive decline plays an important role [1]. Transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS) is a promising method for reducing memory impairment in AD [2]. During tDCS, two or more electrodes are placed on the scalp and deliver weak, typically 1–2 mA, current to the head, which induces electric fields in the cortex underneath the electrodes. Although promising, the results of applying tDCS to treat cognitive symptoms in AD are still inconsistent [3]. Even though key symptoms and patterns of brain atrophy related to AD are clearly defined, individual cases show great heterogeneity regarding the severity of symptoms, progression from early to severe stages, and the extent of brain degeneration [4]. All these factors can change the effectiveness of noninvasive brain stimulation on symptoms. Of note, however, are anatomical differences that may contribute strongly to variations in stimulation outcomes by influencing current distribution in the cortex [5, 6].

AD in its early stages is characterized by memory impairment [7], which can be measured with delayed memory tasks [8, 9]. Delayed memory refers to the ability to both recognize and recall information after a retention period. Although AD atrophy starts in the medial temporal lobe [10–12], frontal pathology is a key determinant of the clinical manifestations often reported by patients and their relatives [13]. In AD, neuroplasticity and excitability in the DLPFC are impaired [14]. Several tDCS studies have targeted the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC) in AD patients [15–18] since tDCS modulates neuronal activity and neuroplasticity by changing the excitability of stimulated brain areas [19].

In addition to gray matter atrophy, structural disconnections in AD have been demonstrated using diffusion tensor imaging (DTI), which enables the measurement of microstructural properties of the white matter. Several DTI studies have shown widespread white matter changes related to AD in temporal and parietal regions [20]. Studies have also revealed less fractional anisotropy (FA) and higher mean diffusivity (MD) in the cingulum bundle, the fornix and the splenium of the corpus callosum [21, 22]. In addition, AD patients have reduced FA in the anterior thalamic radiation (ATR) tract compared to both healthy controls and elderly patients with major depressive disorder [23]. The ATR tract connects the

anterior and middle nuclear groups of the thalamus with the frontal lobes, and the DLPFC in particular [23, 24]. FA reduction in these pathways is correlated with cognitive decline [25]. Studies of white matter integrity and tDCS outcome in patients with aphasia, [26] healthy participants and stroke patients [27] report a positive relation between FA values and improvement on cognitive tasks after treatment. The association between white matter tract alterations in AD and tDCS treatment effects has not, to our knowledge, been investigated previously.

Computational modeling is an emerging method in the field of noninvasive brain stimulation and enables simulation of the distribution of electric currents across different brain areas and tissues [28]. The specific individual anatomy of the gyri and sulci, the amount and distribution of the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), and the thickness of the scalp and skull are key variables that affect the pathway of tDCS currents [5, 6]. Supporting the role of CSF, Mahdavi and colleagues (2018) demonstrated that aging participants with gray matter reduction had lower current intensities in brain regions underneath the electrodes than younger participants without atrophy. A simulation study of two AD brains showed different effective stimulation sites in the cortex, even though electrode coordinates on the scalp were consistent [29]. To ensure that the target region of the cortex is affected by the tDCS-induced current, computational modeling may be especially important in AD studies, considering the strong heterogeneity in brain atrophy across patients [30–32].

Studies on AD to date have used conventional bipolar montages consisting of one anode electrode placed either over the left temporal cortex or over the left DLPFC, with the return electrode placed above the right hemisphere, often over the right DLPFC [2]. Modeling studies of conventional tDCS protocols demonstrate diffuse current flow between the electrodes, where the peak current density can be located between the two electrodes, rather than underneath [6, 31, 33, 34]. HD-tDCS increases focality, compared to conventional tDCS [33]. This method typically consists of smaller electrodes, in which one anode electrode is placed above the target region, surrounded by four return electrodes. This montage is also often referred to as a “4 × 1 montage” [6, 35].

Brain degeneration in AD is linked to both the progression of cognitive impairment [10] and to the alteration of tDCS-induced current propagation [29]. It is of clinical importance to study how gray matter atrophy and white matter alterations related to

AD impact the clinical effects of tDCS. A study by Kim and colleagues [36] in a nonclinical group revealed a positive correlation between current intensity in the DLPFC and performance on cognitive tasks after tDCS treatment. However, an analysis of tDCS-induced currents in the DLPFC has not been conducted in AD patients. It also remains elusive how anatomical properties are linked to performance on cognitive tests following tDCS in the AD population.

The aim of the present study was to investigate the effect of HD-tDCS on memory performance in patients with AD, with two main outcome measures: 1) cognitive test scores measured before and after HD-tDCS intervention and 2) MRI data investigating the relationship between inter-individual variability in brain anatomy and the effect of tDCS treatment. To optimize tDCS focality over the DLPFC, electrode placement was tailored to each individual patient. Computational modeling of HD-tDCS-induced electric fields was used to predict the current flow in each participant, aiding the selection of the electrode montage from a set of eight different possibilities that had a) the highest anodal stimulation in the DLPFC compared to other regions of the brain and b) of the montages that fulfilled rule a, the montage with the highest anodal current compared to the cathodal current in this region was chosen. Our main hypothesis was that participants receiving HD-tDCS would show better performance on delayed memory tasks after treatment than participants receiving sham stimulation. We also expected that individual anatomy would affect HD-tDCS treatment, with a negative correlation between improvement in delayed memory and white matter alterations, operationalized as reduced FA and increased MD. Cortical thickness, surface area and volume were hypothesized to have a positive correlation with memory improvement. Furthermore, we hypothesized that there would be a positive correlation between improvement in delayed memory after HD-tDCS and the tDCS-induced electric field in the left DLPFC.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants

The study consisted of a double-blind, sham (placebo)-controlled, parallel-group trial, with an allocation ratio of 1:1. Participants had to fulfill the criteria for the diagnosis of probable AD according to the National Institute of Neurological and Communicative Disorders and Stroke Alzheimer Disease and

Related Disorders Association (NINCDS-ADRDA [37, 38], section 4.2: “Probable Alzheimer’s disease with increased level of certainty”). Further inclusion criteria were as follows: aged 60–85 years, a Mini-Mental Status Examination (MMSE) score of >17, and if medicated for AD (with memantine or cholinesterase inhibitors) the dose had to have been stable for >90 days. The exclusion criteria were depression or other psychiatric diagnoses present at enrollment, cancer, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, metal in the body interfering with MRI, or severe sight- and/or hearing disabilities that would affect cognitive testing.

Participants were recruited from the Department of Geriatric Medicine at the University Hospital of North Norway (UNN), Tromsø. All participants signed written consent approved by The Regional Committees for Medical and Health Research Ethics (REK, project number 2017/794). This is a pilot study reporting the results of the first six HD-tDCS sessions of a more extensive study registered at ClinicalTrials.gov (Identifier: NCT03325205). MRI scans were performed at UNN. All other data were collected at UiT The Arctic University of Norway.

MRI acquisition

MRI data were acquired by a Siemens Skyra 3 T scanner located at UNN. T1-weighted images were acquired with a 3D MPRAGE sequence with following parameters: TR/TE = 2300/ 2.96 ms, flip angle = 9°, matrix size = 256 × 256, 192 sagittal slices, and voxel size = 1 × 1 × 1 mm. T2-weighted images were acquired with a 3D turbo spin echo sequence with the following parameters: TR/TE = 14,404/93 ms, flip angle = 111°, no fat suppression, matrix size = 256 × 256, 192 sagittal slices, voxel size = 1 × 1 × 1 mm. DTI was acquired with: TR/TE = 10,700/80 milliseconds, b-value = 1000 s/mm², 30 gradient directions, matrix size 112 × 112, with 70 axial slices 2 mm thick, voxel size = 2 × 2 × 2 mm, with parallel acceleration factor 2. Total scan time was 24 min.

Creation of head models and computational modeling

Head models creation and simulation of the tDCS-induced electric field (E-field) were based on the pre-released version of SimNIBS 2.1 (<http://www.simnibs.org/>) [39]. The E-field was simulated for eight different 4 × 1 montages centered

Table 1

Electrode positions for the eight HD-tDCS montages used for simulation in SimNIBS

Anode	Cathodes
F3	F7, C3, Fz, and Fp1
F5	F9, C5, F1, and Fp1
FFC5h	AF3, F7, FTT7h, and FCC3h
FC3	FT7, CP3, FCz, and AF3
FFC3h	AFF5h, FCC5h, FCC1h, and AFF1h
F1	F5, C1, F2, and Fp1
AF3	AF7, FFC5h, Fz, and Fpz
AFF5h	F9, FC3, AFF1h, and Fp1

Electrode labels are based on the extended 10/20 EEG- system.

over the DLPFC for each brain (Table 1). Calculations of the normal component of the E-field were based on the finite element method (FEM) [40]. The normal component is oriented perpendicular to the cortical surface, with the current either flowing inward or

outward. Current entering the cortex is commonly associated with increased neural excitability (“anodal effect”, positive values of the normal component), whereas current leaving the gray matter towards the CSF is inhibitory in nature (“cathodal effect”, negative values of the normal E-field) [41]. Detailed head models were created based on T1 and T2 MRI images, consisting of five different tissue types: skin, skull, gray matter, white matter, and CSF (Fig. 1). Conductivity values for the different tissue types were based on default settings in SimNIBS (Supplementary Table 1). The DLPFC was located in each brain according to the Ranta atlas [42, 43]. The electrode montage was chosen based on two rules. Rule 1 was that the highest value of anodal current had to be in the left DLPFC compared to other regions in the frontal cortex. For the montages that fulfilled rule 1, rule 2

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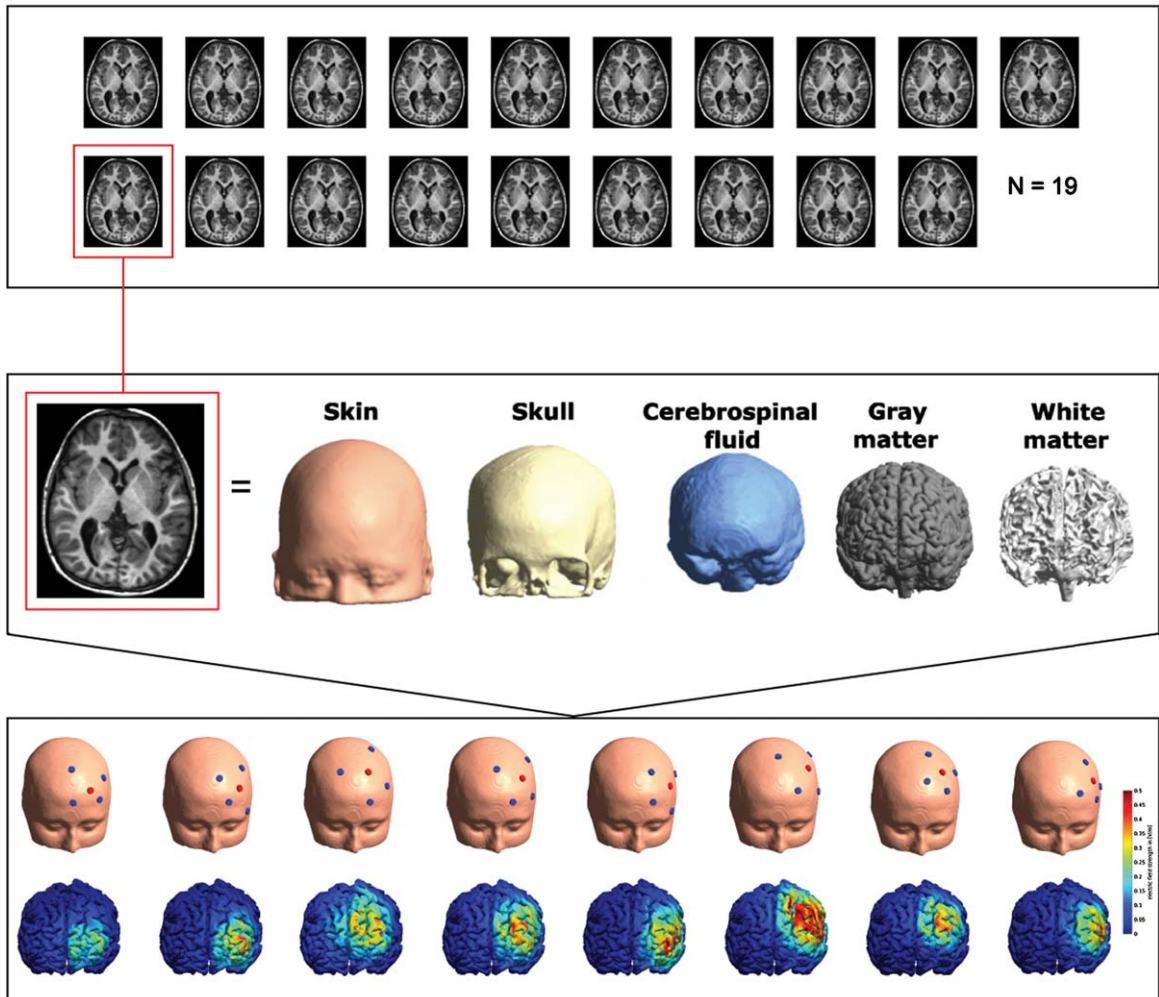


Fig. 1. Computational modeling workflow. Each patient's MRI (top panel) was used to create detailed anatomically realistic head models (middle panel). For each of these head models, we simulated eight different electrode placements centered over the DLPFC (bottom panel).

was applied, which was that the montage with the highest difference between anodal minus cathodal E-field in the left DLPFC was chosen. This second rule was designed to prevent strong cathodal currents in the target area, which are associated with neural inhibition. Therefore, this measure of the difference between anodal and cathodal E-fields can be regarded as the “net” maximal anodal E-field in the target area.

All electrodes were round-shaped, with a diameter of 12 mm and thickness of 1 mm plus a gel layer of 2.5 mm. Current intensity for the anodal electrode was set to 2 mA, with each of the 4 cathodes receiving a current intensity of 0.5 mA. Individual placement of tDCS electrodes was achieved by first manually defining four reference points (nasion,inion, left and right pre-auricular points), and using these as inputs to an adapted version of a published script [44].

Group allocation: Real HD-tDCS and sham HD-tDCS

Block randomization was generated by a computer randomization list (Randomizer.gov). The list was prepared by an investigator with no clinical involvement in the trial. The allocation rate was 1:1 using block sizes of 10. Labels depicting anodal tDCS (“1”) and sham tDCS (“2”) were placed in sealed envelopes with serial numbers written on the envelope according to the randomization list. The envelopes were shuffled, and the participants received the envelope at the top of the pile when enrolled in the study. The tDCS device was set to double-blind mode.

tDCS

Active or sham HD-tDCS was applied over the DLPFC via five surface-based round electrodes (12 mm in diameter) using a CE mark-approved Starstim® tDCS system from Neuroelectronics. There was a single anode electrode in the middle (2 mA) surrounded by four cathode electrodes (0.5 mA each). The montage over the DLPFC was optimized for each participant based on the results from computational modeling (see “Creation of head models and computational modeling”). The electrodes were fixed to the head using the Starstim cap for the F3 montage and a 128 channel EEG cap for the other montages.

For the HD-tDCS group, the current was ramped up to 2 mA over a duration of 30 s and remained at this strength for 19 min before it was ramped down to 0 mA over the last 30 s. For the sham condition, the current was ramped up to 2 mA over the first 30 s and then ramped down again to 0 mA during the next 30 s. The same procedure was performed after 18 min. This sham procedure does not give a significant dose of tDCS, but makes the patients feel both the ramp up and ramp down sensation of tDCS to increase blinding. A total of six sessions were applied over two days, with one or two days of rest in between. Three HD-tDCS sessions were given each day with an “accelerated tDCS design” of 20 min of HD-tDCS – 15 min of rest – 20 min of HD-tDCS – 15 min of rest – 20 min of HD-tDCS. All participants received a local anesthetic (EMLA) cream applied to the locations at the scalp where the electrodes would be placed 30 min before the stimulation, for reducing both itching and discomfort in the HD-tDCS group and to facilitate higher blinding efficiency between the two groups. During the stimulation-sessions the patients were seated comfortable in a chair, resting. The “offline” design was chosen based on previous reviews showing that offline tDCS was found to be more effective than “online” designs for older adults [45]. The design was also chosen to make the tDCS procedure less overwhelming for the AD patients that suffer from reduced cognitive capacity with increased risk of tiredness. To make the test situation as similar as possible between pre- and post-testing and to minimize test-fatigue in AD patients, post-tests were administered with a two-day delay after the last HD-tDCS session. An additional rationale for the two-day delay was to measure whether multiple sessions of tDCS in an accelerated design gave effects useful for the patients in their daily living, based on LTP effects, rather than solely acute effects [46].

The participants visited the university five times for different procedures, including screening and pretesting, six active or sham sessions of HD-tDCS and post-test (see Fig. 2).

Neuropsychological assessment

The primary outcome measures were immediate and delayed verbal memory, based on tests from

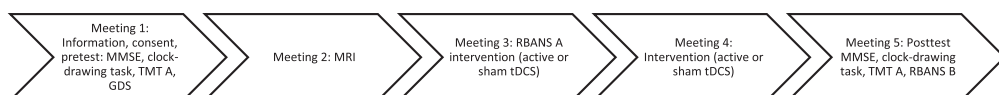


Fig. 2. Procedure for testing and treatment.

346 the Repeatable Battery for the Assessment of Neu- 396
347ropsychological Status (RBANS). RBANS is a 397
348 standardized neuropsychological test battery used in 398
349 both basic research and clinical assessment [47–49]. 399
350 The test shows high specificity (82%) and sensitiv- 400
351 ity (98%) for the detection of AD [50]. Immediate 401
352 memory consists of a 10-item list that is repeated 402
353 and that the participant is to immediately recall four 403
354 times and a story that is repeated and that the par- 404
355 ticipant is to immediately recall two times. Delayed 405
356 memory consists of both verbal and visual memory 406
357 tasks. After approximately 20 min, the 10-item 407
358 list was used to test recall and recognition, whereas 408
359 a story was used to test recall. In addition, there 409
360 is a visual recall test of a complex figure. RBANS 410
361 consists of two parallel versions (A and B), with 411
362 different wordlists and stories to reduce test-retest 412
363 effects. Reliability coefficients are between 0.81 and 413
364 0.94 for the population between 60 and 89 years of 414
365 age [47]. Secondary outcome measures consisted of 415
366 global cognitive function using the RBANS battery, 416
367 covering five domains: immediate verbal memory, 417
368 visuospatial/constructional, language, attention, and 418
369 delayed visual and verbal memory. Screening tests for 419
370 dementia were also part of the secondary outcomes, 420
371 consisting of MMSE [51], clock drawing test [52], 421
372 and Trail Making Test part A [53]. 422

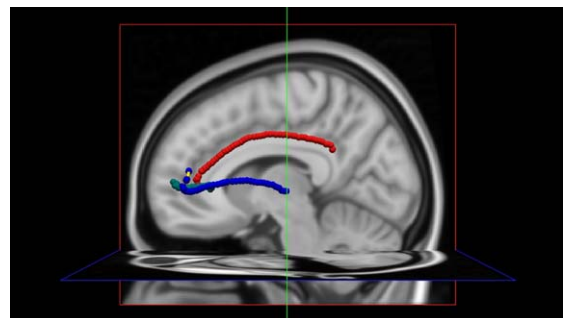
373 MRI analysis

374 Volume, surface area and thickness values were 423
375 provided by FreeSurfer version 6.0 software [54] 424
376 with the recon-all processing pipeline. This pipeline 425
377 includes motion correction, normalization to Tala- 426
378 irach space, intensity bias correction, skull stripping, 427
379 surface registration and segmentation. FreeSurfer 428
380 segmentation outputs were visually inspected in 429
381 FreeSurfer's visualization application *Free View* for 430
382 severe errors as recommended in the FreeSurfer 431
383 documentation (e.g., skull strip errors, segmentation 432
384 errors, and pial surface misplacement) and no severe 433
385 errors were found. Thus, no manual correction was 434
386 performed on the segmentation outputs. To calculate 435
387 cortical thickness, FreeSurfer use the algorithm of 436
388 mean distance between vertices of a corrected, tri- 437
389 angulated white matter surface and the pial surface 438
390 [55]. See Fischl and colleagues [56, 57] for a full 439
391 description of the FreeSurfer processing steps of par- 440
392 cellation and segmentation. The hippocampal volume 441
393 and the parcellated thickness of the entorhinal cortex 442
394 were analyzed since they are hallmark structures of 443
395 AD atrophy [10]. Based on the modeling studies of

Miranda [28] showing altered tDCS-current distribu- 396
397 tion due to gray matter atrophy, analysis of total gray 398
399 matter volume was also included in the measurements 400
401 in FreeSurfer. 402

403 Statistical analyses of cortical thickness and sur- 404
405 face area were performed within the software package 406
407 Permutation Analysis of Linear Models (PALM) 408
409 [58]. *Mris_preproc* was used for resampling the 410
411 individual surfaces to an average surface to accom- 412
413 modate statistical analysis in FS 6.0. The design 414
415 matrixes for the permutation analyses consisted of 416
417 score changes on the delayed memory test and in age. 418
419 Both covariates were mean centered before the analy- 420
421 ses. Permutation analyses were performed with 5000 421
422 iterations, and threshold-free cluster enhancement 422
423 (TFCE) [59] was used for correction for multiple 423
424 comparisons [60]. A familywise error rate-corrected 424
425 $p < 0.05$ was considered significant. 425

426 The major white matter pathways were automat- 427
428 ically reconstructed with TRActs Constrained by 428
429 UnderLying Anatomy (TRACULA) [61]. TRAC- 429
430 ULA relies on the underlying anatomy from the 430
431 cortical parcellation and subcortical segmentation 431
432 accomplished using FreeSurfer. The *trac-all* script 432
433 was run that involved a) preprocessing of the DWI 433
434 (correction for motion and eddy currents), b) regis- 434
435 tration of the individual DW and anatomical images to 435
436 the common (atlas) space, c) reconstruction of white 436
437 matter tracts from the template using a deterministic 437
438 fiber tracking algorithm and d) extraction of statisti- 438
439 cs on standard diffusion measures (FA and MD) 439
440 for each reconstructed pathway. Labeling of white 440
441 matter tracts was based on an established protocol 441
442 [62]. Since the tDCS current was delivered to the 442
443 left DLPFC, the following tracts were analyzed: left 443
444 anterior thalamic radiation (IATR), left cingulum 444
445 cingulum bundle (ICCG), and forceps minor (FMIN). It 445



446 Fig. 3. White matter tracts. Green: Forceps minor. Blue: left 447
448 hemisphere Anterior Thalamic Radiation. Red: left hemisphere 448
449 cingulum cingulum bundle. 449

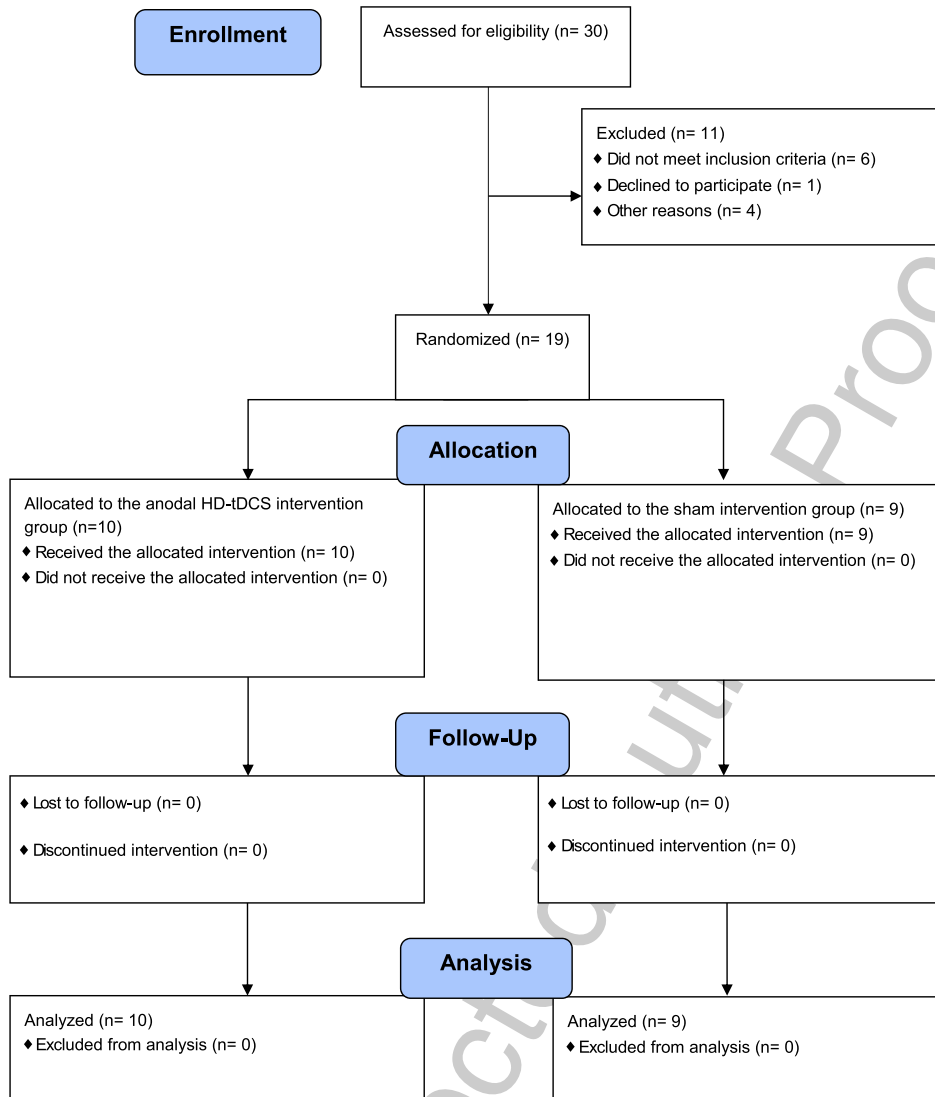


Fig. 4. CONSORT flow diagram showing participant flow through each stage of the trial.

was assumed that these tracts would be stimulated by the tDCS current due to their connections and/or closeness to the DLFPFC (Fig. 3). High FA values represent higher structural connectivity between nodes in a network. Individual differences in white matter (variations in structural connectivity) may influence the behavioral response to stimulation [27].

Statistical analyses

The demographic and clinical characteristics of the participants are described with means and standard deviations (SDs). Independent *t*-tests were used to compare the demographic and baseline data. Generalized linear models were used to test the difference

between groups from baseline to post-test on the outcome variables. The probability distribution used in the generalized regression models were normal distributions with identity links. The change scores (baseline – post-test) of the variables Delayed memory, Immediate memory, MMS, TMT, Clock Drawing Test, Verbal Performance, Visuospatial Performance, Attention, and RBANS total were used as dependent variables in separate analyses. Due to the small sample size, only group, baseline performance of the dependent variable, sex, and age of the participants were included as factors and covariates.

The HD-tDCS group was further divided into two subgroups based on their performance on the cognitive tests: a positive effect (PE) group, defined by a

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positive change in score on the delayed memory test, and a no effect (NE) group, defined by no change in score/negative change in score. An independent *t*-test was performed to assess whether there was a difference in E-field intensity in the left DLPFC between the PE and NE groups. To provide additional information, effect sizes (Hedges' *g*) were calculated for the *t*-tests. Values ≤ 0.49 indicated small effects, $0.50 \leq g \leq 0.79$ indicated medium effects, and $g \geq 0.80$ indicated large effects. The results were expressed as the mean \pm SD. Data were analyzed with SPSS version 26 (<http://www.spss.com>). *p* values below 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Data collection for this study took place from July 2017 to March 2020. Thirty ($N=30$) participants with a mean age of 78.80 ± 7.42 years (22 females) consented to participate. Six participants scored lower than 17 on the MMSE screening test and were excluded from the study. One participant decided to withdraw after Meeting 1 (due to worsening of the disease). Three participants could not complete the study due to the COVID-19 lockdown. Twenty participants underwent MRI scans. One participant was excluded due to poor MRI scan quality. A flow diagram is shown in Fig. 4. All analyses are based on a final sample of nineteen participants ($N=19$), with an age range from 61 to 83 years and a mean age of 72.58 ± 7.19 years (14 females). No adverse effects were reported or observed during the intervention.

Baseline characteristics

Table 2 shows the baseline characteristics of the two groups. There was a significant difference in the delayed memory scores at baseline (HD-tDCS group: $M = 14.00$, $SD = 2.87$, sham group: $M = 22.67$, $SD = 9.79$; $t(17) = -2.68$, $p = 0.016$). The maximum score possible on the delayed memory tasks was 62.

Optimal electrode montage

Of the eight different montages that were simulated over the left DLPFC, four were selected for at least one of the participants (Table 3). See Fig. 5 for an example of a chosen montage over the DLPFC.

Effect of HD-tDCS on cognitive performance

A Shapiro-Wilk test ($p > 0.05$) and a visual inspection of the participants' histograms, normal Q-Q plots, and box plots showed that all RBANS subscores and the RBANS total score for the two groups were not significantly different from normal distributions. For the screening tests (MMSE, Clock Drawing Test, and TMT), however, data from the sham group were not normally distributed. In the HD-tDCS group, data for all screening tests except the clock-drawing test were normally distributed.

The generalized linear model showed that delayed memory change scores were different between the HD-tDCS group and the sham group shown by the main effect of group ($B = 3.13$, $SE = 1.51$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 4.26$, $p = 0.039$) with higher change in the HD-tDCS group compared to the sham group. None of the other included covariates (baseline memory performance, age, and sex) reached significance (all

Table 2
Baseline characteristics

Measures	Total (Mean \pm SD)	HD-tDCS group (Mean \pm SD)	Sham group (Mean \pm SD)	<i>p</i>
<i>Demographics</i>				
Number	19	10	9	
Age		69.20 \pm 5.92	76.33 \pm 6.84	0.026*
Sex (Females:Males)	14:5	9:1	5:4	0.098
<i>Test scores (Maximal scores)</i>				
RBANS delayed memory (92)	18.11 \pm 8.15	14.00 \pm 2.87	22.67 \pm 9.79	0.016*
RBANS immediate memory (64)	24.84 \pm 10.63	23.00 \pm 10.92	26.89 \pm 10.53	0.442
RBANS visuospatial (40)	26.79 \pm 8.75	25.80 \pm 8.39	27.89 \pm 9.52	0.618
RBANS attention (92)	26.42 \pm 12.74	26.90 \pm 9.12	25.89 \pm 16.47	0.869
RBANS language (49)	17.10 \pm 6.71	18.30 \pm 8.11	15.78 \pm 4.84	0.429
RBANS total (634)	297.42 \pm 79.78	288.40 \pm 70.81	307.44 \pm 92.01	0.618
MMSE (30)	21.26 \pm 4.09	20.00 \pm 3.40	22.67 \pm 4.53	0.162
Clock-drawing test (5)	3.63 \pm 1.54	3.30 \pm 1.70	4.00 \pm 1.32	0.335
TMT A (240)	75.11 \pm 30.05	65.60 \pm 10.10	85.67 \pm 40.97	0.151

MMSE, Mini-Mental Status Examination; TMT A, Trail Making Task A. RBANS raw scores. *Indicates $p < 0.05$.

Table 3
Overview of all simulated stimulation montages and how often they were chosen in the HD-tDCS and sham groups

Anode	Cathodes	Chosen montage	
		HD-tDCS group	Sham group
F3	F7, C3, Fz, and Fp1	5	5
F5	F9, C5, F1, and Fp1	–	–
FFC5h	AF3, F7, FTT7h, and FCC3h	–	–
FC3	FT7, CP3, FCz, and AF3	–	–
FFC3h	AFF5h, FCC5h, FCC1h, and AFF1h	1	–
F1	F5, C1, F2, and Fp1	–	–
AF3	AF7, FFC5h, Fz, and Fpz	1	–
AFF5h	F9, FC3, AFF1h, and Fp1	3	4

Electrode labels are based on the extended 10/20 EEG- system.

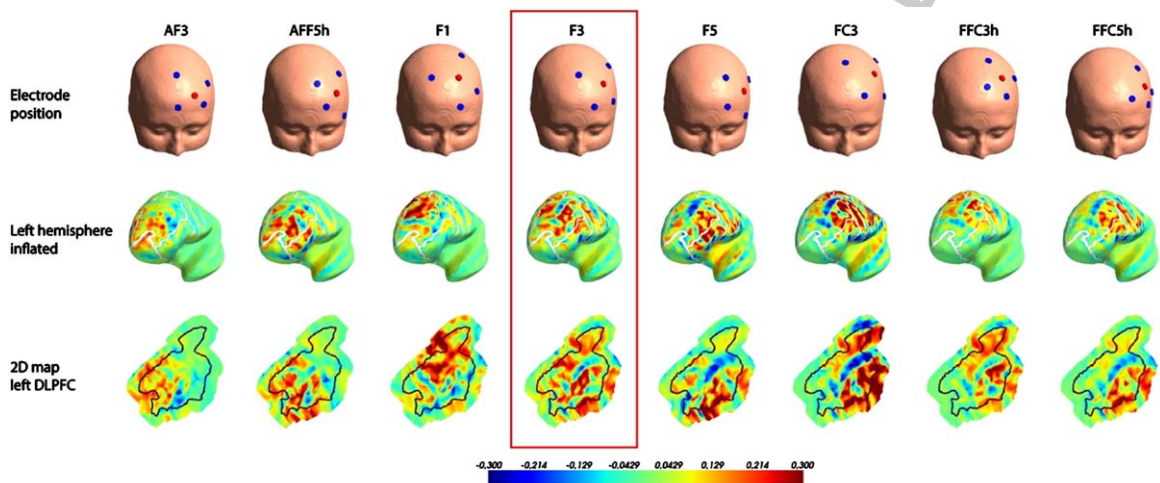


Fig. 5. Selection of the optimal electrode montage for the DLPFC in one participant. Selected montage is based on the net maximal anodal E-field in the left DLPFC. Row 1: electrode placement on the head (with the label of the anode highlighted in red). Row 2: Inflated brains showing the left hemisphere. Row 3: 2D map of the left DLPFC, with the magnitude of the normal component of the electric field depicted in a polarity-specific way (anodal E-field: hot colors; cathodal E-field: cold colors).

524 ps > 0.39). MMSE performance improved in the HD-
525 tDCS group compared to the sham group ($B = 2.78$,
526 $SE = 1.12$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 6.13$, $p = 0.013$), and the
527 effect of Age on the change score on MMSE was
528 significant ($B = -0.16$, $SE = 0.08$, Wald $\chi^2(1) = 2.49$,
529 $p = 0.041$) showing that lower age was associated with
530 better MMSE performance. There were no other sig-
531 nificant group effects for the other outcome variables,
532 see Supplementary Table 2.

533 *E-field in the left DLPFC and score changes on* 534 *the delayed memory subtest*

535 Pearson's correlation analysis indicated a non-
536 significant positive correlation between the score

537 change on the delayed memory subtest in the HD-
538 tDCS group and the net maximal anodal E-field in
539 the DLPFC ($r(8) = 0.34$, $p = 0.34$). An independent t -
540 test showed no significant difference in the net anodal
541 E-field in the target region between the participants
542 who had improved performance on delayed memory
543 after HD-tDCS treatment ($M = 0.07$ V/m, $SD = 0.03$)
544 and the participants who did not show improved per-
545 formance on memory tasks after HD-tDCS treatment
546 ($M = 0.05$ V/m, $SD = 0.003$); $t(8) = 1.26$, $p = 0.242$.
547 However, the effect size was $g = 0.78$, indicating that
548 participants in the HD-tDCS with improved mem-
549 ory scores had a moderately higher mean net anodal
550 E-field in the DLPFC than participants who did not
551 improve their delayed memory performance after
552 HD-tDCS. Figure 6 shows the score change on the

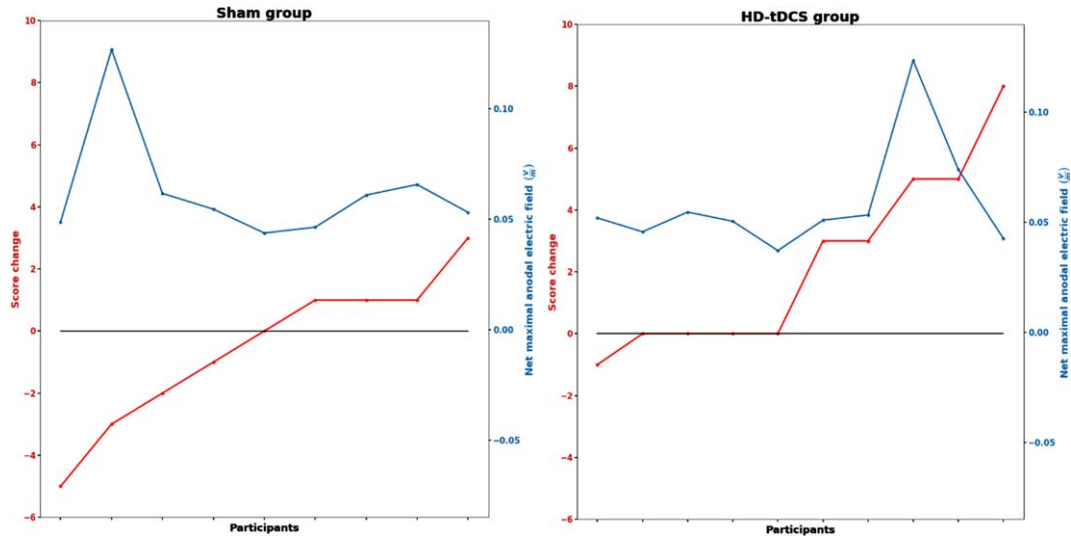


Fig. 6. Score changes in the delayed memory subtest and net anodal E-field in the left DLPFC. Score changes in the delayed memory subtest (red) and net anodal E-field in the left DLPFC (blue) in the sham and HD-tDCS groups. Dots on the same vertical line represent a participant. In both groups, patients are ordered according to the magnitude of the increase in the delayed memory subtest score.

553 delayed memory subtest and the maximal anodal E-
554 field value in the DLPFC for each participant.

555 *Relationship between score changes and brain*
556 *volume, cortical thickness, and cortical surface*
557 *area*

558 Correlation analysis of MRI data collected at base-
559 line (total gray matter volume, volume of the left and

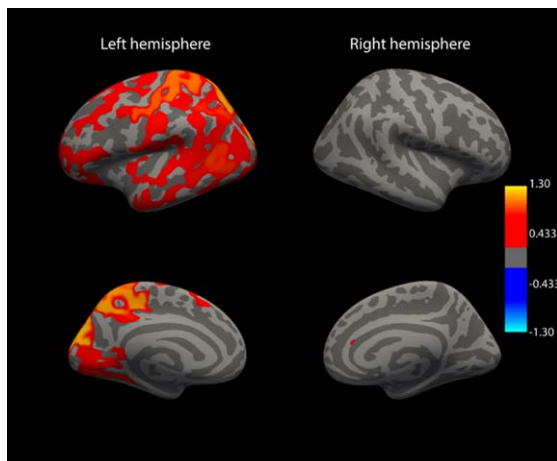


Fig. 7. PALM analysis of cortical thickness in the left hemisphere and score changes on the delayed memory test. Analysis showing a tendency towards an association between cortical thickness and score change on delayed memory in the HD-tDCS group. This association was not statistically significant. Color bars indicate $-\log_{10}(p)$ thresholds. Values of 1.3 imply a relation that is statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. The max value in the plot was 1.12, indicating a p value of 0.075.

560 right hippocampus, and cortical thickness of the left
561 and right entorhinal cortex) and score changes on
562 the delayed memory subtest showed no significant
563 results (Supplementary Tables 3 and 4). Permutation
564 analyses showed no statistically significant differ-
565 ences in cortical thickness or surface area between
566 the HD-tDCS and sham groups at baseline. There was
567 a tendency towards an association between cortical
568 thickness and score changes on the delayed memory
569 subtest, whereas participants in the HD-tDCS group
570 had higher score changes on the delayed memory
571 tasks (Fig. 7). The results were non-significant. These
572 associations were not found in the right hemisphere
573 in the HD-tDCS group. No association was found in
574 the sham group regarding thickness/surface area and
575 score changes for delayed memory.
576

577 *Correlation between memory performance and*
578 *DTI parameters*

579 FA and MD were measured in the IATR, ICCB,
580 and FMIN. Analysis was based on 16 participants
581 due to low quality MRI to complete DTI analysis
582 for three of the participants (HD-tDCS group = 9,
583 sham group = 7). T -tests showed no significant group
584 difference in DTI measures between the active and
585 sham groups at baseline (Fig. 8). Correlation analy-
586 sis (Table 4) showed a significant positive correlation
587 between FA in the HD-tDCS group in the IATR
588 and delayed memory subtest score changes ($r = 0.76$,

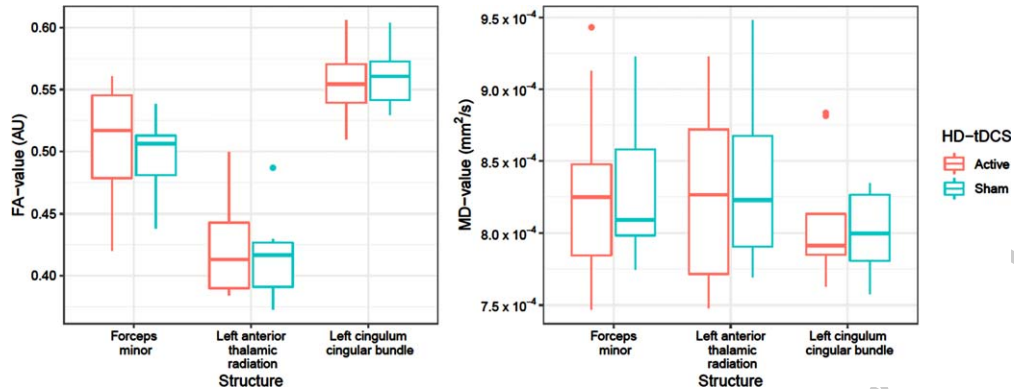


Fig. 8. Mean FA values (a) and mean MD values (b). Left anterior thalamic radiation (IATR); $t(14) = 0.52$, $p = 0.611$, left cingulum cingular bundle (ICCG); $t(14) = -0.44$, $p = 0.670$ and forceps minor (FMIN); $t(14) = 0.37$, $p = 0.721$ at baseline in the HD-tDCS and sham groups.

Table 4
Pearson correlations between delayed memory scores and DTI parameters in the HD-tDCS group

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. <i>delayed memory SC</i>	1.000						
2. FA IATR	0.760*	1.000					
3. MD IATR	-0.290	-0.721	1.000				
4. FA ICCG	0.513	0.834**	-0.583	1.000			
5. MD ICCG	-0.524	-0.713*	0.466	-0.905**	1.000		
6. FA FMIN	-0.354	-0.468	0.459	-0.542	0.548	1.000	
7. MD FMIN	0.578	0.286	0.123	0.443	-0.498	-0.642	1.000

Delayed memory SC, delayed memory score change; IATR, left anterior thalamic radiation; ICCG, left cingulum cingular bundle; FMIN, forceps minor. *Significant at the 0.05 level, **significant at the 0.01 level. The tests are not *post hoc* corrected.

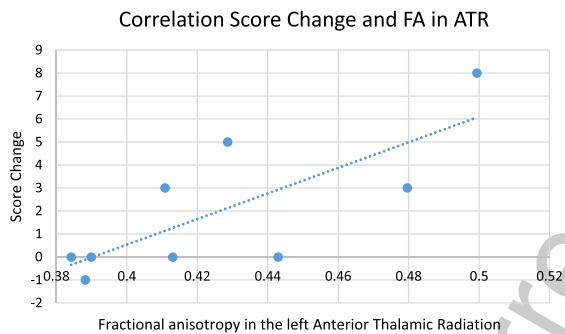


Fig. 9. Correlation of score change delayed memory and FA in the left Anterior Thalamic Radiation.

$p = 0.017$). The results are presented in a scatterplot (Fig. 9). There were no other significant results for FA or MD in the HD-tDCS group. In the sham group, there were no significant differences between changes in delayed memory performance and FA or MD.

DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study was to investigate whether HD-tDCS leads to improvements in memory

function in patients with AD. The second aim was to test relations between individual differences in brain anatomy and the cognitive effect of HD-tDCS. To increase the focality of tDCS, HD-tDCS was used, and electrode placement was individually optimized based on computational modeling of each participant's MRI scans.

Significant improvements in the primary outcome variable delayed memory and the secondary outcome variable MMSE were found in participants receiving HD-tDCS compared to the sham group. More specifically, five participants in the active group had higher scores on delayed memory post HD-tDCS, four remained stable and one declined with one point. The discovery of enhanced performance following tDCS is in line with previous findings in AD patients [63–65]. A review from Cai and colleagues, based on seven studies with a total of 146 AD patients concluded that tDCS had a significant effect on improving cognitive function overall; however, the results must be interpreted with caution. More specifically, considering previous studies on AD targeting the same region as the present study, the results regarding the therapeutic potential of tDCS vary. The conclusion of Boggio and colleagues [64] are in

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623 accordance with our results, showing that tDCS over
624 the left DLPFC had a positive effect on memory (measured with visual recognition tasks). Results from that
625 study were based on a single 2 mA tDCS session, lasting for 30 min, compared to our accelerated design
626 with a total of six 20 min sessions. Other studies that have shown improved cognitive performance after
627 tDCS over the left DLPFC in AD patients have used MMSE scores as their measure of cognitive improvement;
628 for example, the study by Khedr and colleagues [16] with 10 tDCS sessions and the home-based study
629 by Im and colleagues [17] delivering 2 mA every day over a 6-month period. In contrast to our findings,
630 Im et al. [16] did not find an improvement in delayed memory after tDCS. Delayed memory was not specifically
631 measured by Khedr et al. [16]. Not all tDCS studies over the DLPFC have shown promising effects. The
632 studies of Cotelli and colleagues [15] and Suemoto and colleagues [66] did not find tDCS superior to sham
633 stimulation, measuring memory and apathy, respectively. Although the same target region was stimulated
634 in all these studies, the primary outcome measures differ substantially. In addition, the severity of the
635 disease at enrollment is inconsistent across studies. These factors make comparison of the studies
636 challenging. As discussed by Khedr et al. [16], even though the electrode is placed over the DLPFC,
637 the current prediction is uncertain. All previous studies have used conventional tDCS compared to the
638 more focal HD-tDCS montage used in the present study. Since the current distributions vary in HD-tDCS
639 and conventional tDCS electrode montages [31], comparisons between studies are problematic. Rather,
640 our study should be considered as a proof-of-principle study showing how HD-tDCS affects the E-field
641 in the DLPFC of AD patients and exploring the relationship between HD-tDCS induced E-fields and
642 cognitive measures.

643 A significant positive correlation between FA in the HD-tDCS group in the anterior thalamic radiation
644 and the score change in the delayed memory subtest was found. These results support our hypothesis that
645 participants with more intact white matter connections show stronger effects of HD-tDCS as a memory
646 enhancer. The anterior thalamic nucleus receives information related to memory from the hippocampus,
647 whereas the anterior thalamic radiation, a white matter bundle, connects the thalamus to the frontal
648 cortex, especially to the DLPFC [23]. This result may indicate that patients with better-preserved white
649 matter connections between the stimulation site and the thalamus/hippocampus benefitted the most from
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675 HD-tDCS. If this bundle is only moderately damaged, communication between the anterior thalamus
676 and the left DLPFC may be enhanced by increasing DLPFC excitability, and thereby, the susceptibility of
677 neurons in that region to inputs from the thalamus. In addition, the analysis of cortical thickness showed
678 a tendency towards an association between larger thickness and score changes indicating improvement
679 on the delayed memory subtest. Intriguingly, such associations were absent in the right hemisphere of
680 patients receiving active HD-tDCS, or in both hemispheres of study participants in the sham HD-tDCS
681 group. Those with more preserved gray and white matter connections may therefore be more susceptible
682 to the beneficial effects of HD-tDCS. However, the relationship between cortical thickness and score
683 changes was not significant, and the low sample size of 16 subjects in the DTI analysis must be taken
684 into consideration when interpreting these results. The white matter tracts selected for the analysis
685 was based on its structural closeness to the stimulated target (DLPFC), grounded in the hypothesis
686 that structural connectivity between the stimulated target and the hippocampus influences tDCS effect.
687 Another approach to study white matter as a predictor for tDCS effect is to target the fornix, which is
688 memory-relevant tract with reduced FA values in AD patients. Adding this tract to the analysis could
689 further explore if white matter alterations could guideline which patients are most likely to benefit from
690 tDCS treatment.

691 The functional role of the HD-tDCS-induced E-field was studied by evaluating the relationship
692 between the magnitude of the E-field normal component and score changes in delayed memory. Even
693 though we found a large effect size in the net maximal anodal E-field in the DLPFC between participants
694 in the HD-tDCS group that had positive score changes on the delayed memory subtest and participants
695 in the HD-tDCS group with negative/no score changes, this finding was not significant. These results,
696 though inconclusive, are in line with the findings of Kim and colleagues [34] in healthy participants.
697 Mahdavi and colleagues' study demonstrated reduced current density in older adults with cognitive
698 impairment compared to younger adults [30]. Antonenko and colleagues argued how the E-field
699 variation between younger and older adults is affected by multiple factors, including atrophy, head
700 anatomy, and brain state [67]. In the present study, we optimized electrode placement by analyzing
701 E-field magnitude in the target area. However, we did not adjust the HD-tDCS
702

dose according to participants' head anatomy. Antenkeno and colleagues demonstrated that the electric field is reduced in relation to head volume [67]. In future studies, computational modeling can be used to adjust the current intensity to different AD patients to ensure that a similar amount of E-field is induced in the region of interest across participants. Supporting this point of view, in a modeling study of healthy individuals, significant inter-individual variability in response to tDCS across a range of current intensities was observed [68].

In the present study we stimulated the left DLPFC. In AD, the DLPFC is hypothesized to be a compensatory brain resource, helping memory function when the function of the medial temporal lobes is reduced [14, 69, 70]. Gigi and colleagues argue that this compensatory mechanism is strongest in prodromal stages of AD and in mild stages of the disease, diminishing with severe AD [69]. This can be linked to our observation that patients with a thicker cortex and better white matter connections tended to improve more on delayed memory tasks than patients with a thinner cortex. Episodic memory depends on many higher cognitive functions, such as attention, recognition, and familiarity [71], and this merging is affected by the connectivity between structures [72]. The HD-tDCS group did also improve MMSE performance compared to the sham group. Nonetheless, MMSE is a non-specific screening measure of cognitive functioning, and cerebral correlates for this measure are global rather than focal [73]. In healthy controls, stimulation of the DLPFC improved consolidation of long-term memory, showing a lasting effect of tDCS. Several studies have focused on the prodromal phase and the therapeutic implications of DLPFC stimulation in patients with MCI rather than stimulating patients with developed AD [74].

The delayed memory subtest and the MMSE were the only scores that differed statistically between the HD-tDCS group and the sham group after the HD-tDCS intervention. The DLPFC is active both during working memory and attention tasks, and one would assume that these functions would also be affected by the anodal current in the targeted area. However, the effects of tDCS over the DLPFC on executive functions and attention are highly inconsistent, and face the same challenges as discussed above when comparing results due to different electrode montages and outcome measures [75]. Since attention was not improved in the HD-tDCS group, the improvement in delayed memory cannot be interpreted as a result of an increase in overall alertness. To further address the

effect of tDCS on executive function in AD patients, specific executive tasks should be added to the test battery.

This study is the first to use HD-tDCS with the aim of improving memory impairment in AD patients. The results from our simulations resulted in four different HD-tDCS montages used to reach the maximal net anodal E-field in the left DLPFC. Considering the heterogeneity of cerebral atrophy in the AD population, focality in stimulation techniques is assumed to be especially important for reaching the desired region, considering that the current is affected by the CSF and the degree of atrophy [30]. Further analysis on a larger sample is needed to obtain more robust findings.

Based upon the literature up to September 2016, no recommendations could be made for the therapeutic approach of tDCS to enhance cognition in AD [76]. In recent years, several studies have explored different factors that can determine or affect the variations observed in the therapeutic response to tDCS, combining cognitive testing with biomarkers and neurophysiology [16, 17]. These combination studies provide information about the relationship between the cognitive effects observed after stimulation and the physiology behind tDCS. Even though the results at this point are scarce, exploratory studies are needed to establish clinical guidelines concerning the therapeutic potential of using tDCS in AD. Our study provides insights into how the HD-tDCS-induced E-field is distributed in the brain of an AD patient when using HD-tDCS over the left DLPFC. The significant results in our study, though on a small sample, support the need for further investigation of HD-tDCS as a therapeutic approach in AD.

The most substantial limitation of this study was the low sample size, which increased the risk of both type I and II errors. Unfortunately, low sample sizes are quite common in the AD-RCT field due to challenges in both recruitment and follow-up phases [77, 78]. In the present study a strict randomization procedure was followed, which resulted in significant baseline differences in delayed memory. There were also differences in patient characteristics of sex and age. Even though these differences were controlled for in the statistical analysis, this imbalance is a limitation to the study. In future studies, such biases could be reduced by using stratified randomization. In addition, we do not know if the significant improvement in delayed memory will persist over weeks or months. Another critical factor is that we did not apply a correction for multiple comparisons

to our cognitive tests. We opted not to correct for multiple comparisons to increase sensitivity to find potentially important effects (with the caveat of a higher risk for false positives, i.e., nonreplicable results). In this respect, our study should be regarded as proof-of-principle, and outcomes should be treated as preliminary.

None of the participants reported or showed signs of adverse effects. This is one of the benefits with tDCS. In addition, the devices are small, feasible and have a low cost. These advantages make it possible to consider tDCS as a treatment option for everyday use. Interesting home studies show promising results [17, 79]. Future studies should investigate the therapeutic effect of HD-tDCS on AD when combining daily sessions and optimized electrode positions.

In the present study an “offline” tDCS design was administrated. Whether online or offline stimulation is preferable is debatable, with studies on older adults showing in favor with offline designs [45, 80], while tDCS studies on other populations show “online” designs can give larger outcome effects on long- term memory [81]. Combining HD-tDCS with task relevant activity to AD patients may further increase tDCS effect since it potentiates task-relevant networks and should be further explored in future studies.

CONCLUSIONS

To increase focality in tDCS, computational modeling is a valuable method for analyzing the cortical flow of tDCS-induced E-field in AD. We found that HD-tDCS led to significantly improved delayed memory- and MMSE performance. Heterogeneity in brain anatomy resulted in four different montages when optimizing the electrode position to maximize the anodal intensity of DLPFC stimulation. FA in the IATR and score changes on the delayed memory subtest were positively correlated. Associations between the delayed memory effect of HD-tDCS and both E-field and cortical thickness were observed. These preliminary findings suggest that optimization of electrode placement may enhance the therapeutic effect of HD-tDCS as a memory enhancer in AD. Furthermore, patients with more preserved gray and white matter might benefit more from HD-tDCS than patients with more severe atrophy. tDCS therapy can be adjusted in the clinic to each patient's needs regarding brain anatomy, the degree of cortical atrophy and white matter alterations. A larger sample size is needed to draw firm conclusions.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

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CLINICAL TRIAL REGISTRATION

www.ClinicalTrials.gov, Identifier: NCT03325205.

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