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Featured Article

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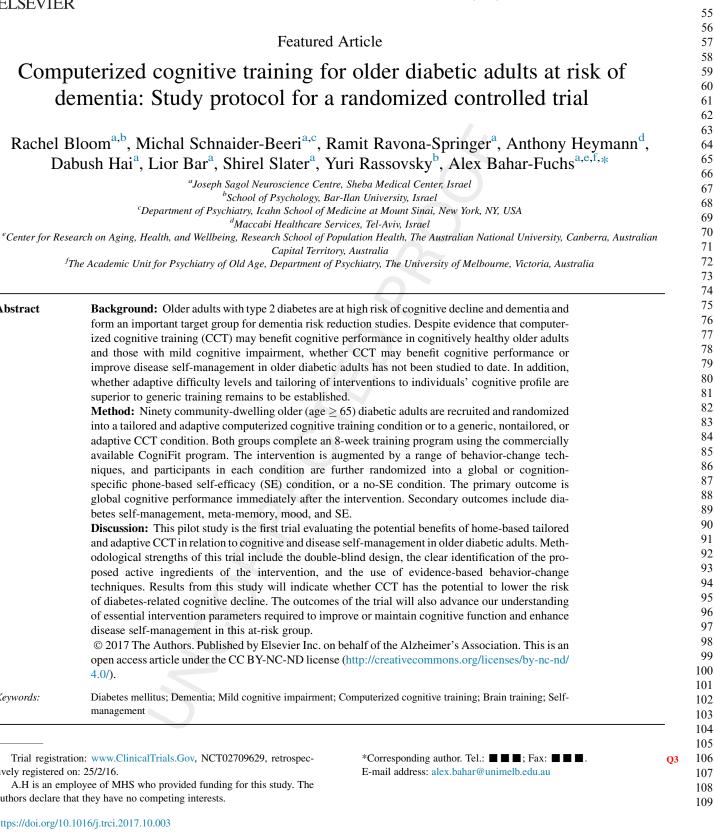
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superior to generic training remains to be established.

betes self-management, meta-memory, mood, and SE.

disease self-management in this at-risk group.



Keywords:

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management

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#### 110<sub>Q5</sub> 1. Background

# 111 112 1.1. Diabetes is a risk factor for cognitive impairment and 113 dementia

114 Dementia is firmly established as one of the most pressing 115 public health concerns faced by societies worldwide, 116 because of its very high and growing prevalence rates and 117 118 the staggering direct and indirect costs associated with its 119 management. Indeed, the World Health Organization ranked 120 dementia third in terms of disease burden [1], and accord-121 ingly, it is listed as a National Health Priority in several 122 countries, and coordinated global efforts to fight dementia 123 are reflected in legislation (e.g., National Alzheimer's Proj-124 ect Act, 2011) and campaigns such as the National Plan to 125 Address Alzheimer' Disease [2]. 126

Several factors, including the lack of effective treatments 127 to halt, alleviate, or reverse dementia symptoms, recent fail-128 ures of phase 2–3 trials of disease-modifying treatments [3], 129 130 the identification of modifiable risk and protective factors, 131 and a prolonged preclinical phase, have contributed to the 132 shifting of focus and resources to the possibility of preclin-133 ical prevention of dementia. Indeed, pharmacological and 134 nonpharmacological intervention efforts increasingly target 135 individuals at risk of dementia, reflecting hopes that inter-136 ventions delivered before full-blown dementia develop are 137 more likely to lead to improved outcomes. 138

Among the potentially modifiable risk factors for demen-139 tia, chronic metabolic conditions such as type-2 diabetes 140 have been repeatedly shown to be associated with increased 141 142 risk of cognitive decline [4,5], conversion of mild cognitive 143 impairment to dementia [6], and development of dementia-144 related disorders in general [7-9]. Although it has been 145 suggested that midlife onset of diabetes is more strongly 146 associated with dementia relative to onset of diabetes in 147 older age [10], others found no modulating effect of diabetes 148 duration on dementia risk [11], and yet others reported that 149 relative to nondiabetic older adults, cognitive compromise 150 in older diabetic adults is independent of age [12]. Among 151 the overall number of worldwide cases of diabetes, which 152 is currently estimated as 171 million and expected to in-153 crease to 366 million by the year 2030, type 2 is expected 154 155 to represent most cases [13] and currently has a 12% to 156 25% prevalence rate among individuals aged 65 years and 157 older [13,14]. Therefore, the elderly population is slated to 158 be most afflicted as the incidence of diabetes continues to 159 climb, contributing to the risk of cognitive decline and 160 dementia-related disorders in the elderly. 161

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#### 163 1.2. Cognitive impairment affects diabetes management

 ing medication (orally and/or intravenously), monitoring 171 172 blood glucose levels, exercising, adhering to appropriate di-173 etary guidelines, foot care, and maintaining regular health 174 care visits. In addition to the negative implications that 175 compromised cognition has on diabetes self-management, 176 untreated diabetes and poor self-management practice can 177 themselves lead to progressively worse cognition [16]. Our 178 group has previously reported that high hemoglobin A1c 179 (HbA1c), which is a leading predictor of type 2 diabetes 180 complications, modulates the association between pro-181 longed untreated diabetes and cognitive functioning [17]. 182 Furthermore, poor glucoregulatory control among untreated 183 184 diabetic patients causes greater cognitive decrement [18], 185 whereas improved glycemic control obtained by a reform 186 of subsequent medication adherence can attenuate cognitive 187 decline in individuals with diabetes [15,19,20]. Interestingly, 188 in the ACCORD trial [21], a large randomized control trial 189 (RCT) aimed at evaluating the effects of intensive pharma-190 cological glycemic control in adults with type 2 diabetes, a 191 small but significant benefit on the cognitive outcome (as re-192 flected in performance on the Digit-Symbol Substitution 193 Test) was found at the 20-month posttreatment evaluation 194 in the intensive glycemic control relative to the standard 195 196 treatment condition disappeared by an 80-month follow-up 197 [22]. However, this finding could be explained by a range 198 of factors, including that glycemic control in participants as-199 signed to the intensive and standard treatment conditions at 200 baseline was no longer different at the follow-up evaluation, 201 reliance on a single test of processing speed to measure 202 cognitive outcome, and participant dropout. Importantly, 203 the intensive glycemic control condition was terminated pre-204 maturely due to increased mortality among participants in 205 that arm, and the presence of more adverse events, including 206 hypoglycemia and weight gain [21], highlighting the impor-207 208 tance of careful lifestyle and risk factor management in the 209 achievement of optimal disease control in type 2 diabetes. 210

# *1.3. Rationale for computerized cognitive training to improve cognition in diabetics*

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As effective diabetes self-management is central to minimizing the risk of complications, including cognitive and functional decline, and because of the possible contribution of preexisting, possibly subclinical cognitive impairment to ineffective self-management in diabetes, interventions to enhance cognitive functions have the potential to disrupt this downward spiral. A conceptual framework for cognitive training in diabetes is shown in Fig. 1. Although the evidence regarding the utility of cognitive training for persons with dementia is relatively negative [23], recent high-quality systematic reviews with meta-analysis encourage computerized cognitive training (CCT) in relation to cognitive outcomes in people at risk of dementia due to mild cognitive impairment (MCI) [24-26], as well as among cognitively healthy older adults [27-29]. However, whether CCT can enhance cognitive functioning, and importantly, contribute to

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