# Working memory impairment as a common component in recurrent depressive disorder and certain somatic diseases

Piotr Gałecki 1\*, Monika Talarowska 1\*, Dariusz Moczulski 2, Kinga Bobińska 1, Katarzyna Opuchlik 3, Elżbieta Gałecka 4, Antoni Florkowski 1, Andrzej Lewiński 4

- 1 Department of Adult Psychiatry, Medical University of Lodz, Lodz, Poland
- 2 Department of Internal Medicine and Nephrodiabetology, Medical University of Lodz, Lodz, Poland
- 3 Department of Internal Medicine and Cardiac Rehabilitation, Medical University of Lodz, Lodz, Poland
- 4 Department of Endocrinology and Metabolic Diseases, Medical University of Lodz, Lodz, Poland

\*both authors equally contributed to this work

Correspondence to: Prof. Andrzej Lewiński

Department of Endocrinology and Metabolic Diseases,

Medical University of Lodz,

Rzgowska 281/289, 93-338 Lodz, Poland.

TEL: +48 42 271 17 05; FAX: +48 42 271 13 43; E-MAIL: alewin@csk.umed.lodz.pl

*Key words:* cognitive functions; working memory; depressive disorders;

diabetes; arterial hypertension

Neuroendocrinol Lett 2013; 34(5):436-445 PMID: 23922050 NEL340513A12 © 2013 Neuroendocrinology Letters • www.nel.edu

#### Abstract

**OBJECTIVES:** Deterioration of the working memory is regarded as one of the most important deficits in a number of somatic diseases. The purpose of the present study was to compare the effectiveness of working memory in 4 groups of patients: 1) diagnosed with recurrent depressive disorder (rDD), 2) with diabetes type 1 (DM1), 3) with diabetes type 2 (DM2), 4) with arterial hypertension (HA) and in healthy controls (HC). **METHODS:** The study comprised 300 subjects: rDD (n=99), DM1 (n=31), DM2 (n=31), HA (n=30) and HC (n=109).Cognitive function assessment was based on Trail Making Test (TMT) and the Stroop test. **RESULTS:** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated statistically significant differences of the mean values among particular groups for each of the analysed results of the Stroop Test and TMT (p<0.0001). Patients with DM1 performed better in both TMT and Stroop tests, when compared to those diagnosed with HA. Patients with HA obtained better results than patients with DM2. Patients with rDD performed significantly worse than those with DM1 in both parts of TMT (A/time: p=0.022, B/time: p<0.001) and in the Stroop test (RCNb/time: p<0.001; NCWd/time: p=0.001; NCWd/errors: p=0.443). They also obtained worse results than patients with DM2 and HA, however, the differences were not statistically significant. **CONCLUSIONS:** 1) Our study has confirmed previous results showing association between depressive disorder and cognitive impairment. 2) Patients with rDD had worse performance on working memory tasks than the patients with DM type 1, DM type 2 and HA. 3) Further investigation is needed to clarify the role of inflammatory and oxidative and nitrosative stress (O&NS) processes in neurocognitive dysfunctions occurring in recurrent depression and somatic disease.

#### **Abbreviations:**

rDD - recurrent depressive disorder

DM - diabetes mellitus
DM1 - diabetes type 1
DM2 - diabetes type 2
HA - arterial hypertension

HDRS - Hamilton Depression Rating Scale

HC - healthy controls TMT - Trail Making Test

RCNb - reading colour names in black NCWd - naming colour of word – different

HbA1C - glycated hemoglobin
HDL - high density lipoproteins
LDL - low density lipoproteins
BMI - body mass index

### **INTRODUCTION**

Working memory can be seen as a mental buffer for temporal information retrieval from long-term memory, temporal storage of new information, and manipulation of this information in service of ongoing mental tasks (Wild-Wall et al. 2011). It refers to an ability to maintain, manipulate, and access mental representations as needed to support complex cognition. It predicts higher-order cognitive abilities such as executive functions (i.e. goal setting and planning), abstract reasoning, problem solving, making decisions and general fluid intelligence. It subserves other domains of mental life, including longterm memory and language comprehension (Rouder et al. 2011). Working memory also reflects a more general ability to control attention and exert top-down control over cognition (Broadway & Engle 2011). Deterioration of the working memory is regarded as one of the most important deficits in a number of somatic diseases (Talarowska et al. 2010). Dysfunctions of the working memory and other cognitive functions are related to an abnormal functioning of the anterior, associative cortical region of the brain the, so-called, prefrontal cortex (Peltz et al. 2011).

Several cross-sectional and longitudinal studies in the last decade confirmed an association between type 1 diabetes (DM1), type 2 diabetes (DM2) (Talarowska et al. 2009; Macander et al. 2011), arterial hypertension (HA) (Richard Jennings et al. 2010; Grande et al. 2011), depressive disorders (Kaneda 2009; Talarowska et al. 2010) and cognitive decline. Cognitive functions in depressive disorder and somatic diseases are regulated and influenced by many factors and their mechanisms are still poorly understood. There are several hypotheses which aim to explain the mechanisms of pathogenesis that is potentially involved in cognitive impairment in the above mentioned diseases and disorders. Growing evidence suggests the crucial role of oxidative stress, inflammation and vascular dysfunction in developing neuropsychiatric (Gałecki et al. 2009) and neurocognitive disorders (i.e., Mild Cognitive Impairment - MCI, Alzheimer's disease – AD and vascular dementia – VD) (Mangiafico et al. 2006; Rojas-Fernandez & Moorhouse 2009; Umur et al. 2011).

Rafnsson et al. (2007) have demonstrated that plasma fibrinogen, interleukin-6 (IL-6), and intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1) are negatively associated with performance on all cognitive measures (verbal declarative memory, nonverbal reasoning, verbal fluency and information processing speed). The authors conclude that systemic markers of inflammation and hemostasis are associated with a progressive decline in general and specific cognitive abilities in older adults, independent of major vascular comorbidity. C-reactive protein (CRP) is also associated with an increased risk of cognitive decline and dementia (Alley et al. 2008). According to Mangiafico et al. (2006), CRP predicts poorer performance on cognitive tests of verbal working memory, attention, perceptuomotor speed, visuoconstructive performance and mental flexibility. Marioni et al. (2009) showed that increased levels of plasma fibringen CRP were associated with poorer general cognitive ability, non-verbal reasoning, executive functions, processing speed, and mental flexibility after 5 years of follow-up and after adjustment for age and sex.

The purpose of the present study has been to compare the effectiveness of working memory in 4 groups of patients: diagnosed with depression disorder, diagnosed with DM1, diagnosed with DM2, and those with HA, as well as in the group of HC.

According to our initial hypothesis, patients with depressive disorder show greater deterioration of cognitive functions when compared to patients with DM or HA, which may be associated with systemic inflammatory processes.

### PATIENTS AND METHODS

# Patients

The study was carried out in a group of 300 subjects (women n=162, 54%) aged 20–65 yrs (M=40.92 yrs, SD=13.84). The participants were divided into 5 groups: patients with recurrent depressive disorder (rDD, n=99), patients with DM1 (n=31), patients DM2 (n=31), patients with HA (n=30) and HC (n=109). All patients were native Poles, inhabitants of the central voivodships of Poland and were unrelated.

Education was measured by the number of school years completed. The education period ≤11 years was considered as primary, 12–13 years – as secondary and >13 years – as higher education (according to the Polish educational system). Demographic characteristics and clinical course data are presented in Table 1 and in Table 2, respectively. No evaluations of the intellectual functions of the enrolled patients were carried out prior to the psychological examination. However, on the basis of medical records and anamnesis, it was established that none of the participants had been diagnosed with mental disability or any of the analyzed intellectual deficits. In all the included subjects, case history was obtained prior to main study procedure, using the standardized Composite International Diagnostic Interview (CIDI) (Patten 1997).

**Tab. 1.** Demographic characteristics of the study groups.

		Gen	der	Age in years	E	ducation level		Disease
Characteristics		Female	Female Male		Primary Secondary		High	duration in years
rDD	n	55	44	-	31	56	12	-
n = 99	%	55.56	44.44	_	31.31	56.57	12.12	_
	M (±SD)	-	-	48.35 (11.46)	-	-	-	6.96 (8.11)
DM1	n	23	8	-	6	19	6	-
n = 31	%	74.19	25.81	-	19.35	61.29	19.35	-
	M (±SD)	-	-	38.09 (11.64)	-	-	-	14.67 (±9.05)
DM2	n	8	23	-	13	14	4	-
n = 31	%	25.81	74.19	-	41.94	45.16	12.91	-
	M (±SD)	-	-	46.00 (7.88)	-	-	_	15.83 (7.81)
НА	n	5	25	-	8	12	10	-
n = 30	%	16.67	83.33	-	26.67	40.00	33.33	-
	M (±SD)	-	-	56.5 (6.27)	-	-	_	9.31 (8.01)
HC <i>n</i> = 109	n	71	38	-	0	49	60	-
	%	65.14	34.86	-	0	44.95	55.05	_
	M (±SD)	-	-	56.51 (7.27)	-	-	-	-
Total	n	162	138	-	58	150	92	-
	%	54.00	46.00	-	19.33	50.00	30.67	-
	M (±SD)	-	-	40.92 (13.84)	-	-	_	6.04 (7.11)

rDD – recurrent depressive disorders; DM1 – patients with type 1 diabetes; DM2 – patients with type 2 diabetes; HA – patients with arterial hypertension; HC – healthy controls; n – number of patients; % – percentage; M – mean; ± SD – standard deviation

**Tab. 2.** Characteristics of selected parameters and laboratory results in particular groups of patients.

Characteristics		ВМІ			Total cholesterol level mg/dl			LDL mg/dl			HDL mg/dl					
		27-40	25-27	20-25	18-20	<175	175-200	200-239	>240	<100	100-150	150-190	>190	>55	35-55	<35
rDD n = 99	n	34	12	42	11	_	-	-	-	-	_	_	-	_	-	
	%	34.3	12.1	42.4	11.1	_	-	-	-	-	_	_	-	_	-	
DM1 n = 31	n	3	12	11	5	12	5	5	6	11	13	3	1	5	16	7
	%	9.6	38.7	35.4	16.1	42.8	17.8	17.8	21.4	39.2	46.4	10.7	3.5	17.8	57.1	25.1
DM2	n	21	3	6	1	12	6	4	6	11	8	6	3	3	15	10
n = 31	%	67.7	9.6	19.3	3.2	42.8	21.4	14.2	21.4	39.2	28.5	21.4	10.7	10.7	53.5	35.7
НА	n	22	2	6	0	11	10	4	2	10	13	1	2	7	15	4
n = 30	%	73.3	6.7	20.1	-	40.7	37.1	14.8	7.4	38.4	50.1	3.8	7.6	26.9	57.6	15.3
Total	n	80	29	65	17	35	21	13	14	32	34	10	6	15	46	21
	%	41.8	15.1	34.1	8.9	42.1	25.3	15.6	16.8	39.1	41.4	12.2	7.3	18.2	56.1	25.6

rDD – recurrent depressive disorders; DM1 – patients with type 1 diabetes; DM2 – patients with type 2 diabetes; HA – patients with arterial hypertension; HS – healthy subjects; n – number of patients; BMI – Body Mass Index (27–40 – obesity, 25–27 – overweight, 20–25 – normal body weight, 18–20 – body weight deficiency); HDL – high density lipoproteins; LD L – low density lipoproteins.

### **Ethics**

An informed, written consent for participation in the study was obtained from each subject, according to the protocol, approved by the Bioethical Committee of the Medical University of Lodz (No RNN/603/08/KB).

## Recurrent depressive disorders (rDD)

Patients with rDD were selected for the study according to the inclusion criteria of ICD-10 (F 32.0–7.32.2, F 33.0–F 33.8) (1993). All the subjects were examined during hospitalisation. The study group included subjects, hospitalised for the first time for depressive episode and depression treatment-naive, as well as those treated for many years before and with multiple hospitalisation episodes in history, the latter admitted for various degrees of health deterioration. The presence of axis I and II disorders, other than depressive episode, and the diagnosis of somatic diseases and injuries of the central nervous system (CNS), which could have affected the cognitive performance, were regarded as exclusion criteria.

The severity of depression was assessed by the 21-item Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HDRS) (Hamilton 1960; Moonseong *et al.* 2007). Depressive symptom intensity levels were classified by the grades, specified in the study by Demyttenaere and De Fruyt (2003). The mean value of HDRS for rDD patients was M=24.34, SD=6.53. Number of subjects with mild, moderate, severe, and very severe depression symptoms are presented in Figure 1.

#### Diabetes (DM)

The subjects diagnosed with type 1 and type 2 DM were patients hospitalised at the Department of Diabetology and Metabolic Diseases of Medical University of Lodz. The qualification of subjects into the study group, DM type 1 or type 2, was based on the criteria of the Polish Diabetological Society (Diabet Prakt. 12 suppl. A: 1–46, 2011). The presence of axis I and/or axis II disorders were regarded as exclusion criteria.

The mean value of glycated hemoglobin (HbA $_{1C}$ ) in both groups of the diabetic patients together was M=9.47, SD=2.69 (DM1: M=9.17, SD=1.46, DM2: M=9.78, SD=3.55). Whole venous blood was collected for HbA $_{1C}$  measurements. Measurements were established using High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC).

#### Hypertension (HA)

All the patients diagnosed with HA were treated in Clinic of Internal Medicine and Cardiac Rehabilitation, Medical University of Lodz. The qualification of subjects into the study group was based on the criteria of the ESC and ESH Guidelines (2007) as follows: normal: 120–129 mm/Hg (systolic blood pressure, SBP) and 80–84 mm/Hg (diastolic blood pressure, DBP); high normal: 130–139 mm/Hg (SBP) or 85–89 mm/Hg (DBP); grade 1 HA (mild): 140–159 mm/Hg (SBP) or 90–99 mm/Hg (DBP); grade 2 HA (moderate): 160–179 mm/Hg (SBP) or 100–109 mm/Hg (DBP); grade 3 HA (severe): ≥180 mm/Hg (SBP) or ≥110 mm/Hg (DBP). Individuals with axis I or II comorbidity were excluded from the study.

Blood pressure was measured on the day of cognitive functions assessment and prior to neuropsychological testing. Patients were treated with antihypertensive drugs. Figure 2 and 3 show the blood pressure measures in patients from HA group.

#### *Healthy controls (HC)*

The HS group consisted of 109 healthy individuals with family history negative for psychiatric disorders. The healthy controls included community volunteers, enrolled into the study on the criteria of the psychiatric CIDI interview (Patten 1997). Controls with somatic or psychiatric diagnoses, concerning axis I and II disorders, were excluded from the study. Individuals with the history of neurological or psychiatric disorder or with family history of mood disorders, substance abuse or dependence were also excluded.

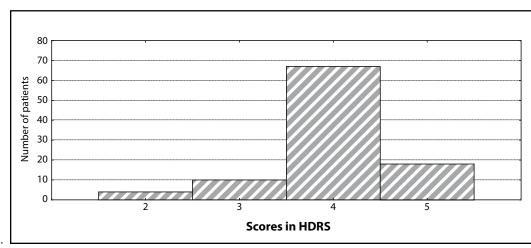


Fig. 1. The severity of depression symptoms measured with HDRS. 2-8-12 – mild depression; 3-13-17 – moderate depression; 4-18-24 – severe depression; 5-30-52 – very severe depression.

#### Tools for cognitive function assessment

Cognitive function assessment was based on the Trail Making Test (TMT) and Stroop Test.

Part A of TMT was applied for evaluation of psychomotor speed, while part B was used for assessment of spatio-visual performance, working memory and executive functions. The time periods, required to complete each part, were estimated. The authors based their analysis on raw results (Reitan 1958; Sánchez-Cubillo et al. 2009).

The Stroop Test (Colour-Word Interference Test) was performed with the use of paper cards. We used a Polish version based on the original Stroop Test cards. The test is used for working memory and attention processes evaluations. The Stroop Test consists of two parts: RCNb (reading colour names in black – where the tested subject has to read as quickly as possible 10 rows of written text with 5 words in each row, the words being the names of colours, printed in black ink on a white paper sheet) and NCWd (naming colour of word – different) – where the tested subject has to name

as quickly as he/she can the ink colours of particular words, while the ink colour of a given word does not correspond to the colour which the word designates. In the reported study, the dependent variables were: the number of errors made in the second part, and the duration of each test part performance (Stroop 1935; Audenaert *et al.* 2001).

Regarding the patients with rDD, HDRS, The Stroop Test and TMT were applied at the symptomatic phase, before or shortly after previous antidepressant drug regime modification. In the DM and HA group the cognitive assessment was conducted during hospitalisation. In the HC group, neuropsychological testing was carried out in a single session. The assessment was performed by the same person in each particular case, the same psychologist examined the patients with neuropsychological tests, including an evaluation of obtained results, while the HDRS test was performed by the same physician-psychiatrist. Patients were qualified to the DM and HA group by the same person, diabetologist or cardiologist, respectively.

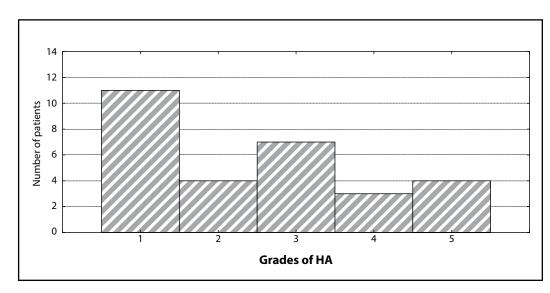


Fig. 2. Systolic blood pressure in HA group. 1 – normal; 2 – high normal; 3 – grade 1 HA; 4 – grade 2 HA; 5 – grade 3 HA; HA – arterial hypertension.

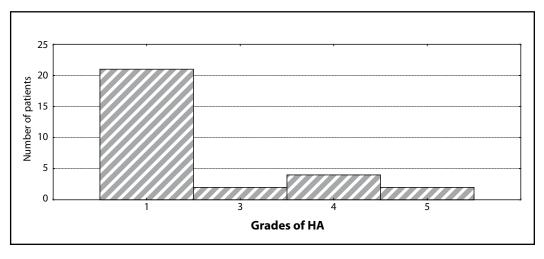


Fig. 3. Diastolic blood pressure in HA group. 1 – normal; 2 – high normal; 3 – grade 1 HA; 4 – grade 2 HA; 5 – grade 3 HA; HA – arterial hypertension.

#### **Statistics**

Statistical analysis of the collected data utilized descriptive methods, as well as a statistical inference. In order to describe the studied group of patients and HC group structural indexes were calculated in the qualitative analysis of characteristics. In order to estimate the mean values for the quantitative characteristics, arithmetic means (*M*) were calculated. Standard deviation (*SD*) was applied as the measure of scatter.

One-factor analysis of variance – ANOVA was applied to evaluate the differences between the median values, obtained by the study participants in each group. The procedure of multiple comparisons (Scheffe's test) was applied to find out which groups were responsible for the ANOVA outcome. In all the statistical methods, p value less than 0.05 was considered significant.

#### **RESULTS**

The mean tests results for all study groups are presented in Table 3. Analysis of variances ANOVA indicated statistically significant differences of the mean values among particular groups for each of the analysed results of the Stroop Test and TMT. The Stroop Test: the time period of part RCNb performance: F=19.385, p<0.0001; the time period of part NCWd performance: F=16.264, p<0.0001; the number of errors in part NCWd: F=6.039, p=0.0001. TMT: part A/time: F=14.349, p<0.0001; part B: F=25.711, p<0.0001.

Table 4 presents multiple comparison procedures. In all performed tests, the best results, were obtained by HC and patients diagnosed with type 1 DM. The worst performance was observed among subjects with rDD and type 2 DM.

Patients with DM type 1 performed better compared to those, diagnosed with HA, considering all the variables tested. Patients with HA, however, obtained better results than patients with type 2 DM. Patients with rDD performed significantly worse than those with DM type 1 in both parts of the TMT and in the Stroop Test. They also obtained worse results than patients with DM type 2 and patients from HA group, however, the differences were not statistically significant.

#### **DISCUSSION**

The results of our study are consistent with previous reports concerning the impairment of cognitive function in patients with DM, HA and depression. Several longitudinal studies showed an association of DM2 with dementia risk over years (Yaffe *et al.* 2004; Mossello *et al.* 2011). Diabetes induces chronic vascular complications, not only macrovascular disorders, such as cardiovascular and cerebrovascular disease but also microvascular disorders (e.g. nephropathy, retinopathy and neuropathy). The prevalence of dementia, including both Alzheimer Disease (AD) and vascular dementia (VD), was higher in individuals with DM2 than in

**Tab. 3.** The results of tests in all groups of patients and in healthy controls.

Characteri	stics	TMT A / time (s)	TMT B / time (s)	Stroop Test / RCNb time (s)	Stroop Test / NCWd time (s)	Stroop Test / NCWd (errors)
rDD n = 99	M (±SD)	53.1 (38.9)	114.1 (70.2)	33.4 (17.6)	79.2 (46.5)	3.9 (5.38)
	Range	15-284	23-485	15–106	36-360	0-33
DM1 n = 31	M (±SD)	34.6 (23.1)	70.9 (31.7)	21.5 (3.9)	52.6 (11.6)	2.2 (3.1)
	Range	15–102	35–166	16–32	38-103	0–11
DM2 n = 31	M (±SD)	44.4 (30.11)	101.9 (57.8)	27.1 (10.7)	65.2 (15.9)	4.5 (4.1)
	Range	20-148	40-307	16-61	42–120	0–17
HA n = 30	M (±SD)	36.7 (11.1)	87.5 (26.8)	23.6 (3.6)	71.9 (28.4)	2.3 (3.1)
	Range	23-73	22-130	16–30	50-189	0–16
HC n = 109	M (±SD)	25.9 (9.5)	49.8 (16.1)	20.6 (3.3)	47.7 (10.7)	1.4 (3.6)
	Range	11–65	20–103	12–29	25-98	0-35
Total	M (±SD)	38.7 (28.6)	82.2 (54.6)	25.9 (12.3)	62.8 (32.5)	2.7 (4.3)
	Range	11–284	20-485	12–106	25–360	0–35

rDD – recurrent depressive disorders; DM1 – patients with type 1 diabetes; DM2 – patients with type 2 diabetes; HA – patients with arterial hypertension; HC – healthy controls; M – mean; ±SD–standard deviation; RcNb – reading colour names in black; NCWd – naming colour of word – different; TMT–Trail Making Test;

**Tab. 4.** The level of significance of the differences in Stroop Test and TMT performance in all study groups.

TMT A / time (s	)	erences in Stroop Test an	·	, -	
Group	rDD	DM1	DM2	НА	нс
rDD		0.022*	0.634	0.066	0.000001*
DM1	0.022*		0.712	0.998	0.614
DM2	0.634	0.712		0.861	0.019*
НА	0.066	0.998	0.860		0.411
НС	0.000001*	0.614	0.019*	0.411	
TMT B / time (s	)				
Group	rDD	DM1	DM2	НА	нс
·DD		0.000779*	0.816	0.127	0.000001*
DM1	0.000779*		0.158	0.758	0.313
DM2	0.816	0.158		0.841	0.00013*
НА	0.127	0.758	0.841		0.005676*
HC	0.000001*	0.313	0.00013*	0.005676*	
Stroop Test / Ro	CNb time (s)				
Group	rDD	DM1	DM2	НА	нс
·DD		0.000026*	0.095	0.001216*	0.000001*
DM1	0.000026*		0.426	0.972	0.997
DM2	0.095	0.426		0.821	0.091
HA	0.001216*	0.972	0.821		0.804
HC	0.000001*	0.997	0.091	0.804	
Stroop Test / N	CWd time (s)				
Group	rDD	DM1	DM2	НА	нс
·DD		0.001032*	0.263	0.884	0.000001*
DM1	0.001032*		0.597	0.173	0.955
DM2	0.263	0.597		0.941	0.082
НА	0.844	0.173	0.941		0.004192*
НС	0.000001*	0.955	0.082	0.004192*	
Stroop Test / N	CWd errors				
Group	rDD	DM1	DM2	НА	нс
·DD		0.443	0.966	0.341	0.002358*
DM1	0.443		0.316	0.999	0.947
DM2	0.996	0.316		0.245	0.013732*
НА	0.341	0.999	0.245		0.983
HC	0.002358*	0.947	0.013732*	0.983	

rDD – recurrent depressive disorders; DM1 – patients with type 1 diabetes; DM2 – patients with type 2 diabetes; HA – patients with arterial hypertension; HC – healthy controls; RcNb – reading colour names in black; NCWd – naming colour of word – different; TMT – Trail Making Test; \* – p statistically significant

those without diabetes (Biessels *et al.* 2006). Hayashi *et al.* (2011) have demonstrated that hippocampal and whole brain atrophies are more frequent in elderly patients with DM2 than in non-diabetic controls. Cognitive function impairment is significantly associated with hippocampal atrophy. Additionally, it has been observed that older nondiabetic individuals with

metabolic syndrome and elevated level of inflammatory markers have an increased risk of subsequent cognitive decline (Yaffe *et al.* 2004).

A number of studies also support an association between HA, particularly in midlife, and the development of cognitive disorders and dementia, including mild cognitive impairment (MCI) (Israeli-Korn *et al.* 

2011) and AD (Grassi et al. 2011; Wysocki et al. 2011). It has been found in several studies that the risk of dementia and cognitive impairment is related to high blood pressure (Verdelho et al. 2007). However, other studies have demonstrated that low blood pressure is associated with dementia, especially in the very old individuals (above 80 years) (Qiu et al. 2003; Verghese et al. 2003). The relationship between blood pressure and dementia risk is not yet entirely clear. Authors of recent reports have emphasized that HA leads to certain pathophysiological changes in brain, such as vascular remodeling, impaired cerebral autoregulation, small lacunar infarct, white matter lesion, microbleed and amyloid angiopathy, which may result in deterioration of the cognitive functioning (Manolio et al. 2003). Systolic blood pressure (SBP) and pulse pressure (PPR) are also associated with medial temporal lobe atrophy (Korf et al. 2004).

In the present study, patients with depressive disorders had the worst performance in all the performed tests. One of the potential causes may be the above mentioned inflammatory processes, which only in case of depressive disorder affect CNS directly. The most recent findings in neurobiological research provided an increasing evidence that inflammatory and neuroprogressive processes play a significant role in depression (Maes et al. 2011a). Preclinical and clinical studies on depression highlighted an increased production of inflammatory markers, such as interleukin (IL-1, IL-6), tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ) and interferon- $\alpha$  and y. In animal models, acute and chronic administration of cytokines or cytokine inducers triggers depressive symptoms. There is now evidence that oxidative stress plays an important role in depression, i.e. increased lipid peroxidation, DNA and functional proteins damage, and decreased levels of antioxidants, such as glutathione, zinc, vitamin E and coenzyme Q10, and antioxidant enzymes, such as glutathione peroxidase (Gałecki et al. 2010; Gałecki et al. 2011; Maes et al. 2011c). The activation of the inflammatory and neuroprogressive pathways may induce the brain damage, observed in depression through both the reduced neurogenesis and increased neurodegeneration (Catena-Dell'Osso et al. 2011).

One potential confounding, or mediating factor which could explain the obtained results is action of blood-brain barrier (BBB). BBB acts as a complex cellular gate that tightly regulates the transport of molecules from and into the central nervous system (CNS). Neurodegenerative change is exacerbated by the linked process of BBB disruption and neuroinflammatory changes (Serlin et al. 2011). BBB breakdown is considered to be a predictor of neuronal dysfunction. In diabetic patients even after a relatively short duration of diabetes, the BBB manifests increased permeability (Mogi & Horiuchi 2011). According to Huber et al. (2006), changes in BBB permeability were region specific - the midbrain was most susceptible when compared with the thalamus, hypothalamus, cerebellum, cerebral cortex, hippocampus and basal ganglia. A contribution of a disrupted BBB in the basal ganglia in the pathogenesis of HIV (human immunodeficiency virus type 1) induced dementia involving dopaminergic neurons is also reported (Berger et al. 2000). Moreover, Bartels et al. (2008) have demonstrated that impaired BBB function is observed in the midbrain of patient with Parkinson's disease (PD). Furthermore, an increased intrathecal production of the proinflammatory cytokine TNF-α and a decreased production of the anti-inflammatory cytokine TGF- $\beta$  (transforming growth factor beta) in the brain were observed in patients with MCI (Ray et al. 2007). It should be emphasized that inflammatory markers may indirectly lead to cognitive impairment via promoting vascular disease, i.e., causing stroke and transient ischemic attacks (Kuo et al. 2005; Zacho et al. 2008). Individual differences in cognitive decline are partly attributed to differences in cardiovascular risk factors, including smoking, hypertension, diabetes and vascular diseases (Rafnsson et al. 2010). Additionally, pathogenesis of neurodegeneration has been, at least in part, attributed to the release of proinflammatory cytokines from brain resident cells and, although less consistently, from peripheral cells (Arosio et al. 2011).

Our observation of the association between depressive disorder and cognitive impairment allows speculation that inflammation may contribute to cognitive decline, thus raising the possibility that cognitive function might benefit from therapies modulating the inflammatory response. The findings also suggest the potential use of biological markers in evaluating the risk of cognitive decline. Moreover, working memory deficit may be associated with loss of ability to focus attention on the essential tasks and ability to ignore irrelevant information/distractors (Pelt et al. 2011). Therefore, cognitive abilities (i.e., working memory, visuo-spatial/constructional abilities, attention, planning and problem solving) are associated with disease self-management behavior (Mooijaart et al. 2011; Primožič et al. 2011).

It is to be recalled that both inflammatory and oxidative and nitrosative stress (O&NS) processes can be involved in pathomechanisms of neurocognitive dysfunctions occurring in recurrent depression and in certain somatic diseases being comorbidities of depression (Maes *et al.* 2011b).

#### **CONCLUSIONS**

- 1. Our study confirms previous results showing association between depressive disorder and cognitive impairment.
- 2. Patients with rDD had worse performance on working memory tasks than the patients with DM type 1, DM type 2 and HA.
- 3. Further investigation is needed to clarify the role of inflammatory and O&NS processes in neurocognitive dysfunctions occurring in recurrent depression and somatic disease.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

This study was supported by the funds from the Medical University of Lodz – grants No. 502-03/5-062-02/502-54-065 and No. 502-03/5-062-02/502-54-066; and by the scientific research grants from the National Science Centre No. 2011/01/D/HS6/05484 and No. 2012/05/B/NZ5/01452.

#### **REFERENCES**

- 1 Alley DE, Crimmins EM, Karlamangla A, Hu P, Seeman TE (2008). Inflammation and rate of cognitive change in high-functioning older adults. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 63: 50–55.
- 2 Arosio B, Mastronardi L, Gussago C, Nicolini P, Casč A, Ziglioli E, et al. (2011). Adenosine A(2A) receptor and IL-10 in peripheral blood mononuclear cells of patients with Mild Cognitive Impairment. Int J Alzheimer's Dis 2011: 1–6.
- 3 Audenaert K, Lohorte P, Brans B, Van Laere K, Goethals I, van Heeringen K, et al. (2001). The classical Stroop interference task as a prefrontal activation probe: a validation study using <sup>99</sup>Tcm-ECD brain SPECT. Nucl Med Commun 22: 135–143.
- 4 Bartels AL, Willemsen AT, Kortekaas R, de Jong BM, de Vries R, de Klerk O, et al. (2008). Decreased blood-brain barrier P-glycoprotein function in the progression of Parkinson's disease, PSP and MSA. J Neural Transm 115: 1001–1009.
- 5 Berger JR, Nath A, Greenberg RN, Andersen AH, Greene RA, Bognar A, et al. (2000). Cerebrovascular changes in the basal ganglia with HIV dementia. Neurology 54: 921–926.
- 6 Biessels GJ, Staekenborg S, Brunner E, Brayne C, Scheltens P (2006). Risk of dementia in diabetes mellitus: A systematic review. Lancet Neurol 5: 64–74.
- 7 Broadway JM, Engle RW (2011). Individual differences in working memory capacity and temporal discrimination. PLoS One 6: 1–9.
- 8 Catena-Dell'Osso M, Bellantuono C, Consoli G, Baroni S, Rotella F, Marazziti D (2011). Inflammatory and neurodegenerative pathways in depression: a new avenue for antidepressant development? Curr Med Chem 18: 245–255.
- 9 Clinical recommendations on the management in patients with diabetes mellitus – Guidelines of the Polish Diabetological Society. (2011). Diabet Prakt. 12 suppl. A: 1-46 (In Polish).
- 10 Demyttenaere K, De Fruyt J (2003). Getting what you ask for: on the selectivity of depression rating scales. Psychothery Psychosom 72: 61–70.
- 11 Gałecki P, Maes M, Florkowski A, Lewiński A, Gałecka E, Bieńkiewicz M, et al. (2010). An inducible nitric oxide synthase polymorphism is associated with the risk of recurrent depressive disorder. J Neurosci Lett 486: 184–187.
- 12 Gałecki P, Maes M, Florkowski A, Lewiński A, Gałecka E, Bieńkiewicz M, et al. (2011). Association between inducible and neuronal nitric oxide synthase polymorphisms and recurrent depressive disorder. J Affect Disord 129: 175–182.
- 13 Gałecki P, Szemraj J, Bieńkiewicz M, Zboralski K, Gałecka E (2009). Oxidative stress parameters after combined fluoxetine and acetylsalicylic acid therapy in depressive patients. Hum Psychopharmacol 24: 277–286.
- 14 Grande LJ, Rudolph JL, Milberg WP, Barber CE, McGlinchey RE (2011). Detecting cognitive impairment in individuals at risk for cardiovascular disease: the "Clock-in-the-Box" screening test. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry. 26: 969–975.
- 15 Grassi D, Férri L, Ćheli P, Di Giosia P, Ferri C (2011). Cognitive decline as a consequence of essential hypertension. Curr Pharm Des **17**: 3032–3038.
- 16 Hamilton M (1960). A rating scale for depression. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 23: 56–62.
- 17 Hayashi K, Kurioka S, Yamaguchi T, Morita M, Kanazawa I, Takase H, et al. (2011). Association of cognitive dysfunction with hippocampal atrophy in elderly Japanese patients with type 2 diabetes. Diabetes Res Clin Pract. **94:** 180–185.

- 18 Huber JD, VanGilder RL, Houser KA (2006). Streptozotocininduced diabetes progressively increases blood-brain barrier permeability in specific brain regions in rats. Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol 291: 2660–2668.
- 19 ICD-10 Classification of Mental & Behavioural Disorders (1993). Geneva: World Health Organization.
- 20 Israeli-Korn SD, Masarwa M, Schechtman E, Abuful A, Strugatsky R, Avni S, et al. (2010). Hypertension increases the probability of Alzheimer's disease and of mild cognitive impairment in an Arab community in northern Israel. Neuroepidemiology 34: 99–105.
- 21 Kaneda Y (2009). Verbal working memory and functional outcome in patients with unipolar major depressive disorder. World J Biol Psychiatry 10: 591–594.
- 22 Korf ES, White LR, Scheltens P, Launer LJ (2004). Midlife blood pressure and the risk of hippocampal atrophy: the Honolulu Asia aging study. Hypertension **44:** 29–34.
- 23 Kuo HK, Yén CJ, Chang CH, Kuo CK, Chen JH, Sorond F (2005). Relation of C-reactive protein to stroke, cognitive disorders, and depression in the general population: systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet Neurol. 4: 371–380.
- 24 Macander M, Talarowska M, Galecki P, Moczulski D, Lewinski A (2011). Selected diabetes control indicators and working memory efficacy. Neuro Endocrinol Lett 32: 518–25.
- 25 Maes M, Galecki P, Chang YS, Berk M (2011a). A review on the oxidative and nitrosative stress (O&NS) pathways in major depression and their possible contribution to the (neuro)degenerative processes in that illness. Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry **35:** 676–692.
- 26 Maes M, Kubera M, Obuchowiczwa E, Goehler L, Brzeszcz J (2011b). Depression's multiple comorbidities explained by (neuro)inflammatory and oxidative & nitrosative stress pathways. Neuroendocrinol Lett 32: 7–24.
- 27 Maes M, Leonard B, Fernandez A, Kubera M, Nowak G, Veerhuis R, et al. (2011c). (Neuro)inflammation and neuroprogression as new pathways and drug targets in depression: from antioxidants to kinase inhibitors. Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry 35: 659–663.
- 28 Mangiafico RA, Sarnataro F, Mangiafico M, Fiore CE (2006). Impaired cognitive performance in asymptomatic peripheral arterial disease: relation to C-reactive protein and D-dimer levels. Age Ageing **35:** 60–65.
- 29 Manolio TA, Olson J, Longstreth WT (2003). Hypertension and cognitive function: pathophysiologic effects of hypertension on the brain. Curr Hypertens Rep. **3:** 255–261.
- 30 Marioni RE, Stewart MC, Murray GD, Deary IJ, Fowkes FG, Lowe GD, et al. (2009). Peripheral levels of fibrinogen, C-reactive protein, and plasma viscosity predict future cognitive decline in individuals without dementia. Psychosom Med. 71: 901–906.
- 31 Mogi M, Horiuchi M (2011). Neurovascular coupling in cognitive impairment associated with diabetes mellitus. Circ J. **75:** 1042–1048.
- 32 Mooijaart SP, Sattar N, Trompet S, Polisecki E, de Craen AJ, Schaefer EJ, et al. (2011). C-reactive protein and genetic variants and cognitive decline in old age: the PROSPER study. PLoS One. **6:** 1–6.
- 33 Moonseong H, Murphy CF, Meyers BS (2007). Relationship between the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale and the Montgomery-Åsberg Depression Rating Scale in depressed elderly. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry 15: 899–905.
- 34 Mossello E, Ballini E, Boncinelli M, Monami M, Lonetto G, Mello AM, et al. (2011). Glucagon-like peptide-1, diabetes, and cognitive decline: possible pathophysiological links and therapeutic opportunities. Exp Diabetes Res. **2011**: 281674.
- 35 Patten S (1997). Performance of the Composite International Diagnostic Interview Short Form for major depression in community and clinical samples. Chron Dis Can 3: 18–24.
- 36 Peltz CB, Gratton G, Fabiani M (2011). Age-related changes in electrophysiological and neuropsychological indices of working memory, attention control, and cognitive flexibility. Front Psychol 2: 190–202.
- 37 Primožič S, Tavčar R, Avbelj M, Dernovšek MZ, Oblak MR (2011). Specific cognitive abilities are associated with diabetes self-management behavior among patients with type 2 diabetes. Diabetes Res Clin Pract. 95: 48–54.

- 38 Qiu C, von Strauss E, Fastbom J, Winblad B, Fratiglioni L (2003). Low blood pressure and risk of dementia in the Kungsholmen project: a 6-year follow-up study. Arch Neurol **60:** 223–228.
- 39 Rafnsson SB, Deary IJ, Smith FB, Whiteman MC, Rumley A, Lowe GD, et al. (2007). Cognitive decline and markers of inflammation and hemostasis: the Edinburgh Artery Study. J Am Geriatr Soc. **55:** 700–707.
- 40 Rafnsson S, Deary IJ, Whiteman MC, Rumley A, Lowe GD, Fowkes FG (2010). Haemorheological predictors of cognitive decline: the Edinburgh Artery Study. Age Ageing. 39: 217–222.
  41 Ray S, Britschgi , Herbert C, Takeda-Uchimura Y, Boxer A, Blen-
- 41 Ray S, Britschgi , Herbert C, Takeda-Uchimura Y, Boxer A, Blennow K, et al. (2007). Classification and prediction of clinical Alzheimer's diagnosis based on plasma signaling proteins. Nat Med 13: 1359–1362.
- 42 Reitan RM (1958). The relation of the trail making test to organic brain damage. J Cons Psychol **19:** 393–394.
- 43 Richard Jennings J, Christie IC, Muldoon MF, Ryan CM, Price JC, Meltzer CC (2010). Brain function, cognition, and the blood pressure response to pharmacological treatment. Psychosom Med. 72: 702–711.
- 44 Rojas-Fernandez CH, Moorhouse P (2009). Current concepts in vascular cognitive impairment and pharmacotherapeutic implications. Ann Pharmacother. **43:** 1310–1323.
- 45 Rouder JN, Morey RD, Morey CC, Cowan N (2011). How to measure working memory capacity in the change detection paradigm. Psychon Bull Rev 18: 324–330.
- 46 Sánchez-Cubillo I, Periáñez J, Adrover-Roig D, Rodríguez-Sánchez J, Ríos-Lago M, Tirapu J (2009). Construct validity of the Trail Making Test: Role of task-switching, working memory, inhibition/interference control, and visuomotor abilities. JINS 15: 438–51.
- 47 Serlin Y, Levy J, Shalev H (2011). Vascular pathology and bloodbrain barrier disruption in cognitive and psychiatric complications of type 2 diabetes mellitus. Cardiovasc Psychiatry Neurol. 2011: 609202.
- 48 Stroop JR (1935). Studies of interference in serial verbal reactions. J Expl Psychol. **18:** 643–662.

- 49 Talarowska M, Florkowski A, Zboralski K, Berent D, Wierzbiński P, Gałecki P (2010). Auditory-verbal declarative and operating memory among patients suffering from depressive disorders preliminary study. Adv Med Sci. **55:** 317–327.
- 50 Talarowská M, Flórkowski A, Zboralski K, Gałecki P (2009). Cognitive functions and clinical features among diabetic patients in Polish population. Cent Eur J Med **4:** 467–475.
- 51 The Task Force for the Management of Arterial Hypertension of the European Society of Hypertension (ESH) and of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) (2007). 2007 Guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension. Eur Heart J 28: 1462–1536.
- 52 Umur EE, Oktenli C, Celik S, Tangi F, Sayan O, Sanisoglu YS, et al. (2011). Increased iron and oxidative stress are separately related to cognitive decline in elderly. Geriatr Gerontol Int 11: 504–509.
- 53 Verdelho A, Madureira S, Ferro JM, Basile AM, Chabriat H, Erkinjuntti T, et al. (2007). Differential impact of cerebral white matter changes, diabetes, hypertension and stroke on cognitive performance among non-disabled elderly. The LADIS study. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 78: 1325–30.
- 54 Verghese J, Lipton RB, Hall CB, Kuslansky G, Katz MJ (2003). Low blood pressure and the risk of dementia in very old individuals. Neurology **61:** 1667–1672.
- 55 Wild-Wall N, Falkenstein M, Gajewski PD (2011). Age-related differences in working memory performance in a 2-back task. Front Psychol. 2: 186–198.
- 56 Wysocki M, Luo X, Schmeidler J, Dahlman K, Lesser GT, Grossman H, et al. (2011). Hypertension is associated with cognitive decline in elderly people at high risk for dementia. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry 20: 179–187.
- 57 Yaffe K, Kanaya A, Lindquist K, Simonsick EM, Harris T, Shorr RI, et al. (2004). The metabolic syndrome, inflammation, and risk of cognitive decline. JAMA **292:** 2237–2242.
- 58 Zacho J, Tybjaerg-Hansen A, Jensen JS, Grande P, Sillesen H, Nordestgaard BG (2008). Genetically elevated C-reactive protein and ischemic vascular disease. N Engl J Med 359: 1897–1908.