DOI: 10.23977/medbm.2024.020203 ISSN 2616-2091 Vol. 2 Num. 2

Mechanisms of Cognitive Decline in Newly Diagnosed Diabetics: A Review of Pathophysiological Contributions and Intervention Strategies

Kun Ma^{1,*}, Yang Xiao²

¹Department of First Clinical Medicine, Shaanxi University of Chinese Medicine, Xianyang, Shaanxi, 712046, China ²Shaanxi Provincial Hospital of Chinese Medicine, Xi'an, Shaanxi, 710003, China *Corresponding author

Keywords: Diabetes mellitus, cognitive decline, pathophysiological mechanisms

Abstract: The correlation between diabetes mellitus and cognitive decline is welldocumented, with numerous studies highlighting the significant impact of diabetic pathophysiology on cognitive functions. This review synthesizes current research on the mechanisms underlying cognitive decline in individuals newly diagnosed with diabetes, focusing on hyperglycemia, insulin resistance, cerebrovascular damage, neuroinflammation, and protein deposition. Hyperglycemia contributes to cognitive impairment through disruption of neuronal glucose metabolism and increased oxidative stress, while insulin resistance interferes with insulin signaling in the brain, affecting neuronal growth and synaptic plasticity. Cerebrovascular damage, exacerbated by diabetes, leads to reduced cerebral blood flow and oxygen supply, further impairing cognitive functions. Neuroinflammation, a consequence of chronic systemic inflammation in diabetes, results in synaptic dysfunction and neuronal loss. Additionally, the accumulation of amyloid-beta and tau proteins, facilitated by diabetic conditions, links diabetes with neurodegenerative pathways similar to those seen in Alzheimer's disease. This review emphasizes the complexity of these mechanisms and suggests that comprehensive management of diabetes, addressing both glycemic control and these pathophysiological factors, is crucial for mitigating cognitive decline. Future research should focus on detailed pathways and interactions to develop targeted interventions that can effectively delay or prevent cognitive deterioration in diabetic patients.

1. Introduction

Diabetes mellitus is a chronic metabolic disorder that is rapidly becoming a global public health concern due to its increasing prevalence. Recent research has extensively explored the link between diabetes and cognitive decline, particularly noting significant impairments in cognitive functions within the first few years following the onset of the disease [1][2][3]. This correlation suggests that diabetes may precipitate or exacerbate the pathways leading to cognitive deficits [4]. Various pathophysiological mechanisms have been proposed to explain this association, including

hyperglycemia, insulin resistance, cerebrovascular damage, neuroinflammation, and the deposition of abnormal proteins [5][6][7][8]. This paper aims to provide a comprehensive review of these mechanisms and analyze their specific roles in the decline of cognitive functions among newly diagnosed diabetic patients. Through an examination of contemporary literature and seminal studies, the discussion will delve into how each mechanism contributes to the overarching pattern of cognitive impairment, setting the stage for potential therapeutic interventions that could mitigate or delay the progression of cognitive decline in diabetic populations.

2. Hyperglycemia Theory

Hyperglycemia, characterized by elevated blood glucose levels, is a hallmark of diabetes and has been closely linked to cognitive decline[9]. Chronic hyperglycemia is detrimental to brain function, primarily through the disruption of normal glucose metabolism within the brain, which is crucial for neuronal health and cognitive performance [10][11]. This disturbance results in neuronal dysfunction and an increase in oxidative stress, factors that are widely recognized for their negative impact on cognitive domains such as memory and executive functions [12].

At the biochemical level, sustained high glucose concentrations in the bloodstream can lead to the non-enzymatic glycation of proteins and lipids, forming advanced glycation end products (AGEs). These AGEs can accumulate in neural tissues, altering their structure and function [11]. Furthermore, hyperglycemia induces an overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which leads to oxidative stress and damages cellular components, including DNA, lipids, and proteins. This oxidative damage is a critical mediator of neurodegeneration.

Another significant consequence of hyperglycemia is its impact on the blood-brain barrier (BBB). The BBB is essential for maintaining the homeostasis of the central nervous system by regulating the entry of substances from the bloodstream into the brain [13]. Hyperglycemia has been shown to compromise the integrity of the BBB, making it more permeable and less selective [14][15]. This disruption allows harmful substances to enter the brain, potentially leading to inflammation and further neuronal damage [16].

Moreover, hyperglycemia is associated with cerebral small vessel disease, which can reduce cerebral blood flow and impair the delivery of essential nutrients and oxygen to the brain [17][18]. This vascular impairment contributes to the risk of developing cognitive deficits, as areas such as the hippocampus and frontal lobes—critical for memory and executive functions—are particularly vulnerable to reduced perfusion [19].

The hyperglycemia theory posits that high blood sugar levels disrupt brain metabolism and structure through mechanisms like protein glycation, oxidative stress, BBB dysfunction, and vascular changes. These pathophysiological changes are central to understanding how diabetes precipitates cognitive decline, underscoring the importance of managing blood glucose levels to protect cognitive health in diabetic individuals.

3. Insulin Resistance Theory

Insulin resistance is a pivotal condition in the pathogenesis of type 2 diabetes and is increasingly recognized for its role in cognitive decline [20][21]. Insulin is not only crucial for glucose metabolism but also plays significant roles in brain functions, including neuronal growth, survival, and synaptic plasticity [22][23]. Insulin resistance in the brain disrupts these critical processes, potentially leading to cognitive impairments.

In the central nervous system, insulin binds to its receptors on neurons and glial cells, facilitating glucose uptake and participating in the modulation of neurotransmitter levels, which are essential for memory and learning processes [24][25][26]. When insulin resistance occurs, these insulin-dependent

pathways are hindered, leading to a reduction in cerebral glucose metabolism [27]. This metabolic dysfunction is thought to contribute directly to the cognitive deficits observed in patients with diabetes.

Further, insulin resistance is associated with the dysregulation of tau protein and amyloid-beta, which are implicated in Alzheimer's disease [28]. These proteins can accumulate in the brain and form plaques and tangles, disrupting neuronal communication and leading to cell death [29]. The presence of insulin resistance exacerbates this process, highlighting a pathological link between diabetes and neurodegenerative diseases.

Another critical aspect of insulin resistance is its impact on cerebral structure. Research has shown that insulin resistance is linked to brain atrophy [30], particularly in regions like the hippocampus and the frontal cortex, which are crucial for cognitive functions such as decision-making, problem-solving, and memory. Imaging studies in diabetic patients often reveal reduced brain volume in these areas, correlating with the severity of insulin resistance.

Moreover, insulin resistance can promote inflammation within the brain [31]. Chronic inflammation, driven by activated microglia and astrocytes, can further damage neurons and exacerbate cognitive decline. Elevated levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as TNF-alpha and IL-6, which are often found in insulin-resistant states, can lead to a cycle of inflammation and cell damage.

In conclusion, the insulin resistance theory illustrates how disrupted insulin signaling in the brain can lead to cognitive decline through metabolic dysfunction, abnormal protein accumulation, brain atrophy, and neuroinflammation. This theory supports the need for strategies targeting insulin sensitivity as a means to preserve cognitive function in individuals with diabetes.

4. Cerebrovascular Damage Theory

Cerebrovascular damage is a critical factor in the cognitive decline observed in diabetic patients, driven primarily by the disease's systemic effects on blood vessels. Diabetes accelerates both microvascular and macrovascular complications, which can severely impair cerebral circulation, leading to cognitive deficits [32].

Diabetes-induced cerebrovascular damage includes endothelial dysfunction, increased arterial stiffness, and the thickening of the basement membrane of capillaries [33]. These alterations compromise the elasticity and integrity of cerebral vessels, reducing cerebral blood flow. The reduction in blood flow is particularly detrimental to brain regions such as the frontal lobes and hippocampus, which are highly dependent on a continuous blood supply for maintaining cognitive functions such as executive processing and memory.

Endothelial dysfunction, a hallmark of diabetes, contributes to cerebrovascular damage by disrupting the production of nitric oxide, a vasodilator critical for maintaining vascular tone and health [34]. This dysfunction promotes a pro-inflammatory state within the vascular walls, leading to further damage and increased risk of ischemic events. Small vessel disease, characterized by the narrowing of small arteries and arterioles, is prevalent in diabetic patients and leads to chronic hypoperfusion of brain tissue, exacerbating cognitive impairment.

Additionally, diabetes is associated with a higher risk of stroke [35], a significant factor in vascular cognitive impairment and dementia. Strokes in diabetic patients tend to be more severe with a slower recovery, often leaving lasting cognitive deficits. Post-stroke cognitive decline is accelerated in the presence of diabetes due to ongoing cerebrovascular instability and recurrent ischemic events.

Furthermore, cerebrovascular damage in diabetes is linked with an increased deposition of betaamyloid in the cerebral arteries, known as cerebral amyloid angiopathy, which itself is a risk factor for hemorrhagic stroke and cognitive decline [5][9]. This condition exacerbates the already vulnerable cerebrovascular environment, increasing the susceptibility to neurodegenerative processes.

In summary, the cerebrovascular damage theory underscores the significant impact of vascular health on cognitive function in diabetic patients. It highlights the importance of managing cardiovascular risk factors and maintaining vascular integrity to mitigate the cognitive decline associated with diabetes. This approach involves controlling blood glucose levels, managing blood pressure, and addressing lipid abnormalities to prevent or slow the progression of cerebrovascular disease.

5. Neuroinflammation Theory

Neuroinflammation is increasingly recognized as a significant contributor to cognitive decline in diabetes, acting through mechanisms that damage neuronal integrity and disrupt cognitive functions. In diabetic patients, chronic hyperglycemia and insulin resistance often lead to systemic inflammation, which extends to the central nervous system (CNS) and contributes to neurodegenerative processes [36][37].

In the context of diabetes, elevated levels of circulating pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-α) and interleukin-6 (IL-6), are common [11]. These inflammatory mediators can cross the blood-brain barrier, exacerbated by its increased permeability due to diabetes-related endothelial dysfunction [15]. Once within the CNS, these cytokines can activate microglia—the brain's resident immune cells. Activated microglia produce further inflammatory signals, creating a cycle of chronic inflammation that can lead to synaptic dysfunction and neuronal loss.

The chronic inflammatory state in the brain disrupts neurotrophic support and leads to alterations in neuronal signaling and plasticity, essential for learning and memory. Additionally, inflammation can exacerbate the accumulation of neurotoxic substances, such as amyloid-beta plaques, further contributing to the pathology of cognitive decline[35]. This accumulation is particularly critical as it not only directly damages neurons but also promotes further inflammatory responses, establishing a self-perpetuating cycle of neurodegeneration.

Moreover, neuroinflammation has been linked to the disruption of the blood-brain barrier's integrity, allowing more harmful substances to enter the brain parenchyma and further fueling inflammatory processes [16]. This disruption can lead to additional neuronal damage and loss of cognitive function.

Glial cells, including astrocytes and microglia, which typically serve protective roles in the brain, can become sources of inflammatory mediators under diabetic conditions. Their prolonged activation and the resultant release of cytokines and reactive oxygen species contribute to a harmful environment that impairs cognitive functions.

In conclusion, the neuroinflammation theory highlights how diabetes-induced inflammatory processes in the CNS contribute to cognitive decline. This perspective underscores the importance of anti-inflammatory treatments and strategies aimed at reducing systemic inflammation as potential interventions to preserve cognitive function in diabetic patients, emphasizing a holistic approach to diabetes management that includes targeting inflammation.

6. Protein Deposition Theory

Protein deposition, notably of amyloid-beta and tau proteins, plays a crucial role in cognitive decline associated with diabetes [38]. These proteins are central to the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease but are also increasingly linked to diabetic cognitive impairment. The hyperglycemic environment in diabetes accelerates the pathological processes leading to abnormal protein accumulation in the brain, contributing significantly to neurodegeneration.

In diabetes, biochemical alterations such as advanced glycation end-products (AGEs) formation and oxidative stress facilitate the misfolding and aggregation of proteins like amyloid-beta and tau [39]. This misfolding is further exacerbated by impaired clearance mechanisms in the diabetic brain,

where insulin resistance plays a key role. Insulin dysregulation affects the enzymes responsible for degrading amyloid-beta, leading to its accumulation. Similarly, hyperinsulinemia can increase tau phosphorylation, promoting the formation of neurofibrillary tangles [40], which disrupt neural communication and lead to cell death.

The deposition of these proteins not only contributes directly to neuronal damage but also induces a secondary inflammatory response. This inflammation further damages brain tissue and accelerates the decline in cognitive function. Moreover, the presence of amyloid plaques and tau tangles impairs synaptic function and neuronal connectivity, critical components of cognitive processes such as memory, learning, and executive functions.

Additionally, the interaction between diabetes and protein deposition suggests a shared pathway with neurodegenerative diseases, implicating diabetes as a risk factor for conditions like Alzheimer's disease. This relationship underscores the importance of managing blood glucose and insulin levels to mitigate the risk of protein deposition and subsequent cognitive decline.

7. Current and Potential Therapeutic Interventions for Cognitive Decline in Diabetes

Effective management of cognitive decline in diabetic patients involves a holistic approach that includes pharmacological treatments, lifestyle modifications, and cutting-edge interventions [41][42]. Pharmacologically, strict glucose control using insulin and oral hypoglycemics is crucial, as maintaining optimal blood sugar levels can mitigate hyperglycemia-related damage [43]. Additionally, antihypertensive and lipid-lowering medications help manage cardiovascular risks that could worsen cerebrovascular health, indirectly supporting cognitive function. Cognitive enhancers like cholinesterase inhibitors, though primarily used for Alzheimer's disease, are also being examined for their potential in treating diabetes-related cognitive impairments [44][45].

Lifestyle changes play a pivotal role; a diet rich in antioxidants such as fruits, vegetables, and whole grains, along with regular physical activity, enhances glycemic control, reduces insulin resistance, and boosts neurogenesis [46]. Engaging in cognitive training exercises like puzzles and reading can also help strengthen cognitive reserves and delay cognitive decline [47].

Emerging interventions include anti-inflammatory treatments that target the inflammatory pathways contributing to cognitive decline and neuroprotective agents that guard against the neuronal damage caused by hyperglycemia and abnormal protein accumulation [48]. Furthermore, integrating technological aids such as digital tools and apps to support memory and daily functions offers a practical approach to managing cognitive symptoms [49]. This multidisciplinary strategy, combining medical treatment with proactive lifestyle and technological support, is essential for not only managing diabetes but also for protecting against cognitive deterioration. This continuous research and innovation are vital for developing more effective interventions that uphold cognitive health in diabetic patients.

8. Conclusion

The exploration of various pathophysiological mechanisms behind cognitive decline in diabetes—hyperglycemia, insulin resistance, cerebrovascular damage, neuroinflammation, and protein deposition—reveals a complex interplay of factors that contribute to this debilitating condition. Each mechanism provides insight into how diabetes directly impacts brain health and cognitive functions, highlighting the multifaceted nature of diabetic complications.

Future research should aim to dissect these relationships further, providing a clearer picture of how these mechanisms interact and contribute to cognitive decline. Understanding these pathways in greater depth will be crucial for developing targeted interventions that can delay or prevent cognitive impairment in diabetic patients. Emphasizing comprehensive diabetes management that goes beyond simple glucose control to include measures against inflammation and vascular health could significantly enhance cognitive outcomes and improve the quality of life for individuals suffering

from this chronic condition.

References

- [1] Biessels G J, Despa F. Cognitive decline and dementia in diabetes mellitus: mechanisms and clinical implications[J]. Nature Reviews Endocrinology, 2018, 14(10): 591-604.
- [2] Roberts R O, Knopman D S, Przybelski S A, et al. Association of type 2 diabetes with brain atrophy and cognitive impairment [J]. Neurology, 2014, 82(13): 1132-1141.
- [3] Kodl CT, Seaquist ER. Cognitive dysfunction and diabetes mellitus[J]. Endocrine reviews, 2008, 29(4): 494-511.
- [4] Cukierman T, Gerstein H C, Williamson J D. Cognitive decline and dementia in diabetes—systematic overview of prospective observational studies[J]. Diabetologia, 2005, 48: 2460-2469.
- [5] Rad S K, Arya A, Karimian H, et al. Mechanism involved in insulin resistance via accumulation of β -amyloid and neurofibrillary tangles: Link between type 2 diabetes and Alzheimer's disease[J]. Drug design, development and therapy, 2018: 3999-4021.
- [6] Blázquez E, Velázquez E, Hurtado-Carneiro V, et al. Insulin in the brain: its pathophysiological implications for States related with central insulin resistance, type 2 diabetes and Alzheimer's disease[J]. Frontiers in endocrinology, 2014, 5: 161.
- [7] Michailidis M, Moraitou D, Tata D A, et al. Alzheimer's disease as type 3 diabetes: common pathophysiological mechanisms between Alzheimer's disease and type 2 diabetes[J]. International journal of molecular sciences, 2022, 23(5): 2687.
- [8] Dutta B J, Singh S, Seksaria S, et al. Inside the diabetic brain: Insulin resistance and molecular mechanism associated with cognitive impairment and its possible therapeutic strategies[J]. Pharmacological Research, 2022, 182: 106358.
- [9] Bellia C, Lombardo M, Meloni M, et al. Diabetes and cognitive decline[J]. Advances in clinical chemistry, 2022, 108: 37-71.
- [10] Ehtewish H, Arredouani A, El-Agnaf O. Diagnostic, prognostic, and mechanistic biomarkers of diabetes mellitus-associated cognitive decline[J]. International journal of molecular sciences, 2022, 23(11): 6144.
- [11] Zhang S, Zhang Y, Wen Z, et al. Cognitive dysfunction in diabetes: Abnormal glucose metabolic regulation in the brain [J]. Frontiers in Endocrinology, 2023, 14: 1192602.
- [12] Ly H, Despa F. Hyperamylinemia as a risk factor for accelerated cognitive decline in diabetes[J]. Expert review of proteomics, 2015, 12(6): 575-577.
- [13] Patching S G. Glucose transporters at the blood-brain barrier: function, regulation and gateways for drug delivery [J]. Molecular neurobiology, 2017, 54(2): 1046-1077.
- [14] Rom S, Heldt N A, Gajghate S, et al. Hyperglycemia and advanced glycation end products disrupt BBB and promote occludin and claudin-5 protein secretion on extracellular microvesicles[J]. Scientific reports, 2020, 10(1): 7274.
- [15] Venkat P, Chopp M, Chen J. Blood-brain barrier disruption, vascular impairment, and ischemia/reperfusion damage in diabetic stroke[J]. Journal of the American Heart Association, 2017, 6(6): e005819.
- [16] Rom S, Zuluaga-Ramirez V, Gajghate S, et al. Hyperglycemia-driven neuroinflammation compromises BBB leading to memory loss in both diabetes mellitus (DM) type 1 and type 2 mouse models[J]. Molecular neurobiology, 2019, 56: 1883-1896.
- [17] Coucha M, Abdelsaid M, Ward R, et al. Impact of metabolic diseases on cerebral circulation: structural and functional consequences[J]. Comprehensive Physiology, 2018, 8(2): 773.
- [18] Østergaard L, Engedal T S, Moreton F, et al. Cerebral small vessel disease: capillary pathways to stroke and cognitive decline[J]. Journal of Cerebral Blood Flow & Metabolism, 2016, 36(2): 302-325.
- [19] De Silva T M, Miller A A. Cerebral small vessel disease: targeting oxidative stress as a novel therapeutic strategy? [J]. Frontiers in pharmacology, 2016, 7: 185462.
- [20] Arnold S E, Arvanitakis Z, Macauley-Rambach S L, et al. Brain insulin resistance in type 2 diabetes and Alzheimer disease: concepts and conundrums[J]. Nature Reviews Neurology, 2018, 14(3): 168-181.
- [21] Tumminia A, Vinciguerra F, Parisi M, et al. Type 2 diabetes mellitus and Alzheimer's disease: role of insulin signalling and therapeutic implications[J]. International journal of molecular sciences, 2018, 19(11): 3306.
- [22] Blázquez E, Velázquez E, Hurtado-Carneiro V, et al. Insulin in the brain: its pathophysiological implications for States related with central insulin resistance, type 2 diabetes and Alzheimer's disease[J]. Frontiers in endocrinology, 2014, 5: 161.
- [23] Verdile G, Fuller S J, Martins R N. The role of type 2 diabetes in neurodegeneration[J]. Neurobiology of disease, 2015, 84: 22-38.
- [24] van der Heide L P, Ramakers G M J, Smidt M P. Insulin signaling in the central nervous system: learning to survive [J]. Progress in neurobiology, 2006, 79(4): 205-221.
- [25] Schulingkamp R J, Pagano T C, Hung D, et al. Insulin receptors and insulin action in the brain: review and clinical implications[J]. Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews, 2000, 24(8): 855-872.
- [26] Ghasemi R, Haeri A, Dargahi L, et al. Insulin in the brain: sources, localization and functions[J]. Molecular neurobiology, 2013, 47: 145-171.

- [27] Ahmad R M A H, Ababneh N A, Al-Domi H A. Brain insulin resistance as a mechanistic mediator links peripheral metabolic disorders with declining cognition[J]. Diabetes & Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research & Reviews, 2022, 16(4): 102468.
- [28] Mullins R J, Diehl T C, Chia C W, et al. Insulin resistance as a link between amyloid-beta and tau pathologies in Alzheimer's disease[J]. Frontiers in aging neuroscience, 2017, 9: 118.
- [29] Sharma VK, Singh TG. Insulin resistance and bioenergetic manifestations: Targets and approaches in Alzheimer's disease. Life Sci. 2020;262:118401. doi:10.1016/j.lfs.2020.118401
- [30] Bramen JE, Siddarth P, Popa ES, et al. Impact of Eating a Carbohydrate-Restricted Diet on Cortical Atrophy in a Cross-Section of Amyloid Positive Patients with Alzheimer's Disease: A Small Sample Study. J Alzheimers Dis. 2023; 96(1):329-342. doi:10.3233/JAD-230458
- [31] Kopp KO, Glotfelty EJ, Li Y, Greig NH. Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) receptor agonists and neuroinflammation: Implications for neurodegenerative disease treatment. Pharmacol Res. 2022;186:106550. doi:10.1016/j.phrs. 2022. 106550
- [32] Leung A, Amaram V, Natarajan R. Linking diabetic vascular complications with LncRNAs. Vascul Pharmacol. 2019; 114:139-144. doi:10.1016/j.vph.2018.01.007
- [33] Maida CD, Daidone M, Pacinella G, Norrito RL, Pinto A, Tuttolomondo A. Diabetes and Ischemic Stroke: An Old and New Relationship an Overview of the Close Interaction between These Diseases. Int J Mol Sci. 2022;23(4):2397. Published 2022 Feb 21. doi:10.3390/ijms23042397
- [34] Bai B, Yang Y, Wang Q, et al. NLRP3 inflammasome in endothelial dysfunction. Cell Death Dis. 2020;11(9):776. Published 2020 Sep 18. doi:10.1038/s41419-020-02985-x
- [35] Emerging Risk Factors Collaboration, Sarwar N, Gao P, et al. Diabetes mellitus, fasting blood glucose concentration, and risk of vascular disease: a collaborative meta-analysis of 102 prospective studies [published correction appears in Lancet. 2010 Sep 18;376(9745):958. Hillage, H L [corrected to Hillege, H L]]. Lancet. 2010; 375(9733):2215-2222. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(10)60484-9
- [36] Constantin-Teodosiu D. Regulation of muscle pyruvate dehydrogenase complex in insulin resistance: effects of exercise and dichloroacetate. Diabetes Metab J. 2013;37(5):301-314. doi:10.4093/dmj.2013.37.5.301
- [37] Wellen KE, Fucho R, Gregor MF, et al. Coordinated regulation of nutrient and inflammatory responses by STAMP2 is essential for metabolic homeostasis. Cell. 2007;129(3):537-548. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2007.02.049
- [38] Kandimalla R, Thirumala V, Reddy PH. Is Alzheimer's disease a Type 3 Diabetes? A critical appraisal. Biochim Biophys Acta Mol Basis Dis. 2017;1863(5):1078-1089. doi:10.1016/j.bbadis.2016.08.018
- [39] Pereira PR, Carrageta DF, Oliveira PF, Rodrigues A, Alves MG, Monteiro MP. Metabolomics as a tool for the early diagnosis and prognosis of diabetic kidney disease. Med Res Rev. 2022; 42(4):1518-1544. doi:10.1002/med.21883 [40] Singh R,Devi S, Gollen R. Role of free radical in atherosclerosis, diabetes and dyslipidaemia: larger-than-life. Diabetes Metab Res Rev. 2015;31(2):113-126. doi:10.1002/dmrr.2558
- [41] Pasquel FJ, Lansang MC, Dhatariya K, Umpierrez GE. Management of diabetes and hyperglycaemia in the hospital. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol. 2021;9(3):174-188. doi:10.1016/S2213-8587(20)30381-8
- [42] Davies MJ, Aroda VR, Collins BS, et al. Management of Hyperglycemia in Type 2 Diabetes, 2022. A Consensus Report by the American Diabetes Association (ADA) and the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD). Diabetes Care. 2022;45(11):2753-2786. doi:10.2337/dci22-0034
- [43] Lambrinou E, Hansen TB, Beulens JW. Lifestyle factors, self-management and patient empowerment in diabetes care. Eur J Prev Cardiol. 2019;26(2_suppl):55-63. doi:10.1177/2047487319885455
- [44] Kuang ZM. Effect of Combined Antihypertensive and Lipid-Lowering Therapies on Cognitive Function: A New Treatment Strategy? Cardiol Res Pract. 2020;2020:1484357. Published 2020 Apr 14. doi:10.1155/2020/1484357
- [45] Gelber RP, Ross GW, Petrovitch H, Masaki KH, Launer LJ, White LR. Antihypertensive medication use and risk of cognitive impairment: the Honolulu-Asia Aging Study. Neurology. 2013;81(10):888-895. doi:10.1212/WNL. 0b013e 3182a 351d4
- [46] Le DC, Vu TB, Tran TN, et al. The Effectiveness of Lifestyle Changes in Glycemic Control among Pregnant Women withGestational Diabetes Mellitus. Medicina (Kaunas). 2023;59(9):1587. Published 2023 Sep 1. doi:10.3390/medicina 59091587
- [47] Fatima MT, Bhat AA, Nisar S, Fakhro KA, Al-Shabeeb Akil AS. The role of dietary antioxidants in type 2 diabetes and neurodegenerative disorders: An assessment of the benefit profile. Heliyon. 2022;9(1):e12698. Published 2022 Dec 30. doi:10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e12698
- [48] Mallah K, Couch C, Borucki DM, Toutonji A, Alshareef M, Tomlinson S. Anti-inflammatory and Neuroprotective Agents in Clinical Trials for CNS Disease and Injury: Where Do We Go From Here?. Front Immunol. 2020;11:2021. Published 2020 Sep 10. doi:10.3389/fimmu.2020.02021
- [49] Charness N, Best R, Souders D. Memory function and supportive technology. Gerontechnology. 2012;11(1):10. 4017/gt.2012.11.01.006.00. doi:10.4017/gt.2012.11.01.006.00