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Unraveling the Role of Inflammation

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Coronavirus Disease 2019 and its Impact on the Cognition of Older Adults: Unraveling the Role of Inflammation

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26

27 **ABSTRACT**

28 **Background:** The Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic significantly impacted the
29 older adult population globally. This study aimed to investigate cognitive function and its relationship
30 with inflammation in older COVID-19 survivors over a three-month follow-up to address concerns
31 about cognitive impairment and its risk factors.

32 **Methods:** In this descriptive-analytical study, 177 hospitalized COVID-19 patients aged >60 were
33 assessed from July 2021 to February 2022. Psychiatric, global cognitive assessments and activities
34 of daily living were conducted at discharge, 1 month, and 3 months post-discharge. Statistical
35 analyses were conducted using SPSS Version 24. The evolution of cognitive status over time was
36 evaluated using the Repeated Measures Test. The study probed into the association between
37 inflammatory markers and cognitive function through the Pearson correlation test and the Mann–
38 Whitney U test. Additionally, the link between anxiety/depression and cognitive performance was
39 examined using the Pearson correlation.

40 **Results:** Results indicated that higher levels of C-reactive protein (CRP), D-dimer, and Lactate
41 Dehydrogenase (LDH) were correlated to reduced cognitive performance. Conversely, Erythrocyte
42 Sedimentation Rate (ESR) and Creatine Phosphokinase (CPK) did not exhibit a significant
43 relationship with cognitive scores. A positive correlation was observed between improved cognitive
44 function (reflected by higher GPCOG scores) and lower levels of anxiety and depression (indicated
45 by lower scores on the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale). Over the study period, cognitive
46 function and anxiety scores showed an upward trend, whereas symptoms of depression and challenges
47 in daily activities remained consistent.

48 **Conclusions:** The study highlights the enduring effects and detrimental role of inflammation on
49 overall cognitive abilities among older survivors of COVID-19. It underscores the urgent need for

50 specialized interventions and rehabilitative strategies to facilitate sustained cognitive recuperation
51 among these individuals.

52 **Keywords:** COVID-19, Cognition, Depression, Biomarker, Aged

53 **Coronavirus Disease 2019 and its Impact on the Cognition of Older Adults:** 54 **Unraveling the Role of Inflammation**

55

56 **1 Introduction**

57

58 The Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, caused by Severe Acute Respiratory
59 Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), originated in China and rapidly spread worldwide [1].
60 While respiratory symptoms are the primary manifestation of COVID-19, approximately 35% of
61 patients also experience neuropsychiatric symptoms, including depression, anxiety, and cognitive
62 impairment [2, 3]. Cognitive impairment is a debilitating symptom that can persist into the recovery
63 phase known as long COVID [4]. Both depressive symptoms and neurocognitive impairment were
64 identified three months after COVID-19 infection [5]. It is worth noting that depression has an impact
65 on neurocognitive functions, which may reflect the presence of common inflammatory triggers [6].
66 Although the exact mechanisms underlying the neuropsychiatric manifestations remain unclear,
67 several neurotoxic mechanisms have been proposed, suggesting that COVID-19 affects the brain
68 through multiple independent pathways [7].

69 Systemic inflammation and cytokine storms play significant roles in the clinical presentation of
70 COVID-19 infection [8] and are risk factors for both the development and exacerbation of cognitive
71 impairment [9]. Following infection, persistent molecular and functional changes in the brain are
72 associated with systemic inflammation [10, 11]. COVID-19 may lead to prolonged inflammation,
73 even after viral clearance, which may predict the persistence of depression and neurocognitive
74 disorders [12, 13]. Inflammatory markers increase blood-brain barrier permeability, allowing

75 neurotoxic molecules to infiltrate the Central Nervous System (CNS) [14]. Inflammation can also
76 induce structural damage, such as hippocampal atrophy [15].

77 Several inflammatory indices, including the Erythrocyte Sedimentation Rate (ESR), C-reactive
78 protein (CRP), Lactate Dehydrogenase (LDH), Creatine Phosphokinase (CPK), and D-dimer, are
79 elevated during COVID-19 infection. These markers are not only associated with disease severity but
80 also predict worse outcomes [16-19]. COVID-19 severity and outcomes are more prominent in older
81 patients, with the majority of deaths occurring among this age group [20]. Age-related immune
82 imbalances contribute to the excessive release of proinflammatory cytokines, leading to a cytokine
83 storm [21].

84 Older individuals, along with other age groups, are particularly susceptible to adverse outcomes
85 following COVID-19 infection. Research has shown that advanced age is a significant risk factor for
86 severe COVID-19 outcomes [20] and studies have emphasized the potential for cognitive decline in
87 older adults [22, 23]. While studies have highlighted the impact of inflammation on cognitive function
88 in older adults [24], few studies have investigated the link between cognitive function and
89 inflammation in elderly individuals who have recovered from COVID-19 [25]. There is a pressing
90 need for more extensive research to understand this connection fully, particularly across varied
91 demographics and in different contexts such as in developing and low-income nations. The increasing
92 number of older adults highlights the importance of conducting geriatric research. It is particularly
93 noteworthy that, to date, no research in low- and middle-income countries, Iran included, has
94 examined cognitive function and associated inflammatory markers in elderly COVID-19 survivors
95 during their recovery period.

96 Regarding the evaluation of patients observed in the literature [4,6], we hypothesize that COVID-
97 19 negatively affects the cognitive performance of older patients over time. Drawing from the existing
98 literature that establishes connections between inflammatory markers and cognitive function [9,15],
99 our hypothesis posits that elevated levels of inflammatory markers are correlated with cognitive

100 impairment. Based on the literature [3, 6, 39], we also expect group differences concerning the role
101 of depression and anxiety in cognitive impairment over time.

102 The research evaluated the cognitive and psychological well-being of elderly COVID-19 patients
103 at the time of hospital discharge, as well as one and three months afterward. It investigated the
104 correlation between cognitive deficits and inflammatory indicators such as ESR, CRP, LDH, CPK,
105 and D-dimer, with the goal of pinpointing potential factors contributing to cognitive decline in those
106 who have recovered from COVID-19. Additionally, the study examined the impact of depression and
107 anxiety on the cognitive abilities of these patients.

108

109 **2 Methods**

110

111 **2.1 Study Design and Participants**

112 This descriptive analytics study focused on older adult COVID-19 patients admitted to a
113 hospital affiliated with Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences or Ahvaz Naft Grand
114 Hospital from July 2021 to February 2022. Inclusion criteria encompassed individuals aged 60 years
115 and older, capable of undergoing cognitive assessments, without diagnosed neurocognitive disorders
116 or major psychiatric/neurological disorders, delirium, or use of psychotropic medications. Patients
117 unwilling to undergo follow-up assessments were excluded. Of 383 COVID-19-positive older
118 patients according to Real-Time Reverse Transcription-Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR), Out
119 of 211 individuals who met the inclusion criteria, 177 patients were ultimately selected for the study,
120 following the exclusion of those who did not fully complete the required study questionnaires.

121 **2.2 Patient Evaluation**

122

123 COVID-19 infection was confirmed based on clinical presentation combined with a positive RT-
124 PCR result from a nasopharyngeal swab. Written informed consent was obtained from all the subjects.
125 Demographic information was collected.

126 A semi-structured psychiatric interview, conducted by a dedicated psychiatrist, was employed to
127 investigate the presence of any psychiatric disorders related to the inclusion and exclusion criteria
128 based on the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5). [26].

129 Prospectively, patients' mental and cognitive states were assessed at the time of hospital discharge
130 and 1 month and 3 months post-discharge.

131 **2.3 Psychiatric and Cognitive Assessment**

132 Patients' mental states were evaluated using the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS)
133 for anxiety and depression screening. The General Practitioner Assessment of Cognition (GPCOG)
134 was employed for global cognitive evaluation. Basic Activities of Daily Living (ADL) and
135 Instrumental Activities of Daily Living (IADL) questionnaires were used to assess patients' functional
136 status.

137 **Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS):** The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale
138 (HADS) is a widely used self-report questionnaire designed to assess and screen for symptoms of
139 anxiety and depression in patients with physical health conditions [27]. It was specifically developed
140 to address the challenges of identifying emotional distress in medical settings and is considered a
141 reliable and efficient tool for this purpose. The HADS consists of two subscales, the HADS-Anxiety
142 Scale (HADS-A) and the HADS-Depression Scale (HADS-D), each comprising seven items. Each
143 item on the HADS is scored on a Likert scale, typically ranging from 0 to 3, with higher scores
144 indicating greater symptom severity. The total score for each subscale (HADS-A and HADS-D)
145 ranges from 0 to 21, with higher scores reflecting higher levels of anxiety or depression. The
146 reliability of the HADS anxiety and depression subscales in the Iranian version has been reported
147 with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.85 and 0.70, respectively. In the Iranian adaptation of the
148 HADS, the cutoff for diagnosing anxiety and depression is set at a score of 6. For depression, a score
149 between 0 and 6 denotes the absence of depression, 7 to 8 suggests mild depression, 9 to 10 indicates
150 moderate depression, and a score of 11 or higher signifies severe depression. In the case of anxiety,

151 a score from 0 to 6 implies no anxiety, 7 to 9 represents mild anxiety, 10 to 13 indicates moderate
152 anxiety, and a score exceeding 14 points to severe anxiety [28].

153 ***General Practitioner Assessment of Cognition (GPCOG):*** The General Practitioner Assessment
154 of Cognition (GPCOG) is a brief cognitive screening instrument designed for primary care settings,
155 which aids general practitioners in identifying potential global cognitive impairment in older adults
156 [29]. It has two components: a patient examination (GPCOG-P score: 0-9) and an informant
157 questionnaire (GPCOG-I score: 0-6). The GPCOG - patient assesses four cognitive aspects, including
158 orientation, recent information retrieval, executive function, visuospatial ability, and delayed recall .
159 The GPCOG-informant interview comprises six questions covering cognitive and functional abilities
160 concerning problems recalling recent events, misplacing objects, word-finding difficulties, managing
161 finances, managing medications, and requiring help for transportation [30]. the Iranian version,
162 Cronbach's alpha values for the GPCOG patient and informant subscales were 0.90 and 0.83,
163 respectively, indicating high internal consistency and homogeneity between items. The test-retest
164 correlation for the total P-GPCOG score was 0.82 in 30 participants after 19 days [31]. The utilization
165 of the General Practitioner Assessment of Cognition (GPCOG) as a screening tool for dementia
166 demonstrated its effectiveness in primary care settings. The comparison between GPCOG and the
167 Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) revealed that both tools were similarly effective in detecting
168 likely dementia. Moreover, the GPCOG was found to be a viable alternative to MMSE, requiring less
169 time for administration while maintaining efficacy in screening for dementia [32]. Additionally,
170 incorporating feedback from informants into the cognitive assessment procedure significantly
171 improves the appraisal of cognitive health among older patients [33].

172 ***Basic Activities of Daily Living (BADL) and Instrumental Activities of Daily Living (IADL):***
173 The Basic Activity of Daily Living (ADL) is an assessment tool used to evaluate an individual's
174 ability to independently perform basic self-care activities necessary for daily living and is commonly
175 employed in older adults and individuals with disabilities. BADL typically comprises a set of
176 fundamental activities, and individuals are evaluated based on their ability to perform these activities.

177 The BADL scale consists of 8 items, each scored from 0-2. Patients were categorized as
178 independent (12-18), needing help (8-11), or dependent (0-7).

179 The IADL score assesses more complex activities that contribute to independent living. It includes
180 managing finances, meal preparation, housekeeping, shopping, and medication management. It
181 consists of 7 items, each scored using a scale (0-2). Accordingly, patients were considered
182 independent (11-14), needed help (7-10), or dependent (0-6). The content validity index was greater
183 than 0.82 for BADLs and IADLs in Persian. The sensitivity and specificity of the BADL and IADL
184 were 0.75 and 0.96, respectively, and Cronbach's alpha was more than 0.75 [34].

185 **2.4 Inflammatory Marker Assessment**

186 Upon admission, a serum sample was obtained, and inflammatory marker (ESR, CRP, D-dimer,
187 LDH, and CPK) levels were measured. CPK and LDH were analyzed by the HITACHI 902
188 instrument based on the instruction of the Bioinks Kit with lot no. 140805 for CPK and 141938 for
189 LDH. Moreover, ESR was determined by using the automated ESR analysis instrument (Therma).
190 CRP was evaluated based on the Unit kit using the BT3000 Autoanalyser instrument. According to
191 the kit, CRP had a cut of that less than 6 has been considered as negative, and more than 6 was
192 positive. This point was the same as D-dimer. So, we tested it using the Stago instrument, and the
193 amount of more than 500 was considered positive, and less than 500 was negative.

194 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

195 Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 24 (IBM Corp., Armonk, N.Y., USA)
196 was used for the statistical analyses. The normality of the data was checked using the Kolmogorov–
197 Smirnov test. An alpha level of $P < 0.05$ was considered to indicate statistical significance.
198 Quantitative variables are presented as the mean and standard deviation. The Repeated Measures
199 ANOVA and the Bonferroni post hoc test was used to compare the cognitive status, psychological
200 function, BADL, and IADL of patients over time including at discharge, and 1 month and 3 months
201 after discharge. The correlation between anxiety/depression and cognition was assessed using the
202 Pearson correlation. Pearson correlation was used to investigate the associations between cognitive

203 function and parametric inflammatory indices. Quantitative variables of D-dimer and CRP were
 204 reported as Binary and Categorical (positive and negative), so the non-parametric Mann-Whitney test
 205 was used to compare the quantitative values between the two groups (Comparison of cognitive scores
 206 between two groups whose laboratory values were reported as positive or negative).

207

208 3 Results

209

210 The average age of the participants was 68 ± 6.94 years. Our analysis includes a total number of
 211 177 participants, with 94 males and 71 females. The demographic characteristics of the patients are
 212 summarized in Table 1. The samples were consistent at different measurement times.

213 **Table 1.** Demographic characteristics of patients at hospital discharge

Variable		N	%
Gender	Male	71	0.40
	Female	94	0.53
Marital status	Single & Widowed	124	70.05
	Married	53	29.9
Educational level	≤ High school Diploma	135	76.3
	>High school Diploma	42	23.7
Job	Employed	17	9.6
	Retired	160	90.4

214

215 The results of repeated measures analysis for the cognitive and psychiatric assessments are
 216 presented in Table 2.

217 **Table 2.** Results of Repeated Measures Analysis for Cognitive (GPCOG-P and GPCOG-I) and
 218 Psychological Assessment

Variables	Discharge time Mean (\pm SD)	After 1 month Mean (\pm SD)	After 3 months Mean (\pm SD)	P-value
GPCOG-P	4.84 (\pm 2.42)	5.04 (\pm 2.45)	5.24 (\pm 2.62)	<0.001
GPCOG-I	2.30 (\pm 2.62)	2.82 (\pm 2.72)	2.99 (\pm 2.69)	<0.001
Anxiety	12.97 (\pm 4.41)	12.50 (\pm 4.90)	11.53 (\pm 4.62)	<0.001
Depression	6.70 (\pm 4.43)	6.46 (\pm 4.57)	6.23 (\pm 4.50)	0.12
BADL	14.92 (\pm 1.62)	14.97 (\pm 1.40)	14.90 (\pm 1.42)	0.805
IADL	12.62 (\pm 2.35)	13.03 (\pm 1.33)	13.35 (\pm 1.23)	<0.001

219

220 A post hoc pairwise comparison using the Bonferroni correction showed a significant difference
221 between the mean scores of the GPCOG-P at discharge and 1 and 3 months later. The mean GPCOG-
222 P score increased over 3 months. There was a significant difference between the mean GPCOG-I
223 score and IADL score at discharge and three months later. The GPCOG-I and IADL scores of the
224 participants showed significant improvement after three months. Nonetheless, the analysis revealed
225 no significant variation in the GPCOG-I scores between months 1 and 3, nor in the IADL scores
226 across the same timeframe. For anxiety scores, there was a difference between the mean scores at the
227 time of discharge and the third month and between the first and third months, but there was no
228 significant difference between the mean anxiety scores at discharge and the first month. Overall, the
229 mean anxiety scores of the participants decreased after three months. There was no significant
230 difference in depression scores throughout the study. The mean scores for BADL remained relatively
231 stable during the study. In summary, these results suggest that there are significant improvements in
232 cognitive functioning (GPCOG-P and GPCOG-I scores), anxiety levels, and IADL over time ($p <$
233 0.001). However, there were no significant changes in depression or basic activities of daily living
234 (Table 2).

235 Table 3 summarizes the correlations between LDH levels, the ESR, and CPK levels and the
 236 cognitive function of patients at hospital discharge (GPCOG-P₀, GPCOG-I₀), 1 month later (GPCOG-
 237 P₁, GPCOG-I₁), and 3 months later (GPCOG-P₃, GPCOG-I₃) according to Pearson correlation
 238 analysis.

239 The results indicate that LDH is significantly correlated with cognitive function scores and that
 240 higher LDH levels are associated with lower cognitive function. Moreover, the ESR and CPK did not
 241 significantly correlate with cognitive function.

242

243 **Table 3.** Correlation coefficients between inflammatory indices and cognitive function

Variables	LDH	ESR	CPK
GPCOG-P ₀	-0.306**	-0.33	-0.102
GPCOG-I ₀	-0.302**	+0.096	-0.128
GPCOG-P ₁	-0.337**	+0.137	-0.32
GPCOG-I ₁	-0.217**	-0.08	-0.221
GPCOG-P ₃	-0.345**	+0.099	-0.32
GPCOG-I ₃	-0.156*	-0.103	-0.212

244 Note. *: P-value<0.05, **: P value<0.01, 0: at the time of hospital discharge, 1: 1 month after discharge, 3: 3 months
 245 after discharge

246

247 A comparison of the mean cognitive indices according to CRP and D-dimer levels using Mann–
 248 Whitney U analysis also revealed that the cognitive score was significantly greater in patients with
 249 negative D-dimer and/or negative C-reactive protein (CRP) levels than in patients with positive D-
 250 dimer and/or CRP levels. The results are summarized in Table 4.

251

252 **Table 4.** Comparison of average cognitive assessment scores based on CRP and D-dimer levels

Variables	CRP			D-Dimer		
	Negative	Positive	P-value	Negative	Positive	P-value
GPCOG-P₀ (Mean ± SD)	6.63±2.35	3.61±1.55	<0.001	6.10±2.59	4.00±2.01	0.001
GPCOG-I₀	4.90±1.70	1.70±2.55	<0.001	4.5±2.17	2.29±2.82	<0.001
GPCOG-P₁	7.08±2.24	3.6±1.29	<0.001	6.47±2.5	4.18±1.97	<0.001
GPCOG-I₁	4.2±2.32	1.54±2.5	<0.001	3.84±2.53	2.2±2.78	0.007
GPCOG-P₃	7.51±2.25	3.66±1.44	<0.001	6.91±2.48	4.32±2.19	<0.001
GPCOG-I₃	3.99±2.34	1.47±2.49	<0.001	3.58±2.52	2.4±2.98	0.112

253 Note. 0: at the time of hospital discharge, 1: 1 month after discharge, 3: 3 months after discharge

254 Table 5 reveals the correlations between age, depression, anxiety, cognitive function, and
 255 functional ability. Age was positively correlated with depression and anxiety scores. Better cognitive
 256 function (higher scores on GPCOG) was correlated with less anxiety and less depression (lower
 257 scores on Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale). Better cognitive function is associated with
 258 improved daily activities. Anxiety and depression are also correlated. These correlations remained
 259 relatively unchanged throughout the study (Supplementary table 1 and 2).

260 **Table 5.** Correlations between variables at the time of discharge

Variables	GPCOG-P	GPCOG-I	BADL	IADL	Anxiety	Depression	Age
GPCOG-P	1	+0.76**	+0.34**	-0.15	-0.66**	-0.749**	-0.3**
GPCOG-I		1	+0.15*	-0.12	-0.72**	-0.75**	-0.16*
BADL			1	+0.43**	-0.24**	-0.21**	-0.16**
IADL				1	-0.07	-0.08	-0.02
Anxiety					1	+0.82**	+0.2**
Depression						1	+0.25**
Age							1

261 Note. *: P value<0.05, **: P-value<0.01

262 4 Discussion

263 The present study aimed to investigate the relationship between inflammation and global cognition
264 in older survivors of COVID-19 three months after discharge. A cognitive assessment of patients
265 indicated lower mean scores on the informant subscales of the GPCOG at the time of discharge and
266 the 1- and 3-month follow-up intervals (2.30 (± 2.62), 2.82 (± 2.72), 2.99 (± 2.69) respectively)
267 compared to mean scores of informant subscale GPCOG in the validation study performed on
268 community-dwelling older adults in Iran (3.49 (± 2.24)) [31]. These findings are consistent with those
269 of other studies that reported cognitive decline after respiratory distress syndrome [35] and COVID-
270 19 infection [36].

271 The study's findings revealed that despite lower scores on the informant subscale of the GPCOG
272 over time, patients showed significant improvement in cognitive function, as assessed by the
273 GPCOG-P and GPCOG-I. These findings suggest that older COVID-19 survivors may experience
274 recovery in cognitive abilities over time, which may lead to promising results for the overall well-
275 being and quality of life of COVID-19 survivors. This upward trajectory in cognitive performance
276 after recovery highlights the promising prospects for cognitive rehabilitation and recuperation in
277 those who have faced cognitive difficulties due to COVID-19.

278 The mean anxiety and depression scores of patients were higher than the cutoff points for the
279 diagnosis of anxiety and depression. While anxiety scores demonstrated improvement over time,
280 depression scores remained relatively unchanged. It should be noted that both anxiety and depression
281 could have detrimental impacts on cognitive function. The lack of improvement in depression scores
282 may indicate the durability of cognitive impairment, while an anxiety reduction may contribute to
283 improving trends in cognition. This significant discovery underscores the importance of
284 implementing focused interventions to address depression, which is essential for reducing its negative
285 impact on cognitive functions and general well-being [37].

286 Additionally, IADL improved significantly over time. IADL refers to more complex daily tasks
287 that require greater global cognitive functioning, such as managing finances or using technology. The

288 lower IADL scores suggest that COVID-19 survivors may experience difficulties performing these
289 complex tasks, potentially due to cognitive impairments. An improvement in cognition results in an
290 improvement in IADL. However, there were no significant changes in Basic Activities of Daily
291 Living (BADL) over time.

292 Cognitive function was negatively correlated with age, aligning with prior research that identified
293 an increased risk of cognitive decline in older individuals post-COVID-19 [38]. Enhanced cognitive
294 performance, as measured by higher GPCOG scores, was found to inversely relate to anxiety and
295 depression, which corresponded to lower scores on the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale.
296 Literature has consistently shown a bidirectional link between emotional well-being and cognitive
297 capacity, underscoring the significant role of emotion-cognition dynamics [39]. Moreover, cognitive
298 deficits have been associated with psychiatric conditions like depression in COVID-19 survivors [3]
299 with such psychopathologies contributing to diminished cognitive abilities [6].

300 Correlation analysis between inflammatory markers and global cognitive function scores revealed
301 a significant correlation between higher LDH and lower cognitive function, while neither the ESR
302 nor the CPK concentration was significantly correlated with cognition. LDH is an enzyme that is
303 highly expressed in brain cells and plays an essential role in the glycolytic pathway. LDH is a general
304 indicator of tissue damage, such as encephalitis and ischemic stroke, and is considered an
305 inflammatory marker [40]. Elevated LDH levels are inversely correlated with respiratory function in
306 patients with COVID-19 [41]. Moreover, a subtle yet notable correlation exists between the reduction
307 in gray matter volume and elevated levels of LDH, underscoring the consequential influence of LDH
308 on cognitive functions [42].

309 The correlations of CRP and D-dimer with cognitive function were also explored in this study.
310 Positive CRP and D-dimer levels were significantly associated with consistently decreased cognitive
311 function. These findings suggest a potential link between inflammation (CRP) blood clotting (D-
312 dimer) and cognitive function.

313 CRP is a strong indicator of acute inflammation, and there is a reverse correlation between
314 respiratory performance and CRP [41]. Elevated CRP is a risk factor for developing cognitive
315 impairment and dementia [43], and an association between CRP and cognition was shown for
316 COVID-19 survival [44].

317 In patients with COVID-19, D-dimer levels during the acute phase are associated with cognitive
318 impairment [45]. An elevated D-dimer concentration in patients with COVID-19 is a risk factor for
319 venous thromboembolism [46]. Cerebral microthrombi may explain the relationship between a
320 positive D-dimer level and cognitive decline, which has been observed post-COVID-19 autopsy [47].
321 Additionally, pulmonary hypoperfusion due to thromboembolism in the presence of higher D-dimer
322 concentrations may lead to hypoxia and cognitive impairment [25].

323 The limitations of this study warrant consideration. Firstly, the small sample size may affect the
324 generalizability of the results. Future research with larger, more varied cohorts is needed to deepen
325 our understanding of the link between inflammation and cognitive decline in older adults who have
326 recovered from COVID-19. Secondly, the lack of a control group with another respiratory illness
327 challenges the specificity of cognitive deficits to COVID-19. Thirdly, the observational design limits
328 causal inferences; thus, longitudinal and experimental studies are necessary to clarify the temporal
329 and causal dynamics between inflammation and cognitive health. Fourthly, cognition in older adults
330 is influenced by numerous factors, making it difficult to isolate the effects of inflammation. Fifthly,
331 the study only measured peripheral blood biomarkers at hospital admission, not accounting for
332 changes over time; a longitudinal approach could yield a fuller picture of cognitive outcomes post-
333 COVID-19. Sixth, the absence of a validated cognitive score cut-off in the Iranian context hinders
334 the assessment precision. Seventh, the study did not examine gender differences, which could be
335 influential. Lastly, the GPCOG, being a brief screening tool, necessitates further investigation to
336 identify cognitive domains most vulnerable to impairment.

337

338 **5 Conclusion**

339 In conclusion, this research adds valuable insights to the existing knowledge on the interplay
340 between inflammation and overall cognitive performance among older individuals who have
341 recovered from COVID-19. The study indicates that over time, there is a general improvement in
342 cognitive abilities, anxiety levels, and Instrumental Activities of Daily Living (IADL), whereas
343 depression and the ability to perform basic daily tasks may continue to pose difficulties. Furthermore,
344 these outcomes illuminate the intricate interconnections between inflammatory processes and
345 cognitive health, proposing that various inflammatory indicators could influence cognitive results
346 differently. The implications of these findings are significant for crafting specialized intervention and
347 rehabilitation programs aimed at fostering cognitive recuperation and enhancing the quality of life
348 for those who have survived COVID-19. Nonetheless, it is imperative to conduct additional research
349 to further elucidate the fundamental processes and the enduring impact of inflammation on the
350 cognitive well-being of this demographic.

351

352 *Statement of Ethics*

353 This study was approved by the Bioethics Committee of Ahvaz Jundishapur University of
354 Medical Sciences (registration number: IR.AJUMS.REC.1400.244) and was conducted according to
355 the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. Informed consent was obtained from all individual
356 participants included in the study.

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360 *Credit authorship contribution statement*

361 Shahrzad Mortazavi: Resources; Writing - original draft; and Writing - review & editing. Vahid
362 Rashedi: Methodology, Project administration, Writing – review & editing. Bahman Cheraghian:

363 Methodology, Software, Investigation, Writing – review & editing. Fatemeh Pourshams: Resources,
364 Data curation, Validation, Writing – review & editing. Saeid Saeidimehr: Resources, Data curation,
365 Writing – review & editing. Bahram Dehghan: Resources, Validation, Writing – review & editing.
366 Maryam Pourshams: Conceptualization; Data curation; Project administration; Resources;
367 Supervision; Validation; Visualization; Writing - original draft; and Writing – review & editing.

368 ***Declarations of interest***

369 None

370 ***Conflict of interest***

371 None

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374 ***Data availability***

375 The data supporting the findings of this study are available upon reasonable request from the
376 corresponding author.

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379 ***Appendix A. Supplementary data***

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Journal Pre-proof

Highlights:

1. Emerging evidence suggests a connection between inflammation and cognitive deterioration in COVID-19 patients.
2. Improved cognitive performance is associated with lower levels of anxiety and depression.
3. Patients demonstrated a progressive improvement in cognitive abilities over the course of time.

Journal Pre-proof

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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