

Journal of Advances in Medicine and Medical Research

Volume 35, Issue 24, Page 260-266, 2023; Article no.JAMMR.111541 ISSN: 2456-8899 (Past name: British Journal of Medicine and Medical Research, Past ISSN: 2231-0614, NLM ID: 101570965)

Effect of Tobacco-Smoking on Cognitive Function among Young Adults in a Tertiary Care Hospital of North India-A Pilot Study

Vishal Jindal ^a, Bharat Udey ^{b++*}, Jagriti Bhatia ^{c++}, Jawahar Singh ^{b++} and Gurvinder Pal Singh ^{b#}

^a All India Institute of Medical Sciences, Bathinda, Punjab, India. ^b Department of Psychiatry, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, Bathinda, Punjab, India. ^c Department of Community Medicine, Adesh Institute of Medical Sciences and Research, Bathinda, Punjab, India.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/JAMMR/2023/v35i245345

Open Peer Review History:

This journal follows the Advanced Open Peer Review policy. Identity of the Reviewers, Editor(s) and additional Reviewers, peer review comments, different versions of the manuscript, comments of the editors, etc are available here: https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/111541

Original Research Article

Received: 20/10/2023 Accepted: 25/12/2023 Published: 30/12/2023

ABSTRACT

Introduction: Around 25% of the world's population uses tobacco, with smoking being the most common form. Smoking is linked to long-term health issues, respiratory, cardiovascular, malignancies, neuropsychological dysfunction, and increased risk of depression and cognitive decline. The study aimed to compare non-smokers and tobacco smokers to assess cognitive function impact, hypothesizing smokers have poorer cognitive function.

⁺⁺ Assistant Professor;

[#] Professor and Head;

^{*}Corresponding author: E-mail: bharatudey@gmail.com;

J. Adv. Med. Med. Res., vol. 35, no. 24, pp. 260-266, 2023

Methodology: This cross-sectional study involved 50 young adults, 25 smokers and 25 nonsmokers, in a psychiatry outpatient department at AIIMS Bathinda, Punjab, India. Participants were healthy individuals, without serious medical conditions, drug dependence, or significant brain trauma. The study was approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee. Cognitive functions were assessed using Montreal cognitive assessment (MoCA) (7.1 version) and Fagerstrom Test was used to assess severity of Nicotine dependence among smokers. A p value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results: Sample consisted of 25 male smokers and 25 non-smokers, with 64% aged 22-24 years. Both groups were comparable in in terms of age, education and socioeconomic status. There was no statistically significant difference in cognitive function (MoCA) across demographic profile of subjects. In comparison to tobacco smokers, non-users had a higher mean MoCA score (22.12 vs. 22.08). Abstraction and recall were significantly impaired (p values 0.048 and 0.007, respectively) in tobacco smokers. There was a significant association between cognitive function (MoCA) and nicotine dependency severity (Fagerstorm Test; p=0.026) among tobacco users.

Conclusion: Tobacco smoking increases the risk of neurocognitive impairment, in young adults. The degree of smoking has an adverse effect on individuals' cognitive performance.

Implications: Young adults frequently use tobacco, especially in the form of smoking. Smoking tobacco is thought to enhance performance and attention. However, the current study discovered that it was linked to diminished cognitive function in the areas of recall and attention. Additionally, smokers' cognition is considerably impaired due to the severity of their nicotine dependence. The study implies that in order to understand the relationship between tobacco smoking and cognitive functions, large-scale, prospective investigations are necessary. Additionally, including radiological evaluation of brain functions using functional MRI may provide clearer evidence of the areas of the brain affected by tobacco use.

Keywords: Tobacco; smoking; nicotine dependence; cognitive function; cognitive impairment; MoCA test; fagerstrom test.

ABBREVIATION

MoCA : Montreal Cognitive Assessment

1. INTRODUCTION

According to the WHO, around a quarter (24.9%) of the world's population uses tobacco in some way, with smoking being the most common form of consumption [1]. It is a global health issue that has been linked to detrimental long-term effects like a rise in respiratory illnesses, cardiovascular illnesses, and different types of malignancies. Additionally, smoking is associated to the pathophysiology of neuropsychological dysfunction and directly increases the risk of depression and cognitive decline [1-3].

Tobacco smoke contains over 4 thousand chemicals. Exposure to tobacco smoke is associated with several physiological vascular changes that can lead to the pathogenesis of cerebrovascular-related diseases. For example, nicotine contained in tobacco smoke has been shown to negatively affect endothelial tight junctions and the brain-to-blood Na+ K+ 2CI- co-transporter. This can lead to impaired Blood

Brain Barrier (BBB) function and altered brain homeostasis [4].

Nicotine, the main psychoactive component of tobacco, alters cognitive processes via acting on nicotinic acetyl cholinergic receptors found throughout the central nervous system [5]. Tobacco smoking improves cognitive performance briefly by raising some components of attention and memory above normal levels, whereas nicotine abstinence causes cognitive disturbance in the users, which further increases its usage. These neurobiological consequences reinforce nicotine use and contribute to the development of nicotine dependence [6].

Prolonged nicotine use, on the other hand, may have a deleterious impact on cognitive performance [3]. The majority research revealed that people who smoke regularly score worse on neuropsychological tests than people who don't, in terms of general intellectual capacity, processing speed, attention, memory, cognitive flexibility, and executive functions, [3.7.8] Some studies, however, came to the conclusion that smoking may actually be good for cognitive processes. For instance, a 10-year longitudinal research on older persons found that smokers had a lower risk of cognitive impairment than non-smokers [9]. According to another study by Momtaz et al.(2015), smokers are less likely than non-smokers to experience cognitive impairment [10]. Additionally, several studies found that smoking had either no effect on smokers' cognitive performance or a favorable effect on certain areas of their cognitive function [6,11,12]. Most of the studies done among elderly patients reported association between tobacco smoking and cognitive deficits, which may be due to cardiovascular changes caused by chronic smoking affecting with consequent effects on function due microvascular/ brain to macrovascular events in elder populations. [3]

There is lack of evidence in the literature to definitively state how smoking affects cognitive function [7]. In numerous research, confounding factors such psychiatric problems, concurrent substance usage (alcohol, cannabis, etc.), and length of tobacco use were not included [13]. The relationship between cognitive abilities and tobacco smoking in the young Indian population has received very little attention in published literature so far. Therefore, it is crucial to carry out further research into how smoking affects cognitive processes while accounting for potential confounding factors, especially in young individuals. The aim of the current cross-sectional study was to compare group-matched non-smokers to non-smokers to evaluate the impact of tobacco users on cognitive function. It was hypothesized that tobacco smokers have poorer cognitive functions in comparison to non-smokers.

2. METHODS

Participants and procedure: This cross-sectional study was conducted in Psychiatry outpatient department in the, AIIMS Bathinda, Punjab India for a period of 2 months (August, 2022 to September, 2022. The study included a total of 50 young adults, 25 Smokers and 25 Non-Smokers. Smokers group included patients who have been smoking for at least 1 years. The Non-smoker group included age and sex matched twenty-five healthy individuals and were recruited from amongst the hospital staff and patients' attendants. The participants who were having serious medical conditions. nonambulatory, uncooperative, with history of

drua dependence other than nicotine. significant history of head trauma or brain surgery, patient with organic brain syndrome, psychotic disorder, major depressive disorder, and bipolar disorder which might cause cognitive impairment were excluded from both the groups. An initial interview was used to gather data on smoking, health. and sociodemographic characteristics.

Montreal cognitive assessment (MoCA) (7.1 version), a brief 30-question questionnaire was used to Measure the cognitive function of both smokers and non-smokers. It is provided by the MoCA test organization (http://www.MoCAtest.org/). The MoCA is made up of 13 tasks that assess the eight cognitive domains of visuospatial/executive, naming, immediate memory (not scored), attention (3 different items with separate scoring), language (two different items with separate scoring), abstraction, delayed recall, and orientation. The results of the 13 challenges are added together to produce a final score. The highest possible score is 30 points. It is accessible in the public domain [14].

Fagerstrom Test for Nicotine Dependence (FTND) which is a standard tool for assessment of the intensity of physical addiction to nicotine, was used to measure the severity of nicotine dependence among smokers. The total score ranges from 0-10. Scores between 0-2 are associated with very low dependence, scores between 3-4 are associated with low dependence, score of 5 is represent with moderate dependence, score between 6-7 are associated with high dependence, and score between 8-10 tells very high dependence [15].

The data were compiled in Micro Soft Excel and exported to SPSS version 28 for data analyses. The descriptive data is presented in terms of means, proportions and percentages. The continuous data were compared by using unpaired t-test and categorical data were compared by using chi-square test. A 'p-value' of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3. RESULTS

The final sample included 25 smokers and 25 non-smokers and all were males. The mean age of both the groups was 22 years. Majority (64%) of participants in both the groups were in the age group 22-24 years.

Table 1 shows the socio-demographic profile of the study population. Chi-square test showed that both groups were comparable across sociodemographic characteristics. Table 2, depicts the relation of cognitive function with sociodemographic profile of the study participants Out of 50 subjects included in the study, mild cognitive impairment was observed in 24 (48%). Out of which 17(54.2%) were in age group 22-25 years, 83.3% were educated up to 12th standard and majority (45.8%) belonged to lower middle followed by upper middle (25%) socio economic class. However there was no statistically significant difference in cognitive function (MoCA) across demographic profile of subjects (p >0.05).

Table 3 shows association between Cognitive function and tobacco use disorder, the mean MoCA score among non- tobacco users was 22.12 while it was 22.08 among tobacco users.

The difference is non-significant statistically with P value 0.05. Abstraction and recall were significantly impaired among tobacco users as compared to non-tobacco users with p-value 0.048 and 0.007 respectively.

Table 4 shows the association of severity of nicotine dependence (Fagerstorm Test) with Cognitive Function (MoCA) among tobacco Out of total 25 tobacco smokers, smokers. cognitive impairment was recorded among 14 (56%) subjects. The number subjects with cognitive impairment increase with severity of nicotine dependence, 6(42.9%) had High Fagerstorm test score followed by 3 (21.4%) with moderate score. Chi - square test showed a statistically significant association between severity of nicotine dependence (Fagerstorm Test) and Cognitive function (MoCA) among tobacco smokers (p value= 0.026).

Table 1. Socio-demographic profile of study participants. (N=50)

Characteristic	Tobacco Use disorder		p- value
	Present(n=25)	Absent (n=25)	·
Age (in years)	· · ·	· · ·	0.55
18-21(n=18)	10(40%)	8(32%)	
22-25 (n=32)	15(60%)	17(68%)	
Education		• •	0.47
Up to 12 th Standard(n=10)	4(16%)	6(24%)	
Graduation (n=40)	21(84%)	19(76%)	
Socio Economic Status		• •	0.91
Lower (n=2)	1(4%)	1(4%)	
Uppe lower (n=13)	6(24%)	7(28%)	
Lower middle (n=16)	9(36%)	7(28%)	
Upper middle (n=16)	7(28%)	9(36%)	
Upper (n=3)	2(8%)	1(4%)	

Table 2. Cognitive function (MoCA) test among study participants. (N=50)

Characteristics	MoCA		p- value
	Normal(n=26)	Mild impairment(n=24)	
Age (in years)			0.16
18-21(n=18)	7(26.9%)	11(45.8%)	
22-25(n=32)	19(73.1%)	13(54.2%)	
Education			0.57
Up to 12 (n=26)	6(23.1%)	20(83.3%)	
Graduation (n=24)	20(76.9%)	4(16.7%)	
SES			0.11
Lower (n=2)	0	2(8.3%)	
Upper lower (n=13)	9(34.6%)	4(16.6%)	
Lower middle(n=16)	5(19.2%)	11(45.8%)	
Upper middle (n=16)	10(38.5%)	6(25%)	
Upper (n=3)	2(7.7%)	1(4.1%)	

Cognitive Function Test	Tobacco Use Disorder		p-value
	Present (n=25) Mean score	Absent (n=25) Mean score	
MoCA	22.12	22.08	0.05
Visuo-spatial	4.64	4.76	0.235
Naming	2.96	3.00	0.322
Attention	5.4	4.84	0.06
Language	1.80	1.72	0.761
Abstraction	1.64	1.88	0.048
Delayed recall	2.68	3.56	0.007
Orientation	5.96	6.00	0.322

Table 3. Association between cognitive function(MoCA Test) and Tobacco Use disorder (N=50)

*Unpaired t- test

Table 4. Association of severity of nicotine dependence (Fagerstorm Test) with Cognitive Function (MoCA) among tobacco smokers. (N=25)

Fagerstorm Test Scores	MOCA (N=25)		p-value
	Normal (n=11)	Mild impairment (n=14)	
Very low (n=2)	0	2(14.3%)	0.026
Low(n=9)	6(54.5%)	3(21.4%)	
Moderate(n=8)	5(45.5%)	3(21.4%)	
High(n=6)	0	6(42.9%)	

4. DISCUSSION

In the present study, we determined and compared the cognitive functions, using MoCA test, among tobacco smoker and non-smoker young adults in North India. The results supported the hypothesis that, in comparison to group-matched non-smokers, tobacco users significantly impaired their ability to abstract and information (p=0.048 and p=0.007, recall respectively). The difference, however, was not significant in the remaining MoCA test categories, including visual-spatial, naming, attention, language, and orientation. Our study's findings were broadly consistent with those of Chamberlain SR et al. (2012), who used the Cambridge Neuropsychological Test Automated Batterv (CANTAB) for neurocoanitive assessment. However, they found that nicotine users had significant cognitive impairments in the domain of sustained attention (p=.005), spatial working memory (p=.023), and executive planning (p=.002) [5]. The variations in the results of our study could be due to the fact that the tool used for assessment of cognitive functions that is MoCA is a screening tool CANTAB is whereas а more detailed assessment tool. Some earlier investigations among young people produced findings that were comparable [3,7,8].

Spilich et al. (1992) demonstrated that smoking had no detrimental effects on performance for perceptual tasks. but measurable easv detrimental effects on performance for harder information processing tasks [16]. Similar results were obtained by Hill RD et al. (2003), who discovered that current smokers underperformed compared to never-smokers on the cognitively demanding tasks of block design and free recall [17]. Although Nadar MS et al. (2021) observed that smokers' performance on the Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA) was not inferior to that of non-smokers, they also found that, despite the MoCA's "normal" results, more focused tests clearly showed that our smokers' group was performing below-averagely on neuropsychological tasks [18].

In contrast to the current study findings, several investigations found that smoking had a favorable effect on cognitive performance; however, the studies included older participants [9,10]. Wang et al., 2010 found that cognitive impairment was less probable among previous and present smokers than non smokers throughout a 10-year follow-up using the Short Portable Mental Status Questionnaire (SPMSQ) in a prospective cohort research [9]. Similarly, Momtaz et al.,2015 found that current smokers were 37% less likely to be cognitively impaired than never smokers in a cross-sectional study utilising Mini-MentalStateExamination (MMSE) [10].

According to our study, there is a statistically significant association value= (p 0.026) between tobacco users' cognitive function (measured by the MoCA) and the level of nicotine dependence (measured by the Fagerstorm Test). Similarly, Hill et al. (2003) found a significant negative correlation between number of cigarettes smoked and Block Design, r=-0.16. P<0.05. as well as the free recall task. r=-0.18. P<0.05. The direction of these relationships in both cases suggested that lower performance was linked to smoking more frequently and for longer periods of time [17]. In contrast, Wang et al. (2010) found no doseresponse association between pack years and cognitive impairment in their study [9]. These findings indicate that the risk of cognitive impairment is more among young adults with higher frequency of smoking.

Our study's weaknesses include limited sample size and cross-sectional design. To fully understand the connections between smoking and neuropsychological impairment, large-scale prospective studies with more reliable, sensitive, and strong cognitive outcome assessments such as CANTAB are needed, along with radiological assessment of brain functions in the form of functional MRI among young population. Another limitation was lacking female participation in the study, hence the gender variation in cognitive functions among tobacco users could not be commented. The study enrolled participants from outpatient department of a tertiary care hospital, a community-based study could have provided better insight.

5. CONCLUSION

Tobacco smoking seems to be a risk factor for neurocognitive impairment, as expressed in our data by impaired abstraction and recall of smokers compared to their group-matched nonsmoker young adults. The degree of smoking has an adverse effect on individuals' cognitive performance.

CONSENT AND ETHICAL APPROVAL

The study was done after the approval from Institutional Ethics Committee. Before the data was collected, each participant voluntarily agreed

to take part in the study by signing a written consent form.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are thankful to the Department of Psychiatry, AIIMS, Bathinda and the participants of our study for their support and corporation during the study procedure.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

- Fouad H, Commar A, Hamadeh R, El-Awa F, Shen Z, Fraser C. Estimated and projected prevalence of tobacco smoking in males, Eastern Mediterranean Region, 2000-2025. East Mediterr Health J. 2021; 27(1):76-82. DOI: 10.26719/2021.27.1.76 [Accessed on 2021 Jan 23]
- Richards M, Jarvis MJ, Thompson N, Wadsworth ME. Cigarette smoking and cognitive decline in midlife: Evidence from a prospective birth cohort study. Am J Public Health. 2003;93(6):994-998.
 - DOI: 10.2105/ajph.93.6.994
- Campos MW, Serebrisky D, Castaldelli-Maia JM. Smoking and Cognition. Curr Drug Abuse Rev. 2016; 9(2):76-79. DOI:10.2174/18744737096661608031016 33
- 4. Mazzone P, Tierney W, Hossain M, Puvenna V, Janigro D, Cucullo L. Pathophysiological impact of cigarette smoke exposure on the cerebrovascular system with а focus the on blood-brain barrier: expanding the awareness of smoking toxicity in an underappreciated area. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2010;7(12):4111-26.
- 5. Chamberlain SR, Odlaug BL, Schreiber LR, Grant JE. Association between tobacco smoking and cognitive functioning in young adults. Am J Addict. 2012;21 (Suppl 1):S14-S19.

DOI: 10.1111/j.1521-0391.2012.00290.x
 Heishman SJ, Kleykamp BA, Singleton EG. Meta-analysis of the acute effects of nicotine and smoking on human

performance, Psychopharmacology (Berl), 2010:210(4):453-469.

DOI: 10.1007/s00213-010-1848-1

- Conti AA, McLean L, Tolomeo S, Steele 7. JD, Baldacchino A. Chronic tobacco and neuropsychological smoking impairments: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Neurosci Biobehav Rev. 2019;96:143-154. DOI: 10.1016/j.neubiorev [Accessed on 2018.11.017]
- Durazzo TC, Meyerhoff DJ, Nixon SJ. 8. Chronic cigarette smoking: implications for neurocognition and brain neurobiology. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2010;7 (10):3760-3791. DOI: 10.3390/ijerph7103760
- Wang CC, Lu TH, Liao WC, et al. Cigarette 9. smoking and cognitive impairment: A 10year cohort study in Taiwan. Arch Gerontol Geriatr. 2010;51(2):143-148. DOI: 10.1016/j.archger

[Accessed on 2009.09.041]

- 10. Momtaz YA, Ibrahim R, Hamid TA, Chai ST. Smoking and cognitive impairment among older persons in Malaysia. Am J Alzheimers Dis Other Demen. 2015;30(4): 405-411. DOI: 10.1177/1533317514552318
- Caspers K, Arndt S, Yucuis R, McKirgan L, 11. Spinks R. Effects of alcohol- and cigaretteuse disorders on global and specific measures of cognition in middle-age adults. J Stud Alcohol Drugs. 2010;71(2): 192-200.

DOI: 10.15288/jsad.2010.71.192

12. Razani J, Boone K, Lesser I, Weiss D. Effects of cigarette smoking history on cognitive functioning in healthy older adults. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry. 2004;12 (4):404-411.

DOI: 10.1176/appi.ajgp.12.4.404

- Wagner M, Schulze-Rauschenbach S, 13. Petrovsky N, et al. Neurocognitive impairments in non-deprived smokersresults from a population-based multismoking-related center study on behavior. Addict Biol. 2013;18(4):752-761. DOI: 10.1111/j.1369-1600.2011.00429.x
- Ewert V, Pelletier S, Alarcon R, et al. 14 Determination of MoCA Cutoff Score in Patients with Alcohol Use Disorders. Alcohol Clin Exp Res. 2018;42 (2):403-412. DOI: 10.1111/acer.13547
- Heatherton TF, Kozlowski LT, Frecker RC, 15. Fagerström KO. The Fagerström Test for Nicotine Dependence: a revision of the Fagerström Tolerance Questionnaire. Br J Addict. 1991:86(9):1119-1127. DOI: 10.1111/j.1360-0443.1991.tb01879
- 16. Spilich GJ, June L, Renner J. Cigarette smoking and cognitive performance. Br J Addict. 1992;87(9):1313-1326. DOI: 10.1111/j.1360-0443.1992.tb02740.
- Hill RD, Nilsson LG, Nyberg L, Bäckman L. 17. Cigarette smoking and cognitive performance in healthy Swedish adults. Age Ageing. 2003;32(5):548-550. DOI: 10.1093/ageing/afg067
- 18. Nadar MS, Hasan AM, Alsaleh M. The negative impact of chronic tobacco smoking on adult neuropsychological function: a cross-sectional study. BMC Public Health. 2021;21(1):1278. DOI: 10.1186/s12889-021-11287-6 [Accessed on 2021 Jun 30]

© 2023 Jindal et al.: This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

> Peer-review history: The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here: https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/111541