

# Serum cholesterol, body mass index and smoking status do not predict long-term cognitive impairment in elderly stroke patients

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23 24 25 26	<b>Corresponding author:</b> Michaela Pascoe, Institute for Health and Sport, Victoria University, Melbourne VIC 3011, Australia. E: <u>Michaela.pascoe@vu.edu.au</u> <b>Key words:</b> Cholesterol, Stroke, Cognition, Risk Factors						
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#### 34 ABSTRACT

**Objectives:** Older stroke survivors are at risk of long-term cognitive impairment, which is associated with a number of modifiable and non-modifiable factors. We aimed to assess the association between the modifiable risk factors, serum cholesterol, low density lipoprotein, high density lipoprotein, serum triglycerides, body mass index (BMI) and smoking status on cognitive function, while controlling for the non-modifiable factors, acute functional impairment, diabetes status and age.

Methods: A cross-sectional study from a metropolitan University Hospital in Sweden involving
older adults (n=149). Assessments occurred at 20 months post-stroke, using the Mini Mental State
Examination and serum blood levels of cholesterol, low density lipoprotein, high density
lipoprotein and serum triglycerides,.

**Results:** Hierarchical linear regression showed that only acute functional impairment significantly contributed to long-term cognitive impairment in stroke survivors. Only 12% of the sample showed healthy cholesterol levels while the remaining patients showed borderline or high cholesterol levels. In terms of BMI, only 2% of the sample were underweight, 38% were within healthy range and 26% were overweight/obese. Only eight women and four men were smokers, therefore our sample of smokers was likely too small to detect any differences between smokers and non-smokers in regard to cognitive outcomes.

52 **Conclusion:** Serum cholesterol, low density lipoprotein, high density lipoprotein, serum 53 triglycerides, BMI or smoking status did not influence cognitive outcomes in older stroke 54 surviving individuals. These findings suggest that modification of these factors may not influence 55 cognitive outcomes in stroke-surviving individuals however should be interpreted as preliminary 56 given limitations in the current study.

#### 57 Introduction

58 Ischemic stroke is a leading cause of death and disability worldwide, affecting 15 million people 59 every year<sup>1</sup>. The societal cost of stroke is 27 billion annually in the European Union alone[1]. 60 Stroke results in long-term impairments in a range of abilities, such as cognitive capacity[2]. 61 Cognitive impairment affects over two thirds of stroke survivors, while dementia is present in one third of stroke survivors[2]. Aside from the impact of cognitive impairment on quality of life, it is 62 associated with poorer recovery and functional capacity[3], including increased mortality[4]. In 63 64 order to achieve the best outcomes for stroke survivors, it is important to understand if modifiable 65 factors may mediate post stroke cognitive outcomes.

Many modifiable risk factors are associated with long term cognitive impairment following stroke, including lifestyle factors such as diet, nutrition[5] and smoking status[6] which may provide possible avenues to moderate the risk of long term cognitive impairment following ischemic stroke.

70 In non-stroke affected populations, high density lipoprotein (HDL) is associated with better 71 cognitive function, including a lower prevalence of dementia, and less Alzheimer pathology[7]. 72 HDL cholesterol levels have been found to be significantly associated with cognitive function, as 73 measured using the Mini Mental State Examination (MMSE), in approximately 700 Dutch 74 individuals aged 85 years or older[8]. In a subsample of individuals who had previously 75 experienced stroke (n=56), both serum HDL cholesterol concentration and cognitive function 76 were lower, indicating that HDL cholesterol levels may be related to cognitive function 77 following stroke[8]. Further research demonstrates that levels of LDL cholesterol are positively 78 associated with an increased risk of dementia following stroke in 122 individuals aged 65 and 79 above from the United States[9].

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80	Body mass index (BMI) is also reported to influence cognitive function. In a sample of over
81	7,000 individuals form the United States, higher BMI in later life predicts a lower risk of
82	dementia[10]. Accordingly, in another study of approximately 2800 community dwelling adults
83	from the United States, underweight individuals (BMI <20) aged >65 years had an increased risk
84	of developing dementia[11]. In both of these studies however, only a proportion of the sample
85	were stroke survivors (2% and unreported, respectively)[11, 12]. In stroke survivors specifically,
86	dementia risk has been reported to be decreased in individuals with higher BMI, however this
87	was seen in a small sample of 53 individuals[13], and therefore the association between post
88	stroke cognitive outcomes and BMI is yet to be compressively explored.
89	Cigarette smoking also appears to influence cognitive function. In approximately 1700 older
90	German adults, cigarette smoking has been reported to be associated with poorer cognitive
91	function[14]. Similarly, in a longitudinal study of approximately 9,000 participants aged >65
92	years, cognitive function was seen to decline more in smokers compared to non-smokers, as
93	measured using the MMSE[15].
94	No study has been designed to measure the impact of the modifiable cardiovascular risk factors,
95	cholesterol, low density lipoprotein, HDL, serum triglycerides, smoking and body mass index on
96	cognition following stroke. In previous studies, only a proportion of the participating individuals
97	were stroke survivors, the time since stroke was either variable or not reported[8, 9]. Given this
98	these risk factors are modifiable, it is important to assess if they contribute to ongoing post stroke
99	cognitive impairment. Therefore, in the current study we aimed to assess if cholesterol, BMI, and
100	smoking status are associated with cognitive impairment long term after stroke onset, after
101	controlling for non-modifiable factors known to influence long term cognitive outcome, following
102	stroke[3].

#### 103 Methods

## 104 **Participants**

105 Eligible individuals were patients admitted to a stroke unit or medical ward of a metropolitan 106 University Hospital in Gothenburg, Sweden between February 1, 1993, and May 17, 1994. While 107 this data was collected some time ago, the senior author of the current manuscript designed the 108 process and also investigated all patients, ensuring that all of the information was collected reliably 109 and consistently across patients. Eligible patients were aged 70 years or older with no upper age 110 limit, so as to counteract the fact that previous cohorts were biased towards being younger than 111 the typical stroke population. Patients were presenting with an acute cerebrovascular neurological 112 deficit that was diagnosed by routine investigations by the physician on call and an acute computer 113 tomography (CT) scan. Exclusion criteria were coma, extracerebral or subarachnoid haemorrhage, 114 previous cerebral lesion requiring ongoing care, cerebral tumour, or a requirement for care for a 115 specific neurological disorder that cannot be handled in a medicine ward, symptoms for more than 116 7 days prior to admission, or residing in a nursing home at the time of admission. Patients were 117 only excluded if they were severely cognitively impaired or could not be placed in the stroke unit 118 or medical wards because they required particular facilities that precluded the randomization of 119 the patient to either ward. Thus patents were not excluded if co-morbidities were present, such as 120 diabetes, myocardial infarction, Parkinson's Disease or Multiple Sclerosis. Eligible patients were 121 assessed and included in the study at admission, at the emergency unit of the hospital. The study 122 was naturalistic and the patients received all components of the hospital's standard care including 123 any form of therapy addressing any speech/language/cognitive impairments exhibited post stroke.

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#### 124 **Study protocol**

125 The protocol for the follow-up investigation has been detailed previously[2]. In brief, participating 126 individuals (n=149) were contacted initially by mail and later by telephone to arrange hospital 127 appointments. The patients were contacted by the primary investigator or a study nurse. In cases 128 when the participant was unable to visit the hospital (n=15, 10%), appointments were offered to 129 take place in patients' homes. All outcomes measured were collected at 20 months following 130 stroke, in order to assess the impact of the modifiable biomarkers on long-term cognitive outcomes 131 following stroke. Written and verbal information was provided to all individuals or their nearest 132 relative when relevant, prior to obtaining informed consent. Ethics approval was granted by The 133 Ethics Committee for Medical Research, at the University of Gothenburg.

### 134 **Biomarkers collection**

135 Table 1 shows the timeline for collection for data collection. Serum cholesterol, LDL, HDL, and 136 serum triglycerides were collected 20 months post-stroke from peripheral venous blood samples 137 during the hospital appointment. Other biomarkers were also collected at this time, including the 138 acute phase reactant C-reactive protein and the amino acid homocysteine that have been reported 139 elsewhere[16, 17]. Samples were collected into 5ml gel tubes, inverted >5 times, left to 140 coagulate, centrifuged (10 min) and assessed by photometry. Collection and analysis was 141 conducted in an accredited university hospital pathology laboratory, in in the patients' home 142 when necessary. The healthy range of human serum cholesterol is <5mmol/L in adults[18]. 143 Individuals were classified as having healthy (<200 mg/dl), borderline (200-239 mg/dL) or high 144 cholesterol levels (>240 mg/dl).

#### 145 **Cognitive assessments**

146 Cognitive assessments were conducted by a neurologist/psychiatrist according to Mini Mental 147 State Examination (MMSE) at a single time point, 20 months post stroke, selected to reflect 148 cognitive impairments at long term following stroke onset. To ensure the screening tool was 149 consistently administered in the same manner, the same person evaluated all the patients. Before 150 commencing, co-assessments and calibrations were done with researchers who were experienced 151 with the method. Diagnoses were reviewed in a three-physician conference. MMSE scores are 152 compiled based on information obtained from eight criteria: orientation to time and place; 153 registration; attention and calculation; recall; language; repetition; and complex commands. 154 Individuals are given a score for each of these measures that is compiled into an overall cognition 155 score out of 30, with lower scores indicating greater cognitive impairment. A score of 25-30 is 156 considered normal cognition; 21-24 is considered mild cognitive impairment, 10-20 is considered 157 moderate cognitive impairment and <10 is considered severe cognitive impairment [19]. The 158 neurologist/psychiatrist conducting the assessment was unaware of the type, size and location of 159 the index stroke throughout the diagnostic and assessment procedure.

#### 160 Acute functional impairment assessment

Functional impairment was assessed as either improved or unchanged using the Barthel Index at 3 days following stroke. The Barthel Index consists of 10 items that measure a person's daily functioning as assessed by the ability to perform activities, including feeding, bathing, grooming, dressing, bowel movements, bladder movements, toilet use, transfers from one location to another, mobility, and stair walking, with lower scores indicating higher disability and higher scores indicating less disability[20].

#### 167 Body mass index (BMI)

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BMI was calculated by dividing body weight in kilograms by body height in meters squared.
Individuals were classed as either underweight (<18.5), healthy (18.5-25), overweight (25-30) or</li>
obese (>30).

#### 171 Statistical methods

172 Statistical analyses were conducted using the SPSS version 20 package. Exploratory analyses 173 were used to determine means and standard errors for acute functional impairment, age, diabetes 174 status, BMI, mean serum cholesterol, LDL, HDL, serum triglycerides, smoking status (as 175 measured using a self-report questionnaire), and MMSE scores. Independent sample t tests were 176 used to determine differences in outcomes measures between female and males. Hierarchical 177 linear regression was used to assess the predictive value of acute functional impairment, age, 178 diabetes, serum cholesterol, LDL, HDL, serum triglyceride, BMI and smoking status on MMSE 179 scores. For the purpose of multiple regression analysis and descriptive statistics, raw continuous 180 MMSE scores were used. Outliers were screened using box plots. Multicollinearity was checked 181 using collinearity statistics, variance inflation and tolerance. Independence of errors was checked 182 using the Durbin-Watson test. Histograms and The Shapiro-Wilk Test were used to assess 183 normality. 184 Insert table 1 here 185 186 187 188 189 190

## 191 **Results**

### 192 Characteristics of the cross sectional study population

193 A detailed loss-to-follow-up-analysis has been previously reported elsewhere[2]. Table 2 shows 194 mean values of acute functional impairment, age, diabetes status, serum cholesterol, LDL, HDL, 195 serum triglyceride, BMI and MMSE scores at 20 months following stroke onset. The mean level 196 of serum cholesterol was clinically elevated (healthy range <5mmol/L in adults)[18], 13% (n=19) 197 of patients had healthy cholesterol levels (<200mg/dL), 28% (n=41) had borderline high 198 cholesterol (200-239 mg/dL) and 35% (n=52) had high cholesterol (>240mg/dL) [21] In 25% 199 (n=37) of patients, cholesterol outcomes were unable to be collected. The mean level of 200 triglycerides in patients was 1.84 mmol/L, which is clinically elevated [30], indeed, only 54% of 201 patients had triglyceride levels considered clinically desirable. The mean LDL levels in patients 202 with a history of coronary artery disease or diabetes (n=39) was 4.08 mmol/L which is considered 203 to be high [30]. In patients without a history of coronary artery disease or diabetes (n=66) mean 204 LDL levels were 3.90 mmol/L which is considered to borderline high [30]. The mean level of HDL 205 was 1.31 mmol/L for men (n=35) and 1.46 mmol/L for women (n=74), which is considered to be 206 clinically normal [30]. The mean MMSE scores indicated mild cognitive impairment (21-24 207 points)[19], 65 individuals (43.6%) had normal cognition, 40 (26.8%) had mild cognitive 208 impairment, 40 (10.7%) had moderate cognitive impairment and 1 (0.7%) had severe cognitive 209 impairment (data was missing for 27 of the 149 individuals). Individuals with cognitive 210 impairment did not differ from individual without cognitive impairment on any of the modifiable 211 risk factors assessed, serum cholesterol, t(110)=-0.62, p=0.53; triglycerides, t(109)=-1.52, p=0.13; 212 HDL, t(107)=1.71, p=0.08; LDL, t(103)=-0.70, p=0.48; BMI, t(97)=-1.00, p=0.32; smoker, 213 t(93)=-0.44, p=0.66. Individuals with cognitive impairment were however found to more

214	functional impairment, t(147)=-4.75, p=0.00 (no impairment M Barthel Index =2.8, SD=0.47,
215	impairment <i>M Barthel Index</i> =2.1, <i>SD</i> =0.8). Eight women (8.2%) and four men (7.7%) were
216	smokers. In terms of BMI, 2% (n=3) of individuals were underweight, 38% (n=57) were within
217	healthy range, 20% (n=29) were overweight and 7% were obese (n=10). In 34% (n=50) of
218	individuals, BMI was unable to be collected as morphometry could not be done when house-
219	visiting or when the patients were bed-ridden. Independent sample t tests showed that men and
220	women did not differ on any of the reported outcomes: acute functional impairment, $t(147)=-0.27$ ,
221	p=0.77; age at follow up, $t(147)=3.12$ , $p=0.35$ ; serum cholesterol, $t(110)=2.23$ , $p=0.77$ ;
222	triglycerides, t(109)=0.45, p=0.66; HDL, t(107)=1.73, p=0.09; LDL, t(103)=0.77, p=0.44; BMI,
223	t(97)=-0.10, p=0.23; MMSE scores, $t(120)$ =-1.57, p=0.46. Spontaneous recovery in terms of
224	physical and cognitive function during the first year following stroke has been previously
225	measured and reported elsewhere [2, 22]

Inset table 2 here

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# The modifiable risk factors cholesterol, BMI and smoking status are not associated with cognitive impairment at 20 months after stroke

To explore the factors affecting MMSE scores long-term after stroke, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted with MMSE scores as the dependent variable and acute functional impairment, diabetes status, age, serum cholesterol, LDL, HDL, serum triglyceride, BMI and smoking status and as predictor variables, at 20 months following stroke. Acute functional impairment (as collected at 3 days post stroke) age and diabetes status were entered into the first block as these were considered to be non-modifiable risk factors. After controlling for these, serum cholesterol, LDL, HDL, serum triglyceride levels, BMI and smoking status were entered into the

237	second block to determine if these significantly explained the variance in MMSE scores. Acute
238	functional impairment (at 3 days post stroke) diabetes status and age explained 23.3% of the
239	variance in MMSE scores and significantly predicted depression scores ( $F(3, 63)=6.08, p<0.01$ ).
240	The addition of serum cholesterol, LDL, HDL, serum triglycerides, BMI and smoking status
241	increased the amount of variance explained to 27.1%, and the model again significantly predicted
242	MMSE scores ( $F(9, 63)=2.23$ , $p=0.03$ ). However, serum cholesterol, BMI and smoking status only
243	increased the amount of variance explained by 3.8%. Table 3 shows the slope of the regression
244	line for each of the individual independent variables. Of these, only acute functional impairment
245	(at 3 days) was found to significantly explain the variance seen in MMSE scores.
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### 260 Discussion

261 This study examined the relationship between the modifiable risk factors serum cholesterol, LDL, 262 HDL, serum triglyceride, BMI, smoking status and cognitive impairment long-term after stroke 263 onset, after controlling for non-modifiable risk factors, acute functional impairment and age, in 264 community dwelling older individuals. In our study, patients showed a mean MMSE score that 265 indicated mild cognitive impairment at 20 months post-stroke. Mean scores of serum cholesterol, 266 triglycerides and LDL were also elevated. This is not surprising given that the vast majority of the 267 sample had borderline or high cholesterol. Indeed, only 13% of the sample had cholesterol in the 268 healthy range. Using hierarchical regression modelling our study demonstrates that acute 269 functional impairment at 3 days post-stroke is associated with worse cognitive outcomes at 20 270 months post-stroke. This result is not unexpected given that previous research indicates that acute 271 cognitive function is a predictor of long-term cognitive impairment[3]. Thus, our study confirms 272 the importance of and prognostic value of early neuropsychological examination in regard to 273 identifying individuals at risk of long-term cognitive impairment in clinical settings, however there 274 are some limitation of the MMSE as discussed below.

275 Interestingly, in this study age was not found to be not associated with cognitive function in stroke 276 survivors; however the sample comprised only older adults, and thus the results could reflect a 277 ceiling effect. Alternately, while multiple studies have previously indicated that increasing age is 278 associated with greater cognitive impairment following stroke[3], a number of other factors have 279 also been demonstrated to be important predictors of longer term cognitive outcomes[3], such as 280 ethnicity, lower social class, left hemispheric stroke, visual field defect, education level and urinary 281 incontinence[3]. A limitation in the current study is that comprised of only elderly Swedish 282 individuals, and did not examine the predictive value of any of the above listed factors such as

283 ethnicity. It is possible that the predictive role of age is more meaningful when studied in 284 conjunction with other relevant predictive factors.

285 Our study did not find an association between serum cholesterol, LDL, HDL, serum triglyceride 286 levels and long-term cognitive function following stroke, indicating that these cardiovascular risk 287 factors are not associated with cognitive outcomes in stroke survivors. This finding is inconsistent 288 with previous research which demonstrates that cognitive impairment is associated with increased 289 serum triglycerides and lipoproteins in non-stroke surviving populations[7]. Indeed, membrane 290 cholesterol has been shown to play a role in the formation and aggregation of amyloid-beta[23, 291 24] the main component of the amyloid plaques that are present in the brains of individuals with 292 Alzheimer's disease[23, 24]. Other studies however have highlighted that decreased cholesterol 293 levels may impair brain function in older individuals, as cholesterol is essential for synapse 294 formation involved in signal transduction as a component of the cell membrane[7]. It appears that 295 when measured in midlife, high cholesterol levels are associated with an increased risk of late-life 296 cognitive decline. However, when measured later in life, high cholesterol levels show no 297 association or an inverse association with cognition decline, whereby low levels of cholesterol are 298 associated with more cognitive impairment[7]. In our sample of older individuals, mean 299 cholesterol levels were clinically elevated at 20 months post stroke (Female M=6.46, SE=0.15, 300 Male M=5.88, SE=0.22). Indeed, only 13% of the sample showed healthy levels of cholesterol, 301 compared to 28% with borderline and 35% with high cholesterol. Therefore the cognitive 302 impairments previously reported to be associated with low cholesterol levels would not likely have 303 been present in the patients who partook in this study, given that most patients had clinically 304 elevated cholesterol levels. This finding is interesting as it indicates that in elderly stroke survivors, 305 that high cholesterol may not contribute to cognitive difficulties[7].

306 Body mass index was similarly not found to be not associated with cognitive function in stroke 307 survivors. This is inconsistent with previous research that indicates that higher BMI is associated 308 with less cognitive decline in older individuals (>65 years)[11]. In the current study, we may have 309 failed to demonstrate a relationship between BMI and cognitive function as only 2% (n=3) of 310 patients in the current sample were underweight. On the contrary, 38% of patients (n=57) were 311 within healthy range, 20% (n=29) were overweight and 7% were obese (n=10). The Mean BMI of 312 the entire sample was in the healthy range (Female M=24.1, SE=0.58, Male M=24.9, SE=0.57), 313 thus these patients were not vulnerable to the mechanisms underlying the cognitive dysfunction 314 seen among underweight older adults.

315 Finally, smoking status was not found to be associated with cognitive impairment, contrary to 316 previous research demonstrating that cigarette smoking is associated with poorer cognitive 317 outcomes and dementia in older, stroke and non-stroke affected adults[14]. Interestingly, smoking 318 has been reported to be associated with reduced cortical regional grey matter density in brain 319 regions associated with Alzheimer disease, as assessed using voxel-based morphometry[25] and 320 reduced cerebral blood flow, as assessed using single-photon emission computed tomography[26]. 321 Indeed, heavy smoking in midlife is associated with 3-fold increased risk of stroke-related 322 cognitive impairment, even after controlling for various potential vascular confounding factors[6]. 323 In the present cross-sectional study, the smoking status of patients in midlife was not a studied 324 variable, and would be worthwhile to explore in future research. A limitation of our study is that 325 only eight females and four males were smokers, and thus while there may be an effect, our sample 326 of smokers was likely too small and lacked sufficient power to detect any differences between 327 smokers and non-smokers in regard to cognitive outcomes. Furthermore, smoking status was 328 obtained using self-report and thus it is possible that patients did not accurately report their329 smoking status.

330 A further limitation of the current study is that the MMSE is often criticized for being biased 331 toward memory and language, as opposed to executive function and abstract thinking, and 332 therefore could be followed by a more formal assessment in order to more thoroughly assess 333 cognitive impairment [27]. For example, the MMSE does not take into account potential language 334 impairments often associated with a hemisphere stroke[28]. Analysis of a more stringent measure 335 of cognitive ability which is more commonly used in the stroke surviving population and sensitive 336 to cognitive impairment in the post stroke population [29], may have provided a more accurate 337 and specific measure of cognitive ability. While we chose to use the MMSE for this study, in future 338 studies it would be valuable to analyse a more stringent measure of cognitive ability, to examine 339 if cognitive change is associated with various risk factors. Finally, the design of this study does 340 not allow us to determine the cause of cognitive impairment and dementia and therefore, it is 341 unclear whether stroke survivors in the current study experience cognitive impairment resulting 342 from stroke and/or cognitive impairments resulting from other causes. The senior author of this 343 paper has however previously assessed the impact of stroke on cognitive impairment[2], by 344 comparing stroke survivors to a population sample, using the same instruments utilized in the 345 current study[2].

This study is the first to report that modifiable risk factors, serum cholesterol, LDL, HDL, serum triglycerides, BMI and smoking status do not seem to be associated with long term cognitive outcomes in stroke survivors, after controlling for acute cognitive impairment and age. These findings suggest that modification of these factors may not influence cognitive outcomes in strokesurviving individuals. In light of the limitations of our study, such as a small sample size of

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351	smokers, healthy BMI and elevated serum cholesterol levels among patients, these results should
352	be interpreted with caution. It would be valuable to explore the relationship between BMI, serum
353	cholesterol and cognition in stroke survivors with low BMI and low serum cholesterol levels.
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- 459 Tables
- *Table 1*.

# **Timeline for data collection**

Timeline for data collection				
3 days post stroke	Acute functional impairment - Barthel Index			
20 months post stroke	Serum cholesterol			
	Serum LDL			
	Serum HDL			
	Serum Triglycerides			
	MMSE			
	BMI			
	Age			
	Smoking status			
	Diabetes status			

- 470
- 471 *Table 2.*

### 472 Key descriptive Statistics in Stroke Survivors

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## **Descriptive Statistics**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν
Mini Mental State Examination	24.08	3.68	122
Stroke Severity (Barthel) at 3 days	2.32	0.80	149
Age at follow-up	81.04	5.33	149
Diabetes	0.13	0.34	149
s-Cholesterol (mmol/L)	6.26	1.31	112
s-Triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.84	0.95	111
s-High density lipoprotein (mmol/L)	1.41	0.41	109
s-Low density lipoprotein (mmol/L)	3.97	0.98	105
BMI	24.40	4.17	99
Smoker	0.13	0.33	95

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The healthy range of human serum cholesterol is <5mmol/L in adults[18]. A desirable triglyceride level is less than 1.7 mmol/L [30]. LDL of 3.4-4.1 mmol/L is borderline high if there is no coronary artery disease and high if there is coronary artery disease[30]. An acceptable level of HDL is between 1.0-1.5 mmol/L for men and between 1.3-1.5 mmol/L for women [30]. Mini Mental State Examination = MMSE; age is shown in years. Lower MMSE scores represent more cognitive impairment. Scores of 25-30 out of 30 are considered normal cognition; 21-24 as mild cognitive

impairment, 10-20 as moderate cognitive impairment and <10 as severe cognitive impairment[19].</li>
Means and Standard Errors of acute functional impairment at 3 days post stroke, age, serum
cholesterol, LDL, HDL, serum triglycerides, body mass index and MMSE scores at 20 months
following stroke onset.

487 *Table 3* 

# 488 Coefficients, Standard Error of the Coefficients, Standardized Beta Values, P Value and

# 489 Collinearity Statistics of the Regression Model

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Sig	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
			Coefficients			
	В	Std. Error	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	31.141	6.572		< 0.01		
Stroke Severity at 3	1.951	0.523	0.424	< 0.01	0.992	1.008
1 days						
Age at follow-up	-0.143	0.079	-0.207	0.074	0.988	1.012
Diabetes	0.003	1.252	<0.01	0.998	0.986	1.014
(Constant)	35.761	8.966		<0.01		
Stroke Severity at 3	2.064	0.564	0.448	0.001	0.902	1.109
days						
2 Age at follow-up	-0.174	0.089	-0.252	0.057	0.807	1.238
Diabetes	-0.088	1.336	-0.008	0.948	0.915	1.093
s-Cholesterol	-0.640	0.611	-0.229	0.299	0.284	3.524
(mmol/L)						

s-Triglycerides	0.695	0.603	0.179	0.254	0.559	1.788
(mmol/L)						
s-High density	0.945	1.319	0.105	0.477	0.631	1.586
lipoprotein						
(mmol/L)						
s-Low density	0.079	0.768	0.021	0.918	0.327	3.060
lipoprotein						
(mmol/L)						
BMI	-0.052	0.119	-0.058	0.667	0.743	1.345
Smoker	-0.234	1.426	-0.021	0.870	0.806	1.240

492 Dependent Variable: Mini Mental State Examination. Computed using alpha = .05 \* is significant

at p<0.05.