Dementia and Geriatric Cognitive Disorders

Research Article

Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord DOI: 10.1159/000528117 Received: May 24, 2022 Accepted: November 13, 2022 Published online: February 20, 2023

Systolic Blood Pressure Is Associated with Increased Brain Amyloid Load in Mild Cognitively Impaired Participants: Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiatives Study

Thomas V. Fungwe^a Julius S. Ngwa^b Steven P. Johnson^c Jilian V. Turner^c Mara I. Ramirez Ruiz^c Oludolapo O. Ogunlana^c Fikru B. Bedada^d Sheeba Nadarajah^e Oyonumo E. Ntekim^a Thomas O. Obisesan^c

^aDepartment of Nutritional Sciences, College of Nursing and Allied Health Sciences, Howard University, Washington, DC, USA; ^bDivision of Cardiology, Department of Medicine, Howard University, Washington, DC, USA; ^cDivision of Geriatrics, Department of Internal Medicine, Howard University Hospital, Washington, DC, USA; ^dDepartment of Clinical Laboratory Sciences, College of Nursing and Allied Health Sciences, Howard University, Washington, DC, USA; ^eDepartment of Nursing, College of Nursing and Allied Health Sciences, Howard University, Washington, DC, USA;

Keywords

Alzheimer's disease · Apolipoprotein · Blood pressure · A-beta-amyloid · Mild cognitive impairment

Abstract

Background: Cardiovascular disease (CVD), including elevated blood pressure (BP), is known to promote Alzheimer's disease (AD) risk. Although brain amyloid load is a recognized hallmark of pre-symptomatic AD, its relationship to increased BP is less known. The objective of this study was to examine the relationship of BP to brain estimates of amyloid- β (A β) and standard uptake ratio (SUVr). We hypothesized that increased BP is associated with increased SUVr. **Methods:** Using data from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI), we stratified BP according to the Seventh Joint National Committee (JNC) on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure Classification (JNC VII). Florbetapir (AV-45) SUVr was derived

Karger@karger.com www.karger.com/dem © 2023 S. Karger AG, Basel

Karger 4

from the averaged frontal, anterior cingulate, precuneus, and parietal cortex relative to the cerebellum. A linear mixed-effects model enabled the elucidation of amyloid SUVr relationships to BP. The model discounted the effects of demographics, biologics, and diagnosis at baseline within APOE genotype groups. The least squares means procedure was used to estimate the fixed-effect means. All analyses were performed using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). **Results:** In non-E4 carrier MCI subjects, escalating JNC categories of BP was associated with increasing mean SUVr using JNC-4 as a reference point (low-normal (JNC1) p = 0.018; normal (JNC-1) p = 0.039; JNC-2 p = 0.018 and JNC-3 p = 0.04). A significantly higher brain SUVr was associated with increasing BP despite adjustment for demographics and biological variables in non-E4 carriers but not in E4-carriers. This observation supports the view that CVD risk may promote increased brain amyloid load, and potentially, amyloid-mediated cognitive decline. Conclusion: Increasing levels of JNC classification of BP is dynamically associated with significant changes in brain amyloid burden in non- ϵ 4 carriers but not in ϵ 4-carrier MCI subjects. Though not statistically significant, amyloid burden tended to decrease with increasing BP in ϵ 4 homozygote, perhaps motivated by increased vascular resistance and the need for higher brain perfusion pressure. © 2023 S. Karger AG, Basel

Introduction

Epidemiological studies have shown that risk factors for vascular diseases, such as diabetes mellitus and hypertension (HTN), are also associated with increased risk for cognitive decline [1-4]. Evidence for an association between late-life high blood pressure (HBP) and cognition is mixed [5]. However, most have reported that HBP in mid-life is associated with more significant late-life cognitive decline, particularly in executive function and attention, and with the development of dementia [6-8]. Similarly, HTN in healthy adults is associated with poorer cognitive performance [9], increased rate of brain shrinkage [10], degraded white matter connectivity [11], and greater regional brain iron concentration [12]. Thus as an age-related cerebrovascular risk factor, HBP promotes white matter alterations and potentially Alzheimer's disease (AD) [13]. However, whether and how it influences amyloid deposits in the brain, therefore, AD development is less understood.

Amyloid- β (A β) accumulation in the brain [14] is a pathological feature of AD and underlies cognitive impairment and dementia. Transport of AB across the blood-brain barrier is one of the mechanisms regulating the concentration of $A\beta$ in the central nervous system [15]. Also, peripheral A β interacts with the cerebral vasculature to modulate A β deposition in the brain [16]. Elevated levels of A β or the intracellular soluble A β protein correlate with the loss of neuronal synapses and cognitive impairment [17]. Brain amyloid load is the hallmark of pre-symptomatic AD, such as mild cognitive impairment (MCI). Notably, increasing evidence suggests that HBP may directly impact Aß accumulation. In a recent review, Hughes et al. (2018) provided an overview revealing the complex relationship between increased blood pressure (BP), cognition, and AD [18]. However, Arvanitakis et al. (2018) found little evidence that increased BP increased the odds of amyloid pathology [19]. In another study examining the relationship among HTN, beta-amyloid, and neurodegeneration biomarkers of AD, Jeon et al. [20] concluded that regardless of APOE ɛ4 status, AD patients with HTN had significantly lower AB deposition than

those without HTN. Collectively, though several studies support the view that HBP may enhance the accumulation of A β in the brain [12, 21], the relationship remains inconsistent, and modulating factors need more nuanced understanding [22–25].

Among the multiple genetic variants identified as risk factors for AD, the apolipoprotein E ε 4 allele (APOE ε 4) is the most consistent genetic polymorphism [26] associated with increased risk for cognitive decline and dementia [27–32]. Individuals with two copies of the APOE $\varepsilon 4$ allele have a 10-12-fold risk for AD compared with ɛ3 homozygotes [33]. Interestingly, the APOE £4 polymorphism is also a risk factor for vascular disease [34, 35]. Although the APOE gene regulates the levels of the multifunctional lipid transporter, its relationships to levels of systolic BP (SBP), diastolic BP (DBP), and Pulse Pressure (PPR) need a more nuanced understanding. Similarly, the differential effects of the APOE gene on the relationship of BP with brain Aß accumulation need improved understanding. Thus, genetic and vascular risk factors, including A β , may work synergistically to influence the neuropathological changes that result in cognitive decline. To test our hypothesis that BP affects AB standard uptake ratio (SUVr) in MCI subjects, we examined the relationship of BP to SUVr using Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) data. We hypothesized that increased BP is associated with increased SUVr in patients with MCI. We also determined whether alleles of the APOE gene differentially influenced BP effects on SUVr.

Materials and Methods

Data for this analysis were downloaded from the ADNI database (http://adni.loni.usc.edu) on December 10, 2012. The ADNI was designed to improve methods for clinical trials by providing an extensive, publicly available database to inform cognitive deterioration leading to AD at an early stage and mark its progress through biomarkers [36]. In part, the goal of ADNI was to test whether neuroimaging, other biological markers, clinical measures, and neuropsychological assessments can be combined to inform cognitive deterioration from cognitively normal to MCI and AD. Participants in the ADNI study underwent baseline and periodic physical and neurological examinations and standardized neuropsychological assessments and provided biological samples [36]. The physical examinations included height, weight, SBP, and DBP measurements. Seated brachial artery SBP and DBP were obtained using the standard of care approach, and PPR was calculated as SBP minus DBP [37]. Our analysis was a cross-sectional study of longitudinally obtained data from the ADNI cohort.

The ADNI study also provided a rich set of amyloid positron emission tomography (PET) and several clinical and neuropsychological measures acquired from MCIs and other diagnostic categories in participants [38, 39]. Whereas our analysis is limited to 24-month data, the study followed participants over several years with additional years of data acquired in the ADNI-GO, ADNI-2, and now ADNI-3 projects [38]. Participants were classified as meeting the MCI inclusion criteria premise on the following: Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) [40] scores between 24 and 30 (inclusive), objective memory loss measured according to education-adjusted scores on the Wechsler Memory Scale Logical Memory II [41], Clinical Dementia Rating of 0.5 [36], absence of significant levels of impairment in other cognitive domains, essentially preserved activities of daily living, and absence of dementia.

Details of the ADNI study, including the acquisition of amyloid PET, have been previously published [41–44]. The analyses included participants who had brain amyloid PET scans at baseline and at 12 and 24 months and 2-year follow-up clinical evaluations. The time of the first amyloid PET scan underscored the baseline visit for each participant.

Statistical Analysis

The ADNI sample of 1,697 participants (at the time of download) consisted of 809 subjects genotyped at the APOE locus (non- ϵ 4 carriers = 465; ϵ 4 heterozygote = 277; and ϵ 4 homozygote = 67). Among these subjects, 466 MCI participants identified for this analysis had data on SUVr. BP data from the ADNI studies were stratified according to the Seventh Joint National Committee (JNC) on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure Classification (JNC VII). To discern the effects of low BP, the JNC1 was subdivided into two categories: lownormal and normal; and used univariate analysis to discern unique data characteristics and validate the assumption of normality. The Aß SUVr was derived from the averaged frontal, anterior cingulate, precuneus, and parietal cortex relative to the cerebellum. We implemented a linear mixed-effects model (proc mixed) with restricted maximum likelihood to elucidate the relationships of amyloid SUVr to BP while accounting for demographics (age, gender, race, education) and biological effects (DBP, PPR, pulse rate, body mass index (BMI), and diagnosis at baseline), variables within APOE genotype groups. To discern fixed-effect means, we employed the least squares means (LS-means) procedure. All analyses were performed using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS), Research Triangle North Carolina [45].

Results

To delineate categories of BP, we used the Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure (JNC-7) Classification for SBP and DBP measurements (Table 1). The BP measurements were classified as low-normal, normal, pre-HTN, stage I and II HTN.

The characteristics of the 860 ADNI participants are presented in Table 2 by BP categories; low-normal (56); normal (152); pre-HTN (360); stage I HTN (240), and stage II HTN (52). The mean age of the participants at base-line ranged from 71 to 75 years. The low-normal group was more educated (mean years of education = 16.55

Classification	SBP, mm Hg	DBP, mm Hg
Low-normal (JNC 1)	<100	<60
Normal (JNC 1)	100-120	60-80
Pre-HTN (JNC 2)	120-139	80-89
Stage I HTN (JNC 3)	140-159	90-99
Stage II HTN (JNC 4)	≥160	≥100

JNC, Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure Classification.

(SD = 2.68)) compared to the stage II HTN category (mean years of education = 15.62 (SD = 3.02)). Men had greater representation in all categories than women, and the overall sample is ~87% whites. The sample included non-ɛ4 carriers (48.39%); ɛ4 heterozygotes (39.95%); ɛ4 homozygotes (11.66%). Among those with low-normal BP, the majority were $\varepsilon 4$ heterozygotes (45.10%) compared to non- ε 4 carriers (43.14%) and ε 4 homozygotes (11.76%). The low-normal BP group had a normal mean BMI of 24.52 (3.69). As expected, the sample BMI increased as the BP categories increased, with stage II HTN having a mean BMI of 28.24 (5.77). However, the mean pulse rate was similar across the BP categories, with greater variability (14.26) among stage II HTN than in the other categories. In addition, cognitive scores (MMSE and ADAS 13) and AV-45 SUVr were similar across the different BP categories.

To test the relationship between SUVr and the different BP categories by APOE ε 4 status, we performed a linear mixed-effects model (Table 3). To discount the effect of important confounders, all fixed-effects estimates included adjustments for demographics (age, gender, race, education), biologics (DBP, SBP, pulse rate, BMI), and diagnosis at baseline. Among non- ε 4 carriers (n = 256), with the stage II HTN as a reference, the low-normal group had a statistically significant lower SUVr than the stage II HTN group SUVr (p value = 0.018). Similarly, the remaining BP groups had a statistically significantly lower SUVr than the stage II HTN group: normal (p value = 0.036), pre-HTN (p value = 0.017), and stage I HTN (pvalue = 0.036) among non- ε 4 carriers.

In a similarly adjusted fixed-effects model, participants' age was associated with increasing SUVr only among the non- $\varepsilon 4$ carriers (p = 0.008) and $\varepsilon 4$ heterozygotes (p < 0.0001). Further, DBP was significantly associated with decreased SUVr (p value = 0.014) among the non- $\varepsilon 4$ carriers. However, we observed no

Table 2. Characteristics of participants by BP classification

Characteristics	Low-normal ($N = 56$)	Normal (<i>N</i> = 152)	Pre-HTN (<i>N</i> = 360)	Stage I HTN (<i>N</i> = 240)	Stage II HTN (<i>N</i> = 52)
Age at baseline (years)	70.94 (8.46)	72.21 (8.14)	72.79 (7.60)	73.90 (6.99)	75.00 (7.79)
Education (years)	16.55 (2.68)	15.87 (2.89)	15.96 (2.88)	15.85 (2.76)	15.62 (3.02)
Gender (% men)	35 (62.50)	87 (57.24)	221 (61.39)	136 (56.67)	32 (61.54)
Race (% white)	51 (91.07)	147 (96.71)	336 (93.33)	221 (92.08)	47 (90.38)
Race (% black)	4 (7.14)	3 (1.97)	12 (3.33)	8 (3.33)	3 (5.77)
APOE ε4 status (%)					
Non-ɛ4 carriers	22 (43.14)	80 (53.33)	168 (47.06)	130 (54.17)	23 (44.23)
ε4 heterozygote	23 (45.10)	54 (36.00)	147 (41.18)	89 (37.08)	21 (40.38)
ε4 homozygote	6 (11.76)	16 (10.67)	42 (11.76)	21 (8.75)	8 (15.38)
BMI	24.52 (3.69)	25.78 (3.74)	27.33 (4.80)	26.94 (4.47)	28.24 (5.77)
Systolic (mm Hg)	92.78 (4.52)	110.99 (6.19)	128.88 (6.28)	145.76 (6.60)	168.69 (11.29)
Diastolic (mm Hg)	54.89 (3.95)	66.04 (6.07)	73.26 (7.63)	77.76 (9.31)	84.37 (10.04)
Pulse pressure (mm Hg)	37.89 (6.57)	44.95 (8.08)	55.63 (9.46)	68.00 (11.61)	84.32 (14.26)
Pulse rate (beats/min)	65.00 (12.01)	64.52 (9.16)	64.44 (9.71)	66.55 (11.60)	65.67 (11.26)
MMSE	27.63 (1.72)	27.84 (1.75)	27.59 (1.83)	27.51 (1.76)	27.19 (2.09)
ADAS 13	17.47 (7.40)	15.64 (6.66)	16.41 (6.79)	16.87 (6.70)	17.64 (6.47)
Amyloid load (AV45 SUVr)	1.27 (0.26)	1.17 (0.23)	1.18 (0.22)	1.24 (0.21)	1.19 (0.25)

Values are mean ± SD when appropriate; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; BMI, body mass index; ADAS 13, Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale; HTN, hypertension.

Table 3. Amyloid SUVr and JNC categories of BP in MCI by APOE $\epsilon4$ status

	Fixed effects	Standard error	<i>p</i> value
Non- ϵ 4 carriers ($N = 256$)			
Overall model (residual)			0.0004
Intercept	1.731	0.389	< 0.0001
JNC 1: low-normal	-0.456	0.192	0.018
JNC 1: normal	-0.275	0.131	0.036
JNC 2: pre-HTN	-0.243	0.101	0.017
JNC 3: stage I HTN	-0.165	0.078	0.036
JNC 4: stage II HTN	-	-	_
ε4 heterozygote (<i>N</i> = 168)			
Overall model (residual)			0.002
Intercept	0.447	0.492	0.366
JNC 1: low-normal	-0.009	0.255	0.971
JNC 1: normal	0.049	0.164	0.763
JNC 2: pre-HTN	0.099	0.124	0.423
JNC 3: stage I HTN	0.096	0.095	0.317
JNC 4: stage II HTN	-	-	-
ε4 homozygote (<i>N</i> = 42)			
Overall model (residual)			0.131
Intercept	-0.724	1.181	0.545
JNC 1: low-normal	0.736	0.488	0.143
JNC 1: normal	0.528	0.303	0.092
JNC 2: pre-HTN	0.287	0.228	0.219
JNC 3: stage I HTN	0.165	0.180	0.366
JNC 4: stage II HTN	-	-	-

Fixed-effects estimates modeling adjusted for demographics (age, gender, race, education), biologics (DBP, SBP, pulse rate, body mass index (BMI)), and diagnosis at baseline.



Fig. 1. Least squares mean (LS-mean) estimates from a linear mixed-effects model showing estimates and 95% CI of the association of SUVr with categories of blood pressure by APOE ε4 status. HTN, hypertension; APOE ε4, apolipoprotein ε4.

consistently discernable relationship of JNC-7 BP categories to SUVr among ε 4 heterozygote (n = 168) and ε 4 homozygote (n = 42).

Figure 1 shows LS-mean estimates from the linear mixed-effects model on the association of SUVr with categories of BP by APOE ɛ4 status. Among the non-ɛ4 carriers, the SUVr LS-mean tended to increase with increasing JNC-7 BP categories from low-normal to stage II HTN. This trend was reversed among the ɛ4 homozy-gotes with LS-means decreasing from low-normal to stage II HTN participants, though not significant in the fixed-effect model. Among ɛ4 heterozygotes, we observed no directional relationship between SUVr LS-means and BP.

Discussion

In the current study, increasing JNC-7 classification of BP levels is dynamically associated with significant changes in brain amyloid burden (measured by SUVr) in non- ϵ 4 carriers but not in ϵ 4-carrier MCI subjects.

Increased BP Is Associated with Increased SUVr in MCI Non-ε4 Carriers

This relationship of BP to brain amyloid burden is similarly influenced by $\varepsilon 4$ carrier status, suggesting that increasing BP may enable increased amyloid accumulation in APOE non- $\varepsilon 4$ carriers at the transitional stage of neurodegeneration. Paradoxically, and evidenced by the LSmean, increasing BP may be advantageous in $\varepsilon 4$ homozygote, though the threshold is undetermined. Increased vascular resistance promoted by amyloid deposition and the need for higher brain perfusion pressure may underlie this effect up to a specific BP threshold [21]. This finding is consistent with our previously published observation that changes in brachial artery pulse pressure (PPR), SBP, and DBP differentially influenced hippocampal volumes depending on the cognitive phenotype and APOE genotypic categories [46].

Data are scanty on the relationship of BP to brain amyloid load, and evidence on the relationship of BP to the cognitive phenotype is inconsistent. For example, Faraco, Park et al. reported that the effects of A β on both mean diffusivity alterations and global white matter hyperintensity were independent of HTN status [47]. The implication is that mediators besides hypertensive small vessel

USC Libraries Technical Services 68.181.126.124 - 3/28/2023 6:35:01 PM

disease may account for the observed effects [47] in APOE ε4 carriers. Therefore, APOE ε4 may overwhelmingly motivate amyloid deposition in £4 carriers, while HTN likely promotes increased amyloid burden in non-E4 carriers. Thus, increasing BP may harm the brain by enabling increased amyloid accumulation in non-E4 carriers at the MCI transitional stage of neurodegeneration but not in $\varepsilon 4$ carriers. Another study [48], with a relatively large sample size (n = 1,406, aged 60–95 years), investigated the relationship between HTN and the modulating effects of APOE £4. Their findings suggested that HTN was not associated with either $\varepsilon 2$ or $\varepsilon 4$ alleles in the model adjusted for age and gender or with the inclusion of other confounders. However, the investigators did not study the interaction between AB and APOE. Further, Rodrigue et al. showed that hypertensive APOE £4 carriers did not have significantly different amyloid burdens compared to normotensive non-carriers [21]. Because their result is congruent with our current findings in MCI subjects (Fig. 1), it is possible that in APOE £4 carriers with Aβ-mediated elevated vascular resistance, increased BP may promote perfusion and potentially mitigate $A\beta$ effect on brain function.

Yet, studies reporting conflicting observations must be noted. In contrast to our observations in APOE £4 carriers, Oberlin et al. [49] noted that the combined role of APOE £4 and elevated SBP may synergistically compromise memory function long before the appearance of clinically significant impairment. These observations suggest that interventions targeting BP in APOE £4 carriers during mid-life may reduce the risk of cognitive decline in APOE ɛ4 carriers [49]. Likewise, in a cross-sectional study to discern risk factors for AB deposition in cognitively healthy middle-aged and older adults (aged 47-89 years), Rodrigue et al. reported that HTN interacts with APOE ε4 allele to increase amyloid deposition in cognitively healthy middle-aged and older adults [21]. Accordingly, the mean cortical amyloid level was lowest in the normotensive APOE £4-positive group, followed closely by the normotensive APOE ɛ4-negative group and the hypertensive APOE ɛ4-negative group. The hypertensive APOE ϵ 4-positive group (mean age = 75 years) had significantly greater amyloid deposition than all other groups (p =0.05), implying an association between vascular risk and APOE ɛ4-positive in the elderly. However, in contrast to our analysis of the ADNI data, the study had a small sample size and did not include participants with MCI.

It is possible that other unknown factors may yet modulate the interaction of BP and the APOE gene on brain amyloid burden. Further, whether treatment of HTN influences the combined effect of APOE ɛ4 status and HTN on cognitive function is a subject of an ongoing investigation. For example, Kim et al. (2019) examined the interaction between APOE genotypes in both treated and untreated HTN on cognitive function in a recent analysis of Nurses' Health Study data [50]. Women with HTN and at least one APOE ɛ4 allele had poorer cognitive function than $\varepsilon 3/\varepsilon 3$ genotyped women without HTN; an observation amplified among APOE £4 allele carriers with untreated HTN. Unfortunately, the study did not discern the interactive effect of amyloid load. In our current study, adjusting for age and DBP were associated with increased brain amyloid burden in non-ε4. The association of DBP with SUVr in the context of age was observed only among the non-ɛ4 carriers, suggesting that having the homozygote allele may exert effects over and beyond the effects of aging and brain amyloid burden.

We conclude that the disadvantageous effects of BP were most noticeable in non-ɛ4 carriers, were attenuated in ε 4 heterozygote, and may be compensatory in ε 4 homozygote to enhance perfusion pressure and potentially A β clearance in the groups at the highest risk of AD. This observation suggests the existence of an interaction between the APOE E4 allele and HBP, which, if controlled in subjects with MCI, may delay the onset or risks of AD. Analysis of larger sample sizes is needed to validate our findings and address determinants of amyloid deposition in the aging brain and AD. In addition, similar studies in cognitively healthy persons might provide further insight into the relationship between SUVr and BP. Such studies will further inform additional mediating risk factors such as treatment of HTN and duration and inflammation.

Strengths and Limitations

The approach used in this study enhances the understanding of the relationship between brain amyloid load, recognized as the hallmark of AD, with increased BP in MCI subjects. Potential limitations of this study include a small sample size in the ε 4 homozygote group. In addition, BP was not an a priori outcome in the ADNI study; hence, assessing BP did not employ a unified procedure but followed current JNC 1–4 clinical standards. Furthermore, the inclusion of a diverse population in such studies may improve the generalization of the results. Nonetheless, our observation is unique and provides important insight into the field's current understanding. Future work on the longitudinal relationship between HTN, APOE, and cerebral amyloidosis would undoubtedly increase our current understanding of the impact of SUVr and HTN on AD.

Acknowledgments

Data used in the preparation of this article were obtained from the ADNI database (adni.loni.usc.edu). Data collection and sharing for this project were funded by the ADNI (National Institutes of Health Grant U01 AG024904). ADNI is funded by the National Institute on Aging, the National Institute of Biomedical Imaging and Bioengineering, and through generous contributions from the following: AbbVie; Alzheimer's Association; Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation; Araclon Biotech; Bioclinica, Inc.; Biogen; Bristol-Myers Squibb Company; CereSpir, Inc.; Cogstate; Eisai Inc.; Elan Pharmaceuticals, Inc.; Eli Lilly and Company; Euroimmun; F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd and its affiliated company Genentech, Inc.; Fujirebio; GE Healthcare; IXICO Ltd.; Janssen Alzheimer Immunotherapy Research & Development, LLC.; Johnson & Johnson Pharmaceutical Research & Development LLC.; Lumosity; Lundbeck; Merck & Co., Inc.; Meso Scale Diagnostics, LLC.; NeuroRx Research; Neurotrack Technologies; Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation; Pfizer Inc.; Piramal Imaging; Servier; Takeda Pharmaceutical Company; and Transition Therapeutics. The Canadian Institutes of Health Research provided funds to support ADNI clinical sites in Canada. Private sector contributions are facilitated by the Foundation for the National Institutes of Health (www.fnih.org). The grantee organization is the Northern California Institute for Research and Education, and the study is coordinated by the Alzheimer's Therapeutic Research Institute at the University of Southern California. ADNI data are disseminated by the Laboratory for Neuro Imaging at the University of Southern California. Details of the ADNI's co-sponsors have been previously published [36, 39, 40].

Statement of Ethics

According to ADNI protocols, all procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and national research committee. The standards were also in accord with the 1964 Helsinki Declaration and its ensuing amendments. Before the enrollment of participants, written informed consent forms approved by the participating Institutional Review Boards were used to inform and

References

- 1 DeCarli C. Vascular factors in dementia: an overview. J Neurol Sci. 2004;226(1-2):19–23.
- 2 Launer LJ, Masaki K, Petrovitch H, Foley D, Havlik RJ. The association between midlife blood pressure levels and late-life cognitive function: the Honolulu-Asia aging study. JAMA. 1995;274(23):1846–51.
- 3 Launer LJ, Ross GW, Petrovitch H, Masaki K, Foley D, White LR, et al. Midlife blood

obtain consent from prospective participants. Details can be found at https://adni.loni.usc.edu/ (no studies with human participants were performed by any of the authors included in this manuscript).

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors have no commercial associations that might be a conflict of interest in this article.

Funding Sources

The ADNI data were supported by the National Institute on Aging at the NIH (Grant U01 AG024904 to M.W. Weiner of the ADNI). This analysis was supported by grants 5R01AG031517-2 and 5R01AG045058 to T.O. Obisesan and, in part, by the National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences/NIH through the Clinical and Translational Science Award Program (CTSA; grant UL1TR000101). The sponsors played no role in the study's design, data collection, preparation, and interpretation.

Author Contributions

Thomas V. Fungwe, Julius S. Ngwa, and Thomas O. Obisesan conceived, designed, and conducted the analyses of the study. Steven P. Johnson, Jilian V. Turner, Mara I. Ramirez Ruiz, and Oludolapo O. Ogunlana read and edited the manuscript. Fikru B. Bedada, Sheeba Nadarajah, and Oyonumo E. Ntekim assisted with the interpretation of the results and provided subject matter expertise. The ADNI collaborators were responsible for the collection and processing of the data.

Data Availability Statement

Data used to prepare this article were obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database (https://adni.loni.usc.edu/). As such, the investigators within the ADNI contributed to the design and implementation of ADNI and provided data but did not participate in the analysis or writing of this report. A complete listing of ADNI investigators can be found at http://adni.loni.usc.edu/wp-content/uploads/how_ to_apply/ADNI_Acknowledgement_List.pdf.

pressure and dementia: the Honolulu–Asia aging study. Neurobiol Aging. 2000;21(1):49–55.

- 4 Shah NS, Vidal J-S, Masaki K, Petrovitch H, Ross GW, Tilley C, et al. Midlife blood pressure, plasma β-amyloid, and the risk for alzheimer disease: the Honolulu Asia aging study. Hypertension. 2012;59(4):780–6.
- 5 Low L-F, Yap MHW, Brodaty H. Will testing for apolipoprotein E assist in tailoring dementia

risk reduction? A review. Neurosci Biobehav Rev. 2010;34(3):408–37.

- 6 Novak V, Hajjar I. The relationship between blood pressure and cognitive function. Nat Rev Cardiol. 2010;7(12):686–98.
- 7 Gąsecki D, Kwarciany M, Nyka W, Narkiewicz K. Hypertension, brain damage, and cognitive decline. Curr Hypertens Rep. 2013; 15(6):547–58.

Increased BP Is Associated with Increased SUVr in MCI Non-ε4 Carriers

- 8 Jennings JR, Zanstra Y. Is the brain the essential in hypertension? Neuroimage. 2009; 47(3):914–21.
- 9 Raz N, Rodrigue KM, Acker JD. Hypertension and the brain: vulnerability of the prefrontal regions and executive functions. Behav Neurosci. 2003;117(6):1169–80.
- 10 Raz N, Rodrigue KM, Kennedy KM, Acker JD. Vascular health and longitudinal changes in brain and cognition in middle-aged and older adults. Neuropsychology. 2007;21(2):149–57.
- 11 Kennedy KM, Raz N. Pattern of normal agerelated regional differences in white matter microstructure is modified by vascular risk. Brain Res. 2009;1297:41–56.
- 12 Rodrigue KM, Haacke EM, Raz N. Differential effects of age and history of hypertension on regional brain volumes and iron. Neuroimage. 2011;54(2):750–9.
- 13 Iturria-Medina Y, Sotero RC, Toussaint PJ, Mateos-Pérez JM, Evans AC; Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative. Early role of vascular dysregulation on late-onset Alzheimer's disease based on multifactorial data-driven analysis. Nat Commun. 2016;7(1): 11934–14.
- 14 Lustbader JW, Cirilli M, Lin C, Xu HW, Takuma K, Wang N, et al. ABAD directly links Abeta to mitochondrial toxicity in Alzheimer's disease. Science. 2004;304(5669):448–52.
- 15 Zlokovic BV. Clearing amyloid through the blood-brain barrier. J Neurochem. 2004; 89(4):807-11.
- 16 Zlokovic BV. New therapeutic targets in the neurovascular pathway in Alzheimer's disease. Neurotherapeutics. 2008;5(3):409–14.
- 17 Wang S, Mims PN, Roman RJ, Fan F. Is betaamyloid accumulation a cause or consequence of Alzheimer's disease? J Alzheimers Parkinsonism Dement. 2016;1(2):007.
- 18 Hughes TM, Lockhart SN, Smagula SF. Blood pressure's role in Alzheimer disease pathology. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry. 2018;26(1):23–4.
- 19 Arvanitakis Z, Capuano AW, Lamar M, Shah RC, Barnes LL, Bennett DA, et al. Late-life blood pressure association with cerebrovascular and Alzheimer disease pathology. Neurology. 2018;91(6):e517–25.
- 20 Jeon SY, Byun MS, Yi D, Lee JH, Choe YM, Ko K, et al. Influence of hypertension on brain amyloid deposition and Alzheimer's disease signature neurodegeneration. Neurobiol Aging. 2019;75:62–70.
- 21 Rodrigue KM, Rieck JR, Kennedy KM, Devous MD, Diaz-Arrastia R, Park DC. Risk factors for β-amyloid deposition in healthy aging: vascular and genetic effects. JAMA Neurol. 2013;70(5):600–6.
- 22 de Oliveira FF, Chen ES, Smith MC, Bertolucci PHF. Associations of blood pressure with functional and cognitive changes in patients with Alzheimer's disease. Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord. 2016;41(5–6):314–23.
- 23 Gottesman RF, Schneider ALC, Albert M, Alonso A, Bandeen-Roche K, Coker L, et al. Midlife hypertension and 20-year cognitive change: the atherosclerosis risk in communities

neurocognitive study. JAMA Neurol. 2014; 71(10):1218–27.

- 24 Obisesan TO, Ferrell RE, Goldberg AP, Phares DA, Ellis TJ, Hagberg JM. APOE genotype affects black-white responses of highdensity lipoprotein cholesterol subspecies to aerobic exercise training. Metabolism. 2008; 57(12):1669–76.
- 25 Razay G, Williams J, King E, Smith AD, Wilcock G. Blood pressure, dementia and Alzheimer's disease: the OPTIMA longitudinal study. Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord. 2009; 28(1):70–4.
- 26 Coon KD, Myers AJ, Craig DW, Webster JA, Pearson JV, Lince DH, et al. A high-density whole-genome association study reveals that APOE is the major susceptibility gene for sporadic late-onset Alzheimer's disease. J Clin Psychiatry. 2007;28(1):70–4.
- 27 Reiman EM, Chen K, Liu X, Bandy D, Yu M, Lee W, et al. Fibrillar amyloid- β burden in cognitively normal people at 3 levels of genetic risk for Alzheimer's disease. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2009;106(16):6820–5.
- 28 O'Hara R, Yesavage JA, Kraemer HC, Mauricio M, Friedman LF, Murphy GM Jr. The APOE epsilon4 allele is associated with decline on delayed recall performance in community-dwelling older adults. J Am Geriatr Soc. 1998;46(12):1493–8.
- 29 Caselli RJ, Reiman EM, Locke DEC, Hutton ML, Hentz JG, Hoffman-Snyder C, et al. Cognitive domain decline in healthy apolipoprotein E epsilon4 homozygotes before the diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment. Arch Neurol. 2007;64(9):1306–11.
- 30 Mucke L, Selkoe DJ. Neurotoxicity of amyloid β-protein: synaptic and network dysfunction. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med. 2012;2(7): a006338.
- 31 Mahley RW. Apolipoprotein E: cholesterol transport protein with expanding role in cell biology. Science. 1988;240(4852):622–30.
- 32 Davignon J, Gregg RE, Sing CF. Apolipoprotein E polymorphism and atherosclerosis. Arteriosclerosis. 1988;8(1):1–21.
- 33 Corder EH, Saunders AM, Strittmatter WJ, Schmechel DE, Gaskell PC, Small GW, et al. Gene dose of apolipoprotein E type 4 allele and the risk of Alzheimer's disease in late onset families. Science. 1993;261(5123):921–3.
- 34 Haan MN, Mayeda ER. Apolipoprotein E genotype and cardiovascular diseases in the elderly. Curr Cardiovasc Risk Rep. 2010;4(5):361–8.
- 35 Song Y, Stampfer MJ, Liu S. Meta-analysis: apolipoprotein E genotypes and risk for coronary heart disease. Ann Intern Med. 2004; 141(2):137–47.
- 36 Wyman BT, Harvey DJ, Crawford K, Bernstein MA, Carmichael O, Cole PE, et al. Standardization of analysis sets for reporting results from ADNI MRI data. Alzheimers Dement. 2013;9(3):332–7.
- 37 Bender AR, Raz N. Age-related differences in memory and executive functions in healthy APOE ε4 carriers: the contribution of individual differences in prefrontal volumes and

systolic blood pressure. Neuropsychologia. 2012;50(5):704-14.

- 38 Moffat SD, Szekely CA, Zonderman AB, Kabani NJ, Resnick SM. Longitudinal change in hippocampal volume as a function of apolipoprotein E genotype. Neurology. 2000;55(1): 134–6.
- 39 Mueller SG, Weiner MW, Thal LJ, Petersen RC, Jack CR, Jagust W, et al. Ways toward an early diagnosis in Alzheimer's disease: the Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative (ADNI). Alzheimers Dement. 2005;1(1):55–66.
- 40 Weiner MW, Aisen PS, Jack CR, Jagust WJ, Trojanowski JQ, Shaw L, et al. The Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative: progress report and future plans. Alzheimers Dement. 2010;6(3):202–11.e7.
- 41 Wechsler D. Wechsler Memory Scale—fourth edition. New York: Psychological Corporation; 2009.
- 42 Nation DA, Edmonds EC, Bangen KJ, Delano-Wood L, Scanlon BK, Han SD, et al. Pulse pressure in relation to tau-mediated neurodegeneration, cerebral amyloidosis, and progression to dementia in very old adults. JAMA Neurol. 2015;72(5):546–53.
- 43 Jack CR, Bernstein MA, Borowski BJ, Gunter JL, Fox NC, Thompson PM, et al. Update on the magnetic resonance imaging core of the Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative. Alzheimers Dement. 2010;6(3):212–20.
- 44 Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. "Minimental state": a practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. J Psychiatr Res. 1975;12(3):189–98.
- 45 Sas Institute. SAS/IML 9.3 user's guide. Cary (NC): Sas Institute; 2011.
- 46 Ngwa JS, Fungwe TV, Ntekim O, Allard JS, Johnson SM, Castor C, et al. Associations of Pulse and Blood Pressure with Hippocampal Volume by APOE and Cognitive Phenotype: the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI). Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord. 2018;45(1–2):66–78.
- 47 Faraco G, Park L, Zhou P, Luo W, Paul SM, Anrather J, et al. Hypertension enhances A β-induced neurovascular dysfunction, promotes β-secretase activity, and leads to amyloidogenic processing of APP. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab. 2016;36(1):241–52.
- 48 Fuzikawa AK, Peixoto SV, Taufer M, Moriguchi EH, Lima-Costa MF. Association of ApoE polymorphisms with prevalent hypertension in 1406 older adults: the Bambuí Health Aging Study (BHAS). Braz J Med Biol Res. 2008; 41(2):89–94.
- 49 Oberlin LE, Manuck SB, Gianaros PJ, Ferrell RE, Muldoon MF, Jennings JR, et al. Blood pressure interacts with APOE ε4 to predict memory performance in a midlife sample. Neuropsychology. 2015;29(5):693–702.
- 50 Kim IY, Grodstein F, Kraft P, Curhan GC, Hughes KC, Huang H, et al. Interaction between apolipoprotein E genotype and hypertension on cognitive function in older women in the Nurses' Health Study. PLoS One. 2019; 14(11):e0224975.