ORIGINAL PAPER

Revised: 15 July 2017

WILEY

Higher arterial stiffness is associated with lower cognitive performance in patients with hypertension

Henrique C.S. Muela MD, PhD^{1,2} Valeria A. Costa-Hong PhD¹ | Mônica S. Yassuda PhD³ | Natália C. Moraes BS³ | Claudia M. Memória MSc³ | Michel F. Machado MD³ | Edson Bor-Seng-Shu MD, PhD³ | Ricardo C. Nogueira MD, PhD³ | Alfredo J. Mansur MD, PhD¹ | Ayrton R. Massaro MD, PhD³ | Ricardo Nitrini MD, PhD³ | Thiago A. Macedo MD, PhD¹ | Luiz A. Bortolotto MD, PhD¹

¹Hypertension Unit, Heart Institute (InCor), University of São Paulo Medical School, São Paulo, Brazil

²Department of Physiology, Faculty of Medicine, Agostinho Neto University, Luanda, Angola

³Department of Neurology, University of São Paulo Medical School, São Paulo, Brazil

Correspondence

Henrique C.S. Muela, MD, PhD, Heart Institute (Incor), Hypertension Unit, 2nd Floor, Room 8, Av Dr Eneas de Carvalho Aguiar, 44 -Pinheiros CEP: 05403-900, São Paulo, Brazil. Email: henrimuela@hotmail.com

Abstract

Cognitive impairment and elevated arterial stiffness have been described in patients with arterial hypertension, but their association has not been well studied. We evaluated the correlation of arterial stiffness and different cognitive domains in patients with hypertension compared with those with normotension. We evaluated 211 patients (69 with normotension and 142 with hypertension). Patients were age matched and distributed according to their blood pressure: normotension, hypertension stage 1, and hypertension stage 2. Cognitive function was assessed using the Mini-Mental State Examination, Montreal Cognitive Assessment, and a battery of neuropsychological evaluations that assessed six main cognitive domains. Pulse wave velocity was measured using a Complior device, and carotid properties were assessed by radiofrequency ultrasound. Central arterial pressure and augmentation index were obtained using applanation tonometry. The hypertension stage 2 group had higher arterial stiffness and worse performance either by Mini-Mental State Examination (26.8±2.1 vs 27.3±2.1 vs 28.0±2.0, P=.003) or the Montreal Cognitive Assessment test (23.4±3.5 vs 24.9±2.9 vs 25.6±3.0, P<.001). On multivariable regression analysis, augmentation index, intima-media thickness, and pulse wave velocity were the variables mainly associated with lower cognitive performance at different cognitive domains. Cognitive impairment in different domains was associated with higher arterial stiffness.

1 | INTRODUCTION

Cognitive impairment and dementia have become serious human, social, and economic burdens.^{1,2} The World Health Organization and the G8 Dementia Summit^{2,3} emphasized prevention as a key element to counteract the dementia epidemic. There is increasing evidence that cardiovascular disease and its risk factors contribute to the development of cognitive impairment.⁴ Thus, the relationship of high blood pressure (BP) with cognitive function and dementia has, in recent years, received much attention from epidemiological researchers, resulting in inconsistent observations.⁵ Recent evidence has indicated that hypertension and its severity is associated with cognitive impairment.^{6,7}

Arterial stiffness is increasingly recognized as an important prognostic indicator of cardiovascular events and a potential therapeutic target in patients with hypertension. It is closely linked to, but by no means synonymous with, elevated BP, and its physiopathology is still not fully understood. Aortic stiffness and arterial pulse wave reflections are key determinants of elevated central systolic pressure and are associated with adverse cardiovascular outcomes, independent of ${\rm BP.}^8$

Many studies have demonstrated an association of vascular factors and cerebrovascular disease with dementia and cognitive decline.^{9,10} Recently, some studies have reported an association between increased arterial stiffness, measured by pulse wave velocity (PWV), and poor cognitive function, and have suggested that arterial stiffness may be a determinant of cognitive decline and dementia.^{11,12}

In the Rotterdam Study, however, the authors did not find an association between arterial stiffness, expressed as mean and standard deviation PWV, and cognitive decline or the risk of dementia. Although they found associations between arterial stiffness and several domains of cognitive function in cross-sectional analyses, these associations were small and, after adjustment for mean arterial pressure, heart rate, and cardiovascular risk factors, only the association between increased PWV and poor performance on the Stroop Test remained significant.¹³

Thus, up to now, identifying cerebrovascular risk factors that predict cognitive decline and dementia has been challenging but is regarded as extremely important among researchers and clinicians all over the world. If identified, such risk factors might be used to target individuals in whom modifiable risk factors should be mitigated.

Considering that previous findings regarding arterial stiffness and cognition in hypertension have been controversial, further investigations are warranted. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to investigate the association between arterial stiffness and cognition (assessed with general mental status measures and domain-specific tests) in a sample of patients with normotension and those with hypertension. The hypothesis of the present study was that patients with hypertension with higher arterial stiffness would have worse cognitive performance.

2 | METHODS

In a cross-sectional study, 211 patients (69 with normotension and 142 with hypertension) were evaluated. Cognitive function was assessed using the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE), Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA), and a neuropsychological evaluation battery.

Patients with the following conditions were excluded: age younger than 18 years, overt cerebrovascular disease (previous stroke or transient ischemic attack), diabetes mellitus, smoking, arrhythmias, heart failure with left ventricular dysfunction, known neurodegenerative or psychiatric disease, and illiteracy. Educational level was based on the number of school years completed. The local ethics committee approved the protocol, and all participants gave written informed consent.

2.1 | BP measurement

Brachial systolic and diastolic BP was assessed with an Omron automatic device, HEM-705 CP model, in the right upper arm, with the patient seated, after resting for 5 minutes following the recommendations of the VI Brazilian hypertension guidelines.¹⁴ A mean of three measurements with a 1-minute interval was calculated and used to determine systolic and diastolic BP in each patient.

Patients with hypertension were divided into two groups according to BP levels or medication use (hypertension stage 1: BP 140–159/90–99 mm Hg or BP under control with one or two antihypertensive drugs; hypertension stage 2: BP \geq 160/100 mm Hg or BP under control with \geq 3 drugs). Three groups were comparatively analyzed: normotension, hypertension stage 1, and hypertension stage 2. Controlled hypertension was defined as BP levels <140/90 mm Hg with the use of antihypertensive drugs. The normotension group participants were recruited among patients without cardiovascular disease followed yearly at the Heart Institute as part of a protocol for cardiovascular assessment.¹⁵

2.2 | Cognitive function evaluation

2.2.1 | Mini-Mental State Examination

The MMSE is a commonly used 30-point scale to assess cognitive function in the areas of orientation, registration, attention and calculation, recall, language, and praxis. MMSE administration was performed according to existing standards.¹⁶ On the MMSE, a score of \leq 23 is usually an accepted cutoff, indicating the presence of cognitive impairment. However, many authors have recommended the adjustment to different cutoffs, considering the level of education and not a limited cutoff score.¹⁷

2.2.2 | Montreal Cognitive Assessment

The MoCA was designed as a rapid screening instrument to identify mild cognitive impairment.¹⁸ It assesses different cognitive domains: attention and concentration, executive functions, memory, language, visuoconstructional skills, conceptual thinking, calculations, and orientation. The total possible score is 30 points, and a score of 26 or above is considered normal. A previous validation study in Brazil suggested 25 points as the ideal cutoff for mild cognitive impairment identification.¹⁹ To counterbalance the effect of lower education, one point was added to the final score of those individuals with <12 years of education.¹⁸

2.2.3 | Neuropsychological Evaluation

Procedures and descriptions of the neuropsychological tests used have been published elsewhere.²⁰⁻²⁷ The neuropsychological test battery included the Boston Naming Test (BNT),²⁰ Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test (RAVLT5: sum of 5 recall trials of 15 words; RAVLT6: immediate recall after interference; RAVLT7; delayed recall after 30 minutes),²⁴ the Rey-Osterrieth Complex Figure Test copy and delayed recall (REY-C and REY-30),²⁵ Semantic Verbal Fluency animal category (VF),²¹ Phonological Verbal Fluency (FAS),²³ Forward and Backward Digit Span Test (FDST and BDST),²⁸ Trail Making Test part

A and B (TMT-A and TMT-B),²² Clock Drawing Test (CDT),²⁶ and Digit Symbols Substitution Test (DSST).²⁷

We computed scores for global cognition (mean *z* score of the BNT, RAVLT5, RAVLT6, RAVLT7, REY-C, REY-30, VF, FAS, FDST, BDST, TMT-A, TMT-B, CDT, and DSST), language (BNT), episodic memory (mean *z* score of the RAVLT5, RAVLT6, RAVLT7 and REY-30), executive functioning (mean *z* score of the VF, FAS, BDST, and TMT-B), visuospatial abilities (mean *z* score of the REY-C and CDT), attention (mean *z* score of the FDST and TMT-A), and processing speed (DSST).

z scores were calculated using persons without hypertension (control) as the reference group. Participants were considered to have cognitive impairment if they had scores below -1.5 standard deviation on one or more cognitive domains.

2.3 | Arterial stiffness

Carotid-femoral PWV was analyzed with a noninvasive automatic device, Complior (Colson), and carotid measurements (intima-media thickness [IMT] and carotid diameter) were made with a highdefinition echo-tracking device (Wall Track System, Medical Systems Arnhem) by an experienced observer blinded to the clinical condition of each participant. All measurements were taken between 1 PM and 4 PM, with the patient in a recumbent position while awake. The PWV measurement technique has been previously described previously.^{29,30} Briefly, common carotid artery and femoral artery pressure waveforms were recorded noninvasively by using a TY-306 Fukuda pressure-sensitive transducer (Fukuda). The pressure waveforms were digitized at the sample acquisition frequency of 500 Hz. The two pressure waveforms were then stored in a memory buffer. A preprocessing system automatically analyzed the gain in each waveform and adjusted it for the equality of the two signals. When the operator observed a pulse waveform of sufficient quality on the computer screen, digitization was suspended and calculation of the time delay between the two pressure upstrokes was initiated. Measurements were repeated over 10 different cardiac cycles, and the mean was used for the final analysis. The distance traveled by the pulse wave was measured over the body surface as the distance between the two recording sites (D), whereas pulse transit time (t) was automatically determined by the Complior device; PWV was automatically calculated as PWV D/t, and we used 80% of this distance as pulse wave traveled distance (common carotid artery-common femoral artery × 0.8).³¹ The validation of this automatic method and its reproducibility has been previously described.³⁰ Carotid diameter and IMT were evaluated with a high-resolution echo-tracking system (Wall Track System, Medical Systems Arnhem) coupled with conventional two-dimensional vascular echography (Sigma 44 Kontrom Instruments) equipped with a 7.5- MHz probe. Measurements were performed on the left common carotid arteries 1 cm below the bifurcation at the site of the distal wall. IMT was measured at the thickest point, not including plaques, on the near and far walls with a specially designed computer program. A high rate of IMT reproduction has been previously demonstrated.³²

Plaque was defined as a localized thickening >1.2 mm that did not uniformly involve the whole artery. Aortic distension as the systodiastolic variation was automatically calculated. The SphygmoCor system (AtCor Medical) was used for central BP estimation, augmentation index (Alx), and augmentation index normalized for a heart rate of 75 beats per minute (Alx75), was used as a measure of arterial pressure wave reflection. The SphygmoCor measurement technique has been described elsewhere.³³ In brief, applanation tonometry was performed on the left radial artery with the patient seated. This was performed by lightly applying a micromanometer-tipped probe to the left radial artery over the extended wrist, compressing the vessel wall sufficiently so that transmural forces within the vessel wall were perpendicular to the arterial surface. All recorded readings were seen to meet the manufacturer's quality-control standards integrated into the software package.

Once the majority of the patients with hypertension had PWV values below the cutoff point (10 m/s) and the analysis by this cutoff was not feasible because of the small sample of patients above this recommended value (6 out of 142), we dichotomized this variable taking into account the mean PWV (7.9 m/s) in the hypertension group. This analysis was to evaluate whether higher PWV, even though below the reference cutoff, was associated with lower cognitive performance.

2.4 | Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed with SPSS for Windows 21.0 (IBM Corporation). Data distribution was determined using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Continuous variables are presented as mean and standard deviation or as median and range if they were not normally distributed and they were analyzed by the independent samples t test and Mann-Whitney test when suitable. Categorical data are presented as percentages. The analysis of variance test with Bonferroni post hoc comparisons was used for continuous variables. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used for categorical variables. The Pearson coefficient was used for bivariate correlations. In multivariable regression analyses, all variables with P<.1 in unadjusted analysis were selected for multivariable linear stepwise analysis. To account for group differences in education, this variable was included as a covariate in the models. Statistical significance was set at 5%.

3 | RESULTS

Baseline characteristics of the study sample are described in Table 1. The three groups were similar regarding age, but compared with the hypertensive groups, the normotensive group had higher education and monthly income and lower weight and body mass index. A significant difference was also seen between patients with hypertension stage 1 and those with hypertension stage 2 related to race. Controlled hypertension was observed in about 53.5% of patients in the hypertension stage 1 group and 39.3% in the hypertension stage 2 group.

-WILEY

TABLE 1 Demographic, social, and clinical characteristics of the study participants

Variable	Normotension (n=69)	Hypertension stage 1 (n=83)	Hypertension stage 2 (n=59)	P value
Age, y	52.2±13.9	52.1±13.0	51.3±10.1	.917
Men, No. (%)	31 (44.9)	38 (44.2)	26 (46.4)	.971
White race, No. (%)	44 (63.8)	68 (79.1)	32 (57.1)	.021ª
Married, No. (%)	35 (50.7)	58 (67.4)	30 (56.3)	.176
Weight, kg	74.3±16.2	77.4±14.3	82.9±13.7	.006 ^b
Height, m	1.7±0.1	1.6±0.1	1.6±0.1	.497
BMI, kg/m ²	26.7±4.2	28.5±4.6	30.1±4.6	<.001 ^c
Education, y	13.0±3.9	11.2±4.3	10.2±4.4	.001 ^c
Monthly income, \$R ^e	3000.00 (730-15 000)	1950.00 (600-14 000)	1950.00 (500-20 000)	<.028 ^c
SBP, mm Hg	121.9±8.3	135.0±13.5	147.5±26.1	<.001 ^d
DBP, mm Hg	76.5±6.9	83.1±9.9	90.3±14.5	<.001 ^d
Hypertension time, y	-	6.0 (1-33)	10.50 (1–37)	<.001
Drugs, No. (%)	-	1.4 (0.8)	4.0 (1.1)	<.001
Controlled hypertension, No. (%)	-	46 (53.5)	22 (39.3)	<.001

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; SBP, systolic blood pressure. P value refers to comparisons of the means or proportions among the groups by one-way analysis of variance, Kruskal-Wallis, and Mann-Whitney tests.

^aHypertension stage 1 vs hypertension stage 2.

^bNormotension vs hypertension stage 2.

^cNormotension vs hypertension stage 1 and hypertension stage 2.

^dAll groups different.

^e\$R (3.3 Real = 1 US\$).

3.1 | Arterial proprieties and cognitive performance

The hypertension stage 2 group performed worse than those with normotension and the hypertension stage 1 group in the MoCA and the MMSE. In the neuropsychological evaluation, the group with normotension performed better than the groups with hypertension in the majority of cognitive tests, with significant differences registered mainly between the control and the most severe hypertension group (Table 2). However, after adjustment for educational level, only the following variables retained statistical significance: MoCA (P=.030); RAVLT5 (P=.031); RAVLTA6 (P=.031); VF (P<.001); BDST (P=.022); FAS (P=.021); and DSST (P=.025).

Patients in the hypertension stage 2 group had worse structural and functional arterial proprieties compared with the control and hypertension stage 1 group in all arterial proprieties, except for distention, PWV, and Alx75, where the three groups were similar (Table 3).

Table 4 shows cognitive performance considering the cutoff PWV value of 7.90 m/s, which was the mean PWV in patients with hypertension. Individuals with higher PWV had poorer cognitive performance in all cognitive domains, with statistical differences in global cognitive function (P=.001), episodic memory (P<.001), visuospatial abilities (P=.001), attention (P=.013), and processing speed (P=.001).

On the neuropsychological evaluation considering the patients with hypertension above and under the cutoff mean PWV, language was the most affected domain (21.1% vs 12.5%, P=.17), followed by processing

speed domain (22.5% vs 5.6%, P=.004) and visuospatial abilities domain (15.5% vs 8.3%, P=.19). Executive function (8.5% vs 4.2%, P=.30) and attention (11.3% vs 1.4%, P=.02) were the least affected domains.

3.2 | Correlations between arterial and cognitive variables

Bivariate correlations between the arterial proprieties and cognitive tests in patients with hypertension are presented in Table 5. Functional proprieties (PWV, Alx, Alx75, and central SBP) were more frequently and negatively correlated with cognitive tests, although IMT was the structural propriety that most frequently and negatively correlated with cognitive tests assessing different domains.

Multivariable analysis with arterial proprieties as independent variables and cognitive tests as dependent variables is presented in Table 6. To avoid the collinearity effect between Alx and Alx75 only the Alx was used in the multivariable analysis models. Alx, IMT, and PWV were the variables that more robustly associated with lower cognitive performance in different cognitive domains.

4 | DISCUSSION

The main finding of this study is that higher arterial stiffness in patients with hypertension is associated with worse cognitive performance

WILEV-

Variable, mean±SD	Normotension (n=69)	Hypertension stage 1 (n=83)	Hypertension stage 2 (n=59)	P value
MMSE	28.03±1.92	27.43±2.01	26.66±2.07	.001 ^a
MoCA	25.58±2.97	24.92±2.87	23.46±3.47	.001 ^b
Language				
BNT	0.01±0.99	-0.35±1.27	-0.48±1.19	.045 ^c
Memory				
RAVLT5 (sum of 5 trials)	0.02±0.99	-0.05±1.26	-0.65±1.20	.002 ^b
RAVLT6	0.03±1.00	-0.21±1.43	-0.71±1.35	.004 ^a
RAVLT7	0.05±0.97	-0.13±1.16	-0.50±1.18	.021 ^a
REY-30	0.003±1.00	-0.03±1.00	-0.48±0.87	.008 ^b
Executive function				
Verbal fluency animal	0.02±1.01	-0.16±0.97	-0.84±0.64	<.001 ^b
Backward digit span	0.01±0.99	-0.33±0.93	-0.68±0.76	<.001 ^b
TMT-B	0.02±0.98	-0.25±0.85	-0.58±1.19	.007 ^a
Phonological verbal fluency	0.04±0.99	-0.31±0.94	-0.71±0.98	<.001 ^b
Visuospatial abilities				
REY-C	0.02±0.99	-0.29±1.05	-0.42±1.16	.051
CDT	0.02±0.98	-0.14±1.20	-0.37±1.22	.157
Attention				
Forward digit span	-0.02±1.00	-0.03±0.97	-0.38±0.69	.043 ^b
TMT-A	0.08±0.73	-0.41±1.51	0.56±1.04	.005 ^c
Processing speed				
Digit symbol substitution test	0.03±0.98	-0.38±0.93	-0.67±0.87	<.001 ^c

Abbreviations: BNT, Boston Naming Test; CDT, Clock Drawing Test; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; MoCA, Montreal Cognitive Assessment; RAVLT, Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test (RAVLT5, sum of 5 recall trials of 15 words; RAVLT6, immediate recall after inference; and RAVLT7, delayed recall after 30 minutes); REY-C, Rey-Osterrieth Complex Figure Test copy; REY-30, Rey-Osterrieth Complex Figure Test delayed recall; SD, standard deviation; TMT-A and TMT-B, Trail Making Test part A and B.

P value refers to comparisons of the means among the groups by the one-way analysis of variance stepwise test with Bonferroni post hoc analysis. All analyses were adjusted to the education level (years of education).

^aNormotension vs hypertension stage 2.

^bHypertension stage 2 vs normotension and hypertension stage 1.

^cNormotension vs hypertension stage 1 and hypertension stage 2.

across multiple cognitive domains. Language, processing speed, and visuospatial abilities were the most affected cognitive domains and attention was the least affected domain. Both PWV and Alx were the main variables associated with cognitive impairment in the present study. Although Alx and PWV cannot be used interchangeably as an index of arterial stiffness, previous evidence has suggested that the two measures are significantly correlated with each other, yet their impact is slightly different.^{34,35}

Elevated PWV has been associated with cognitive impairment in many studies both in young and older adults.^{36,37} However, whether hypertension aggravates this association has not been well described. More recently, in the Framingham Heart Study–Third Generation Cohort,³⁸ investigators explored the cross-sectional associations between carotid-femoral PWV and cognitive function and brain aging in

young and middle-aged individuals (mean age, 46 years). In this trial, aortic stiffness was associated with cognitive function and markers of subclinical brain injury in young to middle-aged adults.

McEniery and colleagues³⁹ have reported that the age-related changes in Alx and aortic PWV are nonlinear, with Alx increasing more in younger individuals, whereas the changes in PWV are more prominent in older individuals. The study populations of Yasmin and Brown³⁴ and Kelly and colleagues³⁵ included both younger and older patients, varying widely from the second to the eighth decade. They might thus have found a significant but relatively modest relationship between Alx and PWV. In contrast, the population studied by Lemogoum and colleagues⁴⁰ was mainly composed of younger patients, with an average age of 32 years. In our study, patients were mainly middle-aged adults (average age of 52 years), ranging from 25 to 71 years.

MUELA ET AL.

²⁶ | WILEY

TABLE 3 Vessels proprieties according to blood pressure level

Variable, mean±SD	Normotension (n=69)	Hypertension stage 1 (n=83)	Hypertension stage 2 (n=59)	P value
Carotid diameter, mm	6.5±0.6	7.0±0.7	7.2±0.8	<.001 ^b
Carotid distention, %	4.8±2.1	4.7±2.2	5.0±1.8	.527
Carotid IMT, mm	0.7±0.1	0.8±0.1	0.8±0.1	.005 ^b
PWV, m/s	7.5±1.4	7.9±1.2	7.9±1.2	.120
Alx ^a	22.5±12.9	24.1±12.4	30.3±11.9	.001 ^c
Alx75 ^a	21.2±12.1	23.7±10.1	25.7±9.6	.060
cSBP, mm Hg	111.3±9.5	120.9±15.1	139.1±29.5	<.001 ^d
cDBP, mm Hg	76.5±7.8	82.7±10.8	91.8±14.3	<.001 ^d

Abbreviations: Alx, augmentation index; Alx75, augmentation index normalized for a heart rate of 75 beats per minute; cDBP, central blood pressure; cSBP, central systolic blood pressure; IMT, intimamedia thickness; PWV, pulse wave velocity; SD, standard deviation.

^aValues adjusted for sex and height.

^bNormotension vs hypertension stage 1 and hypertension stage 2.

^CHypertension stage 2 vs normotension and hypertension stage 1.

^dAll groups different.

In addition, the most intriguing aspect of our study was the discrepancies between AIx and PWV for different aspects of cognitive function. The reasons for such discrepancies are unknown. Alx and PWV are influenced by a number of anatomical and physiological variables. PWV depends on vessel size and the elastic properties of the aortic wall. Alx is determined not only by the amplitude and timing of the reflected pulse wave but also by height, heart rate, left ventricular ejection duration, and BP level.^{41,42} The amplitude and timing of the reflected wave depends on PWV and arterial damping, ie, the faster the wave travels or the shorter the distance, the less damping and the greater the amplitude of the reflected wave. Aortic Alx may thus be influenced by many factors including PWV. Sakurai and colleagues⁴³ also observed that Alx was significantly associated with aging, systolic aortic pressure, heart rate, left ventricular ejection fraction, and height, but PWV was only significantly associated with aging and systolic aortic pressure. Furthermore, Alx gauges the contribution of peripheral wave reflection to the rise in central pulse pressure and is considered a marker of both vascular elasticity and peripheral arterial resistance, closely related with vascular alterations in small arteries including the cerebral bed, which is related to cognitive impairment.44

Recently, some studies reported an association between increased arterial stiffness, measured by PWV, and poor cognitive function and suggested that arterial stiffness may be a determinant of cognitive decline and dementia.^{11,12} However, the association between central arterial pressure and cognition has received little attention in recent years. Two preliminary studies have shown that higher central pulse pressures are associated with poorer cognition, particularly in the domain of memory recall.^{11,45} Pase and colleagues⁴⁵ extended these findings by showing that central systolic pressure and pulse pressure amplification are also associated with multiple domains of cognitive performance.

Many processes may explain the higher arterial stiffness and poorer cognitive performance in patients with hypertension, which

TABLE 4	Cognitive performance according to PWV in patients
with hyperte	ension

Cognitive domain, mean (SD)	PWV ≤7.9 m/s (n=70)	PWV >7.9 m/s (n=72)	P value
MMSE	27.37±1.89	26.86±2.29	.152
MoCA	24.79±3.05	23.83±3.36	.075
Global cognitive function ^a	-0.19±0.57	-0.54±0.72	.001
Language	-0.34±1.12	-0.47±1.35	.550
Memory	0.06±0.96	-0.67±0.95	<.001
Executive function	-0.41±0.62	-0.48±0.74	.548
Visuospatial abilities	-0.18±0.72	-0.40±1.07	.001
Attention	-0.15±0.60	-0.50±1.03	.013
Processing speed	-0.25±0.78	-0.75±0.97	.001

Abbreviations: MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; MoCA, Montreal Cognitive Assessment; PWV, pulse wave velocity; SD, standard deviation. ^aCompound cognitive score was calculated as the mean *z* score of all neuropsychological tests.

was worse in the hypertension stage 2 (severe hypertension) group in the present study. Elastic artery stiffening, an age-related process, can be accelerated in the presence of hypertension. Hypertension may produce arterial stiffening by both functional and structural mechanisms.⁴⁶

Young adult patients with hypertension have a "downstream" increase in resistance at the level of the arterioles, causing an "upstream" increase in transmural pressure at the level of the central elastic arteries. This causes weight-bearing elastic lamellae of the large arteries to stretch and become stiffer. Therefore, elevated BP over time can lead to vascular remodeling, hypertrophy, and hyperplasia, structural changes that produce intrinsic arterial stiffening.⁴⁷ Thus, it is plausible that both higher PWV and severe hypertension may have an additive effect on cognitive impairment. Similarly, the

WII FV-

:									:		Executiv	U	3		:			
Variable	MMSE		MoCA		GCF		Languag	е	Memory		function		Visuosp	atial	Attentio	_	Processi	ng speed
	~	P value	-	P value	r	P value	r	P value	r	P value	r	P value	r	P value	r	P value	-	P value
Diameter	.04	.53	06	.40	18	.01	.05	.45	23	.001	11	.12	07	.26	13	90.	18	.01
Distension	.03	.62	.04	.55	.18	.01	02	.74	.21	.002	.16	.02	.01	.94	.17	.01	.17	.02
IMT	08	.27	17	.01	26	<.001	09	.18	27	<.001	18	.02	04	.58	22	.001	33	<.001
PWV	11	.12	14	.04	30	<.001	09	.16	32	<.001	17	.02	14	.05	27	<.001	28	<.001
AIx	24	.001	19	.01	34	<.001	32	<.001	18	.01	30	<.001	23	.001	34	<.001	27	<.001
AIx75	21	.003	13	.06	29	<.001	28	<.001	16	.02	26	<.001	12	.08	31	<.001	26	<.001
cSBP	17	.01	24	.001	26	<.001	14	.05	16	.02	22	.001	21	.003	25	<.001	20	.003
cDBP	07	.23	16	.02	14	.05	01	.94	11	.11	16	.02	09	.19	07	.30	08	.24
Abbreviation: cognitive fund	:: Alx, augr tion; IMT,	intima-med	dex; Alx75 lia thicknes	5, augmenta: 5s; MMSE, N	tion index Mini-Menta	adjusted to al State Exa	75 beats p mination; 1	er minute; F MoCA, Mor	3P, blood p itreal Cogr	oressure; cD)BP, centra sment; PW	ll diastolic b V, pulse wa	lood pres ave veloci	sure; cSBP, ty.	central syst	tolic blood	pressure; (SCF, global

		MoCA	
IMT	-4.518	-8.360 to -0.676	.022
		Global cognitive function	
Alx	-0.011	-0.020 to -0.003	.010
IMT	-0.800	-1.562 to -0.038	.040
PWV	-0.141	-0.227 to -0.005	.002
		Language	
Alx	-0.026	-0.042 to -0.010	.001
		Memory	
IMT	-1.659	-2.816 to -0.501	.005
PWV	-0.254	-0.385 to -0.124	<.001
		Executive function	
Alx	-0.015	-0.023 to -0.006	.001
		Visuospatial ability	
Alx	-0.018	-0.030 to -0.006	.004
		Attention	
Alx	-0.017	-0.028 to -0.006	.003
PWV	-0.138	-0.250 to -0.026	.016
		Processing speed	
IMT	-1.774	-2.834 to -0.714	.001
PWV	-0.192	-0.311 to -0.073	.002

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; IMT, intima-media thickness; MoCA, Montreal Cognitive Assessment; PWV, pulse wave velocity. B indicates unstandardized model coefficients that indicate how much the dependent variable varies with an independent variable when all other independent variables are held constant. Consider the effect of augmentation index (Alx) in this example. The unstandardized coefficient, B₁, for Alx is equal to -0.038. This means that for each one-unit increase in Alx, there is a decrease in Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) score of 0.032.

*To run the multivariable analysis models, for each dependent variable, all independent variables with P<.01 in the bivariate analysis were selected. In models where Alx and Alx adjusted to 75 beats per minute (Alx75) needed to be included, to avoid the collinearity effect, only the Alx was included.

fact that the group with higher PWV (above the study mean) had poorer cognitive performance may be explained by the same processes. Although a PWV cutoff of 7.9 m/s is relatively low, even if it is based on this group, since the usual cutoff is around 10 m/s in assigning high risk on the basis of PWV, it is important to stress that even at this level those patients with higher arterial stiffness had lower cognitive performance.

In the Framingham Heart Study–Third Generation Cohort, although only 18% of the individuals had hypertension, in adjusted regression models, higher carotid-femoral PWV was associated with poorer processing speed and executive function mainly in midlife,

P value

.026

TABLE 6 Multivariable analysis between arterial proprieties as independent variables and cognitive tests as dependent variables in patients with hypertension*

MMSE

Parameter 95% CI for B

-0.059 to -0.004

Variable

Alx

В

-0.032

28

larger lateral ventricular volumes in young adulthood, and a greater burden of white-matter hyperintensity in middle-aged adults. $^{\rm 38}$

5 | LIMITATIONS

First, our study used a relatively small sample and is based on a crosssectional design, and we highlight that an association does not imply causation. Accordingly, our observations need confirmation in longitudinal and adequately powered studies. Second, our study was performed in a select group of patients with hypertension referred to a university hospital, limiting the generalizability of our findings to other populations. Another limitation of this study is the absence of magnetic resonance imaging because we were not able to rule out subclinical cerebrovascular disease, which may determine hypertension impact on these patients. Last, the impact of antihypertensive drugs was not addressed.

6 | CONCLUSIONS

Our data showed that higher arterial stiffness is related to cognitive impairment at different levels of hypertension. In addition, arterial functional (Alx and PWV) and structural (IMT) properties were associated with lower cognitive performance at different domains. Language, processing speed, and visuospatial abilities were the most affected domains. The present findings support the undertaking of further studies to elucidate the mechanisms through which arterial stiffness is associated with cognitive impairment and whether hypertension could have an additive effect on this association.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We appreciate Drs André Borba, Raul Feitosa, Silvia Merlim, Eduardo Sturzeneker Trés, and Ana Paula Gonçalves for their valuable contributions.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest and that no funds were received for the preparation of this article.

ORCID

Henrique C.S. Muela, 🕩 http://orcid.org/0000-0002-0071-9555

REFERENCES

- Marfella R, Paolisso G. Increased arterial stiffness trumps on blood pressure in predicting cognitive decline in low-risk populations. *Hypertension*. 2016;67:30-31.
- WHO. Dementia: A Public Health Priority. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization-Alzheimer's Disease International; 2012.
- G8 Dementia Summit Declaration. 2013. https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/g8-dementia-summit-agreements. Accessed December 26, 2016.

- Scuteri A, Nilsson PM, Tzourio C, Redon J, Laurent S. Microvascular brain damage with aging and hypertension. J Hypertens. 2011;29:1469-1477.
- Waldstein SR, Giggey PP, Thayer JF, Zonderman AB. Nonlinear relations of blood pressure to cognitive function: the Baltimore longitudinal study of aging. *Hypertension*. 2005;45:374-379.
- Obisesan TO. Hypertension and cognitive function. Clin Geriatr Med. 2009;25:259-288.
- Muela HC, Costa-Hong VA, Yassuda MS, et al. Hypertension severity is associated with impaired cognitive performance. J Am Heart Assoc. 2017;6:e004579.
- Payne RA, Wilkinson IB, Webb DJ. Arterial stiffness and hypertension: emerging concepts. *Hypertension*. 2010;55:9-14.
- Mitchell GF, van Buchem MA, Sigurdsson S, et al. Arterial stiffness, pressure and flow pulsatility and brain structure and function: the Age, Gene/Environment Susceptibility–Reykjavik study. *Brain*. 2011;134:3398-3407.
- Cooper LL, Woodard T, Sigurdsson S, et al. Cerebrovascular damage mediates relations between aortic stiffness and memory. *Hypertension*. 2016;67:176-182.
- Hanon O, Haulon S, Lenoir H, et al. Relationship between arterial stiffness and cognitive function in elderly subjects with complaints of memory loss. *Stroke*. 2005;36:2193-2197.
- Scuteri A, Brancati AM, Gianni W, Assisi A, Volpe M. Arterial stiffness is an independent risk factor for cognitive impairment in the elderly: a pilot study. J Hypertension. 2005;23:1211-1216.
- Poels MM, van Oijen M, Mattace-Raso FU, et al. Arterial stiffness, cognitive decline, and risk of dementia: the Rotterdam study. *Stroke*. 2007;38:888-892.
- Sociedade Brasileira de Cardiologia. Sociedade Brasileira de Hipertensão. Sociedade Brasileira de Nefrologia. VI Brazilian guidelines on hypertension. Arq Bras Cardiol. 2010;95:1-51.
- Antelmi I, Chuang EY, Grupi CJ, LatorreMdo, Mansur AJ. Heart rate recovery after treadmill electrocardiographic exercise stress test and 24-hour heart rate variability in healthy individuals. *Arq Bras Cardiol*. 2008;90:380-385.
- Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. "Mini-mental state." A practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. J Psychiatr Res. 1975;12:189-198.
- Brucki SM, Nitrini R, Caramelli P, Bertolucci PH, Okamoto IH. Suggestions for utilization of the mini-mental state examination in Brazil. Arq Neuropsiquiatr. 2003;61:777-781.
- Nasreddine ZS, Phillips NA, Bédirian V, et al. The Montreal Cognitive Assessment, MoCA: a brief screening tool for mild cognitive impairment. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2005;53:695-699.
- Memória CM, Yassuda MS, Nakano EY, Forlenza OV. Brief screening for mild cognitive impairment: validation of the Brazilian version of the Montreal cognitive assessment. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry. 2013;28:34-40.
- Miotto EC, Sato J, Lucia MC, Camargo CH, Scaff M. Development of an adapted version of the Boston Naming Test for Portuguese speakers. *Rev Bras Psiquiatr.* 2010;32:279-282.
- 21. Rosen WG. Verbal fluency in aging and dementia. *J Clin Neuropsychol.* 1980;2:135-146.
- Strauss E, Sherman EM, Spreen O. A Compendium of Neuropsychological Tests: Administration, Norms, and Commentary, 3rd ed. New York, NY: Oxford University Press; 2006:655-677.
- Tombaugh TN, Kozak J, Rees L. Normative data stratified by age and education for two measures of verbal fluency: FAS and animal naming. Arch Clin Neuropsychol. 1999;14:167-177.
- Malloy-Diniz LF, Lasmar VA, de Gazinelli LS, Fuentes D, Salgado JV. The Rey Auditory-Verbal Learning Test: applicability for the Brazilian elderly population. *Rev Bras Psiquiatr.* 2007;29:324-329.
- Shin MS, Park SY, Park SR, Seol SH, Kwon JS. Clinical and empirical applications of the Rey-Osterrieth Complex Figure Test. *Nat Protoc.* 2006;1:892-899.

³⁰ WILEY

- Aprahamian I, Martinelli JE, Neri AL, Yassuda MS. The accuracy of the Clock Drawing Test compared to that of standard screening tests for Alzheimer's disease: results from a study of Brazilian elderly with heterogeneous educational backgrounds. *Int Psychogeriatr.* 2010;22:64-71.
- Axelrod BN. Administration duration for the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-III and Wechsler Memory Scale-III. Arch Clin Neuropsychol. 2001;16:293-301.
- Leung JL, Lee GT, Lam YH, Chan RC, Wu JY. The use of the Digit Span Test in screening for cognitive impairment in acute medical inpatients. *Int Psychogeriatrics*. 2011;23:1569-1574.
- Drager LF, Bortolotto LA, Lorenzi MC, Figueiredo AC, Krieger EM, Lorenzi-Filho G. Early signs of atherosclerosis in obstructive sleep apnea. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2005;172:613-618.
- Asmar R, Benetos A, Topouchian J, et al. Assessment of arterial distensibility by automatic pulse wave velocity measurement. Validation and clinical application studies. *Hypertension*. 1995;26:485-490.
- Van Bortel LM, Laurent S, Boutouyrie P, et al. Expert consensus document on the measurement of aortic stiffness in daily practice using carotid-femoral pulse wave velocity. J Hypertens. 2012;30: 445-448.
- Hanon O, Luong V, Mourad JJ, Bortolotto LA, Jeunemaitre X, Girerd X. Aging, carotid artery distensibility, and the Ser422Gly elastin gene polymorphism in humans. *Hypertension*. 2001;38:1185-1189.
- Wassertheurer S, Kropf J, Weber T, et al. A new oscillometric method for pulse wave analysis: comparison with a common tonometric method. J Hum Hypertens. 2010;24:498-504.
- Yasmin, Brown MJ. Similarities and differences between augmentation index and pulse wave velocity in the assessment of arterial stiffness. QJM. 1999;92:595-600.
- Kelly RP, Millasseau SC, Ritter JM, Chowienczyk PJ. Vasoactive drugs influence aortic augmentation index independently of pulse wave velocity in healthy men. *Hypertension*. 2001;37:1429-1433.
- Rabkin SW. Arterial stiffness: detection and consequences in cognitive impairment and dementia of the elderly. J Alzheimers Dis. 2012;32:541-549.
- Watson NL, Sutton-Tyrrell K, Rosano C, et al. Arterial stiffness and cognitive decline in well-functioning older adults. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci. 2011;66:1336-1342.

- Pase MP, Himali JJ, Mitchell GF, et al. Association of aortic stiffness with cognition and brain aging in young and middle-aged adults: the Framingham Third Generation Cohort Study. *Hypertension*. 2016;67:513-519.
- McEniery CM, Yasmin, Hall IR, Qasem A, Wilkinson IB, Cockcroft JR. Normal vascular aging: differential effects on wave reflection and aortic pulse wave velocity—The Anglo-Cardiff Collaborative Trial (ACCT). J Am Coll Cardiol. 2005;46:1753-1760.
- 40. Lemogoum D, Flores G, Van den Abeele W, et al. Validity of pulse pressure and augmentation index as surrogate measures of arterial stiffness during beta-adrenergic stimulation. *J Hypertens*. 2004;22:511-517.
- 41. Davies JI, Struthers AD. Pulse wave analysis and pulse wave velocity: a critical review of their strengths and weaknesses. *J Hypertens*. 2003;21:463-472.
- 42. Cameron JD, McGrath BP, Dart AM. Use of radial artery applanation tonometry and a generalized transfer function to determine aortic pressure augmentation in subjects with treated hypertension. J Am Coll Cardiol. 1998;32:1214-1220.
- Sakurai M, Yamakado T, Kurachi H, et al. The relationship between aortic augmentation index and pulse wave velocity: an invasive study. *J Hypertens*. 2007;25:391-397.
- 44. Muiesan ML, Salvetti M, Rizzoni D, et al. Pulsatile hemodynamics and microcirculation: evidence for a close relationship in hypertensive patients. *Hypertension*. 2013;61:130-136.
- Pase MP, Pipingas A, Kras M, et al. Healthy middle-aged individuals are vulnerable to cognitive deficits as a result of increased arterial stiffness. J Hypertens. 2010;28:1724-1729.
- Liao D, Arnett DK, Tyroler HA, et al. Arterial stiffness and the development of hypertension: the ARIC Study. *Hypertension*. 1999;34:201-206.
- Franklin SS, Gustin W, Wong ND, et al. Hemodynamic patterns of age-related changes in blood pressure. The Framingham Heart Study. *Circulation*. 1997;96:308-315.

How to cite this article: Muela HCS, Costa-Hong VA, Yassuda MS, et al. Higher arterial stiffness is associated with lower cognitive performance in patients with hypertension. *J Clin Hypertens*. 2018;20:22–30. https://doi.org/10.1111/jch.13129