

Midlife systemic inflammatory markers are associated with late-life brain volume: The ARIC study

Authors: Keenan A. Walker, PhD; Ron C. Hoogeveen, PhD; Aaron R. Folsom, MD, MPH; Christie M. Ballantyne, MD; David S. Knopman, MD; B. Gwen Windham, MD, MHS; Clifford R. Jack Jr, MD; Rebecca F. Gottesman, MD, PhD

From the Departments of Neurology (K.A.W., R.F.G.) and Epidemiology (R.F.G.), Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD; Section of Cardiology (R.C.H., C.M.B.), Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX; Center for Cardiovascular Disease Prevention (R.C.H., C.M.B.), Houston Methodist DeBakey Heart and Vascular Center, Houston, TX; Division of Epidemiology and Community Health (A.R.F.), School of Public Health, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN; Departments of Neurology (D.S.K.) and Radiology (C.R.J.), Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN; Department of Medicine (B.G.W.), University of Mississippi Medical Center, Jackson, MS.

Corresponding Author:
Keenan Walker, PhD.
Kwalke26@jhmi.edu

Author Contributions:

Drafting or revising the manuscript for content: Drs. Walker, Hoogeveen, Folsom, Ballantyne, Windham, Knopman, Jack, and Gottesman. Study concept or design: Drs. Walker, Gottesman, and Windham. Interpretation of the data: Drs. Walker and Gottesman. Statistical analysis: Dr. Walker. Study supervision or coordination: Drs. Gottesman, Folsom, Knopman, and Jack. Obtaining funding: Drs. Gottesman and Folsom.

Acknowledgements:

The Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study is carried out as a collaborative study supported by National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute contracts (HHSN268201100005C, HHSN268201100006C, HHSN268201100007C, HHSN268201100008C, HHSN268201100009C, HHSN268201100010C, HHSN268201100011C, and HHSN268201100012C). Neurocognitive data is collected by U01 HL096812, HL096814, HL096899, HL096902, HL096917 with previous brain MRI examinations funded by R01-HL70825. The authors thank the staff and participants of the ARIC study for their important contributions.

Author Disclosures:

Keenan A. Walker – Reports no disclosures
Ron C. Hoogeveen – Reports no disclosures
Aaron R. Folsom – Reports no disclosures
Christie Ballantyne – Reports no disclosures
David S. Knopman – serves on a Data Safety Monitoring Board for Lundbeck Pharmaceuticals and the DIAN study; is an investigator in clinical trials sponsored by Biogen, TauRX

Pharmaceuticals, Lilly Pharmaceuticals and the Alzheimer's Disease Cooperative Study; and receives research support from NIH.

B. Gwen Windham – Reports no disclosures

Clifford R. Jack Jr – Serves on a scientific advisory board for Eli Lilly and Company and receives research support from NIH and the Alexander Family Alzheimer's Disease Research Professorship of the Mayo Foundation.

Rebecca F. Gottesman – Associate Editor for *Neurology*[®] and receives research support from NIH.

Funding:

The Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study is carried out as a collaborative study supported by National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute contracts (HHSN268201100005C, HHSN268201100006C, HHSN268201100007C, HHSN268201100008C, HHSN268201100009C, HHSN268201100010C, HHSN268201100011C, and HHSN268201100012C). Neurocognitive data is collected by U01 HL096812, HL096814, HL096899, HL096902, HL096917 with previous brain MRI examinations funded by R01-HL70825. Dr. Walker was supported by the NIA (T32 AG027668). The sponsors had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection management, analysis and interpretation of the data; or preparation review, or approval of the manuscript.

ABSTRACT

Objective: To clarify the temporal relationship between systemic inflammation and neurodegeneration, we examined whether a higher level of circulating inflammatory markers during midlife was associated with smaller brain volumes in late-life using a large biracial prospective cohort study.

Methods: Plasma levels of systemic inflammatory markers (fibrinogen, albumin, white blood cell count, von Willebrand factor, and Factor VIII) were assessed at baseline in 1,617,633 participants (mean age 53.52(8) years, 60.61% female, 27.26% African American) enrolled in the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study (ARIC). Using all five inflammatory markers, an inflammation composite score was created for each participant. We assessed episodic memory and regional brain volumes, using 3 Tesla MRI, 24 years later.

Results: Each standard deviation increase in midlife inflammation composite score was associated with 1,788 mm³ greater ventricular (p=.013), 110.42 mm³ smaller hippocampal (p=.01308), 519.204 mm³ smaller occipital (p=.00907), and 532.197 mm³ smaller Alzheimer's disease Signature Region (p=.008010) volumes, and reduced episodic memory (p=.046) 24 years later. Compared to participants with no elevated (4th quartile) midlife inflammatory markers, participants with elevations in three or more markers had significantly smaller, on average, 5% smaller hippocampal and Alzheimer's disease Signature Region (-751 mm³; p=.038) and hippocampal (-148 mm³; p=.038) volumes, and reduced episodic memory (p=0.049). The association between midlife inflammation and late-life brain volume was modified by age and race, whereby younger participants and white participants with higher levels of systemic inflammation during midlife were more likely to show demonstrated significantly reduced late-life brain volumes subsequently.

Conclusions: Our prospective findings provide evidence for what may be an early contributory role of systemic inflammation in neurodegeneration and cognitive aging.

INTRODUCTION

Although elevated levels of inflammatory markers have been found in the blood¹, CSF², and brain parenchyma³ of individuals with cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease, it remains unclear whether this heightened inflammatory state is driving neurodegenerative changes. If low-grade systemic inflammation does play a causal role in Alzheimer's and other neurodegenerative diseases, a heightened inflammatory response during midlife would be expected to increase one's risk for pathological brain changes much later. Although cross-sectional studies have demonstrated a link between elevated inflammatory markers and reduced brain volume in older adults⁴⁻⁷, it remains unclear whether systemic inflammation during midlife, before the onset of significant age- and disease-related neurological changes, is associated with brain volume loss later in life.

The goal of the current study was to examine how midlife plasma markers of inflammation relate to late-life brain volume among a biracial community sample of older adults. To this end, we examined the relationship between five markers of systemic inflammation measured during midlife and MRI measures of regional brain volume 24 years later in the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study cohort. We tested the hypothesis that greater midlife systemic inflammation is associated with smaller brain volumes in regions most susceptible to Alzheimer's-related atrophy and reduced episodic memory in older adulthood. Based on cross-sectional evidence suggesting that race, sex, and age may modify the association between inflammatory markers and brain volume^{5,8,9}, the current study also examined the modifying effects of each of these demographic characteristics.

METHODS

Study population

The ARIC study, an ongoing community-based prospective study, enrolled 15,792 middle-aged adults (45-65 years of age at baseline)¹⁰. Participants were selected by probability sampling in four U.S. communities: Washington County, MD; Forsyth County, NC; northwestern suburbs of Minneapolis, MN; and Jackson, MS. Following the baseline visit in 1987-89 (Visit 1), participants were seen at three more visits, approximately three years apart until 1996-1998 (Visit 4), and at a fifth visit in 2011-2013 (Visit 5).

At Visit 5, a subset of 1,978 participants was selected to undergo brain MRI scans¹¹. Participants were selected to undergo a brain MRI based on previous participation in the ARIC Brain MRI Ancillary Study and standard safety exclusion criteria. Additionally, all participants with evidence of cognitive impairment at Visit 5 and an age-stratified random sample of participants without evidence of cognitive impairment were recruited. The participation rate among eligible individuals selected to undergo brain MRI was approximately 81%. A detailed description of the MRI sampling strategy is provided in the supplemental methods. We excluded participants with missing or poor imaging-quality neuroimaging (n=~~206~~), neurological disease (i.e., stroke, multiple sclerosis) (n=80), missing inflammatory biomarker data (n=38), missing covariates (n=~~215210~~), and race other than white or African American (n=~~65~~) or African American race at a primarily white study site (n=8). Participants who met criteria for dementia or had unknown cognitive status (5%, n=~~8381~~) were excluded from the primary analyses.

Standard protocol approvals, registrations, and patient consents.

The ARIC study protocol has been approved by the Institutional Review Boards at each participating center. All participants gave written informed consent at each study visit.

Inflammatory markers

Plasma levels of four acute-phase reactants – fibrinogen, albumin, von Willebrand factor (VWF), and Factor VIII (FVIII) – and white blood cell (WBC) count were used to measure systemic inflammation¹². Using standard protocols, study technicians drew fasting blood, centrifuged samples, and froze plasma blood samples at -70°C until the samples were analyzed¹³. Fibrinogen (mg/dL), albumin (g/dL), VWF (% of standard), and FVIII activity (% of standard) measured at Visit 1 were analyzed in an ARIC research laboratory in accordance with a standardized protocol^{13,14}. WBC count was determined from whole anti-coagulated blood using an automated particle Coulter Counter within 24 hours of venipuncture. Repeated testing revealed inter-assay coefficients of variation below 8% for fibrinogen, albumin, FVIII, and WBC, and 17-19% for VWF^{15,16}.

Brain MRI

MRI scans were conducted using a 3T MRI scanner¹¹. MP-RAGE, Axial T2*GRE, Axial T2 FLAIR, and Axial DTI sequences were obtained. Freesurfer (<http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu>) was used to measure brain volume from MP-RAGE sequences¹⁷. Total brain and ventricular volume, lobar volume (frontal, temporal, parietal, occipital), Alzheimer's disease (AD) Signature Region volume (i.e., the combined volume of the parahippocampal, entorhinal, inferior parietal lobules, hippocampus, and precuneus)¹⁸, hippocampal volume, and total intracranial volume

were evaluated for the current study. We applied a square root transformation to ventricular volume to correct for skewness.

Episodic memory

Episodic memory was assessed at Visit 5, concurrent with the brain MRI, using the delayed word recall test (DWR). DWR is a test which requires participants to learn and recall a list of 10 words following a delay period¹⁹. Participants were scored based on the total number of words correctly recalled.

Covariates

Race, sex, years of education attained (less than high school; high school/GED/vocational school; or any college), cigarette smoking status (current/former/never), average weekly alcohol consumption (grams), and previous cancer diagnosis were self-reported. A random zero sphygmomanometer was used to calculate sitting diastolic and systolic blood pressure. Second and third blood pressure measurements were averaged for the current analyses. Hypertension was defined as systolic blood pressure >140 mm Hg, diastolic blood pressure >90 mm Hg, or use of hypertensive medication. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated using recorded height and weight (kg/m²). Coronary heart disease was defined as self-reported coronary bypass, balloon angioplasty, angioplasty of one or more coronary artery, or myocardial infarction. Medications used in the previous two weeks was recorded. The presence of chronic inflammatory conditions (e.g., arthritis, lupus, gout) was assessed by patient self-report of physician diagnosis at Visit 4. History of regular anti-inflammatory medication use (e.g., nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug [NSAID], arthritis medication) was assessed at Visit 5. All other variables were assessed at Visit

1. Dementia diagnosis was adjudicated at Visit 5 by an expert committee using cognitive, imaging and functional data²⁰.

Total cholesterol and triglycerides were measured using enzymatic methods^{21,22}, and low-density lipoprotein (LDL), using the Friedewald equation²³. Serum glucose was measured using the hexokinase method. Diabetes was defined as a fasting glucose ≥ 126 mg/dl or a non-fasting glucose ≥ 200 mg/dl, current use of diabetes medication or insulin, or participant report of physician-diagnosed diabetes. *APOE* genotype (0, 1, or 2 $\epsilon 4$ alleles) was assessed using the TaqMan assay (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA).

Statistical analysis

We examined systemic inflammation as both a continuous and categorical exposure parameter. A continuous inflammation composite Z-score was created using the five inflammatory markers. WBC count was log-transformed to correct for skewness. Each inflammatory biomarker was converted to a standardized Z-score such that the group mean was zero with a standard deviation of one. The mean of the five Z-scores was calculated to generate an inflammation composite Z-score; this composite score was then standardized. Because albumin decreases in response to inflammation, albumin values were multiplied by -1 before being included in the composite Z-score. With few exceptions, the inter-correlations between inflammatory markers were within an optimal range, between .2 and .4; composite score item-test correlations, principal component factor loadings, and Cronbach's alpha (0.61) were satisfactory for our purposes (table e-1). For each participant, we also created a categorical measure of systemic inflammation by computing

the number of inflammatory marker z-scores in the highest quartile ($\geq 75\%$ tile) and trichotomizing this number (0, 1-2, or 3-5).

Participant characteristics were compared using an ANOVA or chi-square tests. Multivariable linear regression was used to assess the association between continuous and categorical inflammation variables and measures of brain volume and episodic memory. Brain volume analyses were adjusted for total intracranial volume, and all analyses included the covariates described in the previous section. Interaction terms or stratification were used to evaluate the modifying effects of age, race, and sex.

Sensitivity analyses were performed excluding participants who reported regular anti-inflammatory medication use during follow-up and including participants who met criteria for dementia. For all analyses, sampling weights were incorporated to account for the ARIC brain MRI sampling strategy. Thus, all results represent estimates for the entire ARIC Visit 5 study population. Because the associations between inflammation markers and specific ROIs are correlated, we did not adjust for multiple comparisons. A two-sided p value $< .05$ designated statistical significance. All analyses were conducted using Stata Version 14 (StataCorp, College Station, Tex., USA).

RESULTS

Study population characteristics

A total of 1,617,633 participants (baseline mean age 52.8 [5.3], 27.26% African American, 60.61% women, 46% college or professional degree) were included in the study sample. The time

between baseline assessment and follow-up MRI scan was 24 (1) years; the average age at follow-up was 76.54 (5.4). As shown in table 1, a higher inflammation composite score at baseline was associated with older age, female sex, African American race, and increased levels of a number of cardiovascular risk factors.

Inflammatory markers and brain volume

We did not find a statistically significant association between midlife inflammation composite score and late-life brain volume in the full analytic sample. Each standard deviation (SD) increase in inflammation composite score at baseline was associated with a 532-197 mm³ smaller AD Signature Region volume (95% confidence interval [CI]: -922-431 to -14139; $p=.10$), a 519 204 mm³ smaller occipital lobe volume (CI: -427-906 to -18; $p=.07$), a 110-42 mm³ smaller hippocampal volume (CI: -196-88 to -5; $p=.0824$), and a 1,7881.87 -mm³ larger squared ventricular volume (CI: 371-.29 to 3,2054.03; $p=.09$) at follow-up (table 2). ~~We found the estimated effect of a one SD increase in inflammation composite score during midlife on occipital lobe, ventricular, and hippocampal volume to be similar to the effect associated with possession of a single APOE ε4 allele in our multivariable regression analyses.~~ No association was found for total brain, frontal lobe, temporal lobe, or parietal lobe volume (p 's > .07172). Our findings did not change meaningfully after excluding participants who regularly used anti-inflammatory medication during the follow-up period (table e-2) and after including participants who met criteria for dementia at Visit 5 (table e-3). For descriptive purposes, we explored the associations between individual inflammatory markers and AD Signature Region volume (are provided in a table e-4). Only midlife WBC count was significantly associated with AD

Signature Region volume: each SD increase in midlife WBC count was associated with 292mm³ smaller late-life AD Signature Region volume (CI: -564, -20; $p=0.036$).

An assessment of linear trend revealed that Next, we compared the brain volumes of individuals with 0 elevated ($\geq 75^{\text{th}}$ %tile) inflammatory biomarkers at midlife baseline (reference); to those with 1-2 and 3-5 elevated biomarkers at midlife had lower AD Signature Region (p -trend=.001), occipital lobe (p -trend=.007), and hippocampal volume (p -trend=.041) 24 years later (figure 1). Compared to the reference group, participants with three or 1-2 elevated midlife inflammatory biomarkers had significantly smaller late-life AD Signature region volume (-790mm³; CI: -1,320, -260; $p=.003$) and occipital lobe volume (-727mm³; CI: -1,228, -226; $p=.004$). Participants with 3 or more elevated markers demonstrated 5.3% smaller AD Signature Region volumes (-751mm³; CI: -1,461, -41; $p=.038$) and 5.7% smaller occipital lobe volumes, and 4.6% smaller hippocampal volumes (-148mm³; CI: -288, -8; $p=.038$), on average. However, this pattern was not statistically supported for total brain, ventricular, frontal lobe, temporal lobe, and parietal lobe volume (p -trends $>.072$).

The modifying effects of age, race, and sex

An significant age-by-inflammation composite score interaction was found for AD Signature Region, occipital lobe, and hippocampal volume (table 2). Because a reversal of association was observed at age 60 (figures 2, e-1, e-2), we stratified the sample into young-midlife and old-midlife subgroups ($<60/\geq 60$). As displayed in table 2, we found a significant the associations between higher midlife inflammation composite score and lower AD Signature Region (young-midlife: -262mm³; CI: -509, -15 vs. old-midlife: 455mm³; CI: -281, 1,190; interaction- $p=0.06$),

occipital lobe (young-midlife: -256mm^3 ; CI: $-491, -21$ vs. old-midlife: 316mm^3 ; CI: $-343, 975$; interaction- $p=0.009$), and hippocampal volume (young-midlife: -51mm^3 ; CI: $-100, -2$ vs. old-midlife: 56mm^3 ; CI: $-98, 212$; interaction- $p=0.03$) at follow-up were significantly stronger among participants who were 60 or younger at baseline but not among participants older than 60. In this younger group we found the estimated effect of a one SD increase in inflammation composite score during midlife on hippocampal volume to be similar to the effect associated with possession of a single APOE $\epsilon 4$ allele in our multivariable regression analyses. Notably, the associations among -compared to- those who were older than 60, although non-significant, were nearly all reversed in terms of direction. A marginal race-by-inflammation composite score interaction was found for occipital lobe volume, whereby a higher midlife inflammation composite score was associated with lower occipital lobe volume among white, but not African American, participants (table 3). We found no evidence for effect modification by No interactions with race or sex were found (table 3 and table e-5).

Inflammatory markers and episodic memory

Late-life episodic memory, which was associated with hippocampal and AD Signature Region volume after controlling for age (partial $r's > = 0.221$, $p's < .001$), was reduced among participants with Although higher levels of the inflammation composite score. Each SD increase in inflammation composite score was were not associated with a -0.08 SD performance decrement on the DWR after adjusting for covariates (CI: -0.15 to 0.00 , $p=.046$). Similarly, a higher number participants with three or more of elevated inflammatory biomarkers, compared to those with no elevated inflammatory markers, showed lower episodic memory performance ($\beta=-$

0.27; CI: -0.54, 0.00; $p=.049$; ~~at baseline was associated with reduced DWR performance (p -trend=.009;~~ figure 1).

DISCUSSION

Using a large community sample, we ~~demonstrated that~~examined whether a higher level of systemic inflammatory markers measured during midlife ~~is was~~ independently associated with lower regional brain volume and reduced episodic memory 24 years later among non-demented older adults. ~~We demonstrated. Similar that,~~ participants who had elevations in a larger number of five inflammatory markers during midlife ~~were found had to have~~ lower regional brain volumes (particularly in the AD signature region and hippocampus) and reduced episodic memory in late-life ~~in a dose-response manner.~~ Although not associated with lower brain volume in the total sample, a higher systemic inflammation composite score was associated with lower late-life brain volume in a subset of younger participants, (i.e., those age 60 or younger at the time of inflammatory marker measurement). ~~For several brain regions, including the hippocampus~~For these participants, the effect of a one SD increase in midlife inflammation composite score on hippocampal volume was comparable that of possessing a single *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ allele during late-life. Whereas age ~~and race were was~~ found to ~~modestly~~ modify the relationship between midlife inflammation and late-life regional brain volume, ~~the previously reported a~~ modifying effect of race and sex was not supported.

Although cross-sectional evidence from the Framingham⁵ study and several other population-based^{8,9} studies suggests an association between brain volume and inflammation in older adults, the temporal relationship between inflammation and brain volume loss is still not well

understood. As a result, whether heightened systemic inflammation constitutes a potential cause or consequence of neurodegeneration and brain atrophy remains unclear. Because the pathophysiological processes driving neurodegeneration and brain volume loss begin decades before the onset of frank cognitive decline²⁴, it is essential to determine how biological processes that take place during middle adulthood relate to neurological outcomes later in life. By demonstrating that an elevation in plasma inflammatory markers during midlife is independently associated with smaller regional brain volumes, ~~larger ventricular volume~~, and reduced episodic memory in late-life, the current findings provide support for a potential causal, rather than associative, role of systemic inflammation in late-life neurodegeneration (i.e., atrophy) and resulting cognitive decline. The current findings align closely with those from the neuro-cardiovascular literature which have found associations between midlife blood pressure²⁵, cholesterol²⁶, and diabetes²⁷, and adverse neurological and cognitive outcomes in older adulthood. The contributing role of systemic inflammation to subsequent neurodegenerative processes has been previously demonstrated by animal studies²⁸, but had not yet been supported by a large prospective MRI study.

The current results suggest that several demographic factors modify the relationship between midlife inflammation and late-life brain volume. Younger individuals with elevated levels of inflammation (particularly participants in their 40s ~~and early 50s~~) were more likely to display lower brain volumes decades later, supporting the idea that elevated systemic inflammation earlier in life may make individuals especially vulnerable to neurodegenerative brain changes as they age. Although we expected stronger effects would emerge within the African American group, given the greater burden of systemic disease²⁹ and dementia³⁰, the associations between

inflammation and brain volume were generally weaker among African Americans. A previous study which examined the moderating effects of race found similar results in a cross-sectional analysis of non-demented older adults⁸.

Circulating levels of acute-phase reactants, such as those used in the current study, change in parallel with an inflammatory response as a result of signaling from inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-6 and tumor necrosis factor- α ¹². Cytokines in the periphery have the potential to induce a pro-inflammatory neurotoxic state within the CNS through multiple routes, including activation of endothelial cells of the blood brain barrier³¹, activation of macrophage in circumventricular organs³², and signaling of the afferent vagus nerve³³. In addition to providing support for a pathogenic role of systemic inflammation in neurodegenerative disease, the present findings indicate that elevations in commonly assayed inflammatory proteins may serve as markers of risk for future neurodegenerative changes and cognitive decline. Although we did not examine all brain regions in our analysis, our assessment of seven representative ROIs suggests that brain regions vulnerable to atrophy, amyloid deposition, and metabolic abnormalities in the earliest phases of Alzheimer's disease may be more vulnerable to volume loss associated with heightened midlife inflammation. This pattern of neuroanatomical specificity has been supported by previous cross-sectional studies of non-demented older adults^{4,7-9,34}.

In the context of the current findings, several alternative explanations should be considered. First, it remains possible that elevated systemic inflammation may simply serve as a marker of another pathological process linked to neurodegeneration (e.g., oxidative stress). Second, it is possible that the biological processes causing brain atrophy trigger a protective neuro-immune

response, which increases peripheral inflammation. Third, the associations found here may be an effect of residual or unmeasured confounding. Despite these caveats, the contributory role of systemic inflammation has been supported by a sizable body of literature implicating peripheral inflammatory signaling in neurodegenerative processes such as neural apoptosis³⁵, amyloid- β formation³⁶, and neuronal tau phosphorylation³⁷.

Strengths of the current study include the prospective study design, length of follow-up, detailed assessment of potentially confounding variables, large sample size, and the inclusion of a large African American sample. However, the current findings should be interpreted within the context of several limitations. Although the acute-phase reactants used in the present study represent components of the innate immune system, several of these proteins are implicated in other closely related physiological process, such as hemostasis, which may also influence brain volume. Evaluating inflammatory biomarkers that have greater biological specificity in future prospective studies will allow for stronger inferences about the contributing role of systemic inflammation. Interpretation of the current findings is also limited by the measurement of inflammatory markers at a single time point, as it is unclear whether a single measurement can adequately capture inflammation chronicity. The relatively high inter-assay variability of VWF also increases the likelihood of exposure misclassification; however, this possibility is mitigated by the use of the inflammation composite score. We found that participants who dropped out and participants who died before Visit 5 had significantly higher levels of midlife inflammation, were older, had greater levels of medical comorbidity at baseline, and were more likely to be African American³⁸ (table e-6). As a result, selective attrition may have biased results in the direction of the null hypothesis, particularly for African American and older participants. Lastly, our

interpretation of the contributory role of inflammation in neurodegeneration rests on the assumption that brain volume loss occurred after inflammatory markers were assessed. Although evidence suggests that this is likely the case (brain volume loss accelerates after age 60³⁹), this cannot be confirmed without the assessment of change over time.

Despite these limitations, the current study provides insights into the connection between midlife systemic inflammation and late-life brain volume loss. These findings provide support for inflammation's early pathogenic role in the development of neurodegenerative brain changes associated with late-life cognitive decline, Alzheimer's disease, and other forms of dementia.

REFERENCES

1. Tan ZS, Beiser AS, Vasan RS, et al. Inflammatory markers and the risk of Alzheimer disease: The Framingham study. *Neurology*. 2007;68:1902–1908.
2. DeKosky ST, Ikonomic MD, Wang X, et al. Plasma and cerebrospinal fluid alpha1-antichymotrypsin levels in Alzheimer's disease: correlation with cognitive impairment. *Ann Neurol*. 2003;53:81–90.
3. Minett T, Classey J, Matthews FE, et al. Microglial immunophenotype in dementia with Alzheimer's pathology. *J Neuroinflammation*. 2016;13:135.
4. Zhang H, Sachdev PS, Wen W, et al. The relationship between inflammatory markers and voxel-based gray matter volumes in nondemented older adults. *Neurobiol Aging*. Elsevier Inc; 2015;37:138–146.
5. Jefferson AL, Massaro JM, Wolf PA, et al. Inflammatory biomarkers are associated with total brain volume: the Framingham Heart Study 43. *Neurology*. 2007;68:1032–1038.
6. Wersching H, Duning T, Lohmann H, et al. Serum C-reactive protein is linked to cerebral microstructural integrity and cognitive function. *Neurology*. 2010;74:1022–1029.
7. Bettcher BM, Wilhelm R, Rigby T, et al. C-reactive protein is related to memory and medial temporal brain volume in older adults. *Brain Behav Immun*. Elsevier Inc.; 2012;26:103–108.
8. Schmidt MF, Freeman KB, Windham BG, et al. Associations Between Serum Inflammatory Markers and Hippocampal Volume in a Community Sample. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2016;64:1823–1829.
9. Satizabal CL, Zhu YC, Mazoyer B, Dufouil C, Tzourio C. Circulating IL-6 and CRP are associated with MRI findings in the elderly: The 3C-Dijon Study. *Neurology*.

- 2012;78:720–727.
10. Hill C, Gerardo D, James F, et al. The Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study: design and objectives. The ARIC investigators. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1989;129:687–702.
 11. Knopman DS, Griswold ME, Lirette ST, et al. Vascular Imaging abnormalities and cognition: Mediation by cortical volume in nondemented individuals: Atherosclerosis risk in communities-neurocognitive study. *Stroke.* 2015;46:433–440.
 12. Gabay C, Kushner I. Acute-phase proteins and other systemic responses to inflammation. *N Engl J Med.* 1999;340:448–454.
 13. Papp AC, Hatzakis H, Bracey A, Wu KK. ARIC* hemostasis study - I. Development of a blood collection and processing system suitable for multicenter hemostatic studies. *Thromb Haemost.* 1989;61:15–19.
 14. Folsom AR, Wu KK, Rosamond WD, Sharrett AR, Chambless LE. Prospective study of hemostatic factors and incidence of coronary heart disease: the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study. *Circulation.* 1997;96:1102–1108.
 15. Chambless LE, McMahon R, Wu K, Folsom A, Finch A, Shen YL. Short-term intraindividual variability in hemostasis factors. The ARIC Study. Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Intraindividual Variability Study. *Ann Epidemiol.* 1992;2:723–733.
 16. Eckfeldt JH, Chambless LE, Shen YL. Short-term, within-person variability in clinical chemistry test results. Experience from the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study. *Arch Pathol Lab Med.* 1994;118:496–500.
 17. Fischl B, Salat DH, Busa E, et al. Whole brain segmentation: Automated labeling of neuroanatomical structures in the human brain. *Neuron.* 2002;33:341–355.

18. Dickerson BC, Stoub TR, Shah RC, et al. Alzheimer-signature MRI biomarker predicts AD dementia in cognitively normal adults. *Neurology*. 2011;76:1395–1402.
19. Schneider ALC, Sharrett AR, Gottesman RF, et al. Normative Data for 8 Neuropsychological Tests in Older Blacks and Whites From the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord*. 2015;29:32–44.
20. Knopman DS, Gottesman RF, Sharrett AR, et al. Mild cognitive impairment and dementia prevalence: The Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Neurocognitive Study. *Alzheimer's Dement Diagnosis, Assess Dis Monit*. 2016;2:1–11.
21. Nägele U, Hägele EO, Sauer G, et al. Reagent for the Enzymatic Determination of Serum Total Triglycerides with Improved Lipolytic Efficiency. *Clin Chem Lab Med*. 1984;22:165–174.
22. Siedel J, Hagele EO, Ziegenhorn J, Wahlefeld AW. Reagent for the enzymatic determination of serum total cholesterol with improved lipolytic efficiency. *Clin Chem*. 1983;29:1075–1080.
23. McNamara JR, Cohn JS, Wilson PWF, Schaefer EJ. Calculated values for low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in the assessment of lipid abnormalities and coronary disease risk. *Clin Chem*. 1990;36:36–42.
24. Chetelat G, Baron JC. Early diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease: Contribution of structural neuroimaging. *Neuroimage* 2003. p. 525–541.
25. Gottesman RF, Schneider ALC, Albert M, et al. Midlife Hypertension and 20-Year Cognitive Change. *JAMA Neurol*. 2014;21287:1–10.
26. Kivipelto M, Helkala EL, Hänninen T, et al. Midlife vascular risk factors and late-life mild cognitive impairment: A population-based study. *Neurology*. 2001;56:1683–1689.

27. Rawlings AM, Sharrett AR, Schneider ALC, et al. Diabetes in midlife and cognitive change over 20 years: A cohort study. *Ann Intern Med.* 2014;161:785–793.
28. Krstic D, Knuesel I. Deciphering the mechanism underlying late-onset Alzheimer disease. *Nat Rev Neurol.* 2013;9:25–34.
29. Mensah GA, Mokdad AH, Ford ES, Greenlund KJ, Croft JB. State of disparities in cardiovascular health in the United States. *Circulation.* 2005. p. 1233–1241.
30. Green RC, Cupples LA, Go R, et al. Risk of dementia among white and African American relatives of patients with Alzheimer disease. *J Am Med Assoc.* 2002;287:329–336.
31. Jurgens HA, Johnson RW. Dysregulated neuronal-microglial cross-talk during aging, stress and inflammation. *Exp. Neurol.* 2012. p. 40–48.
32. Lacroix S, Feinstein D, Rivest S. The bacterial endotoxin lipopolysaccharide has the ability to target the brain in upregulating its membrane CD14 receptor within specific cellular populations. *Brain Pathol.* 1998;8:625–640.
33. Johnston GR, Webster NR. Cytokines and the immunomodulatory function of the vagus nerve. *Br. J. Anaesth.* 2009. p. 453–462.
34. Baune BT, Konrad C, Grotegerd D, et al. Tumor necrosis factor gene variation predicts hippocampus volume in healthy individuals. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2012;72:655–662.
35. Cunningham C, Wilcockson DC, Campion S, Lunnon K, Perry VH. Central and systemic endotoxin challenges exacerbate the local inflammatory response and increase neuronal death during chronic neurodegeneration. *J Neurosci.* 2005;25:9275–9284.
36. Sastre M, Walter J, Gentleman SSM, et al. Interactions between APP secretases and inflammatory mediators. *J Neuroinflammation.* 2008;5:25.
37. Krstic D, Madhusudan A, Doehner J, et al. Systemic immune challenges trigger and drive

- Alzheimer-like neuropathology in mice. *J Neuroinflammation*. 2012;9:151.
38. Gottesman RF, Rawlings AM, Sharrett AR, et al. Impact of differential attrition on the association of education with cognitive change over 20 years of follow-up. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2014;179:956–966.
39. Hedman AM, van Haren NEM, Schnack HG, Kahn RS, Hulshoff Pol HE. Human brain changes across the life span: A review of 56 longitudinal magnetic resonance imaging studies. *Hum Brain Mapp*. 2012;33:1987–2002.

Figure Titles and Legends.

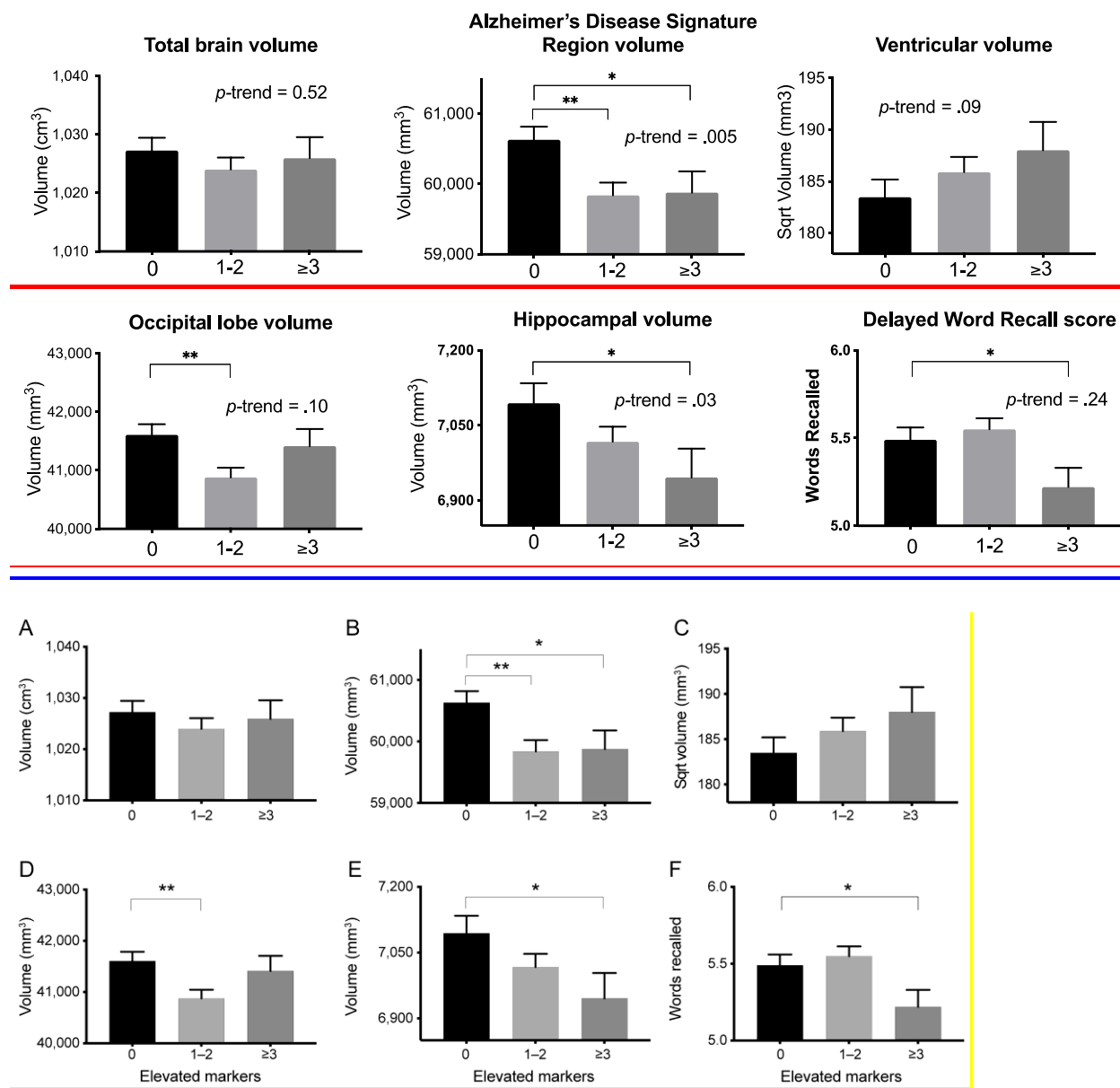
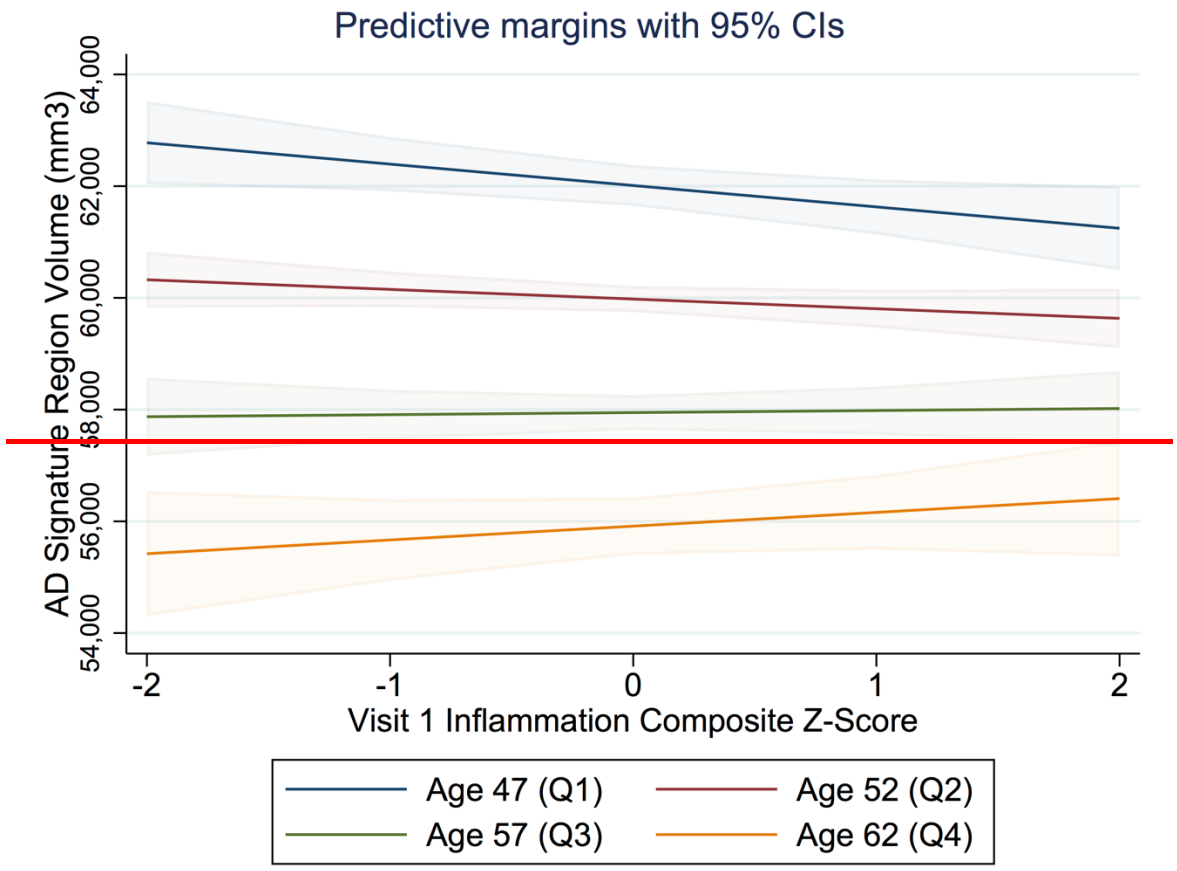


Figure 1. Number of elevated inflammatory markers, predicted brain volumes and episodic memory

Covariate-adjusted predicted brain volumes and delayed word recall test scores among participants with 0, 1-2, and ≥ 3 elevated inflammatory markers. Inflammatory marker levels were classified as elevated if they were ≥ 75th %tile based on the study sample.

[*p < .05, **p < .01](#)



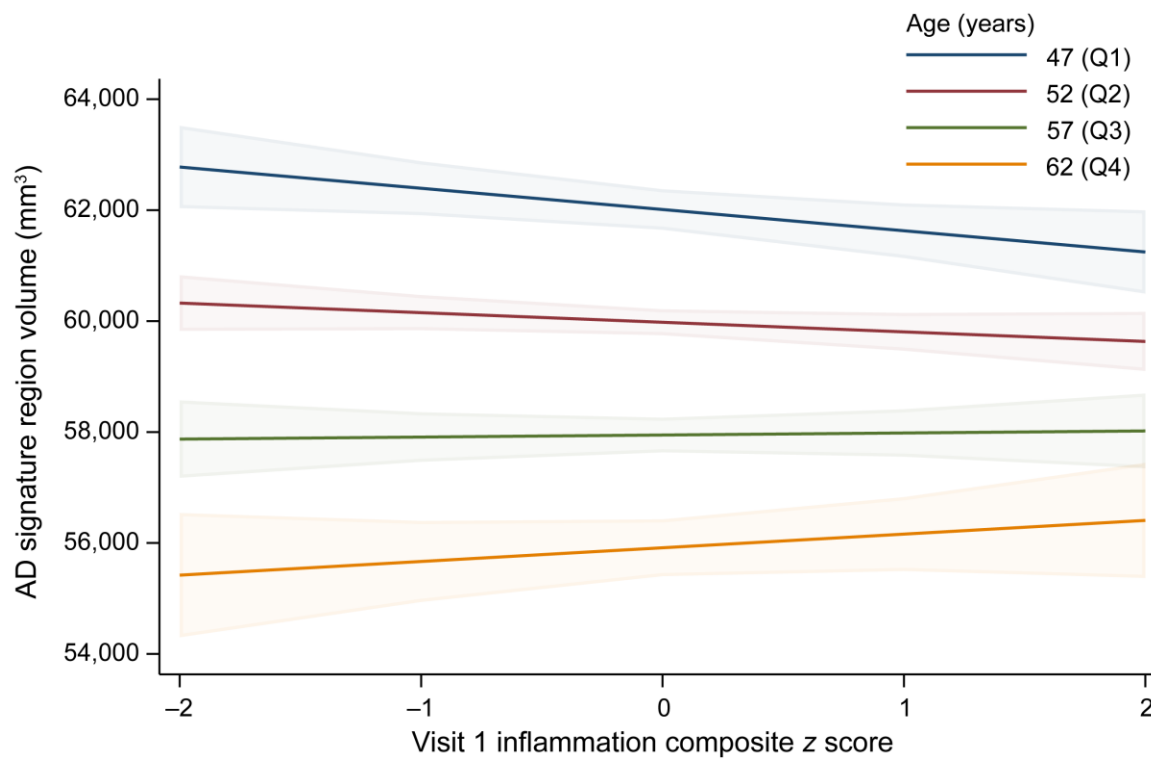


Figure 2. Association between midlife inflammation and late-life brain volume stratified by baseline age

Predicted values of Alzheimer’s disease Signature Region volume across levels of the inflammation composite score using a covariate-adjusted regression. Estimates are derived for the mean age for each age quartile derived from the total ARIC sample.

Table 1. Baseline (Visit 1) participant characteristics stratified across inflammation composite score quartiles

Characteristic	Midlife Inflammation Composite Score				<i>p</i>
	Low <i>n</i> = 405 408	Medium-Low <i>n</i> = 404 408	Medium-High <i>n</i> = 404 410	High <i>n</i> = 404 407	
<i>Demographic Variables</i>					
Age	52.0 (4.8)	53.1 (5.3) 53.0 (5.2)	53.0 (5.4) 52.9 (5.4)	53.3 (5.5)	0.002 .006
Female, n (%)	213 (52.2) 212 (52.4)	243 (59.6) 241 (59.7)	243 (59.3) 241 (60)	286 (70.3) 285 (70.5)	< .001
White Race, n (%)	316 (77.5) 317 (78.3)	310 (76.0) 309 (76.5)	303 (73.9) 296 (73.3)	265 (65.1) 267 (66.1)	< .001
Education, n (%)					0.109 .11
Less than high school	43 (10.5) 41 (10.1)	52 (12.8) 51 (12.6)	51 (12.4) 52 (12.9)	71 (17.4) 69 (17.1)	
High school, GED, or vocational	163 (40.0) 163 (40.3)	173 (42.4) 173 (42.8)	171 (41.7) 168 (41.6)	159 (39.1) 155 (38.4)	
College, graduate, or professional	202 (49.5) 201 (49.6)	183 (44.9) 180 (44.6)	188 (45.9) 184 (45.5)	177 (43.5) 180 (44.6)	
Apolipoprotein E ε4 alleles, n (%)					0.959 .93
0	286 (70.1) 285 (70.4)	298 (73.0) 294 (72.8)	291 (71.0) 286 (70.8)	292 (71.7) 290 (71.8)	
1	109 (26.7) 107 (26.4)	101 (24.8) 100 (24.8)	109 (26.6) 110 (27.2)	105 (25.8) 104 (25.7)	

	2	13 (3.2)	9 (2.2) <u>10 (2.5)</u>	10 (2.4) <u>8 (2.0)</u>	10 (2.5)	
<i>Physiological and Lab Variables</i>						
Body mass index (kg/m ²)		25.7 (3.8) <u>25.6 (3.7)</u>	26.2 (4.0)	27.3 (4.8) <u>27.3 (4.9)</u>	28.7 (5.6) <u>28.6 (5.6)</u>	< .001
Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg)		115.8 (15) <u>115.7 (14.9)</u>	115.5 (16) <u>115.4 (15.6)</u>	115.7 (15) <u>115.7 (14.5)</u>	116.8 (16) <u>116.9 (15.8)</u>	0.633 <u>.52</u>
Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg)		72.6 (10) <u>72.5 (10.2)</u>	72.7 (11) <u>72.7 (10.8)</u>	71.8 (9) <u>71.8 (9.1)</u>	73.1 (11) <u>73.1 (11.1)</u>	0.323 <u>.35</u>
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)		210.1 (42) <u>210.0 (41.6)</u>	210.6 (39) <u>210.8 (38.6)</u>	211.8 (36) <u>211.8 (36.5)</u>	215.0 (40) <u>215.1 (40.5)</u>	0.271 <u>.27</u>
HDL (mg/dl)		55.8 (19) <u>55.9 (18.5)</u>	56.6 (19) <u>56.6 (18.5)</u>	54.4 (16) <u>54.5 (16.3)</u>	53.5 (17) <u>53.6 (17.1)</u>	0.057 <u>.07</u>
LDL (mg/dl)		132.7 (40) <u>132.5 (39.5)</u>	131.4 (36) <u>131.4 (36.4)</u>	134.9 (35) <u>134.8 (35.1)</u>	137.3 (38) <u>137.0 (37.8)</u>	0.124 <u>.15</u>
Triglycerides (mg/dl)		107.8 (55) <u>107.4 (55.1)</u>	112.9 (62) <u>113.6 (62.6)</u>	112.5 (55) <u>112.3 (55.5)</u>	121.5 (59) <u>121.2 (59.9)</u>	0.009 <u>.004</u>
<i>Cardiovascular Disease, n (%)</i>						
Hypertension		80 (19.6) <u>77 (19.0)</u>	90 (22.1) <u>88 (21.8)</u>	88 (21.5) <u>86 (21.3)</u>	111 (27.3) <u>109 (27.0)</u>	0.057 <u>.047</u>
Diabetes mellitus	9 (2.2)		12 (2.95) <u>11 (2.7)</u>	14 (3.4) <u>13 (3.2)</u>	22 (5.4) <u>24 (5.9)</u>	0.079 <u>.02</u>
Coronary heart disease		12 (2.9) <u>3 (0.7)</u>	15 (3.7) <u>5 (1.2)</u>	13 (3.2) <u>3 (0.7)</u>	18 (4.4) <u>3 (0.7)</u>	0.674 <u>.83</u>
Heart Failure	6 (1.5)		8 (2.0)	10 (2.4) <u>10 (2.5)</u>	10 (2.5) <u>9 (2.2)</u>	0.728 <u>.78</u>
<i>Inflammatory Conditions, n (%)</i>						

Arthritis ^a	112 (27.5) <u>112 (27.7)</u>	165 (40.4) <u>163 (40.4)</u>	156 (38.1) <u>155 (38.4)</u>	181 (44.5) <u>180 (44.6)</u>	< .001
Lupus ^a	3 (0.7)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.2) <u>1 (0.3)</u>	2 (0.5)	0.662 <u>.67</u>
Gout ^a	13 (3.2)	22 (5.4) <u>21 (5.2)</u>	20 (4.9) <u>19 (4.7)</u>	26 (6.4)	0.199 <u>.20</u>
Cancer	16 (3.9) <u>16 (4.0)</u>	28 (6.9) <u>27 (6.7)</u>	19 (4.6) <u>19 (4.7)</u>	22 (5.4) <u>21 (5.2)</u>	0.324 <u>.39</u>
<i>Medication, n (%)</i>					
Anti-inflammatory (last 4 weeks)	142 (34.8) <u>140 (34.6)</u>	142 (34.8) <u>140 (34.7)</u>	158 (38.5) <u>155 (38.4)</u>	190 (46.7) <u>189 (46.8)</u>	.001
Anti-inflammatory (regularly use) ^b	48 (11.8) <u>47 (11.6)</u>	70 (17.2) <u>71 (17.6)</u>	67 (16.3) <u>65 (16.1)</u>	64 (15.8)	0.139 <u>.10</u>
Cholesterol lowering (last 2 weeks)	5 (1.2)	6 (1.5)	7 (1.7) <u>7 (1.8)</u>	12 (3.0) <u>11 (2.7)</u>	0.261 <u>.40</u>
<i>Cigarette Smoking Status, n (%)</i>					
Current	42 (10.3) <u>40 (9.9)</u>	61 (15.0) <u>62 (15.4)</u>	71 (17.3) <u>71 (17.6)</u>	85 (20.9) <u>86 (21.3)</u>	0.004 <u>.001</u>
Former	150 (36.7) <u>151 (37.3)</u>	133 (32.6) <u>131 (32.4)</u>	123 (30.0) <u>123 (30.5)</u>	126 (31.0) <u>123 (30.5)</u>	
Never	216 (52.9) <u>214 (52.8)</u>	214 (52.5) <u>211 (52.2)</u>	215 (52.4) <u>210 (52.0)</u>	196 (48.2) <u>195 (48.3)</u>	
<i>Alcohol consumption, n (%)</i>					
Current	279 (68.4) <u>280 (69.1)</u>	250 (61.3) <u>250 (61.9)</u>	236 (57.6) <u>230 (56.9)</u>	209 (51.4) <u>208 (51.5)</u>	< .001
Former	50 (12.3) <u>49 (12.1)</u>	58 (14.2) <u>58 (14.4)</u>	48 (11.7) <u>48 (11.9)</u>	61 (15.0) <u>62 (15.4)</u>	

	Never	79 (19.4)	100 (24.5)	126 (30.7)	137 (33.7)	
		<u>76 (18.8)</u>	<u>96 (23.8)</u>	<u>126 (31.2)</u>	<u>134 (33.2)</u>	
Weekly Alcohol Intake (grams)		35.8 (70)	33.5 (73)	22.2 (51)	22.7 (67)	0.003
		<u>41.6 (75.7)</u>	<u>36.8 (75.3)</u>	<u>26.2 (55.5)</u>	<u>30.6 (79.5)</u>	<u>.01</u>

Values are displayed as means (SD) unless otherwise specified

^a Assessed at Visit 4 (1996-1998)

^b Assessed at Visit 5 (2011-2013)

Table 2. Association between midlife inflammation composite score and late-life MRI volumes among non-demented participants

Region	Total Sample (n = 1,536 -1,550)		Age < 60 at baseline (n = 1,357 -1,366)		Age ≥ 60 at baseline (n = 179 -184)		Age Interaction
	β (95% CI) <u>mm³</u>	<i>p</i>	β (95% CI) <u>mm³</u>	<i>p</i>	β (95% CI) <u>mm³</u>	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>
Total Brain	21,976 (26,495, 2,541)	0.391	22,175 (26,927, 2,576)	0.369	5,647 (28,191, 19,484)	0.421	0.339
	<u>-171 (-2,956, 2,614)</u>	<u>.90</u>	<u>-189 (-3,319, 2,740)</u>	<u>.88</u>	<u>2,313 (-14,942, 28,194)</u>	<u>.59</u>	<u>.46</u>
AD Signature Region	2532 (2922, 2141)	0.008	2645 (21,056, 2235)	0.002	737 (2456, 1,929)	0.224	0.033
	<u>-197 (-431, 39)</u>	<u>.10</u>	<u>-262 (-509, -15)</u>	<u>.038</u>	<u>455 (-281, 1,190)</u>	<u>.22</u>	<u>.06</u>
Ventricular Volume*	1,788 (371, 3,205)	0.013	1,671 (173, 3,170)	0.029	1,871 (22,538, 6,281)	0.403	0.436
	<u>1.87 (-0.29, 4.03)</u>	<u>.09</u>	<u>1.79 (-0.51, 4.09)</u>	<u>.13</u>	<u>3.05 (-3.31, 9.40)</u>	<u>.35</u>	<u>.48</u>
Frontal Lobe	84 (2801, 969)	0.852	289 (21,016, 838)	0.850	2,650 (2444, 5,745)	0.180	0.829
	<u>27 (-519, 573)</u>	<u>.92</u>	<u>-81 (-656, 493)</u>	<u>.78</u>	<u>1,343 (-612, 3298)</u>	<u>.18</u>	<u>.80</u>
Temporal Lobe	2609 (21,271, 53)	0.071	2767 (21,467, 268)	0.032	1,126 (2788, 3,041)	0.342	0.051
	<u>-273 (-672, 125)</u>	<u>.72</u>	<u>-359 (-782, 63)</u>	<u>.10</u>	<u>580 (-631, 1,792)</u>	<u>.35</u>	<u>.15</u>
Parietal Lobe	2363 (21,032, 306)	0.287	2505 (21,210, 201)	0.161	1,674 (2481, 3,829)	0.132	0.095
	<u>-18 (-424, 389)</u>	<u>.93</u>	<u>-102 (-530, 327)</u>	<u>.64</u>	<u>1,014 (-281, 2,308)</u>	<u>.12</u>	<u>.12</u>
Occipital Lobe	2519 (2906, 2132)	0.009	2612 (21,021, 2201)	0.004	666 (2417, 1,630)	0.177	0.006
	<u>-204 (-427, 18)</u>	<u>.07</u>	<u>-256 (-491, -21)</u>	<u>.033</u>	<u>316 (-343, 975)</u>	<u>.35</u>	<u>.009</u>

Hippocampus	2110 (-2196, 224)	0.013	2124 (-2216, 233)	0.008	10 (-2284, 305)	0.992	0.047
	<u>-42 (-88, 5)</u>	<u>.08</u>	<u>-51 (-100, -2)</u>	<u>.042</u>	<u>56 (-98, 212)</u>	<u>.47</u>	<u>.03</u>

Abbreviations: AD Signature Region = Alzheimer's disease Signature Region

Adjusted β coefficients represent the change in late-life brain volume per one standard deviation increase in midlife inflammation composite score. Model adjusted for age, sex, center-race, APOE ϵ 4 status, diabetes, hypertension, total cholesterol, LDL, triglycerides, BMI, coronary heart disease, cancer, chronic inflammatory disease, smoking status, weekly alcohol use, and anti-inflammatory medication use. * Values displayed as squared ventricular volume level.

Table 3. Association between midlife inflammation composite score and late-life MRI volumes among non-demented participants stratified by race

Region	White (n = 1,129 1,134)		African American (n = 407 416)		Race Interaction
	β (95% CI) mm³	<i>p</i>	β (95% CI) mm³	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>
Total Brain	21,952 (27,618, 3,713)	0.499	1,785 (24,992, 8,562)	0.605	0.433
	-80 (-3,607, 3447)	.97	988 (-3,485, 5,439)	.67	.67
AD Signature Region	2554 (21,034, 274)	0.024	226 (2653, -602)	0.936	0.336
	-246 (-538, 45)	.10	65 (-337, 467)	.75	.50
Ventricular Volume*	2,027 (208, 3,845)	0.029	44 (21,822, 1,909)	0.963	0.455
	1.98 (-0.75, 4.70)	.16	0.54 (-2.76, 3.85)	.75	.74
Frontal Lobe	351 (2768, 1,471)	0.538	228 (21,181, 1,638)	0.750	0.852
	235 (-446, 917)	.50	-66 (-998, 866)	.89	.71
Temporal Lobe	2713 (21,528, 102)	0.087	119 (2959, 1,197)	0.829	0.300
	-359 (-850, 132)	.15	104 (-574, 782)	.76	.38
Parietal Lobe	2244 (21,077, 588)	0.565	339 (2725, 1,402)	0.532	0.596
	-22 (-539, 494)	.93	155 (-522, 831)	.65	.84
Occipital Lobe	2529 (2997, 260)	0.027	120 (2436, 677)	0.671	0.056
	-247 (-528, 34)	.09	21 (-359, 401)	.91	.20
Hippocampus	2150 (2253, 248)	0.004	26 (2176, 163)	0.940	0.110
	-60 (-117, -2)	.041	29 (-49, 106)	.47	.27

Abbreviations: AD Signature Region = Alzheimer's disease Signature Region

Adjusted β coefficients represent the change in late-life brain volume per one standard deviation increase in midlife inflammation composite score. Model adjusted for age, sex, center-race, APOE ϵ 4 status, diabetes, hypertension, total cholesterol, LDL, triglycerides, BMI, coronary

heart disease, cancer, chronic inflammatory disease, smoking status, weekly alcohol use, and anti-inflammatory medication use. * Values displayed as squared ventricular volume level.