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# Extracranial arterial wall volume is increased and shows relationships with vascular MRI measures in idiopathic Parkinson's disease

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## Keywords:

Idiopathic Parkinson's disease; wall volume; cerebral emboli; white matter lesion volume; arterial arrival time.

## Abstract

### Objective

Idiopathic Parkinson's disease (IPD) is the second most common neurodegenerative disorder, often complicated by dementia. Cardiovascular risk factors and spontaneous cerebral emboli (SCE) are strongly associated with Alzheimer's (AD) and vascular dementia (VaD). We measured SCE in the middle cerebral artery and arterial wall volume in the extracranial arteries in patients with IPD and controls, and explored the relationships with structural and physiological MRI brain neurovascular measures.

### Patients and Methods

Arterial wall volume over 2cm of the axillary and internal carotid arteries (ICA) bilaterally was measured by 3-D tomographic ultrasound in 15 IPD patients and 16 age/gender matched controls. SCE were counted by Transcranial Doppler (TCD) using international consensus criteria. Venous to arterial circulation shunting (v-aCS), usually through a patent foramen ovale (PFO), was measured using a TCD technique with intravenous microbubble contrast. Structural and physiological MRI brain neurovascular measures, acquired separately, comprised white matter lesion volume (WMLV), cerebral blood flow (CBF) and arterial arrival time (AAT).

### Results

Mean (95% CI) axillary and ICA wall volume was higher in IPD patients at 523mm<sup>3</sup> (446, 600) and 455mm<sup>3</sup> (374, 536) respectively compared with 412mm<sup>3</sup> (342, 483) and 408 mm<sup>3</sup> (362, 454) in controls being significant for the axillary artery ( $p=0.04$ ).

Cerebral WMLV was related to mean arterial wall volume for both axillary ( $r=0.555$ ,  $p=0.009$ ) and ICA ( $r=0.559$ ,  $p=0.026$ ) in all participants.

SCE were detected in four IPD patients and three controls ( $p=1.00$ ). Two IPD patients and three controls were positive for a v-aCS equivalent to PFO ( $p=0.477$ ).

### Conclusion

Although frequent in AD and VaD, neither SCE nor v-aCS were associated with IPD. This is the first study to demonstrate arterial wall volume is increased in IPD and relates to WMLV.

## Introduction

1  
2 Idiopathic Parkinson's disease (IPD) is the second most common neurodegenerative disorder  
3 worldwide after Alzheimer's disease (AD). In the UK, IPD has an overall prevalence of 1 in  
4 500, but there is a striking increase with age. Pathological hallmarks include progressive  
5 degeneration of dopaminergic (DA) neurones projecting from the substantia nigra (SN) to the  
6 striatum and intracytoplasmic inclusions called Lewy bodies comprising aggregated forms of  
7 the protein  $\alpha$ -synuclein within surviving SN DA neurones.(1) Clinical diagnosis rests on the  
8 cardinal motor features of bradykinesia, rest tremor, rigidity, and postural instability,  
9 although IPD causes a number of non-motor features including disturbances of sleep, mood  
10 and cognition. Neurodegenerative disorders are increasingly believed to be multifactorial  
11 with many factors leading to neuronal death. (2) Accumulating evidence suggests that the  
12 neurodegenerative process is also influenced by neurovascular changes which constitute more  
13 than simply the presence of comorbid cerebrovascular disease (CVD) as a consequence of  
14 ageing. Blood-brain barrier (BBB) damage is implicated in the pathogenesis of IPD, with  
15 normal BBB structure and function being dependent on the integrity of the neurovascular unit  
16 (NVU), which comprises pericytes, glial cells, neurones and basal lamina, and tightly  
17 regulates the blood-brain interface. For example, string vessels comprising collapsed  
18 basement membrane lacking endothelium, with no function in circulation, are increased in  
19 IPD, suggesting a possible role for cerebral hypoperfusion in the neuronal degeneration of  
20 IPD, which needs further investigation.(3)  
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37 Studies on the prevalence of CVD in IPD have generated conflicting results with reports of  
38 increased, (4-8) decreased (9-11) or unchanged prevalence (12-16) , by comparison with  
39 controls. Recently, MRI measures of neurovascular status have found prolonged arterial  
40 arrival time, thought to be related to age driven structural cerebrovascular changes, in patients  
41 with IPD compared to age and cardiovascular risk matched controls. (17)  
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47 We have previously demonstrated that cerebral emboli have a role in the pathophysiology of  
48 AD and vascular dementia (VaD), two other common neurodegenerative disorders. (18-23)  
49 Cerebral emboli showed similar frequency, and similar association with cognitive decline, in  
50 both AD and VaD, suggesting some commonalities in pathophysiology. This could be  
51 mediated via disturbance of the cerebral microcirculation as a result of cerebral microemboli,  
52 potentially associated with microglial activation and neuroinflammation. In this study we  
53 have investigated cerebral emboli and extracranial arterial wall volume in patients with IPD,  
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1 and explored the relationships with structural and physiological MRI brain neurovascular  
2 measures.  
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## 5 **Patients and Methods**

6  
7 Participants enrolled in an MRI study investigating structural and physiological  
8 neurovascular measures were invited to participate. These included both patients with IPD  
9 and age and gender matched healthy controls. Eligibility criteria for IPD participants were a  
10 clinical diagnosis of IPD fulfilling UK Parkinson's disease society brain bank criteria.  
11 Exclusion criteria included; Clinical or radiological features suggesting secondary or atypical  
12 parkinsonism; Features suggesting vascular parkinsonism; History of TIA or stroke; Other  
13 Focal neurological signs; Cognitive dysfunction; Evidence of infection within the previous 6  
14 weeks or the presence of a concomitant inflammatory condition. Local ethical approval was  
15 granted and patients underwent written informed consent.  
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19 3D tomographic ultrasound (3D t-US) was used to measure arterial wall volume, as an  
20 accurate measure for intimal thickness, bilaterally over 2cms of the axillary and internal  
21 carotid arteries (ICA). A magnetically tracked freehand t-us system (Curefab GmbH, Munich,  
22 Germany) was attached to a Philips iu22 duplex ultrasound (Philips, Bothwell, USA) to track  
23 the transducer orientation and position in time and space. Multi-planar reconstructions (MPR)  
24 were computed with an ultrasound volume from the 2D ultrasound frames almost instantly.  
25 Firstly, a plain 2D scan was performed in B-Mode to gain a signal and grade stenosis using a  
26 combination of grey-scale and velocity. A 2cm segment of each artery was then scanned in  
27 the transverse plane and the images captured on the 3D software. The proximal 2cms of the  
28 ICA and 2cms of the axillary artery which produced the clearest images were chosen for  
29 analysis. Volume was calculated by two independent observers using manual planimetry. The  
30 outer and inner vessel walls were identified and circumscribed for each transverse slice with  
31 an inter-slice distance of 1mm. The volume was then calculated automatically by summing  
32 the areas in each slice and multiplying it by the inter-slice distance.  
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36 By insonating the middle cerebral artery (MCA) through the transtemporal window, cerebral  
37 emboli can be detected and their frequency counted. All patients underwent one hour of  
38 continuous transcranial Doppler (TCD) insonation of the middle cerebral artery using a 2-  
39 MHz pulsed-wave Doppler probe. Patients were observed for any movement or potential  
40 artefacts and the data analysed by two observers, blinded to each other's results. The  
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1 international consensus criteria (24) for emboli detection were used, which specify that  
2 embolic signals should be transient (lasting <300 millisecon), at least 3 dB higher than the  
3 background blood flow, unidirectional, within the Doppler spectrum, and accompanied by an  
4 audible ‘snap’, ‘chirp’, or ‘moan’.  
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8 The presence of a v-aCS was investigated using an emulsion of air microbubbles in saline as  
9 an ultrasound contrast medium following the completion of one hour TCD. The bubble  
10 suspension was rapidly injected intravenously under three conditions, each separated by one  
11 minute: (i) resting quietly; (ii) coughing repeatedly during injection and for a further 10 sec;  
12 (iii) performing a standardised Valsalva manoeuvre with 5 sec release after injection. The  
13 presence of a v-aCS equivalent to a Patent Foramen Ovale (PFO) was defined as 15 or more  
14 embolic signals with the first within 12 cardiac cycles of contrast administration.  
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Magnetic resonance imaging was undertaken on a 3T Philips Achieva MRI Scanner. The full MRI methodology has been reported previously.<sup>(17)</sup> In brief, in this study we used images from: 1) T<sub>2</sub>-weighted FLAIR (repetition time TR 11s, inversion time TI 2.8s, echo time TE 120 ms) from which an estimation of white matter lesion volume (WMLV) (a widely used marker of cerebral small vessel disease) was determined using the lesion segmentation toolbox in SPM8. 2) Arterial spin labelling (ASL), using pulsed labelling and multiphase readout at 4 readout times of 800, 1400, 2000, 2600 ms, TR: 3500 ms; TE 22ms; flip angle 40 degrees with 60 control and label pairs. Voxel-wise fitting to a single blood compartment model enabled quantification of cerebral blood flow (CBF) and arterial arrival time (AAT), the time taken for blood to travel from the labelling slab to the tissue of interest. Whole brain values for CBF and AAT were calculated using a simple threshold mask based on the ASL control images on an individual basis.

Analyses were performed using SPSS version 22. A Generalised Estimating Equation longitudinal regression analysis was used to compare carotid, axillary and temporal artery values between IPD patients and controls. Sets of readings for both the left and right side were obtained from each of 2 observers.

A two-sided 5% significance level was used throughout the analysis. To assess the relationship between total wall volume and the main outcome variables, namely WMLV, AAT and CBF, Pearson correlation, using Log transformed variables, was used and represented graphically. Linear regression was used when adjusting for variables. Smoking was used as a proxy for gender as no females smoked. Comparisons of the outcome variables

1 between patients with IPD and controls were made using independent t-tests and Mann-  
2 Whitney U tests.

3  
4 Reliability of the two observer values was assessed using a combination of correlational and  
5  
6 bland-Altman analysis.

## 7 8 9 10 **Results**

11 Fifteen patients with IPD (mean (sd) age 67 (8)) and 16 age and gender matched healthy  
12 controls (mean (sd) age 66 (7)) were enrolled. Cardiovascular risk factors did not differ  
13 significantly between the two groups (Table 1). Table 2 summarises the outcome variables in  
14 the two groups.  
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### 19 20 **Arterial Wall Volume**

21 As there was good agreement between the two observers, demonstrated by a correlation of  
22  $>0.8$  for all but the left ICA (0.74), a mean of the two values was taken for each artery and a  
23 mean of left and right for each artery.  
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28 Mean (95% CI) wall volume of the axillary artery was significantly higher in IPD patients at  
29  $522.8\text{mm}^3$  (446.0, 599.7) compared to controls at  $412.5\text{mm}^3$  (342.2, 482.7) with a difference  
30 of  $110.4\text{mm}^3$  (6.3, 214.5) ( $p = 0.04$ ). Mean wall volume of the ICA was also higher in IPD  
31 patients at  $455.0\text{mm}^3$  (373.9, 536.2) compared to controls at  $407.7\text{mm}^3$  (361.58, 453.8) but  
32 this difference of  $47.4\text{mm}^3$  (-46.0, 140.8), did not reach statistical significance ( $p = 0.32$ ).  
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### 39 40 **White Matter Lesion Volume**

41 Combined analysis of all 31 participants revealed a significant moderate positive correlation  
42 between WMLV and mean arterial wall volume for both the ICA ( $r=0.436$ ,  $p=0.026$ ) and  
43 axillary arteries ( $r=0.504$ ,  $p=0.009$ ). (Figure 1) After adjustment for age and smoking the  
44 positive correlation remained significant for the axillary artery ( $p=0.009$ ) but not for the ICA  
45 ( $p=0.064$ ).  
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50 When analysing the subgroups, the correlation between WMLV and mean arterial wall  
51 volumes in the IPD group remained positive but weak at 0.142 for the axilla and 0.292 for the  
52 ICA. (Figure 2) Neither reached statistical significance before and after adjustment for age  
53 and smoking. In the control group, significant positive correlations were reflected for both the  
54 ICA ( $r=0.651$ ,  $p=0.012$ ) and axillary artery ( $r=0.722$ ,  $p=0.004$ ). This significance remained  
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1 for the ICA group ( $p=0.015$ ) but was lost for the axillary artery ( $p=0.094$ ) when adjusting for  
2 age and smoking.  
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#### 4 **Whole brain Arterial Arrival Time and Cerebral Blood Flow**

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6 Combined analysis of all 31 participants revealed a significant moderate positive correlation  
7 between whole brain AAT and mean wall volume of the axillary artery ( $r=0.403$ ,  $p=0.041$ )  
8 and a weak non-significant correlation with the ICA ( $r=0.236$ ,  $p=0.245$ ). (Figure 3)  
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10 Following adjustment for age and smoking, the significance with the axillary artery wall  
11 volume was lost ( $p=0.085$ ).  
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14 Subgroup analysis revealed weak and moderate correlations between whole brain AAT and  
15 mean arterial wall volume of both the ICA ( $r=0.238$ ,  $p=0.457$ ) and axillary artery ( $r=0.517$ ,  
16  $p=0.085$ ) in the IPD group. (Figure 4) When adjusted for age and smoking the relationship  
17 between whole brain AAT and axillary artery wall volume became significant ( $p=0.022$ ). In  
18 the control group the correlation with whole brain AAT was weak and non-significant for  
19 both the ICA ( $r=0.173$ ,  $p=0.555$ ) and axillary artery ( $r=0.234$ ,  $p=0.420$ ).  
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22 No significant association was observed between mean axillary or ICA wall volume and  
23 CBF.  
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#### 26 **Cerebral Emboli**

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28 TCD monitoring for SCE in the MCA was performed in 12 IPD patients and 12 controls with  
29 SCE detected in only 4 (33%) IPD patients and 3 (25%) healthy controls ( $p=1.00$ ). Two  
30 (17%) IPD patients and three (25%) controls were positive for a v-aCS equivalent to PFO  
31 ( $p=0.477$ ); similar to the prevalence of PFO in the adult population.  
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#### 34 **Discussion**

35 To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate extracranial arterial wall volume in  
36 idiopathic Parkinson's disease and any potential association with structural and physiological  
37 MRI brain neurovascular measures. In addition, we investigated the presence of cerebral  
38 emboli and evidence of v-aCS in IPD, by comparison with controls.  
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41 We have found significantly higher axillary artery wall volume in patients with IPD than in  
42 healthy controls. Previously, Rektor *et al.* reported significantly increased intima-media  
43 thickness (IMT) in the common carotid artery (CCA) of patients with IPD compared to  
44 controls, concluding that this might suggest a link between generalised atherosclerotic  
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1 disease, of which increased CCA IMT is a known marker, and IPD. (25) A positive  
2 correlation was observed between axillary artery wall volume and WMLV in the combined  
3 analysis of all participants, and in the analysis of the control group but not in the IPD group,  
4 suggesting that there may be differences in underlying pathophysiological factors in healthy  
5 ageing and in IPD. Following adjustment for age and smoking, a significant positive  
6 correlation was observed between AAT and axillary artery wall volume in the IPD group.  
7 This relationship was not seen in the control group. Again, this seems to imply a divergence  
8 in underlying pathophysiology.  
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15 The question of whether there is any causal relationship between atherosclerotic disease, or  
16 between conventional cerebrovascular disease (CVD), and IPD, is unclear. It remains  
17 possible that CVD represents a co-morbidity alongside a predominantly age-related  
18 neurodegenerative disorder. However, the present observations of increased axillary artery  
19 wall volume, and the suggestion of a relationship between axillary artery wall volume and  
20 AAT does merit further examination.  
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27 Recent findings of alterations in physiological neurovascular measures in IPD – including our  
28 own observations of prolonged cerebral AAT, are currently attributed to structural vascular  
29 changes such as increased vessel tortuosity, increased rarefaction and arteriolar wall damage,  
30 so any potential new insights into novel markers of extracranial arterial changes in IPD, as in  
31 the present study, are valuable.(17) Previously we have reported a higher prevalence of  
32 radiological and clinical cerebrovascular disease in patients with IPD compared to  
33 controls.(26) Emerging data indicate that over 60% of patients with recent onset IPD have  
34 high or medium vascular risk, which is associated with a worse motor and cognitive  
35 phenotype. Statins are underused, representing a missed opportunity for vascular secondary  
36 prevention.(27) Improved recognition of the burden of systemic vascular changes in IPD,  
37 how this may interact with the neurodegenerative process and treatment response, as well as  
38 provide opportunities for treatment, is needed.  
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49 There is an abundance of literature concerning the aetiology of white matter lesions and their  
50 involvement in ageing and in neurological disease, especially dementia.(28-35) It has to be  
51 remembered that the pathophysiology of WMLs is unclear and could be multifactorial. The  
52 present study found a significant correlation between axillary artery wall volume and WMLV  
53 which persisted following adjustment for age and smoking. Our own recent data suggest  
54 differences in WML burden between IPD motor phenotypes, with an apparently greater  
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burden in patients with the more severe postural instability and gait disorder pattern, and with  
greater cognitive impairment.(36) The lack of association of ICA wall volume and WMLs in  
the current study is perhaps surprising given the axillary artery findings, but nonetheless, a  
lack of association has been reported before.(37) This is likely consistent with the fact that  
most WMLs are probably not due to atherothromboemboli, and the current finding of axillary  
artery changes is more indicative of more widespread changes in the vasculature with ageing,  
including in IPD.

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With respect to the TCD findings in the present study, the results do contrast with our  
findings in AD and VaD, where an association was observed with spontaneous and  
paradoxical cerebral emboli. Again, this would argue against a significant role for cerebral  
emboli as part of the neurovascular process in IPD, although it is acknowledged that our  
negative finding may be influenced by our small sample size.

This present study was relatively small, which did not afford an opportunity to explore the  
relationships with different IPD phenotypes, including motor phenotypes and non-motor  
symptoms such as cognitive impairment and dementia. Large, longitudinal studies of clinical  
and imaging measures of the extracranial and intracranial vasculature, including the  
microvasculature, will be required in order to advance our knowledge in this area. However,  
our results provide some indication that extracranial arterial wall volume may correlate with  
intracranial small vessel disease, including in patients with IPD.

**Conflicts of interest:** None

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**Table 1: Cardiovascular risk factors between the two groups**

<b>CV Risk Factor</b>	<b>IPD</b>	<b>Control</b>	<b>P-value</b>
<b>Hypertension</b>	6	6	0.462
<b>Diabetes</b>	1	2	0.619
<b>Hypercholesterolaemia</b>	3	9	0.098
<b>Ischaemic Heart Disease</b>	2	2	0.660

Table demonstrating no difference between the two groups with regards cardiovascular risk factors.

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**Table 2: Comparison of outcome variables between the two groups**

	<b>IPD</b>	<b>Control</b>	<b>P-value</b>
<b>Mean ICA (sd) Wall Volume</b>	455 (97.1)	407.4 (166)	0.32
<b>Mean (sd) Axillary Wall Volume</b>	522.8 (157.1)	412.5 (148)	0.04
<b>Mean (sd) WMLV</b>	5.29 (6.2)	6.49 (11.3)	0.410
<b>Mean (sd) AAT</b>	1491 (137.9)	1421.6 (152.6)	0.227
<b>Mean (sd) CBF</b>	45.8 (8.5)	46.2 (5.3)	0.797
<b>+ve Emboli (n=12)</b>	4	3	//
<b>+ve V-acs (n=12)</b>	2	3	//

Table demonstrating that the mean wall volume of both the internal carotid artery (ICA) and axillary artery is increased in patients with idiopathic parkinsons disease (IPD) and significantly so for axillary wall volume.

**Figure 1: Scattergram demonstrating relationship between mean arterial wall volume and LogWMLV and LogAAT in all patients**

Figure 1: Scatter plots demonstrating the relationship between mean arterial wall volume ( $\text{mm}^3$ ) and white matter lesion volume (WMLV) and arterial arrival time (AAT). There is a significant moderate correlation between WMLV and both mean internal carotid artery (ICA) wall volume (A) and mean axillary wall volume (B). There was no association between AAT and ICA mean wall volume (C) but a moderate significant association between with mean axillary wall volume (D).



**Figure 2: Scattergrams demonstrating the relationship between mean artery wall volume and LogWMLV and LogAAT in IPD patients**

Figure 2: Scatter plots demonstrating a lack of relationship between mean arterial wall volumes of both the internal carotid artery (ICA) and axillary artery with white matter lesion volume (WMLV) (A+B) and arterial arrival time (AAT) (C+D) in patients with idiopathic parkinsons disease (IPD).

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Figure 1  
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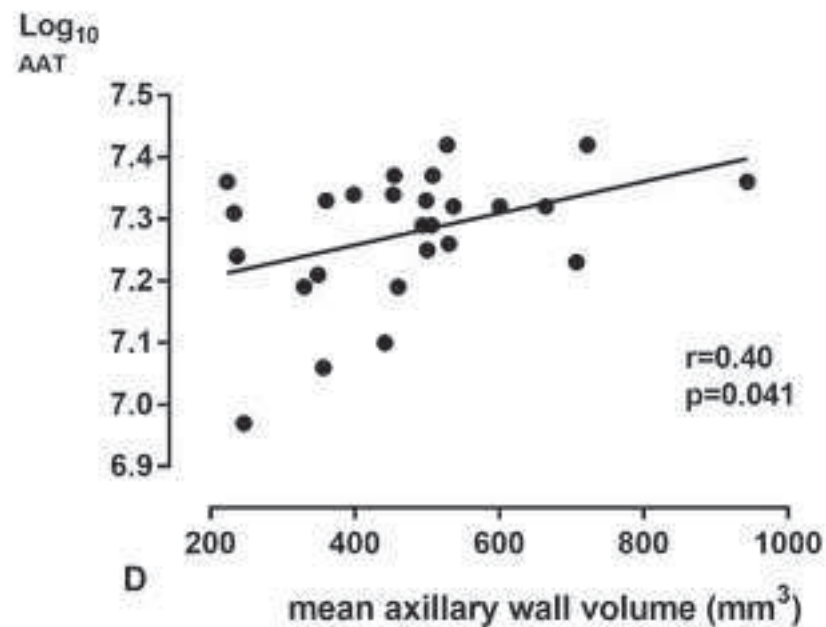
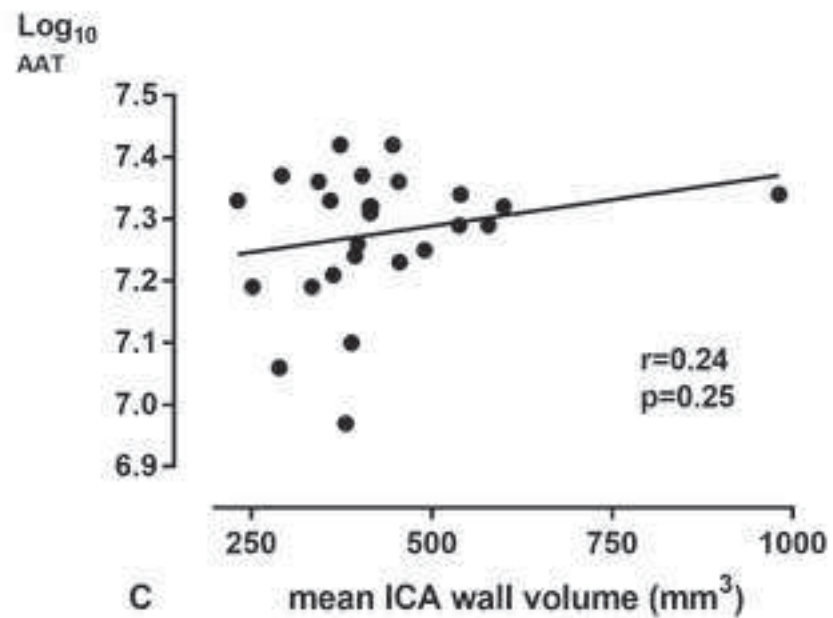
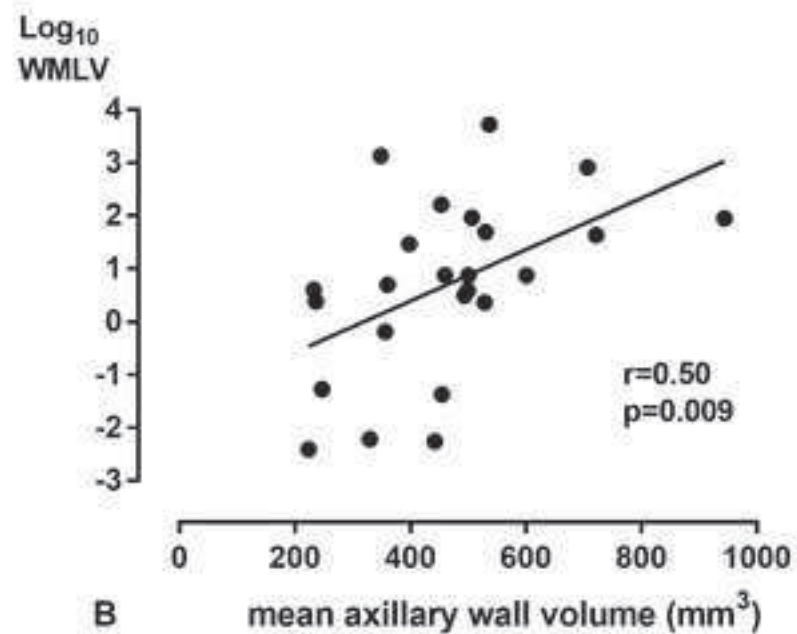
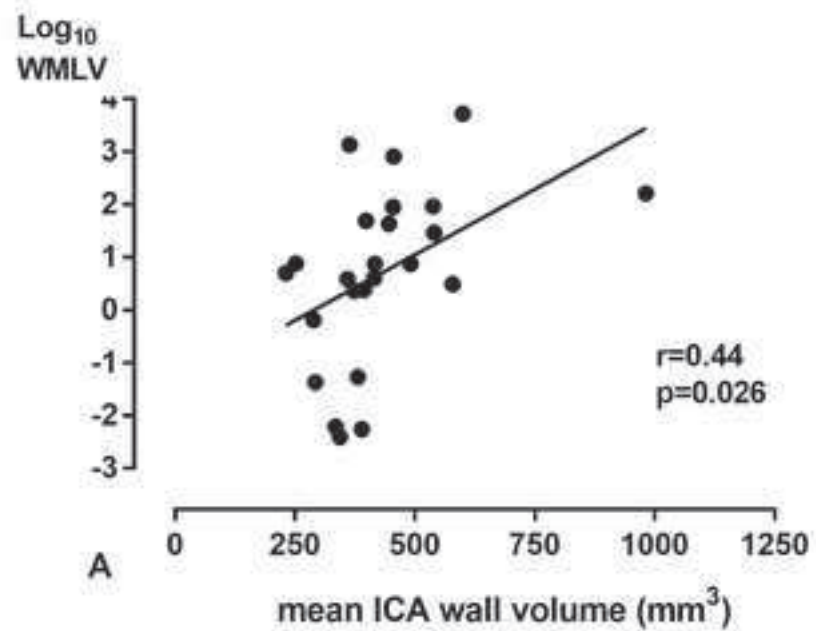


Figure 2  
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