Experience of falls in the past year is an established and powerful tool for assessing fall risk,[2] and was reported by the patient and/or his or her family members. Duration time of one-leg standing test, which can be carried out in a narrow limited space of the outpatient office, was measured using the leg with the eyes open, until the raised leg was put down on the floor. We examined both right and left legs once for each, and the longer of the two measurements was used for statistical analysis.[12]

Data analysis and statistical methods

Values are expressed as means ± standard deviation. In order to analyze the relationship between each fall risk index and comorbidities or drugs, variables were compared using Student's *t*-test or the χ^2-test as appropriate. The correlations between the two continuous variables were analyzed using Pearson's *r* coefficient. In multivariate analysis, logistic regression analysis was performed for history of falls and multiple regression analysis for the remaining three indices, to determine the association of fall risk with the variables. Differences between the groups of number of drugs and three indices of fall tendency were analyzed using one-factor ANOVA followed by Tukey–Kramer test. Data were analyzed using JMP version 8.0.1.

Results

The characteristics of the study subjects are shown in Table 1. Calcium channel blockers, angiotensin-II receptor blockers (ARB), statins and aspirins were prescribed in more than 20% of all the patients. Calcium channel blockers prescribed in this study were all long-acting agents, and aspirin dosage prescribed were all 100 mg. Less than 10 patients received insulin therapy, took non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs or anticoagulants. No patients were taking neuroleptics, nor antiparkinsonian drugs. Patients prescribed five drugs or more were 36.3%.

On univariate analyses, the number of drugs was the only factor which was significantly associated with history of falls in the past year (no/yes 3.2 ± 2.6/4.0 ± 3.1 drugs, $P < 0.05$). Older age, female, hypertension, osteoporosis, history of stroke, the number of comorbidities, use of ARB, aspirin, bisphosphonates, hypnotics and number of prescribed drugs were significantly associated with either one of three indices of fall risk (Table 2). Number of drugs was significantly correlated with three scores excluding the

Table 2 Univariate analysis of association between risk factor variables and three fall indices: fall-predicting score, simple screening test, one-leg standing test

		Fall risk index (points)	Simple screening test (points)	One-leg standing test (seconds)
Age		0.23***	0.23***	−0.46***
Female	No/Yes	7.0 ± 3.1/8.4 ± 4.0**	3.8 ± 3.3/4.7 ± 3.6*	19.7 ± 11.7/16.2 ± 11.7*
Hypertension	No/Yes	7.2 ± 3.6/8.4 ± 3.8*	3.7 ± 3.3/4.8 ± 3.5*	18.9 ± 11.1/16.2 ± 12.1
Osteoporosis	No/Yes	7.6 ± 3.7/8.9 ± 4.0*	4.3 ± 3.6/4.8 ± 3.1	17.9 ± 11.7/15.6 ± 11.9
History of stroke	No/Yes	7.8 ± 3.7/9.7 ± 4.1*	4.3 ± 3.4/5.6 ± 4.1	17.9 ± 11.8/8.5 ± 8.7**
Number of comorbidies		0.27***	0.17*	−0.24***
Antihypertensives	No/Yes	7.3 ± 3.6/8.5 ± 3.8*	3.7 ± 3.3/4.9 ± 3.5*	18.8 ± 11.4/15.9 ± 12.0
Angiotensin-II receptor blockers	No/Yes	7.6 ± 3.7/8.7 ± 3.8*	3.9 ± 3.4/5.2 ± 3.5**	17.6 ± 11.5/16.3 ± 12.2
Calcium channel blockers	No/Yes	7.6 ± 3.7/8.5 ± 3.7	4.1 ± 3.5/4.8 ± 3.5	18.8 ± 11.6/14.3 ± 11.6**
Aspirin	No/Yes	7.7 ± 3.8/8.9 ± 3.8*	4.1 ± 3.5/5.5 ± 3.7*	18.0 ± 11.8/13.5 ± 11.5*
Bisphosphonates	No/Yes	7.8 ± 3.8/9.9 ± 2.5*	4.3 ± 3.5/6.5 ± 2.7*	17.3 ± 11.8/14.9 ± 11.7
Hypnotics	No/Yes	7.6 ± 3.6/9.7 ± 4.1***	4.2 ± 3.6/5.2 ± 3.1	17.6 ± 11.9/15.2 ± 11.3
Number of drugs		0.30***†	0.27***†	−0.35***

*$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.005$; ***$P < 0.0005$, compared to "No" by simple Student's *t*-test. For age, number of comorbidities and number of drugs, Pearson's correlation coefficient between each indices of fall tendency are shown. †For analysis of number of drugs, a questionnaire asking "whether taking five or more drugs" were excluded for analysis. Therefore, fall risk index was analyzed by a total of 21 items, and a simple screening test by a total of 11 points. For other risk factor variables shown in the table, mean ± standard deviations are expressed. Other risk factor variables not shown in this table showed no statistically significant relationship with either one of three indices.

[Table 2 amended after online publication date September 27, 2011]

question on polypharmacy. Number of comorbidities was significantly associated with age ($r = 0.32$, $P < 0.0001$) and with the number of drugs ($r = 0.62$, $P < 0.0001$).

Next, on multivariate analyses, the questionnaire asking "whether taking five or more drugs" were excluded from the fall risk index and the simple screening test. Therefore, the fall risk index was analyzed by a total of 21 items and the simple screening test by a total of 11 points in this analysis. To evaluate the association of four fall risk indices with comorbidities and drugs, all the variables that were significantly associated in either one of four univariate analyses were entered into the model. As shown in Table 3, the number of drugs was the only factor which was significantly associated with all four indices, independent of age, sex and other variables. Because each disease variable or drug variable might have affected the number of comorbidities or the number of drugs in this analysis, we just compared the number of comorbidities and the number of drugs to exclude the double count in next analysis. As shown in Table 4, the number of drugs was significantly associated with all of the four fall risk indices independent of age, sex and the number of comorbidities, while the number of comorbidies was inversely associated with history of falls and simple screening test. As shown in Figure 1, the association of the number of drugs with

Table 3 Multivariate analysis of association between risk factor variables and four fall indices: history of falls in a year, fall risk index, simple screening test, one leg standing test

		History of fall in a year (No = 0/Yes = 1) Odds ratio (95% CI)	Fall risk index (21 items)† β	Simple screening test (11 points)† β	One-leg standing test (s) β
Age		1.00 (0.96–1.05)	0.073	0.127	−0.370***
Female	(No = 0/Yes = 1)	2.36 (1.12–5.00)*	0.199**	0.197**	−0.149*
Hypertension	(No = 0/Yes = 1)	1.87 (0.61–5.76)	0.166	0.218*	−0.110
Osteoporosis	(No = 0/Yes = 1)	0.67 (0.28–1.60)	0.093	0.027	0.023
History of stroke	(No = 0/Yes = 1)	1.43 (0.38–5.45)	0.080	0.032	−0.083
Number of comorbities		0.60 (0.38–0.95)*	−0.062	−0.237*	−0.024
Antihypertensives					
	(No = 0/Yes = 1)	0.52 (0.18–1.54)	−0.141	−0.158	0.142
Aspirin	(No = 0/Yes = 1)	1.59 (0.72–3.50)	0.053	0.046	0.002
Bisphosphonates	(No = 0/Yes = 1)	2.27 (0.73–7.07)	0.055	0.105	0.033
Hypnotics	(No = 0/Yes = 1)	0.84 (0.33–2.15)	0.094	−0.018	0.084
Number of drugs		1.24 (1.07–1.45)*	0.247**	0.335***	−0.250**

*$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.005$; ***$P < 0.0005$. Logistic regression analysis was performed for history of fall in a year, and multiple regression analysis for the remaining three. The risk factor variables used in these multivariate analyses were those associated in either of the four univariate analysis significantly. †The questionnaire asking "whether taking five or more drugs" were excluded from the scores in this analysis. Therefore, fall risk index were analyzed by a total of 21 items and simple screening test by a total of 11 points. CI, confidence interval; β, standardized regression coefficient.
[Table 3 amended after online publication date September 27, 2011]

Table 4 Multivariate analysis of association between number of comorbidities and drugs with four fall indices: history of falls in a year, fall risk index, simple screening test, one-leg standing test

	History of fall in a year (No = 0/Yes = 1) Odds ratio (95% CI)	Fall-risk index (21 items)† β	Simple screening test (11 points)† β	One-leg standing test (s) β
Age	1.00 (0.96–1.05)	0.101	0.115	−0.376***
Female (No = 0/Yes = 1)	1.73 (0.90–3.34)	0.207**	0.191**	−0.110
Number of comorbidities	0.63 (0.45–0.89)*	0.073	−0.137	−0.034
Number of drugs	1.23 (1.08–1.41)*	0.223*	0.316***	−0.233**

*$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.005$; ***$P < 0.0005$. Logistic regression analysis was performed for history of fall in a year, and multiple regression analysis for the remaining three. †The questionnaire asking "whether taking five or more drugs" were excluded from the scores in this analysis. Therefore, fall risk index was analyzed by a total of 21 items and simple screening test by a total of 11 points. CI, confidence interval; β, standardized regression coefficient.

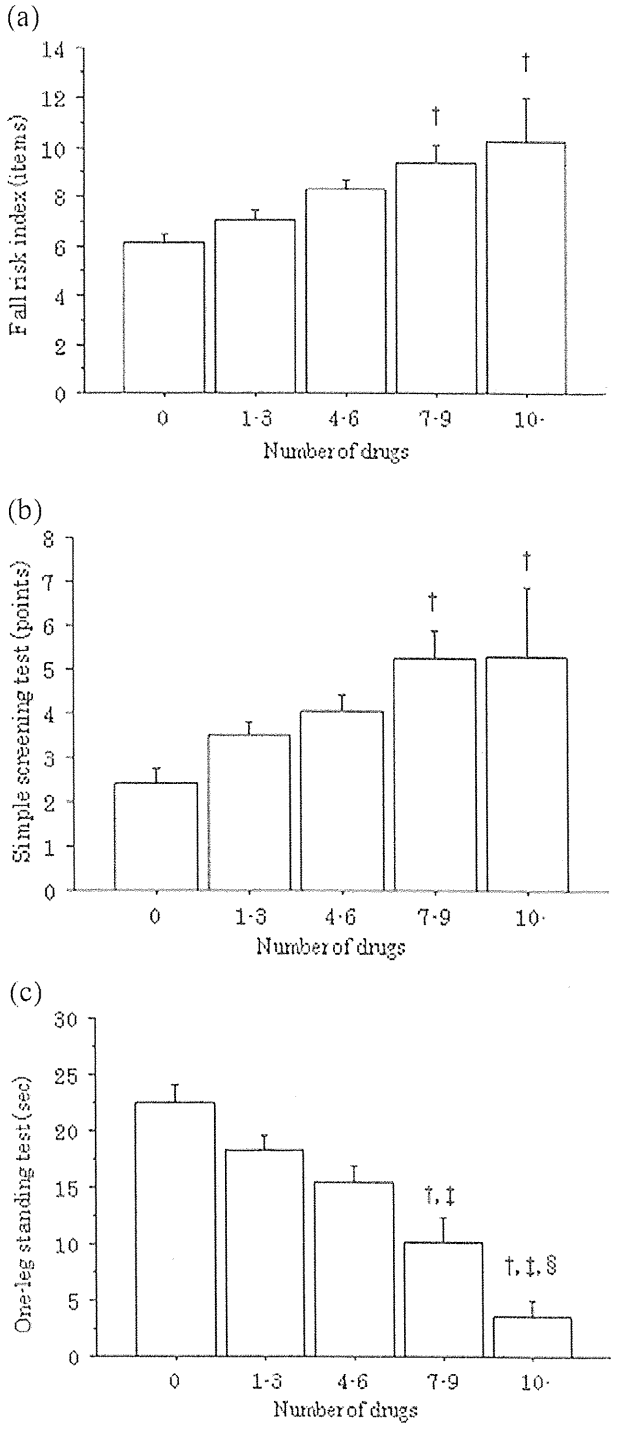

Figure 1 Averages of fall risk according to the number of drugs. (a) Fall risk index excluding the questionnaire concerning polypharmacy. (b) Simple screening test excluding the questionnaire concerning polypharmacy. (c) Duration time of one-leg standing test. The differences between the number of the drugs were compared through ANOVA, $P < 0.0001$ for (a), $P < 0.005$ for (b), $P < 0.0001$ for (c). For post-hoc analysis, $^{\dagger}P < 0.05$ vs 0 drug; $^{\ddagger}P < 0.05$ vs 1–3 drugs; $^{\S}P < 0.05$ vs 4–6 drugs. Values are expressed as mean ± standard error.

fall predicting score, simple screening test and duration time of one-leg standing test was stepwise.

Discussion

Epidemiological studies have assessed the risk of falls in community-dwelling people, but not in geriatric outpatients, who are likely to fall and need special consideration for the treatment of their illness. This cross-sectional study investigated the association between comorbidities, medications and fall risks in Japanese elderly outpatients and found that all four indices were significantly associated with the number of drugs. Because polypharmacy is frequently seen in patients with multiple comorbidities, this study compared the impact of the number of drugs with that of the number of comorbidities on fall risk, and found the significance of polypharmacy as fall risk in elderly outpatients.

In the present study, the number of comorbidities was inversely associated with the history of fall in the past year and with an 11-point simple screening test in the multivariate analysis. The reason is unclear; however, there are some speculations about this. None of the patients with four or more comorbidities ($n = 19$, 79.4 ± 5.2 years old) had history of fall in the past year. This accounts for the lower points of the simple screening test in these patients, because the history of fall consists of 5 points out of a total of 11 points in the simple screening test. So the question is why they had lower frequency of falling experiences, although they are at higher risk of falls according to fall risk index and one-leg standing test (9.6 ± 3.8 items and 8.6 ± 9.4 s, respectively). These patients may take care not to fall in their daily lives because of their consciousness of fall risk or frailty, or maybe due to elevated vigilance of caregivers and their constant physical assistances. They might have simply forgotten their fall experiences due to subclinical cognitive impairment, although demented patients were not included in this study. It is also possible that the patients who had more comorbidities and had fallen did not meet our inclusion criteria because of their recent injurious falls or their severe conditions.

Several medications and comorbidities have been reported as risks of fall.[6,7,13–19] Among these, diabetes,[9,10] imsonia,[13] hypnotics[13–15] and antihypertensive use[8] were not significantly associated with fall risk in our study. Only 20 patients (40.8% of diabetic patients) were prescribed hypoglycemic agents such as sulfonylurea ($n = 17$) or insulin ($n = 3$) in this study. Because hypoglycemia is considered to be the main cause of accidental falls in diabetic patients, relatively less prescription of hypoglycemic agents might have affected our result. The patients who were prescribed hypnotics tended to be at higher risk of falls in univariate analysis, which did show statistical significance. Also, antihypertensives such as diuretics are reported to increase the fall risk.[8] No

association between these drugs and fall risk in our study might be due to the small sample size. Other drugs such as major tranquillizers,[14] antidepressants[17,18] and antiparkinsonians[19] might increase fall risk; however, very few patients used these drugs in this study.

There are some other limitations. First, the causal relationship of the associations observed in this study is unknown because of the cross-sectional design. Polypharmacy has been regarded as a risk in several aspects in elderly patients. Previous studies have shown that adverse drug events were seen more frequently in the polypharmacy patients during their stay in the geriatric inpatient ward,[20] and polypharmacy was one of the important predictors for postdischarge mortality in elderly patients after emergent hospitalization.[21] Because patients with multiple diseases and in severer conditions are likely to take more medications, we used the number of comorbidities in analysis as fall risk variables. However, it is still unclear whether polypharmacy is a risk of falls independent of severity of each comorbidity. Interventional studies to reduce the number of drugs are needed to clarify the causal relationship between polypharmacy and fall risk. Second, this study did not evaluate the fall itself. The validity of four indices used in this study is well established as fall risk markers. However, prospective studies which evaluate the incidence of fall should be carried out in the future. Third, although the included subjects were receiving the same prescriptions for more than 1 month, the exact duration of each drug use or polypharmacy was not assessed in this study. Consequently, the long-term adverse effects over months or years seen in elderly patients should be more precisely investigated.

In summary, this study demonstrated that geriatric outpatients with polypharmacy were at higher risk of falls, consistent with the previous studies conducted in community-dwelling elderly. Our finding may add new information on pharmacotherapy in elderly patients with chronic diseases. Prospective studies and intervention studies examining the effect of drug reduction are needed in the future.

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Appendix I. 22 items of fall-predicting score (questionnaire)

Q1. Have you fallen during the last 12 months?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q2. Have you tripped during the last 12 months?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q3. Can you climb stairs without help?	Yes, 0; No, 1.
Q4. Do you feel your walking speed has declined recently?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q5. Can you cross a road within the green signal interval?	Yes, 0; No, 1.
Q6. Can you walk 1 km without stopping?	Yes, 0; No, 1.
Q7. Can you stand on one foot for about five seconds?	Yes, 0; No, 1.
Q8. Do you use a stick when you walk?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q9. Can you squeeze a towel tightly?	Yes, 0; No, 1.
Q10. Do you feel dizzy at times?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q11. Is your back bent?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q12. Do you have knee pain?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q13. Do you have a problem with your vision?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q14. Do you have a hearing problem?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q15. Do you think you are forgetful?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q16. Do you feel anxious about falling when you walk?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q17. Do you take five or more prescribed medicines?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q18. Do you feel unsafe because your home is dark?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q19. Are there any obstacles in your house?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q20. Is there any difference in level within your home?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q21. Do you have to use stairs in daily living?	Yes, 1; No, 0.
Q22. Do you have to walk on a steep slope around your house?	Yes, 1; No, 0.

Appendix II. Simple screening test for risk of falls

Q1. Have you fallen during the last 12 months?	Yes, 5 points; No, 0.
Q2. Do you feel your walking speed has declined recently?	Yes, 2 points; No, 0.
Q3. Do you use a cane when you walk?	Yes, 2 points; No, 0.
Q4. Is your back bent?	Yes, 2 points; No, 0.
Q5. Do you take five or more prescribed medicines?	Yes, 2 points; No, 0.

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OBSTRUCTIVE SLEEP APNEA EXACERBATES ENDOTHELIAL DYSFUNCTION IN PEOPLE WITH METABOLIC SYNDROME

To the Editor: The process of aging can be found in a variety of organs, frequently overlapping in the metabolic, cardiopulmonary, and nervous systems. A recent study showed that visceral fat accumulation is associated with metabolic risk factor clustering in older adults.[1] Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) and metabolic syndrome (MetS) are well known as risk factors for cardiovascular disease and comorbid disorders in obese and older adults,[2] but whether OSA affects vascular endothelial dysfunction, a surrogate marker of cardiovascular disease,[3] in people with MetS has not been determined. Flow-mediated dilation (FMD) of the brachial artery, an indicator of endothelial vasomotor function, was therefore examined in people with MetS with or without OSA.

Forty-nine consecutive overweight subjects (body mass index $\geq 25.0\,kg/m^2$, aged 35–69) who were referred for medical examinations were enrolled and categorized into three groups; with MetS but not OSA (MetS group, n = 21), with MetS and OSA (MetS+OSA group, n = 14), and with no metabolic risk factors but overweight (control group, n = 14). MetS was defined using the International Diabetes Federation criteria and OSA using polysomnography. Participants who had some risk factors but did not meet the criteria for MetS and those who declined to undergo polysomnography were excluded. Blood sampling and measurement of FMD were performed early in the morning after an overnight fast. FMD was measured using ultrasound as percentage change in brachial artery diameter as previously described.[4]

The MetS and MetS+OSA groups had significantly lower plasma high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) (41.9 ± 9.4 and 40.7 ± 5.9 vs 57.9 ± 12.5 mg/dL, $P < .001$) and higher triglycerides (192.2 ± 57.7 and 157.3 ± 52.4 vs 104.1 ± 34.4 mg/dL, $P = .008$) and glycosylated hemoglobin ($5.71 \pm 0.87\%$ and $5.81 \pm 0.90\%$ vs $4.80 \pm 0.38\%$, $P = .001$) than the control group. Although the apnea-hypopnea index was 34.0 ± 13.6 events per hour in MetS+OSA group, in contrast to 3.1 ± 1.6 events in the MetS group ($P < .001$), there were no significant differences between the MetS and MetS+OSA groups in terms of cardiovascular risk factors, including age, body mass index, waist circumference, blood pressure, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), and homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance (data not shown).

The control group had a significantly lower increase in percentage of FMD (%FMD) than the other two groups. Moreover, %FMD in the MetS and OSA group was significantly lower than that in the MetS group (Figure 1), whereas nitroglycerine-induced endothelium-independent dilation was comparable between the groups ($15.0 \pm 4.2\%$ control, $13.5 \pm 3.2\%$ MetS, $11.5 \pm 3.5\%$ MetS+OSA). On multiple regression analysis, OSA (yes = 1, no = 0) was significantly related to %FMD, independent of age, waist circumference, systolic blood pressure, LDL-C, HDL-C, triglycerides, fasting plasma glucose, and smoking ($\beta = -0.324$, $P = .04$). The results of other multiple regression models were similar (data not shown).

It has been shown that continuous positive airway pressure treatment improves endothelial vasomotor function with no influence on metabolic risk factors,[5,6] indicating that vascular endothelial dysfunction in people with OSA is attributable to OSA-induced hypoxia. These findings imply that OSA is an additional risk factor in people with MetS. Consistent with the present results, it has been reported that OSA is independently associated with carotid intima-media thickness and pulse wave velocity, other

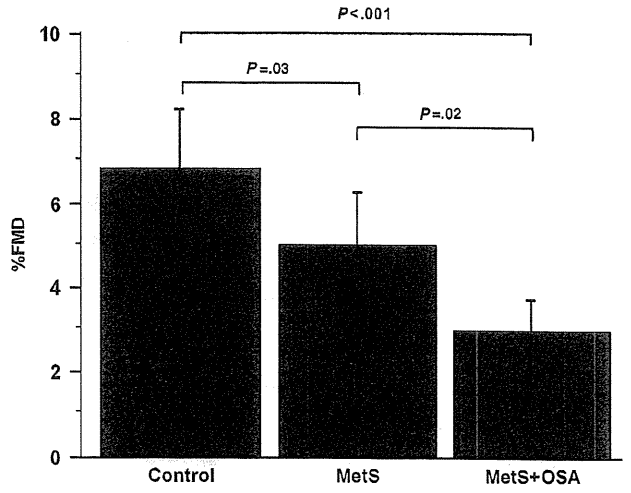

Figure 1. Increase in percentage of flow-mediated diameter (%FMD) of the brachial artery in control overweight subjects (control, n = 14), patients with metabolic syndrome (MetS, n = 21), and patients with MetS and obstructive sleep apnea (MetS+OSA, n = 14). Data are shown as means ± standard deviations.

markers of atherosclerosis, in people with MetS.[7] In conclusion, the results of the current study suggest that OSA exacerbates endothelial dysfunction in people with MetS, possibly leading to greater risk of cardiovascular disease.

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COMMENTS/RESPONSES

RELEVANT OUTCOMES IN INTERVENTION TRIALS FOR SARCOPENIA

To the Editor: We read with interest the paper by Brass and Sietsema on drug development to treat sarcopenia.[1] The authors raise important points to consider when designing clinical trials addressing sarcopenia-related outcomes.

As they state, a universally accepted definition for sarcopenia needs to be established. The difficulty encountered in doing so is a direct result of the complexity of the problem. The European Working Group for Sarcopenia in Older Persons (EWGSOP) has recently developed and published a practical clinical definition and consensus diagnostic criteria for age-related sarcopenia[2] that several international scientific societies, namely the European Geriatric Medicine Society (EUGMS), the European Society for Clinical Nutrition and Metabolism (ESPEN), the International Association of Gerontology and Geriatrics—European Region, and the International Association of Nutrition and Aging, have endorsed. In line with Brass and Sietsema's suggestion, the EWGSOP advocates a definition that allows chronic disease, besides aging per se, to contribute to sarcopenia.

For the diagnosis of sarcopenia, EWGSOP recommends using the presence of low muscle mass and reduced muscle function (strength or performance) and variously applies these characteristics to further define such conceptual stages as presarcopenia, sarcopenia, and severe sarcopenia. EWGSOP also reviewed a wide range of tools that can be used to measure the specific variables of muscle mass, muscle strength (e.g., hand grip), and physical performance (e.g., gait speed). The report summarizes currently available data defining sarcopenia cutoff points according to age and sex; suggests an algorithm for sarcopenia case finding in older individuals based on measurements of gait speed, grip strength, and muscle mass; and presents a list of suggested primary and secondary outcome domains for research.

In their review, Brass and Sietsema emphasize the standards that trials should meet to establish efficacy. They point out that efficacy should be measured according to meaningful clinically relevant end points and that surrogate markers of benefit will not be sufficient to validate Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approval. This is a complex issue for sarcopenia, because it fulfills criteria for a geriatric syndrome and is thus characterized by a complex interplay

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE: EPIDEMIOLOGY, CLINICAL PRACTICE AND HEALTH

Plasma sex hormone levels and mortality in disabled older men and women

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Aim: To investigate the relationship between circulating sex hormone levels and subsequent mortality in disabled elderly.

Methods: This prospective observational study was comprised of 214 elderly subjects aged 70–96 years (117 men and 97 women; mean ± standard deviation age, 83 ± 7 years), receiving services at long-term care facilities in Nagano, Japan. All-cause mortality by baseline plasma sex hormone levels was measured.

Results: After excluding deaths during the first 6 months, 27 deaths in men and 28 deaths in women occurred during a mean follow up of 32 months and 45 months (up to 52 months), respectively. Mortality rates differed significantly between high and low testosterone tertiles in men, but did not differ significantly between middle and low tertiles. Compared with subjects in the middle and high tertiles, men with testosterone levels in the low tertile (<300 ng/dL) were more likely to die, independent of age, nutritional status, functional status and chronic disease (hazard ratio [HR] = 3.27, 95% confidence interval [CI] = 1.24–12.91). In contrast, the low dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate (DHEA-S) tertile was associated with higher mortality risk in women (multivariate adjusted HR = 4.42, 95% CI = 1.51–12.90). Exclusion of deaths during the first year and cancer deaths had minimal effects on these results. DHEA-S level in men and testosterone and estradiol levels in women were not related to mortality.

Conclusion: Low testosterone in men and low DHEA-S in women receiving care at facilities are associated with increased mortality risk, independent of other risk factors and pre-existing health conditions. **Geriatr Gerontol Int 2011; 11: 196–203.**

Keywords: dehydroepiandrosterone, disabled elderly, mortality risk, testosterone.

Introduction

Japan has the longest life expectancy at birth in the world for both men and women, although women live 8 years longer than men on average.[1,2] One explanation for this phenomenon is that estradiol production during the premenopausal years partially protects women from cardiovascular disease (CVD). In contrast, there has been a suspicion that testosterone itself is harmful; however, recent studies support the hypothesis that testosterone may be beneficial to survival in aging men.[3–8]

It is well established that endogenous androgens decline with advancing age in men.[9] Because testosterone has important physiological effects on muscle, bone, brain, erythropoietin and the vascular system, decreased testosterone levels could contribute to age-associated symptoms and diseases in older men, such as decreased muscle mass and strength,[10] impaired physical performance,[11,12] osteoporosis[13] and fractures,[12,14]

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depressed mood,[15] cognitive impairment,[16,17] anemia[18,19]and frailty.[20] In our previous study in which older persons receiving day-care services or admitted to a facility were investigated, higher plasma testosterone levels were associated with better activities of daily living (ADL), cognitive function and vitality in men.[21] On the other hand, several epidemiological studies have demonstrated that a decline in testosterone level was associated with mortality risk in community-dwelling middle-aged or older men.[3–8] In cause-specific analyses, some studies have shown that a low testosterone level was associated with an increased risk of death due to CVD.[4,5] However, the above-mentioned studies were performed in community samples of Caucasian men, and this issue remains to be clarified in frail or disabled older men.

The majority of dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA), an endogenous steroid precursor to testosterone and estrogen, exists as the sulfated form (DHEA-S) in the circulation, and DHEA and DHEA-S are the most abundant adrenal sex steroid hormones, with concentrations reported to be more than 100-fold higher than those of testosterone and estradiol,[22] suggesting an important physiological role of DHEA(-S). Their circulating levels also peak in young adults and decline with age in both men and women. Although the role of androgens in older women's health is not fully understood, postmenopausal women with intact ovaries continue to produce androgens, DHEA and testosterone, while their production of estradiol is minimal.[23] In our previous study,[21] in older women, higher DHEA and DHEA-S levels were related to better ADL, while estradiol and testosterone levels showed no relations. Other reports have shown a correlation between DHEA level and cognitive function,[24] depression,[25] osteoporosis[26] and frailty in older women.[27] Several studies that examined the association between DHEA-S and mortality in women have shown mixed results,[28–32] and mostly found no relation; however, both low and high levels of DHEA-S at baseline[28] and some trajectory patterns such as a steep decline or extreme variability[32] have been reported to correlate with increased mortality.

These lines of evidence suggest that endogenous androgens, including testosterone and DHEA(-S), may play a role in physical and mental function as well as longevity in older individuals. We hypothesized that low plasma androgen levels could be a mortality risk factor even in elderly with disability who are receiving facility services.

Methods

Study population

In this longitudinal observational study, 218 consecutive persons aged 70 years or older (121 men aged 70–96 years and 97 women aged 70–95 years; mean ± standard deviation [SD] age, 83 ± 6 and 83 ± 5 years, respectively) who attended health service facilities for the elderly (facilities that provide nursing care and rehabilitation services to elderly people with disability, *Mahoroba-no-Sato*) located in Nagano Prefecture, Japan were enrolled. The participants were in a chronic stable condition and receiving services under Long-term Care Insurance, which is provided by the Japanese Government, either under admission or as day care. The principal exclusion criteria were malnutrition (serum albumin <3.5 mg/dL or body mass index [BMI] <16 kg/m^2), extremely low ADL status (Barthel Index[33] <50), malignancy, acute inflammation (fever, white blood cell count >10 000/μL, or other signs of infection within 4 weeks before enrollment), severe anemia (blood hemoglobin <10.0 g/dL) and overt endocrine disease because these conditions may affect both plasma sex hormone levels and mortality. Deaths that occurred during the first 6 months of follow up (four men and no women) were also excluded to minimize the influence of comorbidity on both sex hormone levels and mortality; therefore, the remaining 214 persons were analyzed in this study. The institutional review board of *Mahoroba-no-Sato* approved the study protocol, and all participants and/or their family members gave written informed consent.

Hormone measurements

Blood samples were obtained from the participants in the morning after an overnight fast, and plasma hormone levels in addition to blood cell counts and blood chemical parameters were determined by a commercial laboratory (Health Sciences Research Institute, Yokohama, Japan). Testosterone and estradiol were assayed using chemiluminescence immunoassays with minimum detection limits of 7 ng/dL (0.2 nmol/L) and 4 pg/mL (14.7 pmol/L), respectively. DHEA-S was assayed using a sensitive radioimmunoassay with a minimum detection limit of 2.0 μg/dL (0.05 μmol/L). The intra-assay coefficients of variation for these measurements were less than 5%.

Functional and anthropometric measurements

Trained nurses and physical therapists visited the participants at the health facilities and performed comprehensive geriatric assessments. Basic ADL was assessed by Barthel Index,[33] cognitive function by Hasegawa Dementia Scale – Revised (HDS-R, 30-point scale),[34] mood by the Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS, 15 items),[35] and ADL-related vitality by Vitality Index (10-point scale).[36] BMI was calculated

as weight in kilograms divided by the square of height in meters.

Comorbidity

Diseases were ascertained by experienced physicians according to pre-established criteria that combine information from self-reported physician diagnoses, medical records, current medication, clinical examinations and blood tests. Diseases included in the current analysis were hypertension, heart disease (including any of angina pectoris, myocardial infarction, congestive heart failure and arrhythmia), stroke, diabetes mellitus, osteoarthropathy (arthritis, rheumatism, osteoporosis and history of fractures), lung disease (including bronchial asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) and other chronic diseases (chronic kidney disease, gastrointestinal disease, Parkinson's disease and psychological disorders). We also obtained data on anti-androgenic treatment and intake of glucocorticoids, opiates and hormone supplements that could affect plasma hormone levels, but no subject was taking any of these.

Follow up

The subjects were followed up in 2002–2009, for a period of up to 52 months (mean ± SD, 32 ± 13 [34] months in men and 45 ± 11 [49] months in women). Time and causes of death of deceased persons were ascertained using medical records and death certificates. All deaths were registered with International Classification of Diseases, 10th version (ICD-10) codes,[37] based on the information from death certificates. We categorized deaths into the following four specific causes: (i) diseases of the circulatory system (I00–I99) including heart disease and cerebrovascular disease; (ii) diseases of the respiratory system (J00-J99); (iii) neoplasms (C00-D48); and (iv) other causes. Subjects who were alive were confirmed by checking appointment records of the facilities. Survival of 16 subjects whose records were not available was ascertained by the phone interview of each subject. Causes of death were determined for all the subjects without any missing cases.

Statistical analysis

Differences between testosterone tertiles in men and between DHEA-S tertiles in women were analyzed using ANOVA for continuous variables and χ^2-test for categorical variables. Survival was analyzed using Kaplan–Meier plots and log–rank tests. Hazard ratios (HR) for mortality were analyzed using Cox proportional hazards regression. Significance tests were two-sided, with an α-level of 0.05. Data were analyzed using SPSS statistical software.

Results

Characteristics of study subjects

Over the follow-up period, 27 men and 28 women died, yielding a mortality rate of 86.5/1000 person-years at risk in men; and 69.9/1000 person-years at risk in women. Of those, 13 deaths were due to diseases of the circulatory system (eight to ischemic and other heart disease and five to cerebrovascular disease), 10 to diseases of the respiratory system and four to cancer in men; while 14 deaths were due to diseases of the circulatory system (nine to ischemic and other forms of heart disease and four to cerebrovascular disease), eight to diseases of the respiratory system, five to cancer and two to other causes in women. Men who died were significantly older, had lower serum albumin and cholesterol, lower ADL and cognitive status, higher prevalence of heart disease, and lower testosterone level than survivors; whereas in women, subjects who died were older, had lower hemoglobin, higher prevalence of heart disease and lower plasma DHEA-S level than survivors (data not shown).

Table 1 shows the baseline characteristics of the male subjects by tertile of plasma testosterone. A significant difference was observed in serum albumin and hemoglobin levels, ADL and cognitive status among tertiles of testosterone in men. Table 2 shows the baseline characteristics of the female subjects by tertile of plasma DHEA-S. A significant difference was found in age and ADL status among DHEA-S tertiles in women, while other variables did not differ between the tertile groups.

Mortality and plasma sex hormone levels in men

As shown in Figure 1(a), Kaplan–Meier survival analysis by tertile of plasma testosterone level revealed that testosterone level was associated with mortality in men. After adjusting for age, Cox proportional hazards models showed that there was an inverse relation between testosterone level and mortality. Mortality rate differed significantly between the high and low testosterone tertiles, but not significantly between the middle and low tertiles: tertile 3 (high), reference; tertile 2 (middle), HR = 2.51 (95% confidence interval [CI] = 0.66–9.50); and tertile 1 (low), HR = 6.63 (95% CI = 1.92–23.21). Accordingly, we investigated the increased mortality in tertile 1 versus tertiles 2–3 (Table 3). Compared with subjects within tertiles 2–3,

Table 1 Association between potential confounding variables and testosterone tertiles in men

Characteristic	Testosterone tertiles T1 <10.4 nmol/L (<300 ng/dL), $n = 39$	T2 10.4–16.3 nmol/L (300–470 ng/dL), $n = 40$	T3 >16.3 nmol/L (>470 ng/dL), $n = 38$	*P*-value
Age, years	83 ± 7	83 ± 6	81 ± 6	0.11
Nutritional parameters				
Body mass index, kg/m^2	21.3 ± 3.4	22.8 ± 3.8	21.7 ± 3.0	0.21
Hemoglobin, g/dL	12.7 ± 1.9	13.8 ± 1.3	14.0 ± 1.7	<0.01
Albumin, g/dL	4.0 ± 0.3	4.1 ± 0.2	4.2 ± 0.3	<0.01
Total cholesterol, mg/dL	173 ± 38	195 ± 36	176 ± 28	0.05
Prevalent diseases, *n* (%)				
Hypertension	17 (44)	16 (40)	12 (32)	0.53
Heart disease	10 (26)	5 (13)	7 (18)	0.32
Stroke	12 (31)	15 (38)	8 (21)	0.34
Diabetes mellitus	8 (21)	5 (13)	8 (21)	0.31
Osteoarthropathy	8 (21)	9 (23)	7 (18)	0.94
Lung disease	2 (5)	3 (8)	3 (8)	0.52
Other chronic diseases	17 (44)	19 (48)	18 (47)	0.95
Functional parameters				
Barthel Index	79 ± 12	82 ± 11	87 ± 13	0.04
HDS-R	18 ± 7	19 ± 6	22 ± 5	0.02
Vitality Index	9.2 ± 1.1	9.3 ± 0.9	9.5 ± 0.9	0.46
GDS	5.0 ± 3.1	5.6 ± 3.7	5.6 ± 2.9	0.66
Sex hormone levels				
Testosterone, nmol/L (ng/dL)	7.6 ± 2.5 (219 ± 73)	13.3 ± 1.6 (382 ± 43)	20.9 ± 3.9 (602 ± 112)	<0.01
DHEA-S, μmol/L (μg/dL)	1.7 ± 1.1 (64 ± 42)	1.8 ± 1.6 (69 ± 57)	1.7 ± 1.2 (63 ± 45)	0.94

Values are shown as mean (standard deviation). Differences between the groups were analyzed using ANOVA for continuous variables and χ^2-test for categorical variables. DHEA-S, dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate; GDS, Geriatric Depression Scale; HDS-R, Hasegawa Dementia Scale – Revised.

a testosterone level within tertile 1 was associated with approximately fourfold higher mortality risk. Adjustment for age, nutritional parameters (BMI, albumin, hemoglobin, total cholesterol) and functional parameters (Barthel Index, HDS-R, Vitality Index, GDS), and prevalent diseases showed no major influence on the result. In order to examine how follow-up time and cancer impacted on the results, assuming that the subjects may have had subclinical cancer or a fatal illness at baseline, we performed further analyses excluding deaths that occurred in the first 12 months ($n = 9$) and deaths from cancer ($n = 4$). However, the significant associations remained after these exclusions (Table 3). On the other hand, DHEA-S level was not associated with mortality when DHEA-S was entered as tertiles (data not shown).

Although the statistical power was not strong enough, we studied the risk for cause-specific mortality by tertiles of testosterone level in men. Neither deaths from diseases of the circulatory system nor those from non-circulatory causes showed a significant association with testosterone tertiles (tertile 1 vs tertile 2–3, HR = 3.18, 95% CI = 1.87–11.6, $P = 0.17$; HR = 3.46, 95% CI = 0.29–7.29, $P = 0.64$, respectively).

Mortality and plasma sex hormone levels in women

As shown in Figure 1(b), a low DHEA-S level was associated with higher mortality by Kaplan–Meier survival analysis. Age-adjusted Cox proportional hazards models revealed that the association was not significant when each tertile of DHEA-S was entered as a continuous variable; however, a significant association was observed when tertile 1 was compared with tertiles 2–3 (Table 3). The association remained significant after excluding deaths that occurred in the first 12 months ($n = 2$) and deaths from cancer ($n = 5$). Moreover, further adjustment had no major influence on the result. In women, testosterone and estradiol levels were not associated with mortality when they were entered as tertiles (data not shown).

In cause-specific mortality analysis, compared with tertiles 2–3, the low tertile of DHEA-S level was associated with higher risk of death from diseases of the

Table 2 Association between potential confounding variables and DHEA-S tertiles in women

Characteristic	DHEA-S tertiles T1 <1.17 μmol/L (<43 μg/dL), *n* = 33	T2 1.17–1.49 μmol/L (43–55 μg/dL), *n* = 32	T3 >1.49 μnmol/L (>55 μg/dL), *n* = 32	*P*-value
Age, years	83 ± 6	82 ± 6	80 ± 6	0.08
Nutritional parameters				
Body mass index, kg/m^2	22.3 ± 2.7	22.5 ± 3.2	23.7 ± 2.7	0.31
Hemoglobin, g/dL	12.6 ± 1.4	12.6 ± 1.2	13.1 ± 1.1	0.16
Albumin, g/dL	4.1 ± 0.3	4.2 ± 0.3	4.3 ± 0.2	0.18
Total cholesterol, mg/dL	205 ± 30	204 ± 35	205 ± 35	0.99
Prevalent diseases, *n* (%)				
Hypertension	10 (30)	14 (44)	15 (47)	0.47
Heart disease	4 (12)	7 (22)	8 (25)	0.46
Stroke	5 (15)	4 (13)	6 (19)	0.79
Diabetes mellitus	5 (15)	4 (13)	5 (16)	0.90
Osteoarthropathy	8 (24)	11 (34)	13 (40)	0.47
Lung disease	3 (9)	2 (6)	2 (6)	0.56
Other chronic diseases	17 (52)	19 (59)	18 (56)	0.90
Functional parameters				
Barthel Index	90 ± 7	93 ± 8	95 ± 8	0.04
HDS-R	23 ± 6	22 ± 7	25 ± 5	0.39
Vitality Index	9.2 ± 1.4	9.1 ± 2.2	8.8 ± 2.9	0.35
GDS	6.8 ± 2.6	5.9 ± 3.4	6.9 ± 3.3	0.16
Sex hormone levels				
DHEA-S, μmol/L	0.8 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.1	2.0 ± 0.3	<0.01
(μg/dL)	30 ± 7	49 ± 4	73 ± 12	
Testosterone, nmol/L	1.2 ± 0.6	1.2 ± 0.6	1.3 ± 0.5	0.81
(ng/dL)	35 ± 17	36 ± 17	37 ± 13	
Estradiol, pmol/L	56 ± 32	57 ± 37	67 ± 46	0.41
(pg/mL)	15.3 ± 8.6	15.5 ± 10.2	18.3 ± 12.5	

Values are shown as mean (standard deviation). Differences between the groups were analyzed using ANOVA for continuous variables and χ^2-test for categorical variables. DHEA-S, dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate; GDS, Geriatric Depression Scale; HDS-R, Hasegawa Dementia Scale – Revised.

circulatory system (HR = 13.1, 95% CI = 2.39–72.3, $P < 0.01$), while there was no association with deaths from non-circulatory causes (HR = 0.93, 95% CI = 0.86–1.02, $P = 0.14$).

Discussion

In this small prospective study of Japanese elderly who were receiving care in facilities, a low testosterone level was associated with mortality in men independent of multiple risk factors and pre-existing health conditions. In addition, a low DHEA-S level in older women was related to increased mortality. In contrast, DHEA-S level in men and testosterone and estradiol levels in women were not related to mortality.

Recent prospective cohort studies in Western countries have yielded inconsistent findings about the use of a low total testosterone level as a predictor of all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in middle-aged to older men.[4,5,38,39] In the two studies that found no significant prediction of mortality,[38,39] the populations were younger (mean or median ages were in the early 50s), testosterone levels were higher and mortality rates were lower (11.6 and 15.4/1000 person-years, respectively) compared to those in studies that found positive results. In the present study, although the sample size was small, the subjects were frail and older than those in any previously reported studies, with a relatively small age range and higher mortality rate. Therefore, the relation between testosterone level and mortality might have been easier to detect in our study than in other studies with healthy middle-aged and older men.

There could be several mechanisms by which endogenous testosterone affects mortality in men. Although the number of subjects was too small to perform cause-specific analysis in the present study, other studies have reported that a low testosterone level predicted increased risk of death due to CVD.[4,5] Further, in addition to the relation to muscle strength, physical performance and ADL,[10–12,21] some but not all reports have

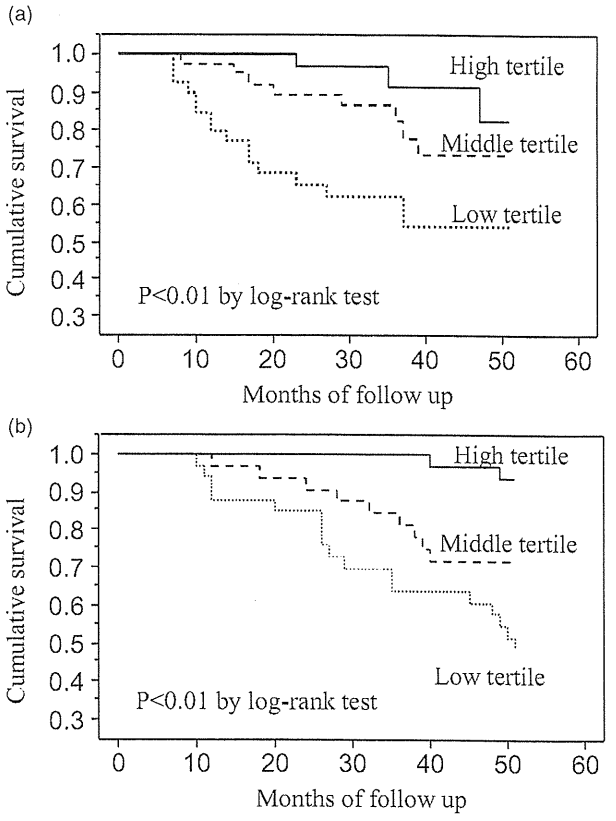

Figure 1 (a) Survival curves by tertile group of plasma testosterone level in men. (b) Survival curves by tertile group of plasma dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate level in women.

demonstrated an association between low testosterone level in older men and risk of a fall or fracture and frailty.[12–14,20] It is noteworthy that in the 10 men who died of respiratory infection, four had a history of a fall and fracture, which resulted in worse disability. Accordingly, a low testosterone level may contribute to frailty, which influences men's susceptibility to illness and falls and the capability to recover from disease or fractures, and thereby affects mortality.

Other than aging, systemic illness can result in decreased testosterone levels; therefore, low testosterone levels in older men could be attributable to acute and chronic diseases,[40] and the possible reverse causality should be considered. To evaluate this possibility, we excluded the first 12 months of observation and still found that in 12–52 months of observation, men in the low testosterone tertile had a greater risk of mortality from all causes than those in higher tertiles. We carefully excluded subjects with critical diseases and conditions at baseline, although our subjects were old with multiple chronic diseases, and it is difficult to exclude the possibility that men with subclinical critical conditions might have been included. Moreover, at baseline, there was a significant difference in functional status (ADL and cognition) and nutritional parameters (serum albumin and hemoglobin levels) between testosterone tertiles, as reported previously;[21] thus, our results need to be confirmed in a cohort with no difference in these factors between testosterone groups to exclude the influence of these biases on mortality. Also, it needs to be explored whether low testosterone in older men plays a pathogenic role, such as affecting the immune system, developing physical frailty and depression, or simply serves as a marker for biological vulnerability and poor prognosis. Long-term studies also need to test whether testosterone treatment should yield clinically significant improvements in mortality in appropriately selected older men, with consistent symptoms and signs and unequivocally low serum testosterone levels.

Low DHEA-S has been associated with increased all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in older men;[26,27,41] however, no association was found in the present study. Because DHEA(-S) is an inactive prohormone and we and others have found an association between testosterone and mortality,[3–8] it is suggested that testosterone could be a stronger predictor of mortality in older men.

On the other hand, a low DHEA-S level in older women was associated with a poor prognosis after adjusting for multiple factors related to mortality. Other previous reports showed an inconsistent relationship between DHEA-S level and mortality in older women,[29–31] possibly due to differences in the cohorts including age, DHEA-S level, heterogeneity of health status and mortality rate, and the method of statistical analysis used to demonstrate the relationship, regression models with linear/non-linear assumption.

Previous studies support a potential physiological role of DHEA-S, which could contribute to reduced mortality, an anti-inflammatory action and immune regulatory activity.[42] However, there are still many unanswered questions regarding DHEA's role in aging, and there is insufficient evidence to support DHEA replacement for increasing longevity in older women. It also needs to be explored whether the DHEA-S level contributes to mortality or is merely a biomarker of the underlying health condition of older women.

Our study has some limitations. First, the sample size was too small to reach a clear conclusion with strong statistical power, thus limiting the precision of the estimates, which is reflected in the broad range of HR for mortality. Second, the results are based on single measurements of sex hormones, which do not allow assessment of changes in levels over time; therefore, they may overestimate or underestimate the association between hormone levels and mortality. Third, we did not measure estradiol levels in men, although it would have been helpful to see whether the effects of testosterone on mortality are mediated by testosterone itself or by aromatization to estradiol in older men. Finally, active forms of testosterone such as bioavailable and

Table 3 Hazard ratios for low tertile 1 vs tertiles 2–3 of plasma sex hormone levels for all-cause mortality in men and women

	Unadjusted	Model 1	Model 2
Men (n = 117)			
HR of low testosterone for mortality	3.83 (1.74–8.40)**	3.71 (1.54–8.04)**	3.27 (1.24–12.91)*
Excluding first-year deaths (n = 108)	3.81 (1.53–6.93)**	3.49 (1.14–7.39)**	3.08 (1.11–13.62)*
Excluding deaths from cancer (n = 113)	4.18 (1.77–9.86)**	4.03 (1.70–9.58)**	5.02 (1.51–15.41)*
Women (N = 97)			
HR of low DHEA-S for mortality	3.77 (1.77–8.07)**	3.86 (1.79–8.32)**	4.42 (1.51–12.90)*
Excluding first-year deaths (n = 95)	3.38 (1.55–7.37)**	3.43 (1.56–9.54)**	3.58 (1.12–11.46)*
Excluding deaths from cancer (n = 92)	3.82 (1.69–8.60)**	3.55 (1.54–8.19)**	3.92 (1.28–11.98)*

*P < 0.05; **P < 0.01 vs reference group (tertile 2–3). Values are expressed as HR (95% CI). Model 1, adjusted for age; Model 2, adjusted for age, nutritional parameters, functional parameters and prevalent disease. DHEA-S, dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate; HR, hazards ratio.

calculated free testosterone were not measured, because a direct assay of bioavailable testosterone or an assay of sex hormone binding globulin, which is necessary for free testosterone calculation, is not available in Japan. However, because most of the above-mentioned previous reports have shown an association of total testosterone with mortality, the fundamental findings might not have differed if active forms of testosterone had been analyzed.

In conclusion, a low testosterone level in men and a low DHEA-S level in women are associated with increased mortality risk, independent of multiple risk factors and several pre-existing health conditions in disabled elderly. To our knowledge, the present study is the first that showed testosterone as a predictor of mortality in Asian men. Also, this is the first study that investigated frail or disabled older persons receiving care at facilities. Our results imply the clinical importance of measuring plasma androgen levels even in disabled elderly to estimate their prognosis.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE: EPIDEMIOLOGY CLINICAL PRACTICE AND HEALTH

Relationship between interleukin-6 and cerebral deep white matter and periventricular hyperintensity in elderly women

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Aim: We evaluated the relationships between serum levels of high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hsCRP) and interleukin (IL)-6 with the severity of leukoaraiosis.

Methods: One hundred and thirty-seven elderly women who attended the Center for Comprehensive Care on Memory Disorders at Kyorin University Hospital were enrolled in this study. Leukoaraiosis was assessed by periventricular hyperintensity (PVH) score and deep white matter hyperintensity (DWMH) score.

Results: Serum log IL-6 level correlated with PVH and DWMH scores, but hsCRP did not. By multinomial logistic analysis, IL-6 was significantly related to DWMH score, independent of age and systolic blood pressure.

Conclusion: IL-6 is presumably an important marker of leukoaraiosis, as is the case with silent cerebral infarction. **Geriatr Gerontol Int 2011; 11: 328–332.**

Keywords: interleukin-6, leukoaraiosis, white matter hyperintensity.

Introduction

Leukoaraiosis, an isointense lesion on T_1-weighted images and hyperintense lesion on T_2-weighted images of magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), is considered to be a type of ischemic change in the brain on the basis of decreased blood flow in the area of leukoaraiosis.[1] In addition, leukoaraiosis is likely to have a relationship with vascular risk factors such as hypertension and diabetes.[2] On the other hand, the severity of leukoaraiosis also has a relationship with symptoms of the geriatric syndromes such as dementia, gait disturbance and functional disability.[3–5] Hence, leukoaraiosis is regarded as a significant brain lesion linking vascular risk factors and the occurrence of geriatric syndromes. Previous research on leukoaraiosis showed that women tended to have more white matter lesions than men,[6] and progression of deep white matter hyperintensity (DWMH) lesion was grater in women than men.[7] Furthermore, Gouw *et al.* showed that leukoaraiosis tended to develop greater in women than men and lacunes were vice versa.[8] Recently, many studies have focused on the relationships between brain ischemia and inflammation. Above all, Hoshi *et al.* demonstrated that serum high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hsCRP) and interleukin (IL)-6 levels correlated with silent brain infarction.[9] They suggested an involvement of inflammation in cerebral infarction. However, few studies have examined the relationships between inflammatory markers and other cerebral ischemic changes such as leukoaraiosis.Therefore, we investigated whether serum levels of hsCRP and IL-6 have a relationship with leukoaraiosis in elderly women.

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Methods

Patients

One hundred and thirty-seven women who attended the Center for Comprehensive Care on Memory Disorders at Kyorin University Hospital were included in this study. This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Kyorin University School of Medicine. Accordingly, written informed consent was obtained from all patients.

MRI

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) was performed on 1.5-T scanners (Toshiba Medical Systems, Tochigi, Japan). T_1-weighted images (repetition time [TR] = 496 msec, echo time [TE] = 12 msec), T_2-weighted images (TR = 4280 msec, TE = 105 msec) and fluid attenuated inversion recovery-weighted images (TR = 8000 msec, TE = 105 msec, 5 mm slice thickness) were obtained in the axial planes.

Periventricular hyperintensity and DWMH Score

Leukoaraiosis was classified as periventricular hyperintensity (PVH) adjacent to the lateral ventricle, and DWMH located in the deep white matter apart from the lateral ventricles. PVH was evaluated in six regions in three slices. Each region was rated as five grades (0–4) according to the systematic quantification method developed by Junque *et al.*[3] The sum of all grades in the six regions was defined as the PVH score (range 0–40).[4] DWMH was evaluated in the frontal, temporal, parietal and occipital lobes and in the basal ganglia in both hemispheres. Each lesion was rated as three grades according to the diameter, as described by de Groot *et al.*[5] The sum of all grades in five regions in both hemispheres was defined as the DWMH score.[4]

Laboratory tests

Blood samples were obtained in the morning after an overnight fast. Serum levels of hsCRP and IL-6 were measured using nephelometry and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay, respectively. The intra-assay coefficients of variation for the measurements of hsCRP and IL-6 were 1.3% and 2.9%, respectively.

Statistical analysis

Because the distribution of hsCRP and IL-6 levels appeared to be left-skewed, they were normalized by logarithmic transformation. We used Spearman's ρ to investigate correlations between parameters and PVH score or DWMH score. Also, to test independently the effect of the inflammatory markers associated with the severity of leukoaraiosis, multinomial logistic regression analysis was performed with the grade of PVH (tertiles of PVH score) or DWMH (tertiles of DWMH score) as the dependent variable; and hsCRP or IL-6, together with age and systolic blood pressure (SBP) as independent variables. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. All data were analyzed using SPSS ver. 17.0.

Results

The characteristics of the study subjects are shown in Table 1. They were non-obese normolipidemic elderly persons, however, SBP was elevated. The distribution of PVH score and DWMH score of these subjects were 1–24 and 0–209, respectively. In Spearman's correlation coefficient, IL-6 correlated with PVH score ($\rho = 0.340$, $P \leq 0.05$) and DWMH score ($\rho = 0.299$, $P \leq 0.05$) (Fig. 1), whereas hsCRP showed no relation to PVH score or DWMH score (Table 2). PVH score and DWMH score also correlated with age and SBP. When log IL-6 and log hsCRP were grouped by tertile (see legend to Fig. 2), it was found that the average PVH score and DWMH score were higher in the highest tertile of IL-6 level than in the lowest tertile according to the Kruskal–Wallis test (Fig. 2a,b). On the other hand, this increment was not found in hsCRP (Fig. 2c,d).

Because leukoaraiosis can be observed on MRI even in normal elderly persons,[10] and hypertension is known to be a risk factor for leukoaraiosis,[11] we performed multinomial logistic regression analysis using PVH or DWMH severity (tertiles of PVH and DWMH score) as the dependent variable, and age, SBP and inflammatory

Table 1 Clinical characteristics of study subjects (women, $n = 137$)

Age (years)	76 ± 7
BMI (kg/m^2)	20.8 ± 3.3
SBP (mmHg)	142 ± 26
DBP (mmHg)	80 ± 14
PVH score (points)	8.2 ± 4.0
DWMH score (points)	61.4 ± 51.0
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	5.38 ± 0.91
HDL cholesterol (mmol/L)	1.50 ± 0.36
LDL cholesterol (mmol/L)	3.23 ± 0.65
Triglyceride (mmol/L)	1.08 ± 0.46
Log IL-6 (ng/L)	0.35 ± 0.46
Log hsCRP (μg/L)	2.58 ± 0.58

All parameters are expressed as mean ± standard deviation. IL-6 and CRP are shown as log transformed. BMI, body mass index; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; DWMH, deep white matter hyperintensity; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; hsCRP, high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; IL-6, interleukin-6; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; PVH, periventricular hyperintensity; SBP, systolic blood pressure.

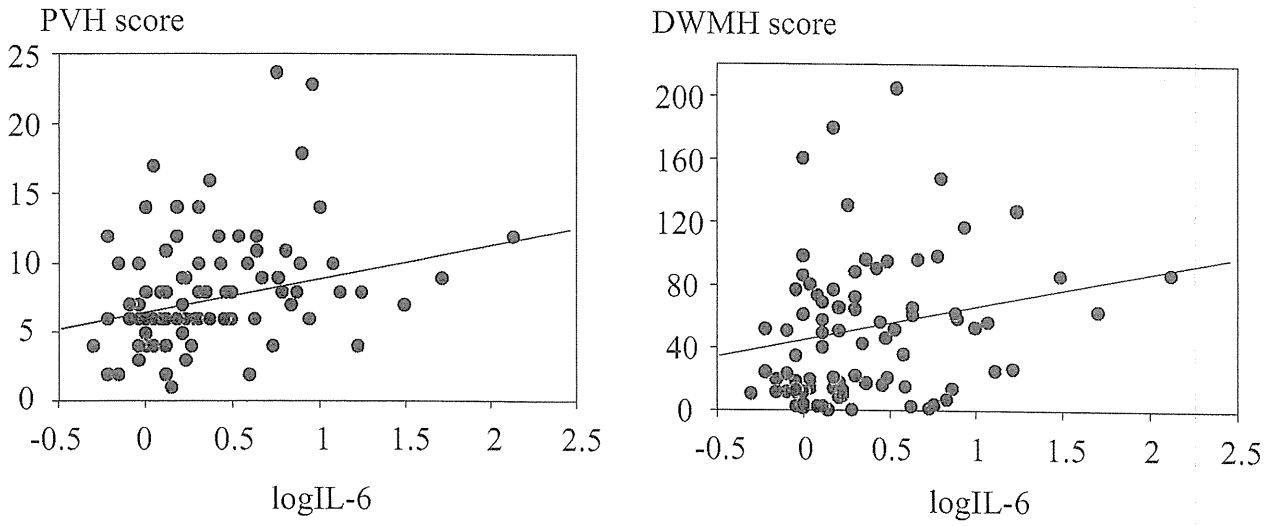

Figure 1 Relations between periventricular hyperintensity (PVH) score and log interleukin (IL)-6 (left panel; $\rho = 0.340$, $P \leq 0.05$, $n = 137$), and deep white matter hyperintensity (DWMH) score and log IL-6 (right panel; $\rho = 0.299$, $P \leq 0.05$, $n = 137$).

Table 2 Spearman's correlation coefficient between leukoaraiosis and parameters

	PVH score		DWMH score	
	ρ	*P*	ρ	*P*
Age	0.411	<0.001	0.271	0.002
BMI	−0.156	0.085	−0.124	0.179
SBP	0.215	0.014	0.232	0.009
Total cholesterol	−0.128	0.192	−0.149	0.134
HDL cholesterol	−0.053	0.595	−0.205	0.041
LDL cholesterol	−0.093	0.349	−0.025	0.802
Triglyceride	−0.014	0.885	0.080	0.421
Smoke	0.337	0.005	0.443	0.000
Log IL-6	0.340	0.002	0.299	0.006
Log hsCRP	−0.018	0.867	0.019	0.855

BMI, body mass index; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; DWMH, deep white matter hyperintensity; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; hsCRP, high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; IL-6, interleukin-6; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; PVH, periventricular hyperintensity; SBP, systolic blood pressure.

markers as independent variables. As shown in Table 3, it was confirmed that the level of IL-6 was significantly associated with the progression of PVH grade (from lowest to middle and middle to highest) and DWMH score (from middle to highest). However, this trend was not found in hsCRP.

Discussion

In this study, we showed relationships between IL-6 and PVH score and IL-6 and DWMH score. It is assumed that IL-6 has an association with cerebral ischemic changes such as leukoaraiosis as well as silent brain infarction.[9] Additionally, PVH and DWMH were correlated with IL-6, but not with hsCRP. With respect to this point, Schmidt *et al.* suggested that CRP is a marker of active carotid atherosclerosis, but not of a small vessel disease-related brain lesion.[12] On the other hand, it is envisaged that elevated hsCRP levels generally reflect large vessel atherosclerosis. Because leukoaraiosis is regarded as one of the brain changes caused by small vessel disease, our results support the idea of Schmidt *et al.*

Interleukin-6 is one of the principal acute-phase reactants, playing a significant role in the activation of the coagulation–fibrinolysis system. On the other hand, leukoaraiosis has been associated with a hypercoagulable condition. Endothelium-derived adhesion molecules have been reported to be elevated in patients with great leukoaraiosis or lacunar infarcts. Leukocyte-mediated injury of the small vessels and ensuing upregulation of endothelial adhesion molecules are implicated in the pathogenesis of leukoaraiosis.[13]

The Rotterdam Scan Study showed that higher hsCRP levels were associated with presence and progression of leukoaraiosis after adjustment for cardiovascular risk factors and carotid atherosclerosis.[14] The subjects in the Rotterdam Scan Study were a population-based cohort ($n = 1033$), while the subjects in the present study were outpatients in the memory clinic ($n = 137$). In this respect, the difference in characteristics and numbers of the subjects may have given rise to the different results in terms of hsCRP in the present study and the Rotterdam Scan Study.

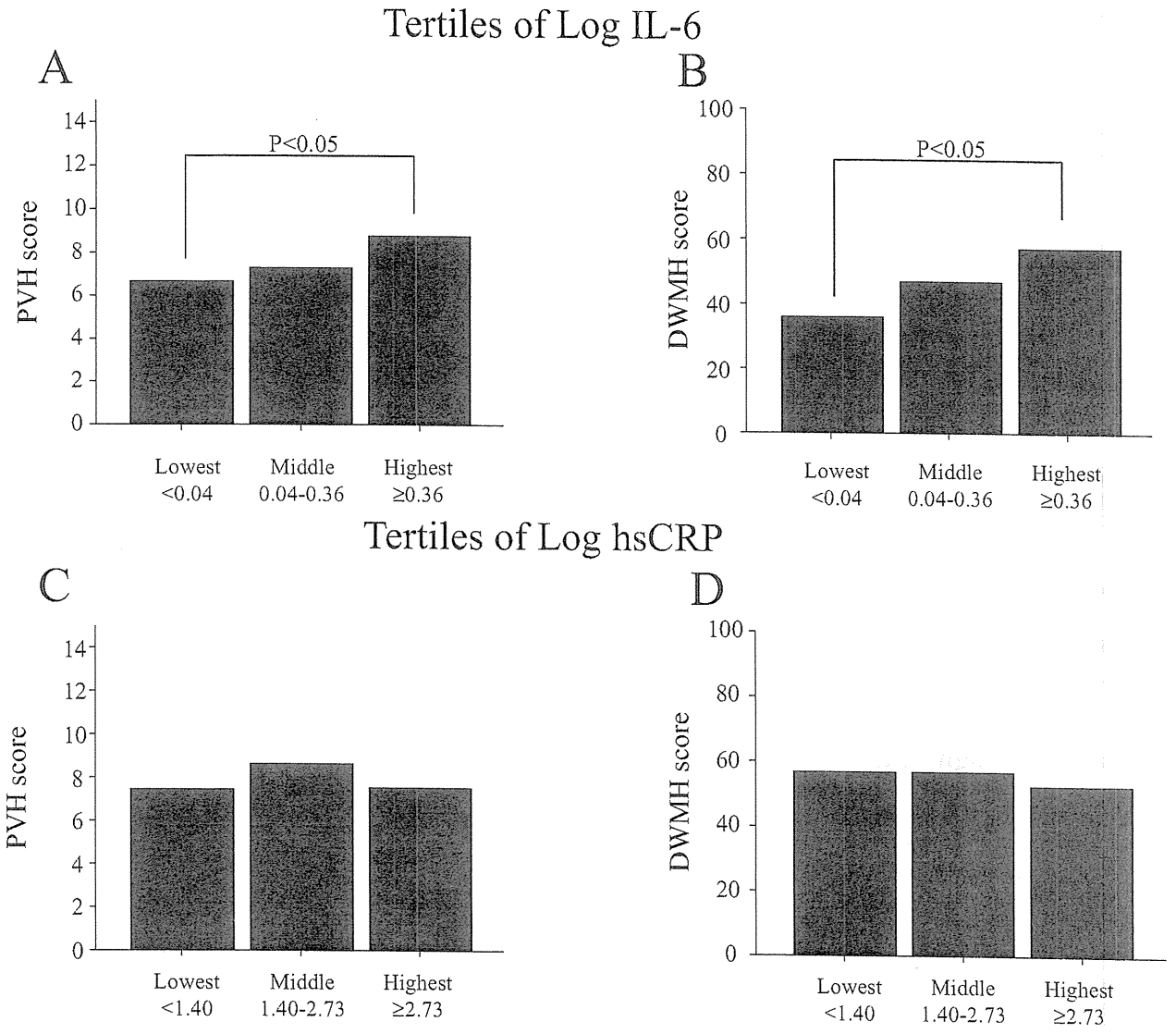

Figure 2 Average of periventricular hyperintensity (PVH) score and deep white matter hyperintensity (DWMH) score by tertile of interleukin (IL)-6 (a,b) and tertile of high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hsCRP) (c,d). Log IL-6 tertile; lowest, <0.04 pg/mL, $n = 55$, 73.4 ± 7 1 years old (y/o); middle, 0.04–0.36 pg/mL, $n = 38$, 76.9 ± 6.8 y/o; highest, ≥0.36 pg/mL, $n = 44$, 79.5 ± 5.3 y/o. Log hsCRP; lowest, <1.40 ng/mL, $n = 44$, 73.9 ± 7.0 y/o; middle, 1.40–2.73 ng/mL, $n = 46$, 77.6 ± 7.1 y/o; highest, ≥2 73 ng/mL, $n = 41$, 77.8 ± 6.3 y/o.

In the Framingham Heart Study, no association was found between hsCRP and leukoaraiosis on MRI.[15] In the Cardiovascular Health Study, hsCRP level was modestly associated with semi-quantified leukoaraiosis volume, but the effect attenuated after excluding prevalent cerebrovascular and coronary disease cases.[13] In addition, Wright *et al.* was not able to find an association between hsCRP and leukoaraiosis volume.[16] Together, the relationships between leukoaraiosis and hsCRP varied depending upon different reports. This may come from the difference in study subjects and analytical methods. Further investigation is necessary to hold more definite opinion about which inflammatory biomarker represents the presence and development of leukoaraiosis.

Several lines of evidence suggest a relationship between IL-6 and symptoms of the geriatric syndromes, unique features of common health problems associated with poor morbidity in elderly people, such as dementia,[17] functional disability[18] and frailty.[19] On the other hand, the severity of leukoaraiosis also has a relationship with symptoms of geriatric syndromes such as dementia, falls, gait disturbance and functional disability.[3–5] Therefore, IL-6 may be an important biomarker linking the severity of leukoaraiosis to the geriatric syndromes. Because the present study is

Table 3 Associations between inflammation markers and the severity of leukoaraiosis according to tertiles (PVH score or DWMH score) adjusting for age and systolic blood pressure (logistic regression analysis)

	Log hsCRP, μg/L Odds ratio (95% CI)	Log IL-6, ng/L Odds ratio (95% CI)
PVH grade (tertiles)		
Lowest to middle	1.84 (0.78–4.31)	5.80 (1.43–23.60)
Middle to highest	0.39 (0.12–1.32)	4.39 (1.02–18.85)
DWMH grade (tertiles)		
Lowest to middle	0.81 (0.333–1.99)	3.18 (0.78–12.95)
Middle to highest	1.25 (0.48–3.29)	7.85 (1.69–36.38)

Grade of leukoaraiosis according to tertiles of PVH score or DWMH score. CI, confidence interval; DWMH, deep white matter hyperintensity; IL-6, interleukin-6; hsCRP, high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; PVH, periventricular hyperintensity.

cross-sectional, a longitudinal study would corroborate the associations of IL-6 with leukoaraiosis, and IL-6 with the geriatric syndromes.

In conclusion, we demonstrated that IL-6 level is significantly associated with the severity of PVH and DWMH lesions. The results of the present study, together with the previous studies, suggest that IL-6 is an important marker of the progression of cerebral ischemic disease, linking to the presence of geriatric syndromes.

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