



THE UNIVERSITY *of* EDINBURGH

Edinburgh Research Explorer

Midlife vascular risk factors and risk of incident dementia

Citation for published version:

Malik, R, Georgakis, MK, Neitzel, J, Rannikmäe, K, Ewers, M, Seshadri, S, Sudlow, CLM & Dichgans, M 2021, 'Midlife vascular risk factors and risk of incident dementia: Longitudinal cohort and Mendelian randomization analyses in the UK Biobank', *Alzheimer's & Dementia*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/alz.12320>

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1002/alz.12320](https://doi.org/10.1002/alz.12320)

Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Published In:

Alzheimer's & Dementia

General rights

Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Edinburgh Research Explorer is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

The University of Edinburgh has made every reasonable effort to ensure that Edinburgh Research Explorer content complies with UK legislation. If you believe that the public display of this file breaches copyright please contact openaccess@ed.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.



Midlife vascular risk factors and risk of incident dementia: longitudinal cohort and Mendelian randomization analyses in the UK Biobank

Rainer Malik ^{a*}, Marios K Georgakis ^{a*}, Julia Neitzel ^a, Kristiina Rannikmäe ^b, Michael Ewers ^a, Sudha Seshadri ^c, Cathie LM Sudlow ^{d,e}, Martin Dichgans ^{a,f,g}

^a Institute for Stroke and Dementia Research (ISD), University Hospital, Ludwig-Maximilians-University LMU, Munich, Germany

^b Centre for Medical Informatics, Usher Institute, University of Edinburgh, UK

^c The Glenn Biggs Institute for Alzheimer's and Neurodegenerative Diseases, University of Texas Health Sciences Center, San Antonio, TX, USA

^d Center for Clinical Brain Sciences, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK

^e Usher Institute of Population Health Sciences and Informatics, Nine Bioquarter, Edinburgh, UK

^f German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), Munich Germany

^g Munich Cluster for Systems Neurology (SyNergy), Munich, Germany

*these authors contributed equally

Corresponding author:

Martin Dichgans, MD

Institute for Stroke and Dementia Research,

University Hospital, Ludwig-Maximilians-University LMU

Feodor-Lynen-Straße 17, 81377 Munich, Germany

T: +49-89-4400-46018

E: martin.dichgans@med.uni-muenchen.de

Short title: Vascular risk factors and dementia

Manuscript word count: 3,801

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **INTRODUCTION:** Midlife clustering of vascular risk factors has been associated with late-life
3 dementia, but causal effects of individual biological and lifestyle factors remain largely unknown.

4 **METHODS:** Among 229,976 individuals (mean follow-up 9 years), we explored whether midlife
5 cardiovascular health measured by Life's simple 7 (LS7) is associated with incident all-cause dementia
6 and whether the individual components of the score are causally associated with dementia.

7 **RESULTS:** Adherence to the biological metrics of LS7 (blood pressure, cholesterol, glycemic status)
8 was associated with lower incident dementia risk (HR=0.93 per 1-point increase, 95%CI [0.89-0.96]).
9 In contrast, there was no association between the composite LS7 score and the lifestyle subscore
10 (smoking, body mass index, diet, physical activity) and incident dementia. In Mendelian randomization
11 analyses, genetically elevated blood pressure was associated with higher risk of dementia (OR=1.31 per
12 1-SD increase, 95%CI [1.05-1.60]).

13 **DISCUSSION:** These findings underscore the importance of blood pressure control in midlife to
14 mitigate dementia risk.

15

16

17

18 1. INTRODUCTION

19 Dementia is a major public health concern posing substantial burden on patients, their proxies, and
20 national healthcare systems [1-3]. The pathophysiological processes leading to dementia start many
21 years before the manifestation of clinically identifiable cognitive deficits later in life. Consequently,
22 preventive strategies should target risk factors that manifest during midlife, which is roughly defined
23 as the period between 40 and 65 years of age [1, 3]. Indeed, previous studies support differential
24 associations between midlife (≤ 65 years) and late-life (>65 years) risk factors and dementia risk [4, 5].
25 The American Heart Association (AHA) defined Life's Simple 7 (LS7), a composite score composed of
26 3 biological (blood pressure, cholesterol levels, glycemic status) and 4 lifestyle (smoking, body mass
27 index [BMI], diet, physical activity) cardiovascular health (CVH) metrics for primordial or primary
28 prevention of cardiovascular disease [6-8]. Adherence to the LS7 ideal CVH recommendations is
29 associated with a lower risk of cardiometabolic disease, such as type 2 diabetes [9], myocardial
30 infarction [10], and stroke [11]. Whether adherence to these recommendations could also be of value
31 for dementia prevention, is still debated.

32 Several cohort studies have explored the association between the LS7 score and risk of late-life dementia
33 or cognitive decline, with inconsistent results [7, 12-15]. Potential sources of the inconsistency between
34 studies include differences with regard to sample characteristics and study design. For instance, a high
35 age at baseline assessment and short duration of follow-up might introduce a bias by disregarding the
36 long preclinical phase of dementia thus leading to reverse causation effects. This has been specifically
37 demonstrated for blood pressure and BMI, two of the components of the LS7 score [4, 5]. Furthermore,
38 despite a rigorous adjustment for potential confounders, analyses of observational studies remain prone
39 to residual unmeasured confounding. Hence, evidence from observational data alone is insufficient to
40 establish causal relationships between candidate risk factors and dementia risk and to support
41 recommendations for preventive treatments.

42 Mendelian randomization (MR) utilizes genetic variants that are associated with an exposure of interest
43 as instruments, and investigates their associations with disease outcomes, thus overcoming some of the
44 key limitations of observational studies such as confounding and reverse causation [16]. As such, MR
45 allows making inferences about causality [17, 18]. Previous MR studies exploring associations of
46 vascular risk factors with Alzheimer's disease failed to show significant causal associations [19, 20] but
47 the clinical diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease dementia requires the exclusion of substantial concomitant
48 cerebrovascular disease that could have a substantial effect on cognition [21]. Genetic signals
49 representing vascular contribution to dementia are underrepresented in GWAS studies of Alzheimer's
50 disease, as shown before in a study of coronary artery disease and Alzheimer's disease [22]. To inform
51 broadly applicable strategies for dementia prevention, MR studies should, next to more focused MR
52 studies on dementia subtypes, primarily focus on all-cause dementia as an outcome. To our knowledge,
53 such studies currently do not exist.

54 Here, using large-scale data from ~230,000 individuals aged 40-69 years from the UK Biobank (UKB),
55 who were followed for a period of up to 12 years, we aimed to: (i) determine associations of the baseline
56 LS7 score, as well as its biological and lifestyle subscores with incident all-cause dementia; (ii) identify
57 linear and non-linear relationships between individual vascular risk factors and incident all-cause
58 dementia; and (iii) exploit MR analyses to establish causal associations between individual vascular risk
59 factors and all-cause dementia.

60 2. METHODS

61 This study is based on data from the UKB study that received approval from the National Information
62 Governance Board for Health and Social Care and the National Health Service NorthWestMulticenter
63 Research Ethics Committee. All participants provided informed consent through electronic signature at
64 baseline assessment. Data were accessed via the UKB project proposals 2532 and 33018.

65 2.1 Study Population

66 The UKB is a population-based cohort of more than 500,000 participants who attended 1 of 22
67 assessment centers across the United Kingdom between 2006 and 2010 [23]. Clinical, genetic and risk
68 factor data were obtained at baseline. Clinical outcomes including dementia diagnoses are available over
69 a follow-up period extending up to 2017 via self-report, hospital inpatient records, death certificates,
70 and, for a subset of 229,976 participants, also primary care records. Here, we restricted our analyses to
71 only those individuals with available primary care records to minimize the risk of misclassification of
72 dementia cases and to better reflect the spectrum of dementia cases in the general population than would
73 be the case with hospital codes alone. Furthermore, the current analyses are restricted to participants
74 without self-reported or prevalent dementia at baseline (**Figure S1**). Censoring was performed at the
75 last available date in the primary care records dataset (Dec 29, 2018).

76 2.2 Life's Simple 7 score (LS7)

77 The LS7 score was constructed based on AHA recommendations categorizing each metric into three
78 levels (coded as poor=0, intermediate=1, and optimal=2) [6], as detailed in **Table S1**. The variables used
79 from the UKB dataset to construct each metric are detailed in **Table S2**.

80 Missing raw values were imputed by multiple imputations using chained equations with 40 imputations
81 and all remaining variables as predictors, as implemented in the “mice” package in R. We used the sum
82 of each metric to calculate the LS7 score (range 0 to 14) with higher scores corresponding to more
83 optimal CVH. We calculated two subscores: a biological subscore defined by the sum of the biological
84 metrics (blood pressure, cholesterol, glycemic status) ranging from 0 (worst) to 6 (best), and a lifestyle
85 subscore defined by the sum of the behavioral metrics (smoking status, body mass index [BMI], physical
86 activity, diet) ranging from 0 (worst) to 8 (best), as recommended by the AHA [6].

87 2.3 Dementia Diagnosis

88 All-cause dementia was ascertained using hospital inpatient records containing data on admissions and
89 diagnoses obtained from the Hospital Episode Statistics for England, Scottish Morbidity Record data
90 for Scotland, and the Patient Episode Database for Wales. Additional cases were detected through
91 linkage to death register data provided by the National Health Service Digital for England and Wales
92 and the Information and Statistics Division for Scotland. Diagnoses were recorded using the
93 International Classification of Diseases (ICD9 and ICD10) coding system. For the current analyses, the
94 algorithmically defined all-cause dementia outcomes (Fields 42018 and 42019) were used [24]. In
95 addition, dementia diagnoses were retrieved from primary care data using read codes (version 2 (Read
96 v2) and version 3 (CTV3 or Read v3)). Both, non-administrative and administrative codings were used,
97 as suggested by a recent study showing that dementia diagnoses can be reliably identified from these
98 sources with a positive predictive value (PPV) of 82.5% combining all data sources [25]. Events based
99 solely on self-report (N=24) were discarded from the analysis.

100 2.4 Covariates

101 All main models were adjusted for age at baseline [Field 21022]; sex [Field 31]; education, categorized
102 as higher (college/university degree or other professional qualification) or lower [Field 6138]; and
103 socioeconomic status, categorized as quintiles 1, 2 to 4, and 5 [Field 189: Townsend deprivation index
104 (combining information on social class, employment, car availability and housing)]. For the extended
105 model, we also considered the following additional variables: ApoE ε4 carrier status (carrier/non-carrier

106 status as defined by genetic information); baseline depression defined as a combined score of >3 from
107 [field 2050 and 2060]; history of depression [Field 2090]; prevalent or incident cardiovascular disease
108 [Fields 42006-42013, ICD10 and OPCS4 codes] and self-reported ethnicity (white/non-white) [Field
109 21000].

110 Genetic models were additionally corrected for genotyping chip, assessment center visited and the first
111 20 principal components of ancestry to correct for population stratification.

112 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

113 **2.5.1 Observational analysis** Cox proportional hazard regression models were used to examine the
114 association of the overall LS7 score and the biological and lifestyle subscores with time to incident all-
115 cause dementia in the primary care dataset (N=229,976). Participants were considered at risk for
116 dementia from baseline (2006-2010) and were followed up until the date of first diagnosis, death, loss
117 to follow-up, or the last date with available information from hospital admission. Proportional hazards
118 were tested using scaled Schoenfeld's residuals without indication for violation of the assumption (all
119 global Schoenfeld tests $p > 0.05$). As shown before [7], prevalent or incident cardiovascular disease can
120 modify the association between the LS7 score and incident dementia. Hence, we performed a sensitivity
121 analysis excluding both prevalent and incident cardiovascular disease. For competing risk analysis, a
122 Fine-Gray proportional subhazard model was used [26]. 7,677 participants (3.3%) without an incident
123 dementia event died within the follow-up period and were thus considered in multivariable competing
124 mortality risks analyses. As an additional competing risks analysis, we also performed cause-specific
125 Cox proportional hazard regression (CSC) with incident dementia and death as the two competing
126 causes. To explore non-linear effects of individual components of the LS7 score on incident dementia
127 cubic spline terms were introduced in the models using continuous measures of the individual
128 components: SBP, LDL cholesterol, and HbA1c levels as well as a previously described lifetime
129 smoking index [27], BMI, metabolic equivalent task (MET) minutes per week, and a healthy diet score
130 [28, 29].

131 **2.5.2 Mendelian Randomization (MR)** Two-sample MR analyses were conducted to explore
132 associations between the abovementioned continuous variables and risk of dementia. Exposures were
133 chosen as continuous variables, as MR analyses of binary exposures can be biased due to violation of
134 the exclusion restriction assumption [30]. Genetic variants to be used as instruments for MR were
135 derived from previous GWAS studies or GWAS analyses that we performed for this purpose in the
136 UKB, as detailed in the **Supplementary Information**. The sets of the used genetic instruments are
137 available in **Tables S3-S9**.

138 A GWAS on all-cause dementia was performed using logistic regression with PLINK2 on unrelated
139 white British UKB participants in the primary care dataset (N=190,154; 1,868 dementia cases and
140 188,286 dementia-free controls). GWAS summary statistics were used as the outcome variable in MR.
141 MR estimates for each instrument were computed with the Wald statistics and standard errors were
142 calculated with the Delta method. As the primary method of analysis, individual MR estimates were
143 pooled using random-effects inverse-variance weighted (IVW) meta-analyses [31]. Statistical
144 significance was set at a p -value < 0.05 . MR estimates derived from the IVW approach might be biased
145 if the variants are pleiotropic. As a measure of overall pleiotropy, heterogeneity in the IVW MR analyses
146 was assessed with the Cochran's Q statistic (statistical significance set at a $p < 0.05$) [32]. Further,
147 alternative MR methods were applied, which are more robust to pleiotropic variants. These were the
148 weighted median estimator [33], the contamination-mixture method [34], and the MR-PRESSO [35].
149 Details about these approaches and their underlying assumptions are provided in the **Supplementary**
150 **Information**. All analyses were performed in R (v3.5.0; The R Foundation for Statistical Computing)
151 using the MendelianRandomization, TwoSampleMR, and the MRPRESSO packages.

152

153 **3. RESULTS**

154 At baseline, 229,976 participants from the primary care dataset were included in the observational
155 analysis (**Figure S1**). Their mean age was 56.5 (SD, 8.1) years; 125,730 participants (54.6%) were
156 women. During a median follow-up of 8.98 years (IQR, 8.34-9.74), 2,143 incident dementia events were
157 recorded, with 375 derived from hospital in-patient records alone, 1,075 from primary care records
158 alone, 32 from death records alone, and 661 from multiple sources. Baseline characteristics of
159 participants by incident dementia status are shown in **Table 1**.

160

161 The LS7 score was normally distributed with a mean of 8.2 (SD, 2.1). At baseline, 4.4% of individuals
162 scored 0 to 4 points, 68.3% scored 5 to 9 points, and 27.3% scored 10 points or higher. The biological
163 and lifestyle subscores were normally distributed with means of 3.4 (SD, 1.3) and 4.8 (SD, 1.5),
164 respectively. The total LS7 score at inclusion was significantly lower among individuals who developed
165 incident dementia compared to individuals without incident dementia (mean, 7.67 vs. 8.17, $p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$).
166 Focusing on the subscores, the biological subscore was significantly lower in individuals who developed
167 incident dementia compared to individuals who did not develop incident dementia (mean, 2.90 vs. 3.37,
168 $p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$), while there was no significant difference in the lifestyle subscores between individuals with
169 and without incident dementia (mean, 4.77 vs. 4.80, $p = 0.354$) (**Figure 1**).

170

171 **3.1 Cardiovascular health at baseline and incident dementia**

172 In the observational longitudinal analyses, there was a significant association between a higher
173 biological subscore and a decreased risk of incident dementia (HR=0.93 per 1-point increase, 95% CI
174 [0.89-0.96], $p = 8.5 \times 10^{-5}$). This association followed a dose-response pattern with individuals scoring 2-3
175 and 4 or higher in the biological subscale showing gradually lower risks for incident dementia, as
176 compared to individuals scoring 0 or 1 (HR=0.73 for 2-3, 95% CI [0.63-0.83], $p = 1.2 \times 10^{-6}$; HR=0.67 for
177 4-6, 95% CI [0.58-0.76], $p = 1.0 \times 10^{-7}$). There was neither an association of the lifestyle subscore
178 (HR=1.01 per 1-point increase, 95% CI [0.98-1.04], $p = 0.53$) nor of the composite LS7 score (HR=0.98
179 per 1-point increment, 95% CI [0.96-1.00], $p = 0.08$) with risk of incident dementia (**Table 2**). In an
180 extended analysis, further correcting for ApoE $\epsilon 4$ carrier status, baseline depression, history of
181 depression, incident or prevalent cardiovascular disease, and ethnicity, we still observed a significant
182 association between a higher biological subscore and a decreased risk of incident dementia (HR=0.96
183 per 1-point increase, 95% CI [0.83-0.99], $p = 9.2 \times 10^{-3}$), while the LS7 score and the lifestyle subscore
184 remained non-significant (HR=0.99 per 1-point increase, 95% CI [0.97-1.01], $p = 0.405$ and HR=1.02
185 per 1-point increase, 95% CI [0.98-1.05], $p = 0.223$, respectively).

186 In sensitivity analyses the association between the biological subscore and incident dementia remained
187 significant and of similar magnitude when diagnoses were derived either from hospital-based records
188 alone (HR 0.93 per 1-point increase, 95% CI [0.88-0.98], $p = 0.0051$) or from primary care records alone
189 (HR 0.93 per one point increase, 95% CI [0.90-0.97], $p = 0.0013$). The results further remained stable
190 when excluding individuals with a history of myocardial infarction or stroke at baseline (N=6,847
191 individuals; HR 0.94 per 1-point increase, 95% CI [0.90-0.97], $p = 0.0034$) and when additionally
192 excluding participants with incident myocardial infarction or stroke during follow-up (N=12,305
193 individuals; HR 0.94 per 1-point increase, 95% CI [0.90-0.98], $p = 0.0065$), and when restricting the
194 analysis to participants with a follow-up period > 8 years (N= 190,064 individuals, number of events=
195 204; HR 0.89 per 1-point increase, 95% CI [0.79 to 0.99], $p = 0.039$). In addition, we observed significant
196 associations between the biological score and both early-onset (< 65 years: HR 0.93 per 1-point increase,
197 95% CI [0.86-0.99], $p = 0.037$) and late-onset incident dementia (≥ 65 years: HR 0.91 per 1-point
198 increase, 95% CI [0.87-0.95], $p = 1.65 \times 10^{-5}$). We further stratified participants into four age groups at
199 baseline (40-49 years, 50-59 years, 60-69 years and >69 years). Results of these analyses are available

200 in **Table S10**. While significance is lost in the youngest and oldest age groups due to reduced number
201 of events, the effect is directionally consistent within all age groups. We did not observe differences
202 when stratifying by sex (**Table S11**) or by antihypertensive medication use (**Table S12**). Also,
203 competing risk analyses using Fine-Gray proportional subhazards and cause-specific Cox proportional
204 hazard regression (CSC) showed identical point estimates and confidence intervals for the biological
205 subscore when considering death as a competing risk. Finally, we performed a sensitivity analysis using
206 age as the time variable in the Cox proportional hazards model. Importantly, the results remained
207 unchanged, (HR 0.93 per 1-point increase, 95% CI [0.89-0.96], $p=1.31E-4$) further supporting the
208 robustness of our model.

209

210 **3.2 Individual vascular risk factors and incident dementia**

211 To gain additional insights into the relationship between LS7 and risk of incident dementia, associations
212 with individual components of the L7S score were explored in cubic spline models. In analyses focusing
213 on biological components of L7S, there was a significant (p -value for non-linearity= $1E-4$) non-linear
214 U-shape association between baseline SBP and incident dementia, a significant linear association
215 between higher baseline HbA1c levels and increased risk of incident dementia, and no evidence for an
216 association between baseline LDL cholesterol levels and incident dementia (**Figure 2**). While the
217 composite lifestyle score was not related to dementia risk, there was a significant association between
218 lower BMI and increased risk of incident dementia (HR=0.83 per $5\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ increase, 95% CI [0.78-0.89],
219 $p=0.0022$). Physical activity, smoking, and diet showed non-linear associations (**Figure S2**).

220 To explore the causal effects of individual components of LS7 on risk of dementia, two-sample MR
221 analyses were conducted starting with the biological components of the score. The number of
222 independent genetic variants that were used as instruments for SBP, LDL cholesterol levels and HbA1C
223 levels was 460, 189 and 176, respectively. In the primary IVW MR analyses, genetically elevated SBP
224 was associated with higher risk of incident dementia (OR for 1 SD increase= 1.31 , 95% CI [1.05-1.65],
225 $p=0.013$) (**Figure 3**), whereas there were no significant associations between genetically elevated levels
226 of LDL cholesterol and HbA1c levels, respectively, and incident dementia risk. The effect estimates
227 were consistent when using alternative MR methods (weighted median, contamination mixture, MR-
228 PRESSO) (**Table S13**). In a sensitivity analysis, excluding individuals on antihypertensive medication
229 from our outcome GWAS analysis, the results were directionally consistent, but non-significant (OR for
230 1 SD increase= 1.18 , 95% CI [0.82-1.54], $p=0.12$). The number of independent genetic variants as
231 instruments for smoking, BMI, physical activity, and diet was 126, 941, 3 and 12, respectively. There
232 were no significant associations between smoking, BMI, physical activity or diet in IVW or alternative
233 MR methods (**Table S13**). Scatter plots for the MR results are presented in **Figure S3**. Due to partial
234 overlap in the SBP exposure and the dementia outcome samples, we conducted a sensitivity analysis
235 using effect sizes for the genetic instruments derived from the subsample of the UKB without primary
236 care data available, making the two datasets independent. The results remained significant in this
237 sensitivity analysis (IVW method: OR for 1-SD increment 1.35 , 95%CI [1.03-1.78], $p=0.028$).

238

239 4. DISCUSSION

240 Leveraging data from 230,000 individuals from the UKB and from large-scale genetic consortia, this
241 study aimed to investigate the relationship between midlife CVH as measured with the LS7 score and
242 risk of incident dementia over a 9-year follow-up period. Adherence to the biological component of the
243 LS7 score (blood pressure, blood cholesterol, glycemic status) was associated with a lower risk of
244 dementia during follow-up. Moreover, life-long genetically elevated SBP was associated with a higher
245 risk of incident all-cause dementia, thus supporting a causal effect of elevated BP levels on dementia
246 risk.

247 The current results support the candidacy of blood pressure lowering in midlife as a key strategy for
248 preventing late-life dementia. These results contrast with previous MR studies that found no or even
249 beneficial effects of genetically elevated blood pressure on the risk of Alzheimer's disease [19, 20]. One
250 recent study found no effect of blood pressure on Alzheimer's disease via the protein targets of
251 antihypertensive drugs [36]. However, these studies focused on Alzheimer's disease and not on all-cause
252 dementia as the outcome and used a limited set of genetic instruments (25 and 93, respectively). Hence,
253 these studies do not provide results comparable to those from the current study. Our results support a
254 causal effect of genetically elevated SBP on dementia risk and broadly agree with results from the
255 SPRINT-MIND trial, which found intensive blood pressure lowering to <120mm Hg to be associated
256 with a reduction in the combined risk of mild cognitive impairment and probable dementia [37].
257 Moreover, in a recent meta-analysis of 12 clinical trials [38], blood-pressure lowering was significantly
258 associated with reduced risk of dementia or cognitive impairment. Previous observational studies
259 support these effects of blood pressure to be age-dependent and midlife-specific. In the Whitehall II
260 cohort systolic blood pressure at the age of 50, but not at age 60 or 70 was associated with the incidence
261 of dementia [5]. Similarly, analyses of the Framingham Offspring study suggest that elevated blood
262 pressure at the age of 40-64 years, but not from 65 years onward associates with risk of incident dementia
263 [39]. It is still debated through which mechanisms blood-pressure lowering might influence dementia
264 risk. Two large meta-analyses did not reveal a specific antihypertensive drug class as optimal for
265 preventing cognitive decline [40, 41], while one study showed that overall antihypertensive drug use is
266 beneficial [42]. Our results were confirmed after excluding individuals on antihypertensive medication
267 in our outcome dataset to be directionally consistent, but did not show statistical significance, most
268 likely due to reduced power. On this basis, future large-scale clinical trials should continue exploring
269 the effects of BP lowering in midlife on the risk of incident dementia later in life.

270 Our observational analyses further provide evidence for an association between glycemic status in
271 midlife and risk of dementia. Specifically, there was a linear association between elevated HbA1c levels
272 and incident dementia. The MR analyses did not confirm a causal relationship possibly because of
273 insufficient statistical power. While not significant, the effect in the MR analyses was towards the same
274 direction and of similar magnitude as in the observational analysis. The results further agree with
275 previous cohort studies suggesting strong effects of glucose-related traits on dementia risk [43]. At any
276 rate, the current findings highlight the need for further research on the potential causal role of glycemic
277 traits on incident dementia risk.

278 In contradiction to the negative result of the total lifestyle subscore, we find linear and non-linear
279 associations with individual items of the lifestyle subscore. However, none of these associations could
280 be confirmed in MR analyses, thus suggesting presence of bias due to reverse causation, unmeasured
281 confounding, or weak instruments. For example, the strong association of higher BMI with a decreased
282 dementia risk observed here has been previously reported [4] and is believed to result from reverse
283 causation. Specifically, the association is confounded by weight loss during the preclinical dementia
284 phase causing a harmful exposure to appear protective [4]. Furthermore, the other items of the lifestyle
285 subscore are prone to measurement or recall bias as they are typically ascertained by questionnaires. As
286 opposed to these lifestyle metrics, the individual items of the biological subscore were directly measured
287 in the UKB population and therefore do not suffer from those types of bias. Altogether, our findings

288 raise concerns regarding the use of the composite lifestyle scores in observational studies, given the
289 inconsistent associations of its individual components with the risk of dementia.

290 This study has several strengths. In contrast to a recent study of CVH and incident dementia in the UKB
291 [44], this study incorporated the recently released UKB primary care dataset and data on biomarkers
292 including LDL and HbA1c levels. Both offer distinct advantages over previous analyses in the UKB:
293 The inclusion of primary care data added 1,075 dementia events to the analysis (>50% of total dementia
294 cases) that would remain undetected by hospital in-patient records or death-records. Dementia diagnoses
295 derived from hospital in-patient and death records represent a different case mix. Indeed, in a subset of
296 the UKB the proportion of dementia cases diagnosed as AD was 31% of hospital admission codes
297 compared to 43% of primary care codes, which is closer to published figures for the general population
298 [25, 45]. Thus, the combined sample should be more representative of all-cause dementia in the UK
299 general population. Direct measurements of circulating LDL cholesterol and HbA1C levels in the UKB
300 enabled us to derive the LS7 and biological scores in the same cohort, whereas previous studies [44]
301 suffered from incomplete assessment of individual items of the LS7. The use of observational analyses
302 and MR both have advantages: The observational analyses enabled us to integrate individual
303 components into composite scores (LS7 and subscores) and to investigate non-linear relationships
304 between individual components of the LS7 score, while the use of MR enabled inferences on causal
305 relationships between individual components of the LS7 score and dementia risk. Indeed, relationships
306 of items included in the LS7 with dementia are in some instances not linear or even go in opposite
307 directions.

308 This study also has limitations. First, because of the short follow-up period the number of incident
309 dementia events is relatively small, leading to imprecise effect estimates in MR analyses because of
310 reduced power in the GWAS analysis. Second, primary care data in the UKB have so far only been
311 released for roughly half of the participants. This confined the analyses to half the dataset thus limiting
312 power. Third, participants in the UKB are primarily of white British origin. Consequently, findings
313 might not be generalizable to other ethnicities or populations. Moreover, UK Biobank participants are
314 not representative of the general population and hence cannot be used to provide representative disease
315 prevalence and incidence rates. However, valid assessment of exposure-disease relationships are
316 nonetheless widely generalizable and do not require participants to be representative of the population
317 at large. Fourth, dementia diagnoses were obtained from registry-based data and not through detailed
318 neuropsychological assessments. While the overall accuracy of obtaining dementia diagnoses via
319 registries is good [25], misclassification of some study participants remains a possibility. While there is
320 evidence for a relatively low false-positive rate, the rate of false-negatives still is largely unknown [25].
321 Finally, although MR analyses for most of the vascular risk factors were based on a sufficient number
322 of genetic variants, the number of genetic instruments associated with physical activity and diet was
323 relatively small, thus limiting statistical power in these analyses. In conclusion, midlife adherence to the
324 AHA L7S recommendations regarding biological risk factors (hypertension, hypercholesterolemia,
325 diabetes) was associated with a lower risk of incident dementia. Genetically elevated blood pressure was
326 further associated with a lower risk of dementia. These findings support the efficacy of blood-pressure
327 lowering strategies for reducing dementia burden and call for additional clinical trials.

328

329 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

330 *Author Contributions:*

331 Drs Malik and Georgakis had full access to all of the data in the study and take responsibility for the
332 integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. Drs Malik and Georgakis contributed equally.

333 R.M., M.K.G. and M.D. designed the study

334 All authors acquired data, analyzed data, or contributed to interpretation of data

335 R.M., M.K.G. and M.D drafted the manuscript

336 All authors provided critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content

337 R.M., M.K.G. and J.N. performed statistical analysis

338 *Declarations of interest:* none

339 *Funding/Support:*

340 This project has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation
341 programme (No 666881), SVDs@target (to M. D.) and No 667375, CoSTREAM (to M. D.); the DFG
342 as part of the Munich Cluster for Systems Neurology (EXC 2145 SyNergy – ID 390857198) and the
343 CRC 1123 (B3) (to M. D.); the Corona Foundation (to M. D.); the Fondation Leducq (Transatlantic
344 Network of Excellence on the Pathogenesis of Small Vessel Disease of the Brain) (to M. D.). S. S. is
345 funded by NIH grants R01 AG054076, AG49607, U01 AG052409, AG049505 and NS017950. K. R. is
346 supported by HDR UK fellowship MR/S004130/1. M.K.G.r eceived funding in form of a scholarship
347 from the Onassis Foundation.

348 *Role of the Funder/Sponsor:*

349 The funders had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and
350 interpretation of the data; preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript; and decision to submit the
351 manuscript for publication.

352

353 **REFERENCES**

354

- 355 [1] Livingston G, Sommerlad A, Orgeta V, Costafreda SG, Huntley J, Ames D, et al. Dementia
356 prevention, intervention, and care. *Lancet*. 2017;390:2673-734.
- 357 [2] G. B. D. Dementia Collaborators. Global, regional, and national burden of Alzheimer's disease and
358 other dementias, 1990-2016: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2016.
359 *Lancet Neurol*. 2019;18:88-106.
- 360 [3] Livingston G, Huntley J, Sommerlad A, Ames D, Ballard C, Banerjee S, et al. Dementia
361 prevention, intervention, and care: 2020 report of the Lancet Commission. *Lancet*. 2020;396:413-46.
- 362 [4] Kivimaki M, Luukkonen R, Batty GD, Ferrie JE, Pentti J, Nyberg ST, et al. Body mass index and
363 risk of dementia: Analysis of individual-level data from 1.3 million individuals. *Alzheimers Dement*.
364 2018;14:601-9.
- 365 [5] Abell JG, Kivimaki M, Dugravot A, Tabak AG, Fayosse A, Shipley M, et al. Association between
366 systolic blood pressure and dementia in the Whitehall II cohort study: role of age, duration, and
367 threshold used to define hypertension. *Eur Heart J*. 2018;39:3119-25.
- 368 [6] Lloyd-Jones DM, Hong Y, Labarthe D, Mozaffarian D, Appel LJ, Van Horn L, et al. Defining and
369 setting national goals for cardiovascular health promotion and disease reduction: the American Heart
370 Association's strategic Impact Goal through 2020 and beyond. *Circulation*. 2010;121:586-613.
- 371 [7] Sabia S, Fayosse A, Dumurgier J, Schnitzler A, Empana JP, Ebmeier KP, et al. Association of
372 ideal cardiovascular health at age 50 with incidence of dementia: 25 year follow-up of Whitehall II
373 cohort study. *BMJ*. 2019;366:l4414.
- 374 [8] Gorelick PB, Furie KL, Iadecola C, Smith EE, Waddy SP, Lloyd-Jones DM, et al. Defining
375 Optimal Brain Health in Adults: A Presidential Advisory From the American Heart
376 Association/American Stroke Association. *Stroke*. 2017;48:e284-e303.
- 377 [9] Fretts AM, Howard BV, McKnight B, Duncan GE, Beresford SA, Mete M, et al. Life's Simple 7
378 and incidence of diabetes among American Indians: the Strong Heart Family Study. *Diabetes Care*.
379 2014;37:2240-5.
- 380 [10] Mok Y, Sang Y, Ballew SH, Rebholz CM, Rosamond WD, Heiss G, et al. American Heart
381 Association's Life's Simple 7 at Middle Age and Prognosis After Myocardial Infarction in Later Life. *J*
382 *Am Heart Assoc*. 2018;7.
- 383 [11] Kulshreshtha A, Vaccarino V, Judd SE, Howard VJ, McClellan WM, Muntner P, et al. Life's
384 Simple 7 and risk of incident stroke: the reasons for geographic and racial differences in stroke study.
385 *Stroke*. 2013;44:1909-14.
- 386 [12] Pase MP, Beiser A, Enserro D, Xanthakis V, Aparicio H, Satizabal CL, et al. Association of Ideal
387 Cardiovascular Health With Vascular Brain Injury and Incident Dementia. *Stroke*. 2016;47:1201-6.
- 388 [13] Hessler JB, Ander KH, Bronner M, Etgen T, Forstl H, Poppert H, et al. Predicting dementia in
389 primary care patients with a cardiovascular health metric: a prospective population-based study. *BMC*
390 *Neurol*. 2016;16:116.
- 391 [14] Samieri C, Perier MC, Gaye B, Proust-Lima C, Helmer C, Dartigues JF, et al. Association of
392 Cardiovascular Health Level in Older Age With Cognitive Decline and Incident Dementia. *JAMA*.
393 2018;320:657-64.
- 394 [15] Gardener H, Wright CB, Dong C, Cheung K, DeRosa J, Nannery M, et al. Ideal Cardiovascular
395 Health and Cognitive Aging in the Northern Manhattan Study. *J Am Heart Assoc*. 2016;5:e002731.
- 396 [16] Holmes MV, Ala-Korpela M, Smith GD. Mendelian randomization in cardiometabolic disease:
397 challenges in evaluating causality. *Nature reviews Cardiology*. 2017;14:577-90.
- 398 [17] Georgakis MK, Gill D, Rannikmae K, Traylor M, Anderson CD, Lee JM, et al. Genetically
399 Determined Levels of Circulating Cytokines and Risk of Stroke. *Circulation*. 2019;139:256-68.
- 400 [18] O'Donnell CJ, Sabatine MS. Opportunities and Challenges in Mendelian Randomization Studies
401 to Guide Trial Design. *JAMA Cardiol*. 2018;3:967.
- 402 [19] Larsson SC, Traylor M, Malik R, Dichgans M, Burgess S, Markus HS, et al. Modifiable pathways
403 in Alzheimer's disease: Mendelian randomisation analysis. *BMJ*. 2017;359:j5375.
- 404 [20] Ostergaard SD, Mukherjee S, Sharp SJ, Proitsi P, Lotta LA, Day F, et al. Associations between
405 Potentially Modifiable Risk Factors and Alzheimer Disease: A Mendelian Randomization Study.
406 *PLoS Med*. 2015;12:e1001841; discussion e.

407 [21] McKhann GM, Knopman DS, Chertkow H, Hyman BT, Jack CR, Jr., Kawas CH, et al. The
408 diagnosis of dementia due to Alzheimer's disease: recommendations from the National Institute on
409 Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease.
410 *Alzheimers Dement.* 2011;7:263-9.

411 [22] Grace C, Clarke R, Goel A, Farrall M, Watkins H, Hopewell JC. Lack of genetic support for
412 shared aetiology of Coronary Artery Disease and Late-onset Alzheimer's disease. *Sci Rep.*
413 2018;8:7102.

414 [23] Bycroft C, Freeman C, Petkova D, Band G, Elliott LT, Sharp K, et al. The UK Biobank resource
415 with deep phenotyping and genomic data. *Nature.* 2018;562:203-9.

416 [24] Wilkinson T, Ly A, Schnier C, Rannikmae K, Bush K, Brayne C, et al. Identifying dementia
417 cases with routinely collected health data: A systematic review. *Alzheimers Dement.* 2018;14:1038-
418 51.

419 [25] Wilkinson T, Schnier C, Bush K, Rannikmae K, Henshall DE, Lerpiniere C, et al. Identifying
420 dementia outcomes in UK Biobank: a validation study of primary care, hospital admissions and
421 mortality data. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 2019;34:557-65.

422 [26] Fine JP, Gray RJ. A Proportional Hazards Model for the Subdistribution of a Competing Risk.
423 *Journal of the American Statistical Association.* 1999;94:496-509.

424 [27] Wootton RE, Richmond RC, Stuijzand BG, Lawn RB, Sallis HM, Taylor GMJ, et al. Evidence
425 for causal effects of lifetime smoking on risk for depression and schizophrenia: a Mendelian
426 randomisation study. *Psychol Med.* 2019:1-9.

427 [28] Mozaffarian D. Dietary and Policy Priorities for Cardiovascular Disease, Diabetes, and Obesity:
428 A Comprehensive Review. *Circulation.* 2016;133:187-225.

429 [29] Said MA, Verweij N, van der Harst P. Associations of Combined Genetic and Lifestyle Risks
430 With Incident Cardiovascular Disease and Diabetes in the UK Biobank Study. *JAMA Cardiol.*
431 2018;3:693-702.

432 [30] Burgess S, Labrecque JA. Mendelian randomization with a binary exposure variable:
433 interpretation and presentation of causal estimates. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 2018;33:947-52.

434 [31] Burgess S, Butterworth A, Thompson SG. Mendelian randomization analysis with multiple
435 genetic variants using summarized data. *Genet Epidemiol.* 2013;37:658-65.

436 [32] Bowden J, Hemani G, Davey Smith G. Invited Commentary: Detecting Individual and Global
437 Horizontal Pleiotropy in Mendelian Randomization-A Job for the Humble Heterogeneity Statistic?
438 *Am J Epidemiol.* 2018;187:2681-5.

439 [33] Hartwig FP, Davey Smith G, Bowden J. Robust inference in summary data Mendelian
440 randomization via the zero modal pleiotropy assumption. *Int J Epidemiol.* 2017;46:1985-98.

441 [34] Burgess S, Foley CN, Allara E, Staley JR, Howson JM. A robust and efficient method for
442 Mendelian randomization with hundreds of genetic variants: unravelling mechanisms linking HDL-
443 cholesterol and coronary heart disease. *bioRxiv (Pre-print).* 2019.

444 [35] Verbanck M, Chen CY, Neale B, Do R. Detection of widespread horizontal pleiotropy in causal
445 relationships inferred from Mendelian randomization between complex traits and diseases. *Nat Genet.*
446 2018;50:693-8.

447 [36] Walker VM, Kehoe PG, Martin RM, Davies NM. Repurposing antihypertensive drugs for the
448 prevention of Alzheimer's disease: a Mendelian randomization study. *Int J Epidemiol.* 2020;49:1132-
449 40.

450 [37] Sprint Mind Investigators for the SPRINT Research Group, Williamson JD, Pajewski NM,
451 Auchus AP, Bryan RN, Chelune G, et al. Effect of Intensive vs Standard Blood Pressure Control on
452 Probable Dementia: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA.* 2019;321:553-61.

453 [38] Hughes D, Judge C, Murphy R, Loughlin E, Costello M, Whiteley W, et al. Association of Blood
454 Pressure Lowering With Incident Dementia or Cognitive Impairment: A Systematic Review and Meta-
455 analysis. *JAMA.* 2020;323:1934-44.

456 [39] McGrath ER, Beiser AS, DeCarli C, Plourde KL, Vasan RS, Greenberg SM, et al. Blood pressure
457 from mid- to late life and risk of incident dementia. *Neurology.* 2017;89:2447-54.

458 [40] Peters R, Yasar S, Anderson CS, Andrews S, Antikainen R, Arima H, et al. Investigation of
459 antihypertensive class, dementia, and cognitive decline: A meta-analysis. *Neurology.* 2020;94:e267-
460 e81.

461 [41] Ding J, Davis-Plourde KL, Sedaghat S, Tully PJ, Wang W, Phillips C, et al. Antihypertensive
462 medications and risk for incident dementia and Alzheimer's disease: a meta-analysis of individual
463 participant data from prospective cohort studies. *Lancet Neurol.* 2020;19:61-70.
464 [42] Xu G, Bai F, Lin X, Wang Q, Wu Q, Sun S, et al. Association between Antihypertensive Drug
465 Use and the Incidence of Cognitive Decline and Dementia: A Meta-Analysis of Prospective Cohort
466 Studies. *Biomed Res Int.* 2017;2017:4368474.
467 [43] Crane PK, Walker R, Hubbard RA, Li G, Nathan DM, Zheng H, et al. Glucose levels and risk of
468 dementia. *N Engl J Med.* 2013;369:540-8.
469 [44] Lourida I, Hannon E, Littlejohns TJ, Langa KM, Hypponen E, Kuzma E, et al. Association of
470 Lifestyle and Genetic Risk With Incidence of Dementia. *JAMA.* 2019.
471 [45] Goodman RA, Lochner KA, Thambisetty M, Wingo TS, Posner SF, Ling SM. Prevalence of
472 dementia subtypes in United States Medicare fee-for-service beneficiaries, 2011-2013. *Alzheimers*
473 *Dement.* 2017;13:28-37.
474

475 **TABLES**

476

477

478 **Table 1.** Baseline characteristics of study participants by incident dementia status. P-values are
 479 derived using either student's t-test, Wilcoxon rank sum test or Chi-square test

Variables	Incident dementia (N=2,143)	No incident dementia (N=227,833)	p-value
Age at baseline, mean (SD), y	63.2 (5.7)	56.4 (8.1)	< 0.001
Sex, N (%)			
Male	1,126 (52.5)	103,120 (45.3)	< 0.001
Female	1,017 (47.5)	124,713 (54.7)	
Education, N (%) ^a			
Low	1,708 (79.7)	155,072 (68.1)	< 0.001
High	435 (20.3)	72,761 (31.9)	
Socioeconomic status, N (%) ^b			
Quintile 1	405 (18.9)	45,115 (19.8)	< 0.001
Quintile 2-4	1,194 (55.7)	138,382 (60.7)	
Quintile 5	544 (25.4)	43,997 (19.3)	
Smoking status			
Never smoked	1,068 (49.8)	125,220 (55.0)	< 0.001
Former smoker	845 (39.4)	78,502 (34.5)	
Current smoker	230 (10.7)	24,111 (10.6)	
BMI, mean (SD), kg/m ²	27.6 (4.8)	27.5 (4.8)	0.28
Physical activity, median (IQR), h/week	5 (5)	5 (6)	0.025
Diet score, mean (SD) ^c	4.4 (1.5)	4.2 (1.5)	< 0.001
SBP, mean (SD), mmHg	143.4 (20.3)	138.2 (18.7)	< 0.001
DBP, mean (SD), mmHg	81.9 (10.3)	82.4 (10.2)	0.025
Antihypertensive medications, N (%)	777 (36.3)	47,456 (20.8)	< 0.001
HbA1c, median (IQR), %	5.5 (5.2-5.8)	5.4 (5.1-5.6)	< 0.001
Glucose-lowering medications, N (%)	88 (4.1)	2,527 (1.1)	< 0.001
LDL-C, mean (SD), mg/dl	134.0 (37.1)	137.8 (33.8)	< 0.001
Lipid-modifying medications, N (%)	728 (33.9)	39,845 (17.5)	< 0.001

480 ^a Education categorized as higher (college/university degree or other professional qualification) or lower

481 ^b Socioeconomic status quintiles according to Townsend deprivation index combining information on social class,
 482 employment, car availability and housing

483 ^c Healthy diet score according to Mozaffarian[28] and Said et al.[29]; higher scores indicate adherence to a healthier diet for
 484 prevention of cardiovascular disease.

485 Abbreviations: SD, standard deviation; BMI, body mass index; IQR, inter quartile range; SBP, systolic blood pressure; DBP,
 486 diastolic blood pressure; LDL-C, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol.

487

488 **Table 2.** Risk for incident dementia according to the Life's simple 7 score and its lifestyle and
 489 biological subscales.

Predictor	Number of incident dementia events / Number of participants	HR for incident dementia	95% Confidence Intervals	p-value
unadjusted				
Life's simple 7 score (0-14; 1-point increment)		0.89	0.88-0.91	<2e-16
0-4	130/10,018	1.00	(reference)	
5-9	1,624/155,677	0.80	0.68-0.96	0.019
10-14	389/62,138	0.49	0.40-0.59	1.2x10⁻¹²
Biological score (0-6; 1-point increment)		0.74	0.72-0.77	<2e-16
0-1	266/14,391	1.00	(reference)	
2-3	1,257/112,285	0.61	0.53-0.69	1.5x10⁻¹³
4-6	620/101,157	0.33	0.29-0.38	<2e-16
Lifestyle score (0-8; 1-point increment)		0.99	0.96-1.02	0.406
0-2	144/15,187	1.00	(reference)	
3-5	1,319/135,669	1.03	0.87-1.22	0.741
6-8	680/76,977	0.94	0.78-1.12	0.490
Adjusted for sex, age at baseline, education, deprivation index and the lifestyle score (for biological) and biological score (for lifestyle)				
Life's simple 7 score (0-14; 1-point increment)		0.98	0.96-1.00	0.081
0-4	130/10,018	1.00	(reference)	
5-9	1,624/155,677	0.90	0.76-1.08	0.270
10-14	389/62,138	0.86	0.71-1.06	0.155
Biological score (0-6; 1-point increment)		0.93	0.89-0.96	8.5x10⁻⁵
0-1	266/14,391	1.00	(reference)	
2-3	1,257/112,285	0.73	0.63-0.83	1.2x10⁻⁶
4-6	620/101,157	0.67	0.58-0.76	1.0x10⁻⁷
Lifestyle score (0-8; 1-point increment)		1.01	0.98-1.04	0.525
0-2	144/15,187	1.00	(reference)	
3-5	1,319/135,669	1.01	0.85-1.20	0.872
6-8	680/76,977	0.98	0.81-1.18	0.807

490 The results are derived from Cox proportional hazard regression models either unadjusted or adjusted for sex, age at baseline,
 491 education, deprivation index and the lifestyle score (for biological) and biological score (for lifestyle) as covariates.

492 **Bold** indicates statistical significance (p-value <0.05).

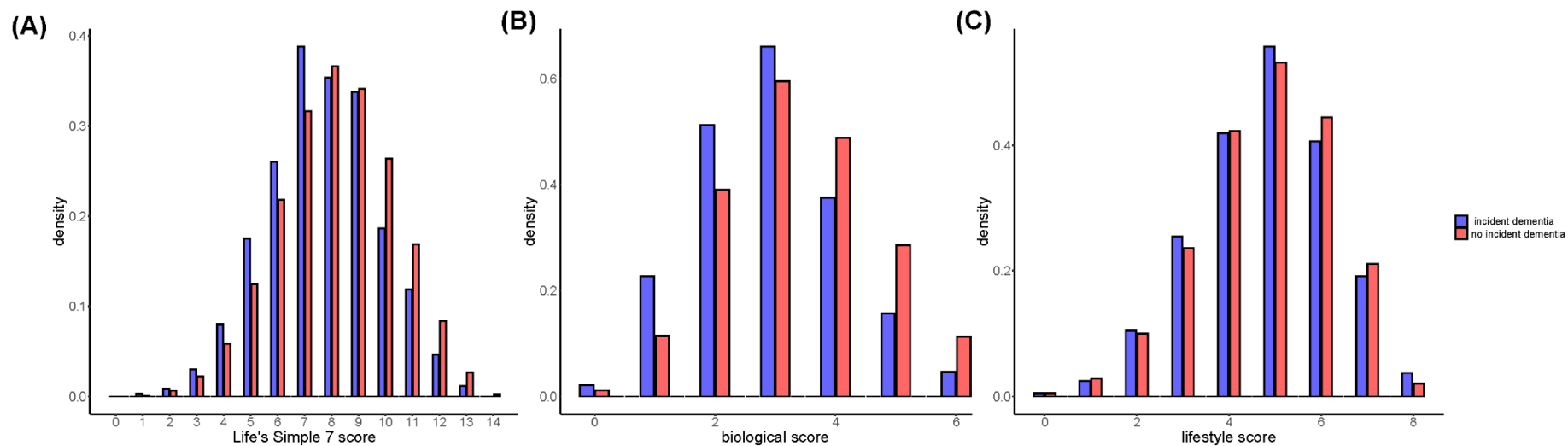
493

494 **FIGURES:**

495

496

Figure 1



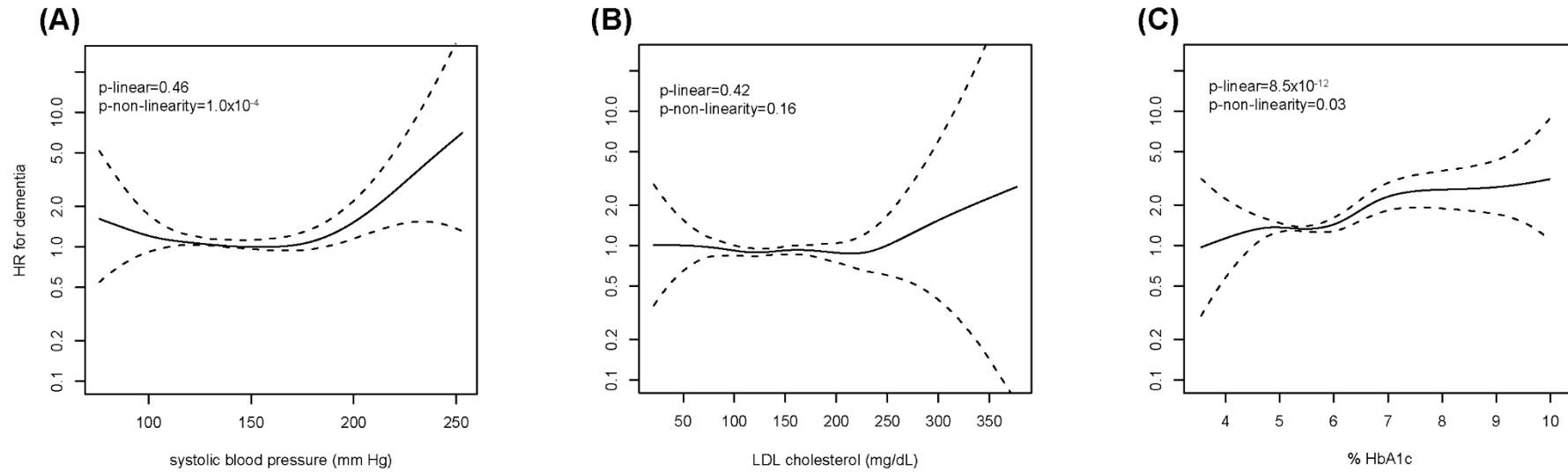
497

498 **Fig 1.** Distributions of (a) the Life's simple 7 score, (b) the biological score, and (c) the lifestyle score at baseline, by incident dementia status. The y-axis
499 represents the probability density function for the kernel density estimation.

500

501

Figure 2

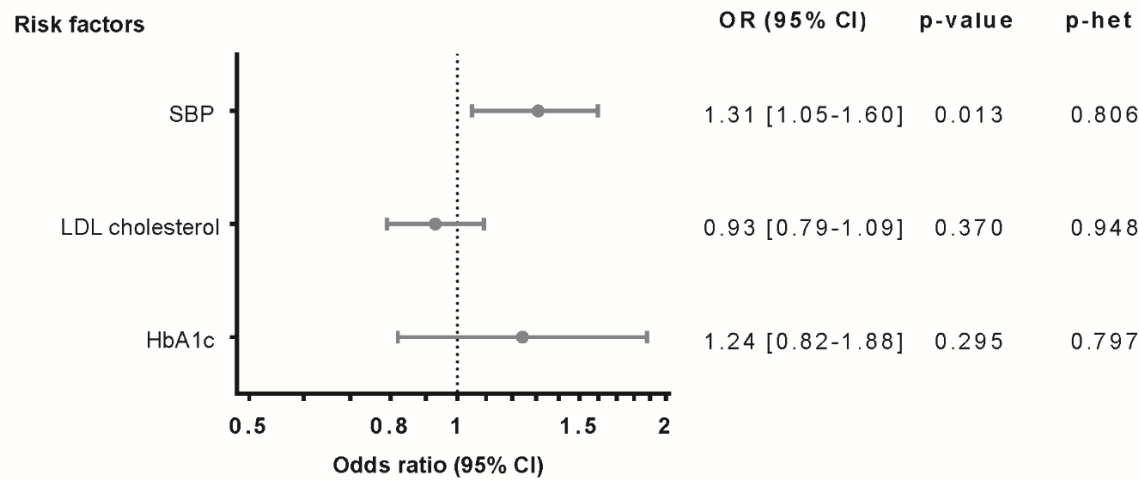


502

503 **Fig 2.** Risk for incident dementia according to individual items of the biological score (systolic blood pressure, LDL cholesterol, HbA1c levels) of Life's
504 simple 7 using restricted cubic spline functions in Cox proportional hazard regression models. Median scores were used as a references. The model is adjusted
505 for sex, age at baseline, education, deprivation index and the lifestyle scale score as covariates. Four knots were used in the calculation. p-linear refers to the
506 linear association between the variable and the risk of dementia; p-non-linearity refers to the comparisons of the associations observed across the different
507 splines in the non-linear cubic spline models. Dotted lines represent the 95% confidence intervals. Abbreviations. HR, hazard ratio; LDL, low-density
508 lipoprotein; HbA1c, glycated hemoglobin A1c.

509

Figure 3



510

511

512 **Fig 3.** Mendelian Randomization associations between genetic predisposition to individual items of the biological score (SBP, LDL cholesterol, HbA1c) of
 513 Life’s simple 7 and risk of incident dementia. Results are derived from random-effects inverse-variance weighted analyses and refer to 1 SD increment of
 514 the reported variables. Bars represent the 95% confidence intervals. The numbers of genetics variants included in the analyses were 460 for SBP, 189 for
 515 LDL cholesterol, and 176 for HbA1c. Variants in the APOE region were excluded from the analysis for LDL cholesterol. Variants related to erythrocyte
 516 traits were excluded from the analysis for HbA1c. P-het refers to the p-value from the Cochran’s Q statistic for heterogeneity. Abbreviations. SBP, systolic
 517 blood pressure; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; HbA1c, glycated hemoglobin A1c.

518

519