Blood pressure variability compromises vascular function in middle-aged mice.

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ABSTRACT

Blood pressure variability (BPV) has emerged as a significant risk factor for cognitive decline and dementia, independent of alterations in average blood pressure (BP). However, the impact of large BP fluctuations on neurovascular function remains poorly understood. In this study, we developed a novel murine model of BPV in middle-aged mice using intermittent Angiotensin II infusions. Radio telemetry confirmed that 24-hr BP averages in BPV mice remained comparable to controls, demonstrating BPV in the absence of hypertension. Chronic (20-25 days) BPV resulted in a blunted bradycardic response and cognitive deficits. Two-photon imaging revealed heightened pressure-evoked constrictions (myogenic response) in parenchymal arterioles of BPV mice. While sensory stimulus-evoked dilations (neurovascular coupling) were amplified at higher BP levels in control mice, this pressure-dependent effect was abolished in BPV mice. Our findings indicate that chronic BP fluctuations impair vascular function within the neurovascular complex and contribute to cognitive decline, emphasizing BPV as a critical factor in brain health.

INTRODUCTION

Dementia, the 7th leading global cause of mortality, presents as the predominant neurodegenerative complication in the elderly population. Notably, hypertension emerges as a primary risk factor for dementia[1,2]. Blood pressure (BP) regulation involves a complex interplay of central and peripheral mechanisms, finely attuned to acute and chronic stressors in maintaining physiological ranges. Perturbations in vascular function and structure (e.g., reactivity, vascular stiffness[3]), alterations in baroreflex sensitivity[4], and enhanced sympathetic activation[5] are recognized factors that disrupt BP balance. Blood pressure variability (BPV) (an index of BP *fluctuation or variation*), particularly in midlife, increases the risk for cognitive decline[6], end-organ damage[7], and cardiovascular events[7,8]. Increased BPV also serves as an early predictor of hypertension[9]. BPV delineates fluctuations across various measurement periods from very short-term (beat-to-beat) to long-term (months or years[10]).

Given evidence that elevated BPV can precede hypertension[11], a modifiable risk factor in the setting of vascular cognitive impairment and dementia, understanding the drivers and cellular targets of BPV is essential. Unlike hypertension, BP fluctuations often elude detection in screening practices conducted in clinical settings, which rely on singular or averaged BP measurements[12]. The absence of a gold standard for BPV indexing[13] and limited insights into the magnitude and frequencies of impactful BP fluctuations in disease conditions further compound this issue. Additionally, the absence of suitable animal models has limited the understanding of how this overlooked variable may impact brain health. In this study, we sought to establish an innovative murine model of BPV and to interrogate the impact of large BP fluctuations on cardiovascular and neurovascular outcomes.

Cerebral blood flow (CBF) is tightly regulated by diverse signaling processes, including the interaction of cellular elements comprising the neurovascular complex, which include endothelial cells, vascular smooth muscle cells, pericytes, astrocytes, neurons, and microglia[14,15]. Mechanisms governing CBF operate under both steady-state conditions (e.g., cerebral autoregulation (CA), humoral processes, chemoregulation) and in response to local neuronal activity (e.g., neurovascular coupling (NVC))[16]. Evidence suggests that sustained hypertension adversely affects the functional integrity of the neurovascular complex[17-19], compromises cerebral perfusion[17,18] and contributes to cognitive decline[18]. However, the impact of large BP fluctuations on steady-state or activity-evoked CBF changes remains poorly understood.

Chronic hypertension leads to adaptive processes (e.g., vascular remodeling[20,21]) and a rightward

shift in the cerebral autoregulation (CA) curve[22], heightening vulnerability to ischemia at low BP

while shielding the brain from hyperperfusion at high pressure. In humans, hypertension and BPV

have been associated with white matter hyperintensities[23-25] and microbleeds[26-28]. Intriguingly, the

impact of BPV (prior to hypertension onset) on cerebrovascular function and neurovascular

outputs has received little attention.

Using an innovative murine model of BPV, in the absence of overt hypertension, combined with

in vivo two-photon imaging, we show that chronic BP fluctuations lead to microvascular

dysfunction (e.g., enhanced parenchymal arteriole myogenic responses) and a blunted NVC

response. In addition, mice subjected to chronic BPV showed poor cognitive performance. These

findings underscore the pivotal role of dysregulated BP events in brain health and function.

METHODS

Animals

All experiments were conducted in middle-aged (12-15-month-old) male C57BL6 mice (Jackson

Laboratories) under protocols approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of

Augusta University (AU). Mice were housed at 20-22°C under a 12hr:12hr light-dark cycle with *ad*

libitum access to food and water. Female mice were not included in the present study due to high

post-surgery mortality observed in 12-14-month-old mice following complex procedures. To

minimized confounding effects of differential survival and to establish foundational data for this

model, we restricted the investigation to male mice.

Craniotomy surgery for chronic window

Surgeries were conducted using the aseptic technique. Animals were injected with

dexamethasone and meloxicam 2-4 hours before surgery to prevent edema and/or inflammation.

General anesthesia was induced with isoflurane (2%) and following loss of reflex, hair was

removed from the scalp and the mouse was transferred to a sterile field. A single injection of

ketamine/dexdomitor (60 mg/kg/0.5mg/kg) was administered to maintain anesthesia in the sterile

field. The scalp was scrubbed with betadine/alcohol (3 times each, alternating). A scalp incision

was made (~1 cm). A small aluminum head holder (300 mg) was fixed to the skull using

cyanoacrylate glue followed by dental cement and a small craniotomy opened over the cortex.

The bone flap was removed. A glass coverslip (3 mm) was glued to a 4 mm coverslip and placed

into the craniotomy with the inner glass touching the cortex. The edges of the coverslip were then

sealed with cyanoacrylate glue followed by dental cement covering everything including the
wound margins.

Telemetry and iPrecio pump implantation surgery

Following a 3-week recovery period after craniotomy surgery, mice were implanted with a
programmable pump (iPrecio, SMP-310R) and a biotelemetry transmitter device (PA-C10, Data
Science International). Mice underwent brief anesthesia in a small chamber using 5% isoflurane
for induction, followed by maintenance of anesthesia via a nose mask with 1.5-2% isoflurane. The
neck fur was carefully clipped on both the anterior and posterior sides. Subsequently, mice were
placed in a sterile field in a ventrally recumbent position, and a 1.5 to 2 cm horizontal incision was
made. The pump and biotelemetry transmitter device were then implanted subcutaneously. The
pump catheter was trimmed to 0.5 cm for subcutaneous drug delivery, while the telemeter
catheter was tunneled subcutaneously over the shoulder, with its tip positioned within the left
carotid artery. Closure of incisions was performed using 5-0 sutures, after which the mice were
gradually brought out of anesthesia. It is important to note that due to the complexity of the
surgeries involved, mice used for behavioral studies were not implanted with a telemetry catheter
or cranial window. However, these mice were individually housed to simulate the conditions of
the telemetry cohort.

Blood pressure assessment and BPV induction

After recovery from surgery, mice were housed individually in standard mouse cages under the
conditions described above and assigned to a control or experimental BPV group. During this
recovery period (~7 days), both groups were infused with saline to determine baseline
cardiovascular parameters. Blood pressure signals encompassing mean arterial pressure (MAP),
systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP), heart rate (HR), and pulse
pressure (PP) (determined from the difference between the SBP and DBP) were continuously
sampled at 250 Hz for 10 seconds and collected every 30 seconds, for 24 hours per day. Once a
baseline MAP was established, the saline in the infusion pump (in the BPV group) was substituted
with angiotensin II (Ang II, Sigma Aldrich, A9525) and administered intermittently at a calculated
dose of 3.1 µg/hour (every 3-4 hours) for 25 days.

Controls receiving Ang II: To facilitate between-group comparisons (control vs BPV), a cohort of
control mice were subjected to the same pump infusion parameters as BPV mice but for shorter
durations receiving Ang II infusions on days 3-5 and, then again, on days 21-25 of the
experimental protocol. This paradigm was used for experiments assessing pressure-evoked

responses, including bradycardic reflex, myogenic response, and functional hyperemia at high
BP.

BPV induction with norepinephrine: To validate the intermittent infusion protocol as an effective
method for inducing significant BPV and not limited to Ang II, a separate cohort of mice received
norepinephrine (NE, 45 µg/kg/min) using the same subcutaneous delivery protocol (2 µL every 4
hours).

Two-photon imaging
On the day of two-photon imaging acquisition, a mouse was anesthetized with chlorprothixene
(0.04 cc) and a low dose of isoflurane (≤0.8%); a protocol to mildly sedate mice[29]. A retro-orbital
injection of Texas red (70kDa dextran, 5% [wt/vol] in saline, 40 µl) was administered to label blood
vessels. The mouse was head-fixed and a picospritzer (positioned on the contralateral
hemisphere intended for imaging) was used to deliver a puff of air for whisker stimulation (WS) at
a rate of 10 Hz for 20 seconds repeated six to eight times with ~ 90-second delay between each
WS during an imaging session. Imaging sessions were conducted 106 ± 3.6 µm below the brain's
surface while pump infusion was *off* (low BP period) and again during Ang II infusions (high BP
period). Images were collected at a rate of 3.75 frames/second.

Behavioral studies
Behavioral tasks were performed by an experimenter at the AU small animal behavioral core
(SABC), who was blinded to the experimental protocol. BPV mice were subjected to behavioral
tests at two time points. First, during the saline infusion period, with observations considered as
baseline, and second, 25-26 days post-Ang II infusions. About 30 minutes before training and
testing, animals were brought to the testing room to acclimate. Animals remained in the laboratory
for 15 minutes following study completion. To eliminate olfactory cues, animal droppings were
removed, and the space and objects were cleaned (dilute 50% (vol/vol) ethanol solution) between
sessions where appropriate.

Novel object recognition (NOR) task. Animal behavior was assessed using the previously
described NOR task procedure[30]. Animals were acclimated and then familiarized with an opaque
plastic chamber (78.7 cm x 39.4 cm x 31.7 cm) containing bedding for 10 minutes. The next day,
a training session involved animals exploring two identical objects for 10 minutes before returning
to their home cages. Object recognition was assessed one hour later by placing an animal in the
NOR apparatus with a familiar object and a new or novel object for 10 minutes. The objects'

positions and roles (familiar or novel) were randomly assigned. Objects were positioned about 40

cm apart, 19.3 cm from the two short walls and 19.3 cm from the two long walls of the chamber.

Exploration of an object was defined as direct interaction with nostrils or head position towards

the object at a distance ≤ 2 cm. For data inclusion, a mouse had to explore an object for at least

4 seconds and spend a minimum of 10 seconds of total object exploration. Recognition index was

calculated using the formula: $Recognition\ Index = \frac{(time\ spent\ at\ novel\ object)}{(time\ spent\ at\ novel+familiar\ objects)}$. The discrimination

index was calculated as: $Discrimination\ Ratio = \frac{(time\ spent\ at\ novel-familiar\ object)}{(time\ spent\ at\ novel+familiar\ objects)}$. The one-hour delay for

testing was determined based on earlier NOR tests assessing the cohort's recognition capacity

at one, four, and 24-hour delays. The animals exhibited normal recognition capacity with a one-

hour delay but failed at 4- and 24-hour delays. Hence, the one-hour delay was selected for

subsequent tests.

Y-maze. Y-maze tasks were performed twenty-four hours after NOR tasks. The Y-maze consisted

of three arms (35.4 cm long, 9.9 cm wide with a height of 13.8 cm). Spontaneous alternation

behavior was assessed by randomly placing mice in one of the three arms and allowed to explore

for 10 minutes. Arm entries were visually scored into a series where a triplet set of arm entries

constituted an alternation. An alternation was defined as successive consecutive entries into three

different arms, and maximum alternations as the total number of arm entries minus 2. Percent

alternation was calculated as the proportion of true alternations out of maximum alternations ((#

of true alternations/# of maximum alternations) x 100).

Data analysis.

Two-day averaged values of 24-hour or 12-hour (active and inactive period) BP variables were

compared to a baseline phase corresponding to saline infusion (~ 5 days). BPV was calculated

using the average real variability (ARV) index $(ARV = \frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{K=1}^{N-1} x|BP_{K+1} - BP_K|)$

where K is the order of measurements and N denotes the number of BP readings. Absolute BP

values were extracted every 15 minutes and averaged for the hour. The coefficient of variation

(CV) was also used to calculate BPV. CV was calculated as the ratio of the standard deviation of

hourly BP averages to the 24-hour BP average $(CV = \frac{Standard\ Deviation\ (Hourly\ BP\ Average)}{24\ Hour\ BP\ Average})$. Similar

to BP variables, two-day averages of 24-hour and 12-hour ARV and CV were compared to the

average value of the last 5 days during the baseline phase. Parenchymal arteriole diameter

responses to changes in MAP (myogenic responses) and whisker stimulation were analyzed

using MatLab and ImageJ[31,32]. Simple linear regression determined from the relationship of SBP

and HR assessed bradycardic responses; MAP and arteriole diameter changes assessed

myogenic reactivity. For neurovascular coupling experiments, the baseline was defined as 30

frames before stimulus onset. The stimulus-response comprised 100 frames encompassing the

20-second stimulus and the first 6 seconds post-stimulus. Six to eight WS events were averaged

for each run and responses were normalized to the baseline average.

Exclusion Criteria: Mice that died prematurely (before treatment onset) or exhibited abnormally

elevated or low blood pressures following telemetry surgery, likely due to surgical complications,

were excluded from the study.

During two-photon imaging sessions, we observed unexplained, random transient dilatory events

(**Supplemental Figure 1B, D**) occurring in both control and BPV mice across low- and high-BP

periods. Because similar random dilations have been documented in other mouse strains under

comparable *in vivo* imaging conditions, these events may be attributed to the effects of the

sedative. To isolate pressure-evoked parenchymal arteriole responses in the myogenic studies

(**Figure 5**), transient dilatory events associated with baseline tone were excluded from the

analysis, **Supplemental Figure 1F**.

Study Limitations: Experiments involving control and BPV mice were conducted across different

seasons, raising the possibility for seasonal influences[45,46]. To account for this, seven additional

control mice were included to the original thirteen control mice, **Supplemental Figure 2**. Six of

these mice underwent identical treatment but were allocated to a separate branch of the study

and did not receive chronic cranial window implantation−a procedure that does not significantly

affect BP, **Supplemental Figure 2A**. No differences in 24-hour averaged MAP were observed

between control mice when grouped categorized by Georgia's seasonal climate Fall-Winter

(October-April) vs Spring-Summer (May-September), **Supplemental Figure 2B**. Given the

absence of seasonal effects on BP and the fact that mice were sourced from two independent

suppliers (Jackson Laboratory and the National Institute of Aging Aged Colonies), we attribute

our observations primarily to treatment effects.

GraphPad Prism 10 software (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA) was used for all statistical

analyses. Values are expressed as mean ± SEM. A minimum of three mice was used for each

experimental data set, and the specific sample size (n) is defined in figure legends. Data was

tested for normal distribution, and statistical tests were used accordingly. Differences between

two means within groups were determined using paired Student's *t*-test. Differences between

groups were determined using Student's unpaired *t*-test or two-way ANOVA with corresponding

multiple comparison *post hoc* test specified in figure legends. Statistical significance was tested

at a 95% (*P* < 0.05) confidence level denoted with the corresponding symbol in figure legends.

RESULTS

Pulsatile Ang II infusion-induced changes in blood pressure

We developed a novel murine model of high BPV using the experimental design shown in **Figure**

1A. The protocol consisted of a baseline phase (~5 days), corresponding to saline infusions in all

mice, followed by a treatment phase (~20-25 days), where mice were either left on saline (control

group) or subjected to robust BP transients induced via Ang II infusions (BPV group).

Subcutaneous pumps were programmed to infuse 2 µL 6-8 times per day, with infusion periods

corresponding to 1 hour every 3-4 hours (depending on the number of pulses), **Figure 1B**, right

panel.

During the pump-*off* periods, BP corresponded to 97±2.0 mmHg and 91±1.9 mmHg for MAP,

113±2.6 mmHg and 105±2.6 mmHg for SBP, 80±1.7 mmHg and 78±1.7 mmHg for DBP, and

34±1.3 mmHg and 27±1.8 mmHg for PP, for mice with pumps infusing saline vs. Ang II,

respectively (**Figure 1C**). During the pump-*on* period, saline infusion did not change BP. However,

Ang II infusions evoked significant BP transients corresponding to Δ37±3.9 mmHg (P<0.0001) for

MAP, Δ70±3.0 mmHg (P<0.0001) for SBP, Δ29±4.1 mmHg (P<0.0001) for DBP, and Δ28±3.0

mmHg (P<0.0001) for PP, **Figure 1C**. Note that large dynamic activity-induced BP changes were

apparent during both saline- and Ang II-infusions, **Figure 1B.** Despite robust BP transients, 20

days of treatment minimally affected the 24-hour averages (vs Baseline) in all cardiovascular

variables, **Figure 1D**. The delta BP (Baseline vs Day 20) for MAP was -1±2.0 mmHg and 6±2.4

mmHg for control and BPV mice, respectively (**Figure 1D**). While the SBP in BPV mice

significantly increased Δ9±2.9 mmHg (P=0.0088), mice remained within the lower range of high

BP (131±4.4 mmHg). Additionally, prior to treatment, the baseline DBP in BPV was significantly

lower than in control mice (P=0.0108), **Figure 1D**.

Blood pressure exhibits a circadian rhythm that is not discernible in minute-to-minute traces,

(**Figure 1B**) but remains intact in both controls and BPV mice when analyzed in 1-hour averages,

Supplemental Figure 3C-D. Thus, cardiovascular variables were assessed during the active

(dark) and inactive (light) phases of the mouse 12:12 hr cycle. Consistent with the unchanged 24-

hour average for MAP, there were minimal changes in the averaged BP corresponding to the daily

inactive and active periods for control and BPV mice, **Figure 2A-D**. Compared to controls, the

DBP of the BPV group tended to be lower but not significant (P=0.09), **Figure 2C**. However,

beginning on day 7 of treatment, BPV (vs control) mice exhibited significantly higher PP during

the inactive period, **Figure 2D**. These data suggest a compensatory mechanism that maintains

MAP within physiological ranges, albeit with elevated PP in BPV mice.

Pulsatile Ang II infusion induced high BPV

Having achieved minimal changes in the 24-hour average MAP, yet with prominent BP

fluctuations, we quantified blood pressure variability (BPV) over time. Two indices of BPV were

assessed: the average real variability (ARV), defined as the absolute difference between

consecutive BP measurements, and the coefficient of variation (CV), defined as the ratio of the

standard deviation to mean BP. A significant increase in BPV was observed in the BPV group

over time relative to baseline, despite stable 24-hour BP averages. During the active period, ARV

was significantly increased by day 3 and remained increased throughout the protocol, reaching

16.4 ± 0.66 mmHg (P=0.04) for SBP and 8.12 ± 0.71 mmHg (P=0.04) for PP, **Table 1A**. Similarly,

during the inactive period, ARV was significantly increased by day 3 and persisted, with values of

13.4 ± 0.33 mmHg (P<0.01) for MAP, 17.3 ± 0.48 mmHg (P=0.02) for SBP, 11.3 ± 0.47 mmHg

(P<0.01) for DBP, and 7.9 ± 0.55 mmHg (P=0.04) for PP (**Table 1B**) with SBP as the main variable

driving BPV increases in this model. BPV indices using CV, based on hourly BP averages over

24 hours, were significantly increased from day 1 of treatment across all cardiovascular variables

during both the inactive and active periods, except for DBP of the active period, which increased

on day 3, **Supplement Table 1**.

Autonomic function in BPV mice

To compare pressure-induced bradycardic responses between BPV and control mice at both

early and later treatment stages, a cohort of control mice received Ang II infusion on days 3-5

(early phase) (**Supplemental Figure 4**) and days 21-25 (late phase) thereby transiently

increasing BP. Ang II evoked significant increases in SBP in both the control and BPV groups

which were accompanied by a pronounced bradycardic response, **Figure 3A**. For a single

infusion-evoked BP peak, changes in HR were $-\Delta291\pm34$ bpm (P<0.0001) and $-\Delta304\pm17$ bpm

(P<0.0001) for control and BPV mice, respectively (**Figure 3B**). While each Ang II infusion evoked

significant bradycardic responses, the 24-hour HR average was not significantly altered,

corresponding to 612±7 and 585±12 bpm for baseline and 570±25 and 546±8 bpm at day 20, for control and BPV mice, respectively, **Figure 3C**.

To assess whether chronic BP fluctuations affect the baroreflex response, we compared the slopes extracted from linear regression of SBP vs HR, focusing on within-group differences, **Figure 3D-G**. Comparisons were conducted over a 100-minute window surrounding a single Ang II-evoked BP pulse (20 minutes before and after 60-minute pulse), occurring during both the active and inactive periods, as well as between the early and late treatment phases. Linear regression analysis of SBP vs HR during Ang II infusion revealed no significant differences in the control group over time (Early vs Late), **Figure 3D, F.** However, the BPV group exhibited a significant reduction in the bradycardic response, indicated by flatter negative slopes during both the inactive ($P<0.0001$) and active periods ($P<0.001$) (**Figure 3E, G**). These data suggest that chronic (~25 days) BPV diminishes bradycardic responses, indicative of suppressed autonomic function.

Pulsatile Norepinephrine infusion induced BPV

To determine whether the observed cardiovascular effects of BPV were limited to Ang II, norepinephrine (NE, 45 µg/kg/min) was utilized as an alternative agent to induce BP variations, **Figure 4**. The NE dosage was titrated to match Ang II-induced BP transient pulse levels (150-200 mmHg, SBP) using the same subcutaneous delivery protocol (pump on for 1 hour every 4 hours) resulting in 6 pulses/day, **Figure 4A**. Similar to Ang II treated mice, NE-treated mice exhibited minimal changes in the 24-hr average MAP throughout the 20-day treatment, **Figure 4B**. While there was a trend towards increased ARV ($P=0.08$), it did not reach significance, **Figure 4C** left panel. However, CV, another BPV index, was significantly increased by day 3 ($P=0.02$) of the treatment, **Figure 4C** right panel.

In contrast to the bradycardic response observed during Ang II-induced BP elevations, NE-induced BP pulses triggered a tachycardic response (**Figure 4A**), with significant positive correlation between SBP and HR appearing during the early phase in the treatment (Inactive period, $P<0.0001$; Active period, $P=0.0002$), **Figure 4D**. These data validate the intermittent infusion protocol as an effective method for inducing significant BPV while preserving normal 24hr MAP. However, due to fundamental differences in bradycardic responses and the presence of off-target effects, the physiological actions of this vasopressor agent are not directly comparable to those of Ang II. These results underscore the necessity of careful vasopressor selection to mitigate off-target effects.

Chronic BPV enhanced parenchymal arteriole myogenic responses

CBF regulation involves complex processes that maintain the metabolic needs of working neurons. These include mechanisms active at baseline (e.g., cerebral autoregulation[16] and endothelial cell-mediated signaling[33]) and those involved in activity-mediated increases in CBF or neurovascular coupling (NVC)[14]. To assess if BPV impacts the functional integrity of the neurovascular complex, we measured parenchymal arteriole responses to acute BP increases and determined if BP itself altered the sensory-evoked arteriole response. For these studies, *in vivo* two-photon imaging was combined with BP measurements via telemetry, **Figures 5** and **6**.

To determine the impact of acute BP changes on the microcirculation, we simultaneously tracked parenchymal arteriole diameter changes before pump infusion onset (Low BP), and during Ang II infusions (High BP), **Figure 5E**. For these experiments, and prior to the imaging session, the pump reservoir for the control group was switched from saline to Ang II. Imaging was conducted at similar cortical depths (~ layer 1/2 border of the somatosensory cortex) corresponding to 106±11.6 µm and 102±4.3 µm for control and BPV mice, respectively, **Figure 5B.** Arteriole diameters measured at baseline (Low BP) were comparable between groups, corresponding to 18.6±1.1 µm and 19±1.0 µm for controls and BPV mice, respectively, **Figure 5C**. Upon mild sedation resting BP dropped by -23±3.6 mmHg and -31±4.4 mmHg for the control and BPV group, respectively (not shown). However, BP values remained within the putative cerebral autoregulation plateau range throughout two-photon imaging sessions and were comparable between groups. During the pump infusion period (High BP), the BP increased from 68±4.2 to 102±5.9 mmHg for controls (P<0.0001) and from 59±4.5 to 96±6.4 mmHg for BPV mice (P<0.0001), **Figure 5D.**

To quantify *in vivo* pressure-evoked diameter changes (myogenic responses), we compared the slopes extracted from the linear regression of MAP vs parenchymal arteriole diameter measured throughout the acquisition session, **Figure 5E-G**. The steeper negative slope observed in BPV mice compared to controls indicates significantly increased parenchymal arteriole reactivity to BP changes (P=0.0118), **Figure 5H**. However, because BPV mice exhibited lower baseline BP, although not significantly different from controls (P=0.18, **Figure 5D**), we examined whether differences in pressure range (i.e. the change in pressure between low and high BP intervals) contributed to the steeper slopes observed in BPV mice. **Figure 5I** illustrates the relationship between the lowest BP recorded during the acquisition period and the slope derived from the MAP-diameter linear regression analysis. Dashed lines represent the percent change in MAP

relative to the minimal averaged BP recorded at the start of the imaging session. BPV mice showed a trend for greater percent change in BP (%Δ61±5.4 mmHg vs %Δ47±4.0 mmHg for control mice, P=0.06; **Figure 5I**, insert). However, the average BP range in control mice was still sufficient for establishing a correlation between BP and diameter, supporting the interpretation that differences in myogenic response stem from intrinsic vascular reactivity rather than limitations in the BP range.

The static cerebral autoregulation curve (CA), originally described by Lassen in 1959, is characterized by a plateau phase in the MAP-CBF relationship, sandwiched between lower and upper limit ranges[33]. However, the shape of the curve has been challenged[34], with evidence suggesting a narrower plateau range and potential dilatory phases as BP deviates from this range[35]. To investigate pressure-diameter relationships in our cohort of mice, we analyzed parenchymal arterioles from control and BPV mice. As shown in **Figure 5J**, arterioles of both groups exhibited significant increases in tone (P<0.0001) as pressure rose from ~50 to 125 mmHg. When slopes from segmented regression analyses were compared across autoregulatory limits and plateau ranges[35], our data revealed a significant decrease in arteriole diameter (P=0.0015) in control mice at pressures <50 mmHg (**Figure 5K**). Within the putative CA plateau range (51-100 mmHg)[35], arterioles from both groups showed significant constrictions (P=0.01 for controls; P<0.0001 for BPV mice, **Figure 5L**), with steeper slopes observed in BPV arterioles (P<0.0001). At pressures >100 mmHg, BPV arterioles exhibited significant arterial dilations (P<0.001), whereas control arterioles maintained constrictions (P<0.001, **Figure 5M**). Together, these data suggest a leftward shift in the CA curve of BPV mice, characterized by enhanced myogenic constrictions at comparable pressures and significant arterial dilations at higher pressures where controls arterioles maintain tone, **Figure 5N**.

Previous studies have shown directional sensitivity in parenchymal arteriole responses, whereby increases in MAP evoke more efficient responses as compared to decreases in MAP. Thus, we separated and quantified diameter changes evoked by BP transitions from Low-to-High (increase MAP) and High-to-Low BP (decrease MAP), **Supplemental Figure 5A-F**. Ang II infusion evoked similar increases in MAP when BP transitioned from Low-to-High Δ27±3.6 mmHg in controls and Δ25±3.6 mmHg in BPV mice, **Supplemental Figure 5A**. In addition, MAP decreases were comparable between groups (-Δ21±2.8 mmHg for controls and -Δ25±3.1 mmHg for BPV mice) upon cessation of pump infusion (High-to-Low), **Supplemental Figure 5D**. The significantly steeper negative slopes in BPV arterioles relative to controls (P=0.0117, Low-to-High)

370 (**Supplemental Figure 5C**) demonstrate increased parenchymal arteriole constriction to
371 increases in MAP. Conversely, we also observed steeper negative slopes in BPV arterioles
372 compared to controls (P=0.0044, High-to-Low) (**Supplemental Figure 5F**) with decreases in MAP
373 suggestive of enhanced arteriole dilations. Collectively, these findings indicate that chronic BPV
374 heightens the responsiveness of parenchymal arterioles to acute BP fluctuations.
375
Impaired NVC in high BPV mice
Because mechanisms underlying baseline CBF regulation differ from those evoked during the
functional hyperemia response, we assessed whether chronic BPV affected functional-evoked
outputs or neurovascular coupling (NVC). Functional hyperemia was assessed using two-photon
imaging and evoked using air puffs to stimulate mouse whiskers. Blood pressure measurements
were simultaneously measured via telemetry, **Figure 6A**. While sensory-evoked vascular
responses are commonly used as a proxy for neuronal activation and function[18,34], few studies
have considered (or reported) BP during these *in vivo* protocols. Thus, we asked if chronic and
acute BP fluctuations alter the NVC response at the level of parenchymal arterioles, **Figure 6B**.
NVC responses were compared during low and high BP periods corresponding to pumps being
off or *on*, respectively, **Figure 6E**.
387
The average baseline (low BP) MAP was 78±2.5 mmHg and 71.0±3.4 for the control and BPV
group, respectively, **Figure 6C**. Imaging was conducted at similar cortical depths within ~ layers
1/2 border of the somatosensory cortex, corresponding to 107±1.0 μm and 96±0.4 μm for control
and BPV arterioles, respectively, **Figure 6D.** To compare NVC responses at low and high BP, the
pump reservoir for the control group was switched from saline to Ang II. Ang II infusion evoked
significant (and comparable) increases in MAP, corresponding to 92±3.5 mmHg for controls and
92±5.7 mmHg for BPV mice, **Figure 6C**. **Figure 6E**, show a representative trace of the
simultaneous MAP and arteriole diameter changes; WS denotes the stimulation period and "a"
and "b" the timepoint from where diameters where measured before and after the stimulus,
respectively and summarized in **Figure 6F**. Whisker stimulation caused significant dilations (vs.
baseline) in all groups, regardless of MAP, **Figure 6G, H**. However, at higher BP, the magnitude
of the NVC response in control mice was greater (P<0.0001, high BP vs low BP). Notably, this
pressure-dependent response was abrogated (P=0.60) in the BPV group, **Figure 6G, H.** A closer
look at the post-stimulus recovery phase showed a faster recovery rate (k = -0.45) for
parenchymal arterioles of BPV mice during high BP periods compared to controls (P<0.0001),
Figure 6I. These data revealed an acute pressure-dependent effect in control mice, with higher

pressures resulting in greater sensory-evoked dilations. Additionally, the data shows that chronic

BP fluctuations abrogated the pressure-dependent effects observed in control mice.

Cognitive decline in high BPV mice

Given impaired neurovascular outputs and the established association between high BPV and

cognitive decline[35], we used the NOR and Y-maze tests to assess cognitive performance. Mice

were subjected to behavioral testing during the saline-infused period and following 25 days of

BPV (via Ang II infusions). Using NOR, a significant decrease in the recognition index (P=0.006)

and discriminatory index (P=0.006) was observed (**Figure 7A**), supporting impaired recognition

memory. No differences were observed in the short-term spatial working memory assessed via

Y-maze alternation (P=0.25), **Figure 7B**.

Mice activity levels were evaluated as another aspect of behavior. Throughout the study, activity

remained consistently higher during the active vs inactive periods (P=0.049 for control, P=0.0287

for BPV), **Figure 7C**. However, following 23-25 days of treatment (Late), BPV mice exhibited a

significant reduction in activity when the pump was *on*. This decline was evident in the 24-hour

average data (P=0.0111, **Figure 7D**), as well as during the active period of the 12-hour activity

averages (pump *on* vs *off*, P=0.0122, **Figure 7F**). These data support that mice subjected to

chronic BPV become less active when the BP increases or the pump status is *on*. Notably, while

the infusion protocol preserves BP-related circadian rhythms, 25 days of chronic BPV negatively

impacts both recognition memory and overall activity levels.

DISCUSSION

BPV has emerged as a risk factor for cognitive decline, yet its impact on brain function remains

poorly understood. Here, we introduce a novel murine model of BPV, where pulsatile BP

increases were induced via Ang II infusions without hypertension. Using *in vivo* two-photon

imaging, we provide evidence of altered vascular function in mice subjected to chronic BP

fluctuations. In BPV mice, parenchymal arterioles (<30 μm in diameter) exhibited enhanced

myogenic reactivity. In addition, chronic BPV impaired neurovascular outputs and cognitive

function. Notably, the NVC response in control mice was pressure-dependent, with greater

magnitudes observed when the arterial BP was increased−a relationship that was abolished in

mice exposed to chronic BPV. These findings suggest that chronic BPV targets multiple

physiological processes (e.g., bradycardic reflex, myogenic reactivity, neurovascular coupling)

reinforcing its role as a critical risk factor for brain health.

Our goal was to induce rapid transient blood pressure pulses that significantly increased BPV,
while maintaining a stable 24hr average blood pressure. Ang II was selected as a pressor due to
its potent vasoconstrictive properties and short half-life[36]. The subcutaneous dose was carefully
titrated to induce BP elevations reaching physiological high levels (150−200 mmHg, SBP),
achievable in non-diseased conditions and comparable to doses used in miniosmotic pumps[37-39].
The precise mechanisms underlying increased BPV remain unclear, though vascular dysfunction
and arterial stiffness have been postulated as contributing factors[40]. Age is strongly correlated
with arterial stiffness and isolated systolic hypertension[41]. Notably, SBP was modestly increased
downstream of BPV in the current model, **Figure 1D**. In the BPV cohort, six out of eight mice
exhibited an SBP increase of >Δ10 mmHg compared to baseline (**Figure 1D**), suggesting that
elevated BPV may contribute to the early onset of systolic hypertension. Given that isolated
systolic hypertension is a risk factor for overt hypertension[42] and BPV precedes hypertension[11],
prolonged BPV beyond the 25-day treatment period could potentially lead to hypertension.
Furthermore, we anticipate that sustained BPV and its resultant hypertension may drive cardiac
remodeling, specifically, left ventricular hypertrophy. These findings underscore the need for
future studies to investigate the long-term effects of BPV on cardiac morphology.

We explored norepinephrine as an alternative agent to induce BP variations, **Figure 4**. Similar to
Ang II-infused mice, NE-treated mice exhibited a significant increase in BPV (i.e. increased CV)
while maintaining minimal changes in the 24-hr averaged MAP. However, NE-induced BP pulses
elicited a tachycardic response likely driven by NE stimulation of cardiac β1-adrenergic
receptors[43]. Notably, chronic NE administration exaggerated this tachycardic response, with a
steeper positive slope over time (Early vs Late; P<0.0001) during the Inactive period, **Figure 4D**.
Additionally, NE-treated mice exhibited signs of lethargy, impaired mobility, tachypnea, and an
increased rate of premature death beginning on day 11 of treatment. These findings emphasize
the need for further investigation into alternative BPV pressors, as each may exert distinct off-
target effects.

Our model underscores the importance of assessing BPV independently of average BP values.
Retrospective studies in primary care patients reveal BPV occurrences in both hypertensive and
non-hypertensive adults[44], establishing BPV as a critical yet modifiable risk factor, often
overlooked by standard in-office single BP measurements. In our model, the significantly higher
24-hour average PP in BPV mice suggests that PP is the most sensitive BP-related variable.
Compared to controls, BPV mice exhibited persistently lower DBP and higher PP during the

inactive period, indicative of a compensatory mechanism that maintained 24-hour MAP within

physiological ranges. However, other factors mitigating hypertension onset cannot be ruled out.

The autonomic nervous system (ANS) tightly regulates BP via changes in heart rate, systemic

vascular resistance, and stroke volume. Notably, the baroreflex plays a critical role in maintaining

cerebral perfusion pressure[47]. Acute BP elevations activate arterial baroreceptors, which inhibit

sympathetic outflow (via enhanced vagal activity) and reduce HR and peripheral vascular

resistance[47], thereby lowering arterial BP. However, to sustain relatively stable CBF, baroreflex-

mediated inhibition of sympathetic outflow and arteriole dilation is counterbalanced by the intrinsic

myogenic properties of the cerebral vasculature, which constricts in response to increases in

arterial BP. Dysregulation of these dynamic processes heightens the risk of both cerebral

hypoperfusion and hyperperfusion. Notably, impaired baroreflex sensitivity has been linked to

aging[48] and mild cognitive impairments[49].

In our model, chronic BPV significantly blunted the bradycardic response, suggestive of ANS

dysregulation, potentially driven by enhanced sympathetic activity, reduced parasympathetic

activity, or a combination of both. Previous studies indicate that chronic Ang II infusion suppresses

and resets baroreceptor sensitivity independently of the pressure effect, with partial reversal

occurring within 30 minutes post-Ang II infusion[50]. Unlike conventional sustained Ang II infusion

approaches (osmotic pump models), our protocol delivers Ang II intermittently at 3- or 4-hour

intervals. This regimen likely mitigates desensitization and Ang II receptor internalization, a

response well-documented in sustained infusion models[51,52]. Furthermore, the same Ang II dose

evoked comparable BP increases at the start and end of treatment. Thus, our results support

diminished baroreflex responses, aligning with previous reports linking elevated BPV to

autonomic dysregulation[53], though the underlying cellular mechanisms remain poorly understood.

Cerebral autoregulation serves as a protective mechanism against fluctuations in cerebral

perfusion pressure[22]. Vessels upstream from cerebral capillaries, including pial arteries[54-56] and

larger extracranial vessels[57-59], help buffer arterial pressure changes, thereby limiting excessive

variations in CBF. In response to chronic and sustained hypertension, parenchymal arterioles

exhibit enhanced reactivity to pressure increases[21,60,61]. This is further accompanied by arteriole

remodeling[21,62,63]. Although our model does not involve sustained hypertension, we present *in*

vivo evidence of heightened myogenic responses of parenchymal arterioles to both BP elevations

and reductions. These observations are particularly intriguing as they suggest potential adaptive
mechanisms in response to large blood pressure fluctuations.

Chronic BP elevations may drive upregulation of voltage-dependent calcium channels (VDCC),
or suppression of K^+ currents[64]. Cipolla et al., reported that parenchymal arterioles are
approximately 30-fold more sensitive to VDCC inhibition via nifedipine than middle cerebral
arteries[65]. Notably, VDCC expression increases in hypertension[66-72], and long-acting calcium
channel blockers (i.e., amlodipine), are among the most effective treatments for BPV [73,74]. In an
effort to mitigate excessive vasoconstriction and optimize blood flow, during periods of BP-
induced constrictions, vasodilatory signals may accumulate. Consequently, when BP decreases,
parenchymal arterioles in BPV mice may exhibit greater dilation compared to controls,
Supplemental Figure 5F. Augmented vasodilation has been reported as adaptive response in
rodent models of chronic hypoperfusion[75,76]. The dynamic nature of BP fluctuations in our model
(i.e. increases and decreases) uniquely allows observations of multiple processes occurring
concurrently (e.g. enhanced vasoconstrictions in response to high BP, and enhanced dilations
potentially resulting from vasoconstriction-evoked ischemia).

If this interpretation holds, our model may reflect conditions in which parenchymal arterioles
experience both high pressure and ischemia. The resulting heightened myogenic responses may
amplify diameter changes, potentially diminishing pressure buffering capacity and increasing
vulnerability to extreme BP fluctuations, predisposing brain tissue to episodic ischemia and/or
hyperperfusion. Future studies addressing the impact of BPV on capillary perfusion may provide
further insights into the link between BPV and brain pathology, including microbleeds[77,78].

Chronic BPV significantly blunted the NVC response to whisker stimulation. In control mice, NVC
exhibited a pressure-dependent effect, with greater response magnitudes observed at higher
arterial BP levels−an effect that was abolished in BPV mice. One possible explanation is that the
enhanced NVC response (under high BP conditions) in control mice stems from greater baseline
arteriole tone, facilitating a more efficient dilatory response to vasoactive signals released during
sensory-evoked stimuli. Conversely, the heightened reactivity of parenchymal arterioles to
intravascular pressure in BPV mice (**Figure 5H**) suggests a predominant vasoconstrictive state[79],
potentially accompanied by reduced availability of vasodilatory mediators involved in NVC (e.g.
nitric oxide, epoxyeicosatrienoic acids (EETs), cyclooxygenase-derived prostaglandins)[80,81].

Thus, the blunted NVC response observed during elevated BP periods in BPV mice may also

result from impaired vasodilation.

Additionally, upon termination of WS, vasoconstrictive mechanisms−exacerbated by elevated BP

are unmasked, leading to a faster recovery in arteriole diameter post-stimulus[82]. Another potential

explanation is a neuronal mechanism, where diminished neural activity or reduced release of

vasodilatory signals may contribute to the impaired NVC response. Further studies should

investigate the impact of high BPV on the neurovascular complex under awake conditions,

recognizing that factors such as activity and arousal[83,84], can elevate BP and potentially confound

pressure-dependent neurovascular effects.

Beyond blunting NVC, our study demonstrates that chronic BPV contributes to cognitive decline,

as evidenced by decreased discrimination and recognition indices in the NOR test. Clinical studies

have similarly linked elevated BPV to impairments across multiple cognitive domains, including

memory and executive function[85,86]. Post hoc analyses of the SPRINT MIND trial revealed that

patients with elevated BPV experienced the most rapid decline in processing speed[86].

Additionally, findings from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative indicated that greater

SBP variability correlated with poorer episodic memory performance[85].

To assess cognitive function, we employed the NOR test to evaluate episodic memory[87] and the

spontaneous Y maze test to assess short-term spatial memory[88]. Because telemetry systems

necessitated individual housing to avoid signal interference, all mice used in this study were

single-housed. Previous studies on C57BL/6 mice have reported conflicting effects of single

housing on learning and memory[89-91], with some suggesting stress-induced deficits and others

reporting no impact[92-95]. These discrepancies may stem from variables such as age at isolation

onset, duration of isolation, and behavioral test conditions. To minimize confounding factors, we

implemented stringent efforts to ensure consistency across all groups, including standardized

cage changes, food replenishment, and pump refills conducted on a single day between 1:00 and

4:00 PM Our results indicate that while 25 days of chronic BPV does not affect short-term spatial

memory, it significantly impairs episodic memory.

Conclusions

Our study demonstrates that high BPV disrupts cellular communication in the neurovascular

complex, contributing to cognitive decline. Importantly, our model elicited substantial BP

fluctuations while preventing the onset of hypertension, providing direct evidence of BPV's causal

role in impaired neurovascular function. These findings support the inclusion of BPV assessment

as a critical screening and diagnostic tool alongside conventional BP measurements to address

cardiovascular and neurovascular risks. Moreover, the adaptable murine model developed in this

study offers a robust framework for future investigations into BPV's impact on brain function.

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Figure 1. *Experimental design and Ang II infusion effects on mean arterial pressure*.
A, Schematic of the experimental design for middle-aged C57BL/6J male mice, including implantation of a chronic cranial window (-28 days from treatment onset) and an infusion pump with telemetry (-7 days from treatment onset). Infusion pumps were programmed for intermittent delivery of saline (baseline phase) or angiotensin II (Ang II) (treatment phase) at a rate of 18.4 μg/day, administered in 1-hour intervals every 3-4 hours. *In-vivo* two-photon (2P) imaging sessions were performed approximately 20 days into the treatment phase. Behavioral tests were conducted during the baseline period (Test 1) and 25 days into the treatment phase (Test 2). **B**, Representative raw traces depicting minute-to-minute, 24-hour MAP, SBP, DBP, PP, and Activity levels during intermittent saline infusions (left) and Ang II infusions (right). Dashed lines indicate periods of active infusion (1 hr) or when the pump is *on*. **C**, Average MAP, SBP, DBP, and PP (5 minutes) measured during infusion *Off* versus *On* conditions. **D**, 24-hour average MAP, SBP, DBP, and PP during a 5-day saline infusion phase (Baseline) and on Day 20 of Ang II treatment. Two-way ANOVA repeated measures followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test (C, n = 8 BPV mice) (D, n = 13 control mice, n = 8 BPV mice).

Ang II=Angiotensin II, **BPV**=blood pressure variability, **DBP**=diastolic blood pressure **MAP**=mean arterial pressure, **PP**=pulse pressure, **SBP**=systolic blood pressure.

Figure 2. *Effects of pulsatile BP on average 12:12 hour cardiovascular variables.*
A, Summary data of two-day averages of MAP, SBP (**B**), DBP (**C**), and PP (**D**) during the inactive (daylight) period (left column) and the active (nighttime) period (right column). Dashed rectangles indicate the baseline period (~5-day saline infusion). "*" and "&" denote within group comparisons ($p < 0.05$ vs Baseline) for BPV and control, respectively. "#" denotes $p<0.05$ between groups comparisons. Two-way ANOVA repeated measures followed by Sidak's comparison test; n = 13 control mice, n = 8 BPV mice.

BPV=blood pressure variability, **DBP**=diastolic blood pressure, **MAP**=mean arterial pressure, **PP**=pulse pressure, **SBP**=systolic blood pressure.

Table 1. *Ang II-induced increases in blood pressure variability (BPV).*
A-B, Summary data of calculated two-day average real variability of MAP, SBP, DBP, and PP during the active period (**A**) and the inactive period (**B**). Baseline corresponds to (~5-day saline infusion) and "*" denotes within group comparisons ($p < 0.05$ vs Baseline) and "#" denotes $p < 0.05$ between groups comparisons. Two-way ANOVA repeated measures followed by Dunnett's comparison test; n = 13 control mice, n = 8 BPV mice.

ARV=average real variability, **BPV**=blood pressure variability, **DBP**=diastolic blood pressure, **MAP**= mean arterial pressure, **PP**=pulse pressure, **SBP**=systolic blood pressure.

Figure 3. *Chronic BPV suppresses bradycardic reflex*.
A, Representative raw traces of 24-hour SBP (top) and HR (bottom) during intermittent Ang II infusions.
B, Five-minute average HR when the infusion pump is *Off* or *On* (actively infusing Ang II) for control and BPV groups, extracted from the inactive (daytime) period. **C**, Twenty-four-hour average HR during the baseline period (~5-day saline infusion), and on day 20 of treatment (Day 20) for control and BPV mice. **D**,

Scatter plot of SBP and HR during Ang II infusion (100 minutes: 20 minutes before and after the 60-minute pulse) in the inactive period for control and BPV mice (**E**). Linear trend lines for data shown in the insert. Early and Late periods correspond to days 3-5 and days 23-25 of the treatment phase, respectively. **F,** Scatter plot of SBP and HR during the active period in controls and in BPV mice (**G**). Two-way ANOVA repeated measures followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test (B-C, n = 6 control mice, n = 8 BPV mice). Simple linear regression and "#" denotes p < 0.05 within group (D, F, n = 6 control mice) (E, G, n = 8 BPV mice).

bpm = beats per minute, **BPV** = blood pressure variability, **HR** = heart rate, **SBP** = systolic blood pressure.

Figure 4. *Norepinephrine infusion effects.*
A, Representative raw trace of minute-to-minute 24hr HR (top) and SBP (bottom). The green-shaded region indicates the 1-hour period when the pump is actively infusing NE (45 µg/kg/min). **B,** Summary data of two-day average MAP during the baseline phase (Dashed rectangle, ~5-day saline infusion) and over 20 days of treatment. **C,** Summary data of calculated two-day ARV of SBP (left) and CV of SBP (right). **D**, Scatter plot of SBP and HR during NE infusion (100-minute window: 20 minutes before and after the 60-minute pulse) in the inactive (left) and active (right) periods, with linear trend lines shown in the insert. Early and Late periods correspond to days 3-5 and days 16-20 of the treatment phase. "*" and "#" denote within group comparisons (p < 0.05 vs Baseline) for Ang II- and NE-infused mice, respectively. "&" and "Δ" denotes between group comparisons (p<0.05 vs control group) for Ang II- and NE-infused mice, respectively. Two-way ANOVA repeated measures followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test (B-C, n = 6 mice). Simple linear regression (D, n = 3 mice).

Ang II=Angiotensin II, **bpm** = beats per minute, **HR** = heart rate, **NE** = norepinephrine, **SBP** = systolic blood pressure.

Figure 5. *Enhanced myogenic responses in parenchymal arterioles of BPV mice.*
A, Schematic of the experimental set-up, including a portable telemetry system for continuous blood pressure recordings alongside simultaneous 2P imaging of parenchymal arteriole diameter. **B**, Summary data for the average imaging depth below the brain surface. **C**, Summary data for the average baseline diameters of imaged parenchymal arterioles. **D**, Summary data of the average MAP recorded under infusion pump *off* conditions (low blood pressure, Low BP) and infusion pump *on* conditions (high blood pressure, High BP). **E**, Representative raw trace (from a single mouse) showing MAP (top) and parenchymal arteriole diameter (bottom) over time. **F**, Expanded data corresponding to dashed region in (**E**), highlighting Ang II-evoked BP changes. **G**, Representative scatter plot and linear regression of MAP vs parenchymal arteriole diameter during an imaging session. **H**, Summary data of MAP-diameter linear regression slopes. **I**, Relationship between minimum MAP recorded during an imaging run and the slope shown in (**H**); dashed lines indicate the percent Δ change in MAP relative to its minimum value. The insert provides a summary of percent Δ change in MAP from the minimum MAP. **J**, Scatter plot of MAP vs changes in arteriole diameter from baseline pressure (~70 mmHg), spanning a pressure range 46-122 mmHg. Data subsets extracted from (**J**): (**K**) MAP ≤51 mmHg (orange dashed region), (**L**) MAP 51-100 mmHg (green dashed region), and (**M**) MAP ≥101 mmHg (blue dashed region). **N**, Illustration of the proposed leftward shift (and narrower plateau) in cerebral autoregulatory curve induced by chronic BPV. Unpaired t-test and Mann-Whitney test (B-C, H-I, n = 10 runs/8 control mice, n = 11 runs/8 BPV mice). Two-way ANOVA repeated measures followed by Sidak's multiple comparison test (D, n = 10 runs/8

control mice, n = 11 runs/8 BPV mice). Simple linear regression and "#" denotes p < 0.05 between group (J-M, n = 12 runs/9 control mice, n = 8 runs/7 BPV mice).

BPV = blood pressure variability, **MAP** = mean arterial pressure

Figure 6*. Suppressed neurovascular responses in parenchymal arterioles of BPV during low and high blood pressure periods.*
A, Schematic of the experimental setup in which a picospritzer delivered a puff of air for whisker stimulation (WS) at 10 Hz for 20 seconds. **B**, Representative image showing the mask (outlined) used to track changes in parenchymal arteriole diameter. **C**, Summarized data of average MAP recorded during low blood pressure (Low BP; pump *off*) and high blood pressure (High BP; pump *on*) conditions. **D**, Summary data of the average imaging depth below the brain surface. **E**, Representative raw trace (from a single mouse) showing MAP (top) and parenchymal arteriole diameter (bottom) during low and high blood pressure. Dashed green squares indicate WS response, with "a" denoting the 30-second pre-stimulus diameter and "b" denoting the 30-second post-stimulus diameter, summarized in (**F**). **G**, Normalized averaged arteriole diameter traces with corresponding error bars (dashed lines) during the WS response, shown as % change from baseline (20 seconds before stimulus), during the 20-second stimulus (green shaded region), and 64 seconds post-stimulus (green dashed square). **H,** Summarized data of stimulus-induced arteriole responses (green shaded region in **G**). **I**, Summary data of recovery time, with rate of decay (k) corresponding to 30-second post-stimulus period outlined in the green dashed square in (**G**). Two-way ANOVA repeated measures followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test (C-D, n = 7 control mice, 5 BPV mice) (F, n = 5-8 control mice, n = 6-7 BPV mice) and (H, n = 5-8 control mice, n = 6-7 BPV mice). One phase exponential decay nonlinear fit (I, n = 5-8 control mice, n = 6-7 BPV mice).

BPV = blood pressure variability, *k* = rate of decay, **MAP** = mean arterial pressure, **WS** = whisker stimulation

Figure 7. *Behavior and altered cognitive function of BPV mice*.
A, Schematic of the novel object recognition test with a 1-hour delay between the A-A and A-B trials (top), accompanied by summarized recognition and discriminatory index data for mice during the saline infusion period (baseline) and following 25 days of pulsatile Ang II infusion (Ang II). **B**, Diagram of 10-minute spontaneous Y-maze experimental setup (top) and the summary of % alternation and distance traveled during baseline and after 25 days of Ang II treatment (bottom). **C,** Summary data of two-day, 24-hour activity averages throughout treatment during active and inactive periods, with the Baseline phase (~5-day saline infusion) marked by the dashed rectangle. **D,** Summary data of 24-hour averaged activity recorded when the infusion pump was *on* vs *off* during Early (days 3-5) and Late (days 23-25) treatment phases. (**E**) Summary of activity when the pump is *on* vs *off* during the Early and Late phases of treatment for the inactive cycle. (**F**) Summary of activity when the pump is *on* vs *off* during the Early and Late phases of treatment for the active cycle. Paired t-test (A, n = 10 BPV mice), (B, n = 11 BPV mice). Two-way ANOVA repeated measures followed by Tukey's comparison test (C, n = 13 control mice, n = 8 BPV mice) (D-F, n = 6 control mice, n = 8 BPV mice). "*" denotes p < 0.05 vs Baseline for control, active period. "$" and "Δ" denote p<0.05 (active vs inactive period) for control and BPV, respectively.

AU=arbitrary units, **BPV**=blood pressure variability

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Supplemental Table 1. *Pulsatile Ang II infusions induced an increase in blood pressure variability (BPV) measured by coefficient of variance.*

A-B, Summary data of calculated two-day average coefficient of variance (CV) of MAP, SBP, DBP, and PP during the active period (**A**) and inactive period (**B**). CV was calculated as the ratio of the standard deviation of hourly BP averages to 24-hour mean blood pressure. Two-way ANOVA repeated measures followed by Dunnett's comparison test; n = 13 control mice, n = 8 BPV mice. "*" denotes p < 0.05 vs Baseline and "#" denotes p < 0.05 between groups.

BPV = blood pressure variability, **CV**, coefficient of variance, **DBP** = diastolic blood pressure, **MAP** = mean arterial pressure, **PP** = pulse pressure, **SBP** = systolic blood pressure.

Supplemental Figure 1. *Exclusion criteria for myogenic response analysis.*

A-B, Representative raw traces (from one mouse) of MAP (top) and parenchymal arteriole diameter (bottom) showing WS-evoked dilations (**A**) and random dilatory events (**B**). Grey dashed rectangles outline the period when the pump is on and BP transitions to higher values (Ang II infusion). **C-D**, Expanded data corresponding to the dashed rectangle shown in (**A-B**), with dilatory responses to WS outlined within green dashed rectangles (**C**) and transient dilatory events shown within orange dashed rectangles (**D**). **E-F**, Representative raw traces of MAP (top) and parenchymal arteriole diameter (bottom) following removal of sensory-evoked dilations (**C**) or the random dilatory events outlined in (**D**). **G-H**, Scatter plot and resultant linear regression line of the filtered MAP vs parenchymal diameter corresponding to (**E-F**).

MAP = mean arterial pressure

Supplemental Figure 2. *Seasonal effects on mean arterial pressure.*

A, Summarized data of 24-hr MAP at baseline (5 days saline infusion) in mice with (+) or without (-) a cranial window. **B**, Summarized data of two-day average MAP at baseline and 20 days of treatment. Spring-Summer corresponds to warmer months (May-September), and Fall-Winter corresponds to colder months (October-April). Mann-Whitney test (A, n = 14 mice with craniotomy, 6 without craniotomy). Two-way ANOVA repeated measures followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test (B, n = 11 mice in Spring-Summer, 9 mice in Fall-Winter).

MAP = mean arterial pressure

Supplemental Figure 3. *One-hour averages of MAP over 24hrs-Circadian Profile*

A, Representative raw trace of one-hour average MAP for 24hrs of all control mice and BPV mice (**B**), with controls summarized in (**C**) and BPV in (**D**). *Inactive* corresponds to daylight hours (6am-6pm). (A-D, n = 13 control mice, n = 8 BPV mice).

BPV=blood pressure variability, **MAP** = mean arterial pressure

Supplemental Figure 4. *Transient Ang II infusions induced pulsatile blood pressure in control mice.*

1063   Summary data of averaged BP (5 minutes) while the pump is *Off* or *On* and infusing Ang II in controls. Data
1064   was extracted from the inactive (daytime) period at days 3-5 of treatment protocol. Paired Wilcoxon test
1065   (n = 6 control mice).

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1067   **DBP** = diastolic blood pressure, **MAP** = mean arterial pressure, **PP** = pulse pressure, **SBP** = systolic blood
1068   pressure.

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Supplemental Figure 5. *Directional myogenic responses*
A, Summary data for averaged BP corresponding to the Low-to-High BP transition. **B,** Representative raw
trace showing MAP (top) and parenchymal arteriole diameter (bottom) during Low-to-High MAP
transition shaded in orange (left) and the corresponding representative scatter plot of MAP vs
parenchymal arteriole diameter (right). **C,** Summary of MAP-diameter linear regression slopes
corresponding to Low-to-High MAP transition. **D,** Summary data of the average high and low MAP
recorded immediately following cessation of pump infusion and blood pressure transitions from high to
low BP (High-to-Low). **E,** Representative raw trace showing MAP (top) and parenchymal arteriole diameter
(bottom) during High-to-Low MAP transition shaded in green (left) and the corresponding representative
scatter plot of MAP vs parenchymal arteriole diameter (right). **F,** Summary of MAP-diameter linear
regression slopes corresponding to High-to-Low MAP transition. Two-way ANOVA repeated measures
followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test (A, n = 12 runs/7 control mice, n = 14 runs/8 BPV mice) (D,
n = 10 runs/8 control mice, n = 12 runs/7 BPV mice). Unpaired t-test and Mann-Whitney test (C, n = 12
runs/7 control mice, n = 14 runs/8 BPV mice) (F, n = 10 runs/8 control mice, n = 12 runs/7 BPV mice).

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1085   **BPV**=blood pressure variability, **MAP** = mean arterial pressure

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Figure 1

A *Norepinephrine Infusion*

B *24-hour Averaged BP*

C *Average Real Variability*

Coefficient of Variation

D *Inactive*

Early Y= 1.307*X + 429.0 (P<0.0001)
Late Y= 3.265*X + 128.7 (P<0.0001) #

Active

Early Y= 0.795*X + 496.6 (P=0.0002)
Late Y= 0.723*X + 499.0 (P=0.0078)

A

Active Period ARV mmHg ± SEM

Days	MAP		SBP		DBP		PP	
	Control	BPV	Control	BPV	Control	BPV	Control	BPV
Baseline	*12.44 ± 1.37*	*10.94 ± 0.55*	*14.15 ± 1.49*	*13.13 ± 0.66*	*11.53 ± 1.44*	*9.04 ± 0.54*	*4.67 ± 0.40*	*5.47 ± 0.46*
1-2	12.91 ± 1.29	10.99 ± 0.35	14.86 ± 1.28	14.56 ± 0.44	11.70 ± 1.48	9.29 ± 0.41	5.12 ± 0.40	7.67 ± 0.69
3-4	12.44 ± 0.66	12.51 ± 0.43	14.40 ± 0.67	16.40 ± 0.66 *	11.12 ± 0.83	10.35 ± 0.45	5.03 ± 0.33	8.12 ± 0.71 *#
5-6	11.78 ± 0.52	12.80 ± 0.39	13.64 ± 0.61	16.44 ± 0.53 *#	10.71 ± 0.73	10.54 ± 0.45	4.89 ± 0.32	7.99 ± 0.69 *#
7-8	12.35 ± 0.61	12.85 ± 0.41 *	14.02 ± 0.67	16.73 ± 0.43 *#	11.37 ± 0.81	10.61 ± 0.55 *	5.22 ± 0.42	8.34 ± 0.74 *#
9-10	12.34 ± 0.69	12.84 ± 0.40	13.88 ± 0.75	16.37 ± 0.72	11.32 ± 0.79	10.82 ± 0.24	4.95 ± 0.39	7.86 ± 0.65 *#
11-12	13.00 ± 0.76	12.94 ± 0.76 *	14.59 ± 0.88	16.87 ± 0.70 *	11.93 ± 0.93	10.59 ± 0.81	5.05 ± 0.34	8.25 ± 0.78 #
13-14	12.26 ± 0.84	12.90 ± 0.42 *	13.94 ± 0.84	16.80 ± 0.52 *	11.17 ± 0.95	10.40 ± 0.68 *	5.07 ± 0.39	8.45 ± 0.83 #
15-16	13.27 ± 0.59	13.91 ± 1.02	15.11 ± 0.81	17.50 ± 0.87 *	11.72 ± 0.82	11.59 ± 1.14	5.24 ± 0.38	8.25 ± 0.73 *
17-18	13.12 ± 0.77	14.06 ± 0.92	15.16 ± 1.03	17.12 ± 0.77 *	11.99 ± 0.85	11.95 ± 1.19	5.48 ± 0.58	7.60 ± 0.77
19-20	12.62 ± 0.45	12.75 ± 0.92	14.75 ± 0.52	16.57 ± 0.94	11.09 ± 0.70	10.48 ± 1.23	6.32 ± 0.60	8.44 ± 1.15

B

Inactive Period ARV mmHg ± SEM

Days	MAP		SBP		DBP		PP	
	Control	BPV	Control	BPV	Control	BPV	Control	BPV
Baseline	*12.09 ± 1.38*	*11.29 ± 0.54*	*13.53 ± 1.50*	*13.28 ± 0.70*	*11.27 ± 1.40*	*9.48 ± 0.45*	*4.74 ± 0.47*	*5.04 ± 0.45*
1-2	12.15 ± 1.04	11.40 ± 0.69	14.08 ± 1.03	14.69 ± 0.77	10.95 ± 1.15	9.76 ± 0.68	4.92 ± 0.24	7.09 ± 0.55
3-4	12.23 ± 0.79	13.38 ± 0.33 *	14.02 ± 0.76	17.27 ± 0.48 *#	11.19 ± 1.02	11.29 ± 0.47 *	4.76 ± 0.32	7.90 ± 0.55 *#
5-6	12.16 ± 0.43	13.63 ± 0.78 *	13.64 ± 0.52	17.57 ± 0.78 *#	10.68 ± 0.53	11.34 ± 0.86	4.95 ± 0.30	8.23 ± 0.69 *#
7-8	11.95 ± 0.49	13.73 ± 0.50 *	14.71 ± 0.54	17.44 ± 0.53 *#	10.88 ± 0.59	11.61 ± 0.67 *	4.90 ± 0.32	8.45 ± 0.89
9-10	12.90 ± 1.28	14.77 ± 0.66 *	14.09 ± 1.49	18.52 ± 0.72 *	11.92 ± 1.15	12.59 ± 0.64 *	5.33 ± 0.31	8.16 ± 0.61 *#
11-12	12.49 ± 0.79	14.53 ± 0.57 *	14.85 ± 0.82	18.65 ± 0.62 *#	11.50 ± 1.07	12.09 ± 0.74 *	5.24 ± 0.31	8.50 ± 0.88
13-14	13.03 ± 0.75	13.96 ± 0.74 *	14.85 ± 0.82	17.65 ± 0.53 *	11.94 ± 0.99	11.56 ± 0.92	5.10 ± 0.38	8.16 ± 0.74 *#
15-16	13.35 ± 0.79	15.04 ± 0.87 *	14.87 ± 0.93	18.85 ± 0.87 *	12.21 ± 0.98	12.66 ± 1.07	4.97 ± 0.36	8.54 ± 1.06 *
17-18	12.99 ± 0.70	15.61 ± 1.36	14.19 ± 0.82	19.39 ± 1.09 *#	11.47 ± 0.83	13.18 ± 1.67	5.02 ± 0.40	8.46 ± 1.03
19-20	12.89 ± 0.57	14.72 ± 1.00 *	15.13 ± 0.74	18.96 ± 0.96 *	11.36 ± 0.65	12.19 ± 1.25	6.21 ± 0.40	9.28 ± 1.33