

## · 专题综述 ·

# 高血压与认知功能障碍

商苏杭 屈秋民

**【摘要】** 高血压与认知功能障碍的关系日益受到关注。中年期高血压可以增加老年期认知功能障碍的风险,而老年期血压水平与认知功能障碍的关系尚不明确。脉压差、血压变异率、血压昼夜节律等均与认知功能障碍有关。高血压可以影响脑血管结构和功能,引起脑卒中、脑白质病变、微梗死和微出血,从而导致认知功能障碍;还可以影响 $\beta$ -淀粉样蛋白的代谢和转运,诱发认知功能障碍。针对高血压患者特征的个体化治疗,可能是预防和治疗认知功能障碍的合理选择。

**【关键词】** 高血压; 认知障碍; 综述

## Hypertension and cognitive impairment

SHANG Su-hang, QU Qiu-min

Department of Neurology, the First Affiliated Hospital of Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an 710061, Shaanxi, China

Corresponding author: QU Qiu-min (Email: ququmin@medmail.com.cn)

**【Abstract】** As a leading risk factor for stroke, hypertension is also an important risk factor for cognitive impairment. Midlife hypertension doubles the risk of dementia later in life and accelerates the progression of dementia, but the correlation between late-life blood pressure and cognitive impairment is still unclear. Beside blood pressure, the effect of pulse pressure, blood pressure variability and circadian rhythm of blood pressure on cognition is currently attracting more and more attention. Hypertension induces alterations in cerebrovascular structure and functions, which lead to brain lesions including cerebral atrophy, stroke, lacunar infarcts, diffuse white matter damage, microinfarct and microhemorrhage, resulting in cognitive impairment. Hypertension also impairs the metabolism and transfer of amyloid- $\beta$  protein ( $A\beta$ ), thus accelerates cognitive impairment. Individualized therapy, focusing on characteristics of hypertensive patients, may be a good choice for prevention and treatment of cognitive impairment.

**【Key words】** Hypertension; Cognition disorders; Review

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认知功能障碍泛指各种原因导致的不同程度认知功能减退,涵盖自轻度认知损害(MCI)到痴呆的各个阶段。痴呆是认知功能障碍的严重形式,显著影响患者日常生活活动能力。随着人口老龄化的进程,痴呆发病率明显升高,目前我国已有痴呆患者逾 $7 \times 10^6$ 例,约占全世界痴呆总数的25%,且每年新增约 $0.30 \times 10^6$ 例<sup>[1]</sup>。痴呆根据病因学可以分

为三大类:神经变性病导致的痴呆,包括阿尔茨海默病(AD)、路易体痴呆(DLB)、额颞叶痴呆(FTD)、帕金森病痴呆(PDD)等;脑血管病引起的痴呆,即血管性痴呆(VaD);非神经变性病、非脑血管病引起的痴呆<sup>[2]</sup>。其中阿尔茨海默病和血管性痴呆是最常见的两种痴呆亚型<sup>[3]</sup>。

高血压是脑血管病最常见、最重要的危险因素,不仅是血管性认知损害(VCI)和血管性痴呆的重要原因<sup>[3]</sup>,还能增加阿尔茨海默病的风险<sup>[3-4]</sup>。高血压是认知功能障碍可以治疗的危险因素,明确二者之间的关系对痴呆的预防与治疗具有重要意义。本文将从以下几方面加以阐述。

## 一、高血压与认知功能障碍的流行病学研究

高血压与认知功能障碍之间的关系早在20世

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作者单位:710061 西安交通大学第一附属医院神经内科

通讯作者:屈秋民(Email: ququmin@medmail.com.cn)

纪60年代即已引起关注,此后的数十年间,越来越多的证据证实,高血压与认知功能障碍密切相关,高血压能够引起多个认知域损害<sup>[5-9]</sup>。但二者之间的关系受年龄干扰,不同年龄阶段高血压对认知功能的影响可能不同。目前较为普遍的观点是:中年期高血压是老年期认知功能障碍的危险因素,但老年期血压水平与认知功能障碍的关系尚存争议。

多项研究证实,痴呆发病前数年至数十年存在高血压或血压水平较高是发生认知功能障碍的危险因素<sup>[6, 8, 10-14]</sup>。Gottesman等<sup>[12]</sup>检测13 476例48~67岁人群基线血压和认知功能,并进行20年随访,结果显示,中年期高血压与总体认知功能下降密切相关。在Hoorn研究中,Reijmer等<sup>[13]</sup>发现,基线收缩压水平较高者,信息处理速度较慢,但这种差异随着基线年龄的增加而逐渐减弱。

老年期血压水平与认知功能障碍之间的关系更为复杂。有研究显示,老年期高血压可能是认知功能障碍的危险因素<sup>[11, 15]</sup>。Ninomiya等<sup>[11]</sup>开展的一项为期17年的纵向研究显示,老年期血压水平与发生血管性痴呆的风险相关。Yasar等<sup>[15]</sup>针对70岁以上老年非痴呆人群的纵向研究结果显示,收缩压和脉压差升高与随访终点认知功能障碍有关。高血压也能促进轻度认知损害进展为痴呆<sup>[16]</sup>。提示老年期高血压也可能与认知功能障碍有关。

另有研究显示,老年期低血压可能是认知功能障碍的危险因素<sup>[17-19]</sup>。Mahoney等<sup>[17]</sup>对70岁以上老年人进行横断面研究发现,低收缩压者执行功能较收缩压正常者或高收缩压者差。一项针对澳大利亚百岁老人的横断面研究结果显示,低收缩压和低脉压差与认知功能障碍相关<sup>[18]</sup>。另一项针对波兰人群进行的为期3个月的前瞻性研究也得出类似结论<sup>[19]</sup>。上述研究均提示,在老年人中,较高的血压水平对于维持良好的认知功能是必要的。然而目前对于老年期血压应维持于何水平,在认知功能障碍研究领域尚无公认标准,部分研究认为,血压低于120/80 mm Hg即为老年期低血压<sup>[17]</sup>,可能造成认知功能障碍。

也有部分研究发现,老年期血压水平与认知功能障碍的关系并非呈简单线性关系,而呈“U”形曲线关系<sup>[20-21]</sup>。Glynn等<sup>[20]</sup>对3657例年龄65~102岁的老年人进行为期9年的随访研究,其结果显示,基线血压水平与随访终点的认知功能具有关联性,与对照组(收缩压130~160 mm Hg)相比,血压低于

130 mm Hg或高于160 mm Hg组患者认知功能均较差。但也有研究显示,老年期血压水平与认知功能障碍并无关联性<sup>[21]</sup>。

综合考虑上述研究结果,这样的推测可能比较合理,即血压过高或过低均可能是认知功能障碍的危险因素,血压与认知功能障碍之间的关系可能是一种“U”形曲线关系。但是,以下的研究却提供了另外一种可能,老年期血压下降可能是痴呆的早期表现,即老年期低血压是痴呆的结果,而不是原因。多项研究显示,痴呆患者在作出临床诊断前数年,血压即开始下降<sup>[10, 22-23]</sup>。Skoog等<sup>[22]</sup>进行的一项为期15年的前瞻性研究显示,随访终点时诊断为痴呆的患者,具有较高的基线血压水平,但在随访结束的数年前,血压即开始下降,最后与非痴呆组血压相近或更低。Joas等<sup>[10]</sup>研究发现,随访终点发生痴呆的人群在痴呆前数年即开始出现血压下降。表明老年人血压下降可能是痴呆预测因子。但是考虑到痴呆发病的隐蔽性,老年期血压下降与认知功能障碍的先后顺序和因果关系尚不明确。

基于老年期高血压与认知功能障碍关系的复杂性,提出以下几种假设:(1)高血压导致脑血管结构和功能改变,促进认知功能障碍的发生。(2)血压下降导致脑灌注不足,进而导致认知功能障碍<sup>[24]</sup>。(3)痴呆导致神经元死亡、胆碱能神经递质紊乱,引起自主神经功能紊乱,导致血压下降。(4)高血压患者由于脑卒中、心血管病等过早死亡,而血压较低者寿命较长,使研究结果产生选择偏倚。(5)长期高血压患者发生心功能失代偿,故可在老年期出现血压下降。

## 二、血压参数与认知功能障碍的关系

在研究高血压与认知功能障碍关系时,收缩压、舒张压是研究者们首先关注的焦点,但血压影响认知功能的因素可能不仅限于血压水平,其他参数如脉压差、血压变异率、血压节律改变等,也可能与认知功能障碍存在相关性。

脉压差是大动脉粥样硬化的标记,近年研究发现其与认知功能障碍<sup>[25-26]</sup>、阿尔茨海默病<sup>[27]</sup>和脑白质病变<sup>[28]</sup>相关。脉压差增加,增加了语言功能减退的风险<sup>[29]</sup>,并与较差的情景记忆和记忆提取速度相关<sup>[30]</sup>。脉搏波传导速度(PWV)也是动脉粥样硬化标记,能够更加精确地反映血管僵硬度。有研究显示,脉搏波传导速度与认知功能障碍的关系与脉压对认知功能的影响类似<sup>[31-32]</sup>。

血压变异率通常随年龄的增长而增加。研究显示,血压变异率与无症状性脑血管病(如脑白质病变)相关<sup>[33]</sup>,也是脑卒中的强有力预测因子<sup>[34]</sup>。而后两者是血管性痴呆的主要危险因素,故血压变异率也可能影响认知功能。血压变异率通常有两种计算方法,第一种是面对面血压变异率,即在纵向研究中,每次随访时测量血压,计算随访期间血压波动情况;第二种是24小时动态血压变异率,反映患者每日血压波动情况。这两种情形均有可能是认知功能障碍的危险因素<sup>[33,35-36]</sup>,其与认知功能障碍的相关性可能较收缩压更强。

正常人血压昼夜节律为杓型血压,即“两峰一谷”,异常血压昼夜节律可以分为3种:夜间血压下降≥20%为超杓型、下降0~10%为非杓型、增高为反杓型。血压昼夜节律改变可能通过对动脉及其粥样硬化的影响或直接损害神经细胞而导致认知功能障碍的发生和加重<sup>[37-38]</sup>,但相关研究尚少。

### 三、高血压影响认知功能的可能机制

高血压影响认知功能的机制较为复杂,目前尚不完全清楚,可能途径是高血压诱导脑血管结构和功能紊乱,致使脑组织结构改变,导致认知功能障碍;此外,高血压也可能参与阿尔茨海默病的发生、发展。

高血压引起的血管结构变化早期主要为适应性变化,即血管重构。根据重构是否引起血管中膜横截面积和管腔的变化分为:(1)肥厚性重构,表现为血管中膜增厚突入管腔,中膜横截面积增加,中膜/管径比值增加。(2)中膜正常性重构,表现为血管壁血管外径和管径均减少,中膜横截面积不变,而中膜/管径比值增加<sup>[39-40]</sup>。血管的这些适应性变化导致管腔狭窄、血管阻力增加、动脉粥样硬化、血管顺应性下降。长期高血压最终导致大动脉粥样硬化和脑小血管病。脑小血管病的病理学基础为小动脉粥样硬化,表现为中膜平滑肌细胞丢失、纤维透明物质沉积、管腔狭窄和血管壁增厚(脂质透明变性)<sup>[41]</sup>。在组织学上表现为毛细血管减少<sup>[42]</sup>,这可能是脑血流量减少的主要原因之一。

脑血管精密的调节机制保障了脑血流量与物质转运、能量需求的统一。脑血管调节机制精密而复杂,大致包括以下几方面<sup>[43]</sup>:(1)脑血管的自动调节功能。保证动脉压波动于60~150 mm Hg时脑血流保持稳定。(2)内皮细胞依赖性血管调节功能。内皮细胞通过释放血管舒张剂(一氧化氮、前列环

素、缓激肽等)和血管收缩剂(内皮素-1、内皮源性收缩因子等)来维持血管功能。(3)功能性充血。大脑活动所需的血供与神经元和神经胶质细胞的活动一致,即大脑某区域活动增加时,对应区域脑血流量相应增加。具体机制尚不清楚,可能是多种调节机制共同作用的结果。(4)局部体液因素,如二氧化碳分压、动脉血氧分压、代谢产物等。此外,脑血管还受到交感神经和副交感神经的支配。

高血压可以影响脑血管调节机制的多个方面。首先,高血压可以改变脑血管自我调节功能,导致血压-脑血流曲线右移<sup>[44]</sup>。这可能会导致静息状态下脑血流量下降,在相同动脉压下,脑血流量较低;在面临低血压或动脉狭窄情况时,维持脑血流的能力下降。这可以解释,高血压患者出现血压下降是认知功能障碍的强有力预测因子。其次,高血压也可以改变内皮依赖性血管调节功能。在数项由肾素-血管紧张素系统(RAS)激活诱导的慢性高血压动物模型中发现,脑血管内皮细胞依赖性血管舒张功能损害<sup>[45-46]</sup>。Dong等<sup>[47]</sup>通过动物实验发现,抑制肾素可以降低脑白质病变及相关认知功能减退,与临床研究结果一致<sup>[48]</sup>。故血管紧张素Ⅱ参与内皮依赖性血管功能紊乱,可能是高血压导致认知功能障碍的原因之一<sup>[49]</sup>。内皮细胞也是血-脑屏障的重要组成部分,高血压诱导的内皮细胞功能紊乱可能导致血-脑屏障损伤和通透性改变,使外周大分子物质通过,参与脑组织炎症反应等<sup>[50]</sup>。

高血压动物模型<sup>[51]</sup>和慢性高血压临床研究<sup>[52]</sup>均显示,高血压可以导致脑活动相关的功能性充血被抑制。这种神经血管耦联机制失效,导致脑血流量下降,后者是认知功能下降的原因<sup>[53-54]</sup>,也是脑白质病变的原因<sup>[54-55]</sup>。高血压也可促进活性氧生成,抑制、清除活性氧可以消除高血压引起的功能性充血、内皮细胞紊乱和血-脑屏障变化<sup>[45-46,50,56]</sup>。氧化应激也与高血压引起的其他血管变化(如血管重建和炎症反应)相关<sup>[49]</sup>,提示氧化应激参与高血压导致的脑血管功能损害。

高血压诱导脑血管结构和功能紊乱,最终导致脑组织结构改变。流行病学调查研究显示,高血压与灰质萎缩、缺血性卒中、腔隙性梗死、微梗死、脑白质病变、微出血等相关<sup>[4,57-60]</sup>,这些都是血管性痴呆的重要危险因素<sup>[3,61]</sup>。

灰质萎缩是一种退行性变,高血压可能促进这种退行性变<sup>[57]</sup>。但是,正常老龄化与原发性高血压

患者脑萎缩敏感区域不完全相同。部分正常老龄化相对不敏感脑区,如辅助运动区域<sup>[62]</sup>、楔叶<sup>[63]</sup>、丘脑<sup>[64]</sup>和内嗅皮质(EC)<sup>[65]</sup>等,在原发性高血压患者中较为敏感,因此高血压对灰质结构的影响,除促进退行性变外,可能还存在特殊机制。另有研究结果显示,高血压选择性导致左侧额叶(辅助运动区域、额上回和额中回)灰质体积减少,并与运动功能紊乱相关,也许是高血压导致执行功能障碍的机制之一<sup>[66]</sup>。脑萎缩是认知功能障碍的预测因子<sup>[67]</sup>,内侧颞叶萎缩(MTA)是阿尔茨海默病的病理学特征之一<sup>[68]</sup>。

脑小血管病引起的脑结构改变与认知功能障碍密切相关。脑小血管病导致的最主要改变是脑白质病变和腔隙性梗死。高血压与脑白质损害之间的关系已非常明确,高血压可促进脑白质病进展<sup>[58-60]</sup>。脑白质疏松症和残疾研究(LADIS)进行为期5年的纵向观察,结果显示,收缩压和舒张压升高、脉压差增加均可能是脑白质病变的危险因素,降压治疗可以延缓脑白质病进展<sup>[58]</sup>。该研究的多个子项目发现,脑白质病变也是老年人认知功能障碍的预测因子<sup>[60, 68-71]</sup>,严重的脑白质病变与总体认知功能、执行功能、运动控制、注意力、命名能力等多个认知域损害相关<sup>[70]</sup>。伴腔隙性梗死者,发生血管性痴呆的概率显著增加<sup>[3]</sup>,尤其新发生的腔隙性梗死常伴执行功能和精神运动速度减退,影响认知功能<sup>[72]</sup>。此外,微梗死<sup>[73]</sup>、微出血<sup>[74-75]</sup>也是认知功能障碍的预测因子。

既往认为,阿尔茨海默病与血管性痴呆是两种不同原因的认知功能障碍。但近期流行病学、病理学、实验研究均显示,血管因素(如高血压)也参与阿尔茨海默病的发生与发展<sup>[3, 76-80]</sup>。高血压患者脑组织存在更多的β-淀粉样蛋白(Aβ)沉积和神经原纤维缠结(NFTs)<sup>[79]</sup>,在高血压大鼠模型中也发现了相同结果<sup>[80]</sup>,提示高血压可能通过阿尔茨海默病的相关机制介导认知损害。首先,高血压可能影响Aβ代谢,促进其在脑实质内聚集;其次,高血压可能加剧Aβ诱导的脑血管损伤;再次,高血压可能与遗传因素共同作用,促进Aβ沉积。

高血压可能影响Aβ代谢:(1)高血压降低Aβ清除率。Honolulu-Asia老龄化研究(HAAS)探讨中年期高血压、血浆Aβ表达变化、晚年期痴呆及尸检脑组织Aβ沉积之间的关系,发现中年期高血压与血浆Aβ水平下降、淀粉样脑血管病(CAA)和痴呆风险增

加有关<sup>[81]</sup>。血管功能紊乱可能参与这个过程<sup>[80]</sup>。此外,有研究发现,高血压可以介导Aβ从外周血经血-脑屏障向脑实质转运<sup>[82]</sup>。(2)高血压增加β-淀粉样前体蛋白(APP)裂解释放Aβ。血管功能紊乱引起的缺血、缺氧可以诱导Aβ裂解释放<sup>[83]</sup>。这些改变最终促进Aβ在脑实质和血管周围间隙中聚集。

高血压可能加剧Aβ诱导的脑血管损伤。在阿尔茨海默病小鼠模型中,Aβ可以抑制功能性充血和内皮细胞依赖性血管舒张<sup>[84-85]</sup>。这与慢性高血压导致的脑血管调节功能紊乱的机制相一致,故二者可能存在叠加甚至协同作用。载脂蛋白Eε4(*ApoEε4*)等位基因是阿尔茨海默病危险因素<sup>[3]</sup>。纵向研究发现,高血压与*ApoEε4*等位基因在加重认知功能障碍中可能具有协同作用<sup>[86]</sup>,可能与二者协同促进Aβ沉积有关<sup>[79]</sup>。

#### 四、降压治疗对认知功能的保护作用

Köhler等<sup>[6]</sup>对随访期间新发高血压患者的认知功能变化进行研究,发现认知功能障碍通常发生于新发高血压后数年,这个时间差可能是一个非常好的治疗时间窗。遗憾的是,降压治疗对保护认知功能的作用尚存争议<sup>[3, 87]</sup>。部分研究显示,降压治疗能够保护高血压患者的认知功能<sup>[3, 87]</sup>。Gottesman等<sup>[12]</sup>研究显示,接受降压治疗的高血压患者,认知功能下降较未治疗的高血压患者缓慢。欧洲收缩期高血压(Syst-Eur)试验也发现,尼群地平可以降低痴呆发生率<sup>[88]</sup>。强化降压(收缩压<120 mm Hg)能够增加高血压患者的脑血流量<sup>[44]</sup>,这也可能有助于改善或延缓认知功能障碍。但也有研究显示,降压治疗并未对认知功能有保护作用。老年人高血压认知功能评价试验(HYVET-COG)对3336例80岁以上老年人进行为期2.20年的随访,结果并未发现降压治疗能够预防痴呆<sup>[89]</sup>。相关研究显示,老年人低血压可能是认知功能障碍的危险因素<sup>[17-19]</sup>,故不恰当的降压治疗可能加重认知功能障碍。

2011年,美国心脏协会(AHA)/美国卒中协会(ASA)根据6项大型临床随机试验和5项Meta分析结果,对痴呆高危人群的血压管理和认知功能保护提出了以下建议:(1)有脑卒中病史的人群,降压治疗可以有效预防脑卒中后痴呆(I类推荐,B级证据)。(2)在中年人和低龄老年人中,降压治疗可以预防痴呆(II A类推荐,B级证据)。(3)在80岁以上的人群中,降压治疗对预防痴呆的有效性尚不明确(II B类推荐,B级证据)。(4)在有血管性认知损害

的人群中,降压治疗是必要的(I类推荐,A级证据)<sup>[3]</sup>。该指南仅对降压治疗与保护认知功能之间的关系给出了一般性建议,并未对药物选择、治疗时机、血压控制范围等给出进一步建议,对临床医师来说缺乏实践性。笔者认为,在没有确切的证据来指导痴呆高危人群降压治疗前,参照心血管病降压指南也是相对合理的选择。

当前关于“降压对认知功能的作用”的研究对象多为老年人。然而血压与认知功能的关系受到年龄的干扰,故在研究降压治疗对认知功能的影响时,也应考虑年龄因素,以中年期高血压人群或新发高血压人群为研究对象,或许会有新的发现。

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## • 小词典 •

## 中英文对照名词词汇(三)

- 二十二碳六烯酸 docosahexaenoic acid(DHA)
- C-反应蛋白 C-reactive protein(CRP)
- 范畴词语流畅性测验 Category Verbal Fluency Test(CVFT)
- 非痴呆型血管性认知损害  
vascular cognitive impairment-no dementia(VCIND)
- 非朗格汉斯细胞组织细胞增生症  
non-Langenhans' cell histiocytosis(NLCH)
- 非运动症状 non-motor symptoms(NMS)
- Meta分析报告质量评价工具  
Quality of Reporting of Meta-analyses(QUOROM)
- 风疹病毒 rubella virus(RV)
- Rey-Osterrieth 复杂图形测验  
Rey-Osterrieth Complex Figure Test(ROCFT)
- 腹内侧前额叶皮质 ventromedial prefrontal cortex(vmPFC)
- 甘油三酯 triglycerides(TG)
- 高密度脂蛋白胆固醇  
high-density lipoprotein cholesterol(HDL-C)
- 弓形虫 toxoplasma(TOX)
- 谷氨酸受体 glutamate receptor(GluR)
- 寡克隆区带 oligoclonal bands(OB)
- 胱抑素C cystatin C(Cys-C)
- 广谱细胞角蛋白 pan cytokeratin(PCK)
- 国际疾病分类法-10  
International Classification of Disease-10(ICD-10)
- 海人酸 kainic acid(KA)
- 汉密尔顿焦虑量表 Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale(HAMA)
- 汉密尔顿抑郁量表  
Hamilton Depression Rating Scale(HAMD)
- 核内包涵体 intranuclear inclusions(INIs)
- 核因子-κB nuclear factor-κB(NF-κB)
- 核因子NF-E2 相关因子2/抗氧化反应元件  
nuclear factor-E2-related factor 2/antioxidant response element(Nrf2/ARE)
- 红细胞沉降率 erythrocyte sedimentation rate(ESR)
- 后部皮质萎缩 posterior cortical atrophy(PCA)
- 画钟测验 Clock Drawing Test(CDT)
- 黄体生成素 luteinizing hormone(LH)
- 回波时间 echo time(TE)
- 活性氧 reactive oxygen species(ROS)
- 积木测验 Block Design Test(BD)
- Meynert 基底核 nucleus basalis of Meynert(NBM)
- 激励次数 number of excitation(NEX)
- 吉兰-巴雷综合征 Guillain-Barré syndrome(GBS)
- 脊髓背根入髓区 dorsal root entry zone(DREZ)
- 加拿大蒙特利尔神经病学研究所  
Montreal Neurological Institute(MNI)
- N-甲基-D-天冬氨酸受体  
N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor(NMDAR)
- 甲胎蛋白 alpha-fetoprotein(AFP)
- 简易智能状态检查量表  
Mini-Mental State Examination(MMSE)
- 降钙素原 procalcitonin(PCT)
- 交替流畅性测验  
Animal-City Alternating Form Fluency Test(ACFT)
- 胶质母细胞瘤 glioblastoma(GBM)
- 胶质纤维酸性蛋白 glial fibrillary acidic protein(GFAP)
- 焦虑自评量表 Self-Rating Anxiety Scale(SAS)
- 进行性多灶性白质脑病  
progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy(PML)
- 进行性核上性麻痹 progressive supranuclear palsy(PSP)