

Reaction Time Variability and Brain White Matter Integrity

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## **Abstract**

**Objective:** Mean speed of responding is the most commonly-used measure in the assessment of reaction time. An alternative measure is intra-individual variability (IIV): the inconsistency of responding across multiple trials of a test. IIV has been suggested as an important indicator of central nervous system functioning, and as such, there has been increasing interest in the associations between IIV and brain imaging metrics. Results however, have been inconsistent. The present seeks to provide a comprehensive evaluation of the associations between a variety of measures of brain white matter integrity and individual differences in choice reaction time (CRT) IIV. **Method:** MRI brain scans of members of the Lothian Birth Cohort 1936 (LBC1936) were assessed to obtain measures of the volume and severity of white matter hyperintensities, and the integrity of brain white matter tracts. CRT was assessed with a four choice reaction time task on a separate occasion. Data were analysed using multiple regression (range N = 358 to 670). **Results:** Greater volume of hyperintensities and more severe hyperintensities in frontal regions were associated with higher CRT IIV. White matter tract integrity, as assessed by both fractional anisotropy and mean diffusivity, was not significantly associated with CRT IIV. Associations with hyperintensities were attenuated and no longer significant after controlling for mean CRT. **Conclusions:** Taken together, the results of the present study suggested that IIV was not incrementally predictive of white matter integrity over mean speed. This is in contrast to previous reports, and highlights the need for further study.

**Keywords:** White matter hyperintensities, diffusion tensor imaging, reaction time, intra-individual variability, cognitive ageing.

**Public Significance Statement:** Variability in speeded cognitive test performance has been argued to be a potential early marker of cognitive decline and progression into mild cognitive impairment in ageing. Evidence as to the robustness of the relationship, and the potential neurological underpinnings is varied. Our results suggest that average speeded performance, not variability, may be more reliably related to various measures of the brain. These findings are in contrast to much of the extant literature highlighting the need for further research.

## Introduction

Speed of information processing and reaction time (RT) have been studied as integral parts of human cognitive capacities since the nineteenth century (Galton, 1890), with interest persisting over the subsequent years (Deary, 2000; Diehl, Hooker, & Sliwinsky, 2015). It has been proposed that speed of basic information processing represents a fundamental and - tractable element of human general cognitive abilities (Jensen, 2006), which has led to a huge degree of interest in studying its neurological basis (Eckert, 2011; Penke et al., 2010, 2012). Processing speed has also been suggested to be a key capacity in the study of cognitive ageing (Salthouse, 1996; Madden, 2001). Classically, reaction time studies have focussed on some measure of central tendency, or average speed over trials. More recently however, focus has switched to how speed of responding may vary across a set of trials (Hultsch, MacDonald & Dixon, 2002). Within-individual variability in RT is correlated with average RT, but debate remains as to which is the most fundamental, and whether they share neuroanatomical correlates.

Intra-individual variability (IIV) in cognitive assessment indexes the consistency of a person's responses across a short period of time. In the context of an RT task, IIV is the amount of trial-to-trial variability. It provides a complement to the more widely-used mean (or other index of central tendency) RT across a number of trials. IIV is a trait-like characteristic of an individual, in that people more variable on one cognitive task are also more variable on different tasks, and those more variable within a testing occasion are also more variable across occasions (Hultsch, MacDonald, Hunter, Levy-Bencheton & Strauss, 2000). IIV is significantly correlated with higher-level cognitive functioning; for example, with general mental ability (Deary, Der, & Ford, 2001; Rabbitt, Osman, Moore, & Stollery, 2001), with less variable people tending to have higher cognitive ability. There is a growing interest in IIV due, in part, to its predictive value. IIV predicts change in cognitive abilities

over time (Nilsson, Thomas, O'Brien & Gallagher, 2014; Lövdén, Li, Shing & Lindenberger, 2007; MacDonald, Hultsch & Dixon, 2003) and mortality (Deary & Der, 2005a).

Furthermore, IIV differentiates between groups of different neurological health statuses, for example, mild cognitive impairment (MCI) vs. no-MCI (Dixon, Garrett, Lentz, MacDonald, Strauss & Hultsch, 2007), and dementia vs. no dementia (Hultsch et al., 2000). People with MCI or dementia are, on average, slower and more variable, and there is some evidence that IIV has predictive value over and above that of RT mean (Dixon et al., 2007; Hultsch et al., 2000).

IIV increases with age from young adulthood (see Dykiert, Der, Starr & Deary, 2012; Hultsch, Strauss, Hunter & MacDonald, 2008, for reviews). The mechanisms underpinning this age effect are not well understood. The simplest explanation for the increased IIV is that it is driven by general slowing that occurs with age. In other words, as mean RT increases, so does the IIV. However, a number of researchers have argued that the increasing of IIV is the primary phenomenon which, in turn, leads to an increased mean RT. Several theories have been proposed as possible mechanisms of IIV; for example, higher frequency of attentional blocks (Bunce, Warr & Cochrane, 1993) or lapses of intention (West, Murphy, Armilio, Craik & Stuss, 2002), which are related to poorer executive functioning. The lapses or blocks lead to very long RTs on trials on which they occur, thus increasing the overall IIV. Naturally, these long RTs also lead to an increase in mean RT.

A primary focus of research examining the biological basis of RT and IIV has been on the brain. Life-course changes in IIV (decrease in childhood, relative stability in adulthood and an increase in older age) closely map onto the maturation and degeneration of the brain across the lifespan (MacDonald, Nyberg, & Bäckman, 2006). Specifically, accumulating evidence from recent imaging studies has highlighted brain white matter and its integrity as potentially important for RT.

Table 1 summarises the results from a number of recent studies which have considered the associations between IIV in a RT task and metrics derived from brain imaging. A few generalities may be taken from the content of table 1. Firstly, across modalities, there is some evidence that the effects of IIV may be independent of mean RT (e.g. Walhovd & Fjell, 2007; Jackson, Balota, Duchek & Head, 2012). Second, in studies focussed on brain volume measures, there has been some consistency in effects located in the frontal white matter (Bunce, Anstey, Christensen, Dear, Wen & Sachdev, 2007; Haynes, Bunce, Kochan, Wen, Brodaty & Sachdev, 2017; Lövdén, Schmiedek, Kennedy, Rodrigue, Lindenberger & Raz, 2013;). Studies focussed on white matter connectivity have also found support for the importance of frontal associations (Fjell, Westlye, Amlie & Walhovd 2011; Moy et al., 2011).

(Insert Table 1 about here)

Whilst these results, on face value, suggests a consistency of effects observed across studies, the issue of whether RT variability is related to WM micro- and macro-structure is far from resolved. There is much heterogeneity in the studies described here, in particular with reference to the RT tasks on which intra-individual variability is calculated, the measures of WM integrity adopted, and the size, age and make-up of the samples.

Variability in cognitive performance is not a unitary concept. Even the same measure, for example individual SD, may represent qualitatively different aspects of human performance, depending on the task or the timescale from which it was derived. For example, there are different components to different tasks, such as perceptual, motor, reasoning, decision making or inhibition of irrelevant response. Variability in some of these components might have different neural underpinnings. Variability in CRT, which is a relatively simple task requiring only a minimal amount of cognitive processing (a selection and execution of an appropriate response) may not be readily comparable to variability in a task, which might still

use RT as its “score” but requires more complex cognitive operations (for example inhibition of an irrelevant response or performing operations in working memory). Consistent with this with this notion, there are reports of different IIV-WM integrity associations from tasks of different difficulty (e.g. Bunce et al., 2007; Deary et al., 2006; Fjell et al., 2011; Haynes, et al., 2017; Mella et al., 2013). Of note is that both higher and lower associations have been reported for more complex tasks. Further, Fjell et al. (2011) demonstrated that associations of IIV and measures of WM integrity differed, not only in magnitude but also in spatial distribution in the brain, depending on whether congruent (less demanding) or incongruent (more demanding) trials were selected for the calculation of IIV. Given these findings we propose that the question of whether there is a relationship between WM micro/macrostructure needs to be addressed by a series of studies focussed on specific RT tasks.

A second important consideration is the size and structure of the samples used in the extant research. The problem of low power in studies with small samples is generally accepted, insofar as under-powered studies are less likely to detect a true effect (that is, they are more likely to produce false negatives). However, two issues associated with small samples that are under-appreciated are that a) even the effects that are found to be significant, are less likely to reflect a true effect; and b) the effect sizes of significant results are more likely to be overestimated (Button, et al. 2013). Sample sizes of studies reviewed in Table 1 vary from 25 to 526. For reference, a sample size required to achieve 80% power to detect a small ( $r = .1$ ) or medium ( $r = .3$ ) correlation at  $\alpha = .05$  would be 782 and 84, respectively. In light of these estimates, none of the studies reviewed were sufficiently powered to detect a small effect and more than half had insufficient power to detect a moderate effect. Finally, and as noted above, age plays an important role in the relationship between RT IIV and brain integrity. Fjell et al. (2011) found that the association between white matter microstructure

and IIV increases with age, with stronger associations found among older participants (age  $\geq 52$  years) than younger participants (age  $< 52$  years). Moy et al. (2011) found that effects for RD and MD were no longer significant after controlling for age (20-66+ in their sample). Given the potential complexity of the relationship with age, birth cohort studies may be particularly useful as they provide built in control for age effects.

In the current study, we seek to provide a comprehensive assessment of the associations between a variety of volumetric and connective brain imaging metrics and variability in a single task (choice reaction time task) in a large birth cohort, thus minimizing the influence of test comparison, age effects and small sample estimate inconsistency.

## **Materials and Method**

### **Participants**

Participants in the current study were from the Lothian Birth Cohort 1936 (LBC1936), a longitudinal study of cognitive ageing. The study sample consists of surviving members of the Scottish Mental Survey 1947 (SMS1947), most of whom were tested on an IQ-type test at school at approximately age 11 years. The LBC1936 participants were mostly resident in Edinburgh and its surrounding area (the Lothians, Scotland) at recruitment to Wave 1 of the study at about age 70 years. Study protocols for initial recruitment and subsequent waves of data collection, including brain MRI, are reported in detail elsewhere (Deary et al., 2007; Deary, Gow, Pattie & Starr, 2012; Wardlaw et al., 2011).

The LBC1936 sample consisted of 1091 participants in Wave 1 (mean age = 69.5 years, SD = 0.8), of whom 866 participants returned in Wave 2 (mean age = 72.5 years, SD = 0.7). Of these, 855 were invited to undertake MRI of which 728 initiated MRI protocol. For the current study, we retained only those participants for whom quantitative estimates of WMH volume were available. Reasons for absence of WMH data included the use of shortened sequencing protocol with some participants who were uncertain or anxious,



termination of scan prematurely due to issues such as claustrophobia, poor quality data due to movement artefacts, and a number of other health and safety reasons (for discussion of some of these issues see Sandeman et al., 2013). The resultant total study sample was comprised of 671 participants (see Table 2 for sample demographics).

All data used in the current cross-sectional study come from wave 2 of testing.

#### **Four Choice Reaction Time Variability and Mean**

CRT mean and variability were measured using a portable device designed for the UK Health and Lifestyle Survey (Cox, Huppert & Whichelow, 1993). The box includes a high-contrast LCD display and five response keys labelled 1, 2, 0, 3, 4 arranged in a shallow arc. In the 4-choice task, participants placed their second and middle fingers of each hand on the buttons labelled 1, 2, 3 and 4. Participants were presented with a number (1, 2, 3 or 4) on the LCD screen, and had to press the corresponding button as quickly as possible. The test consisted of a total of 48 trials: 8 practice trials and 40 test trials. Within the test trials, each of the numbers (1, 2, 3 and 4) appeared 10 times in a random order. The time between trials varied randomly from 1 to 3 seconds across all trials.

The box provides the mean and standard deviation of both the correct and incorrect responses; however, only data from the correct responses were available for the current study. Deary and Der (2005b) report the test-retest reliability of mean CRT and SD CRT based on a sample of 49 adults (mean age = 37.1 years, SD=11.4). Mean CRT had a test-retest stability of 0.92, whilst for SD CRT the test-retest reliability was 0.73

In the current analyses, our primary variable of interest is SD CRT. However, for comparison purposes with previous studies, we also report results for models in which coefficient of variability (CV;  $CV = SD\ CRT / \text{mean CRT}$ ) is included as the dependent variable. As is expected, these three variables show moderate to high positive correlations ( $r = 0.62$ , mean CRT & SD CRT;  $r = 0.16$ , mean CRT & CV CRT;  $r = 0.86$ , SD & CV CRT).

## **Image Acquisition**

Wardlaw et al. (2011) provide full details of the brain imaging protocol. In brief, participants underwent whole brain structural and high angular resolution 2 mm isotropic voxel diffusion MRI (7 T2- and 64 diffusion-weighted ( $b = 1000 \text{ s/mm}^2$ ) axial single-shot spin-echo echo-planar imaging volumes) on a GE Signa Horizon HDxt 1.5T clinical scanner (General Electric, Milwaukee, USA) using a self-shielding gradient set (maximum gradient strength 33 mT/m), and an 8-channel phased-array head coil. The structural MRI included axial T2- ( $1 \times 1 \times 2 \text{ mm}$  voxels), T2\*- ( $1 \times 1 \times 2 \text{ mm}$  voxels) and FLAIR-weighted ( $1 \times 1 \times 4 \text{ mm}$  voxels) scans, and a high resolution T1-weighted volume scan ( $1 \times 1 \times 1.3 \text{ mm}$  voxels) acquired in the coronal plane. All sequences were collected with contiguous slice locations, while the acquisition parameters for the T2-, T2\*-, FLAIR and diffusion MRI protocols, i.e. field-of-view ( $256 \times 256 \text{ mm}$  in all cases), imaging matrix, slice thickness and location, were chosen to allow easier co-registration between scans.

## **Quantitative White Matter Hyperintensity Volumes**

Prior to image segmentation, all structural scans were co-registered using FLIRT, a linear automatic registration tool from the FMRIB Software Library (FSL) (<http://www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl>). We used a validated multispectral image processing tool, MCMxxxVI (Wardlaw et al., 2011; Valdés Hernández et al., 2010; <http://sourceforge.net/projects/bric1936>) for segmentation of brain tissue volumes from the four structural scans, i.e. T2-, T1-, T2\*- and FLAIR-weighted MRI, to measure: intracranial volume (all soft tissue structures inside the cranial cavity including brain, dural, cerebrospinal fluid and venous sinuses); total brain volume (the actual brain tissue volume without the superficial or ventricular cerebrospinal fluid); cerebrospinal fluid (all cerebrospinal fluid inside the cranial cavity including the ventricles and superficial subarachnoid space); and WMH volumes. MCMxxxVI does not distinguish hyperintense and

hypointense areas of cerebromalacia due to old cortical/subcortical infarcts or lacunes from WMH and cerebrospinal fluid respectively. Therefore, these areas were masked out from the respective binary masks by thresholding in FLAIR sequences using a region-growing algorithm from Analyze 10.0 (<http://www.analyzedirect.com/Analyze>). Where stroke lesions were confluent with WMH, the boundary between the two was determined by evaluation of the WMH in the contralateral hemisphere and neuroradiological knowledge. Brain tissue volumes were measured blind to participant information.

For the current study, we use the total WMH volume (cm<sup>3</sup>) after first residualising for overall brain size (intracranial volume, cm<sup>3</sup>).

### **Qualitative White Matter Lesion Location**

Qualitative visual ratings of the intensity and location of WMH were scored using the Wahlund scale based on the FLAIR and T2-weighted scans (Wahlund et al., 2001).

Hyperintensities were rated both bilaterally and as an overall score in the frontal, parieto-occipital and temporal lobes, as well as the basal ganglia and infratentorial regions.

Hyperintensities were rated on a four point scale. (For basal ganglia: 0= No Hyperintensities; 1=1 Focal Hyperintensity; 2=More than 1 focal Hyperintensity; 3=Confluent

Hyperintensities; for other regions: 0=No Hyperintensities; 1=Focal Hyperintensity;

2=Beginning confluence Hyperintensity; 3=Diffuse involvement of the entire region) by a

trained neuroradiologist (ZM). This process results in an ordered categorical variable. On

inspection of the score distribution (Table 2), it became clear there were very low frequency

cells which would be problematic for the estimation of the association beta coefficients. As

such, we created binary variables for each are by combining 0 and 1, and 1 and 2 scores from the original scale.

For the current analysis, we utilised the overall Wahlund ratings rather than considering the left and right hemispheres individually. Correlations between left and right

hemispheres were moderate to high for all lobes and regions (frontal lobe=.86; parieto-occipital lobe=.89; temporal lobe=.64; basal ganglia=.72; infratentorial region=.88).

### **Tract Segmentation**

The diffusion MRI data were preprocessed using FSL tools (FMRIB, Oxford, UK; <http://www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk>) to extract the brain, remove bulk patient motion and eddy current induced artefacts, and generate parametric maps of FA. Underlying connectivity data were generated using BedpostX/ProbTrackX with the default settings of a two-fibre model per voxel, and 5000 probabilistic streamlines with a fixed separation of 0.5 mm between successive points (Behrens, Johansen-Berg, Jbabdi, Rushworth, & Woolrich, 2007).

Twelve tracts of interest were identified using probabilistic neighbourhood tractography, a novel approach for automatic and reproducible tract segmentation (Clayden, Storkey & Bastin, 2007), as implemented in the TractoR package for fibre tracking analysis (Clayden, Muñoz Maniega, Storkey, King, Bastin, & Clark, 2011; <http://www.tractor-mri.org.uk>). Briefly, this method works by segmenting the same fasciculus-of-interest across a group of subjects from single seed point tractography output by modelling how individual tracts compare to a predefined reference tract in terms of their length and shape (Clayden et al., 2007). In practice, multiple native space seed points are placed in a cubic neighbourhood of voxels (typically 7 x 7 x 7) surrounding a seed point transferred from the centre of the reference tract, which is defined in standard space, with the tract that best matches the reference chosen from this group of ‘candidate tracts’. Tracts assessed were the genu and splenium of corpus callosum, and bilateral anterior thalamic radiations, rostral cingulum bundles, arcuate, uncinate and inferior longitudinal fasciculi. Tract masks generated by probabilistic neighbourhood tractography were overlaid on the FA parametric maps and tract-averaged values of these biomarkers, weighted by the connection probability, determined for each tract in every subject.

To ensure that the segmented tracts were anatomically plausible representations of the fasciculi of interest, a researcher (SMM) visually inspected all masks blind to the other study variables and excluded tracts with aberrant or truncated pathways. In general, probabilistic neighbourhood tractography was able to segment the 12 tracts of interest reliably (see Clayden, Storkey, Muñoz Maniega, & Bastin, 2009) in the majority of subjects, with tracts that did not meet quality criteria, such as truncation or failing to follow the expected path, ranging from 0.3% for the splenium of corpus callosum to 16% for the left anterior thalamic radiation, with a mean of 5%. (Failures in tract segmentation are typically caused by underlying tractography errors in BedpostX/ProbTrackX resulting from finite image resolution, small registration mismatches in the component diffusion MRI volumes and measurement noise.)

From the point of view of substantive investigations, the 12 tracts represent a good balance between projection (anterior thalamic radiation), commissural (genu and splenium of the corpus callosum) and association (arcuate fasciculus, rostral cingulum, uncinated fasciculus & inferior longitudinal thalamic radiation) fibres which connect a wide variety of brain regions. In the current study, we used FA and MD data for each of the 12 tracts to compute a metric of overall white matter integrity following Penke et al. (2012).

Confirmatory factor analytic models were fit using full information maximum likelihood estimation to account for the small proportions of missing data in Mplus 7.4 (Muthen & Muthen, 1995-2000). A single general integrity factor was modelled, with all 12 tracts loading on it. Separate models were fit for FA (gFA) and MD (gMD). Values for the left and right hemispheres of each tract were allowed to correlate in order to account for the local dependence. Regression based factor scores were estimated from these models and used in subsequent analyses.

Both models showed good fit to the data (gFA:  $\chi^2=101.48$ ,  $df=49$ ,  $p<.001$ ; CFI=.98; TLI=.97; RMSEA=.040; SRMR=.033; gMD:  $\chi^2=193.43$ ,  $df=49$ ,  $p<.001$ ; CFI=.94; TLI=.93; RMSEA=.066; SRMR=.041) suggesting the suitability of the models. The general factors accounted for 9.5% to 47.7% (gFA) and 3.3% to 51.8% (gMD) of the variance in the individual tracts. Factor score determinacies, which provide a metric of score reliability, were high for both models. Determinacies are reported for each missing data pattern. For gFA, the complete case determinacy was 0.915, with the lowest determinacy 0.812. For gMD, the complete case determinacy was 0.925, with the lowest determinacy of 0.791.

In addition, and for information, we also ran models using the hemispheric tract average for each of the tracts listed above.

### **Health Covariates**

Participants were asked a series of questions on their medical history by an interviewer, which were responded to with simple Yes/No answers. The questions asked whether participants had a history of cardiovascular disease, hypertension (being treated for), high cholesterol, diabetes, blood circulation problems (being treated for), or stroke. In all statistical analyses (see next section), these variables were included as individual binary covariates. This was done to provide some statistical control for any shared variance between presence of disease, imaging metrics and speeded performance.

### **Statistical Analyses**

We built two regression models for each of our predictor variables of interest, WMH, general white matter integrity FA and MD, and Wahlund ratings of white matter lesion severity and location. In addition to the primary imaging variables of interest, we also include results from analyses using the hemispheric averages (or single values for the genu and splenium of the corpus callosum) for each white matter tract as predictors of speed variability in place of the general FA and MD variables.

In the first model (Model 1), we included age, sex, health covariates and the brain integrity measure of interest. We chose to include age as, despite the use of a birth cohort and thus a narrow age range, both RT and white matter are sensitive to effects of age. Correlations between age and the focal RT and white matter variables are provided in supplementary material A. In the second model (Model 2), we additionally included mean CRT. Here we were interested in the extent of attenuation of any main effects after controlling for average reaction time.

The primary focus of this study was in prediction of SD CRT as a measure of variability. However, for completeness and following reviewer comments, given the exploratory nature of the study, we also estimate models using both mean CRT and the coefficient of variation (CV) CRT as dependent variables. In the analyses of mean CRT, the second stage models include SD CRT in the second step.

Assumption checks for all models were run with results included in the supplementary materials.

Lastly, in order to assess the robustness of our findings, a number of sensitivity analyses were conducted. Firstly, in order to assess the influence of outlying values, we re-ran our final models using robust regression using the Huber method as implemented in the 'rlm' function in the MASS package in R (Venables & Ripley, 2002). Second, we re-ran our final models based on subsets of the full data set – those individuals with a history of CVD or stroke (n=214) and those with a history of neither (n=457).

## **Results**

Descriptive statistics are shown in Table 2. The frequency of the Wahlund ratings indicates that hyperintensities are primarily located, and have greater severity, in the frontal and parieto-occipital regions. As often observed in ageing samples, the most commonly-reported medical problems were hypertension and high cholesterol.

(Insert Table 2 about here)

Results of regression diagnostic tests suggested no evidence of multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity, non-independence of errors, non-normality of model residuals, or influential observations (see supplementary material). Reaction time variables often display high levels of skew and kurtosis; however, this problem is usually less severe in CRT, compared with simple RT. As can be seen in Table 2, in our study SD CRT was relatively normally distributed. As such, we did not deem it necessary to re-run models using the log transform of RT, as is often reported in the literature.

Tables 3 through 8 display the standardized regression coefficients for models including WMH volume, gFA, gMD, Wahlund ratings, individual tract average FA and individual tract average MD respectively. In order to facilitate comparisons across models, each table contains results from all models with SD CRT, mean CRT, and CV CRT are the outcome variables of interest. Given the large number of models and tests in this exploratory study, *p*-values are reported for completeness, but we refrain from interpreting individual effects based on these (for the full model results tables, see supplementary material Tables S2 to S18).

Across all models, the variance accounted for by age, sex, health covariates and the focal brain imaging variables was small, ranging from 2.6% to 4.8% variance explain for SD CRT, with ranges of 3.3% to 5.4% and 0.9% to 3.9% variance explained for mean CRT and CV CRT respectively. As expected given the strong positive correlation between mean CRT and SD CRT, the addition of mean CRT to models predicting SD CRT, increased variance explained to between 36.0% and 41.1%. Similarly, and again as expected, when SD CRT was added to models predicting mean CRT, variance explained increased to between 36.6% to 41.7% (See Supplementary tables S2 to S18 for full results of model *F*-tests variance explained).



### **Covariate effects**

For age and sex, the direction of the effects indicated that female participants and those who were older had higher SD CRT, and thus were more variable in performance, whereas men and older participants had higher mean CRT, indicating they were slower on average across trials. Of the health covariates, all effects sizes were small (absolute  $\beta$  range = .00 to .11), with effects generally speaking indicating that those who have a history of a medical condition were both more variable and have a higher mean CRT.

(Insert Table 3 and 4 about here)

### **Main effects**

Across models, WMH volume demonstrated consistently larger effects ( $\beta$  range = .05 to .14), with the direction of the effects indicating the increased WMH volume was associated with greater variability and higher average CRT. The largest effects within specific models were seen with the white matter tract variables. Of the general measures, the largest effect was for gFA predicting mean CRT ( $\beta = 0.15$ ). Considering the tract averages, the strongest effects were seen for both FA and MD in the genu of the corpus callosum, particular with mean CRT.

(Insert Table 5 and 6 about here)

However, these effects were in the opposite direction to that which might be expected. Positive associations between FA and SD CRT ( $\beta = 0.14$ ) and mean CRT ( $\beta = 0.17$ ) suggest that higher values of FA are associated with higher mean CRT and greater variability, with opposite effects and interpretation for MD ( $\beta = -0.08$  and  $-0.022$  respectively). Finally, of the models including the Wahlund ratings, the largest effects were seen for ratings in frontal regions ( $\beta$  range = .06 to .15), indicating those with greater severity of lesion in this region were both more variable, and had higher mean CRT.

### **Comparison across CRT SD, mean CRT and CV CRT**

Across all models, the largest effects were seen for the coefficients predicting mean CRT, indicating that the imaging variables were more strongly associated with average performance than variability. However, it is important to note that in absolute terms these effects were still small, and thus the difference in the coefficients predicting SD, mean and CV CRT were also small.

(Insert Table 7 and 8 about here)

The difference in coefficients from model 1 to model 2 for both SD CRT and mean CRT provide information on the degree to which the effects of the imaging variables on SD CRT and mean CRT are attenuated by the inclusion of other variable. Across models, the inclusion of either SD CRT or mean CRT resulted in attenuations to the effects of the focal imaging variables. The magnitudes of these attenuations varied. Fractionally larger attenuations were evident in models predicting SD CRT when mean CRT was added as a predictor than the reverse specification. However, these differences were marginal.

Many coefficients which were near zero in the original models (Model 1 across tables), showed varied attenuations and in magnitude and direction of effect, fluctuating around zero.

### **Sensitivity Checks**

In order to assess the sensitivity of our results, we re-ran all final models using robust regression (See Supplementary materials Tables S19 to S21). The pattern of results was identical to the main models with respect to the direction, magnitude and associated inferential statistics.

Next, we considered whether those individuals with a history of CVD or stroke drove the observed effects in the total sample. Parameter estimates were compared for the final models in which the sample was split into a sample without history of either CVD or stroke

(n=456), and those with a history of either condition (n=214) (See Supplementary Tables S22 to S24).

Again, the pattern of results was largely identical to the main analyses. For each model, for each outcome, effect sizes were generally smaller due, most likely, to the reduced sample size for each of these models. However, the direction of effects and the relative size of effects were broadly consistent.

Taken collectively, the results of the sensitivity checks indicated the patterns of results were generally robust of individual influential cases, and were not driven by those within the sample with a history of CVD.

### **Discussion**

In the full sample, WMH volume was positively associated with SD CRT; people with larger WMH volume were more variable in CRT responses. Ratings of hyperintensity severity in frontal lobes, but not in other brain areas, were positively associated with SD CRT. Neither FA nor MD estimates of general white matter tract integrity were significantly associated with SD CRT. Across all models, when mean CRT was included in the models, only the effect of sex remained significant. Therefore, in the current sample, there were no incremental effects of various metrics of white matter on CRT variability over and above the average effects of CRT speed.

In order to investigate the relationships of the imaging measures with different dependent measures derived from the CRT test, we re-ran our models using both CRT coefficient of variation (CV) and mean CRT as the dependent variable. With CV CRT as the dependent variable, the association of the frontal hyperintensity ratings remained significant, as did ratings of hyperintensities in the parieto-occipital region. However, the direction of these effects differed, specifically in the case of the parieto-occipital association, lower

ratings of hyperintensities were associated with greater CRT variability. The counter intuitive direction of this effect suggests this may be a chance finding.

It should be noted here that, although frequently used, CV CRT is a crude measure of IIV adjusted for mean and a number of issues associated with its use and interpretation have been raised (see e.g. Hulstsch, et al., 2008, for discussion).

When models were re-estimated using mean CRT as the dependent variable, significant associations were found with WMH volume, gFA and gMD. These relationships were found to be independent of SD CRT. Given the large number of statistical tests reported in the current study, it is perhaps more informative to consider the magnitude of the standardized effects. Across tables 3 to 8 the coefficients from the various imaging metrics are larger in magnitude when predicting mean CRT when compared to SD CRT. Only in the case of Wahlund ratings (Table 6) are the standardized effects approximately equal.

Taken together, the results of the present study suggest that various metrics of WM integrity show limited associations with either SD CRT and mean CRT when both variables are included in the models. Put differently, imaging metrics are not incrementally predictive of either SD or mean CRT when the other RT measure is controlled for. This is in contrast to some previous reports suggesting that IIV's association with WM integrity is largely independent of mean RT speed (Bunce et al., 2007; Fjell et al. 2011; Moy et al 2011).

The results support findings from earlier work linking white matter integrity and information processing speed in the current sample. For example, Valdés Hernández et al. (2013) showed that WMH load is associated with both general cognitive ability and with information processing speed in old age. Using diffusion tensor MRI indicators of white matter tract integrity rather than hyperintensities, Penke et al., (2012) showed that the association between the integrity of white matter tracts and general cognitive ability was fully

mediated by the speed of basic information processing. However, neither of the previous studies in the current sample have considered CRT variability.

As outlined in the introduction, there remain some differences in the methodologies applied across studies, for example the specific WMH measures, composition of the samples, and different RT tests, which make drawing meaningful direct comparisons, difficult. More importantly, as noted in the introduction, many of the previous studies were underpowered. Comparing our results to those studies with comparable sample sizes, for example Haynes et al., (2017; see Table 1), similar patterns of results are seen. Specifically, the effects of interest are largely small, and when models are estimated including both metrics of average RT and variability in RT, effects are attenuated and drop below nominal alpha thresholds.

Our study is one of the only large sampled studies to consider SD, mean and CV CRT alongside multiple different metrics brain white matter. Though exploratory in nature, such an approach can be advantageous in an area where current findings contain inconsistencies. For example, our study is one of few large studies to address the issue of whether the association between frontal WMH and CRT IIV might be explained by the shared association of these two variables with mean RT. The current study does not resolve the question of whether variability or average RT performance is more strongly related to fundamental measures of the brain. However, we hope that others will follow in adding further evidence from adequately-powered studies to help resolve the existing inconsistencies in the results. Such studies would benefit from both more extensive and detailed proxy behavioural measures of speed, and more biologically derived metrics of brain activation. Some investigations of this type have been carried out and they provide interesting insights. For example, studies of blood oxygen level-dependent (BOLD) signal variability in the brain suggested that, at least within the brain itself, IIV and mean signal are distinct quantities (Garrett, Kovacevic, McIntosh & Grady, 2011).

Moreover, contrary to the general consensus regarding RT IIV, it appears that as far as brain signals are concerned, greater, not smaller, variability may be advantageous, representing greater adaptability from moment to moment (Garrett et al., 2011; Garrett, Samanez-Larkin, MacDonald, Lindenberger, McIntosh, & Grady, 2013; McIntosh, Kovacevic, & Itier, 2008). This underlines the complexity of the topic and warrants further research into more nuanced aspects of variability.

The effects noted in the current study are generally small. However, the current sample is sufficiently large, and the measures sufficiently reliable that we judge that these effect sizes are unlikely to have been much biased based on features of the study, and we judge that the estimates presented here are robust. Of course, the practical question of the importance of such small effects for an individual's daily functioning remains; however, small effects can have importance at the population level.

The analyses also suggested a number of covariates to be significant predictors of the various measures of CRT (SD, mean and CV). Specifically, in a majority of models, sex was a significant covariate with the direction of the effect suggesting that women were more variable in performance than men. Interestingly, given the narrow age range of the current sample (birth cohort), age had a significant effect on CRT measures. In the case of predicting SD CRT this was true only in the models without CRT mean. In predicting mean CRT, age remained a significant covariate after the inclusion of CRT SD. Collectively this pattern of results suggests that in the current sample at least, age is primarily associated with overall mean CRT, and not variability. Whilst it may seem surprising given the narrow range of age, and thus low variance, to see significant effects, speeded performance has been shown to be sensitive to the effects of ageing. On a practical note, the significant effects also validate the inclusion of age as a covariate in our models.

This study provided a systematic exploratory investigation of the association between white matter integrity and RT IIV in a large sample of older adults. Sample sizes are often small in neuropsychological studies (but see Anstey et al., 2007; Bunce et al., 2007; Haynes et al., 2017, for notable exceptions), which can exacerbate the problem of unreliable, unreproducible results. Greater number of large, adequately-powered studies are needed to clarify the effects. Another strength of the present study is the use of multiple measures of white matter integrity, providing a comprehensive look at the associations with RT IIV and speed. It should be noted that we considered only the volume and location of white matter hyperintensities, and white matter tract integrity and that it is known that as the brain ages and in the presence of increasing degrees of white matter hyperintensities, the integrity of normal appearing white matter becomes increasingly “non-normal”. Future studies should include measures of the tissue integrity of the whole brain, which may provide some additional insight into the associations between integrity and the average and variability in speeded test performance.

The RT measures used in the present study were calculated from 40 trials, which is a modest number by comparison with some other studies investigating RT variability in relation to white matter integrity. Even though 20 trials have previously been shown to be an adequate number for this type of investigation (Bunce et al., 2013), we know that the reliability of both IIV and mean RT increases, and perhaps more importantly, the discrepancy in reliabilities between the two measures decreases, with the larger number of trials (Schmiedek, Lövdén & Lindenberger, 2009). Therefore, having more trials from which mean RT and IIV are calculated is highly encouraged in future studies in this field.

In conclusion, we found little evidence that white matter integrity explains variance in SD CRT over that explained by the mean CRT. The results suggest that the association between WMH load and CRT variability might be secondary to the association of WMH with

average CRT. At least in the case of CRT and in the cross-sectional analysis of the current sample, neither WMH load nor white matter tract integrity appear to be strong candidates to explain age differences in CRT IIV. Further investigations into putative causes of increased CRT in older adults are required.



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Table 1

Literature Summary

Author	Sample size Age	RT task	Measures: RT variability WM Covariates	Summary of results
<b>Brain tissue volume/area</b>				
Anstey et al., (2007)	N=489 432 (209 Fem) healthy adults 57 (19 Fem) with mild cognitive disorders  Age: Healthy: Mean = 62.6 Range: 60-64  Mild cognitive disorder: Mean = 62.5	SRT (to light) and 2-way CRT (right vs. left to light location). Four blocks of 20 trials for SRT and two blocks of 20 trials for CRT.	MIVS for SRT and MIVC for CRT  Corpus callosum area  Age, sex, education, alcohol intake, FEV/height, smoking, vision, grip strength	<u>Healthy:</u> $r_{(MIVS, CC\ area)} = -.11$ ; $r_{(MIVC, CC\ area)}$ ns. With covariates controlled and mean RT controlled, ns.  <u>Mild cognitive disorder:</u> $r_{(MIVS, Corpus\ callosum\ area)} = -.32$ ; $r_{(MIVC, CC\ area)}$ ns. MIVS but not MIVC explained variance in CC area that was over that explained by the covariates and mean RT
Lövdén et al., 2013	N=43 25 younger (13 Fem) 18 older (9 Fem)  Age: Younger: Mean = 25.0 Range: 20-31	Two-way CRT (odd vs. even number discrimination) with individually determined stimulus presentation time. Two blocks of 40 trials for up to 101 days; 20	Day-to-day, block-to-block and trial-to-trial variability partitioned using multilevel linear model with three levels.  Regional brain volumes (ROIs: dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, orbital frontal cortex, the adjacent prefrontal	Day-to-day or trial-to-trial variability not associated with any regional volume; higher block-to-block variability associated with lower frontal WM volumes, with and without controlling for mean RT

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	<p><i>Older:</i>  <i>Mean = 70.1</i>  <i>Range: 65-80</i></p>	<p>trials with longest presentation time selected from each block.</p>	<p>white matter, primary visual cortex, the hippocampus, the caudate nucleus, and the cerebellar hemispheres)</p> <p>Age</p>	
<p>Jackson et al., 2012</p>	<p>N=166  <i>133 (87 Fem) healthy adults</i>  <i>33 (17 Fem) patients with early stage Alzheimer's Disease</i></p> <p><i>Age:</i>  <i>Healthy:</i>  <i>Mean = 68.0</i>  <i>Range = 46-96</i></p> <p><i>AD:</i>  <i>Mean = 76.6</i>  <i>Range: 61-88</i></p>	<p>Stroop (104 trials), Simon (120 trials), and switching tasks (consonant vs. vowel or odd vs. even number; 60 trials). Stroop and Simon tasks included congruent, incongruent and neutral trials.</p>	<p>CV and Ex-Gaussian parameters calculated as composites based on the performance on the three tasks.</p> <p>Regional brain volumes (ROIs: total cerebral white matter, superior frontal gyrus, ventra/dorsal-lateral prefrontal cortex, anterior cingulate, posterior cingulate, precuneus, inferior parietal lobule; primary visual cortex as a control</p> <p>Education, sex, interval between the scan and cognitive assessment, scanner type, cardiovascular health, depression, age, dementia status</p>	<p>Smaller CV associated with larger volumes of: total cerebral white matter, posterior cingulate, precuneus, ventra/dorsal-lateral prefrontal cortex, and superior frontal gyrus. Ex-Gaussian parameters: no main effects for sigma; smaller tau associated with larger volumes of total cerebral white matter, posterior cingulate, precuneus, ventra/dorsal-lateral prefrontal cortex, superior frontal gyrus</p>
<p>Walhovd &amp; Fjell, 2007</p>	<p>N= 71 (40 Fem)</p> <p><i>Age</i>  <i>Mean = 52.1</i>  <i>Range: 20-88</i></p>	<p>Three-stimuli oddball task; 210 trials, including 21 targets, 21 distractors and 168 standard stimuli - response required to the targets only</p>	<p>ISD and ISD with mean RT regressed out</p> <p>Total white matter volume</p> <p>Age, sex</p>	<p>ISD correlated <math>r = -.30</math> WM volume; and <math>-.29</math> after controlling for mean RT</p>

<b>White Matter Hyperintensities</b>				
Bunce et al., 2007	<p>N = 469 (48% Fem)</p> <p><i>Same sample as Anstey et al. (2007)</i></p> <p>Age:  <i>Mean = 62.6</i>  <i>Range: 60-64</i></p>	<p>SRT (response to a light stimulus) and two-way CRT (right vs. left in response to a light location). Four blocks of 20 trials for SRT and two blocks of 20 trials for CRT.</p>	<p>MARS and MARC, for SRT and CRT (adjusted for practice effects but not mean) and MIVS and MIVC (adjusted for practice and mean SRT or CRT)</p> <p>White matter hyperintensities in ROIs: frontal, parietal, temporal, and occipital white matter, anterior cap, posterior cap, and periventricular body</p> <p>Sex, depression, education</p>	<p>Frontal region: <math>r_{(WMH, MARC)} = .16</math>; <math>r_{(WMH, MIVC)} = .14</math>; no significant WMH-MARS or WMH-MIVS in any ROI. Betas from regression analysis, including covariates and a linear and quadratic term for RT: MARC = .15; MIVC = .13; no significant associations between WMH and MARS or MIVS</p>
Haynes et al., 2017	<p>N = 526 (54% Fem)</p> <p>Age:  <i>Mean = 78.38</i>  <i>Range: 70-90</i></p>	<p>SRT (response to a square stimulus) and CRT (same-different colour judgement). Two assessments were performed for each test, with a total of 36 trials for SRT and 40 trials for CRT.</p>	<p>ISD (calculated from residuals after partialling out the effects of age, trial number and time-on-task and their interactions)</p> <p>White matter hyperintensities:                      - total volume; periventricular and deep white matter (the latter also subdivided into: frontal, parietal, temporal, and occipital lobes)</p> <p>Age, education, sex</p>	<p>No significant associations for SRT in any region considered.</p> <p>CRT ISD and mean CRT were both related to frontal WMH volume, but not when entered in the model simultaneously.</p>
<b>Diffusion tensor imaging measures</b>				

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<p>Fjell et al., (2011)</p>	<p>N=270 (57% Fem) Age: Mean = 48.6 Range: 20-83</p>	<p>Adapted Eriksen flanker task (a target arrow surrounded by irrelevant distracter arrows, either congruent or incongruent to the target). On-task training - a message to respond faster if 10% over own mean RT; 416 trials, with a break half-way.</p>	<p>RT ISD FA, MD, RD, and AD Age, sex, and median RT.</p>	<p><u>Congruent trials:</u> RT ISD negatively associated with FA and positively with MD, RD, and AD. Associations were widespread across the brain (25% - 50% of the skeleton voxels). The relationship between RT ISD and DTI stronger in the older than in the younger part of the sample.  <u>Incongruent trials:</u> RT ISD negatively associated with FA and positively to the other diffusion parameters; effect less spatially widespread (&lt;25% of voxels).</p>
<p>Moy et al., (2011)</p>	<p>N=61 (40-71% Fem, depending on age group)  Four age groups: 1. 27.8 (20-34) 2. 41.9 (35-50) 3. 57.8 (51-65) 4. 74.3 (&gt;66)</p>	<p>SRT (response to a cross appearing of the screen); 120 trials</p>	<p>RT ISD (calculated from residuals after controlling for trial, age and their interaction)  FA, MD, RD, and AD  Education, gender, age</p>	<p>FA related to IIV in left and right part of the splenium, and in posterior, middle and anterior parts of the left inferior fronto-occipital fasciculus. Without controlling for age, significant effects found for RD and MD as well as FA.</p>
<p>Deary et al., (2006)</p>	<p>N = 40 (19 Fem)  Age: Mean = 83</p>	<p>SRT and four-way CRT to numbers; 20 trials for SRT, 40 trials for CRT</p>	<p>RT ISD FA, MD, and MTR</p>	<p>Centrum semiovale <math>r_{(SRT\ ISD, FA)} = -.52</math>; frontal WM <math>r_{(CRT\ ISD, FA)} = -.33</math> (deemed not significant given the number of comparisons: 14 for FA in frontal region alone). No associations of RT ISD with MD or MTR.</p>

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<p>Mella et al., (2013)</p>	<p>N = 25  <i>12 Younger (10 Fem)</i>  <i>13 older (10 Fem)</i></p> <p>Age:  <i>Younger:</i>  <i>Mean = 21.69</i>  <i>Range: 18-30</i></p> <p><i>Older:</i>  <i>Mean = 69.9</i>  <i>Range: 61-82</i></p>	<p>Two-way CRT from a cross-square task; left vs. right response to indicate the stimulus (cross changing into square) location. The task was administered in the scanner during an fMRI scan (8 blocks of 12 trials) and outside the scanner (5 blocks of 24 trials)</p>	<p>RT ISD calculated after regressing out the effects of age group, item number, block number and their interactions</p> <p>FA, MD, RD, and AD</p> <p>Age group regressed out, together with practice effects prior to calculating RT ISD.</p>	<p><u>Outside the scanner:</u> In forceps minor <math>r_{(RT\ ISD, FA)} = -.50</math> (the only region out of 20 with a significant association); <math>r(RT\ ISD, MD/RD)</math> ranging between .41 and .55.</p> <p><u>Inside the scanner:</u> None of the above relationships replicated.</p>
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AD = axial diffusivity; CC = corpus callosum; CRT = choice reaction time; FA = Fractional anisotropy; FEV = forced expiratory volume; ISD = intra-individual variability; MARC = mean absolute residual for choice reaction time; MARS = mean absolute residual for simple reaction time; MD = mean diffusivity; MIVC = mean independent variability for choice reaction time; MIVS = mean independent variability for simple reaction time; MTR = magnetization transfer ratio; RD = radial diffusivity; ROI = region of interest; RT Reaction time; SRT = simple reaction time; WMH = white matter hyperintensities.

Table 2

Sample demographics and descriptive statistics for all variables.

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Skew</b>	<b>Kurtosis</b>
<b><i>Reaction Time Measures</i></b>					
CRT Mean (m/secs)	670	645.15	86.30	0.76	1.11
CRT Standard Deviation (m/secs)	670	138.99	36.88	0.87	1.09
CRT CV	670	0.21	0.04	0.72	0.97
<b><i>Quantitative Imaging</i></b>					
White Matter Hyperintensity Vol (cm <sup>3</sup> )	671	12.08	12.84	2.26	7.88
White Matter Hyperintensity Residual	671	0.00	1.00	2.29	8.07
WMT gFA	649	-0.01	0.91	0.36	0.27
WMT gMD	649	-0.01	0.92	0.23	-0.14
<b><i>Tractography</i></b>					
Genu Corpus Callosum (FA)	628	0.41	0.05	-0.08	-0.15
Splenium Corpus Callosum (FA)	645	0.49	0.07	-0.36	0.63
Arcuate Fasciculus (FA)	547	0.44	0.04	-0.33	0.61
Anterior Thalamic Radiation (FA)	531	0.32	0.03	-0.15	0.21
Rostral Cingulum (FA)	612	0.41	0.04	-0.39	0.49
Uncinate Fasciculus (FA)	535	0.33	0.03	-0.15	0.03
Inferior Longitudinal Thalamic Radiation (FA)	643	0.39	0.04	-0.23	-0.06
Genu Corpus Callosum (MD)	628	769.45	66.08	0.41	1.02
Splenium Corpus Callosum (MD)	645	977.31	174.66	0.77	1.21
Arcuate Fasciculus (MD)	547	652.53	45.80	1.24	4.48
Anterior Thalamic Radiation (MD)	531	755.19	55.96	0.39	-0.03
Rostral Cingulum (MD)	612	649.51	40.18	0.37	0.66
Uncinate Fasciculus (MD)	535	762.01	46.65	0.19	0.05
Inferior Longitudinal Thalamic Radiation (MD)	643	771.78	84.24	1.51	3.56
Age (Years)	671	72.49	0.71	0.00	-0.86
<b><i>Wahlund Rating</i></b>					
		<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
Frontal	671	10	482	145	34
Parieto-Occipital	671	36	446	150	39
Temporal	671	577	86	8	0
Infratentorial	671	576	81	13	1
Basal Ganglia	671	559	88	23	1
Sex	671	<b>Male</b> 356 (53.1%)	<b>Female</b> 315 (46.9%)		
<b><i>Health Covariates</i></b>					
		<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>		
Blood Pressure	671	330 (49.2%)	341 (50.8%)		
Diabetes	671	69 (10.3%)	602 (89.7%)		
Cholesterol	671	283 (42.2%)	388 (57.8%)		

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CVD	671	182	(27.1%)	489	(72.9%)
Blood Circulation	671	114	(17.0%)	557	(83.0%)
Stroke	671	46	(6.9%)	625	(93.1%)

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*Note:* WMT gFA = white matter tract integrity general fractional anisotropy factor; WMT gMD = white matter tract integrity general mean diffusivity factor. Both WMT gFA and WMT gMD are regression based factor scores, standardized to mean of 0 and SD 1. Table 3

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Table 3

Standardized beta coefficients for models 1 and 2 predicting SD CRT, Mean CRT and CV CRT from WM hyperintensity volume (n=670)

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	SD CRT				Mean CRT				CV CRT	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1	
	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value
Sex	-.117	.003	-.143	<.001	.043	.266	.115	<.001	-.176	<.001
Age (Years)	.076	.048	-.001	.969	.125	.001	.077	.011	.010	.798
High Blood Pressure	-.011	.790	.000	.994	-.018	.660	-.011	.726	-.005	.901
Diabetes	.031	.422	-.015	.627	.075	.056	.055	.072	-.010	.797
High Cholesterol	.035	.392	-.001	.979	.058	.158	.036	.261	.001	.973
CVD	.079	.047	.062	.048	.028	.480	-.021	.502	.086	.031
Blood Circulation	.077	.044	.052	.084	.040	.290	-.007	.809	.071	.063
History of Stroke	.055	.160	.046	.131	.014	.723	-.020	.512	.058	.134
WM Hyperintensity Vol.	.106	.006	.019	.536	.140	<.001	.074	.015	.047	.224
Mean CRT	-	-	.620	<.001	-	-	-	-	-	-
SD CRT	-	-	-	-	-	-	.619	<.001	-	-



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Table 4

Standardized beta coefficients for models 1 and 2 predicting SD CRT, Mean CRT and CV CRT from general fractional anisotropy (n=647)

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	SD CRT				Mean CRT				CV CRT	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1	
	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value
Sex	-.114	.004	-.142	<.001	.044	.264	.115	<.001	-.173	<.001
Age (Years)	.087	.026	.004	.902	.133	.001	.079	.010	.019	.626
High Blood Pressure	-.012	.775	.003	.935	-.023	.574	-.016	.624	-.004	.930
Diabetes	.033	.415	-.016	.617	.077	.053	.057	.068	-.011	.793
High Cholesterol	.043	.313	-.002	.948	.072	.089	.045	.170	.004	.922
CVD	.071	.079	.068	.034	.006	.883	-.038	.229	.090	.027
Blood Circulation	.076	.051	.057	.060	.030	.441	-.017	.571	.078	.046
History of Stroke	.061	.127	.051	.101	.015	.698	-.022	.474	.065	.104
gFA	.056	.150	-.039	.212	.152	<.001	.117	<.001	-.017	.658
Mean CRT	-	-	.627	<.001	-	-	-	-	-	-
SD CRT	-	-	-	-	-	-	.618	<.001	-	-

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Table 5

Standardized beta coefficients for models 1 and 2 predicting SD CRT, Mean CRT and CV CRT from general mean diffusivity (n=647)

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	SD CRT				Mean CRT				CV CRT	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1	
	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value
Sex	-.113	.005	-.143	<.001	.047	.238	.118	<.001	-.173	<.001
Age (Years)	.089	.024	.005	.874	.135	.001	.080	.010	.019	.624
High Blood Pressure	-.006	.890	-.001	.971	-.007	.860	-.004	.908	-.005	.896
Diabetes	.032	.434	-.014	.656	.073	.070	.053	.090	-.010	.805
High Cholesterol	.040	.344	.000	.990	.065	.125	.040	.228	.005	.909
CVD	.073	.071	.066	.038	.012	.775	-.034	.284	.089	.028
Blood Circulation	.076	.051	.058	.060	.030	.446	-.018	.562	.078	.046
History of Stroke	.063	.112	.050	.110	.022	.587	-.018	.568	.064	.107
gMD	.022	.577	-.031	.317	.084	.031	.071	.021	-.013	.736
Mean CRT	-	-	.623	<.001	-	-	-	-	-	-
SD CRT	-	-	-	-	-	-	.623	<.001	-	-

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Table 6

Standardized beta coefficients for models 1 and 2 predicting SD CRT, Mean CRT and CV CRT from Wahlund ratings (n=670)

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	SD CRT				Mean CRT				CV CRT	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1	
	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value
Sex	-.117	.003	-.144	<.001	.042	.274	.115	<.001	-.176	<.001
Age (Years)	.085	.026	.002	.960	.135	<.001	.082	.006	.015	.689
High Blood Pressure	-.003	.940	.006	.846	-.015	.712	-.013	.682	.003	.932
Diabetes	.025	.525	-.019	.533	.071	.068	.056	.069	-.017	.669
High Cholesterol	.031	.448	.000	.992	.051	.215	.032	.327	.001	.977
CVD	.087	.029	.066	.035	.033	.403	-.020	.517	.092	.021
Blood Circulation	.079	.038	.054	.074	.041	.283	-.008	.793	.075	.053
History of Stroke	.059	.135	.046	.137	.020	.601	-.016	.611	.060	.129
Wahlund Frontal	.149	.002	.058	.126	.147	.002	.055	.145	.099	.040
Wahlund Parieto-Occipital	-.063	.183	-.073	.049	.016	.728	.055	.137	-.098	.039
Wahlund Temporal	.024	.543	-.008	.794	.053	.188	.038	.231	.002	.964
Wahlund Infrattentorial	.062	.117	.024	.435	.061	.123	.023	.467	.041	.309
Wahlund Basal Ganglia	-.060	.152	-.015	.653	-.073	.081	-.036	.275	-.031	.463
Mean CRT	-	-	.620	<.001	-	-	-	-	-	-
SD CRT	-	-	-	-	-	-	.616	<.001	-	-

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Table 7

Standardized beta coefficients for models 1 and 2 predicting SD CRT, Mean CRT and CV CRT from tract average FA (n=358)

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	SD CRT				Mean CRT				CV CRT	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1	
	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value
Sex	-.076	.188	-.097	.039	.035	.546	.080	.089	-.116	.046
Age (Years)	.069	.209	.004	.933	.111	.044	.070	.116	.012	.821
High Blood Pressure	-.013	.824	.016	.733	-.049	.398	-.041	.377	.017	.767
Diabetes	.000	1.00	-.015	.746	.025	.657	.025	.583	-.01	.862
High Cholesterol	.036	.531	-.001	.983	.062	.276	.041	.373	.000	.998
CVD	.047	.404	.030	.511	.029	.607	.001	.978	.034	.553
Blood Circulation	.109	.047	.092	.037	.028	.612	-.036	.411	.111	.044
History of Stroke	.063	.244	.039	.377	.041	.445	.004	.926	.052	.340
Genu Corpus Callosum	.144	.027	.043	.422	.172	.008	.087	.099	.061	.349
Splenium Corpus Callosum	.026	.637	.064	.155	-.064	.248	-.080	.077	.072	.198
Arcuate Fasciculus	.017	.799	.028	.608	-.019	.785	-.029	.601	.049	.476
Anterior Thalamic Radiation	-.113	.097	-.031	.576	-.139	.041	-.072	.190	-.052	.447
Rostral Cingulum	-.098	.148	-.054	.320	-.073	.278	-.016	.775	-.084	.217
Uncinate Fasciculus	.015	.834	.035	.544	-.034	.633	-.043	.457	.040	.573
Inferior Longitudinal Thalamic Radiation	.015	.817	.026	.631	-.018	.791	-.027	.619	.016	.812
Mean CRT	-	-	.591	<.001	-	-	-	-	-	-
SD CRT	-	-	-	-	-	-	.589	<.001	-	-

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Table 8

Standardized beta coefficients for models 1 and 2 predicting SD CRT, Mean CRT and CV CRT from tract average MD (n=358)

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	SD CRT				Mean CRT				CV CRT	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1	
	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value	$\beta$	p-value
Sex	-.103	.083	-.125	.010	.037	.530	.097	.043	-.152	.012
Age (Years)	.081	.148	.008	.861	.123	.027	.076	.092	.021	.708
High Blood Pressure	-.014	.803	.011	.820	-.042	.460	-.034	.465	.012	.842
Diabetes	.008	.890	-.013	.781	.034	.536	.030	.507	-.006	.918
High Cholesterol	.032	.573	-.001	.976	.056	.317	.038	.409	-.001	.981
CVD	.050	.381	.024	.599	.043	.443	.014	.756	.031	.588
Blood Circulation	.102	.062	.089	.044	.021	.692	-.038	.388	.106	.054
History of Stroke	.072	.180	.038	.389	.058	.274	.016	.706	.053	.330
Genu Corpus Callosum	-.082	.236	.047	.404	-.218	.002	-.170	.002	.031	.655
Splenium Corpus Callosum	-.025	.653	-.037	.404	.021	.698	.035	.422	-.040	.472
Arcuate Fasciculus	.038	.608	.005	.935	.056	.447	.034	.571	.014	.849
Anterior Thalamic Radiation	.172	.018	.031	.604	.238	.001	.138	.019	.073	.316
Rostral Cingulum	-.077	.296	-.049	.408	-.046	.524	-.002	.977	-.064	.385
Uncinate Fasciculus	.008	.914	-.028	.638	.061	.405	.056	.342	-.021	.777
Inferior Longitudinal Thalamic Radiation	-.052	.413	-.037	.466	-.024	.697	.006	.910	-.049	.441
Mean CRT	-	-	.594	<.001	-	-	-	-	-	-
SD CRT	-	-	-	-	-	-	.581	<.001	-	-

