

1 **Full Title: Preserved global cerebral blood flow accounts for** 2 **youthful processing speed in older adults**

3 4 **Short Title: Higher global CBF contributes to successful aging**

5
6 Fan Nils Yang^{1,†}, Long Xie^{2,6,†}, Olga Galli⁴, John A. Detre^{1,6,7}, David A. Wolk^{5,7},
7 Hengyi Rao^{1,3,7,*}
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10 ¹ Center for Functional Neuroimaging, Department of Neurology, University of
11 Pennsylvania Perelman School of Medicine, Philadelphia, PA, USA.

12 ² Penn Image Computing and Science Laboratory (PICSL), Department of
13 Radiology, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA.

14 ³ Laboratory of Applied Brain and Cognitive Sciences, Shanghai International
15 Studies University, Shanghai, China.

16 ⁴ Department of Psychology, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA.

17 ⁵ Penn Memory Center, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA.

18 ⁶ Department of Radiology, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA.

19 ⁷ Department of Neurology, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA.
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22 † F.N.Y. and L.X. contributed equally to this work

23 * Corresponding authors

24 Hengyi Rao, Ph.D.

25 Center for Functional Neuroimaging & Department of Neurology

26 University of Pennsylvania Perelman School of Medicine

27 3W Gates, 3400 Spruce St

28 Philadelphia PA, 19104, USA

29 Phone: 215-746-2470

30 Email: hengyi@pennteam.upenn.edu
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38 **Abstract**

39 Preserved cognitive performance is one of the key contributors to successful aging.
40 The processing speed theory and prefrontal executive theory –are competing
41 theories regarding the general causes of cognitive aging. Here, we used a
42 theoretically-driven framework to investigate the neural correlates of older adults
43 with preserved processing speed. Older adults with youth-like processing speed
44 (SuperAgers) were compared with normal aged adults (TypicalAgers) using
45 neuroimaging methods. Global cerebral blood flow (CBF) accounted for
46 approximately 45% of the variance in processing speed, while neither regional CBF
47 nor other structural measures predicted additional variance. In addition, despite
48 having significantly cortical thinning, SuperAgers still shown comparable global
49 CBF levels with young adults. These results support the global mechanism
50 suggested by processing speed theory and indicate that global CBF may serve as a
51 biomarker of cognitive aging.

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53

54 **1. Introduction**

55 The world population is aging at an unprecedented rate (Nations, 2015). Individuals
56 are living longer and are expected to survive into their 70s and even 80s on average.
57 Accordingly, it is of utmost socioeconomic importance to promote successful aging
58 and avoid age-related diseases (Eyler et al., 2011; Harada et al., 2013).

59

60 Cognitive health is a key contributor to successful aging (Depp and Jeste, 2006;
61 Reichstadt et al., 2007). Cognitive aging refers to a gradual decline in many
62 cognitive abilities (e.g., memory, attention, executive function and processing
63 speed) as humans age (Harada et al., 2013). Despite its importance, the underlying
64 mechanisms of cognitive aging remain obscure.

65

66 Various theories and models have been proposed regarding the mechanisms driving
67 cognitive aging. The processing speed theory and the prefrontal executive theory
68 are two competing theories that are among the most influential and empirically
69 tested accounts of age-related cognitive decline (Albinet et al., 2012). The
70 processing speed theory proposed by Salthouse in 1996 suggests that age-related
71 cognitive decline can be accounted for by the *global* mechanism of generalized
72 slowing of cognitive processing (Salthouse, 1996) (see methods for detailed
73 definition of processing speed). The generalized slowing has been associated with
74 reduced global white matter connectivity as indicated by decreased white matter
75 integrity and increase white matter lesion load (Cabeza et al., 2016). Interestingly,
76 other global neural measures not directly related to brain connectivity, such as brain
77 volume and cerebral blood flow (CBF), have also correlated with processing speed
78 (Rabbitt et al., 2007; Rabbitt et al., 2006). On the other hand, the prefrontal
79 executive theory states that *local* structural and functional changes in the frontal
80 cortex lead to a decline in executive function, which in turn produces more general
81 cognitive deficits (West, 1996). Evidence for each these theories has included work
82 demonstrating that after controlling for processing speed or executive function, age-
83 driven differences in high-level cognitive functions are reduced (Anderson et al.,
84 2010; Deary et al., 2010). In addition, behavioral studies have shown that these two
85 theories are not mutually exclusive but share some variance (Albinet et al., 2012).
86 Specifically, executive functions and processing speed each can explain parts of
87 age-related variance on cognition, and they are not mutual exclusive (Albinet et al.,
88 2012).

89
90 Examining the neural correlates of older individuals with preserved cognitive
91 functions relative to young adults, i.e. SuperAgers, has been suggested as a
92 promising way to investigate successful cognitive aging and could potentially guide
93 the search for means to improve cognitive decline in older adults (Depp and Jeste,
94 2006; Eyler et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2016). In this study, we used functional and

95 structural neuroimaging to examine cerebral blood flow, whole brain volume, and
96 cortical thickness in cognitively normal older adults stratified into typical agers
97 (TypicalAgers) and “super” agers (SuperAgers) based on their performance on a
98 simple and well-validated measure of processing speed, i.e. the psychomotor
99 vigilance test (PVT).

100

101 It has been well documented that in older adults, big brain-structure size is usually
102 associated with better cognitive performance, especially for frontal regions and
103 executive functions (see Kaup et al. (2011) for a review). Similarly, augmented
104 brain response/activation in frontal regions might serve as a compensatory
105 mechanism in older adults (see Eyler et al. (2011) for a review). However, as Eyler
106 et al. (2011) mentioned, “a simple model of bigger structure → greater brain
107 response → better cognitive performance might not be accurate”. Here we further
108 investigate the potentially different roles of brain structure and function on
109 persevered cognitive function on SuperAgers.

110

111 Taken together, the processing speed theory suggested reduced processing speed in
112 TypicalAgers will be associated primarily with global brain measures, such as
113 global CBF or mean cortical thickness of whole brain, while prefrontal executive
114 theory posits that reduction in processing speed will be associated primarily with
115 focal (prefrontal) measures. Alternatively, since these theories are not mutually
116 exclusive, it is also possible that focal and global brain measures each account for
117 unique variance in processing speed. In addition to these theories, previous studies
118 indicated that SuperAgers will likely have bigger brain structure (i.e. thicker gray
119 matter) and greater brain response (i.e. higher CBF during task) than TypicalAgers.
120 More evidences are in need to reveal the underlying mechanism of the “SuperAger
121 phenomenon”.

122

123 The current work aim to test these competing hypotheses by investigating both
124 global and focal neural correlates of processing speed in a group of older
125 cognitively normal adults (OG, N = 32). Processing speed was accessed as the
126 mean reaction time (RT) when permorming a well-validated simple reaction time
127 task, i.e. psychomotor vigilance test (PVT) (Basner et al., 2017). Global and
128 regional structural (cortical thickness) and functional (cerebral blood flow (CBF)
129 during performing the PVT task and at rest) neural measurements were extracted
130 from the T1-weighted MRI and arterial spin labeled perfusion MRI (ASL MRI)
131 scans of each subject respectively. In addition, a group of young controls (YC, N =
132 39) was included in this study serving as a reference group to define cut-off to
133 stratify OG into SuperAgers (N = 15) and TypicalAgers (N = 17) (details described
134 in Section 4.2 and briefly summarized in Figure 1A) as well as to derive data-driven
135 regions of interest (ROI), shown in Figure 1B, to extract local measurements
136 (described in Section 4.4.3). The effect of global and local measurements was
137 compared in terms of discriminating SuperAgers from TypicalAgers as well as
138 predicting processing speed of the older adults (the OG group).

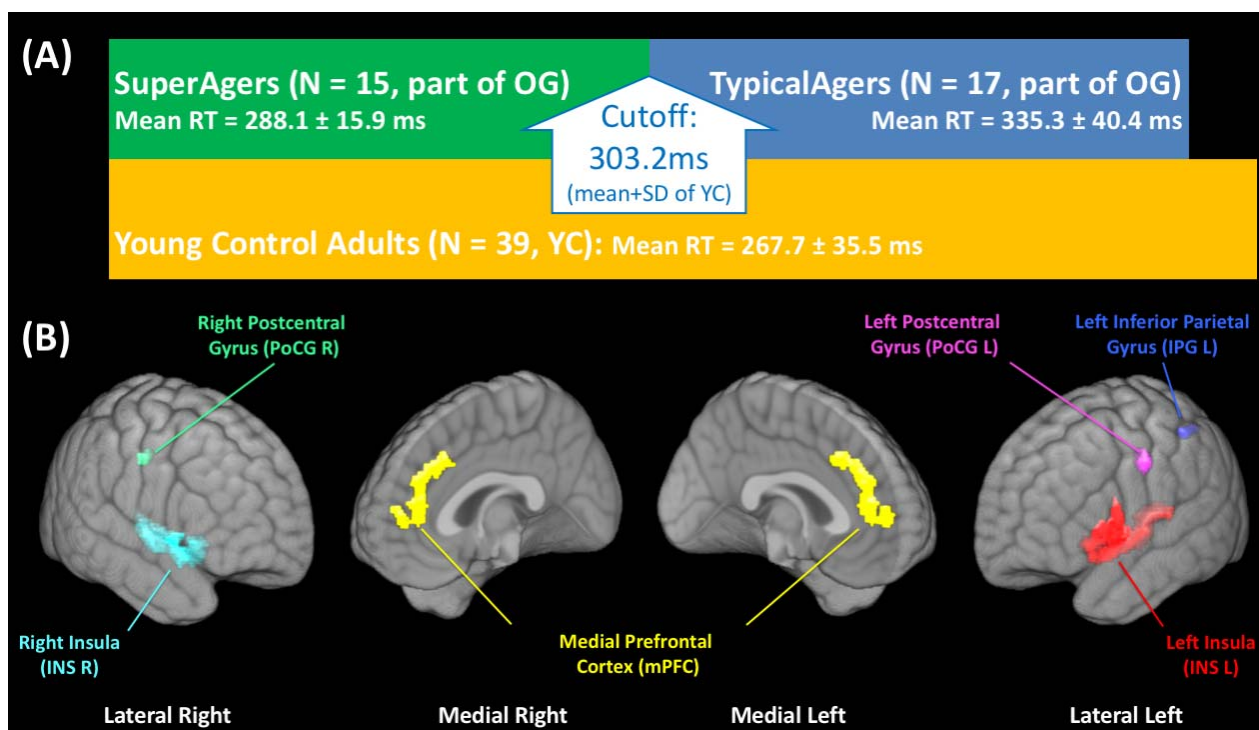


Figure 1. (A) Block diagram showing the assignment of young control (YC), SuperAgers and TypicalAgers. (B) Data driven regions of interest (ROI) in this study. The ROIs were defined in a data-driven manner representing regions with both significant perfusion and structural differences between young controls and older cognitively normal controls (both SuperAgers and TypicalAgers) to locate regions associated with both functional and structural changes due to aging. OG = older cognitive normal adult group, SD = standard deviation.

2. Results

2.1 Demographic data

The characteristics of YC, TypicalAgers and SuperAgers are shown in Table 1. TypicalAgers and SuperAgers did not differ in sex, age and education. There was no significant difference in Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) performance between TypicalAgers and SuperAgers. As expected, there was no significant difference in mean reaction time (RT) between SuperAgers and YC.

Table 1. Demographics, MMSE and mean PVT reaction time of young controls, TypicalAgers and SuperAgers.

	Young Control (YC)	TypicalAgers (TA)	SuperAgers (SA)	Global Stats	Cohen's d Between Groups		
					YC vs. TA	YC vs. SA	SA vs. TA
N	39	17	15				
Sex (% female)	46.2%	64.7%	60.0%	$\chi^2 = 2.0$ $p > 0.1$			
Education	15.2 (2.1)	16.9 (2.5)	15.4 (3.7)	$F(2,68)=2.9$ $p = 0.06$	-0.81	-0.09	-0.50
Age	32.7 (7.8)	71.9 (6.0)	66.9 (8.3)	$F(2,68)=214.3$ $p < 10^{-29}$	5.41***	4.29***	-0.70

MMSE	-	29.4 (0.8)	28.9 (1.3)	$t(30)=0.3$ $p > 0.1$	-	-	-0.40
Mean RT	267.7 (35.5)	335.3 (40.4)	288.1 (15.9)	$F(2,68)=23.7$ $p < 10^{-7}$	1.83***	-0.63	1.52***

Note: Mean (standard deviation). *, *** denote $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.001$, respectively (Bonferroni corrected). PVT = psychomotor vigilance test, MMSE = mini-mental state examination, RT = reaction time.

2.2 Discriminating SuperAgers and TypicalAgers

To investigate potential global effects, the whole-brain mean resting CBF, whole-brain task CBF, whole brain mean cortical thickness, cortical gray matter and white matter volume of each subject were extracted. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) covaried for age, sex and education revealed significant group differences in functional and structural global measurements in the three groups (Table 2), including differences in whole-brain CBF during PVT task ($F(2,68) = 21.4$, $p < 10^{-7}$) and at rest ($F(2,68) = 18.5$, $p < 10^{-6}$), mean cortical thickness ($F(2,68) = 100.9$, $p < 10^{-20}$), as well as cortical gray matter volume ($F(2,68) = 85.8$, $p < 10^{-18}$). Post-hoc analyses results, reported in Table 2, demonstrated that the major differences between SuperAgers and TypicalAgers were found in whole-brain task and rest CBF (all $p < 0.001$ corrected with large Cohen's d). Also, SuperAgers had significantly more cortical gray matter than TypicalAgers ($p < 0.05$ corrected with relatively small Cohen's d). It is also worth noting that no differences in whole-brain task or rest CBF were found between YC and SuperAgers (all $p > 0.05$), while this was not the case between YC and TypicalAgers (all $p < 0.001$ corrected).

In addition to global measurements, the mean resting CBF, task CBF and cortical thickness of each ROI shown in Figure 1B were extracted as local measurements. Significant group differences, tested by ANCOVA accounting for age, sex, and education, between SuperAgers and TypicalAgers were seen in CBF measurements during the PVT task and at rest (see Figure 2). Midline structures in the frontal lobe,

189 (i.e. mPFC) exhibited group differences at a trend level in cortical thickness ($t(30) =$
 190 3.2, $p = 0.003$, $p > 0.05$ after correction).

191

192 To further illustrate the differences between the three groups, bar plots of each of
 193 the regional or global functional and structural measurements for each of the three
 194 groups without adjustment for covariates are shown in Supplementary Figure S3 in
 195 Supplement C. Qualitatively, we observed that regional resting and task CBF in
 196 SuperAgers were more similar to YC compared to that of the TypicalAgers.
 197 However, the amount of cortical thinning of both SuperAgers and TypicalAgers is
 198 similarly significantly lower than YC. This may indicate that, compared to Typical
 199 Agers, brain function of SuperAgers (as reflected by CBF measures) is more
 200 preserved even in the context of similar cortical atrophy relatively young adults.

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202

203 **Table 2.** Global and structural measurements of Young Controls, TypicalAgers and
 204 SuperAgers.

	Young Control (YC)	Typical Agers (TA)	Super Agers (SA)	ANOVA Global Stats	Cohen's d Between Groups		
					YC vs. TA	YC vs. SA	SA vs. TA
N	39	17	15				
Whole-Brain Task CBF (ml/100g tissue/min)	63.8 (12.9)	42.2 (9.5)	56.3 (8.4)	$F(2,68)=21.4$ $p < 10^{-7}$	1.80***	0.62	1.58***
Whole-Brain Resting CBF (ml/100g tissue/min)	62.9 (13.6)	42.1 (9.7)	56.6 (8.0)	$F(2,68)=18.5$ $p < 10^{-6}$	1.66***	0.51	1.62***
Cortical Gray Matter Volume (1000 mm ³)	551.4 (21.6)	467.4 (29.1)	492.0 (22.6)	$F(2,68)=85.8$ $p < 10^{-18}$	3.49***	2.71***	0.94*
White Matter Volume (1000 mm ³)	451.1 (15.2)	442.0 (24.4)	447.2 (14.2)	$F(2,68)=1.6$ $p > 0.1$	0.27	0.44	0.26
Mean Cortical Thickness (mm)	2.18 (0.15)	1.69 (0.07)	1.79 (0.14)	$F(2,68)=100.9$ $p < 10^{-20}$	3.81***	2.66***	0.93

205 Note: Mean (standard deviation). *, *** denote $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.001$, respectively (Bonferroni corrected). CBF =
 206 cerebral blood flow.

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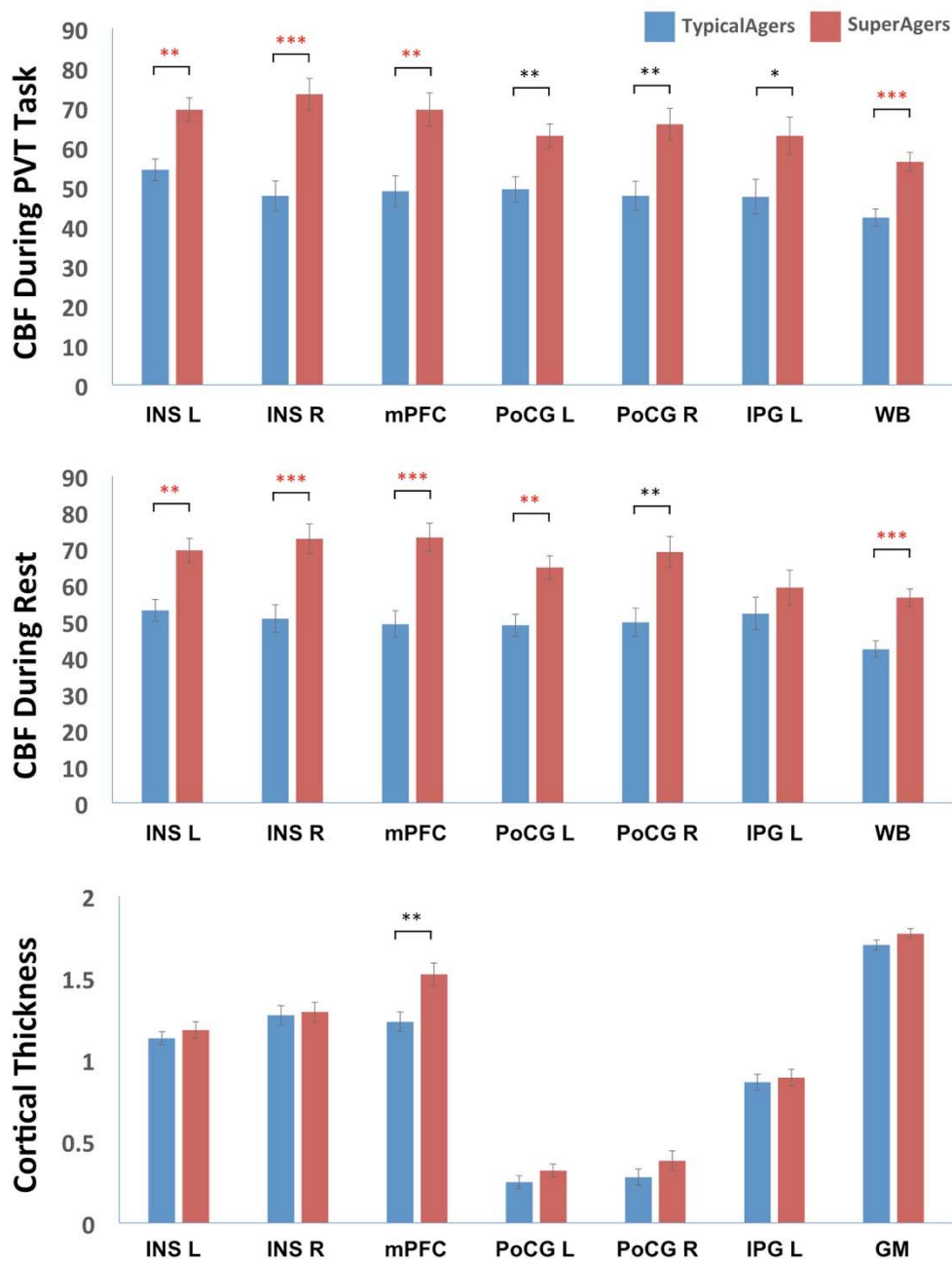


Figure 2. Regional and global cerebral blood flow (CBF) and cortical thickness measurements, adjusted for age, sex and education. Abbreviations: INS = insula, mPFC = medial prefrontal cortex, PoCG = postcentral gyrus, IPG = inferior parietal gyrus, WB = whole brain, GM = gray matter, L = left, R = right. *, **, *** denote $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$, $p < 0.001$, respectively. Red stars indicate p values survived Bonferroni corrections ($p < 0.05/21$).

220 **Table 3.** Partial Pearson correlations between global and ROI-based functional and
 221 structural measurements and mean PVT reaction time, with age, sex and education
 222 as covariates.

Regions of Interest	Task CBF	Resting CBF	Thickness
INS L	-0.70*** ¹	-0.47* ²	-0.02
INS R	-0.60*** ¹	-0.42* ²	-0.17
mPFC	-0.52** ¹	-0.51** ²	-0.30
PoCG L	-0.56** ¹	-0.55** ²	-0.26
PoCG R	-0.52** ¹	-0.49* ²	-0.20
IPG L	-0.53** ¹	-0.47* ²	-0.01
Global	-0.71***	-0.63***	-0.13

223 Note: *, **, *** denote $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$, $p < 0.001$, respectively; red stars indicate p values survived Bonferroni
 224 corrections ($p < 0.05/21$). CBF = cerebral blood flow, INS = insula, mPFC = medial prefrontal cortex, PoCG =
 225 postcentral gyrus, IPG = inferior parietal gyrus, L = left, R = right.

226 ¹ not significant after controlling whole-brain CBF during psychomotor vigilance test task

227 ² not significant after controlling whole-brain CBF at rest

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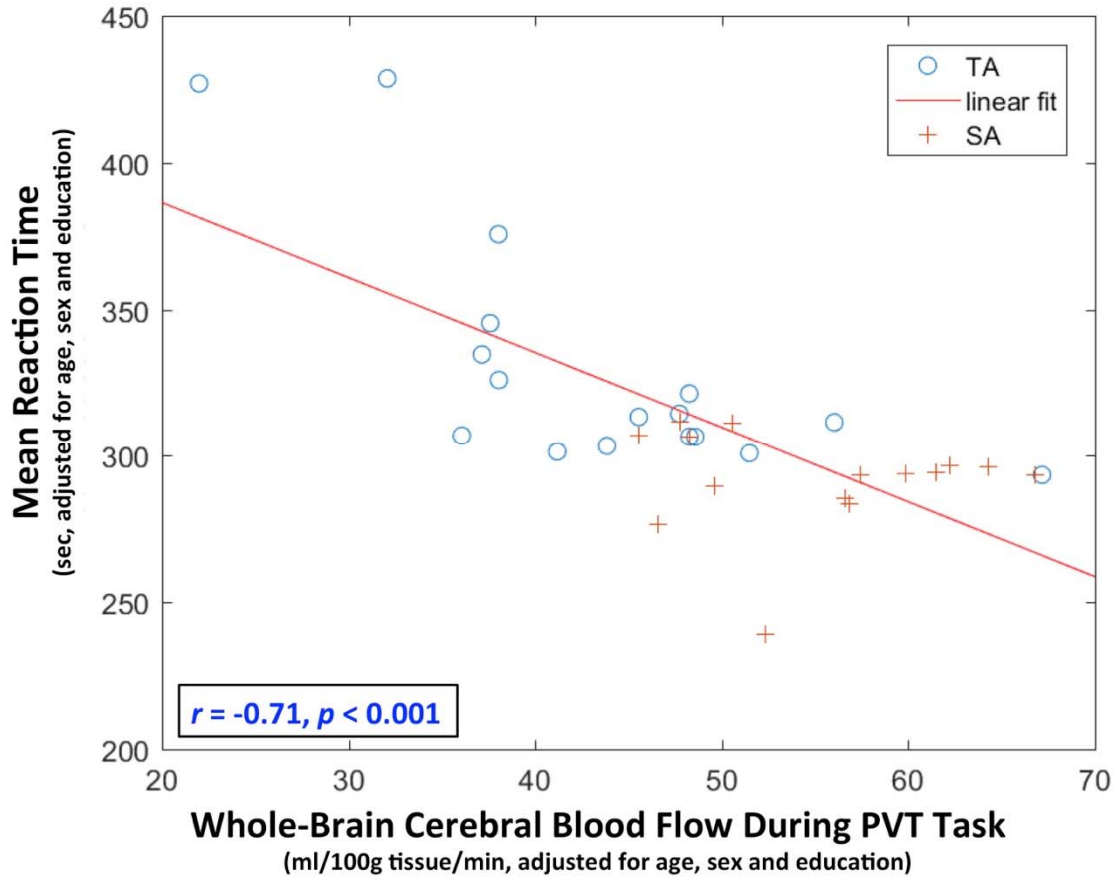
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230 **2.3 Correlations between CBF and mean reaction time**

231 CBF during the PVT task and at rest were significantly correlated with mean RT
 232 (Table 3). However, none of these correlations remained significant when including
 233 the corresponding global measurement (i.e global measure of task CBF, rest CBF
 234 and thickness for ROI-based task CBF, rest CBF and thickness measures
 235 respectively) as a covariate. Figure 3 shows a scatter plot of age, sex and education-
 236 adjusted mean RT and global CBF during the PVT task, which was the most
 237 predictive measurement for processing speed ($r = 0.71$, $p < 0.001$). Cortical
 238 thickness measures in ROIs and total cortical gray matter were not predictive of
 239 mean RT. The two-step hierarchical linear regression further demonstrated that only
 240 whole-brain task CBF ($\beta = -2.5$, R^2 change = 0.451, $p < 0.001$) was included in the
 241 most predictive model ($N = 32$, $F = 7.5$, $R^2 = 0.526$, $p < 0.001$). Structural
 242 measurements provided no additional information.

243 Voxel-wise partial correlation analyses between resting and task CBF and mean RT
244 (Supplement D) demonstrated that both resting and task CBF across a majority of
245 brain regions is significantly correlated with mean RT (Supplementary Figure S4).

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247

248 **Figure 3.** Scatter plot of the whole-brain cerebral blood flow during the
249 psychomotor vigilance test (PVT) and mean reaction time, adjusted for age, sex and
250 education, of TypicalAgers (TA) and SuperAgers (SA).

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256 3. Discussion

257 The principal purpose here was to examine the neural correlates of persevered
258 processing speed in SuperAgers. The present findings demonstrate that preserved
259 processing speed in SuperAgers is associated with global CBF both at rest and more
260 so during PVT task performance, rather than with regional CBF. SuperAgers

261 showed global rest and task CBF values that were not significantly different from
262 young controls, despite having significantly thinner cortical thickness and lower
263 regional CBF in frontal regions. This effect was observed even after controlling for
264 demographic factors such as age, gender, and education, as well as other brain
265 measurements such as whole brain volume and cortical thickness.

267 **3.1 The definition of SuperAgers**

268 Previously, the term SuperAgers has been used to refer to older adults with youthful
269 memory abilities at normative performance for young adults on delayed free recall
270 tests (Gefen et al., 2014; Harrison et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2016). We extended the
271 definition to older adults that have a comparable performance with young adults on
272 a simple reaction time task because some studies have shown that when controlling
273 for processing speed, age differences in memory may be largely reduced or even
274 eliminated (Bryan and Luszcz, 1996; Lee et al., 2012). Furthermore, processing
275 speed is thought to be one of the behavioral measures most sensitive to age (Cabeza
276 et al., 2016).

278 **3.2 Global CBF, but not regional CBF, correlated with processing 279 speed in older adults**

280 Although previous studies have shown that total resting CBF is positively
281 correlated with processing speed in older adults (Poels et al., 2008; Rabbitt et al.,
282 2007; Rabbitt et al., 2006), this relationship has not been well-understood. For
283 example, by using phase-contrast MRI, these studies did not assess regional CBF. It
284 is possible that the use of total CBF masked regional relationships, as Steffener et
285 al. (2013) showed that distributed regional CBF correlated with processing speed
286 measures in older adults. The current study extended previous studies by
287 demonstrating that the correlation between regional CBF and processing speed in
288 older adults might be fully driven by the global CBF. In addition, the global CBF
289 during task explained more variance in processing speed as compared to the global

290 resting CBF, suggesting that task CBF might be more sensitive to the processing
291 speed in older adults and should be considered as one biomarker for processing
292 speed in the future. This notion is in line with previous studies, which demonstrated
293 that task-state CBF may be more associated with cognitive decline (Xie et al., 2018;
294 Xie et al., 2016).

295
296 The fact that global, but not regional CBF accounted for the processing speed in
297 older adults provides an additional neural evident for the processing speed theory.
298 According to this theory, degraded cognitive functions in old age is due to the
299 global mechanism of the slowed processing speed, which limits the ability to
300 simultaneously process a certain amount of information needed for higher level
301 cognitive functions (Salthouse, 1996). This generalized slowing is associated with
302 the decreased efficiency of interregional communication, which might be caused by
303 decreased white matter integrity (Cabeza et al., 2016). Indeed, decreased white
304 matter integrity of the whole brain is associated with this generalized slowing
305 (Cabeza et al., 2016; Gunning - Dixon et al., 2009; Penke et al., 2010). The current
306 study extended this notion to the CBF. Recent studies have shown that there is a
307 significant relationship between CBF and white matter integrity (Brickman et al.,
308 2009; Chen et al., 2013). It is possible that global CBF and white matter integrity of
309 whole brain both plays an important role on supporting the efficiency of
310 interregional communication throughout the brain. Future studies should determine
311 whether CBF and white matter integrity account for unique portions of variance in
312 processing speed. Another possible explanation regarding this CBF-speed
313 association is that as CBF is tightly coupled with brain metabolism (Raichle, 1998),
314 reduced global CBF and brain metabolism likely reflect global neuronal
315 dysfunction. Therefore, reduced CBF is leading to less efficient brain and decreased
316 processing speed. This hypothesis needs to be tested in future studies.

3.3 Neither functional or structural changes in specific regions (e.g. frontal lobe) accounted for processing speed in older adults

The rationale for prefrontal executive theory is as follow, 1) executive functions are a set of high-order functions that are necessary for the cognitive control and coordination of fundamental cognitive operations, 2) the frontal lobe is a key region for executive functions, 3) both executive functions and the frontal lobe are extremely sensitive to the effects of normal aging (Phillips and Henry, 2008). Consistent with this rationale, both large age-related CBF reductions and cortical thinning was were found in prefrontal regions and bilateral insula in both groups of older adults. In addition, large CBF and cortical thickness difference in medial prefrontal cortices were found between SuperAgers and TypicalAgers, suggesting the executive function might be different between these two groups as well. Nonetheless, neither thickness within medial prefrontal cortex nor other cortical thickness measurement were correlated with processing speed.

In contrast to previous studies showing that CBF and brain volume each account for unique variance in processing speed (Rabbitt et al., 2007; Rabbitt et al., 2006; Steffener et al., 2013), or that brain volume mediates the association between CBF and processing speed (Poels et al., 2008), the present study found no significant differences between SuperAgers and TypicalAgers in white matter volume, and relatively small difference in gray matter volume. One possible explanation is that age itself has a large effect on CBF, brain volume, processing speed, and other brain measures (see Cabeza et al. (2016) for a review). This possible confound was minimized by focusing on comparisons between SuperAgers and age-matched TypicalAgers. Step-wise regression results further confirmed that global task related CBF was the only significant predictor of PVT performance in older individuals, accounting for 45.1% of the variance in mean response time.

346 Taken together, although regional structural and functional differences were found
347 between SuperAgers and TypicalAgers, it is the global functional measure CBF that
348 explained the most variance in processing speed. In addition, as indicated in
349 Supplementary Figure S3, it is surprising that with similar amount of significant
350 cortical thinning as TypicalAgers (much lower compared to young adults),
351 SuperAgers are able to preserve youth-like processing speed and to maintain
352 youthful global CBF. These results provide further evidence that a simplified model
353 of “bigger brain structure, better cognitive performance” may not be sufficient in
354 explaining successful cognitive aging (Eyler et al., 2011). Instead, the robust
355 relationship between global CBF and processing speed suggested that global CBF
356 might be considered as a potential biomarker for successful cognitive aging.

358 **3.4 Limitations**

359 There are several limitations to this study. First, as we did not directly test executive
360 function in the current study, it is possible that executive functions were not
361 different between SuperAgers and TypicalAgers, and hence here the focal regions
362 did not contribute to the processing speed difference between the two groups.
363 However, previous studies have shown that the majority of the age-related variance
364 in executive functions is shared with processing speed (Albinet et al., 2012; Luszcz,
365 2011). In addition, substantial differences were found in prefrontal regions, in terms
366 of both cortical thickness and CBF measures, between these two groups, suggesting
367 executive functions differences might be also differ between SuperAgers and
368 TypicalAgers. Second, it remains an open question whether the SuperAgers in the
369 present sample were also top performers in their youth. Based on our results, it is
370 possible that young adults with higher processing speed performance were resilient
371 against age-related CBF decline and remained top performers as they aged.
372 Longitudinal studies are still needed to test this possibility. Third, the current study
373 used only one processing speed measure, which raises a question of whether these
374 results are task-specific. Salthouse (2000) found that all six speed measurements

375 using different tasks, including reaction time, are highly intercorrelated and that
376 age-related effects on an individual speed measure can be largely explained by
377 other speed measures. Thus, it is likely that our results can be repeated by using
378 other measures of processing speed.

380 **3.5 Future directions**

381 Future studies may utilize larger datasets to investigate the relationship between
382 global CBF and age-related decline in a broader range of cognitive domains.
383 Interestingly, a recent study found that global CBF can predict older adults' general
384 cognitive function 4 years later (De Vis et al., 2018). This finding further supports
385 our conclusion that global CBF may serve as a biomarker of processing speed, and
386 therefore as a biomarker of cognitive aging (as suggested by the processing speed
387 theory).

388
389 Previous studies have shown that slowed reaction times are associated with an
390 elevated risk of future cognitive disorders (Cherbuin et al., 2010; Kochan et al.,
391 2016). Given the robust relationship between global CBF and reaction time, future
392 studies may wish to examine whether reduced global CBF is one of several key
393 predictors of transition from healthy aging to dementia. Further investigation of the
394 neural mechanisms underlying the SuperAger phenomenon may allow us to design
395 effective interventions to promote successful aging.

399 **4. Methods and materials**

400 **4.1 Study design**

401 The current study is an observational study. Data from eighty-three healthy adults
402 aggregated across two different study cohorts are included in the analyses. Forty-
403 three young adults (21-50 years old) comprised the young control group (YC).

404 These subjects were recruited in response to study advertisements, as part of a sleep
405 deprivation study (Fang et al., 2015). The remaining 40 subjects (57-85 years old),
406 referred to as the older cognitively normal group (OG), were recruited from the
407 Penn Memory Center as part of a study of prodromal Alzheimer's disease (Xie et
408 al., 2016). All subjects had no history of clinical stroke, significant traumatic brain
409 injury, alcohol or drug abuse/dependence, or any other medical or psychiatric
410 condition thought to significantly impact cognition. The study was approved by the
411 Institutional Review Board of the University of Pennsylvania.

413 **4.2 Processing speed task: psychomotor vigilance Test**

414 By definition, processing speed refers to the speed of motor responses and the speed
415 with which cognitive operations can be executed (Harada et al., 2013; Salthouse,
416 1996). Processing speed tends to be affected earlier in lifespan, as compared to
417 other cognitive abilities, like episodic memory, reasoning, and spatial ability
418 (Hedden and Gabrieli, 2004; Salthouse, 1996; Schaie, 1996).

419
420 Here, a well-validated simple reaction time task, PVT, was used. PVT has been
421 shown to be highly reliable, free of learning/practice effect, and uncontaminated by
422 aptitude (Basner et al., 2017), making it suitable for assessing processing speed in
423 older populations. During the PVT, participants are instructed to maintain their
424 attention on a red-outlined rectangular area located in the center of a dark screen
425 and to respond (button press) as fast as they can whenever a yellow millisecond
426 counter appears inside the rectangle. The millisecond counter stops after
427 participants' action and remains for another one second to allow participants to see
428 their reaction time (RT). Button presses when the millisecond counter did not
429 appear are counted as false alarms, whereas failure to respond within 30 seconds
430 leads to a time out. Participants are instructed to respond as quickly as possible
431 while maintaining accuracy. The PVT was administered during arterial spin labeled
432 perfusion MRI (ASL MRI) scanning. The reaction time measures, excluding those

433 from time out trials, were averaged to compute mean RT for each subject, which
434 serves as a measure of the subject's processing speed.

435
436 The OG group was divided into TypicalAgers and SuperAgers based on their mean
437 RT during the PVT. The cutoff was determined as one standard deviation above the
438 mean (slower responses) of the YC group, which was 303.2 milliseconds. OG
439 individuals with a mean RT within one standard deviation of the young control
440 group were categorized as SuperAgers, while those with a mean RT greater than
441 303.2ms were categorized as TypicalAgers. The group assignment was summarized
442 in Figure 1A.

443 444 **4.3 MRI acquisition**

445 All imaging was performed on a 3T Siemens Trio MRI scanner (Erlangen,
446 Germany) equipped with either a product eight-channel or thirty-two-channel array
447 coil. The scans of YC and OG were acquired following two similar protocols. In
448 both protocols, high-resolution structural images were acquired with 3D-MPRAGE
449 (Mugler III and Brookeman, 1990) at 1 mm³ isotropic resolution (TI = 950 ms, TE
450 = 3 ms, TR = 1620 ms). In addition, a pseudocontinuous ASL (pCASL) (Dai et al.,
451 2008) with a 2D gradient-echo echo planar imaging (GR-EPI) readout was used in
452 both protocols to measure regional cerebral blood flow (CBF). All participants were
453 scanned during a 'resting' and a 'task' sequence.

454
455 Acquisition parameters for the pCASL sequence in the protocol for OG were:
456 TR/TE/FA = 4 s/19 ms/ 90°, 6 mm slice thickness, 1 mm inter-slice gap, 18 slices
457 acquired in ascending order, 3.5 × 3.5 × 7 mm³ resolution. Arterial spin labeling
458 was implemented with mean Gz of 0.6 mT/m and 1640 Hanning window shaped
459 RF pulses for a total labeling duration of 1.5 seconds. The labeling plane was
460 positioned 80 or 90 mm below the center of the imaging region and post-labeling
461 delay was set to 1.5 seconds. The 'resting' and 'task' sequences lasted ~6 min with

462 45 pairs of label-control scans for signal averaging. Due to technical issues or
463 subject fatigue, only 37 pairs of ‘task’ scan for one subject were acquired, but data
464 quality was sufficient for inclusion in the analyses.

465
466 The pCASL sequence in the protocol for YC differed from that of the OG in the
467 following aspects: (1) The post-labeling delay of the arterial spin labeling was set to
468 1.0 second to account for reduced transit time in YC; (2) Due to a change of
469 protocol during the study, the ASL data was acquired in two slice thickness: either
470 4.8 mm (30 slices) or 6 mm (20 slices); (3) 30 pairs of label-control scans were
471 acquired for the ‘resting’ sequence; (4) the ‘task’ sequence acquired 75 pairs of
472 scans. Due to potential subject fatigue during ‘task’ ASL MRI (Lim et al., 2010),
473 different task durations may introduce bias. To avoid this, the ‘task’ sequence of the
474 YC was truncated and only the first 45 pairs of scans were analyzed. This was not
475 necessary for the ‘resting’ CBF measurement.

477 **4.3 Neuroimaging data processing**

478 **4.3.1 Tissue segmentation and CBF quantification**

479 Statistical Parametric Mapping 8 (SPM 8, Wellcome Department of Cognitive
480 Neurology, UK) and ASLtbx (a SPM add-on toolbox) were used to perform tissue
481 segmentation and to quantify regional cerebral blood flow (CBF) from the ASL
482 MRI scans, including the following steps: (1) realignment and averaging of ASL
483 time series to correct for head motion and to generate a mean EPI image, (2) rigid
484 registration of the mean EPI image to the anatomical image, (3) transformation of
485 each frame of the ASL time series using the image generated in the previous step
486 followed by smoothing in space with a 3-dimensional 4 mm full width at half
487 maximum (FWHM) Gaussian kernel, (4) tissue segmentation of the structural
488 image using the pipeline in SPM8 to generate gray matter (GM), white matter
489 (WM) and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) probability maps, which are then smoothed
490 using a 3-dimensional FWHM Gaussian kernel and resampled to the space of the

491 registered mean EPI image, (5) generation of perfusion-weighted time series using
492 pairwise subtraction of the label and control images, (6) application of the modified
493 single compartment continuous ASL perfusion model (Wang et al., 2003) to the
494 perfusion-weighted time series to derive an absolute CBF image series, (7)
495 application of the Structural Correlation-based Outlier Rejection (SCORE) (Dolui
496 et al., 2017) to the CBF image series to perform denoising and generate a “cleaned”
497 CBF image, (8) adjustment of the CBF signal at each voxel of the “cleaned” CBF
498 image by dividing with the GM probability plus 0.4 times WM probability at the
499 corresponding voxel to correct for partial volume effect (results did not change
500 without partial volume effect, see Supplement A), (9) normalization to the $2 \times 2 \times 2$
501 mm^3 Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) template using the DARTEL algorithm
502 (Ashburner, 2007).

504 **4.3.2 Cortical thickness map estimation**

505 A diffeomorphic registration based cortical thickness analysis pipeline (Das et al.,
506 2009) available in Advanced Normalization Tools (ANTs) was applied to the
507 structural MRI scan of each subject to derive a voxel-wise cortical thickness map.
508 The thickness maps were smoothed using a 4 mm FWHM Gaussian kernel and
509 normalized to the MNI space ($1 \times 1 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3$).

511 **4.3.3 Quality control**

512 Quality control was performed by visual inspection. Subjects with CBF maps with
513 extensive non-physiological negative or positive CBF clusters (likely caused by
514 instability of spin labeling, subject motion, or MRI artifacts) were identified and
515 excluded from the study. The SPM DARTEL pipeline failed on one individual in
516 the older adult group. In total, data for four YC and four OG subjects were
517 excluded. In addition, the four oldest TypicalAgers were excluded to generate an
518 age-matched sample with the SuperAgers, yielding 39 YC, 15 SuperAgers and 17
519 TypicalAgers (i.e. 32 OG) for the final analysis.

520

521

522 **4.4 Statistical analysis**

523 Statistical analyses were performed using standard methods in SPSS 23.0 (Chicago,
524 IL), MATLAB 2014a (Math Works, Natick, MA) and FSL 5.0.5. All statistical
525 analyses are two-tailed.

526

527 **4.4.1 Analysis of demographic data**

528 Contingency χ^2 testing, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post-hoc
529 comparisons were used to test group differences among YC, TypicalAgers and
530 SuperAgers. Bonferroni correction was applied to adjust for multiple comparisons.

531

532 **4.4.2 Analysis of global measurements**

533 To investigate potential global effects, the whole-brain mean resting CBF, whole-
534 brain task CBF, whole brain mean cortical thickness, cortical gray matter and white
535 matter volume of each subject were extracted. ANOVA analysis with post-hoc
536 comparisons and Bonferroni correction was used to investigate group differences
537 and perform pairwise group comparisons between YC, TypicalAgers and
538 SuperAgers.

539

540 **4.4.3 Analysis of local measurements**

541 A region of interest (ROI) analysis was also used to analyze neuroimaging
542 measurements. The ROIs were defined in a data-driven manner representing regions
543 with both significant perfusion and structural differences between YC and OG to
544 locate regions associated with both functional and structural changes due to aging.
545 Voxel-wise independent two sample t-tests were performed using the normalized
546 resting CBF maps and thickness maps separately using the “Randomize” package
547 (Winkler et al., 2014), with family-wise error rate (FWE) correction for multiple
548 comparisons. As cortical thickness was only defined in cortex, the analysis for the

549 thickness maps was limited to voxels with cortical thickness greater than 0.1mm in
550 all the subjects. Regions with corrected $p \leq 0.001$ in both analyses were defined as
551 ROIs. Individual statistical maps of resting CBF and cortical thickness together
552 with the ROIs are shown in Supplement B. ROIs with cluster sizes smaller than 320
553 mm³ (corresponding to 40 voxels in the 2x2x2 mm³ MNI template) were excluded.
554 In total, six ROIs were generated (Figure 1B), and included the bilateral insula (INS
555 L/R), bilateral postcentral gyrus (PoCG L/R), medial portion of the prefrontal gyrus
556 (mPFC), and left inferior parietal gyrus (IPG L). In each ROI, mean resting CBF,
557 task CBF, and cortical thickness were extracted for each subject.

558
559 For each global or ROI-based measurement, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA),
560 with age, sex, and education as covariates was performed to examine the difference
561 between TypicalAgers and SuperAgers. Within TypicalAgers and SuperAgers,
562 ROI-based partial linear correlation analyses controlling for age, sex and education,
563 was performed between mean RT and neuronal measurements. Bonferroni
564 correction was applied to correct for multiple comparisons. To investigate whether
565 measurements of the regional ROIs provide additional predictive value beyond the
566 global measurements, the partial correlation analysis was repeated with the
567 corresponding global measurement as an additional covariate.

568 569 **4.4.4 Hierarchical linear regression analysis for functional and structural** 570 **measurements**

571 To further investigate whether structural measurements provide complementary
572 information in predicting mean RT, a two-step, hierarchical linear regression was
573 performed with age, sex, and education entered in the first step, and with whole-
574 brain task and resting CBF and structural measurements, including ROI-based and
575 whole-brain mean cortical thickness, gray matter volume, and white matter volume
576 in the second step.

578

579

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722 **Acknowledgments**

723 **Funding:**

724 This work was supported by National Institutes of Health (Grant numbers R01-
725 AG037376, R01-EB017255, R01-AG040271, P30-AG010124, K23-AG028018,
726 P41-EB015893).

727

728 **Author contributions:**

729 Study concept and design: R.H., D.A.W., J.A.D.

730 Data analysis: F.N.Y., L.X.

731 Drafting manuscript: F.N.Y., L.X., O.G.

732 Approval of the final version of the manuscript: All authors.

734 **Competing interests:**

735 Dr. D.A.W. received grants from Eli Lilly/Avid Radiopharmaceuticals, personal

736 fees from Eli Lilly, grants and personal fees from Merck, grants from Biogen,

737 personal fees from Janssen, and personal fees from GE Healthcare.

741 **Figures and Tables**

746 **Supplementary Materials**

747 **A. Statistical analysis results using CBF measurements without** 748 **corrected for partial volume effect.**

749
750 All of the statistical analyses were repeated using CBF measurements without
751 correction for a partial volume effect. The results, shown in Table S1, Table S2, and
752 Figure S1 are similar to those with partial volume correction. Similarly, the two-
753 step, hierarchical linear regression using the uncorrected CBF measurements
754 generated similar results with only whole-brain task CBF ($\beta = -3.1$, R^2 change =
755 0.457, $p < 0.001$) selected in the most predictive model ($N = 32$, $F = 7.7$, $R^2 =$
756 0.532, $p < 0.001$).

757
758
759 **Table S1.** Global functional measurements in Young Control, TypicalAgers and
760 SuperAgers without correction for partial volume effect.

	Young Control (YC)	Typical Agers (TA)	Super Agers (SA)	Cohen's d Between Groups		
				YC vs. TA	YC vs. SA	SA vs. TA

N	39	17	15			
Whole-Brain Task CBF (without Partial Volume Correction, ml/100g tissue/min)	52.5 (10.7)	35.4 (7.8)	47.1 (6.9)	1.72***	0.62	1.59***
Whole-Brain Resting CBF (without Partial Volume Correction, ml/100g tissue/min)	51.7 (11.2)	35.2 (8.0)	47.3 (6.7)	1.59***	0.51	1.62***

Note: Mean (standard deviation). *, ***, denote $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.001$, respectively (Bonferroni corrected).

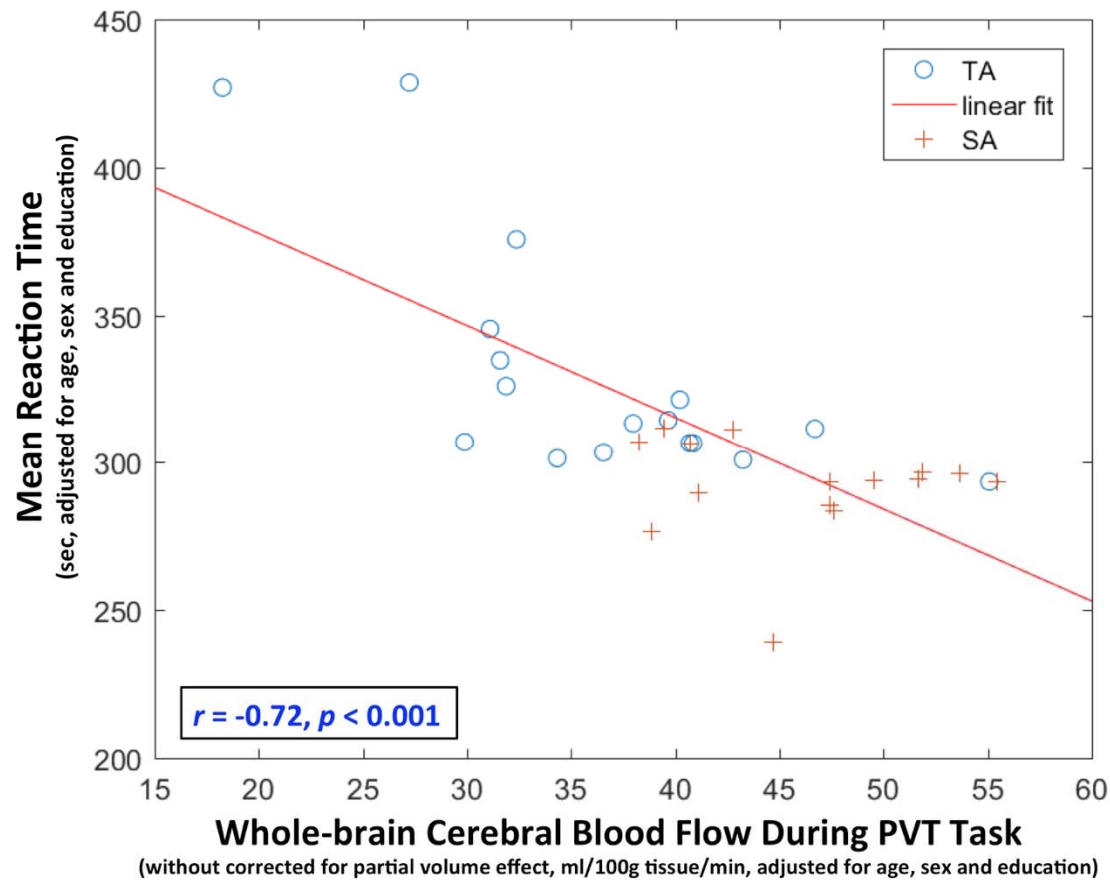
Table S2. Partial Pearson correlations between global and ROI-based functional measurements without correction for partial volume effect and mean reaction time, with age, sex and education as covariates.

Regions of Interest	Task CBF	Resting CBF
INS L	-0.69*** ¹	-0.46* ²
INS R	-0.62*** ¹	-0.40* ²
mPFC	-0.51** ¹	-0.52** ²
PoCG L	-0.59** ¹	-0.55** ²
PoCG R	-0.55** ¹	-0.52* ²
IPG L	-0.60** ¹	-0.51* ²
Global	-0.72***	-0.63***

Note: *, **, *** denote $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$, $p < 0.001$, respectively; red stars show p values survived Bonferroni corrections ($p < 0.05/21$). CBF = cerebral blood flow, INS = insula, mPFC = medial prefrontal cortex, PoCG = postcentral gyrus, IPG = inferior parietal gyrus, L = left, R = right.

¹ not significant after controlling whole-brain CBF during psychomotor vigilance test task

² not significant after controlling whole-brain CBF at rest



775

776 **Figure S1.** Scatter plot of whole-brain cerebral blood flow during the Psychomotor
777 Vigilance Test (PVT) without correction for partial volume effect and the mean
778 reaction time, adjusted for age, sex and education, of TypicalAgers (TA) and
779 SuperAgers (SA).

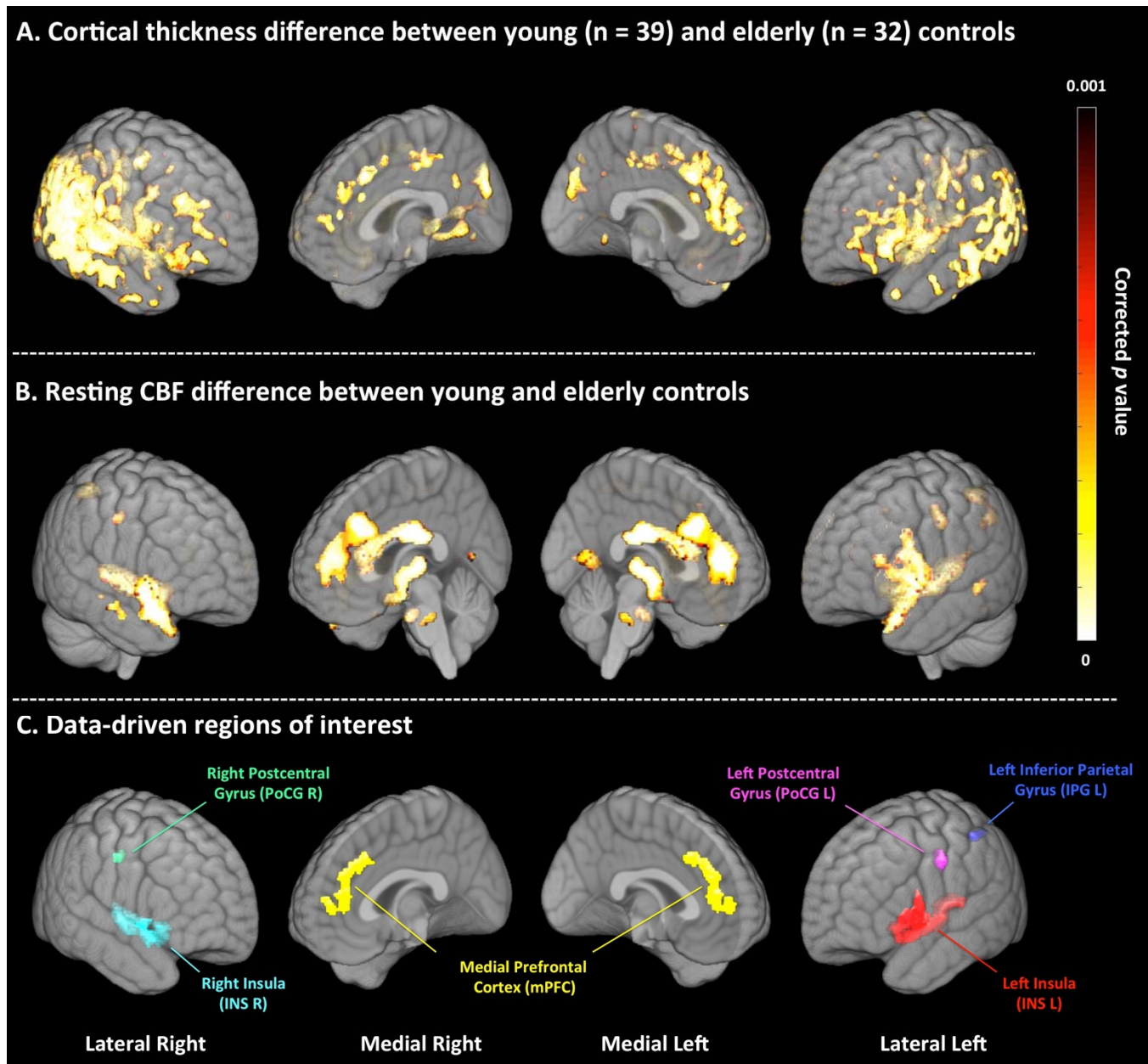
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782 **B. Statistical maps of cortical thickness and resting CBF differences** 783 **between young and older controls**

784 Data-driven regions of interest (ROI) were defined as the regions that exhibit
785 significant age-related differences in cortical thickness and resting CBF between
786 young and older controls. Voxel-wise independent two sample t-tests were
787 performed on the normalized resting CBF maps and cortical thickness maps
788 separately, between young and older subjects using the Randomise package
789 (Winkler, Ridgway, Webster, Smith, & Nichols, 2014). Family-wise error rate
790 (FWE) was applied to correct for multiple comparisons. A significance level of
791 corrected $p \leq 0.001$ is used. As cortical thickness is only defined in cortex, the

792 analysis for the thickness maps was limited to voxels with thickness greater than
793 0.1mm for all the subjects. The statistical maps for cortical thickness and resting
794 CBF are shown in Figures S2-A and Figure S2-B, respectively. The union regions
795 were defined as ROIs for this study (Figure 1B and Figure S2-C).
796



797

798 **Figure S2.** Statistical maps of cortical thickness (A) and resting CBF (B)
799 differences between young and older subjects, tested by voxel-wise independent
800 two-sample t-tests. Family-wise error rate was used to correct for multiple
801 comparisons, with a significance level of corrected $p \leq 0.001$. Regions exhibiting

302 significant differences in both cortical thickness and resting CBF were defined as
303 regions of interest in this study (C).

304 CBF = cerebral blood flow.

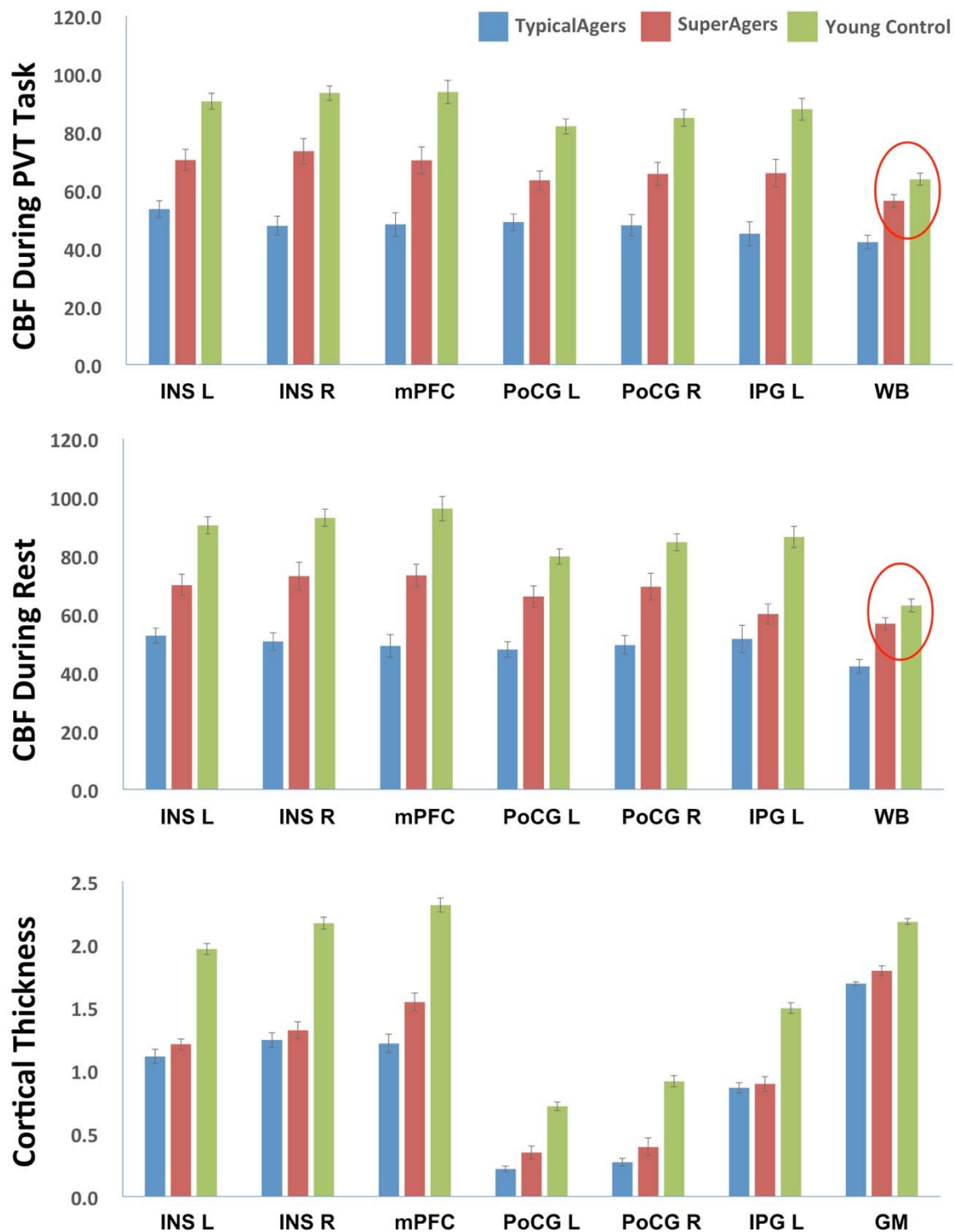
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307 **C. Regional and global CBF and cortical thickness measurements of** 308 **TypcialAgers, SuperAgers and young control.**

309 Figure S3 shows the regional and global functional and structural measurements of
310 TypicalAgers, SuperAgers and Young Controls. ANOVA post-hoc analyses were
311 performed to test pairwise group differences. Qualitatively, there is a trend for all
312 the measurements showing that CBF and cortical thickness of young controls is
313 greater than that of SuperAgers, which is greater than that of TypicalAgers. All of
314 the measurements are significantly different between TypicalAgers and young
315 controls. SuperAgers and Young Controls differed on all measurements except
316 whole-brain CBF during the PVT and at rest (indicated by the red circles in Figure
317 S3). Group differences between SuperAgers and TypicalAgers are reported in the
318 Results section of the manuscript.

319



320

321 **Figure S3.** Regional and global cerebral blood flow (CBF) and cortical thickness
 322 measurements of TypicalAgers, SuperAgers and young control. Red circles indicate
 323 measurements that are not significantly different between Young Control and
 324 SuperAgers after Bonferroni correction. INS = insula, mPFC = medial prefrontal
 325 cortex, PoCG = postcentral gyrus, IPG = inferior parietal gyrus, WB = whole brain,
 326 GM = gray matter, L = left, R = right.

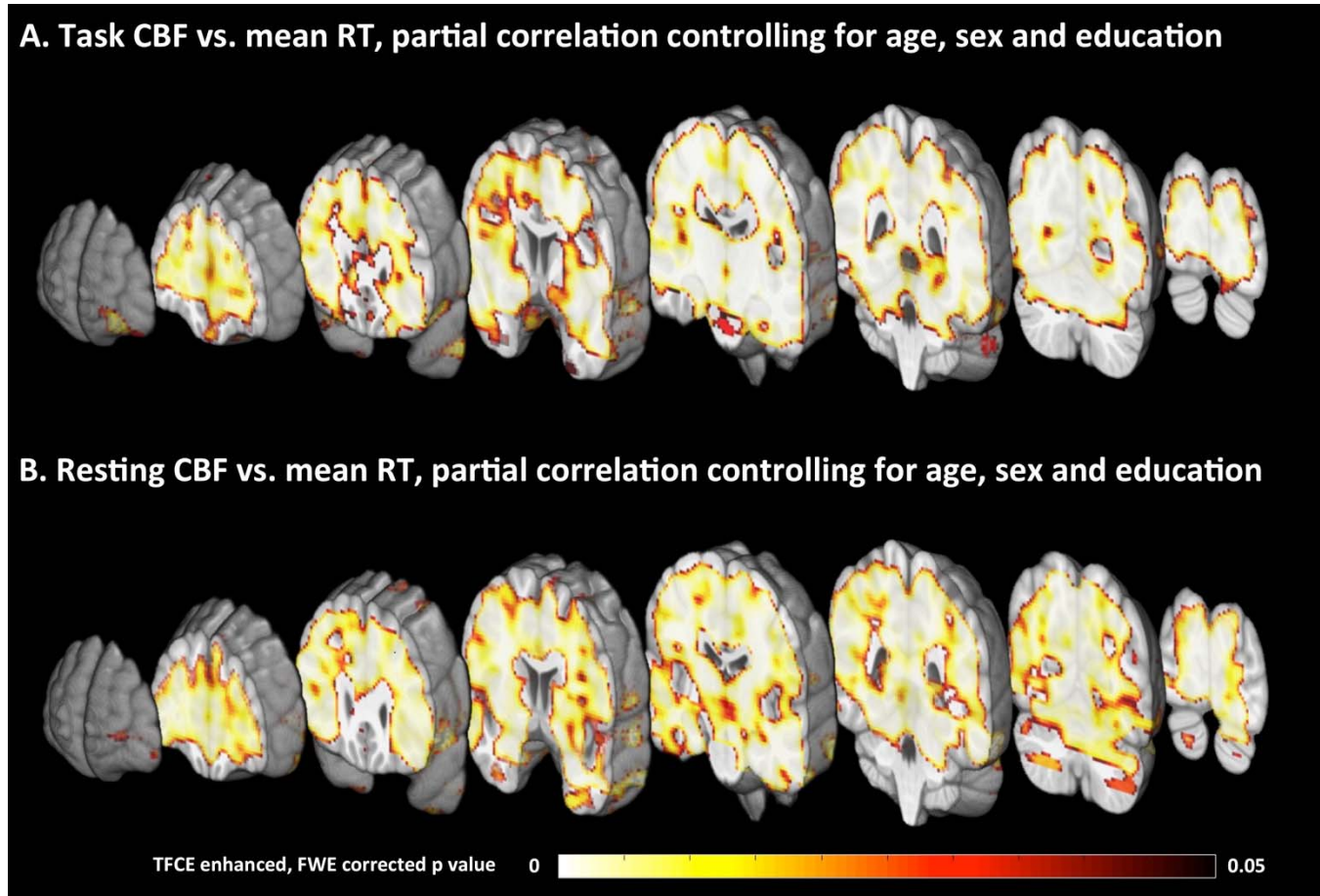
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329 **D. Voxel-wise partial correlation between resting/task CBF and** 330 **mean reaction time**

331 To investigate whether the significant correlation between global CBF and mean
332 reaction time (RT) is driven by specific brain regions, voxel-wise partial correlation
333 analyses were performed between resting and task CBF and mean RT on the PVT.
334 A general linear model was fit with mean RT as the dependent variable and
335 resting/task CBF as the independent variable, with age, sex and education as
336 covariates. Threshold-free cluster enhancement (TFCE) (Smith & Nichols, 2009)
337 available in the “randomize” package (Winkler et al., 2014) was used to enhance
338 the statistical maps, which were then converted to voxel-wise corrected p -values by
339 applying permutation testing with 10,000 iterations followed by family-wise error
340 rate (FWE) correction. A significant level of corrected $p = 0.05$ was used to identify
341 areas with significant prediction value. The results, shown in Figure S4,
342 demonstrate that resting and task CBF of all the brain regions was significantly
343 correlated with mean RT such that greater CBF was associated with lower mean
344 RT, indicative of faster processing speed. Thus, the significant correlation between
345 global CBF and mean RT is likely a whole-brain effect rather than driven by
346 specific brain regions.

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Figure S4. Statistical maps of voxel-wise partial correlation. between CBF during PVT task (A) and resting CBF and mean reaction time (RT), controlling for age, sex and education. TFCE = threshold-free cluster enhancement, FWE = family-wise error rate.