


## RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Connectivity between default mode and frontoparietal networks mediates the association between global amyloid- $\beta$ and episodic memory

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## Abstract

Beta-amyloid (A $\beta$ ) is a neurotoxic protein that deposits early in the pathogenesis of preclinical Alzheimer's disease. We aimed to identify network connectivity that may alter the negative effect of A $\beta$  on cognition. Following assessment of memory performance, resting-state fMRI, and mean cortical PET-A $\beta$ , a total of 364 older adults (286 with clinical dementia rating [CDR-0], 59 with CDR-0.5 and 19 with CDR-1, mean age: 74.0  $\pm$  6.4 years) from the OASIS-3 sample were included in the analysis. Across all participants, a partial least squares regression showed that lower connectivity between posterior medial default mode and frontoparietal networks, higher within-default mode, and higher visual-motor connectivity predict better episodic memory. These connectivities partially mediate the effect of A $\beta$  on episodic memory. These results suggest that connectivity strength between the precuneus cortex and the superior frontal gyri may alter the negative effect of A $\beta$  on episodic memory. In contrast, education was associated with different functional connectivity patterns. In conclusion, functional characteristics of specific brain networks may help identify amyloid-positive individuals with a higher likelihood of memory decline, with implications for AD clinical trials.

Peter Zhukovsky and Gillian Coughlan contributed equally to this study.

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## 1 | INTRODUCTION

Late-onset Alzheimer's disease (AD) manifests with loss of episodic memory (Weston et al., 2018; Zimmermann & Butler, 2018). A defining feature of AD is the "preclinical" phase before the manifestation of clinically significant amnesia, when individuals have elevated cortical amyloid (Dubois et al., 2019; Sperling et al., 2011). The neurotoxic accumulation of amyloid beta ( $A\beta$ ) appears in preclinical AD (Jack Jr et al., 2016), and later sparks the emergence of other pathologies, such as hyperphosphorylated tau (Jack et al., 2018). Although  $A\beta$  is the main target of most treatment trials (Donohue et al., 2014; Papp et al., 2021; Sevigny et al., 2016; Sperling et al., 2020), many  $A\beta$  positive individuals do not develop AD or episodic memory impairment (Iacono et al., 2009; Roberts et al., 2018). In other words, not every individual with preclinical AD pathology develops symptomatic AD in late life. Brain function may be one of the factors that distinguish  $A\beta$  positive individuals who develop amnesic symptoms, from those who remain cognitively normal.

Large-scale brain systems or intrinsic connectivity networks support diverse cognitive abilities, including episodic memory (Burianova & Grady, 2007; Nyberg et al., 2000; Rugg & Vilberg, 2013). In AD, increased connectivity between frontal brain areas and the posterior subsystem of the default mode network (DMN) may precede the onset of cognitive symptoms (Jones et al., 2016). However, it is unclear whether this change in connectivity facilitates  $A\beta$  spread (Palmqvist et al., 2017) or acts as a compensatory change aiming to preserve cognition (resilience hypothesis). In healthy adults, functional connectivity (FC) within the DMN is associated with lower brain age (younger than the actual age), indicative of brain reserve (Ewers, 2020). Moreover, frontal regions that are part of cognitive control and salience networks play a role in brain reserve, despite having high  $A\beta$  deposition (Jack et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2012). In older adults, connectivity hubs within the frontoparietal network (FPN) appear to ameliorate the association between vascular brain lesions and cognitive function (Benson et al., 2018). Thus, connectivity strength, within and between the DMN and FPN, may be an important biological substrate of resilience and susceptibility in preclinical AD (Ewers et al., 2021). However, given the weak brain-behavior associations, replication in additional cohorts with elevated amyloid is desirable.

Network connectivity in preclinical AD may also be shaped by social factors, such as education. For example, greater number of years of education predicts better volumetric integrity of the posterior medial DMN (Coughlan et al., 2021), which is closely linked with overall functional integrity, and appears to delay the onset of cognitive decline (Franzmeier et al., 2017; Mungas et al., 2018; Staekenborg et al., 2020; Wilson et al., 2019). The longitudinal trajectory of an individual's brain network organization is associated with educational attainment (Chan et al., 2021). This suggests that education may mitigate the effect of AD pathology on the brain. Further, education may serve to delay the onset of AD symptoms (Clouston et al., 2020). However, the education effect may act on network subsystems that are independent of cognitive networks affected by  $A\beta$ .

Here, we investigated pairwise FC between 21 independent components (ICs) of major brain networks. This fine-grained parcellation of networks allows us to examine subsystems within the brain's large-scale network. FC was estimated in cognitively normal (CDR-0) adults and adults with subtle cognitive impairment (CDR 0.5) who had varying levels of  $A\beta$ . Our previous work showed that both the precuneus and superior frontal gyrus are structural features of brain reserve (Coughlan et al., 2021). Therefore, we hypothesized that posterior medial DMN to superior frontal FPN connectivity would be associated with episodic memory (following multiple comparison correction of all other 60 network connections) and would mediate the effect of  $A\beta$  on episodic memory. We also tested whether educational attainment was associated with the same network subsystems that mediate the association between  $A\beta$  and episodic memory.

## 2 | METHODS

### 2.1 | Data

Data used in the preparation of this article were obtained from the Open Access Series of Imaging Studies (OASIS) database (<https://www.oasis-brains.org/>; accessed: April 4, 2020), collected by the Washington University Knight Alzheimer Disease Research Center over the course of 15 years. Beyond OASIS inclusion criteria, the current study required the availability of 3 T resting-state fMRI, PET scans for  $A\beta$ , and episodic memory assessments. All participants gave informed consent, and ethical approval was obtained by the institutional review board of Washington University School of Medicine.

### 2.2 | Participants

Participants were selected from the OASIS-3 cohort of 1098 subjects. Participants were excluded if they had an active psychiatric or neurological diagnosis, including epilepsy, alcoholism, or head trauma, and/or had a current diagnosis of cardiovascular disease, Parkinson's disease, or Frontotemporal dementia and other active neurological disorders. History of a single stroke or transient ischemic attack was not an exclusion criterion unless it was related to symptomatic onset of cognitive impairment. Following exclusions, 420 participants with quality-controlled fMRI data and amyloid- $\beta$  data remained (Table 1).

### 2.3 | $A\beta$ PET and fMRI acquisition

$A\beta$  values were acquired via PET scanning with the use of one of two tracers: Pittsburgh compound B (PIB) or (18F) AV-45 florbetapir. Values are reported as standard-uptake-value-ratio (SUVR), and partial volume correction was applied via the regional spread function (RSF) in the PET Unified Pipeline (PUP) (Su et al., 2015), using the Desikan-Kiliany atlas (Desikan et al., 2006; <https://github.com/ysu001/PUP>). The majority of participants' amyloid scans used PIB ( $n = 354$ ), as only

**TABLE 1** Overview of sample demographics used in the PLS analyses

N	CDR-0		CDR-0.5		CDR-1		F-statistic/ $\chi^2$ (p value)
	286		59		19		
M/F	125	161	35	24	10	9	5.1 (.08)
Age	73.3	(6.0)	75.8	(7.0)	77.8	(7.3)	7.6 (<.001)
Education (Y)	15.8	(2.7)	15.1	(3.0)	13.6	(3.5)	6.4 (.002)
MMSE	28.9	(1.3)	26.9	(2.6)	23.7	(2.6)	114.1 ( $4 \times 10^{-39}$ )
Mean relative RMS before denoising	0.15	(0.06)	0.16	(0.06)	0.15	(0.07)	0.66 (.52)
Mean FD after denoising	0.03	(0.01)	0.03	(0.01)	0.03	(0.01)	2.0 (.13)
Delayed recall	12.9	(4.35)	7.3	(5.68)	1.8	(2.66)	70.9 ( $10^{-26}$ )

Note: Clinical Dementia Rating group differences were assessed using one-way ANOVAs for continuous data and Chi-square tests for categorical data. Delayed recall was measured using Wechsler Memory Scale.

Abbreviations: FD, framewise displacement; M/F, male/female; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; PLS, partial least squares; RMS, root mean square realignment.

66 participants had an AV-45 scan. To correct the effects of tracer, we used the residuals of a linear model with mean cortical A $\beta$  levels and tracer. Cerebellum was used as the reference region. Cutoffs were defined based on OASIS-3 guidelines (LaMontagne et al., 2019). More details on data acquisition, timing, and processing are available in LaMontagne et al. (2019). Siemens 3 T scanners were used to obtain blood oxygenation level-dependent (BOLD) signaling data. Data were preprocessed using the Freesurfer image analysis suite as described in LaMontagne et al., 2019 and downloaded from XNAT central. The most common parameter combination of the resting-state fMRI data was: voxel size =  $4 \times 4 \times 4$  mm<sup>3</sup>, TE = 0.027 s, TR = 2.2 s, and scan duration = 6 min. In our baseline analyses, only one participant had an fMRI sequence with TR = 2.5 s and one fMRI sequence comprised 163 instead of 164 volumes. In the follow-up analyses, only one fMRI sequence comprised 163 instead of 164 volumes and 30 sequences had a TR = 2.5 s.

## 2.4 | fMRI processing

We used the FSL processing pipeline (Alfaro-Almagro et al., 2018). Specifically, we downloaded fMRI data in BIDS format from OASIS and applied FSL FEAT (v3.15) for fMRI preprocessing (removing the first three volumes, linear detrending of 100 s, and smoothing with a kernel of 5 mm). We then used MELODIC (Beckmann and Smith, FMRIB Technical Report TR02CB1) to estimate subject-level ICs and applied in-house developed software, Alternative Labeling Tool, ALT (Zhukovsky, Coughlan, et al., 2022), to label these components as signal or noise. ALT reduces motion artifacts and performs similarly to hand classification. We regressed out the noise components (with *fsl\_regfilt*), thus obtaining denoised data. All the above preprocessing occurred in subject space. We used Freesurfer structural image segmentations (downloaded from OASIS3) to leverage the high-quality, nonlinear registration to MNI152 space. Freesurfer *reg-feat2anat* command was used to complete the registrations. We mapped each participant's denoised data to the MNI152 space and assessed the

registration quality using *slicesdir*. Participants with mean relative RMS of more than 0.3 were excluded from the analyses to ensure high data quality (Parkes et al., 2018).

## 2.5 | Network connectivity estimation

In constructing functional connectomes, a data-driven parcellation was obtained from a group-level ICA in 4000 healthy older participants from the UK Biobank. The original ICA analysis was set at 25 ICs, four of which were considered noise. The 21 signal ICs yielded 210 (i.e.,  $([21 \times 21] - 21)/2$ ) unique pairwise connections, each of which was examined separately. ICs are discrete constellations of fMRI voxels that represent resting-state subnets whose activity is independent from each other. Timeseries data was extracted for the 21 components using *fslemeans*. We used *FSLNets* (<https://fsl.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl/fslwiki/FSLNets>) to generate connectivity matrices using ridge-regularized partial connectivity that were subsequently analyzed. We previously mapped these 21 ICs onto the Yeo 7-network parcellation (Yeo et al., 2011) in MNI152 space (Zhukovsky, Wainberg, et al., 2022), to contextualize the spatial locations of the ICs within the brain's largest networks (Visual, Somatomotor, Dorsal/Ventral Attention, Limbic, Frontoparietal, and DMNs). We favored a data-driven parcellation as it captures large-scale aspects of brain networks and allows us to directly compare our results to findings from a large-scale UK Biobank data set.

## 2.6 | Cognitive status and episodic memory

Cognitive status and neuropsychological assessment included The Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) scale, a Dementia Staging Instrument, which was used to characterize participants with normal cognition (CDR-0) or subtle cognitive impairment (CDR-0.5). This is a commonly used clinical outcome measure in clinical trials (Morris, 1993; Sevigny et al., 2016). The Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) indicated participants' global cognitive function in the domains of orientation,

registration, attention and calculation, recall, and language (Arevalo-Rodriguez et al., 2015). Immediate and delayed recall of episodic information were tested using the recall of story passages from the Logical Memory II subtest of the Wechsler Memory Scale (WMS; story units recall version) (Elwood, 1991).

## 2.7 | Statistical analysis

### 2.7.1 | Relations between global A $\beta$ , connectivity networks, and delayed episodic memory

Partial least squares (PLS) regression (Chong & Jun, 2005; De Jong, 1993) was used to assess the relation between FC and episodic memory. For models featuring memory as the outcome, and for the multivariate brain–memory relationships, only the MRI scan within a year of the cognitive assessment was included, leading to a moderate reduction in the sample size ( $n = 364$ ). We regressed out age, sex, and mean relative RMS from the FC data, while regressing out age, sex, and the absolute time differences between the fMRI scan and memory assessment from episodic memory data. As a result, the predictor matrix  $X$  included 210 partial pairwise connectivities ( $364 \times 210$ ), while the outcome matrix  $Y$  included delayed memory recall scores (number of logical units remembered from a story;  $364 \times 1$ ). Following previous PLS applications (Morgan et al., 2019; Zhukovsky, Wainberg, et al., 2022), we used permutation testing ( $n = 5000$ ) to assess whether PLS latent variables explained a significant amount of variance in memory. During each permutation, memory scores were shuffled randomly and the PLS was repeated, whereby we recorded the amount of variance in the permuted outcome explained by the PLS model. For significance testing, we calculated  $p$  values as the proportion of permutations on which the percentage of variance explained in the memory outcome was greater than in the PLS with nonpermuted data. If, in more than 5% of permutations, the “random” PLS explained more variance in the outcome than in the nonpermuted model, then the model was deemed nonsignificant. We used bootstrapping ( $n = 5000$ ) to generate Z-regression weights for each of the predictors, indicating which network connectivity predictors robustly contributed to the latent PLS variable. A threshold of  $|Z| > 3$  was used to determine the predictors that were robustly associated with episodic memory performance.

Finally, we then created two mediation models to test whether FC mediates the relationship between A $\beta$  and memory. While the mediator in the first model was the latent variable from the PLS summarizing 19 connectivities, the mediator in the second model was the connectivity between the posteromedial DMN-20 and FPN-6. Significance was assessed using 5000 bias-corrected bootstrap estimates of their 95% confidence intervals (CIs).

### 2.7.2 | Effects of education

We assessed the relationship between years of education and within- and between-network connectivity ( $n = 420$ ), controlling for A $\beta$  levels

and CDR status. The general linear models testing for the main effects of education are summarized below:

$$FC \sim Education + A\beta SUVR + CDR + \% \text{ signal} \\ + \text{mean relative RMS} + \Delta \text{time} + \text{age} * \text{sex}$$

Outliers ( $>3$  standard deviations from the mean) were removed (Anderson et al., 2020).

## 2.8 | Repeating PLS and mediation analyses in a partially overlapping sample with data collection at different time points

Memory performance, resting-state fMRI, and PET-A $\beta$  scans were collected as part of different visits in OASIS3. For the main analysis, we used only baseline data, with data matching keeping the MRI scan within a year of the A $\beta$  scan for linear models with FC as the outcome.

To extend our findings, we used a different data alignment approach, conducting the cross-sectional PLS and mediation analyses in an OASIS sample that partially overlapped with the original sample ( $n = 361$ ). In this analysis, we used all available time points to find the assessments that were as close together as possible (Supporting Information). fMRI scan times were matched as close as possible to the time of the PET scan. While 90% of the participants in this sample (Figure S1) were also part of the main analysis of the baseline sample, this additional cross-sectional analysis included different time points. As a result, only 47% of scans overlapped between the main analysis and the additional analysis. The sample used in this additional analysis was on average 1 year older than the baseline sample (75.2 vs. 74.0 years of age). As before, the PLS predictor matrix  $X$  ( $361 \times 210$ ) included 210 connectivities, and the outcome matrix included delayed memory recall ( $361 \times 1$ ). Finally, we used the beta-weights obtained in our main PLS to predict memory performance from FC data obtained primarily in the same participants with unique time points ( $n = 191$ ). We use a correlation between observed and predicted memory scores to assess “out-of-sample” performance of our PLS model.

We next attempted to extend the mediation findings using this partially overlapping sample. The mediator in the first model was the latent variable from the PLS summarizing 19 connectivities, the mediator in the second model was the connectivity between the posteromedial DMN-20 and FPN-6.

## 2.9 | Data availability statement

Data used in the preparation of this article were obtained from the OASIS-3 database (<https://www.oasis-brains.org/>) and are freely available after registration. All code is made available on the following GitHub account (<https://github.com/peterzhukovsky/resilience>).

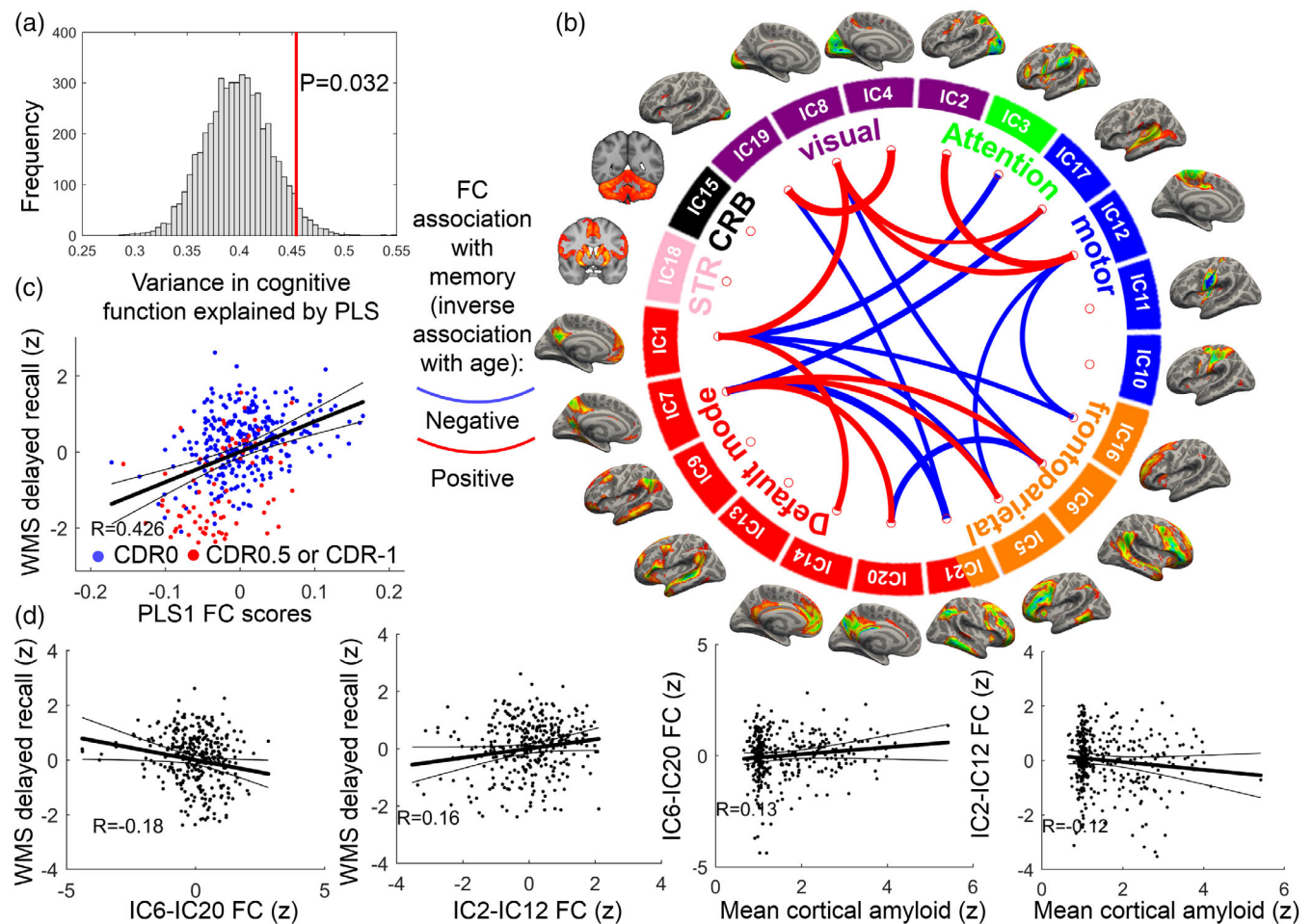
### 3 | RESULTS

#### 3.1 | Participants

An overview of sample demographics is shown in Table 1. The OASIS-3 sample was predominantly Caucasian (60 African-Americans, 3 Asians, 357 Caucasians, 418 Non-Hispanic, and 2 Hispanic participants). As expected, the CDR-1 and CDR-0.5 groups were older than the CDR-0 group. We also found significant main effects of CDR on the MMSE. Relative RMS displacement of the fMRI images was relatively low, with <10% of participants being excluded since they showed mean RMS > 0.3. Mean framewise displacement (FD) measured after fMRI preprocessing was minimal across all groups, with no significant differences between CDR groups.

#### 3.2 | FC associated with delayed episodic memory recall

We tested whether network connectivity was related to memory. Our PLS model featuring three latent variables explained 45.63% of the variance in delayed memory recall ( $P_{\text{PERMUTATION}} = 0.032$ , Figure 1a). We focus on the PLS1 variable, which explained 18% of the variance in memory recall (Figure 1b). Ten connectivities with normalized PLS1 weights  $Z < -3$  (highlighted in blue Figure 1c), and 9 connectivities with  $Z > 3$  (highlighted in red in Figure 1c) were identified. Importantly, lower connectivity between the posterior medial DMN and lateral frontal proportion of the FPN (IC-20 with IC-6 or IC-1 with IC-16), was associated with better delayed recall of episodic information. On the other hand, higher visuo-motor and within-DMN connectivity were associated with better delayed recall.



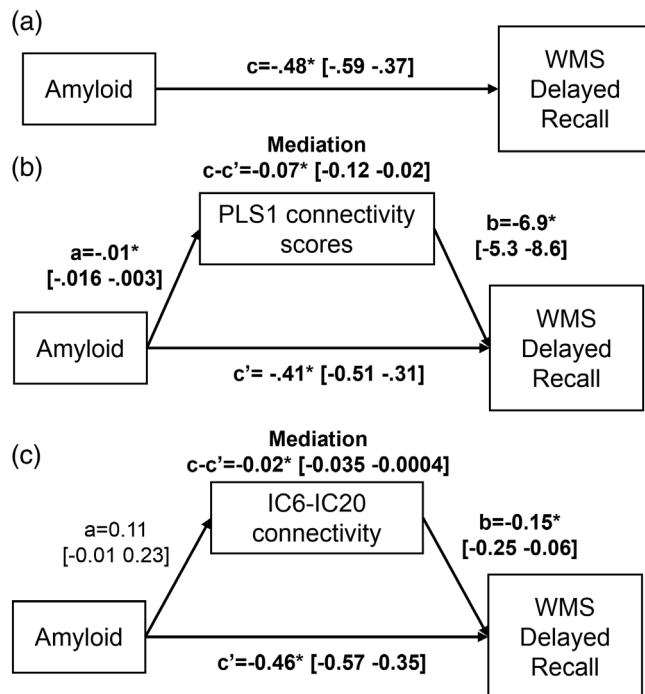
**FIGURE 1** Brain-cognition relationship between partial functional connectivity (FC) and delayed memory recall. The loadings of these components on PLS1 and their respective association with memory are shown in (a). These relationships are tested in a multivariate partial least squares (PLS) regression, which generates a latent variable PLS1 (a), whose scores were found to predict worse memory recall ( $R_{364} = 0.426$ ,  $p < .001$ ). PLS1 scores were significantly lower in participants with CDR-1 and CDR-0.5 compared to CDR-0 ( $F_{1,361} = 15.3$ ,  $p = 4e-7$ ). PLS1 weights with  $|Z| > 3$  weights are shown in (b). Higher connectivity of the frontoparietal and default mode independent components (ICs) predicted worse memory recall (e.g., DMN-20 to FPN-6 and FP/DMN-21 to FPN-5, and FPN-6 to DMN-9). Higher visuo-motor and visuo-DMN connectivity were associated with better memory recall. Correlations of key connectivities,  $\beta$ , and memory are shown in (c). 95% confidence intervals are shown; more information on the individual FC weights can be found in the Supporting Information. Brain images in (b) show the spatial maps of each IC.  $A\beta$ , mean cortical  $A\beta$  SUVR-resting state functional levels; WMS, Wechsler memory scales.



In Figure 1c, connectivities highlighted in blue loaded positively on PLS1, with higher connectivity resulting in higher PLS1 scores, and worse memory. Conversely, connectivities highlighted in red loaded negatively on PLS1, with higher connectivity resulting in lower PLS1 scores and better memory. Participants with CDRs of 0.5 and 1 showed worse memory performance (see Table 1) and lower FC brain scores on PLS1 ( $F_{1,361} = 15.3$ ,  $p = 4e-7$ ) than those with CDR-0.

### 3.3 | Posterior medial DMN connectivity with the frontal FPN mediates the association between global A $\beta$ and episodic memory

Finally, we tested whether the partial connectivities identified by PLS mediated the relationship between A $\beta$  and delayed recall of episodic information. Two mediation analyses confirmed first, a significant indirect effect of the latent FC variable, reflecting the connectivity pattern seen in Figure 2b. and second, a significant indirect effect of connectivity between posterior medial DMN (IC-20) and lateral frontal FPN (IC-6) on the relationship between A $\beta$  and memory ( $-0.02$ , 95% CI =  $-0.04$  to  $0.0004$ ; bootstrapped  $p < .05$ ) (Supporting Information for direct effect).



**FIGURE 2** Mediation analyses of the main sample showed a significant indirect effect of the latent PLS1 variable summarizing functional connectivities (FCs) on relationship between A $\beta$  and memory. While we found strong direct effects of amyloid on memory (a), our mediation model showed that higher A $\beta$  levels were associated with lower PLS1 scores (b) and higher DMN-20 to FPN-6 connectivity (c), which were linked to worse memory recall.

### 3.4 | Additional analyses in an overlapping sample at unique timepoints

In the overlapping sample, with a majority of unique time points not included in the original analysis, we found many of the same relationships as shown in Figure S2. A PLS model featuring four latent variables explained a significant amount of variance in memory ( $p = .038$ , Figure S2b). PLS1 explained 20.2% of the variance in memory recall (Figure S2b). PLS1 implicated many of the connectivities identified in the main analysis, such as DMN-20 to FPN-6 and DMN-20 to DMN-7 (Figure S2b). Our mediation analysis also returned consistent results, showing a significant indirect effect of the latent FC variable and of connectivity between posterior medial DMN (IC-20) and lateral frontal FPN (IC-6) on the relationship between A $\beta$  and memory (bootstrapped  $p < 0.05$ , Table S3).

We were able to achieve moderate out-of-sample performance using the PLS model trained on the main sample to predict memory recall in the sample including unique time points, with predicted versus observed Pearson's correlation of  $r_{189} = .17$ ,  $p = .018$  (Figure S3).

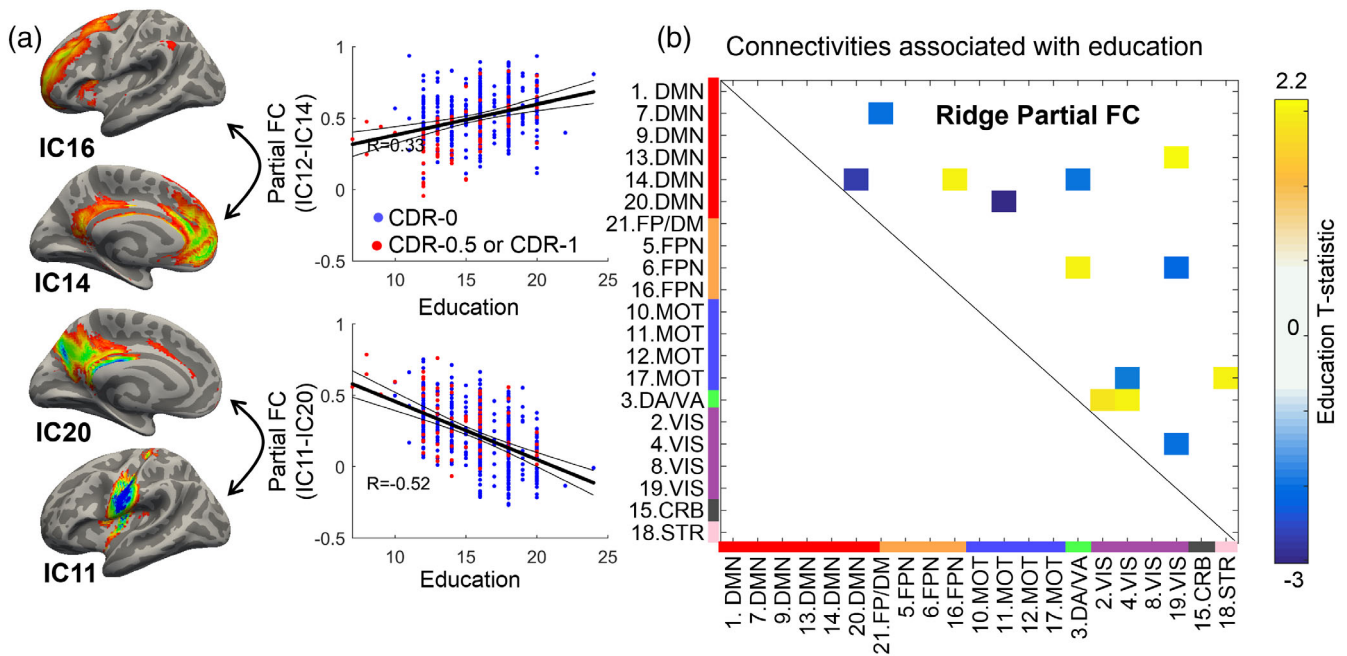
### 3.5 | Effects of educational attainment on function connectivity

Next, we tested whether the connectivities associated with education overlap with the connectivities that emerged in our previous analysis. Controlling for global A $\beta$ , CDR, age, and sex, weaker connectivity between the IC-20 and IC-11, and increased connectivity between IC-16 and IC-14 were associated with more education (Figure 3a). Most pairwise connectivities associated with education (Figure 3b) did not overlap with connectivities identified in our PLS analysis (Figure 1), although connectivity between components of the default mode, motor, and visual networks were involved in both.

## 4 | DISCUSSION

In older adults who are on the AD trajectory, we examined large-scale brain networks that influence the association between elevated A $\beta$  burden and episodic memory. Consistent with the hypothesis that connectivity between the default mode and FPN mediates this A $\beta$ -memory association, our structural equation model analyses showed that posterior medial DMN-FPN connectivity partially mediates the A $\beta$ -memory association. Education was associated with connectivities including DMN and motor components, after accounting for A $\beta$  and CDR status. Interestingly, education was not associated with A $\beta$  levels. Taken together, these findings suggest educational attainment does not act on network subsystems that mediate the association between preclinical A $\beta$  burden and episodic memory.

The posterior DMN and the FPN emerged as the key predictors of episodic memory. The PLS analyses confirmed connectivity between these network subsystems mediates the association between A $\beta$  and memory impairment. This finding is consistent with



**FIGURE 3** Functional connectivity (FC) correlates the education. Education was positively and negatively associated with FC of DMN to motor components, as shown by example associations in (a;  $n = 484$ ). Blue dots represent CDR-0 and red dots represent CDR-0.5 and CDR-1 participants. All significant (permutation  $p < .05$ ) associations between education and FC are shown in (b). Positive associations between education and FC are shown in orange/yellow while negative associations are shown in blue.

previous reports that higher connectivity of the precuneus with superior frontal regions is associated with poorer cognition (Bagarinao et al., 2019). Neuroimaging studies also show that FC of hubs in the FPN and DMN (Ewers, 2020; Hedden et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2012) are associated with AD. Indeed, the posterior DMN regions (including the posterior cingulate and precuneus cortices) in particular have been shown to underpin spatial disorientation and amnesia in the earliest stages of AD (Coughlan et al., 2018, 2020).

While these findings provide valuable insight into brain regions contributing to disease susceptibility, the role of these regions in preserving cognition has been under-explored, particularly when considering how life experience, such as education, may act on connectivities associated with resilience. In our analyses, higher connectivity between the posterior DMN (precuneus cortex, posterior cingulate cortex) and FPN (including superior frontal gyrus) emerged as a key signature of susceptibility to A $\beta$  burden, leading to memory impairment. Our prior work also shows that these brain areas play a key role in structural brain reserve among genetically vulnerable adults, and the structural integrity of these regions is significantly associated with episodic memory (Coughlan et al., 2021). Combined with our earlier work, the current findings thus add support to the theory that these select brain regions may mitigate the risk of memory impairment conferred by the A $\beta$ .

Nevertheless, an important question concerning the interpretation of the increased DMN-FPN connectivity remains: is the increase in DMN-FPN connectivity a sign of a resilience mechanism (Spreng & Turner, 2019), or connectivity “overload” that is later associated with spread of A $\beta$  (Jones et al., 2016). Increased FC between lateral

prefrontal FPN regions (implicated in cognitive control) and DMN regions (implicated in self-referential and memory processes) is at the core of the default-executive coupling hypothesis of aging (Spreng & Turner, 2019; Uddin, 2021). Task-based fMRI evidence suggests that in healthy aging, lateral FPN regions become less efficient, and compensate for age-related decline in executive function by enhancing their connectivity with anterior and posterior DMN (Adnan et al., 2019; Spreng & Turner, 2019). However, high connectivity between the posterior DMN and frontal hub regions also predicts A $\beta$  accumulation (Jones et al., 2016), and the connectivity pattern is later reduced in MCI (Lee et al., 2016). Increased FC may be a general compensatory mechanism in aging; however, increased connectivity in those who also have A $\beta$  accumulation may increase the spread of A $\beta$ . Higher connectivity with the DMN-FPN suggests that individuals may have a higher probability of showing detectable memory impairment. Treatment targets that reduce hyperconnectivity in the posterior DMN-FPN circuit could potentially alter the course of A $\beta$  deposition and cognitive decline.

In addition to DMN-FPN connectivity, our PLS analysis also implicated visual and motor networks as correlates of episodic memory. Specifically, hypoconnectivity between the visual and motor network components predicted worse memory outcomes in response to higher A $\beta$ . Although less evidence on the role of visual-visual and visual-motor connectivity in preclinical AD is available compared to the DMN-FPN connectivity discussed above, activation likelihood estimation meta-analysis results found diminished primary visual cortex connectivity in MCI and AD (Badhwar et al., 2017). Moreover, a large cohort study of healthy older adults found that resting-state

correlates of visuospatial memory included parietal–motor networks (Suri et al., 2017). Older adults show task-based activation of visual areas during memory encoding and recall (Simon-Vermot et al., 2018), while younger adults show task-based visual activation during episodic memory retrieval (Bone & Buchsbaum, 2021), especially when the stimuli are presented in the visual domain (Bonnici et al., 2016). Our findings that unique patterns of both hyper and hypoconnectivity influence memory impairment in response to A $\beta$  are thus consistent with a role for visuo-motor connectivity in memory recall. However, future studies are needed to understand the role played by visual–motor network connectivity and to test whether these circuits have therapeutic potential.

Lifestyle factors subserve network function and include education (Staekenborg et al., 2020), verbal intelligence (Boyle et al., 2021), physical activity, and sleep (Willettts et al., 2018). Interestingly, the network connectivity patterns that mediated the relationship between A $\beta$  and episodic memory were not the same as those associated with education. This suggests that the neural reserve conferred by education does not involve the same network subsystems that are vulnerable to A $\beta$  (i.e., preclinical disease).

Our study has limitations. In healthy participants, previous studies have shown that robust and reproducible brain cognition relationships require thousands of individuals (Marek et al., 2022) and a high sample-per-feature ratio (Helmer et al., 2021). The effect size of our brain–behavior association is moderate, with multivariate correlations of  $\sim 0.42$  and univariate correlations of 0.1–0.2. These effect sizes are larger than recent large-scale brain-wide association studies in healthy participants (Helmer et al., 2021; Marek et al., 2022). In the OASIS-3 sample, participants showed a wide range of memory performance, some showing early signs of cognitive impairment measured using the CDR. It is possible that such impairments may contribute to larger effects of brain-cognition associations than in more normative population datasets such as UK Biobank or the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development study. We argue that the comparatively smaller sample size in our analyses can still yield reproducible findings due to potentially larger effects in clinical populations (Gratton et al., 2022). Although longitudinal designs optimally address the features underlying the concept of cognitive resilience, rich information can be gained from cross-sectional studies because they provide insight into neurobiological mechanisms and developing research approaches. Further, it is important to consider that age influences the functional organization of the human brain (Setton et al., 2022). As both UK Biobank and OASIS-3 data sets include older adults, our group ICA generated a similar pattern of findings, however. Moreover, it is important to establish whether DMN-FPN connectivity mediates the relationship between A $\beta$  and other cognitive processes, such as executive function or information processing.

In conclusion, our results support existing evidence that functional brain properties partially mediate the association between amyloid- $\beta$  and episodic memory. We show that connectivity of the posterior DMN (predominately the precuneus cortex) with the FPN (predominately superior frontal gyri) mediates this association—a finding which is supported by previous work (Cassady et al., 2021;

Hedden et al., 2009). This has clear implications for clinical trials that aim to enroll individuals with elevated amyloid, who have the highest likelihood of suffering cognitive decline during the trial. Future research should examine if connectivity of this circuit may facilitate interventions (Koch et al., 2022) and provide a biomarker for outcomes in cognitive remediation trials (Rajji et al., 2020).

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## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data used in the preparation of this article were obtained from the OASIS-3 database (<https://www.oasis-brains.org/>) and are freely available after registration. All code is made available on the following github account (<https://github.com/peterzhukovsky/resilience>).

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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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