The brain's "dark energy" puzzle *upgraded***:**

[18F]FDG uptake, delivery and phosphorylation, and their coupling with resting-state brain activity

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Running headline: Modeling $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG kinetics vs. fMRI

Abstract

The brain's resting-state energy consumption is expected to be mainly driven by spontaneous activity. In our previous work, we extracted a wide range of features from resting-state fMRI (rsfMRI), and used them to predict \int_{0}^{18} F|FDG PET SUVR as a proxy of glucose metabolism. Here, we expanded upon our previous effort by estimating $[18F]FDG$ kinetic parameters according to Sokoloff's model, i.e., K_i (irreversible uptake rate), K_1 (delivery), k_3 (phosphorylation), in a large healthy control group. The parameters' spatial distribution was described at a high spatial resolution. We showed that while K_1 is the least redundant, there are relevant differences between K_i and k_3 (occipital cortices, cerebellum and thalamus).

Using multilevel modeling, we investigated how much of the regional variability of $\mathrm{[^{18}F]FDG}$ parameters could be explained by a combination of rs-fMRI variables only, or with the addition of cerebral blood flow (CBF) and metabolic rate of oxygen (CMRO₂), estimated from ¹⁵O PET data. We found that combining rs-fMRI and $CMRO₂$ led to satisfactory prediction of individual K_i variance (45%). Although more difficult to describe, K_i and k_3 were both most sensitive to local rs-fMRI variables, while K_1 was sensitive to CMRO₂. This work represents the most comprehensive assessment to date of the complex functional and metabolic underpinnings of brain glucose consumption.

Keywords

Brain glucose metabolism Kinetic modeling **Microparameters**

Spontaneous activity

Multilevel modeling

Introduction

The complex interplay between the brain's metabolic rate of glucose (CMRglc) and oxygen $(CMRO₂)$, cerebral blood flow (CBF) , and brain activity has been the subject of investigation for a long time^{1,2,3}. One of the most intriguing findings in neuroscience has been the key role that spontaneous activity plays in the context of neural metabolism. As most brain energy consumption in terms of glucose and oxygen happens during $rest^{4,5}$, one would expect some degree of coupling between indices of brain metabolism (CMRglc, CMRO₂), blood flow, and measures of resting-state brain activity, such as those which can be derived from resting-state blood oxygen level dependent (BOLD) functional MRI (rs-fMRI)⁶. A moderate-to-strong association between resting-state CMRglc, $CMRO₂$ and CBF has been postulated, and demonstrated by PET studies using $[18F]FDG$, $[15O]H_2O$, and $[15O]O_2$ tracers^{7,8}. A growing number of studies have also tested the coupling between brain glucose metabolism and features obtained from rs-fMRI, detecting complex associations, with stronger coupling of glucose metabolism with local indices of BOLD activity and synchronization, and marked betweenindividual variability in the strength of the association^{8,9,10,11,12,13}.

In our previous work¹³, we explored the link between the spatial topography of glucose metabolism, as measured via \int_{0}^{18} F|FDG PET, and a variety of rs-fMRI measures in the healthy brain, attempting to capture the complexity of brain metabolism through a multifaceted assessment of spontaneous activity. As in many other research works $10,11,12$, we employed a semi-quantitative measure of $\int^{18}F$ FIFDG uptake, i.e., the standardized uptake value ratio (SUVR). While this was validated to be a reliable index of glucose consumption in the healthy brain, it gives a simplified view of the physiological events that can be tracked by \int^1 ⁸F|FDG PET: this

tracer, if combined with compartment modeling, can be used to separately estimate tracer delivery (K_1) across the blood-brain barrier (BBB) mediated by glucose transporters (GLUT1, GLUT3¹⁴. clearance into the venous blood (k_2) , and phosphorylation rate by hexokinase (k_3) . These microparameters (K_1, k_2, k_3) complement and enrich the picture given by the irreversible uptake rate of \int_0^{18} F|FDG ($K_i = K_1k_3/(k_2+k_3)$), which is a composite macroparameter^{15,16}. K_1 is an expression of both CBF and the tracer's extraction fraction *E* ($K_1 = E \cdot CBF$), and thus BBB permeability¹⁷. k_3 represents glucose phosphorylation, which is the rate limiting step for glucose utilization, and thus of particular physiological and pathological relevance^{18,19}; k_3 should be strongly related to *K*i, making *K*i a good proxy of glucose phosphorylation events, but there are regions where removing the impact of delivery may prove relevant. The spatial distribution of the microparameters was investigated for the first time in the $1980's^{20}$, and in few other works^{19,21}, but a more fine-grained evaluation is warranted, considering lingering questions in the fields of neural metabolism and spontaneous activity.

In this work, we focused on fully exploiting the physiological information that can be extracted from dynamic \int_0^{18} F|FDG PET data in a large dataset of healthy controls (n = 47). This was intended to expand upon our previous study, where, using two datasets, we showed that rs-fMRI measures can explain a moderate portion of regional metabolic variability (as described by SUVR), mainly driven by local rs-fMRI features¹³. However, a significant amount of variance remained unexplained. Here, we evaluated the spatial distribution of \int_0^{18} F]FDG K_i , K_1 , and k_3 , and related them to a multitude of potential rs-fMRI predictors (**Table 1**), divided into four pools¹³: 1) *signal*, 2) hemodynamic response function $(HRF)^{22}$, 3) static functional connectivity $(sFC)^{23}$, 4) time-varying functional connectivity $(tvFC)^{24}$. We also related K_i , K_1 , k_3 to CBF and CMRO₂, as estimated from $\left[{}^{15}O\right]H_2O$, $\left[{}^{15}O\right]O_2$ PET, which more directly reflect hemodynamics and oxidative metabolism²⁵. The main aims driving our analyses were:

- 1) assessing the spatial distribution of $\int_{0}^{18}F$ FIFDG K_i , K_1 , k_3 across brain regions in healthy individuals, with particular focus on K_1 and k_3 , assuming they would provide unique information;
- 2) evaluating how much the individual-level spatial coupling between rs-fMRI measures (as proxies for the properties of spontaneous brain activity) and \int_{0}^{18} F|FDG PET changes when considering macro- and microparameters instead of SUVR, employing multivariable mixed-effects modeling (MEM), and the same functional features identified by feature selection in our SUVR model¹³, to test their reproducibility and generalizability;
- 3) evaluating the role of CBF and $CMRO₂$ when added to the fMRI-based description of [¹⁸F]FDG kinetic parameters, hypothesizing that only through this more comprehensive assessment of the brain's functional properties we would reach a somewhat satisfactory description of glucose metabolism in its entirety.

The main scheme of the analysis is reported in **Figure 1**.

Materials and Methods

Participants and imaging protocols

The dataset includes 47 healthy participants (22 F; 57.4 ± 14.8 years) from the Adult Metabolism & Brain Resilience study²⁶. Imaging procedures were approved by Human Research Protection Office and Radioactive Drug Research Committee at Washington University in Saint Louis. T1w and rs-fMRI (TR/TE=800/33 ms, 2.4 mm isotropic, multiband factor 6) were acquired on a Siemens Prisma^{fit} scanner. Eyes-closed $\left[{}^{18}F\right]FDG$ (60 min), $\left[{}^{15}O\right]H_2O$ (3 min), $\left[{}^{15}O\right]O_2$ (3 min) PET acquisitions were performed on a Siemens ECAT EXACT HR+.

All studies were conducted according to the principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants provided written consent. Details are reported in **Supplementary Methods** and in 26.

PET kinetic modeling

Dynamic 1^8 FIFDG PET data were motion-corrected²⁷. To perform kinetic modeling, an imagederived input function (IDIF) was extracted from dynamic PET data using a semi-automatic pipeline²⁸ including 1) carotid artery segmentation; 2) selection of "hot voxels" within the mask; 3) parametric clustering²⁹ to derive the raw IDIF; 4) IDIF model fitting; 5) Chen's spillover $correction³⁰$ using three late venous samples. Voxel-wise estimation of Sokoloff's model parameters (irreversible two-tissue compartment model) was performed using a variational Bayesian approach³¹: k-means clustering was applied to dynamic data to extract 6 gray matter (GM) and 5 white matter (WM) clusters (based on T1w tissue segmentations), then weighted nonlinear least squares was used to estimate Sokoloff's model parameters at the cluster level, and

finally voxel-wise estimation was performed using Variational Bayesian inference based on prior distributions derived from cluster-wise estimates³². Parametric maps of K_1 [mL/cm³/min] (tracer inflow), k_2 [min⁻¹] (efflux), k_3 [min⁻¹] (phosphorylation), V_b [%] (blood volume fraction) were obtained for each individual. The parametric map of K_i [mL/cm³/min] (irreversible tracer uptake) was obtained as $K_i = K_1 k_3/(k_2 + k_3)$. The group-average maps of K_i , K_1 , k_3 are reported in **Figure 2**, while k_2 and V_b are reported in **Figure S1**.

Dynamic $15O$ H₂O PET was quantified with a one-tissue compartment model³³ and a modelbased input function³⁴ to estimate CBF. Dynamic \int_{0}^{15} O[O₂ PET was used to estimate CMRO₂, employing a reference-tissue approach³⁵. The group-average maps of CBF and CMRO₂ are reported in **Figure S1**.

All parametric maps were parcellated into 216 regions (Schaefer atlas³⁶, supplemented by 16 subcortical regions³⁷), by averaging over voxels within the GM segmentation (probability > 0.8) of belonging to GM).

We did not perform partial volume correction on PET data: using the GM tissue segmentation and avoiding spatial smoothing of PET data during processing minimizes partial volume effects $(PVE)^{38}$, as also suggested in recent work³⁹. Moreover, there is no gold standard for partial volume correction, particularly in dynamic PET studies, as this procedure is known to affect kinetic modeling accuracy and potentially alter spatial metabolic patterns⁴⁰.

Details are reported in **Supplementary Methods**.

Resting-state fMRI processing and feature extraction

Preprocessing of rs-fMRI included slice-timing correction, nuisance regression^{41,42}, high-pass filtering (cut-off $= 0.008$ Hz). Additional motion correction was adapted to the rs-fMRI features

(i.e., despiking for tvFC, HRF, and other time-varying measures, and volume censoring for sFC and static measures⁴³). The BOLD signals were also parcellated into 216 regions (GM-masked). As in 13 , fifty rs-fMRI features were obtained in each participant. The extracted features were chosen to describe different aspects of the BOLD 1) *signal*, 2) *HRF*, 3) *sFC*, 4) *tvFC* (**Table 1**). The *signal* pool (1) relates to the basic statistics of the BOLD time series (temporal median, variance, skewness), its complexity/entropy⁴⁴, its low-frequency fluctuations (*ALFF*)⁴⁵, local coherence (*ReHo*) 46 and high-amplitude events (*peaks-BOLD*). The *HRF* pool (2) relates to the HRF^{22} , which links the BOLD signal to neural activity⁴⁷, and includes the HRF peak amplitude (a potential proxy for $CBF⁴⁸$), and the correlations between HRF time series of different regions, which we introduced in 13 to describe "purely vascular" networks, summarized at the region level by means of graph properties, for correspondence with traditional FC studies⁴⁹. In the *sFC* pool (3) the same graph metrics are employed to characterize sFC, i.e., FC calculated across the entire fMRI scan. The *tvFC* pool (4) describes the temporal variability of graph metrics across sliding windows²⁴ for each brain region. sFC and tvFC were characterized both as the correlation between BOLD signal *magnitudes*, and as the coherence of their *phases*⁵⁰. This wide range of functional metrics were selected to represent the majority of known properties of the rs-fMRI signal and its FC. See **Supplementary Methods** for details.

The spatial distribution of [18F]FDG kinetic parameters and their relationships

To investigate the spatial distribution and regional variability of K_i , K_1 and k_3 , the group-average ROI values were calculated. The *K*i, *K*1 and *k*3 ROI values were grouped into Schaefer's 17 functional networks³⁶. The top and bottom 20% values of each kinetic parameter were identified as 'high' and 'low', and visualized. Across-*region* Pearson's correlations (p<0.05) between the

three group-average parameter vectors were computed. Linear regression models (*K*i as predictor, K_1 and k_3 as separate outcomes) were estimated and their weighted residuals visualized to assess the presence of regional mismatches between parameters.

Bivariate associations between [18F]FDG kinetic parameters and functional features

The bivariate spatial relationship between $[18$ F]FDG kinetic parameters and A) rs-fMRI properties, B) CBF and CMRO₂, was assessed at group level, taking the region-wise mean values across individuals for each of the features. After testing for Gaussianity (p>0.05, Shapiro-Wilk test⁵¹), the bivariate associations across ROIs were evaluated via Pearson's correlation (p<0.05). Differences between $\left[{}^{18}F\right]FDG$ parameters in their spatial correlation with A) rs-fMRI properties, B) CBF and CMRO₂ were tested using Steiger's z-test for dependent correlations with one variable in common ($p<0.05$). The average and variability (mean \pm SD) of the squared values of $[{}^{18}F]$ FDG vs. rs-fMRI spatial correlations (R²) were computed, as indices of the overall strength of functional-metabolic spatial association across fMRI variables. Differences among $[18F]FDG$ parameters (factor 1) and groups of rs-fMRI features (factor 2) in the strength of \int^1 ⁸F|FDG-fMRI association (R^2) were assessed using a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with unbalanced design, with $\int_0^{18} F \cdot F \cdot D \cdot G$ parameters as first factor (3 levels: K_i , K_1 , k_3), and groups of rs-fMRI features as second factor (4 levels: signal, HRF, sFC, tvFC). Statistical differences between pairs of means were determined using Tukey-Kramer's multiple comparison test.

The spatial heterogeneity in the $[18F]FDG-fMRI$ relationship was probed by assessing correlations iteratively across clusters of regions with increasingly high or low *K*i, *K*1 or *k*3. The threshold levels were determined by considering linearly *increasing* percentiles $(1st to 85th)$ of the $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG parameter distribution over all regions, and linearly *decreasing* K_i , K_1 or k_3 percentiles $(100th$ to $15th$). For each threshold level (i.e., group of chosen regions), Pearson's correlations between $[{}^{18}F]FDG$ parameters and all A) rs-fMRI features, B) CBF and CMRO₂ were calculated. The type of bivariate relationship between $[{}^{18}F]FDG$ and rs-fMRI properties was also tested by comparing three models, i.e., 1) linear, 2) mono-exponential, 3) power law. Model selection was performed using the residual sum of squares $(RSS)^{53}$. See 13 and **Supplementary Methods** for details.

Multivariable modeling of the functional-metabolic relationship at group level

At group-average level, we used a multilinear regression approach to assess how much of the group-average \int_0^{18} F]FDG K_i , K_1 and k_3 could be explained by a linear combination of predictors, i.e., multiple rs-fMRI variables and/or CBF, CMRO₂. Predictors and outcome were centered and scaled by their standard deviation (SD) across brain regions, and log-transformed, as in 13 , to account for nonlinearities (**Supplementary Results**).

Rather than performing a new feature selection for each of the kinetic parameters, we tested whether the predictors selected for SUVR in ¹³ would generalize to K_i , K_1 and k_3 : specifically, we considered both the full SUVR model (9-parameter model, 9p) and its more parsimonious version (3-parameter model, $3p$)¹³. The models' coefficients were re-estimated. The tested models were evaluated in terms of number of predictors, adjusted R-squared (R^2 _{adj}), and estimate precision (i.e., percent standard error divided by estimated value, %SE). An "adapted" version of the 9p model was generated, by excluding predictors whose estimates had %SE>100%. To assess the presence of multicollinearity, we also examined the Pearson's correlations among predictors, the condition number $\kappa(X)$ of the selected features, and variance inflation factors⁵⁴.

As a second step, the addition of CBF or $CMRO₂$ to the selected fMRI-based models was evaluated in terms of goodness of fit (R^2_{adj}) and %SE.

Full hierarchical modeling of [18F]FDG kinetic parameters using functional predictors

As in our previous work¹³, full *multilevel* population modeling (MEM) was implemented to characterize in a single stage both fixed effects θ and random effects η contributing to the relationship between \int_{0}^{18} F|FDG parameters and the selected functional variables⁵⁶. The *individual*-level model is:

$$
y_i = F_i(X_i, \psi_i)
$$

$$
z_i = y_i + v_i
$$

with y_i as the K_i , K_1 or k_3 prediction for the *i*th individual (*i* = 1, ..., *m*), which is a function of X_i (the fixed-effects design matrix), and of parameters ψ_i to be estimated; z_i is the vector of K_i , K_1 or k_3 , and v_i is the *within-individual variability*, assumed to be normally distributed with zero mean and variance σ_i^2 . The *population*-level model describes ψ_i combining the population parameters θ and the random variability of individual parameters around the population mean η_i :

$$
\psi_i = \theta + \eta_i
$$

$$
\eta_i \sim N(0, \Omega)
$$

where η_i is normally distributed with zero mean, independent across individuals and with covariance matrix $Ω$ (assumed to be full). The features selected in the previous step were included in the first-level model, i.e., either rs-fMRI features only, or including CBF or CMRO₂, after within-individual z-scoring. The overall and individual multilevel model R^2_{adj} were

evaluated, considering the pooled data of all participants (R^2_{pooled}) and the single individual data $(R²)$, respectively. The mean (*avg. wres*) and SD of the residual unexplained variability were evaluated. The areas with higher positive $(0.5;1.5)$ or negative $([-1.5; -0.5])$ avg. wres were visualized to highlight where the model under- or over-estimates the outcome variable. When participant-specific covariates were available, i.e., age ([years]), sex, height ([m]), weight ([kg]), body-mass index $(BMI, [kg/m^2])$, body-surface area $(BSA, [m^2])$, insulin plasma levels ([mIU/L]), Pearson's correlations ($p<0.05$) relating R^2 and these covariates were calculated. For more details, see **Supplementary Methods**.

Results

The spatial distribution of [18F]FDG uptake, delivery and phosphorylation rates

First, the kinetic model parameters estimated from $\binom{18}{1}$ FDG dynamic data, i.e., K_i , K_1 and k_3 , were evaluated (**Figure 2**). The choice to describe their spatial distribution and regional variability across the selected brain parcellation was motivated by the importance to understand the unique information they provide. The region-wise interindividual variability of 1^{18} F|FDG parameters is reported in **Figure S2**.

The parcels representing the top and bottom 20% values of the average regional distribution of K_i , K_1 and k_3 were examined (**Figure 3**). Both K_i and k_3 had many top nodes in lateral prefrontal areas, parietal and posteromedial cortex, while K_1 had mainly a strong distribution of top posteromedial nodes including posterior cingulate and occipital areas, but also in medial sensorimotor regions. When looking at the bottom nodes, limbic areas, both at the level of the temporal poles and anterior cingulate cortex, were represented for all three parameters; however, k_3 had strong presence of bottom nodes in the visual cortex, which is missing in K_i , and K_1 presented additional low nodes in the frontal cortex (both motor and cognitive areas) and insula. When focusing on the subcortex, we again found a similar pattern for K_i and k_3 , with the putamen as a top parcel, and cerebellum as a bottom one. However, the differences emerge for the caudate, which is a bottom node only for K_i , and for the thalamus, which is low only for k_3 . In the case of K_1 , the putamen is again a top parcel, and the caudate is a bottom node like in the case of *K*i; the thalamus and cerebellum are instead amongst the top regions.

Looking at $\left[^{18}F\right]FDG$ kinetic parameters with a perspective based on functional brain networks (**Figure 3**, boxplots) does not seem to capture a clear ranking, at least for K_i and k_3 , consistent with our observations for SUVR¹². K_1 is clearly highly represented in visual areas.

The spatial correlations (Pearson's r) between the group-average parameters (**Figure S3**) across the regions of the chosen parcellation are as follows: K_i vs. K_1 : $r = 0.56$ ($p < 10^{-18}$); K_i vs. k_3 : $r =$ 0.88 ($p < 10^{-70}$); K_1 vs. k_3 : $r = 0.19$ ($p = 0.006$).

To better quantify the extent of the regional mismatch between K_i and each microparameter, we plotted the weighted residuals of the two linear regression models $(K_1 \text{ or } k_3 \text{ as outcome}, K_i \text{ as }$ predictor), by showing only the highest positive or negative residual values, to emphasize the regions where K_i fails to predict K_1 or k_3 well (**Figure S4**). K_1 has higher-than-expected values in posteromedial areas, while it fails to follow the high *K*ⁱ values of the lateral frontal areas and caudate nuclei. As for *k*3, we find markedly lower values in visual cortex and cerebellum than expected by K_i , but also in thalamus; instead k_3 relatively exceeds K_i mainly in the caudate nuclei, but also in insular and lateral cortical areas.

Across-individual region-wise correlations between [18F]FDG parameters are reported in **Figure S5**.

Bivariate associations with functional features

As in our previous work¹³, we extracted 50 rs-fMRI variables at the individual level, and subdivided them into 4 *a priori*-defined pools: 1) *signal*, 2) *HRF*, 3) *sFC*, 4) *tvFC* (**Table 1**). The correlation matrix between all available functional features, i.e., A) the 50 rs-fMRI features, B) CBF and CMRO2, at group-average level are reported in **Figure S6**.

The Pearson's correlations between group-average $[18F]FDG$ parameters and rs-fMRI features are presented in **Figure 4** (individual-level results in **Figure S7**).

In the signal pool, moderate-to-strong positive or negative correlations are present for K_i and k_3 with features related to rs-fMRI "signal" features (*ALFF*, *ReHo* and its temporal variability, and *peaks-BOLD*), while *K*¹ shows weaker coupling (not significant, 2-way ANOVA). Notably, *peak-HRF*, which represents blood flow-related information, is significantly, though weakly correlated with K_1 and K_i , but not with k_3 . Moreover, HRF network features are only related to K_1 . Interestingly, all sFC measures display significant associations with K_1 , but not with k_3 , while K_i presents a mixed situation. Finally, in the case of the tvFC pool, the pattern of correlations is similar for the three $\int_0^{18} F[FDG$ parameters, albeit with stronger negative correlations for K_i (not significant, 2-way ANOVA). When assessing the squared values of correlations with rs-fMRI features, K_i and K_1 have similar magnitudes, while k_3 has significantly lower correlations than K_i (Tukey-Kramer test, $p < 0.01$).

CBF is correlated with K_i (r = 0.43, p < 10⁻¹⁰), K_1 (r = 0.38, p < 10⁻⁸), and k_3 (r = 0.25, p < 10⁻³); CMRO₂ has stronger associations than CBF with all parameters (Steiger's test, $p < 0.05$), i.e., K_i $(r = 0.60, p < 10^{-22})$, K_1 $(r = 0.61, p < 10^{-22})$, and k_3 $(r = 0.32, p < 10^{-5})$.

Building on our finding that the SUVR-fMRI coupling is stronger in lower SUVR nodes¹³, we reassessed $[18F]FDG-fMRI$ Pearson's correlations (p < 0.05) across nodes selected according to linearly increasing as well as decreasing percentiles of each $\int_{0}^{18}F|FDG$ parameter's distribution (**Figure S8**). Despite some differences between parameters, we confirmed that nonlinearities exist in the spatial relationship between $[{}^{18}F]FDG$ parameters and rs-fMRI features across brain regions, and that functional-metabolic associations are overall stronger in low-metabolism brain

regions. Notably, sFC features have the most marked nonlinear associations with 1^{18} F]FDG parameters, especially K_i and k_3 (**Figure S9**).

The fMRI-only models of [18F]FDG kinetic parameters

We then evaluated whether the combination of rs-fMRI features we had chosen for SUVR¹³ (both 9p and 3p models) could explain the regional variability of *K*i, *K*1 and *k*3. The 9p model included 1) approximate entropy of BOLD (*ApEn-BOLD*), 2) range ApEn-BOLD (*rApEn-BOLD*), 3) *ReHo*, 4) coefficient of variation of ReHo (*CV-ReHo*), 5) *peaks-BOLD*, 6) local efficiency of HRF network (*hrf-LE*), 7) sFC betweenness centrality (*s-BC*), 8) median of leading eigenvectors of BOLD phase coherence (*med-LEig*), 9) coefficient of variation of betweenness centrality (*CV-BC*). Features 1-5 are from the signal pool, 6 is from the HRF pool, 7-8 from the sFC pool, and 9 from the tvFC pool (**Table 1**). The 3p model included 1) *ReHo*, 2) *CV-ReHo*, 3) *CV-BC*.

For group-average K_i , the 9p model had an R^2 _{adj} of 0.68 (3p model: 0.60); such performance is very similar to group-average SUVR in our previous work (9p model: 0.69, 3p model: 0.59)¹³. For group-average K_1 , the 9p model had an R^2 _{adj} of 0.34 (3p model: 0.23). For group-average k_3 , the 9p model had an R^2 _{adj} of 0.5 (3p model: 0.44).

An adapted version of the 9p model was generated for each $\binom{18}{18}$ F|FDG parameter by removing features whose estimates had unacceptable precision (%SE>100%). This led to a 6-parameter model for *K*_i (*ApEn-BOLD*, *rApEn-BOLD*, *ReHo*, *CV-ReHo*, *med-LEig*, *CV-BC*; $R^2_{adj} = 0.69$), an 8-parameter model for *K*1 (*rApEn-BOLD*, *ReHo*, *CV-ReHo*, *peaks-BOLD*, *hrf-LE*, *s-BC*, *med-LEig*, *CV-BC*; $R^2_{adj} = 0.34$), a 5-parameter model for k_3 (*rApEn-BOLD*, *ReHo*, *peaks-BOLD*, *s*-*BC*, *med-LEig*; $R^2_{adj} = 0.5$).

The full MEM approach (**Figure 5**) with the features selected in the previous step (adapted 9p model) explained a significant proportion of individual-level variability in the spatial distribution of K_i (\mathbb{R}^2 _{pooled} = 0.35), but less so in the case of K_1 (\mathbb{R}^2 _{pooled} = 0.14) and k_3 (\mathbb{R}^2 _{pooled} = 0.21). The predictor *peaks-BOLD* was removed from the *K*1 model as its fixed effect estimate was not significantly different from zero. *ReHo* was confirmed as the most important explanatory parameter for K_i and k_3 in particular (**Figure 5A**).

At the group-average level, *ReHo* explains a large proportion of variance for both K_i ($R^2 = 0.552$) and k_3 ($\mathbb{R}^2 = 0.407$). When recomputing the MEM estimates using only *ReHo* as a predictor, we obtained a R^2 _{pooled} of 0.30 for K_i and 0.16 for k_3 (0.08 for K_1): this demonstrated that *ReHo* was responsible for the majority of the explained variance in the multivariable K_i and k_3 models. Of note, in all three cases the most important parameter (with the highest associated weight) comes from the pool of signal and local rs-fMRI features.

When examining the *avg. wres* (**Figure 5C**), a marked resemblance to the top and bottom regions of each parameter (see **Figure 2**) was still present, implying that the high and low "outlier" $[18F]FDG$ nodes were not adequately interpreted by the chosen rs-fMRI features. This is true especially for K_1 , which shows high residual values in posteromedial cortex and cerebellum, but also for K_i and k_3 , with high values in the putamen and low in the cerebellum. Our finding of high between-individual variability in multilevel model R^2 values for SUVR¹³ was confirmed here for K_i , K_1 and k_3 (**Figure 5B**). The individual R_i^2 of K_i and k_3 do not correlate significantly with participants' age or any of the peripheral metabolic information ($p >$ 0.05). However, the R_1^2 for K_1 show evidence of sex difference, i.e., higher $K_1 R_1^2$ for women (ttest, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, a negative relationship emerged between $R²$ of $K₁$ and BSA (r = -0.30,

 $p = 0.04$) and insulin levels ($r = -0.35$, $p = 0.03$) (**Figure S10**).

*Adding CBF, CMRO*2 *to models of [18F]FDG parameters*

We then verified the impact of including CBF or $CMRO₂$ along with rs-fMRI features into this multivariable modeling framework to describe the spatial distribution of \int^{18} F|FDG parameters. The spatial correlation between group-average CBF and CMRO₂ is $r = 0.9$ ($p < 10^{-77}$), which is why we avoided including both parameters in the same model.

At group-average level, the addition of CBF to the adapted 9p model increased the R^2_{adj} from 0.68 to 0.78 for K_i , the R^2 _{adj} from 0.34 to 0.41 for K_1 , and the R^2 _{adj} from 0.5 to 0.55 for k_3 . The inclusion of CMRO₂, on the other hand, increases the R^2_{adj} from 0.68 to 0.77 for K_i , the R^2_{adj} from 0.34 to 0.52 for K_1 , and the R²_{adj} from 0.5 to 0.51 for k_3 . Parameter precision remains within an acceptable range (% $SE < 100\%$). Overall, CBF and CMRO₂ led to similar improvements in the K_i and k_3 models (moderate and minor, respectively), but $CMRO_2$ importantly improved the K_1 model (almost 20% of the variance).

We then assessed how these improvements impact the full MEM framework. Notably, the addition of CMRO₂ to the adapted 9p models led to a marked increase in explained variance of the individual-level data for K_i (\mathbb{R}^2 _{pooled}: from 0.35 to 0.46) and K_1 (\mathbb{R}^2 _{pooled}: from 0.14 to 0.28), with minor improvement for k_3 (\mathbb{R}^2 _{pooled}: from 0.21 to 0.24). For comparison, if only CMRO₂ is used as a predictor, we obtained a \mathbb{R}^2 pooled of 0.22 for K_i , and 0.18 for K_1 . The individual model $R²$ can be visualized in **Figure 6B**, and the improvements appreciated by comparison with **Figure 5B**. When assessing the fixed effects, *ReHo* and CMRO₂ had the highest weights in the K_i model, while in the k_3 model, *ReHo* was the most relevant parameter, as was CMRO₂ in the K_1 model (**Figure 6A**). When examining the *avg. wres.* (**Figure 6C**), we can see the improvement in explanatory power with respect to the fMRI-only models (**Figure 5C**). This is true both for *K*i,

which no longer shows high residual values in posteromedial cortex, and for *K*1, with improvements in posterior DMN, thalamus and putamen.

Adding CBF led to an increase in explained variance of the individual-level data for $K_i (R^2_{pooled} =$

0.45), similar to CMRO₂, while the benefit was lower for K_1 (\mathbb{R}^2 _{pooled} = 0.23) and k_3 (\mathbb{R}^2 _{pooled} =

0.25), as anticipated by the group-average modeling results.

Of note, when adding CMRO₂ and CBF, a negative relationship between R^2 of K_1 and insulin levels was still present ($r = -0.41$, $p = 0.01$).

When minimizing the number of predictor variables, i.e., only *ReHo* and CMRO₂, we reached a R^2_{pooled} of 0.43 for K_i , and 0.21 for k_3 ; using only *ReHo* and CBF, the R^2_{pooled} of K_i is 0.42, and the R^2 of k_3 is 0.20.

Discussion

In this work, we assessed the regional distribution of $[^{18}F]FDG$ kinetic parameters (K_1, K_1, K_2) k_3), disentangling the early steps of brain glucose metabolism (delivery vs. phosphorylation by hexokinase) for the first time at high spatial resolution. We then investigated how well these kinetic parameters can be described by a combination of features derived from rs-fMRI and expected to represent spontaneous brain activity. As in our previous work¹³, we hypothesized that a combination of many facets of spontaneous BOLD activity would be able to collectively explain (part of) glucose metabolic variance. Finally, to overcome potential limitations in rsfMRI features' explanatory power, we included more direct measures of hemodynamics and metabolism, i.e., regional blood flow (CBF) and oxygen consumption (CMRO₂). We again took advantage of the multilevel modeling framework to fully account for between-individual variability in the investigated relationships. This study thus expands upon our effort¹³ to address the complexity of brain glucose metabolism⁵⁷, which involves both oxidative and glycolytic components supporting numerous cellular processes (protein synthesis, protein modification, cell signaling, housekeeping duties, postsynaptic potentials, vesicle recycling etc.)^{57,58}, with the exact partitioning of the brain's energy budget into these processes still an object of ongoing research⁴. To better comprehend these complex biological mechanism, we used kinetic modeling to estimate $[18F]FDG$ parameters at high spatial resolution (i.e., voxels, then grouped into 216 ROIs), in particular the microparameters (*K*1 and *k*3). While SUVR (which can be obtained from a short static scan, with no arterial sampling) can be a good proxy measure of *K*i, it is both relative and semi-quantitative, and susceptible to multiple technical and physiological biases^{59,60}. We have shown here that K_i , i.e., the total $\binom{18}{1}$ FJFDG uptake rate constant, is a good proxy for k_3 ,

i.e., the rate of phosphorylation events, with group-average K_i and k_3 maps being highly spatially correlated. This high level of matching is expected, since $[{}^{18}$ F]FDG does not display flow limitation (k_3 is, on average, low, and smaller than k_2)⁶¹. However, operating at a higher level of detail than before, we have also found that k_3 relatively "underestimates" K_i in visual cortex, cerebellum, and thalamus, and "overestimates" K_i in the caudate, insular and frontoparietal cortex (as shown by residuals). In such areas, especially those where k_3 "underestimates" K_i , tracer delivery (influx K_1 , and, less importantly, efflux k_2) seems to play a relevant role, making K_i a biased predictor of the glucose phosphorylation events. This stresses how quantifying microparameters is not redundant, albeit more technically challenging.

When we moved to assess the explanatory power of rs-fMRI features for the parameters related to glucose utilization, i.e., *K*i and *k*3, we found overall similar results to our findings based on $SUVR¹³$: a) variable degrees of spatial association with rs-fMRI variables were present, with strongest match for signal-related, local features; b) evidence of nonlinearity in this association (especially for sFC features); c) the top and bottom regions for K_i and k_3 difficult to describe using only rs-fMRI features; d) marked between-individual variability in the association strength. Among these findings, the most relevant is the fact that *ReHo*, i.e., the local synchronization of the BOLD signal, emerged again as the rs-fMRI variable having the strongest spatial match with $\left[\right]$ ¹⁸F]FDG K_i and k_3 . *ReHo* alone was capable of explaining 55% of K_i variance at group level, and 30% on individual data (as for SUVR); for *k*3, it explained 40% of group-level variance (18% at individual level). This confirms the moderate-to-strong spatial coupling between glucose metabolism, here assessed through full kinetic modeling, and measures of *local* BOLD signal coherence. It remains to be seen whether this mostly reflects the metabolic demand of brain *structure*, or rather of spontaneous *activity* levels¹³.

The next step was to include more direct hemodynamic (CBF) and metabolic (CMRO₂) measures into this equation, which allow to describe blood flow and oxidative vs. non-oxidative brain metabolism. Notably, the strength of spatial association between these parameters and $[$ ¹⁸F]FDG K_i or k_3 was somewhat weaker than expected, especially for CBF^{8,62}. However, recent literature reports a moderate ($r = 0.56$), nonlinear association between fully quantitative CMRglc and CBF estimates (higher-than-expected CBF in thalamus, cerebellum and medial temporal lobe³⁹), which is in line with our findings. Methodological differences in how these parameters are estimated in different studies (absolute vs. relative, and semiquantitative vs. quantitative) might have relevant impact. Nevertheless, the combination of fMRI variables (*ReHo* in particular) and CBF or CMRO₂ led to satisfactory K_i spatial description (nearly 80% of grouplevel, 45% of individual-level variance), with marked amelioration of the pattern of the residuals, especially in areas with the strongest positive "outliers" (posterior cingulum). This confirms our hypothesis: the combination of direct hemodynamic and metabolic information, as provided by CBF and CMRO2, with information on spontaneous brain activity provided by the BOLD signal explains a large portion of individual-level variance (nearly half) in glucose metabolism (as expressed by K_i). On the other hand, the difficulty in reaching a fully satisfactory description, particularly for *k*3 spatial variability (18% at individual level), despite the high number of available features (rs-fMRI, CBF, CMRO₂), calls for more extensive exploration, potentially looking into other measures, both structural/molecular, such as the spatial distribution of hexokinase isoforms (HK1, HK2), or activity-related, e.g., from electrophysiological signals, which could also help better understand the metabolic role played by *ReHo*, whose biological underpinnings are still unclear.

A separate discussion is warranted for \int_0^{18} F|FDG delivery (K_1) , which has the most peculiar and interesting spatial distribution, with a markedly posterior pattern (visual cortex, cerebellum, thalamus as "top" parcels), and apparent even in the earliest studies with low-resolution PET cameras²⁰. As mentioned in these prior studies²⁰, one might be tempted to consider vascular territory effects (i.e., the highest K_1 values largely encompass the posterior circulation), but this does not seem to be a satisfactory explanation, not least because the anterior circulation also provides blood flow to the posterior cerebral territories via the posterior communicating arteries. Notably, the blood volume contribution to the PET signal (V_b) , which may differ among vascular territories due to heterogeneous blood velocity, is accounted for during model fitting. Alternatively, some relationship may exist between K_1 and the expression of different isoforms of glucose transporters (GLUT1 and GLUT3, but also SGLT transporters)¹⁴. Intriguingly, it is also worth noting that although measures of oxygen extraction fraction (OEF) are largely similar throughout the brain, several studies have noted higher OEF in the occipital cortex $63,64$.

When relating K_1 to BOLD measures, it was the only $\lceil {^{18}F} \rceil FDG$ parameter that had significant bivariate associations with most HRF and sFC features. The relatively strong coupling of HRF and large-scale FC network features with K_1 seems to confirm that blood flow and BBB permeability information (of which K_1 is a combination) are important contributors to the rs $fMRI$ signal⁴⁸, and potentially more linked to large-scale FC than glucose metabolism itself. However, BOLD-based information alone did not provide sufficient explanation of the spatial distribution of K_1 (group-average $R^2 \sim 0.35$, pooled $R^2 \sim 0.15$). Importantly, the inclusion of CMRO₂ in the fMRI-based models markedly increased explained variance of the individual K_1 data (pooled $R^2 \sim 0.3$), improving the pattern of the residuals. This finding is consistent with previous reports separately describing the posteromedial spatial distributions of $\left[^{18}F]FDG$ K_1^{21}

and $CMRO_2^{\,62}$ (and OEF). Notably, some key differences between the two parameters can also be identified: the cerebellum, in particular, is a "hotspot" for K_1 only; its peculiar structural and physiological characteristics might explain its high 1^{18} F|FDG delivery, including its different glia-to-neuron ratio⁶⁵, density and type of glucose transporters, different lumped constant¹⁴, higher *E* and PS product⁶⁶ etc. Of note, CBF was not as effective as a predictor for K_1 ; this is, however, not surprising, since \int^18 F|FDG is not a highly extracted tracer (average $E < 20\%$)⁶⁶, and

 K_1 and CBF are nonlinearly related $(K_1 = CBF \cdot E = CBF \cdot (1 - e^{-\overline{CBF}})$ (PS as the permeability-surface product), with E having some regional heterogeneity⁶⁶. From a physiological standpoint, the strong association between the delivery of glucose (K_1) and the delivery and consumption of oxygen (CMRO₂), is interesting and highlights K_1 's metabolic relevance. Further indicators of the metabolic role played by K_1 are the correlations between the strength of its coupling with BOLD and/or $CMRO₂$, and peripheral metabolism. Only the $K₁$ -BOLD and K_1 -CMRO₂ coupling strengths (not K_i and k_3) are related to participant sex, weight and insulin levels, which is consistent with our findings for SUVR^{13} . This seems to suggest that individual differences in peripheral metabolism may alter how glucose is delivered to supply the brain's functional needs⁶⁷, thereby affecting individual K_1 -BOLD coupling. This is an interesting area of investigation into the crosstalk between brain and periphery, which could help to reveal how and why metabolic diseases, such as diabetes, lead to increased risk of developing neurological disorders (e.g., Alzheimer's disease 68).

Some limitations need to be considered. First, PET and rs-fMRI data were not acquired simultaneously. While this may introduce some within-individual variability⁶⁹, we have shown a better match between SUVR and rs-fMRI using sequentially acquired data in our previous work¹³. This may relate to the high quality of the rs-fMRI data employed in this study (HCP

Aging⁷⁰). Second, PET kinetic estimates in this study are not truly fully quantitative. For [¹⁸F]FDG, using an image-derived input function, which is likely to still be affected by PVEs due to the limited spatial resolution of the HR+ scanner (FWHM \sim 5 mm)⁷¹, may make K_i , K_1 and k_3 estimates biased. However, their *relative* spatial distribution across ROIs, which was the focus of our analyses, is expected to not be impacted. The same reasoning applies to $\sim 15^{\circ}$ O]H₂O and $[{}^{15}O]O_2$ data. Third, the low spatial resolution of the HR+ scanner and relatively high noise level in the data makes nonlinear fitting of complex compartment model structures problematic. However, the variational Bayesian framework³¹ we used allowed us to retrieve accurate and precise estimates at the voxel level even in such contexts. We thus believe our \int^{18} F]FDG kinetic parameter maps are faithful representations of their spatial distribution. Re-assessing these results on high-sensitivity, high-resolution PET scanners^{72,73,74} will be important to confirm the reproducibility of these spatial patterns, possibly capture more details, and further validate their biological meaning. Fourth, it must also be remembered that the BOLD signal is only an indirect measure of neuronal activity, which is subjected to significant contamination from systemic modulations (heart rate variability, vasomotion, respiratory volume variability etc.)⁷⁵. Lastly, despite the use of sophisticated modeling, this work remains correlational: only a controlled perturbational approach may fully elucidate causal links between glucose metabolism and spontaneous activity.

In conclusion, we have comprehensively assessed the physiological information contained in ^{[18}F]FDG dynamic PET data from a large dataset of 47 healthy individuals, estimating both the macroparameter K_i (uptake), and the rate constants K_1 (delivery) and k_3 (phosphorylation), with unprecedented spatial detail, to demonstrate how the microparameters add relevant information. We then used the combination of rs-fMRI measures previously identified as the best suited to

explain SUVR variance across regions, and verified that they explain a similar portion of *K*ⁱ variability (less so for K_1 and k_3). Metrics based on BOLD local properties ($ReHo$) are again most tightly related to glucose metabolism $(K_i$ and $k₃)$. The inclusion of CBF and CMRO₂ markedly improves the description of K_i ; moreover, K_1 was coupled with CMRO₂ more than any other feature. Overall, this work enriches the landscape of our understanding of the interplay between PET- and BOLD-derived variables, which reflect complex interactions between brain metabolism (CMRglc, CMRO₂), blood flow and neural activity. With high-performance PET scanners, assessment of glucose delivery (K_1) and hexokinase activity (k_3) via $[{}^{18}F]FDG$ PET may become useful for evaluating disorders of the brain (e.g., Alzheimer's disease¹⁹; traumatic brain injury²¹) and other organs⁷⁶.

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Authors' contributions

TV and AB designed the research. TV analyzed the data. TV, JJL, AGV, MSG, MC and AB interpreted the results. TV wrote the manuscript. TV, JJL, AGV, MSG, MC and AB revised the manuscript.

Declaration of conflicting interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

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Figures

Figure 1: Flowchart of the analysis. The rs-fMRI data (left) were used to extract fifty features representative of four "pools", i.e., 1) *signal* and *local* measures, 2) hemodynamic response function (*HRF*), 3) static functional connectivity (sFC), 4) time-varying functional connectivity ($t vFC$), which were parceled into 216 ROIs. [¹⁸F]FDG dynamic PET data (*center*) were fitted with an irreversible two-tissue compartment model to obtain voxel-wise estimates of $[{}^{18}F]FDG$ kinetic parameters (most importantly, for the purpose of the analyses, K_i , K_1 and k_3), which were also parceled. $[{}^{15}O]H_2O$ and $[{}^{15}O]O_2$ dynamic PET data (*top right*) were also quantified using a reversible onetissue compartment model to obtain estimates of CBF and CMRO₂, which were also parceled. The spatial coupling across ROIs between *predictors* (A) rs-fMRI features, B) CBF and CMRO₂) – marked in *red*, and *outcomes* $(I^{18}F]FDG$ kinetic parameters K_i , K_1 and k_3) – marked in *green*, was investigated on two levels, i.e., at group-average

level (*three-persons icon*) and at individual level (*one-person icon*) via bivariate correlation and multivariable multilevel modeling.

K_i [mL/cm³/min]

K_1 [mL/cm³/min]

k_3 [min-1]

Figure 2: Group-average $[^{18}F]FDG$ PET parametric maps (n = 47) for K_i , K_1 , k_3 in MNI space, generated using the Variational Bayesian inference algorithm³¹.

Figure 3: Top and bottom 20% values of group-average $K_i(A)$, $K_1(B)$ and $k_3(C)$, along with corresponding boxplots showing group-average regional values of each parameter divided according to Schaefer's functional brain networks.

Figure 4: Spider plot of Pearson's correlations across brain regions between group-average [¹⁸F]FDG kinetic parameters $(K_i, K_1$ and $k_3)$ vs. group-average rs-fMRI features (divided into 4 a priori defined pools: 1) signal, 2) HRF, 3) sFC, 4) tvFC), and CBF and CMRO₂ (¹⁵O PET).

Figure 5. Multilevel modeling of glucose metabolism: *rs-fMRI-only models*. Fixed effects (adapted 9-parameter model) for $[{}^{18}F]$ FDG kinetic parameters (K_i , K_1 and k_3): estimate weights and standard errors (SEs), which represent the parameters that best explain K_i , K_1 and k_3 across brain regions at group level (A) . The empty spaces correspond to features whose estimates have unacceptable precision (%SE $> 100\%$) at group level, or significantly different from zero. Boxplots of individual R^2 values R_1^2 (median and boxes of 25th and 75th percentile in overlay) representing the spatial variance of K_i , $K₁$ and $k₃$ explained by the BOLD-based predictors at individual level (B). Across-individual average of weighted residuals of the multilevel model (avg. wres), visualized in the [[-1.5,-0.5];[0.5,1.5]] range for each brain region (**C**). estimates not

Figure 6. Multilevel modeling of glucose metabolism: *rs-fMRI plus CMRO₂ models*. Fixed effects (adapted 9-**Figure 6.** Multilevel modeling of glucose metabolism: rs -fMRI plus CMRO₂ models. Fixed effects (adapted 9-
parameter model + CMRO₂) for [¹⁸F]FDG kinetic parameters (K_i , K_1 and k_3): estimate weights and sta (SEs), which represent the parameters that best explain K_i , K_1 and k_3 across brain regions at group level (A). The empty spaces correspond to features whose estimates have unacceptable precision $(\%SE > 100\%)$ at group level, or estimates not significantly different from zero. Boxplot of individual R^2 values R^2 _i (median and boxes of 25th and 75th percentile in overlay) representing the spatial variance of K_i , K_1 and k_3 explained by the predictors at individual level (B). Across-individual average of weighted residuals of the multilevel model (avg. wres), visualized in the

[[-1.5,-0.5];[0.5,1.5]] range for each brain region (**C**).

Tables

Table 1. Extracted rs-fMRI features and their categories.

Fifty fMRI-derived variables, divided according to the pool to which they belong: 1) signal, 2) hemodynamic response function (HRF), 3) static functional connectivity (sFC), 4) time-varying functional connectivity (tvFC). See **Supplementary Methods** for full description of the features.

150 PET

Compartment modeling

CBF $[m]/cm^3/min]$

 $CMRO₂$ $[m]/cm³/min]$

K_i [mL/cm³/min]

K_1 [mL/cm³/min]

k_3 [min-1]

 $\mathbf B$

 $\mathbf B$

