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| 3 | Intraindividual reaction time variability and all-cause mortality over 17 years: A |
| 4 | community-based cohort study |
| 5 | |
| 6 | Philip J Batterham, David Bunce, Andrew J MacKinnon and Helen Christensen |
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12 Abstract

13

Background: Very few studies have examined the association between intraindividual reaction time variability and subsequent mortality. Furthermore, the ability of simple measures of variability to predict mortality has not been compared to more complex measures.

Method: A prospective cohort study of 896 community-based Australian adults aged 70+ were interviewed up to four times from 1990-2002, with vital status assessed until June 2007. From this cohort, 770-790 participants were included in Cox proportional hazards regression models of survival. Vital status and time in study were used to conduct survival analyses. Mean reaction time and three measures of intraindividual reaction time variability were calculated separately across 20 trials of simple and choice reaction time tasks. Models were adjusted for a range of demographic, physical health and mental health measures.

Results: Greater intraindividual simple reaction time variability, as assessed by the raw standard deviation (raw SD), coefficient of variation (CV) or the intraindividual standard deviation (ISD), was strongly associated with an increased hazard of all-cause mortality in adjusted Cox regression models. Mean reaction time had no significant association with mortality.

30 Conclusion: Intraindividual variability in simple reaction time appears to have a robust 31 association with mortality over 17 years. Health professionals such as neuropsychologists 32 may benefit in their detection of neuropathology by supplementing neuropsychiatric testing 33 with the straightforward process of testing simple reaction time and calculating raw SD or 34 CV.

- 36 Keywords: all-cause mortality, reaction time, intraindividual variability, coefficient of
- 37 variation, intraindividual standard deviation

| 39 | The possibility that within-person reaction time (RT) variability for a given cognitive |
|----|--|
| 40 | task is sensitive to neurobiological disturbance has created considerable empirical and |
| 41 | clinical research interest, with behavioural investigations confirming that increased |
| 42 | intraindividual RT variability (IIV) is associated with traumatic brain injury [1], epilepsy [2] |
| 43 | and mild cognitive impairment or mild dementia [3, 4]. Greater IIV is also associated with |
| 44 | older age [5, 6], mild psychopathology [7, 8], and, importantly from the present perspective, |
| 45 | impending mortality [9]. Additionally, neuroimaging shows associations of IIV with brain |
| 46 | structures [10-13] and function [14, 15]. Moreover, work also implicates involvement of |
| 47 | striatal dopamine D2 receptor binding [16], a finding that is consistent with the possibility |
| 48 | that IIV reflects neural noise in the brain [17]. Previous research on the relationship between |
| 49 | cognition and mortality has indicated that poorer cognitive performance, particularly in the |
| 50 | memory and processing speed domains, is associated with increased mortality [18-20]. |
| 51 | However, other than work by Macdonald et al [9], there has been little examination of the |
| 52 | impact of within-person performance variability on mortality. The present study aimed to |
| 53 | address this shortfall and assess whether all-cause mortality over 17 years was predicted by |
| 54 | mean RT and two measures of IIV in a community-based cohort of older adults. A standard |
| 55 | measure of IIV, the intraindividual SD (ISD), was compared to two simpler measures, the |
| 56 | raw standard deviation (raw SD) and the coefficient of variation (CV), which may be easily |
| 57 | derived in the clinical setting. It was hypothesized that greater IIV would be associated with |
| 58 | increased hazard for mortality, due to its sensitivity to neurobiological disturbance, while |
| 59 | mean RT would exhibit a weaker relationship with mortality. |

62 Method

63

64 Participants

65 The Canberra Longitudinal Study is an epidemiological survey of mental health and 66 cognitive functioning in older people. Participants were sampled from the compulsory 67 electoral roll for the cities of Canberra and Queanbeyan, Australia. Individuals sampled from 68 the electoral roll were sent a letter inviting participation in the survey and then approached at 69 home by a trained interviewer. The purposes and procedures of the study were explained 70 before informed consent was obtained. Thirty-one per cent of those approached refused to 71 participate. This refusal rate is similar to those obtained in other community samples [e.g., 72 21, 22, 23]. Participants were 896 community-dwelling adults (456 men and 440 women) 73 aged 70-97 at the baseline assessment, with the sample stratified by age and gender. 74 Participants were followed up every four years, with up to four assessments administered 75 between 1990 and 2002. Approval for the research was obtained from the Ethics in Human 76 Experimentation Committee of The Australian National University. Further details of the 77 study design are provided by Christensen et al. [24].

Of the original sample of 896 participants, 185 (20.6%) were deceased by four years, 363 (40.5%) were deceased by eight years, and 544 (60.7%) were deceased by 12 years. Vital status was collected until June 2007. At this time, 687 (76.7%) participants were deceased. Of the surviving participants at each measurement occasion, response rates of 85.9%, 78.9% and 78.9% were obtained for the three follow-up interviews.

83

84 Procedure

85 Interviews were conducted by trained professional interviewers, who administered a 86 comprehensive survey and conducted physical assessments. Baseline assessments lasted

approximately two hours, and covered background characteristics, physical health and
disease status, mental health status and cognitive performance.

89

90 Measures

Vital status and date of death were established using the National Death Index, a register of all deaths in Australia based on data collected by the Registrars of Births, Deaths and Marriages in each State and Territory in Australia. Additional sources of death reporting were used to confirm the validity of the mortality status data, including contacting relatives and searching death notices in the local newspaper. Vital status was followed for up to 17 years, from the start of baseline interviews in September, 1990 until June 30, 2007.

97 In addition to measures of mean RT and RT variability described below, models were 98 adjusted for a number of baseline risk factors for mortality. These included age, gender, 99 marital status and number of years of education. Presence of possible preclinical dementia 100 was determined using the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) [25], based on scoring 101 \leq 24 out of 30 at any of the four assessments. Given that very few participants met dementia 102 criteria early in the study, this liberal criterion evaluated over an extended period was used to 103 ensure that presence of preclinical cognitive decline could be adequately identified. Physical 104 health measures included smoking status (never, previous or current), Activities of Daily 105 Living (ADL, a scale ranging from 0 to 22), disease count (self-reported history from a list of 106 14 diseases), self-reported use of anti-hypertensive medication and grip strength (measured in 107 kilograms using a hand dynamometer). The ADL scale assessed the presence or extent of 108 physical disability [26]. Grip strength is a reliable and objective indicator of physical 109 functioning in late life [27] that has been shown to have strong associations with mortality 110 [18]. Mental health was adjusted for using the Goldberg Depression and Anxiety Scales [28] 111 to assess the number of depression and anxiety symptoms experienced in the two weeks prior

112 to the interview. These scales consist of nine binary items assessing symptoms of depression

and anxiety, with scores on each scale reflecting a symptom count ranging from 0 to 9.

114

115 Reaction time assessment and computation of IIV measures

116 Simple and choice RT were each assessed over 20 trials. The simple RT trials 117 consisted of ten left hand stimuli followed by ten right hand stimuli. Binary choice reaction 118 time trials consisted of a random combination of left- and right-hand stimuli. The stimuli 119 were two lights controlled by the interviewer away from the participant's view. Participants 120 pressed one of two buttons in response to the corresponding light (left or right). The 121 interviewer said "ready" before turning on the first light, with interstimulus intervals ranging 122 from 0.5 to 2.0s. Participants were given 5 practice trials before the left hand simple RT 123 stimuli, 4 practice trials before the 10 right hand simple RT stimuli trials and 4 practice trials 124 before the 20 choice RT stimuli trials. Further detail of the RT protocol is provided by 125 Christensen et al [29]. Data preparation for the computation of IIV measures followed 126 procedures commonly used elsewhere (e.g., [30]). Initially, RTs for incorrect trials were 127 removed together with unusually fast responses (<150 ms) and those greater than the age 128 group mean + 3 age groups SDs. Age group means and SDs were computed for age ranges 70 129 to 75, 76 to 80, 81 to 85 years, and 86 years and older. These exclusions resulted in the loss <130 2.1% of trials across the sample. MRT and three commonly-used measures of IIV were then 131 computed. Specifically, the raw SD was simply the intraindividual SD across the 20 trials. 132 The CV was computed as the raw intraindividual SD divided by the raw intraindividual M133 RT. A regression procedure was used to compute the ISD, where residuals were saved having 134 partialled out categorical effects for trial (i.e., time-on-task effects), age group, and their 135 interaction. The residuals obtained for this ISD were then standardized. The process of 136 calculating CV and ISD was conducted separately for simple and choice reaction time data.

138 Analysis

139 Sample characteristics were tabulated based on vital status at the end of the study 140 period. Cox proportional hazards regression models were used to assess the relationship of 141 MRT, CV and ISD with all-cause mortality. Each RT measure was entered into a separate 142 model, resulting in six models (three measures each for simple and choice RT). The models 143 were estimated both with and without adjustment for mortality risk factors. Models that 144 included both the effects of MRT and either CV or ISD were also estimated. The sample size 145 was 790 for the simple RT models and 770 for the choice RT models, due to participants with 146 missing RT trials [simple missing: 71 (7.9%); choice missing: 94, (10.5%)] and missingness 147 on other independent variables (61, 6.8%). In all models, the three IIV measures were 148 standardised (to mean = 0, sd = 1) to enable comparison between models. All analyses were

149 conducted in SPSS version 20 (IBM Corporation, 2011).

150

151

152 **Results**

153 Sample characteristics based on vital status at June 2007 are displayed in Table 1. All 154 variables in the table were assessed during the first wave, with the exception of possible 155 dementia which was assessed as MMSE \leq 24 at any wave. Participants who died in the 156 follow-up period had significantly slower mean RT and greater RT variability than those who 157 survived. This relationship was consistent across all measures of RT and for both simple and 158 choice RT. Decedents were also older, had greater physical impairment, reported more 159 diseases, had weaker grip strength, were more depressed, and were more likely to be male, 160 meet criteria for possible dementia, or smoke. There were no significant effects of education, 161 anxiety, marital status or medication use on mortality. Simple MRT ranged from 1.8s to 9.7s, 162 choice MRT ranged from 2.2 to 9.3s, simple raw SD ranged from 9.9ms to 244.0ms, choice raw SD ranged from 21.2ms to 188.2ms, simple CV ranged from 0.04 to 0.58, choice CV
ranged from 0.05 to 0.48. Simple ISD was a standardised score ranging from -1.34 to 5.19,
with choice ISD ranging from -1.68 to 4.78.

166 Table 2 shows the unadjusted and adjusted relationships between MRT, CV and ISD 167 with all-cause mortality, for both simple and choice RT tasks. The third models for CV and 168 ISD also added adjustment for MRT, along with other independent variables. All estimates 169 come from Cox proportional hazard regression models, which take into account time to death 170 and censoring for those participants who survived until the end of follow-up. The unadjusted 171 models included only the effect of a single RT variable (MRT, CV or ISD) alone. Adjusted 172 analyses were separately estimated for each of the RT variables, with adjustment for all of the 173 variables shown in Table 3. The models that added adjustment for MRT were included to 174 account for the correlations between MRT and raw SD ($r_{simple} = 0.69$, $r_{choice} = 0.50$), MRT and CV ($r_{simple} = 0.24$, $r_{choice} = -0.11$), and *M*RT and ISD ($r_{simple} = 0.71$, $r_{choice} = 0.52$). 175

176 The significant univariate hazard ratios in Table 2 indicate that a one sd increase in 177 MRT was associated with 15% increased hazard of death for simple RT and 18% for choice 178 RT. Increased RT variability, measured both by CV and ISD, was also associated with 179 significantly increased hazard of death. Table 2 also indicates that mean RT was not 180 significantly associated with mortality after accounting for the effects of gender, age, 181 education, marital status, possible dementia, physical health and mental health. Table 3 182 provides details of the fully adjusted Cox proportional hazard regression models. There was 183 very little attenuation of the simple RT variability measures, with all three IIV measures 184 remaining significantly associated with all-cause mortality after adjustment. There was 185 greater attenuation of the choice RT effects, with all three IIV effects becoming non-186 significant after adjustment for MRT and the assessed risk factors. The greater attenuation of 187 choice RT measures was tested in three models (not displayed) that included (i) both simple

raw SD (OR = 1.13, p = 0.055) and choice raw SD (OR = 1.05, p = 0.316), (ii) both simple CV (OR = 1.12, p = 0.011) and choice CV (OR = 1.05, p = 0.328), and, (iii) both simple ISD (OR = 1.14, p = 0.037) and choice ISD (OR = 1.05, p = 0.307), along with adjustment for the variables listed in Table 3. Other consistent significant effects in the final Cox proportional hazards regression models replicated previous findings [18, 19]: male gender, older age, greater physical impairment, more diseases and weaker grip strength were associated with greater hazard of all-cause mortality.

195

196 Discussion

197 The present study broadly supports and extends the findings of Macdonald et al [9], 198 with RT variability having a strong association with all-cause mortality in a community-199 based cohort of older adults. The findings also support those of Shipley et al [31] and Deary 200 and Der [32], who reported comparable results in two population-based cohorts using the raw 201 intraindividual standard deviation. Although mean RT measures exhibited univariate 202 relationships with mortality, these effects were explained by age, gender and poor physical 203 health. Variability on the simple RT task had the most robust association with all-cause 204 mortality, with the three types of RT variability measures showing comparable relationships 205 with outcome up to 17 years in the future.

These findings have important clinical implications. Although computation of ISDs may be subject to practical difficulties in clinical contexts, it is relatively straightforward for the clinician to administer a series of simple RT trials and calculate the intraindividual mean and standard deviation to obtain either the raw SD or the CV. There is no requirement to use normative regression processes to obtain standardised ISD scores. The raw SD and CV for simple RT are clearly metrics that have robust relationships with subsequent mortality. Importantly, our findings suggest similar predictive utility for all three IIV measures. This 213 relationship is likely to be reflected in a range of other outcomes, including presence of mild 214 psychopathology [7, 8] and mild cognitive impairment or mild dementia [3, 4]. Further 215 research comparing the predictive power of raw RT, CV and ISD on a range of psycho- and 216 neuro-pathological outcomes may advance and inform the clinical utility of the simpler 217 metrics. The raw SD and CV measures may supplement other neuropsychiatric tests in 218 assessing risk of pathological outcomes. By illustration, an individual with simple RT CV of 219 0.35 would have 29% increased hazard of mortality compared to an individual with simple 220 RT CV at the sample mean of 0.19 in the present cohort.

221 There are a number of possible explanations for the relationship between within-222 person RT variability and mortality. Increased IIV in late life is likely to be indicative of 223 neurological dysfunction [33], which may arise from life-long accumulation of neurological 224 insult and vascular events. This dysfunction may manifest in the form of increased neural 225 "noise" arising from the reduced efficiency of the central nervous system generally, and 226 neurotransmitter signalling in particular [17]. From a clinical perspective, therefore, our 227 findings suggest that increased variability may mark neurobiological disturbance that 228 accompanies impending mortality, and thereby may aid practitioner intervention.

229 As seen in the present analyses, markers for physiological integrity, including 230 functional ability, disease count and grip strength, have strong associations with mortality and 231 somewhat attenuate the effects of RT variability on mortality. However, our findings suggest 232 that an independent relationship between RT variability and mortality remains. Additional 233 research linking RT variability to direct markers of neurological dysfunction, and then 234 linking specific neurological dysfunction to disease and terminal decline is needed. 235 Furthermore, focused research is required to more explicitly test how the cascade of risk 236 factors, from behavioural and biological influences, to subclinical and clinical disease, leads 237 to mortality [34]. The finding that simple RT variability was more strongly predictive of mortality than choice RT variability is also worth noting. Previous research has found that
choice RT slows throughout adulthood, whereas simple RT begins to slow in the 50s [35].
Likewise, the effect of age on IIV has previously been shown to be stronger for simple RT
than choice RT [6]. It is possible then that simple RT is more strongly influenced by agerelated pathological states.

243 There were some limitations of the study. RT data from a single time point were used 244 to predict mortality. It is not clear how changes in mean RT or RT variability over time might 245 influence the findings. For example, participants may have had an aberrant result on the day 246 of their interview due to illness or distraction. While this issue was partially addressed by 247 careful cleaning of RT data, large sample size and adjustment for confounders, further study 248 of changes in RT variability may shed light on the bases of the observed relationships. In 249 addition, the examination of variability on a broader range of tasks, including verbal, 250 numerical and memory tasks may better identify the pathways by which performance 251 variability is associated with mortality. Likewise, additional assessment of health behaviours, 252 cognitive performance, physical health and mental health may help to disentangle the 253 pathways by which performance variability may lead to mortality.

254 In conclusion, the relationship between RT variability and all-cause mortality appears 255 to be robust, even over extended time periods. The findings suggest that further 256 understanding may be gained into the processes that lead to mortality through investigation of 257 the neurobiological disturbances associated with increases in intraindividual variability. The 258 relationship was most apparent for the simple RT task, and measures of RT variability that 259 may be easily assessed. Simple RT variability, like other measures of health status, can be 260 readily assessed using mobile and other portable devices by health professionals such as 261 neuropsychologists. These tests seem to be as effective as more complex measures in

- 262 predicting subsequent mortality. By contrast, the link between mean RT and mortality may be
- 263 explained by age, gender and physical health.

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- 370 62-73.
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- 373

| 374 | Table 1: Sample characteristics based on vital status after 17 year | S |
|-----|---|---|
|-----|---|---|

| | | Livi | - | | ased | | | |
|---------------------------|-----|--------|-------|--------|--------|-------|--------|--|
| | | (n =) | | | 687) | _ | | |
| | n | M | SD | M | SD | F | | |
| Simple RT – mean (ms) | 825 | 282.38 | 86.65 | 303.27 | 103.21 | 6.63 | 0.010 | |
| Simple RT – raw SD | 825 | 52.14 | 29.29 | 63.35 | 37.87 | 14.62 | <0.001 | |
| Simple RT – CV | 825 | 0.18 | 0.07 | 0.20 | 0.08 | 11.08 | 0.00 | |
| Simple RT – ISD | 825 | -0.24 | 0.80 | 0.08 | 1.04 | 15.49 | <0.001 | |
| Choice RT – mean (ms) | 802 | 331.96 | 80.82 | 353.82 | 99.33 | 7.69 | 0.006 | |
| Choice RT – raw SD | 802 | 58.52 | 21.27 | 69.84 | 27.18 | 27.93 | <0.00 | |
| Choice RT – CV | 802 | 0.18 | 0.05 | 0.20 | 0.07 | 18.68 | <0.002 | |
| Choice RT – ISD | 802 | -0.33 | 0.80 | 0.10 | 1.03 | 27.60 | <0.001 | |
| Age | 896 | 74.09 | 3.38 | 77.30 | 5.09 | 73.58 | <0.002 | |
| Education | 894 | 11.17 | 2.29 | 11.41 | 2.66 | 1.39 | 0.239 | |
| ADL score | 877 | 0.98 | 1.31 | 2.14 | 2.78 | 34.09 | <0.001 | |
| Disease count | 896 | 2.35 | 1.66 | 2.96 | 1.72 | 20.15 | <0.001 | |
| Grip strength | 868 | 25.90 | 9.90 | 24.26 | 9.46 | 4.57 | 0.033 | |
| Goldberg depression score | 865 | 1.71 | 1.79 | 2.13 | 2.00 | 7.06 | 0.00 | |
| Goldberg anxiety score | 870 | 2.49 | 2.35 | 2.46 | 2.25 | 0.02 | 0.87 | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | χ² | ł | |
| Gender | 896 | | | | | 13.63 | <0.00 | |
| Male | | 83 | 39.7% | 373 | 54.3% | | | |
| Female | | 126 | 60.3% | 314 | 45.7% | | | |
| Marital status | 896 | | | | | 5.35 | 0.148 | |
| Married | | 127 | 60.8% | 366 | 53.3% | | | |
| Single | | 10 | 4.8% | 24 | 3.5% | | | |
| Widowed | | 63 | 30.1% | 261 | 38.0% | | | |
| Divorced/separated | | 9 | 4.3% | 36 | 5.2% | | | |
| Possible MMSE dementia | 896 | | | | | 7.17 | 0.00 | |
| Yes | | 181 | 86.6% | 537 | 78.2% | | | |
| No | | 28 | 13.4% | 150 | 21.8% | | | |
| Smoking status | 877 | | | | | 7.65 | 0.02 | |
| Never | | 110 | 52.9% | 281 | 42.0% | | | |
| Past | | 78 | 37.5% | 305 | 45.6% | | | |
| Current | | 20 | 9.6% | 83 | 12.4% | | | |
| Using AH medication | 879 | | | | | 1.00 | 0.31 | |
| Yes | | 62 | 29.8% | 225 | 33.5% | | | |
| No | | 146 | 70.2% | 446 | 66.5% | | | |

³⁷⁵

376 *Notes*: **bold** values indicate p < 0.05; RT: reaction time; CV: coefficient of variation; ISD:

377 intraindividual standard deviation; ADL: activities of daily living; MMSE: Mini-Mental State

378 Examination; AH: antihypertensive

| | | | Unadju | usted | | | Adjust | ed | | Adjusted + adjusted for MRT | | | | | |
|-----------|--------|----------|--------|-------|--------|----------|--------|-------|-------|-----------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--|--|
| | | Estimate | SE | HR | р | Estimate | SE | HR | р | Estimate | SE | HR | р | | |
| Simple RT | Mean | 0.136 | 0.038 | 1.146 | <0.001 | 0.054 | 0.045 | 1.055 | 0.231 | | | | | | |
| (n = 825) | Raw SD | 0.170 | 0.039 | 1.185 | <0.001 | 0.106 | 0.041 | 1.111 | 0.010 | 0.133 | 0.056 | 1.143 | 0.018 | | |
| | CV | 0.143 | 0.040 | 1.154 | <0.001 | 0.132 | 0.040 | 1.142 | 0.001 | 0.128 | 0.041 | 1.137 | 0.002 | | |
| | ISD | 0.175 | 0.038 | 1.192 | <0.001 | 0.108 | 0.041 | 1.114 | 0.008 | 0.140 | 0.057 | 1.150 | 0.014 | | |
| Choice RT | Mean | 0.168 | 0.039 | 1.183 | <0.001 | 0.064 | 0.045 | 1.066 | 0.161 | | | | | | |
| (n = 802) | Raw SD | 0.268 | 0.040 | 1.307 | <0.001 | 0.087 | 0.043 | 1.091 | 0.042 | 0.076 | 0.049 | 1.079 | 0.123 | | |
| | CV | 0.196 | 0.040 | 1.217 | <0.001 | 0.069 | 0.043 | 1.071 | 0.107 | 0.075 | 0.043 | 1.078 | 0.079 | | |
| | ISD | 0.269 | 0.040 | 1.309 | <0.001 | 0.090 | 0.043 | 1.094 | 0.037 | 0.079 | 0.050 | 1.082 | 0.110 | | |

Table 2: Summary of Cox proportional hazards regression models of all-cause mortality

Notes: **bold** values indicate p < 0.05; RT: reaction time; CV: coefficient of variation; ISD: intra-individual standard deviation; RT measures are standardized to mean = 0, sd = 1 for comparability; adjustment was for age, gender, marital status, years of education, presence of possible preclinical dementia, smoking status, Activities of Daily Living, disease count, self-reported use of anti-hypertensive medication, grip strength, and the Goldberg Depression and Anxiety Scales.

| | | | Simp | ole RT | | | | | Choi | ce RT | | |
|-----------------------------|--------|---------|----------|--------|-----------|--------|--------|--------------|-------|----------|-------|--------|
| | Raw SE |) model | CV model | | ISD model | | Raw SD | Raw SD model | | CV model | | nodel |
| | HR | р | HR | р | HR | р | | | HR | р | HR | р |
| Mean RT | 0.956 | 0.477 | 1.022 | 0.653 | 0.950 | 0.427 | 1.026 | 0.639 | 1.078 | 0.117 | 1.024 | 0.667 |
| Raw SD | 1.143 | 0.018 | | | | | 1.079 | 0.123 | | | | |
| Coefficient of variation | | | 1.137 | 0.002 | | | | | 1.078 | 0.079 | | |
| Intraindividual SD | | | | | 1.150 | 0.014 | | | | | 1.082 | 0.110 |
| Gender (female vs. male) | 1.643 | <0.001 | 1.656 | <0.001 | 1.643 | <0.001 | 1.616 | <0.001 | 1.614 | <0.001 | 1.616 | <0.001 |
| Age | 1.078 | <0.001 | 1.079 | <0.001 | 1.078 | <0.001 | 1.076 | <0.001 | 1.075 | <0.001 | 1.076 | <0.001 |
| Years of education | 1.015 | 0.372 | 1.016 | 0.344 | 1.015 | 0.382 | 1.015 | 0.397 | 1.015 | 0.386 | 1.015 | 0.400 |
| Marital status | | 0.318 | | 0.351 | | 0.321 | | 0.234 | | 0.233 | | 0.244 |
| Single vs. married | 0.894 | 0.518 | 0.899 | 0.540 | 0.893 | 0.514 | 0.885 | 0.483 | 0.885 | 0.481 | 0.885 | 0.482 |
| Widowed vs. married | 1.017 | 0.861 | 1.018 | 0.849 | 1.015 | 0.875 | 1.006 | 0.948 | 1.011 | 0.909 | 1.006 | 0.951 |
| Div/sep vs. married | 1.234 | 0.183 | 1.220 | 0.207 | 1.236 | 0.178 | 1.275 | 0.121 | 1.270 | 0.128 | 1.273 | 0.123 |
| Possible dementia (MMSE<24) | 0.904 | 0.065 | 0.906 | 0.069 | 0.904 | 0.066 | 0.913 | 0.099 | 0.912 | 0.091 | 0.913 | 0.097 |
| ADL score | 1.101 | <0.001 | 1.102 | <0.001 | 1.101 | <0.001 | 1.098 | <0.001 | 1.099 | <0.001 | 1.098 | <0.001 |
| Disease count | 1.087 | 0.001 | 1.085 | 0.002 | 1.088 | 0.001 | 1.083 | 0.003 | 1.081 | 0.004 | 1.083 | 0.003 |
| Smoking status | | 0.911 | | 0.880 | | 0.904 | | 0.918 | | 0.923 | | 0.919 |
| Previous vs. never | 0.986 | 0.830 | 0.983 | 0.797 | 0.986 | 0.833 | 0.995 | 0.940 | 0.996 | 0.945 | 0.996 | 0.946 |
| Current vs. never | 1.037 | 0.672 | 1.044 | 0.619 | 1.039 | 0.660 | 1.032 | 0.718 | 1.031 | 0.729 | 1.032 | 0.724 |
| Taking AH medication | 0.942 | 0.210 | 0.944 | 0.223 | 0.942 | 0.211 | 0.929 | 0.124 | 0.929 | 0.125 | 0.929 | 0.124 |
| Grip strength | 0.978 | 0.002 | 0.978 | 0.002 | 0.978 | 0.002 | 0.980 | 0.005 | 0.980 | 0.005 | 0.980 | 0.005 |
| Goldberg depression | 1.049 | 0.082 | 1.048 | 0.089 | 1.048 | 0.087 | 1.040 | 0.165 | 1.041 | 0.158 | 1.039 | 0.176 |
| Goldberg anxiety | 0.958 | 0.060 | 0.959 | 0.067 | 0.958 | 0.058 | 0.967 | 0.146 | 0.967 | 0.148 | 0.967 | 0.150 |

Table 3: Fully-adjusted Cox proportional hazards regression models of all-cause mortality, based on RT variability measures

Notes: **bold** values indicate p < 0.05; RT measures are standardised to mean = 0, SD = 1; RT: reaction time; MMSE: Mini-Mental State Examination; ADL: activities of daily living; AH: anti-hypertensive