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The Healthy Mind, Healthy Mobility Trial: A Novel Exercise Program For Older Adults

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1 **The Healthy Mind, Healthy Mobility Trial: A Novel Exercise Program for Older Adults**

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29 **Running head:** Healthy Mind, Healthy Mobility Trial

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41 **Abstract**

42 **Background:** More evidence is needed in order to conclude that a specific program of exercise
43 and/or cognitive training warrants prescription for the prevention of cognitive decline. We
44 examined the effect of a group-based standard exercise program for older adults, with and
45 without dual-task training, on cognitive function in older adults without dementia. **Methods:** We
46 conducted a proof-of-concept, single-blinded, 26-week randomized controlled trial whereby
47 participants recruited from pre-existing exercise classes at the Canadian Centre for Activity and
48 Aging in London, Ontario were randomized to the intervention group (exercise + dual-task;
49 EDT) or the control group (exercise only; EO). Each week (2 or 3 days/week), both groups
50 accumulated a minimum of 50 minutes of aerobic exercise (target 75 minutes) from standard
51 group classes and completed 45 minutes of beginner-level Square Stepping Exercise (SSE). The
52 EDT group was also required to answer cognitively challenging questions while doing beginner-
53 level SSE (i.e., dual-task training). The effect of interventions on standardized global cognitive
54 function (GCF) scores at 26 weeks was compared between the groups using the linear mixed
55 effects model approach. **Results:** Participants [n = 44; 68% female; mean (SD) age: 73.5 (SD
56 7.2) years] had on average, objective evidence of cognitive impairment [Montreal Cognitive
57 Assessment scores, mean (SD): 24.9 (1.9)] but not dementia [Mini-Mental State Examination
58 scores, mean (SD): 28.8 (1.2)]. After 26 weeks, the EDT group showed greater improvement in
59 GCF scores compared to the EO group [difference between groups in mean change (95% CI):
60 0.20 SD (0.01 to 0.39), p = 0.04]. **Conclusion:** A 26-week group-based exercise program
61 combined with dual-task training improved GCF in community-dwelling older adults without
62 dementia. **Trial Registration:** ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier: NCT01572311
63 **Key Words:** exercise; cognition; community-based; prevention; older adults

64 **Introduction**

65 The incidence of cognitive impairment without meeting the diagnostic criteria for dementia (i.e.,
66 cognitive impairment, not dementia; CIND), is currently two-fold greater than the incidence of
67 Alzheimer’s disease and related dementias (33). Consequently, early prevention strategies for
68 ameliorating cognitive decline should be directed towards persons who are at elevated risk and
69 prior to the establishment of significant objective cognitive impairment or dementia, in order to
70 observe the best clinical outcomes (20).

71 A recent editorial (23) suggested that the identification of modifiable risk factors associated with
72 specific cognitive deficits is a significant priority in cognitive research and clinical practice.

73 Numerous observational studies have demonstrated that those who are more physically active are
74 less likely to experience cognitive decline and dementia in later life (3, 4). Aerobic exercise
75 training can facilitate heightened task-related cortical activity, improve performance on
76 executive function (EF) tasks (8), and increase hippocampal volume (12) in cognitively healthy
77 older adults, as well as promote increased hippocampal volume (46), improve neural efficiency
78 and task performance during semantic memory retrieval tasks (42), and improve global cognitive
79 functioning (24) in older adults with mild cognitive impairment (MCI). Despite these initial
80 observations, the effects of exercise training on cognitive functioning appears to be dependent
81 upon a number of factors (i.e., the type of exercise program, the duration and frequency of
82 exercise training, and participant demographics), and remains incompletely understood (16, 25).

83 In 2011, an expert panel concluded that due to the low quality of the existing evidence, there was
84 insufficient evidence to support the association of any modifiable risk factors (including
85 cognitive and physical activities) with risk of cognitive decline (10).

86 Engaging in cognitively challenging activities requires the organization and direction of
87 numerous neurological processes, including EF, processing speed, and memory (21), and has
88 been found to stimulate neuroplasticity in aging (22). Dual-task training is a multi-dimensional
89 cognitive training intervention that combines cognitive and motor tasks to directly train the EF
90 networks of the brain (32) and evidence suggests that the associated dual-task neurological
91 control processes are plastic and can be modified with training (11). A recent meta-analysis
92 highlighted the cognitive and functional benefits of dual-task training (25); however, there were
93 a limited number of articles included in the analysis (n=8) and few studies investigated the
94 effects of dual-task training among older adults with indications of cognitive impairment.
95 Observational studies have also implicated social and cognitive disengagement as modifiable
96 risk factors associated with cognitive impairment and dementia (37). Group-based senior's
97 fitness programs can help alleviate these concerns by providing an atmosphere that involves
98 socialization with peers of similar age. Although recent evidence has highlighted the cognitive
99 benefits of group-based exercise training (30, 36, 50), these studies were limited by small sample
100 sizes, a lack of standardized socialization components between study groups, heterogeneity in the
101 interventions between studies, and the omission of active control comparisons or longitudinal
102 follow-up.

103 Square Stepping Exercise (SSE) is a low-cost and easily administered group-based exercise
104 intervention that involves replicating a previously demonstrated stepping pattern in order to
105 progress across a gridded floor mat. Although SSE was originally designed and deemed effective
106 for improving lower extremity functional fitness and reducing falls risk factors in high-risk
107 elderly fallers (41), recent results suggest that SSE may improve cognition [i.e., memory, and EF
108 (39), and global cognition, attention, and mental flexibility (45)]. The excellent long-term

109 adherence to SSE (i.e., regular participation over a 4-year longitudinal follow-up) is driven by a
110 number of factors, including the simplicity of the exercise program and the facilitation of the
111 development of friendship and social communication between peers of similar age (40). These
112 preliminary observations suggest that SSE may be an effective avenue to address multiple
113 important risk factors for cognitive decline (i.e., cognitive and social disengagement) and that
114 the incorporation of SSE within group-based exercise programs might provide additive cognitive
115 benefits. Furthermore, the incorporation of a dual-task component and the associated additional
116 level of difficulty to the cognitive requirements of beginner-level SSE may provide cognitive
117 benefits above and beyond that which could be expected from the practice of beginner-level SSE
118 alone.

119 The current evidence is insufficient to conclude that a specific program of physical exercise
120 and/or cognitive training warrants prescription for older adults to prevent future cognitive decline
121 (15, 25). The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of combining a group-based
122 exercise program with dual-task training on cognitive function in active older adults with
123 indications of CIND. Our primary objective was to examine the difference between groups
124 (group-based exercise with dual-task training versus group-based exercise alone) on change in
125 global cognitive functioning (GCF) following a 26-week program. We hypothesized that the
126 combination of group-based exercise with dual-task training would improve GCF to a greater
127 extent than group based exercise alone.

128 **Methods:**

129 **Participants**

130 Participants were recruited from pre-existing exercise classes at the Canadian Centre for Activity
131 and Aging (CCAA) (5) in London, Ontario via fliers, class announcements, and class rosters. All

132 participants were aged 55 to 90 years, were current and active members of CCAA exercise
133 programs, demonstrated preserved instrumental activities of daily living (Lawton-Brody
134 instrumental Activities of Daily Living scale >6) (26), and scored ≤ 27 on the Montreal Cognitive
135 Assessment (MoCA) (29). The MoCA score cut-off used in this study is slightly above the
136 traditional cut-off indicative of cognitive impairment (<26)(29). The relatively healthy, highly
137 educated, and ethnically uniform nature of the participants in this study (compared to participants
138 used to inform normative data) (29), suggests that it may be warranted to use a higher cut-off to
139 indicate subtle underlying cognitive difficulties and to identify individuals who may be at
140 increased risk for future cognitive decline (35).

141 All participants were free of dementia [based on self-reported physician diagnosis or Mini-
142 Mental State Examination (MMSE) score <24] (14), major depression (based on scoring Centre
143 for Epidemiological Studies-Depression Scale (34) >16 combined with clinical judgment by the
144 primary study physician), and other neurological or psychiatric disorders. Furthermore,
145 participants who were unable to comprehend study procedures, or those with significant
146 orthopaedic conditions, a recent history of severe cardiovascular conditions, or those who
147 currently demonstrated blood pressure unsafe for exercise (47), were also excluded. The Western
148 University Health Sciences Research Ethics Board approved this study and all participants
149 provided written informed consent.

150 **Study Design**

151 We conducted a proof-of-concept, single-blinded, 26-week randomized controlled trial with a
152 26-week, no-contact follow-up. Assessments were performed at baseline (V0), 12 weeks (V1),
153 26 weeks (V2), and 52 weeks (V3). After V0, participants were randomized 1:1 (in one block) to
154 either the intervention group (exercise + dual-task; EDT) or the control group (exercise only;

155 EO). The randomization sequence was computer-generated and concealed envelopes were used
156 to assign group status. All assessors were blinded to group assignment.

157 **Interventions**

158 Over 26 weeks, participants took part in either a group-based exercise program alone [control
159 group: exercise only (EO)] or with the addition of a dual-task training program [intervention
160 group: exercise + dual-task (EDT)].

161 Participants in both groups continued to attend their CCAA group-based exercise classes for
162 older adults that were led by certified CCAA Seniors' Fitness Instructors (6) and involved
163 aerobic exercise (largest component), as well as strength, balance, and flexibility training.

164 Participants attended the structured 60-minute or 75-minute group-based exercise classes, 2 or 3
165 times per week. Our focus was on keeping the prescribed aerobic exercise similar between
166 groups; participants performed a minimum of 50 minutes (classes 2 days/week) to a maximum of
167 75 minutes (classes 3 days/week) of aerobic exercise from the classes. For those who only
168 attended classes 2 days/week, these participants were instructed to log an additional 25 minutes
169 of aerobic exercise each week outside of class (using a paper log provided). Individualized
170 exercise training intensities were provided as part of the CCAA exercise program through one of
171 two avenues: i) from performance on an annual maximal exercise stress test, or ii) following
172 recommendations by Tanaka et al., (44) for those who abstained or were unable to complete the
173 maximal exercise stress test. Participants were required to monitor and record their exercise
174 intensity, before, at the mid-point, and immediately following the aerobic exercise portion of
175 each class, and were instructed to try to meet their target heart rate (70-85% maximum heart
176 rate). Thus, the amount of aerobic exercise performed per week was balanced between groups.

177 Immediately following exercise classes, participants took part in beginner-level SSE (41) (45
178 minutes per week, over 2 to 3 days/week). The SSE is a low-cost, indoor group exercise that was
179 specifically developed to improve lower extremity functioning and prevent related disability in
180 older adults (41). The SSE can be conceptualized as a visuospatial working memory task that
181 requires a stepping response; however, the cognitive demands of the SSE are dependent upon the
182 level of difficulty of the foot placement patterns being performed and progression through the
183 stepping protocols. Both groups performed beginner SSE protocols only, requiring participants
184 to observe and memorize an instructor-led demonstration of a specific stepping pattern involving
185 simple forward, lateral and diagonal foot placements on a gridded mat (see Figure, Supplemental
186 Digital Content 1, depiction several beginner SSE foot placement patterns). After adequate
187 demonstration, participants were organized into groups of 6 or less, and were required to walk at
188 a normal pace while replicating the previously demonstrated pattern. The beginner protocols
189 were retained throughout the duration of the intervention, as they were not considered to provide
190 a cognitive training stimulus on its own, and served as a lower extremity coordination exercise
191 shared by both groups.

192 To provide the dual-task stimulus, participants in the intervention (EDT) group were also
193 required to respond to cognitively challenging questions (i.e., semantic and phonemic verbal
194 fluency tasks; randomly generated arithmetic) while participating in SSE. Specifically,
195 participants were required to respond to verbal cognitive tasks during the dual-task SSE sessions
196 as follows: i) seven minutes of randomly generated arithmetic (i.e., a two-digit number
197 subtracted from, or added to a three-digit number); ii) one minute break (i.e., no dual-task
198 component); iii) seven minutes of verbal fluency tasks (i.e., semantic or phonemic categories that
199 were rotated every 90 seconds). Responses to questions were not recorded, but participants were

200 encouraged to perform correct arithmetic and to avoid repeating previous responses. The control
201 (EO) group did not perform dual-task training (i.e., participants in this group were not required to
202 answer verbal fluency or arithmetic tasks while performing the SSE).

203 Participants in both groups performed the same amount of aerobic exercise each week, and
204 interacted with study investigators at the same frequency and relative intensity, with the only
205 difference being the verbal fluency and arithmetic tasks that were added to the SSE component
206 in the EDT group (see Table, Supplemental Digital Content 2, overview of the interventions).

207 Thus, the intervention was aimed at determining the cognitive benefit of incorporating a dual-
208 task component to beginner level SSE compared to the active control (sham) condition of SSE
209 alone, while also controlling for the social benefits that accompany group-based exercise training
210 among aerobically-active older adults.

211 Attendance was recorded at all sessions, which was used to calculate compliance to the
212 intervention. After the 26-week intervention, participants continued with their regular activities
213 with no intervention by the research team for the 26-week no-contact follow-up and until the
214 completion of the 52-week study period.

215 **Baseline Variables**

216 Participant demographic and clinical characteristics were collected at baseline and
217 included: age, sex, race, education, medical history, self-reported cognitive complaint,
218 objectively measured body mass index (BMI), and fitness level [i.e., predicted maximal oxygen
219 uptake (VO_{2max})]. Predicted VO_{2max} was determined via the Step Test and Exercise Prescription
220 (STEP) tool (43), which involves stepping up and down a set of standardized steps 20 times at a
221 self-selected pace. As there were no modifications to the aerobic exercise component of the
222 CCAA group-based exercise classes, improvements in cardiorespiratory fitness were not

223 anticipated; however, the STEP test was repeated at follow-up assessments for the sole purpose
224 of providing a better understand our study findings (i.e., not to be used as an outcome measure).

225 **Outcomes**

226 The primary outcome of the study was 26-week change in global cognitive function (GCF) based
227 on a composite score from a neuropsychological battery that covered four cognitive domains.

228 The selected battery included reliable and well-validated (17) measures of executive
229 function/mental flexibility [Trail-Making Tests, Part A and Part B (Trails A and Trails B)],
230 processing speed [Digit-Symbol Substitution Test (DSST)], verbal learning and memory
231 [Auditory Verbal Learning Test (AVLT)], and verbal [category: semantic (animal naming)] and
232 phonemic [letter: Controlled Oral Word Association (COWA) Test] fluency. Secondary
233 outcomes were 12- and 52-week changes in GCF, as well as, 12-, 26-, and 52-week changes in
234 composite scores for executive function/mental flexibility (EF), processing speed (PS), verbal
235 learning and memory (VLM), and verbal fluency (VF).

236 For all tests except Trails A and Trails B, a low score indicated poor performance. In order to
237 make the tests more comparable for creating the GCF composite, observed scores from Trails A
238 and B were subtracted from maximum scores observed in our study (71 and 200, respectively)
239 following previously published methods (27). Due to non-normal distributions, for the
240 examination of Trails A, Trails B and the EF composite separately, log transformations were
241 applied prior to standardization. Composite scores were then derived by first converting all
242 individual outcomes from neuropsychological tests to standardized z scores (subtracting baseline
243 group mean from raw score and dividing by the baseline group SD). Next, standardized scores
244 were averaged within each domain (e.g., standardized scores for AVLT number of words learned
245 and AVLT number of words recalled were averaged to created a single standardized VLM

246 composite score). Finally, domain-specific composite scores were averaged to create the GCF
247 score, ensuring the four cognitive domains were weighted equally.

248 **Power and Sample Size**

249 We estimated that a total of 48 participants (24 participants per group) would be a reasonable
250 sample size for this proof-of-concept RCT. Specifically, with 20 participants per group, our
251 study would have 80% power to detect a large effect size of 0.9 for standardized GCF change at
252 26 weeks, at the 5% significance level. We assumed a dropout rate of 20%, which increased our
253 calculation to 24 participants per group. Since we recruited 44 participants, we can conclude that
254 our study had 80% power at the 5% significance level to detect an effect size of 0.95, while
255 accounting for a dropout rate of 15% that we observed in this study at 26 weeks. We were unable
256 to reach our goal of 48 participants primarily to due competing time demands or lack of interest.

257 **Statistical Analysis**

258 Baseline scores for all individual outcomes from the neuropsychological tests were compared
259 between groups. We used a mixed model for repeated measurements to examine differences
260 between groups at 26 weeks in GCF. We retained the baseline value as part of the outcome
261 vector and constrained the group means as equal to reflect balance of baseline values due to
262 randomization; time was modelled categorically using indicator variables. All analyses were
263 based on the intent-to-treat principle. Thus, all randomized participants (n = 44) were included in
264 analyses according to the group they were randomized and regardless of compliance with the
265 intervention and data at follow-up. An advantage of the mixed effects regression modeling
266 approach is that it does not require each subject to have the same number of measurements,
267 provided the data are missing at random which is an assumption made by most multiple
268 imputation methods (13). The same modeling approach was carried out for all individual

269 standardized cognitive outcomes from neuropsychological tests and for the standardized
270 cognitive domain-specific composite scores. The mixed effect model approach was also adopted
271 to examine differences between groups in mean change from baseline to 12 and 52 weeks. In
272 addition, two sensitivity analyses were performed for each outcome: 1) analyses additionally
273 adjusted for age, sex, baseline fitness and type 2 diabetes status at baseline; and 2) analyses were
274 restricted to all-completers (i.e., only the 37 of the 44 participants who completed the 26-week
275 intervention and follow-up assessment were included). Results from adjusted analyses and “all-
276 completer” analyses were similar (i.e., conclusions did not change) and thus not presented. Two-
277 sided P-values less than 0.05 were claimed as statistically significant. Analyses were performed
278 using SAS version 9.3 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

279 **Results:**

280 Participants were enrolled starting on June 13, 2012 and data collection ended on May 5, 2014.
281 **Figure 1** shows the flow of study participants. A total of 59 individuals were assessed for
282 eligibility and 15 were excluded from the study (13 did not meet inclusion criteria, primarily
283 because of high MoCA scores and 2 declined to participate). This left 44 individuals who were
284 enrolled and randomized to the EDT group (n = 23) or the EO group (n = 21). The slight
285 imbalance between groups is a result of the randomization sequence being generated in one large
286 block that corresponded with our intended sample size (n=48). In total, 7 (16%) were withdrawn
287 due to medical reasons unrelated to the study (n=4) or loss of interest (n=3) by the end of the 26-
288 week intervention, and one participant 8 (18%) was unwilling to attend final assessments
289 following the additional 26-week no-contact follow-up period (n = 4 withdrawn from each
290 group). In total, 2 participants (5%) experienced adverse events that were possibly or probably
291 study-related (bruising in 1 participant due to a study assessment procedure and cramping

292 following exercise in 1 participant). All participants recovered without further issues. Of the
293 participants who completed the intervention (37/44 participants), compliance was 78% or higher.
294 Participant characteristics were similar between groups (see **Table 1**). Participants had a mean
295 age of 73.5 (SD 7.2) years, just over two-thirds were female; most (98%) were Caucasian and all
296 participants were highly educated [mean years: 16.5 (SD 2.5)]. Slightly over half of all
297 participants reported that their memory was worse than five years earlier and on average,
298 participants had evidence of cognitive impairment [MoCA scores, mean (SD): 24.9 (1.9)] but not
299 dementia [MMSE scores, mean (SD): 28.8 (1.2)].

300 Baseline scores on all individual cognitive measures were also similar between groups (see
301 **Table 2**). On average, study participants had better scores at baseline on Trails A and Trails B,
302 compared to mean scores from normative data for older adults of similar age and education (48).
303 When comparing to normative data for a slightly younger population but with similar education
304 levels, our sample performed similarly for number of words by category (in 1 minute) but worse
305 for number of words by letter (in 1 minute) (49). Performance at baseline on the remainder of the
306 measures was similar to normative data that has been compiled from other cognitively healthy
307 samples of older adults (18, 38).

308 The effect of our exercise intervention on change in standardized GCF at 26 weeks is shown in
309 **Figure 2**. At 26 weeks, there was greater improvement in standardized GCF in the EDT group
310 compared to the EO group ($p = 0.04$); this difference was not seen at 12 or 52 weeks (i.e., 26
311 weeks after the end of the intervention period). Specifically, the EDT group had mean
312 standardized GCF change scores that were 0.20 SD higher (95% CI: 0.01 to 0.39) when
313 compared to the EO group at 26 weeks (see **Table 3**).

314 At 26 weeks, the EDT group showed significant improvements in both standardized VLM and
315 VF scores, but not standardized EF or PS scores, when compared to the EO group (see **Figure**
316 **3**). For instance, at 26 weeks, the EDT group had standardized VLM scores that were 0.30 SD
317 higher (95% CI: 0.04 to 0.56) than the EO group. As shown in **Table 3**, the total number of
318 words learned, rather than number of words recalled, accounted for much of this difference
319 between groups for the standardized VLM score. At 26 weeks, the EDT group had VF
320 standardized scores that were 0.62 SD higher (95% CI: 0.22 to 1.02), compared to the EO group.

321 **Discussion:**

322 Following 26 weeks of a group-based exercise program for older adults and dual-task training,
323 we found improvements in global cognitive function, when compared to the group-based
324 exercise program alone. These group differences were not seen by 12 weeks nor did they remain
325 26 weeks after the end of the intervention. We also found that these improvements were
326 primarily driven by improvements in verbal fluency and verbal learning and memory.
327 Results from a recent meta-analysis suggest that exercise interventions impart a subtle but
328 significant effect on verbal fluency outcomes and no consistent benefit to memory processes
329 (15); however, the influence of exercise on verbal fluency and verbal learning and memory is
330 inconsistent and appears to depend upon the specific components of the intervention (i.e.,
331 frequency, intensity, time, and type) and the cognitive status of the participants. For instance,
332 short-term (i.e., 4 weeks) moderate to vigorous intensity multiple modality exercise training can
333 improve verbal fluency (i.e., letter and category verbal fluency tasks) among previously
334 sedentary older adults with healthy cognition (31), while it appears that longer duration (i.e., 6-
335 to 12-months) aerobic (1) and multiple modality exercise training interventions are required to

336 improve verbal fluency (i.e., letter verbal fluency tasks only) among older adults with amnestic
337 MCI.

338 Improved cardiorespiratory fitness appears to be an important mediator of improved cognition
339 following physical exercise training (8) and the cognitive benefits imparted following cognitive
340 training are traditionally highly domain-specific (9). Greater improvements in verbal fluency for
341 the EDT group at 12 and 26 weeks are not surprising since this group had relatively preserved
342 cognition, there were no modifications of the aerobic component of the exercise program nor
343 were there any between group differences in the cardiorespiratory response to the intervention
344 (data not shown), and the EDT participants performed verbal fluency tasks while doing square-
345 stepping exercise (tasks that were different from those used during assessments).

346 Greater improvements in verbal learning and memory for the EDT group may be related to the
347 fact that these participants had to both remember and execute square-stepping exercise patterns
348 and answer questions where they were encouraged to actively remember and avoid repeating
349 answers they had already provided.

350 Improved memory performance has not been consistently observed following aerobically based
351 exercise training but has been linked with isolated resistance exercise training (15). Thus, the
352 observed improvements in verbal learning and memory within the EDT group may be attributed
353 to the memory requirements of the dual-task square-stepping exercise. Other studies, however,
354 have suggested the potential for both aerobic and resistance training to improve memory
355 performance in older adults with probable MCI (28) and stimulate increased hippocampal
356 volume in older women with probable MCI (46). Further research on the impact of exercise on
357 memory performance is required to elucidate the memory-related benefits of physical exercise
358 training, among healthy older adults and those with indications of cognitive impairment.

359 While there were no group differences in processing speed, both groups demonstrated
360 improvements following the intervention. These findings may be related to both groups
361 participating in standard group-based exercise programs and beginner-level square-stepping
362 exercise (i.e., similar processing speed requirements) and previous meta-analyses have reported
363 only moderate effect sizes for the influence of exercise on processing speed (7). Since our
364 participants were active prior to the initiation of our intervention and our intervention did not
365 change the amount of aerobic exercise that participants were receiving, this may have
366 contributed to the lack of observed improvement in executive function (8). This may also suggest
367 that the observed improvements in global cognitive function within both groups occurred as a
368 result of the cognitive stimulation provided by square-stepping exercise alone and even further
369 by square-stepping exercise combined with cognitive tasks (45). Barnes and colleagues (2)
370 conducted a factorial RCT and observed significant improvements in global cognitive function
371 following 12 weeks of mental activity, exercise, or combined mental activity and exercise, but no
372 differences between intervention and active control groups. It is likely that differences in study
373 design contributed to discrepancies with our findings. For example, Barnes et al. (2) recruited
374 ethnically diverse and previously sedentary older adults. As well, the intervention was 12-weeks
375 in length and involved different types of cognitive training and active control groups. However,
376 results for the executive function domain in the current study should be interpreted with caution;
377 even after transformation, there was still a slight violation of normality. General conclusions
378 should be based on our primary outcome, the standardized global cognitive functioning score at
379 26 weeks.

380 The majority of participants in our study were female, Caucasian, and highly educated, all of
381 which will impact the generalizability of our findings. We did not perform a full clinical or

382 neurological evaluation of study participants and thus we have a lower degree of certainty related
383 to the cognitive status of our participants. The MoCA is highly sensitive in identifying
384 individuals who exhibit subtle declines in cognition that may not be significant enough to
385 warrant a dementia diagnosis, but may be indicative of underlying neurocognitive pathology
386 (available at www.mocatest.org). The MoCA test has been widely used to evaluate cognition
387 and screen for cognitive impairment; the MoCA is available in 46 different languages and
388 dialects, has been used in 100 countries worldwide, and is recommended as an appropriate
389 cognitive screening tool by the Canadian Consensus Conference for Diagnosis and Treatment of
390 Dementia Guidelines for Alzheimer's disease and the National Institutes of Health and Canadian
391 Stroke Consortium for Vascular Cognitive Impairment. Although cut-off scores for probable
392 MCI have been established (29), these appear to be highly population specific. For instance,
393 there is evidence to suggest that demographic differences between the population that was used
394 to create the normative data and those within a given study, may contribute to the inaccurate
395 groupings (35). Thus, in our study, although we used a higher than standard cut-off on the
396 MoCA, we feel that due to other factors, participants included in our study may be at increased
397 risk for future cognitive decline. Other limitations of our study include that our
398 neuropsychological battery did not include any cognitive tests covering visuospatial functioning;
399 and the effect of our intervention on cognitive domains that have traditionally been found to
400 benefit from aerobic exercise (e.g., executive function) (7) might have been attenuated due to the
401 active nature of our participants at baseline. Finally, although the global cognitive function and
402 verbal learning and memory results are promising, it is possible that contextual cues present
403 during original learning (e.g., participants coming to the same location to meet the same
404 assessor) may have directly influenced subsequent memory performance (19).

405 Recent reviews (25) have drawn attention to the limited number of investigations on the effects
406 of exercise in older adults that include active control group comparisons, and have recommended
407 that future studies address this issue. Furthermore, the inclusion of an active control group
408 similar to that used in our study (i.e., exercise only group), allows for the control of
409 environmental factors (e.g., social interaction provided by exercise classes). Additional strengths
410 of our study include the wide range of cognitively challenging questions that were used for the
411 EDT group intervention, in order to maintain interest and avoid category-specific practice
412 effects. Further, questions used during the intervention were not repeated as part of the
413 assessments.

414 With the global population aging, there is a growing urgency to identify the most effective
415 strategies to prevent cognitive decline. Results from our study indicate that 26 weeks of
416 standard, group-based exercise for older adults combined with dual-task training (i.e., beginner-
417 level square-stepping exercise with simultaneous cognitive challenges) can lead to greater
418 improvements in global cognitive functioning, when compared to a standard group-based
419 exercise program alone. Results from our study corroborate the safety of square-stepping
420 exercise as an exercise program and contribute to its further definition as a cognitive training
421 intervention for older adults.

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434 **Conflict of Interest:**

435 The study authors have no relevant conflicts of interest to report. Results of the is study do not
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576 **Figure Legends (with Titles)**

577

578 **Figure 1: Flowchart for the Healthy Mind, Healthy Mobility (HM²) trial.** Participant flow
579 for the 26-week randomized controlled trial, with a 26-week follow-up period. This trial
580 followed a parallel-groups design whereby participants were randomized (1:1) to either the
581 exercise intervention (Exercise + Dual-Task) or exercise control (Exercise Only) group.

582

583 **Figure 2: Effects of interventions on standardized Global Cognitive Function (CGF)**
584 **composite score.** From baseline (V0) to 26-weeks (V2), change in the standardized GCF score
585 was significantly greater in the Exercise + Dual-Task group, compared to the Exercise Only
586 group. This significant difference between groups was not present at 12-weeks (V1) or at 52-
587 weeks (V3).

588

589 **Figure 3: Effects of interventions on standardized Executive Function (EF), Processing**
590 **Speed (PS), Verbal Learning and Memory (VLM) and Verbal Fluency (VF) scores.** There
591 were no significant differences between groups at any of the time points for EF and PS domain-
592 specific scores. From baseline (V0) to 12-weeks (V1), 26-weeks (V2), and 52-weeks (V3),
593 changes in the standardized VLM scores, as well as VF scores were significantly greater in the
594 Exercise + Dual-Task group, compared to the Exercise Only group.

595

596

597 **Supplemental Digital Content:**

598 **SDC 1- Figure: Schematic of Square-Stepping Exercise.** Example beginner patterns are
599 presented.

600 **SDC 2– Table: Description of Interventions by Group.** A description of the exercise + dual-
601 task and exercise only interventions.

602

Table 1. Baseline Characteristics of 44 Study Participants by Randomization Group^a

Characteristic	EO Group (n = 21)	EDT Group (n = 23)
Age, mean (SD), y	74.5 (7.0)	72.6 (7.4)
Female sex, No. (%)	15 (71.4)	15 (65.2)
Education, mean (SD), y	15.8 (2.3)	17.1 (2.6)
Caucasian race, No. (%)	21 (100)	22 (95.7)
Memory worse (ref: 5 y ago) ^b , No (%)	11 (52.4)	13 (56.5)
MMSE score, mean (SD)	28.9 (1.3)	28.7 (1.0)
MoCA score, mean (SD)	24.7 (1.7)	25.1 (2.1)
Fitness (pVO ₂ max) score, mean (SD)	27.6 (10.3)	27.8 (8.6)
Body mass index, mean (SD)	27.2 (3.9)	27.7 (4.4)
Medical history, No. (%)		
Hypertension	10 (47.6)	9 (39.1)
Hypercholesterolemia	8 (38.1)	10 (43.5)
Type 2 Diabetes	4 (19.0)	1 (4.3)
Myocardial infarction	3 (14.3)	0 (0)
Angina/Coronary Artery Disease	2 (9.5)	2 (8.7)
Former smoker ^c	10 (47.6)	13 (56.5)

Abbreviation: EO, Exercise Only; ECM, Exercise + Dual-Task; MMSE, Mini-Mental Status Examination; MoCA, Montreal Cognitive Assessment; pVO₂max, Predicted Maximal Oxygen Uptake

^aData were missing for pVO₂max score in 2 participants and for body mass index in 1.

Percentages are calculated excluding missing values (where applicable).

^bParticipants were asked to rate their memory on a scale of 5 (from much better to much worse)

^cThere were no current smokers in the study.

Table 2. Baseline Cognitive Scores by Randomization Group

Cognitive Test	EO Group (n = 21)	EDT Group (n = 23)
Executive Function/ Mental Flexibility		
Trails A, sec to complete	36.8 (17.3) ^a	29.8 (16.4) ^a
Trails B, sec to complete	80.9 (35.0) ^a	65.3 (42.6) ^a
Processing Speed		
DSST, no. correct	53.6 (12.2)	59.2 (12.3)
Verbal Learning and Memory		
AVLT, no. of words learned	43.6 (13.7)	42.3 (9.2)
AVLT, no. of words recalled ^b	7.7 (4.2)	8.2 (3.4)
Verbal Fluency		
No. of words, by category	19.5 (6.3)	19.7 (5.1)
No. of words, by letter	14.4 (4.2)	13.6 (3.9)

Abbreviation: EO, Exercise Only; EDT, Exercise + Dual-Task; DSST, Digit Symbol Substitution Test; AVLT, Auditory Verbal Learning Test

Note: Means (SD) are presented unless otherwise indicated.

^aMedians (Interquartile Range) presented due to skewness.

^bData missing for 1 participant.

Table 3. Standardized Mean Change in Cognitive Scores at 26 weeks by Randomization Group

Cognitive Test	Mean Standardized Change at 26 weeks (95% CI) ^a			P Value
	EO Group (n = 21)	EDT Group (n = 23)	Difference Between groups	
Global Cognitive Function Composite^b	0.22 (0.08 to 0.36)	0.42 (0.29 to 0.55)	0.20 (0.01 to 0.39)	0.04
Executive Function/ Mental Flexibility^c				
Trails A, sec to complete	-0.24 (-0.59 to 0.11)	-0.37 (-0.69 to -0.05)	-0.13 (-0.58 to 0.32)	0.56
Trails B, sec to complete	-0.19 (-0.64 to 0.26)	0.18 (-0.24 to 0.59)	0.37 (-0.23 to 0.96)	0.22
EF/MF Composite	-0.20 (-0.51 to 0.11)	-0.09 (-0.38 to 0.19)	0.11 (-0.31 to 0.52)	0.60
Processing Speed				
DSST, no. correct (PS Composite)	0.39 (0.08 to 0.70)	0.33 (0.05 to 0.61)	-0.06 (-0.48 to 0.36)	0.78
Verbal Learning and Memory				
AVLT, no. of words learned	0.56 (0.27 to 0.85)	1.19 (0.93 to 1.45)	0.63 (0.25 to 1.02)	0.002
AVLT, no. of words recalled	0.56 (0.22 to 0.89)	0.72 (0.41 to 1.02)	0.16 (-0.27 to 0.59)	0.45
VLM Composite	0.38 (0.18 to 0.58)	0.68 (0.50 to 0.86)	0.30 (0.04 to 0.56)	0.02
Verbal Fluency				
No. of words, by category	0.006 (-0.39 to 0.40)	0.54 (0.18 to 0.91)	0.54 (0.04 to 1.04)	0.04
No. of words, by letter	-0.01 (-0.38 to 0.36)	0.65 (0.31 to 0.99)	0.66 (0.17 to 1.15)	0.009
VF Composite	-0.03 (-0.33 to 0.27)	0.60 (0.32 to 0.87)	0.62 (0.22 to 1.02)	0.003

Abbreviation: EO, Exercise Only; EDT, Exercise + Dual-Task; EF/MF, Executive Function/ Mental Flexibility; DSST, Digit Symbol Substitution Test; PS, Processing Speed; AVLT, Auditory Verbal Learning Test; VLM, Verbal Learning and Memory; VF, Verbal Fluency

^aCalculated from linear mixed effects regression models that included terms for time (0, 12, 26 and 52 weeks) and group x time interaction. P values reflect statistical significance of the group x time interaction at 26 weeks (i.e., difference between groups in mean change at 26 weeks).

^bFor comparability reasons with the other tests and cognitive domains, the Trails A and Trails B scores were reverse coded and then standardized for inclusion within the global cognitive functioning composite.

^cDue to non-normality, original scores were log transformed prior to standardization.

Figure 1

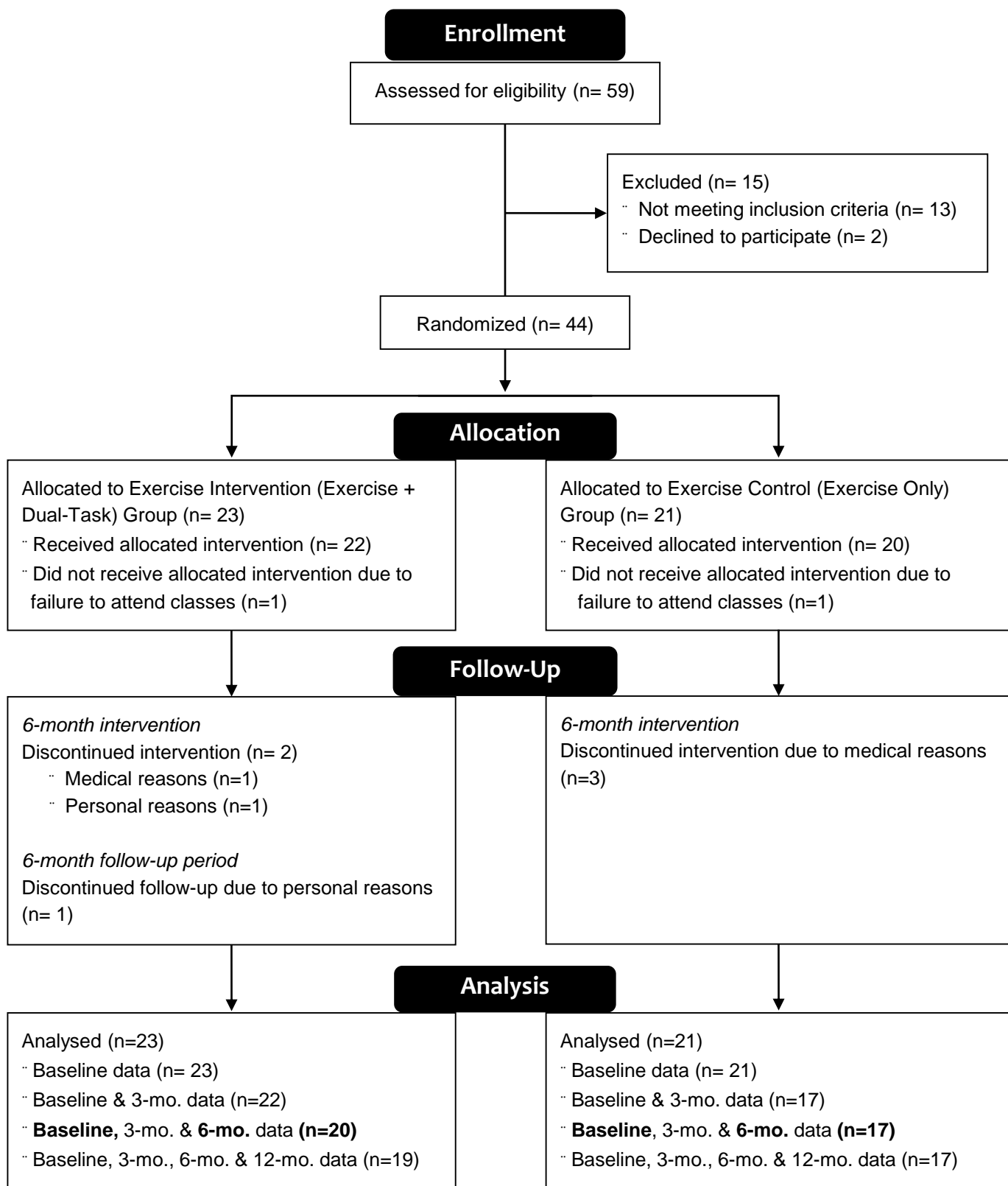


Figure 2

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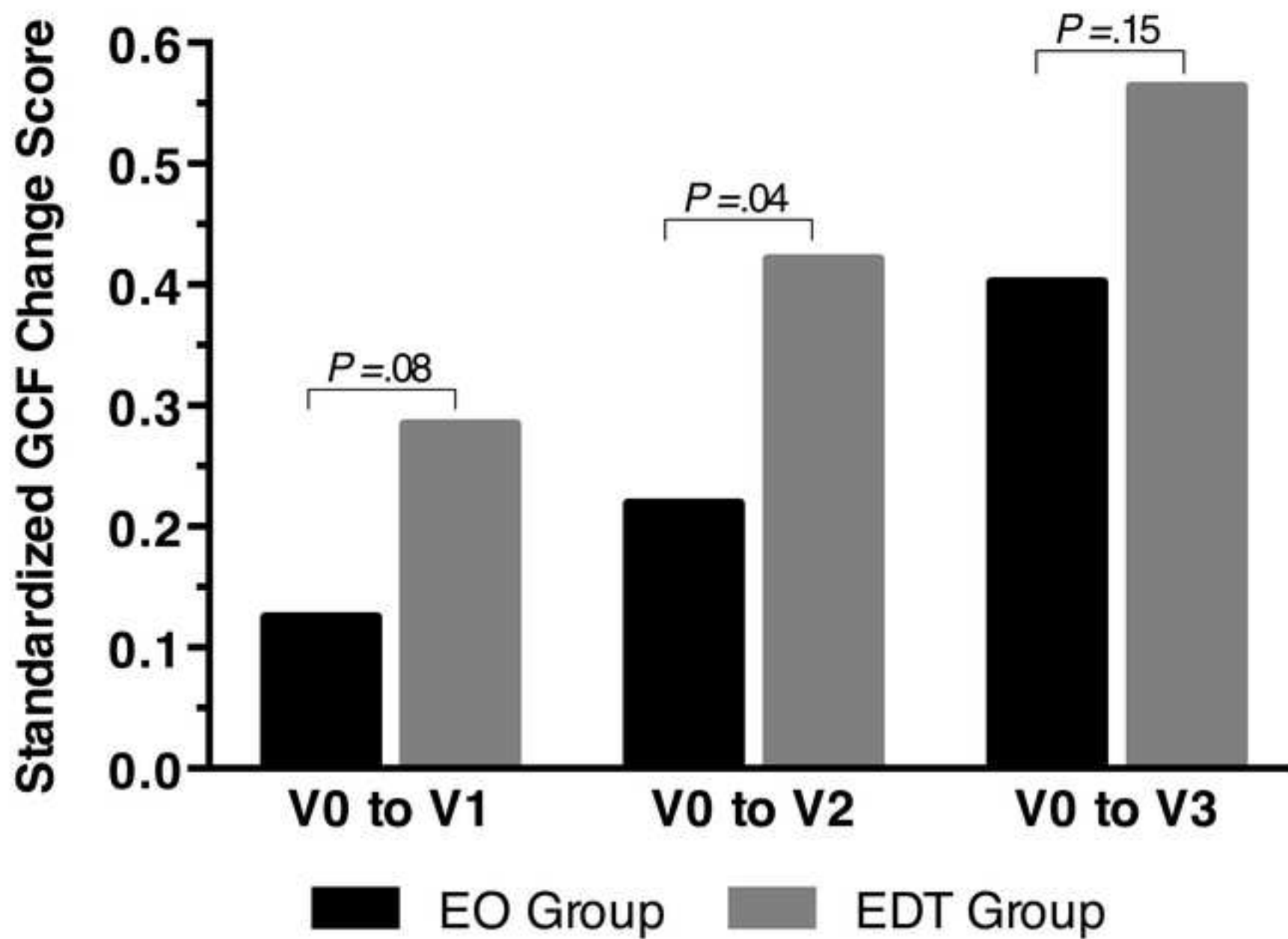
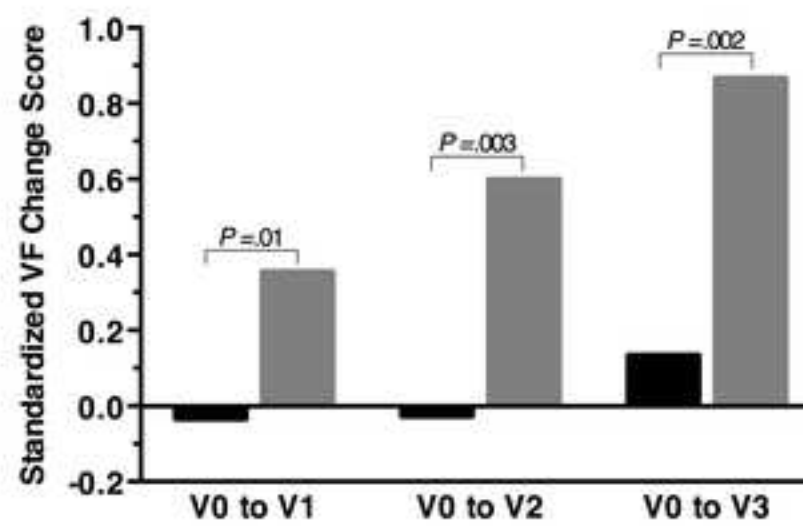
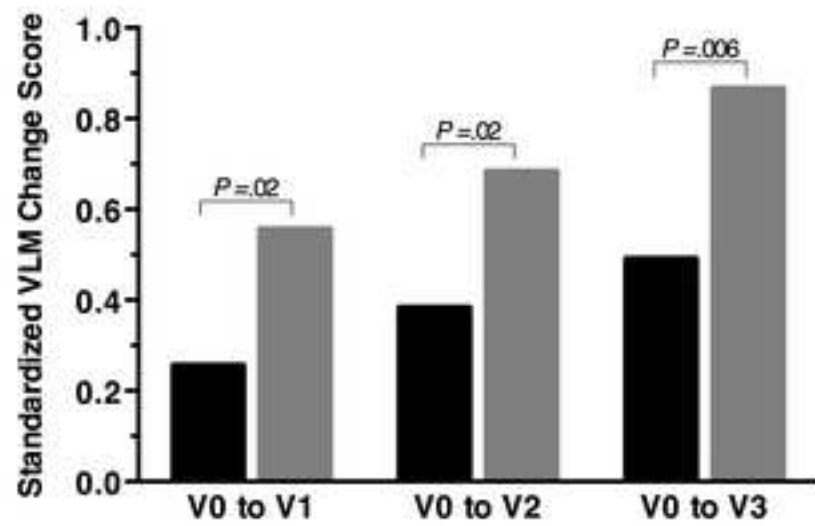
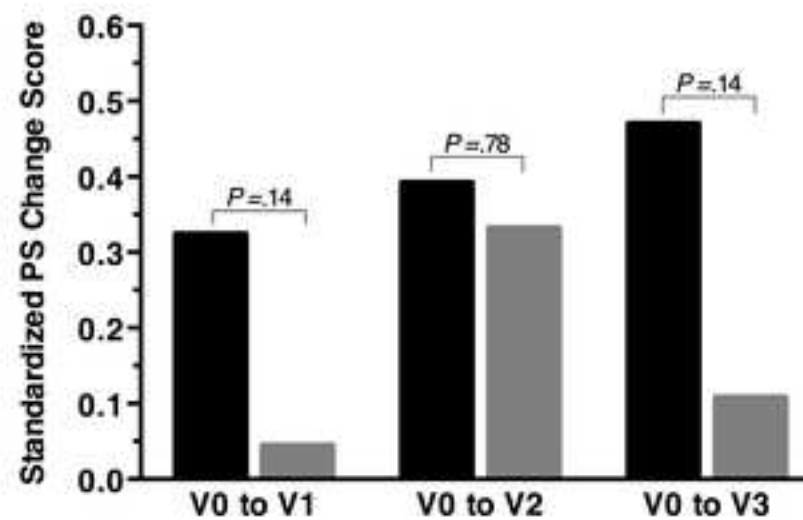
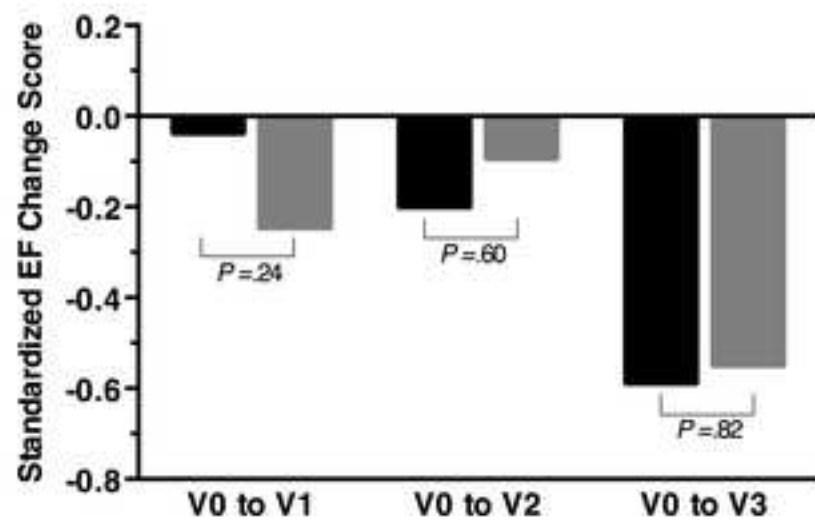


Figure 3
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■ EO Group ■ EDT Group