

Supplementary File A – Study Protocol and Search Strategy

1 Introduction

1.1 Rationale

Maintaining good cognitive and physical functioning plays a fundamental role in healthy aging and well-being (1-4). Nevertheless, the normal aging process is associated with structural and functional changes in the brain, that are associated with a gradual decline in physical and cognitive abilities, possibly limiting functional abilities of daily life and quality of life (1, 5-11). The functional decline exists on a continuum from healthy aging to pathological states like "mild cognitive impairment" or "dementia" (12-16). In 2015, 46.8 million people were living with dementia (17). The prevalence for mild neurocognitive disorders (mNCD) is more than twice as high as for dementia and ranges between 3 % and 54 % depending on the clinical classification (13, 14, 18-21). The globally growing life expectancy serves as a risk factor for cognitive decline and is accordingly expected to boost incidence and prevalence of neurocognitive disorders including dementia (13, 16, 18, 19, 22-24). A physically or cognitively sedentary lifestyle is another highly prevalent risk factor associated with cognitive decline and increased risk for cognitive impairment (e.g. dementia) in the aging population (25-28). Consequently, the worldwide prevalence of dementia is expected to nearly double every 20 years (12).

To counteract expected cognitive decline in individuals at risk, early detection and prevention of cognitive impairment is crucial (29). Adaptations in lifestyle can endorse a healthier aging process, improve the ageing immune system and slow down cognitive decline (30-33). Recent investigations have shown that non-pharmacological interventions (e.g. changes in lifestyle like physical activity, cognitive stimulation, and/or reductions of vascular risk factors) are powerful protectors for brain atrophy and cognitive decline (34-50). Especially simultaneous cognitive-motor training, often incorporated in exergames, seems to be effective to improve cognition and treating cognitive impairment in both HOA and older adults with mNCD (51-63) while they are, at the same time, able to improve physical (i.e. gait, mobility, activities of daily living) and psychosocial (i.e. motivation, anxiety, well-being, quality of life) (57, 64-70). Nevertheless, despite numerous investigations, it is currently difficult to draw reliable conclusions about the underlying mechanisms and effectiveness of exergames. This is mainly due to the large heterogeneities between studies and inconsistencies in reporting training compounds (52-55, 66-68, 71). Therefore, further investigations are needed "to establish the neurobiological mechanisms and effective components of exergames for cognition and apply this understanding in the development of evidence-based exergame interventions" (54).

In most training studies, exercise programs are developed and applied based on scientific literature, guidelines, and recommendations in combination with the practical experience of coaches. This approach requires that training programs are prescribed on a group level without information on how the individual has responded to previous training sessions. However, such an approach may lead to success on a group level but might, at the same time, might hide inter-individual differences in training response. The response of (older) individuals to different training modalities (e.g. types and intensities) depends on individual capabilities such as cognitive abilities, physical fitness and motor abilities, as well as demographic characteristics (e.g. age, gender, health status, and the socioemotional status

including motivation, mood, or stress) (72-74). To overcome this limitation of a generalized exercise program offering, suggestions are made towards an individualized approach and application of adapted exercise prescription (75). As an example, Herold et al. (2019) recommend tailoring exercise loads (e.g. by manipulating exercise intensity) to the capabilities of each individual person. Optimally, the exercise parameters are operationalized and adapted to the individual, using specific markers of the internal training load, to provide comparable inter-individual exercise doses (75). This approach is believed allowing further insights into dose-response relationships and to result in more distinct training effects (75, 76).

Exercise dose is defined as , a product of exercise variables (e.g. exercise intensity, exercise duration, type of exercise), training variables (e.g. frequency of training sessions), and the application of training principles and should be operationalized by using a specific marker(s) of internal load" (32, 59, 75, 77- 81). The internal training load, hence, is supposed to determine training outcomes (82). Thus, internal training load can be used and should be monitored as a primary parameter to maximize training benefits (82). It can be described as acute individual response (i.e. biomechanical, physiological, and/or psychological response(s)) to training characteristics (external load) and other influencing factors (e.g. climatic conditions, equipment, ground condition) (82).

An optimal measure of internal training load should reflect the "actual psychophysiological response that the body initiates to cope with the requirements elicited by the external load" (82). During cognitive-motor training (e.g. exergaming), the internal training load is mainly influenced by neurocognitive task demands and the physical exercise intensity (83). Comprehensive guidelines and checklists are available that provide classifications of training load regarding physical exercise intensity (e.g. percentage of individual maximal heart rate) (75, 84-87). Therefore, objective monitoring of the relative physical intensity is readily applicable. However, for neurocognitive task demands – that serve as the driving mechanisms for task-specific neuroplasticity (83) – it is difficult to quantify the internal training load. So far, subjective measures as rating of perceived task difficulty or cognitive effort, objective performance measures (e.g. reaction time, accuracy, error rate), physiological measures including cardiac measures (e.g. heart rate, HRV, blood pressure), brain activity (e.g. task-evoked electric brain potentials), and eye activity (e.g. pupillary dilation, blink rate) have been used to assess training load related to neurocognitive task demands (88-90).

According to the 'cardiovascular reactivity hypothesis' (91), real-time monitoring of cardiovascular responses to physical or cognitive stressors provide useful insights into individual psychophysiological response patterns. Effort-related cardiovascular reactivity was reported to be related to cognitive (i.e. executive functioning) as well as physical (i.e. aerobic fitness, exercise performance) capabilities (92, 93). Therefore, monitoring cardiovascular reactivity could be useful to evaluate training adaptations and may additionally be predictive of certain health conditions (92, 94-99). In particular, quantifying beat-to-beat variation of the duration between heart beats (i.e. R-R-Interval), referred to as HRV, has gained considerable interest in diverse fields (100). HRV reflects cardiac autonomic activity (i.e. parasympathetic modulation), which indicates the capability of the autonomic nervous system to respond flexibly to external stimuli and is sensitive to psychophysiological stressors (101-105). In fact, recent systematic reviews have concluded, that real-time HRV is sensitive to task demands (e.g. difficulty, complexity, duration) related to cognitive and mental effort in older adults with and without cognitive impairment (89, 106-110). Furthermore, real-time HRV measures are suitable to distinguish between different intensities and durations of physical exercises (e.g. cardiorespiratory) (111-113).

Taken together, HRV seems to hold promise as a biomarker to monitor internal training load of motorcognitive training. This would enable individualized training adaptations that, in turn, would allow the

application of the optimal individual exercise dose and progression. To gain a better understanding of the possible applications of HRV reactivity (i.e. the change from resting state to on-task HRV), and to evaluate whether HRV indeed could be used as a proxy measure for internal training load, it is important to establish a comprehensive understanding of moderating variables on HRV reactivity in HOA.

1.2 Objectives

The aim of this systematic review and meta-analysis will be: (a) to summarize relevant literature monitoring HRV reactivity to (1) cognitive exercises, (2) physical exercises, and (3) simultaneous cognitive-motor training in HOA, and; (b) to evaluate key moderating parameters influencing phasic HRV responses during these exercises.

1.2.1 PICOS-scheme

1.2.2 Research Questions

What are the key factors affecting phasic HRV responses during (1) physical exercises, (2) cognitive exercises, and (3) simultaneous cognitive-motor training?

2 Methods

2.1 Protocol

This protocol for a systematic review with meta-analysis was developed in accordance with the established guidelines from the "preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015 statement" [84].

2.2 Information sources

The databases Medline (EBSCO), Embase, Cochrane Library, CINAHL, Psycinfo, Web of Science, Scopus, Pedro will be consulted for publications up to Mai 2020 by a professional librarian of the University of Zurich.

2.3 Search Strategy

In order to identify the key articles for the study objectives, a search strategy was developed based on the PICOS approach and the predefined eligibility criteria. In collaboration with a professional librarian of the University of Zurich, the search strategy was translated into precise search strings for each database. The search string consisted of medical subject headings (MeSH), free text words and Boolean operators. They were constructed to combine predefined terms for population (e.g. adult), intervention (e.g. exercise, training, cognition, cognitive challenge, mental effort, processing speed), outcome (e.g. autonomic nervous system, real-time heart rate variability, cardiac autonomic response, neurophysiological measure) and study type (e.g. controlled clinical trial, cross-over, epidemiologic study). Within these groups, all terms were combined with OR operators. The search strings were applied without using further filtering options or limits. Please consider Appendix C1 for the complete search strategy and search strings.

2.4 Eligibility Criteria

Controlled clinical trials assessing acute responses in real-time HRV during (1) physical exercises, (2) cognitive exercise, and (3) simultaneous cognitive-motor training will be considered for this systematic review.

Studies will be considered eligible if they fulfill the following criteria:

2.4.1 Inclusion criteria

- Studies written in English
- Subjects: Healthy middle-aged to older adults (\geq 50 years)
- Real-time monitoring of heart rate variability at rest AND during
	- (1) physical exercises (e.g. cardiorespiratory exercise, resistance exercises or neuromotor exercise training as defined by the American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM) [82]),
	- (2) cognitive exercise (i.e. cognitive tasks requiring specific cognitive processes (e.g. attentional, executive, memory or visuo-spatial functions)), or
	- (3) simultaneous cognitive-motor training (as defined by [83])
- heart rate variability measured by validated devices based on electrocardiography, photoplethysmography or pulsoxymetry

2.4.2 Exclusion criteria

- Studies published before 1996
- Reviews, Meta-Analysis, Preliminary Reports, Dissertations, Conference Abstracts, Posters
- HRV measurement do not meet standards of measurement defined by [85]
- No quantitative HRV parameters reported
- Studies focusing on chronic stress, stress management or HRV-biofeedback training

2.5 Study records

2.5.1 Data management and selection process

All records will be systematically screened using the software EPPI-Reviewer Web (Version: 4.11.1.1) [86]. The provided standard coding schema will be adapted to meet all eligibility criteria. The screening and selection process will be pilot tested and executed by two independent reviewers (PM, MT). After removing duplicates, title and abstract of all records will be screened according to the PICOS-criteria. The remaining studies will be screened for eligibility criteria by executing a full-text analysis. Finally, the retrieved results will be matched and discussed for final inclusion by (PM, MT). In case of disagreements, (EdB) will serve as referee. By calculating Cohen's kappa, the strength of the interrater agreement of the study selection process will be rated to be poor (0), slight $(0.1 - 0.20)$, fair (0.21) -0.40), moderate (0.41 – 0.60), substantial (0.61 – 0.80), and almost perfect (0.81 – 1.0) [87-89].

2.5.2 Data collection process

Data will be extracted by two independent reviewers (PM, MT) using the software EPPI-Reviewer Web (Version: 4.11.1.1) [86]. The extracted data will be compared after completion of the data collection process. In case of mismatches, (MA) will inspect the discrepancies and approve the final data set.

2.6 Data items and Outcomes

Information will be extracted from each included trial on: (1) study characteristics (i.e. author, year of publication, study design), (2) demographic characteristics of all study participants (i.e. number, sex, age, population characteristics), (3) type, duration and intensity/complexity of intervention(s), (4) type and duration of resting-state measurements, (5) HRV measurement techniques and device, (6) overview over the controlling of confounders in each study, and (7) outcome measures (all available HR and HRV-parameters) including moderators. Only outcome-measures meeting the standards of HRV measurement will be included [85].

2.7 Risk of bias in individual studies

Methodological quality of all included studies will be assessed by two independent reviewers (PM, MT) using the Quality Assessment Tool for Quantitative Studies (QATQS) of the Effective Public Health Practice Project assessment tool (EPHPP) and its corresponding guidelines [90-92]. This tool was developed to evaluate the methodological quality of a variety of study designs, including randomized and non-randomized controlled trials, as well as observational studies [92]. The EPHPP was judged to be a suitable and reliable tool for systematic reviews and demonstrated content and construct validity [92, 93]. The tool comprises 14 items separated into six components: (1) sample selection, (2) study design, (3) identification and treatment of confounders, (4) blinding of outcome

assessors and of participants, (5) reliability and validity of data collection methods, and (6) withdrawals and dropouts. Each component will be rated strong, moderate, or weak according to objective criteria of the standardized guidelines and dictionary. The overall methodological quality of each study will be considered strong (i.e. no weak ratings), moderate (i.e. one weak rating) or weak (i.e. two or more weak ratings) [90-92]. In case of disagreements, RK will serve as referee.

Confounders that will be considered in the analysis of methodological quality [94]:

- (1) Age and gender
- (2) Smoking
- (3) Habitual levels of alcohol consumption
- (4) Weight, height and waist-to-hip ratio
- (5) Cardioactive medication, such as antidepressant, antipsychotic or antihypertensive
- (6) Oral contraceptive intake for female participants
- (7) Follow a normal sleep routine the day before the experiment, record the typical bedtime and typical waking time
- (8) No intense physical training the day before the experiment
- (9) No meal the last 2 h before the experiment
- (10) No coffee or caffeinated drinks such as energizing drinks or in the 2 h before the experiment
- (11) Ask if they need to use the bathroom before the experiment begins
- (12) No alcohol for 24h prior to the experiment

2.8 Data Synthesis

Only studies with moderate to strong methodological qualities and outcome-measures meeting the standards of HRV measurement evaluated by a validated device will be considered for the quantitative synthesis [85, 95]. Outcome measures reflecting mainly cardiac vagal tone were included in hierarchical order: (1) RMSSD, (2) pNN50, (3) HFnu, (4) HF, and (5) SD1 (119, 120, 125, 130-132). Both, absolute and log-transformed values, were synthesized according to the Cochrane guidelines (133).

A pooled estimate will be calculated for HRV reactivity by conducting a meta-analysis in R (R Version R 3.6.2 GUI 1.70 El Capitan build (7735) (© The R Foundation)) in line with RStudio Version 1.2.5033 (RStudio, Inc.) [99] using a fixed-effects model of the 'metaphor' package [100] to calculate standardized mean differences (hedge's g) [100] and 95 % confidence intervals between HRV on-task and resting HRV. Hedge's g will be used due to its benefit for correcting biases found in small sample sizes. Level of significance will be set to $p \le 0.05$ and effect sizes will be interpreted to be small (d < 0.5), medium $(0.5 \le d \le 0.8)$ or large $(d > 0.8)$ [101].

A planned subgroup analysis will be performed for cognitive tasks, physical exercises (i.e. cardiorespiratory exercises and resistance training) and cognitive-motor training. Furthermore, to evaluate the effect of age and cognitive function, further planned subgroup analyses will be performed to compare resting- and on-task values of HRV as well as HRV reactivity (i.e. difference between HRV on-task and resting HRV) for all available intervention with (1) healthy adults (i.e. \leq 50 years), and (2) older adults with cognitive impairment (i.e. defined as a Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA) score below 26, which is used as a cut-off point to detect mild cognitive impairment [102]). Each subgroup analysis will be performed by using random-effects model comparisons.

2.9 Risk of bias across studies

Possible sources of heterogeneity among trials will be investigated by using Cochrane Q in line with I² statistics. In case of significant heterogeneity, indicated by significant Q-statistics ($p < 0.05$), random-effect models will be employed [103]. To detect possible publication bias, funnel plots (i.e. standard error) will be assessed both visually and formally with Egger's test [104, 105]. When publication biases will be indicated (i.e. Egger's regression test: $p < 0.1$), sensitivity analyses will be performed by (1) comparing fixed- and random-effect models, and (2) applying a sensitivity analysis based on the trim and fill method for random-effects models. The trim and fill method redresses funnel plot asymmetries by adjusting the point estimated of the pooled effect sizes and 95 % confidence intervals for missing studies [106].

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3.1 Appendix C1: Search Strategy

3.2 Step 1: Define search terms

3.2.1 Mesh-Terms:

3.2.2 Text words:

3.3 Step 2: Define relevant databases

- o Medline (EBSCO)
- o Embase
- o Cochrane Library
- o CINAHL
- o Psycinfo
- o Web of Science
- o Scopus, Pedro

3.4 Step 3: Define structure of search strings

- o Link population, intervention, outcome and study type using the Boolean operator "OR"
- o Limit outcomes to real-time measurements of HRV:
	- o Term "acute" has to be in proximity to the terms "measure*", "response*"
	- o Terms "cardiac", "flexib*", "response*" hve to be in proximity to the term "autonomic"
- \circ Link search terms within these groups using the Boolean operator "OR"
- o Exclude animals, infants, children, adolescents

3.5 Step 4: Synthesize strategy into search strings for each database

3.6 Appendix C2: PRISMA-P 2015 Checklist

This checklist has been adapted for use with protocol submissions to Systematic Reviews from Table 3 in Moher D et al: Preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015 statement. *Systematic Reviews* 2015 4:1 [84]

Supplementary Material

