Title	Dual-Task Interference Slows Down Proprioception
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1	Dual-task interference	slows down	proprioception

Abstract

2	It is well-known that multitasking impairs the performance of one or both of the concomitant
3	ongoing tasks. Previous studies have mainly focused on how a secondary task can compromise
4	visual or auditory information processing. However, despite dual tasking being critical to motor
5	performance, the effects of dual task performance on proprioceptive information processing
6	have not been studied yet. The purpose of the present study was therefore to investigate whether
7	sensorimotor task performance would be affected by the dual task and if so, in which phase of
8	the sensorimotor task performance would this negative effect occur. The kinematic variables of
9	passive and active knee movements elicited by the leg-drop test were analyzed. Thirteen young
10	adults participated in the study. The dual task consisted of performing serial subtractions. The
11	results showed that the dual task increased both the reaction time to counteract passive knee-
12	joint movements in the leg drop test and the threshold to detect those movements. Speed, time
13	during the active knee movement, and the absolute angle error between the final angle and the
14	target knee angle were not affected by the dual task. Furthermore, the results showed that the
15	time to complete the sensorimotor task was prolonged in dual tasking. Our findings suggest that
16	dual-tasking reduces motor performance due to slowing down proprioceptive information
17	processing without affecting movement execution.

- **Keywords:** dual-task interference, proprioceptive information processing, movement execution,
- 2 motor performance, working memory, joint movement

Introduction

Many activities in daily life involve dual- or multitasking; for example, talking while walking, cooking, or driving. When a primary task coexists along with other tasks, it requires considerable attention to simultaneously perform both the primary and the secondary task successfully (Theill et al., 2011). In general, the performance of either the primary or secondary task is compromised in dual tasking, and this is more noticeable in older adults (Verhaeghen et al., 2003; Wasylyshyn et al., 2011).

Dual task paradigms are mostly used in research of concurrent cognitive and motor tasks. Most dual-task studies have exploited visual or auditory information as input modalities and speech or limb movements as output modalities (Guerreiro et al., 2014; Wollesen & Voelcker-Rehage, 2014). "Stop walking when talking" is a well-known admonition referring to the typical compromising effects of dual tasks, as remarked by Lundin-Olsson et al. (1997). Indeed, older adults are often unable to keep walking properly when they are called by someone, whereas young adults can. Since the aforementioned study, many researchers have investigated the effect of dual-task interference on walking and maintaining balance in rehabilitation and sports (Bayot et al.,

2020). The dual-task effects on balance and gait have indeed gained a certain reputation as a predictor of fall risk in older adults (Verhaeghen et al., 2003). Surprisingly, some studies have reported that dual tasks sometimes improve motor performance, in particular during rehabilitation patients with motor disorders in clinical settings (Abdallat et al., 2020; Bishnoi & Hernandez, 2021; Ness et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2021). However, dual-task effects do not always agree with those reported in earlier studies (Deblock-Bellamy et al., 2020; Ness et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2021; Shumway-Cook & Woollacott, 2000; Resch et al., 2011) and it is suggested that diverging results may be due to problems of the reliability and measurement accuracy issues in motor performance assessments (Ness et al., 2020). Accordingly, the superiority of dual-tasks over single task in improving motor performance remains a topic of discussion (Bayot et al., 2020).

As mentioned, other studies have raised concerns over the methodology in testing or the measurements for each task (Bishnoi & Hernandez, 2021; Verhaeghen et al., 2003). In most previous studies, descriptions have been limited to motor performance results, for example, measuring the velocity and step length in walking and the trajectory length of the center of pressure changes within a rectangular area in balancing (Resch et al., 2011; Shumway-Cook & Woollacott, 2000). Motor performance, however, almost always also requires sensory information processing during movement execution. There is no evidence to demonstrate that dual-task performance hampers sensory information processing during movement execution.

1 The link between sensory information processing (visual, vestibular, and somatosensory 2 sensation processing) and movement execution is essential to the accurate accomplishment of 3 many sensorimotor tasks in which sensory information is essential to monitor one's own 4 performance (Parker et al., 2020; Bertucco & Cesari, 2010). However, previous studies have 5 focused on sensory input only as separate auditory or visual tasks (Deblock-Bellamy et al., 2020; 6 Humes & Young, 2016; Verhaeghen et al., 2003), while only a few studies (Relph et al., 2014; 7 Skinner & Barrack, 1991), despite the key role of such sensory-information processing in postural 8 control (Baert et al., 2018; Relph & Herrington, 2016; Yasuda et al., 2014; Zandiyeh et al., 2019; 9 Witchalls et al., 2012). The purpose of the present study was to investigate whether dual-task 10 interference would also affect sensory information processing in have examined dual-tasks' 11 effects on proprioception (joint-position sense and kinesthetic sense) movement execution. 12 Specifically, we focused on movement execution and proprioceptive sensation related to postural 13 and motor control as measured with the leg drop test. Magrini et al. (2018) emphasized that two 14 senses are inextricably implicated in knee motion, that is, joint position sense and kinesthetic 15 sense (Relph et al., 2014; Skinner & Barrack, 1991). We hypothesized that dual tasking would 16 interfere with sensorimotor performance, possibly through interference with sensory information 17 processing. Kinematic variables obtained in the leg drop test allowed us to differentiate between 18 sensory information processing and movement execution because the task consists of an

1 alternation between active movement generation and passive movement control.

Methods

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Participants

4 Thirteen healthy young adults (8 males and 5 females, mean age \pm standard deviation: 5 25.3 ± 2.0 years, age range 23–30 years) participated in this study. Sample size and significance 6 level were verified as adequate by G*Power, with the effect size set at 0.4, power at 0.8, and alpha 7 at 0.05 (Faul et al., 2007), according to Cohen's criteria (Cohen, 1988). Participants with any 8 current or history of orthopedic or neurological diseases were excluded from this study. Prior to 9 inclusion, the participants were provided with information regarding this study and were required 10 to sign an informed consent form. This study was approved by the review board of the Faculty of 11 Health Sciences, Hokkaido University (20-18) and was conducted in accordance with the 12 principles of the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki.

Procedure

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The leg drop test

This study used the leg drop test (Magrini et al., 2018) to assess two senses during knee flexion as the dual-task's primary task: kinesthetic sense and joint-position sense (De Jong, 1993; Lund et al., 2008; Ouattas et al., 2019; Relph et al., 2014; Skinner & Barrack, 1991). The participants sat on a chair with a height adjustment function, with their arms crossed. The

1 participants wore headphones and an eye mask to block any visual and auditory input regarding 2 knee movement. The distal part of the lower leg on the dominant side (the kicking ball side) was 3 fixed at 30° of knee flexion (Ouattas et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2013) using a customized fixation-4 and-release device with an electromagnet (Fig. 1) and participants were asked to memorize this 5 knee angle (the reference angle) for assessing the joint-position sense (Zandiyeh et al., 2019). 6 Then, the lower leg was dropped at a random time to make knee motion unpredictable. The distal 7 part of the lower leg was not allowed to move laterally (in the direction orthogonal to the vertical 8 direction of flexion) in order to maintain the starting knee position and minimize cutaneous 9 sensory input. Following the leg drop, participants were instructed to return their knee to the 10 reference angle (30° of knee flexion) as quickly as possible and then maintain it there (Relph et 11 al., 2014; Skinner & Barrack, 1991).

Cognitive task

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This study used the serial subtraction task (serial subtraction in sevens from 100) as the dualtask's secondary task (Bishnoi & Hernandez, 2021). The instruction regarding the cognitive task
was to name the correct numbers as quickly as possible. Examiners monitored right, wrong, and
delayed responses. Thus, the primary task was the sensorimotor one, while the secondary task
added was the serial subtraction task. Each such dual task was performed three times, that is, each
participant underwent three subsequent leg drop tests, each time with the same instructions

- 1 regarding the motor and cognitive tasks and with the experimenter letting go of the leg at a random
- 2 time to make it unpredictable. If participants requested it, rest was allowed between the tasks.

Kinematic data and data analysis

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4 The knee angle was measured with an electronic goniometer (MLTS700 Goniometer, 5 ADInstrument, Castle Hill, Australia). Knee motion was digitized with sensors attached to the 6 thigh and shank, as recommended by the Biometrics guidebook (Biometrics, 2002). Each sensor 7 was firmly fixed to the skin with double-sided medical tape and covered with single-sided tape to 8 minimize displacement of the sensors. PowerLab system (PowerLab/16sp, ADInstrument, Castle 9 Hill, Australia) was used for analog-to-digital conversion, and all signals from the electronic 10 goniometer and electromagnet were sampled at 1 kHz and stored for further analysis using 11 PowerLab system's Chart software (Chart version 5.4.2, ADInstrument, Castle Hill, Australia). 12 Data processing and analysis of knee angle and electromagnet data were performed using 13 a customized MATLAB program (R2018, MathWorks, Eindhoven, Netherlands). If the 14 participant did not perform the motor task during one of the three trials in the sensorimotor task, 15 that trial was excluded from data analysis, and another trial would added to complete the study. 16 This accident occurred in less than one trial per subject (the added trial was designed to have three 17 analytical data per person for each condition). The knee angle data were smoothed with a second-18 order low-pass bidirectional Butterworth filter with a cut-off frequency of 10 Hz (Kasahara &

1 Saito, 2021). Figure 2 shows a prototype sample of the collected data. The onset of knee motion 2 (D1) was defined as the first point at which the knee flexion angle exceeded 5% of the maximum 3 knee flexion from baseline. The endpoint of knee motion (D4) was defined as the first point where 4 the knee flexion angle decreased within the range of 5% of the maximum knee flexion in its trial 5 and continued for over 500 ms (Kasahara & Saito, 2021). Kinesthetic sense was defined as the 6 ability to detect passive motion (Ramstrand et al., 2019; Proske & Gandevia, 2018; Relph et al., 7 2014) and was assessed as reaction time and angle amplitude (angle threshold) between the 8 reference angle at D1 and the point of maximum knee flexion at D2 (Fig. 2). Joint-position sense 9 was assessed as the absolute difference (the error) between the final angle at D4 and the reference 10 angle at D1 (Ramstrand et al., 2019; Proske & Gandevia, 2018; Relph et al., 2014). Active knee 11 movement was assessed by the average angular velocity from D2 to D4. In addition, the return 12 time was defined as the time from D2 to D4, including both joint-position sense and active knee 13 movement. Knee movement during the leg drop was passive, while knee movement during the 14 return time was active. The total time for the sensorimotor task was defined as the time from the 15 onset (D1) to the endpoint of the knee motion (D4) including kinesthetic sense, joint-position 16 sense, and active knee movement. 17 Ten of the thirteen participants performed the secondary experiment after 1 week to 18 examine test-retest reliability of the original sensorimotor task, and the interclass correlation

- 1 coefficients in all measurements were 0.62–0.91. The lowest return time was assessed as modest
- 2 (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979).

Statistical analysis

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4 All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS Statistics version 18.0 (IBM Corp., 5 Armonk, NY, USA). All data are presented as mean ± standard deviation. Normality of the data 6 was examined using the Shapiro-Wilk test, and the comparison between the single and dual task 7 was performed using a paired t-test or the Wilcoxon signed rank test. Cohen's d was calculated as 8 the effect size for paired t-test and interpreted as small (0.2), medium (0.5), and large (0.8). For 9 Wilcoxon signed rank test, effect sizes r were calculated and interpreted as small (0.1), medium 10 (0.3), and large (0.5) (Cohen, 2013). To confirm the strength of evidence of the null hypothesis 11 (there are no differences between the two conditions) and alternative hypothesis (differences 12 exist between the two conditions), the Bayes factor (BF) was calculated assuming uninformative 13 priors for all statistical analysis. Data for BF are presented as BF01 (null hypothesis given 14 alternative hypothesis) and can be interpreted as evidence to support the hypotheses based on 15 previously defined thresholds. BF01 = 1-3 and 3-10 represent anecdotal and moderate strength 16 evidence for H0, respectively; whereas BF01 = 0.33-1. 0.1-0.33, and less than 0.01 represent 17 anecdotal, moderate, and extreme evidence for H1, respectively (Lee & Wagenmakers, 2014). All 18 statistical significance levels were set at a p-value of <0.05.

Results

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- The reaction time for knee motion was significantly longer in dual tasking (473.5 ± 137.2)
- 3 ms) compared to single tasking $(384.7 \pm 133.7 \text{ ms})$ (Z = -3.18, p < 0.001, r = 0.88, BF01 = 0.002)
- 4 (Fig. 3A). No significant difference was found in return time between the dual task (730.2 ± 208.7
- 5 ms) and single task $(637.8 \pm 176.6 \text{ ms})$ (t = -1.36, df = 12, p = 0.204, d = 0.37, BF01 = 2.157)
- 6 (Fig. 3B). A significant difference in mean total time for the sensorimotor task between the dual
- 7 task (1203.7 \pm 270.1 ms) and single task (1022.5 \pm 252.5 ms) (t = -2.34, df = 12, p = 0.038, d=
- 8 0.65, BF01 = 0.567) was shown (Fig. 3C).
- 9 The angle threshold in the dual task $(30.3^{\circ} \pm 14.3^{\circ})$ was significantly larger than that in the single
- 10 task $(25.0^{\circ} \pm 16.4^{\circ})$ (Z = -2.38.03, p = 0.017, r = 0.66, BF01 = 0.187) (Fig. 4A). There was no
- significant difference in absolute errors of joint-position sense between tasks (single task: $1.8 \pm$
- 12 1.2°; dual task: 2.0 ± 1.4 °, t = 0.35, df = 12, p = 0.732, r = 0.10, BF01 = 4.552) (Fig. 4B). No
- significant difference was found in the average angular velocity of active knee movement during
- D2-D4 between the dual task $(33.3 \pm 12.5^{\circ}/s)$ and single task $(31.9 \pm 15.6^{\circ}/s)$ (t = -0.72, p = 0.488, t = -0.72, p = 0.48
- 15 d = 0.20, BF01 = 3.79).

Discussion

- 17 This study aimed to verify the dual-task interference on sensorimotor performance using
- 18 the overlapping dual task which consists of the original leg drop test sensorimotor task as the

1 primary task with an added cognitive task as the secondary task. In agreement with previous

studies, the current kinematic data-based study showed that sensorimotor performance was

affected during the dual task. Furthermore, our findings revealed that interference in sensorimotor

performance during the dual task resulted from the delay in kinesthetic sense responsiveness

rather than an impairment in movement execution.

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In the overlapping dual task (Brisson & Jolicoeur, 2007; De Jong, 1993; Schubert & Szameitat, 2003) of this study, the cognitive task preceded the sensorimotor task. In agreement with a previous study (Kim & Brunt, 2007), the reaction time for the latter task (i.e., the sensorimotor task) was delayed. Kinesthetic sense is generally assessed using the threshold to detect passive movement (Relph et al., 2014; Skinner & Barrack, 1991). Instead of pressing a stop button switch (Naderi et al., 2020; Zandiyeh et al., 2019), participants were instructed to stop the knee movement and then return to the original knee position as quickly as possible. Our participants could concentrate on their knee joint movement because our task did not require any motion, except knee motion. Therefore, participants could detect joint movements with a high level of concentration during a single task. However, owing to the dual task, participant's attention was given to processing the preceding (or ongoing) task and therefore, attention given to the secondary task was reduced. Regarding the sensorimotor test, previous studies (Relph & Herrington, 2016; Skinner et al., 1984; Yasuda et al., 2014) have reported that results were

affected by the magnitude of attention to the movement. Hospod et al. (2007) suggested that proprioceptive attention may induce fusimotor control of the muscle spindle sensitivity. Furthermore, if sensory input is added, a central bottleneck has already been built due to the limitation exerted on the information processing system, according to Treisman's model (Treisman, 1964). The central bottleneck delays subsequent sensorimotor processing, including the identification of the stimulus, response selection, and transformation from sensory input to motor output (Brisson & Jolicoeur, 2007; De Jong, 1993; Pashler, 1994; Wickens, 2002). Therefore, it is considered that the decline in attention and processing capacity due to dual-task interference causes a raised threshold in kinesthetic sense, resulting in a reaction delay. General clinical methods for the joint-position sense require participants to temporarily

memorize the knee position (Lund et al., 2008; Naderi et al., 2020; Wickens, 2002; Zandiyeh et al., 2019). This temporary memory is called "the working memory" (Yasuda et al., 2014; Wickens, 2002). The sensorimotor task in the current study also required participants to memorize their original position during the preceding task (the first task) of the dual task. Previous studies have suggested that the working memory is important for encoding proprioceptive inputs (Yasuda et al., 2014; Wickens, 2002). It is documented that older adults with poor working memory perform worse in the joint-position sense test during dual-task which suggests that the attention demand of the cognitive task might influence the working memory during the joint-position sense-based

1 task aspect (Goble et al., 2012; Yasuda et al., 2014). Although our study expected that the working

memory in young adults would also be affected by the presently concomitant exploited dual task

and the joint-position sense would decrease, no dual task effect on joint-position sense was shown.

4 This is possibly due to the content to be memorized being straightforward and single task aspect,

i.e. participants only needed to memorize a particular (reference) joint angle. Moreover, all

participants were young adults.

Active muscle contraction increases the muscle spindle and Golgi tendon organ responsiveness, and may consequently increase the sensitivity of Ia ending to small motion (Taylor & McCloskey, 1992). Several studies have reported that the error in joint-position sense during active motion is small compared to that during passive motion (Laufer et al., 2001; Stelmach et al., 1975; Yasuda et al., 2014). A possible explanation for these results is the concomitance of an efferent copy (Kawato & Wolpert, 1998; Wolpert & Ghahramani, 2000) with an afferent proprioceptive information from the fusimotor system (Granit, 1972). Moreover, increased co-contraction is thought to contribute to declined sensory input in patients with anterior cruciate ligament reconstruction (Song et al., 2018) and in older adults (Madhavan & Shields, 2005). In this study, we did not find any dual-task interference with joint-position sense, which suggests that active muscles may contribute to joint position sensory input such that it is more difficult to observe joint position sensory interference by dual tasks in young adults. This provides

1 further theoretical support for muscle training to improve balance and sports performance.

2 Recently, walking and balancing tasks have been used to analyze how cognitive loads 3 may sometimes improve motor performance in rehabilitation and sports (Bayot et al., 2020; 4 Bishnoi & Hernandez, 2021; Deblock-Bellamy et al., 2020; Fritz et al., 2015; Sobol et al., 2016). 5 However, to the best of our knowledge, the benefit of dual-task exercises on motor performance 6 is still debatable in clinical settings, and the specific training to compensate for the deficit of motor 7 performance during the dual task is not known. Shumway-Cook and Woollacott (2000) used the 8 dual task of a standing balance task and auditory task and reported that cognitive and attention 9 load did not influence balance stabilization among various degrees of sensory impairments. On 10 the other hand, it has been reported that motor performance declines significantly during dual 11 tasks in older adults (Bayot et al., 2020; Shumway-Cook & Woollacott, 2000; Wasylyshyn et al., 12 2011) and in patients with stroke (Deblock-Bellamy et al., 2020) and Parkinson's disease (Yang 13 et al., 2019). The return time after passive knee movement (e.g., of quadriceps as knee extension) 14 and angular movement velocity in this study reflect movement execution ability (Ifft et al., 2011; 15 Gold & Shadlen, 2007). In this study, the average angular velocity and return time during active 16 knee movement did not differ between the single task and dual task, suggesting that movement 17 execution ability may have a positive effect on the delay due to dual-task interference. Therefore, 18 it is possible that improved movement execution (owing to muscle strength, central motor

1 processes, etc.) counteracts decreased motor performance during the dual task, thereby helping to

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prevent falls.

Our study has important limitations. The current study included healthy young participants. As the dual-task interference becomes particularly evident in the elderly, it is necessary to investigate other age groups in the future (Bayot et al., 2020; Shumway-Cook & Woollacott, 2000). Nonetheless, our results are partially consistent with those of previous studies, although they require considerable attention before generalization can be made to all ages. The second limitation is the difficulty of the cognitive task. Participants in the current study were young, and their prior cognitive function was normal (MMSE and TMA-B scores are not shown in this study). The subtraction task was used as cognitive task in this study and however, it is necessary to verify the validity of this cognitive task in young healthy adults because the interference effect of the dual task is affected by the participants' characteristics and the difficulty of the task. Also, whether movement production during verbal answers (naming numbers counting backwards) interferes with the performance of the leg-drop task remains unclear and this point needs to be addressed by further studies.

This study suggests that dual tasking affects sensorimotor information processing similar to how it affects vision and auditory senses in young adults. Our findings also indicate that dual tasks interfere with the kinesthetic sense. Joint position sense and movement execution

1	remained normal in young individuals.
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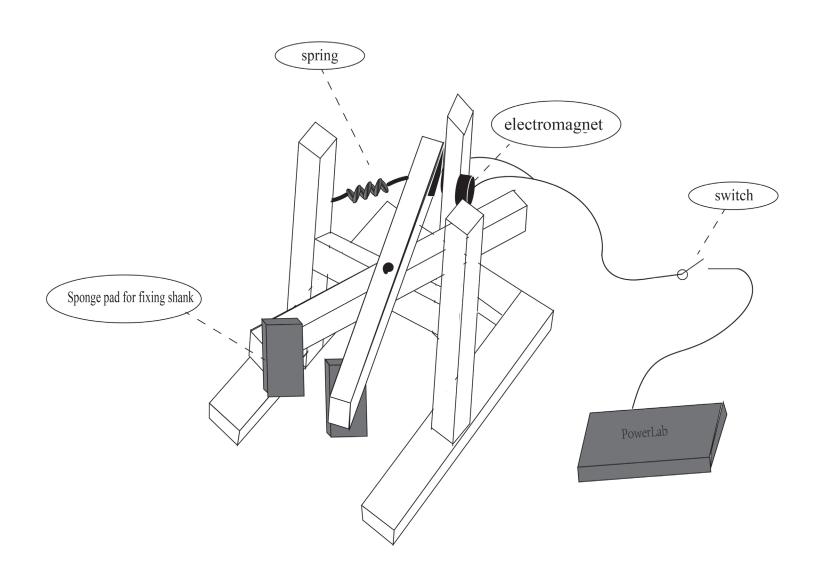
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16	

1	Figure Captions:
2	Fig. 1 Fixation and release device. When the switch is on, the electromagnet is active, and the
3	sponge pad fixes the shank. When the switch is off, the electromagnet is not active, and the device
4	releases the shank, allowing it to drop.
5	
6	Fig. 2 Raw data sample from an experiment. (a) The voltage signal of the electromagnet in the
7	sample trial: When the switch changes from on to off, the electromagnet signal drops rapidly, and
8	we record this as the release onset. (b). The knee flexion angle in the sample trial: D1 is the onset
9	of the knee motion; D2 is the point of maximum knee flexion; D3 is the maximum knee extension;
10	and D4 is the endpoint of the knee motion.
11	
12	Fig. 3 Comparisons of temporal measurements between the single task and dual task. (a) Reaction
13	time, (b) return time, and (c) total duration. The line in the middle of the box-and-whisker is the
14	median, and the (×) is the mean. Error bars represent standard errors. The dots beside box-and-
15	whisker plots show the data of all participants. The (*) indicates $p < 0.05$ and the ns indicates non-
16	significance.
17	

18 Fig. 4 Comparisons of joint angles and angle speed velocity between single task and dual task.

- 1 (a) Angle threshold, (b) Absolute errors, (c) Average angular velocity. The line in the middle of
- 2 the box-and-whisker is the median, and the (\times) is the mean. Error bars represent standard errors.
- 3 The dots beside box-and-whisker plots show the data of all participants. The (*) indicates p < 0.05
- 4 and "ns" indicates non-significance.



a. Electromagnet signal

