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1 Measures of Postural Control and Mobility During Dual-Tasking as Candidate Markers of
2 Instability in Huntington's Disease

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47 **KEYWORDS:** multitasking, neurodegenerative disease, postural control, cognitive-motor
48 interference, inertial sensors, Huntington disease

49

50 **Abstract**

51 Background: Individuals with Huntington’s disease (HD) have impairments in performing dual-
52 tasks, however, there is limited information about the effects of changing postural and cognitive
53 demands as well as which measures are best suited as markers of underlying motor-cognitive
54 interference.

55 Methods: Forty-three individuals with HD and 15 healthy controls (HC) completed single tasks
56 of walking (Timed Up & Go (TUG), 7m walk), standing (feet together, feet apart and foam
57 surface) and seated cognitive performance (Stroop, Symbol Digit Modalities Test (SDMT),
58 Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System (DKEFS) Sorting test) and dual cognitive-motor tasks
59 while standing (+ Stroop) and walking (+ DKEFS, TUG cognitive). APDM Opal sensors
60 recorded measures of postural sway and time to complete motor tasks.

61 Results: Individuals with HD had a greater increase in standing postural sway compared to HC
62 from single to dual-tasks and with changes to support surface. Both groups demonstrated a
63 decrease in gait performance during the TUG cognitive, however, this difference was greater in
64 people with HD compared to HC. While those with HD showed a greater dual-task motor cost
65 compared to HC, both groups behaved similarly as condition complexity increased.

66 Conclusions: Standing postural sway is a more sensitive marker of instability than change in
67 standard gait speed, particularly under dual-task conditions. The more complex TUG cognitive is
68 a sensitive measure of walking dual-task performance. The results of this study provide insights
69 about the nature of motor-cognitive impairments in HD and provide support for a distinction
70 between static and dynamic postural control mechanisms during performance of dual-tasks.

INTRODUCTION

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The effect of performing two tasks simultaneously, compared with performance of each task alone, is known as a dual-task effect (DTE). DTE reveals a cost or benefit to task performance and is an indication of interference or facilitation, respectively, of the limited capacity for attention and information processing of a performer. Cognitive-motor interference in neurodegenerative disease populations is well-described,¹ including in those with Parkinson's disease (PD),^{2,3} Alzheimer's disease,⁴ and multiple sclerosis.⁵ In Huntington's disease (HD), studies have shown impairments while performing complex cognitive dual-tasks,⁶⁻⁹ motor-cognitive dual-tasks,^{10,11} and motor-motor dual-tasks.⁹ Recent work revealed a link between gait speed during motor-cognitive dual-task and the United Huntington's Disease Rating Scale Total Motor Score (UHDRS-TMS) and performance on cognitive testing.¹⁰ Fritz et al¹⁰ demonstrated that a relatively simple dual-task – walking while saying the alphabet – was related to TMS but a more complex dual-task – walking while reciting alternate letters – was correlated with a range of cognitive measures as well as Total Functional Capacity (TFC), a measure of overall function that is a reliable indicator of disease progression in HD.¹²

Purcell et al.¹¹ has also shown that cognitive interference increases with task complexity during walking. Individuals with HD demonstrated greater cognitive interference while turning then walking in a straight path.¹³ As the complexity of a task increases, requiring greater cognitive engagement as motor performance is no longer automatic,^{6,14} individuals with HD may be forced to prioritize performance. Task prioritization refers to the attention allocated to an activity based on the value placed on that action in relation to other activities occurring simultaneously. One of the best-known examples of task prioritization is the speed-accuracy trade-off described for at least a century in scientific journals. (see e.g. Garret¹⁵) This well-

94 known phenomenon, whereby accuracy decreases with increasing speed of performance, and
95 vice versa, is associated with information processing ability.¹⁶ While initially studied during
96 simple reaction time conditions, the concept has recently been extended to examine the
97 information processing demands in dual task performance. In healthy participants, Tomporowski
98 et al.¹⁷ reported a speed-accuracy tradeoff during dual task conditions such that cognitive errors
99 increased with increasing speed of treadmill walking, demonstrating decreased cognitive
100 flexibility under increasing motor demands coming from a secondary condition. Fitt's initial
101 proposal was that movement difficulty related to movement speed.¹⁸ In dual-task conditions, the
102 difficulty may result from the complexity of either task, or from the addition of a second task
103 requiring increased information processing. Even accounting for overall slower speeds, studies
104 have shown that individuals with HD are more susceptible to speed-accuracy trade-offs than
105 their healthy peers, indicating that when allocating resources under multiple task conditions, HD
106 results in impaired information processing and task performance.¹⁹ In gross motor control tasks,
107 like standing and walking, healthy individuals will frequently prioritize postural stability - to
108 prevent falling - over another cognitive or motor task performed simultaneously.²⁰ However,
109 people with neurodegenerative diseases have demonstrated a 'posture-second' strategy,
110 inappropriately risking balance in favor of attending to a secondary cognitive or motor task.²¹
111 Neuroanatomical evidence suggests that, in HD, this may be due to damage to the caudate
112 nucleus, which appears to be specifically linked to attentional priority during voluntary
113 movement.²²

114 Postural control tasks have also been shown to be impaired in people with HD during
115 dual-tasking. Using a verbal fluency secondary task, Purcell et al¹¹ demonstrated individuals with
116 HD have greater sway, jerk and sway variability under dual-task conditions than age-matched

117 peers. Similarly, Purcell et al¹³ showed that turning during walking resulted in decreased walking
118 speed and increased stepping compared to non-HD control participants. Understanding the effect
119 of different postural challenges and how these relate to clinical measures can provide important
120 insights about the nature of motor impairments in HD and help identify clinically relevant
121 outcome measures. In the present study, we evaluated dual-task impairments across postural
122 stability and gait tasks of increasing complexity in individuals with early-mid stage HD
123 compared to healthy controls. Based on our prior work exploring dual-task deficits in HD¹⁰ and
124 work demonstrating that persons with HD have greater deficits in static control tasks (standing)
125 than dynamic control tasks (walking),²³ we hypothesized that dual-task postural sway would be a
126 more sensitive marker of instability in people with HD than dual-task gait.

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128

METHODS

Site and participant selection

130 This study was conducted across three HD specialist clinics in Europe and the United
131 States: George Huntington Institute (GHI), Munster, Germany (2017-079-f-S); Teachers College,
132 Columbia University, New York, USA (Approval # 18-071) and Wayne State University,
133 Detroit, USA (approval #1701000248).

134 All participants were 18 years of age or older and able to walk 10m independently with or
135 without assistance devices. Participants without HD (i.e., Healthy Controls (HC)) were excluded
136 if there was a history of other neurological conditions, an acute orthopedic injury, or an inability
137 to consent and/or follow all directions for this study. Inclusion criteria for participants with HD
138 included a genetically confirmed diagnosis and a Total Functional Capacity (TFC) score ≥ 7 . A
139 diagnosis of juvenile onset HD, history of co-morbid neurological conditions such as stroke or

140 multiple sclerosis, acute orthopedic conditions, or the inability or unwillingness of participant or
141 legal guardian to give written informed consent were exclusionary for those with HD.

142

143 Assessments

144 Individuals completed all testing in a single day in a standardized order. Participants
145 completed a battery of demographic and clinical assessments. Demographic information for all
146 participants included age, sex, height and weight. For HD participants, we obtained Unified
147 Huntington’s Disease Rating Scale (UHDRS)²⁴ including Total Functional Capacity (TFC),
148 Total Motor Score (TMS), Functional Assessment, and Independence Scale. This information
149 was obtained either from clinical assessments taken within 3 months, or was administered as part
150 of the assessment battery by certified raters at each site.

151 We conducted a standard cognitive assessment battery from the Enroll Registry study²⁵
152 on all participants, including verbal category fluency, symbol digit modality test and Stroop
153 word reading, color reading and interference. Participants also performed the Delis Kaplan
154 Executive Functioning System (DKEFS).²⁶ For the DKEFS, participants were asked to name
155 items from two categories, fruit and furniture, alternating (or shifting) their responses between
156 the two categories. Participants were also timed while reciting the alphabet in sitting and
157 alternate letters of the alphabet (starting with A) in sitting. The Stroop interference, DKEFS and
158 alphabet scores performed in sitting were recorded as baseline single task measures for
159 comparison during dual-task conditions. All assessments were conducted in English (Columbia
160 and Wayne State) or German (GHI) with standard translated versions. The DKEFS, Stroop and
161 alphabet tasks were specifically chosen for their complexity, as they require task-switching
162 (DKEFS) or response inhibition (Stroop and naming alternate letters of alphabet).

163 Participants completed standing and walking assessments while wearing APDM Opal
164 (Portland, OR) body worn inertial sensors on both wrists, mid-chest, lumbar spine, and both feet.
165 All tasks were filmed using a Go Pro (San Mateo, CA) camera. Procedures and equipment were
166 standardized across sites. For the dual-task conditions, participants were not given prioritization
167 instructions.

168 *Standing Balance with and without a cognitive demand.* Standing balance was assessed
169 under three conditions: feet shoulder-width apart on a firm surface (FA), feet together (FT) on a
170 firm surface, and feet apart on a foam surface (Foam) (2' x 2' of medium density 2" foam).
171 Participants were given the following instructions: "When you hear the tone, stand quietly with
172 your feet apart and arms crossed on your chest. Look straight ahead and remain still without
173 talking or moving until you hear the second tone." For the cognitive demand, each of the
174 standing balance tasks were paired with a simultaneous Stroop interference cognitive task
175 projected onto the wall in front of the participant. We modified the standard Stroop interference
176 by replacing the red, green and blue colors with a new color to create three different Stroop
177 combinations to minimize learning effects. Measures of postural sway from the sensors (root
178 mean square (RMS) of postural sway (m/s^2)^{11,27} and the number of correct Stroop responses were
179 recorded.

180 *Timed Up & Go (TUG) Test with and without a cognitive demand.* The TUG²⁸ is a
181 standard assessment of mobility and involves participants rising from a chair, walking three
182 meters, turning, walking back and sitting down. Participants were given the following
183 instructions: "When you hear the tone, stand up from the chair, walk at a comfortable pace to the
184 line at the end of the walkway, turn around, walk back, and sit down. Try not to use your hands
185 to assist yourself during standing or sitting." The cognitive demand required participants to

186 perform the task while doing a serial three subtraction task from a random number in the 90s.²⁹
187 Time to complete the TUG (s) and the number of correct numbers for the serial subtraction task
188 were recorded.

189 *Walking with and without a cognitive demand.* Participants walked 7m to a marking on
190 the floor, turned around and returned (Walk condition). Participants were given the following
191 instructions: “When you hear the tone, begin walking at a comfortable pace and turn around and
192 come back to starting position.” For the cognitive demand, participants performed the task while
193 reciting the alphabet aloud (Walk-simple), while reciting alternate letters of the alphabet (starting
194 with the letter B) aloud (Walk-complex) and while performing the Delis-Kaplan Executive
195 Function System (DKEFS) Category Switching Test (Walking-DKEFS). We recorded the
196 walking speed for all walking tasks (m/s), the number of correct letters for the Walk-simple and
197 Walk-complex, and the number of correct responses for the D-KEFS.

198

199 ***Data Analyses***

200 All APDM sensor data were processed using Mobility Lab software (Version 2). We
201 calculated correct response rates (CRR) for the cognitive conditions in both single and dual-tasks
202 following the methods of Hall et al.³⁰ CRR is the response rate per second x the percent correct.
203 A lower CRR indicates worse performance under dual-task conditions. We calculated dual-task
204 effects for both cognitive and motor conditions of dual-task following the methods of Plummer
205 and Eskes³¹.

206 Statistical analyses were completed with SPSS Version 26 (IBM, Armonk NY). *Standing*
207 *Balance with and without a cognitive demand.* We used a 2 group (HD vs. HC) x 2 condition
208 (standing, standing-Stroop) x 3 surfaces (FA, FT, Foam) repeated measures analysis of variance

209 (ANOVA) to examine differences in motor (postural sway) and a 2 group (HD vs. HC) x 2
210 condition (sitting-stroop, standing-stroop) ANOVA for each surface condition to assess cognitive
211 (CRR) task performance. *TUG with and without a cognitive demand.* We used a 2 group (HD
212 vs. HC) x 2 condition (TUG, TUG Cog) repeated measures ANOVA to examine differences in
213 motor (walking duration) task performance. *Walking with and without a cognitive demand.* We
214 used a 2 group (HD vs. HC) x 3 condition (Walk, Walk-simple, Walk-complex) repeated
215 measures ANOVA to examine differences in motor (gait speed) and cognitive (CRR) task
216 performance. We used a 2 group (HD vs. HC) x 2 condition (Walk, Walk-DKEFS) repeated
217 measures ANOVA to examine differences in motor (gait speed) and cognitive (CRR) task
218 performance. *Dual-Task Effects.* We used a 2 group (HD vs. HC) x 3 surfaces (FA, FT, Foam)
219 repeated measures ANOVA to examine differences in motor (DTE) and cognitive (DTE) task
220 performance with increasing task complexity. We used a 2 group (HD vs. HC) x 2 condition
221 (Walk-simple, Walk-complex) repeated measures ANOVA to examine differences in motor
222 (DTE) and cognitive (DTE) task performance with increasing task complexity. Corrections for
223 multiple comparisons were made using Bonferroni correction. When indicated, t-tests were used
224 for post-hoc comparisons, with significance levels set at $p < 0.05$.

225

226

RESULTS

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Demographic information is shown in Table 1. Individuals with HD were not significantly

228

different from HC in sex or age.

229

230

Standing Postural control with and without a cognitive demand

231 Postural control was evaluated using RMS sway values across conditions (standing,
232 standing-Stroop) and surfaces (FA, FT, Foam) for HD and HC (2x2x3). There was a significant
233 main effect of group (HD vs. HC) ($F=20.95$, $p<0.001$), condition ($F=11.86$, $p=0.001$) and surface
234 ($F=4.034$, $p=0.02$). There was a significant group by condition effect ($F=5.910$, $p=0.018$). Post
235 hoc comparisons revealed that for each surface, individuals with HD had a significantly greater
236 increase in sway from single to dual-tasks compared to HC (see Table 2). There was also a
237 significant condition by surface effect ($F=5.096$, $p=0.008$). Post hoc comparisons revealed that
238 this effect was due to differences between the Foam surface and both FA ($p=0.005$) and FT
239 ($p=0.012$) (Figure 1).

240

241

INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

242

243 Cognitive performance was evaluated using correct response rate (CRR) across
244 conditions (sitting-Stroop, standing-Stroop) for each surface (FA, FT, Foam) for HD and HC (i.e.,
245 three separate 2 Group (HD vs HC) x 2 Condition (seated-Stroop, standing-Stroop) analyses, one
246 for each surface). For each condition, there was a significant main effect for group, with HD
247 participants having a lower correct response rate than HC ($p<0.001$). There was no effect of
248 condition and no interaction effects ($p>0.05$), suggesting change in surface did not differentially
249 affect cognitive performance in HD vs. HC (Figure 2).

250

251

INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

252

253 TUG with and without a cognitive demand

254 TUG was evaluated using time (s) across conditions (TUG vs. TUG cognitive). There was a
255 significant effect of condition ($F=20.52$, $p<0.001$) and group ($F=13.56$, $p=0.001$) (Mean (SD)
256 score (s) for HD participants for TUG was 11.05(3.77); TUG cognitive was 15.16 (5.87);HC
257 TUG: 8.05(2.24); TUG cognitive: 9.26 (3.07)). There was an interaction effect ($p=0.016$) such
258 that while both groups got slower during the TUG cognitive, the difference from single to dual-
259 task in individuals with HD was significantly greater compared to HC (Figure 3).

260

261 INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE

262

263

264 Walking with and without a cognitive demand

265 To evaluate walking with and without a cognitive demand, we examined gait speed
266 across conditions (single task (single), simple dual-task (simple), complex dual-task (complex))
267 for HD and HC (2x3). The mean (SD) score (m/s) for HD participants across the conditions were
268 single 1.10 (0.22); simple 0.98(0.27); and complex 0.87(0.25); and for HC were single
269 1.32(0.26); simple 1.26(0.31); and complex 1.17(0.26). There was a significant main effect of
270 group (HD vs. HC) ($F=13.778$ $p<0.001$) and condition (ST vs. DT vs complex) ($p=55.147$, $<.001$)
271 however there was no interaction effect ($p>0.05$). Post hoc comparisons revealed that for each
272 successively complex condition, all participants demonstrated slower gait ($p<0.01$).

273 Next, walking was evaluated using gait speed across conditions (walking vs. walking
274 with DKFES). There was a significant effect of condition ($F=98.76$, $p<0.001$) and group
275 ($F=6.95$, $p=0.011$), however there was no significant interaction effect ($p>0.05$). Individuals
276 with HD were slower overall but both groups were significantly lower when performing the

277 DKEFS when walking. The mean (SD) score (s) for HD participants across the conditions for
278 HD were: walking 1.10(0.22); walking with DKFES (0.84(0.25); and HC walking (1.32(0.26)
279 and walking with DKEFS (1.03(0.37).

280 We compared cognitive performance using CRR for single (cognitive task in sitting) vs.
281 dual (cognitive task while walking) task conditions for HD and HC. There were no significant
282 effects of group or condition for the simple or complex dual-task conditions. During performance
283 of DKEFS there was no group effects ($p > 0.05$) but there was a significant effect of condition
284 ($F = 43.023$, $p < 0.001$), with all participants having fewer correct responses when walking
285 compared to sitting.

286

287 Dual-Task Effects

288 We examined the impact of increasing task complexity on both motor and cognitive dual-task
289 effects for HD and HC. In the standing condition, the increasing task complexity was defined by
290 moving from feet apart to feet together to foam conditions. When examining motor DTE (of
291 RMS Sway), there was a significant effect of surface ($F = 7.924$, $p = 0.007$). Post hoc comparisons
292 revealed this difference was driven by an increase in motor DTE between FA condition and both
293 the FT ($p < 0.001$) and Foam ($p = 0.002$) conditions. There were no significant effects of group
294 ($F = 1.283$; $p = 0.262$) and no significant interaction effect ($F = 0.015$; $p = 0.903$). When examining
295 cognitive DTE (of CRR), there was no significant effect of surface ($F = 0.101$; $p = 0.752$), group
296 ($F = 0.139$; $p = 0.711$), and no interaction effect ($F = 1.758$; $p = 0.190$). Figure 4 shows both motor
297 and cognitive DTE results for the standing conditions.

298

INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE

299

300 In the walking condition, the increasing task complexity was defined by moving from the
301 Walk-simple to Walk-complex. When examining the motor DTE, there was a significant effect
302 of condition ($F=25.034$; $p<0.001$), and group ($F=5.271$; $p=0.026$), but no significant interaction
303 effect ($F=1.341$; $p=0.252$), whereby both groups prioritized motor performance as the task
304 became more complex. When examining the cognitive DTE, there was no significant effect of
305 condition ($F=1.513$; $p=0.224$), group ($F=0.188$; $p=0.666$), and no interaction effect ($F=0.052$;
306 $p=0.820$).

307

308 **Discussion**

309 Decreased postural stability has significant repercussions, leading to increased falls,^{32,33}
310 decreased quality of life,³⁴ higher overall caregiver burden³⁵ and healthcare utilization³⁶ for
311 persons with HD. The present research extends findings from separate studies showing
312 impairments in people with HD while standing^{11,37} and walking³⁸ under single and dual-task
313 conditions. Importantly, the results demonstrate a potential distinction between static and
314 dynamic postural control mechanisms and sensitivity of RMS of total sway during dual-task
315 standing activities.

316 Standing and walking are inherently different control tasks. In standing, stability comes
317 from maintaining balance between two points creating a fixed base of support. During walking,
318 an alternating single point of support dynamically shifts the center of mass for/aft and side to
319 side. It is perhaps not surprising that most falls occur during walking,³⁹ or that falls occur more
320 frequently in those with neurological disease than their healthy peers.^{40,41} However, while many
321 studies link falls to gait impairments (see for Axer et al⁴² for review), there is evidence that poor
322 static postural control under single and dual-task conditions is also an important falls risk

323 factor.⁴³ Previous work has demonstrated significantly greater deficits in performance of static
324 control tasks compared to dynamic control tasks in HD.²³ In addition, there is evidence in
325 stroke⁴⁴ and HD¹¹ that neural disease results in increased sway and movement variability during
326 standing balance activities and that these behaviors are modified by attentional demands. Our
327 results support these findings, with indications that standing postural sway (RMS) is a more
328 sensitive marker of instability than changes in gait speed, particularly under dual-task conditions.

329 Our findings demonstrate that individuals with HD consistently demonstrate greater sway
330 in single task and when shifting from single to dual-tasks compared to controls, largely driven by
331 marked increases in sway on foam surfaces. Similarly, participants with HD demonstrated a
332 significantly lower CRR than controls during tasks of standing balance in FA, FT and Foam,
333 though there was no effect of condition (single v. dual) and no interaction effects, suggesting
334 change in surface did not differentially affect cognitive performance in HD vs. HC.

335 Research in the elderly and those with stroke⁴⁵ and HD,¹¹ demonstrated total sway area,
336 jerk and RMS are increased in standing. Similar to our findings, these studies showed increasing
337 postural sway under more challenging support conditions (FA, FT, Foam) and with the addition
338 of a secondary cognitive task. These consistent findings suggest that there is a greater reliance on
339 attention to balance in HD than in healthy peers and that when challenged to divide attention,
340 individuals with HD are unable to maintain postural control strategies. It is interesting that the
341 same distinction is not found in the walking data, perhaps supporting the notion that walking in a
342 straight line and talking are yoked together neurologically into a single familiar task structure,
343 while standing on a foam surface performing a cognitive task is sufficiently novel and complex
344 to challenge the system.⁴⁶ Alternatively, it may be the nature of the postural stability and gait
345 tasks that leads to the distinction between standing and walking; i.e., when required to walk and

346 talk simultaneously, a performer can choose to slow down and focus on the cognitive features of
347 the task without risking a fall. However, there is no clear equivalent for a standing postural task,
348 e.g. participants demonstrating a decrease in sway speed or excursion that allows a shift in focus
349 to the secondary task while ensuring stability. This is likely due to the fact that maintenance of
350 postural sway is a largely unconscious process.

351 Our results show that both groups (HD and HC) walked more slowly during the TUG
352 cognitive, though the difference from single to dual-task in individuals with HD was
353 significantly greater compared to controls. The TUG is a well-studied measure^{28,47,48} that has
354 previously been shown to be related to falls risk in people with HD.³³ The TUG cognitive has not
355 yet been studied in individuals with HD, and our results demonstrate that the TUG cognitive
356 appears to be sensitive to the cognitive interference impairments in HD. In studies in the elderly,
357 participants who completed the TUG cognitive in >15 seconds were classified as fallers with a
358 prediction rate of 87%.²⁹ The TUG and TUG cognitive may be more useful measures than
359 standard walking assessments in people with HD. In the present study, our walking assessment
360 involved walking 7m, turning 180 degrees and walking 7m back. While individuals with HD
361 walked more slowly, the differences between single and dual-tasks seen in the TUG were not
362 evident in the walking assessment. Thus, the incorporation of a more complex motor task such
363 as the TUG cognitive, which incorporates sit to stand, walking and turning, along with a dual-
364 task may be a sensitive clinical measure of cognitive-motor behavior in HD.

365 In addition to the importance of the choice of motor task, the choice of cognitive task in a
366 dual-task paradigm is important to consider. We chose three specific tests of cognition thought
367 to be sensitive to domains of cognition impacted in HD that could be performed during a motor
368 task. The Walking While Talking Test (citing the alphabet and then alternating letters of the

369 alphabet), the Stroop Interference test and DKEFS-Switching test all require some level of
370 response inhibition. While there are elements of other domains in each of these tests, the main
371 goal is to suppress a more natural response (e.g. stating the written word in the Stroop test) in
372 order to state the correct response (color of the ink the word is written in). While differences
373 were seen in the Stroop test between HD and controls, there were no difference in the CRR of
374 the DKEFS. To our knowledge, this is the first use of the DKEFS-Switching test in persons with
375 HD. Given known difficulties with task switching,^{49,50} we anticipated challenges with this test.
376 However, both HD and control participants showed a similar decrement in performance with the
377 addition of a dual-task, suggesting that the DKEFS-Switching test does not appear to be a
378 sensitive measure to evaluate dual-task cost in HD.

379 Our results show that there was a significant effect of surface ($F=7.924$, $p=0.007$) in the
380 standing conditions. Post hoc comparisons revealed this difference was driven by an increase in
381 motor DTE between FA condition and both the FT ($p<0.001$) and Foam ($p=0.002$) conditions.
382 There were no significant effects of group ($F=1.283$; $p=0.262$) and no significant interaction
383 effect ($F=0.015$; $p=0.903$). These results build on the work of Purcell et al.¹¹ who showed that
384 less-impaired individuals with HD (TMS 21.86; SDMT 70.89) demonstrate greater sway
385 compared to HC in both single and dual-tasks. Within the HD group, individuals demonstrated
386 greater total sway and sway variability on foam surfaces compared to firm surfaces, though this
387 was only assessed with the feet apart in the single-task condition. Unfortunately, single task
388 cognitive performance was not recorded, so the change in cognition from single to dual-task in
389 this study was not reported.¹¹ Our results show that there was no significant effect of surface and
390 no interaction effect when examining cognitive DTE (of CRR). Thus, the consequence of dual-

391 task in standing is that sway changes, but cognition does not change; we see this as a shift toward
392 motor priority and/or mutual interference (see Figure 4).

393 This is the first study to examine the impact of dual-tasks on increasing task complexity
394 (i.e., increasingly difficulty motor conditions). Our results demonstrate that during dual-task
395 walking, there was a significant effect of condition and group but no significant interaction
396 effect, whereby both groups demonstrated decreasing motor DTE as task complexity increased.
397 This builds on the work of Radovanovic et al.⁵¹ and Purcell et al.¹³ both of which demonstrated
398 that persons with HD walk significantly slower than HC under single and dual-tasks. Both
399 studies included only a single dual-task condition (i.e., did not explore task complexity), and did
400 not report dual-task costs. Purcell et al. did record cognitive performance in both the single and
401 dual-tasks (in this case, an animal naming fluency task); however, no analyses were performed to
402 determine if there was a significant decline in cognitive performance within group under DT
403 conditions.¹³ Our results show that there was no significant effect of condition, group, and no
404 interaction effect when examining the cognitive DTE, suggesting that cognitive performance
405 remains stable for both groups under single and dual-task conditions. Consistent with the results
406 for standing balance, prior work from our³⁸ shows that individuals with HD demonstrate motor
407 priority or mutual interference under dual-task walking conditions.

408 The dual-task results from both standing and walking speak to the prioritization of motor
409 function over cognitive performance among persons with HD. This is in contrast to findings in
410 Parkinson's disease, where a "posture-second" strategy (i.e., cognitive priority) during dual-tasks
411 has been noted.⁵² It was suggested that use of a "posture-second" strategy would exacerbate fall
412 risk in dual-tasks situations,⁵²⁻⁵⁴ yet task prioritization during dual-tasks appears to be more
413 challenging. Even young adults do not always prioritize gait during dual-tasks.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁸ Rather, task

414 prioritization may rely on individual capacity to respond to a postural threat (postural reserve) to
415 avoid falling, self-awareness of environment (hazard estimation) and the nature and complexity
416 of the secondary task.⁵⁴ Sensory motor integration including adaptive and anticipatory
417 mechanisms, is critical for response to postural threats; in the setting of a neurodegenerative
418 disease, deterioration in motor and sensory systems and high cortical functions can lead to
419 alterations in balance and postural responses. Changes in cognitive status may impact hazard
420 estimation and further complicate task prioritization. Thus, poor postural reserve and high hazard
421 estimation⁵⁴ may explain why persons with HD prioritize the motor task or experience declines
422 in both motor and cognitive performance (mutual interference) during dual-tasks.

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Limitations

425 This study was limited by several factors. First, we did not include individuals with pre-
426 manifest HD, which may have expanded the generalizability of our findings and shed more light
427 on shifts in task prioritization and management of task complexity among persons with HD. Our
428 control group was smaller than our cohort of individuals with HD. While the control group
429 adequately matched the HD group in terms of age and sex, it is possible that with a larger control
430 group, greater differences between groups may have been apparent. This study was delivered
431 across three sites; two English-speaking sites and one German-speaking site. It is possible that
432 differences in language may have impacted the testing protocol, but all documents were
433 translated and translations were verified by a neurologist proficient in English and German. To
434 standardize the testing paradigm across sites, the same order of tests was used at each session.
435 Thus, it is possible that dual-tasks assessed at the end of the testing paradigm may suffer from
436 test-fatigue or multiple test biases. Future studies may consider randomizing the order of the test

437 sequence to address this weakness. We utilized different cognitive tasks for each motor task;
438 while this minimizes practice effects, it also limits direct comparisons across postural and
439 walking tasks. The equivalency in terms of difficulty or complexity across these cognitive tasks
440 has not been established, further limiting direct comparison. Finally, gait speed was derived
441 from a walk with one turn included (on both TUG and 7m walk). Turns may require a greater
442 cognitive demand, resulting in more cognitive responses on straightaways and fewer during
443 turns. Future studies will examine if differences in single and dual-task are greater on walks
444 without turns.

445

446

Conclusion

447 The results of this study provide support for a distinction between static and dynamic
448 postural control mechanisms during performance of dual-tasks. Measures of standing postural
449 sway (RMS) is a more sensitive marker of instability than changes in gait speed, particularly
450 under dual-task conditions. Individuals with HD have greater reliance on attention to balance
451 than HC subjects and that when challenged to divide attention, individuals with HD have a
452 noticeable decrement in postural control. With regards to gait tasks, we found the TUG
453 cognitive, which incorporates complex motor and cognitive tasks, is a sensitive measure of dual-
454 task performance in people with HD. Finally, individuals with HD demonstrated motor priority
455 or mutual interference under dual-task walking conditions. Future research should evaluate the
456 potential of measures of postural control as candidate markers for clinical trials.

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610 Table 1. Participant Demographics

	HD	Control	p-value
Age (years)	53.6 (11.6) [29-78]	52.2 (13.2) [32-73]	0.698
Sex (male:female)	25:18	8:7	0.751
TMS	40.6 (16.4) [10-70]	-	-
TFC	10.6 (2.2) [5-14]	-	-
SDMT (# correct)	27.5 (12.0) [4-59]	55.7 (16.3) [27-78]	<0.001
Fluency (# correct)	24.9 (11.6) [0-54]	43.1 (14.8) [20-65]	<0.001
Stroop (# correct)			
Word Reading	52.6 (20.5) [16-112]	92.2 (19.8) [57-128]	<0.001
Color Naming	49.7 (18.5) [17-89]	76.8 (15.7) [49-102]	<0.001
Interference	24.5 (11.5) [0-59]	46.4 (15.5) [28-80]	<0.001

611 All values listed as mean(SD)[range]. Bolded values indicate p<0.05. Symbol Digit Modalities
612 Test (SDMT); Total Functional Capacity (TFC); Total Motor Score (TMS).

613

614 Table 2 – Main Effects and Interactions for Motor and Cognitive Performance during Postural
 615 Tasks

Main Effects	Postural Sway RMS (m/s ²)				Correct Response Rate (CRR)							
	Mean (SD)	F	P	η ²	Mean(SD)	F	P	η ²				
Group												
HD	0.42 (0.09)	20.9	< 0.001	0.27	Sit v. FA HD HC	0.58 (0.13) 1.05 (0.18)	10.53	< 0.001	0.16			
HC	0.13 (0.02)				Sit v. FT HD HC	0.61 (0.09) 1.04 (0.01)	9.43	< 0.001	0.14			
					Sit v. Foam HD HC	0.61 (0.10) 1.03 (0.00)	8.92	< 0.001	0.14			
Surface												
FA	0.26 (0.18)				2.5	0.09	0.04					
FT	0.27 (0.17)											
Foam	0.29 (0.19)											
Condition												
Single	0.23 (0.13)	6.72	0.01	0.11	Single	0.86 (0.25)						
Dual	0.32 (0.20)				Dual							
					FA	0.77 (0.40)	0.46	0.50	0.01			
					FT	0.80 (0.36)	0.19	0.66	0.00			
					Foam	0.78 (0.35)	0.36	0.55	0.01			
Group x Surface												
HD	FA 0.29 (0.19) FT 0.34 (0.20) Foam 0.37 (0.26)	1.66	0.20	0.03								
HC	FA 0.10 (0.04) FT 0.12 (0.05) Foam 0.12 (0.06)											
Group x Condition												
HD Single	0.34 (0.04)				3.66	0.06	0.06	HD Single	0.68 (0.93)			
								HC Single	1.03 (0.34)			
								FA				
		HD Dual	0.49 (0.27)	0.80				0.38	0.14			
		HC Dual	1.06 (0.40)									
HD Dual	0.50 (0.03)	FT										
		HD Dual	0.55 (0.26)	0.36				0.55	0.01			
		HC Dual	1.05 (0.46)									
HC Single	0.11 (0.01)	Foam										
HC Dual	0.14 (0.00)	HD Dual	0.54 (0.29)	0.30				0.59	0.01			
		HC Dual	1.03 (0.44)									

616 Bolded values represent significant effects.

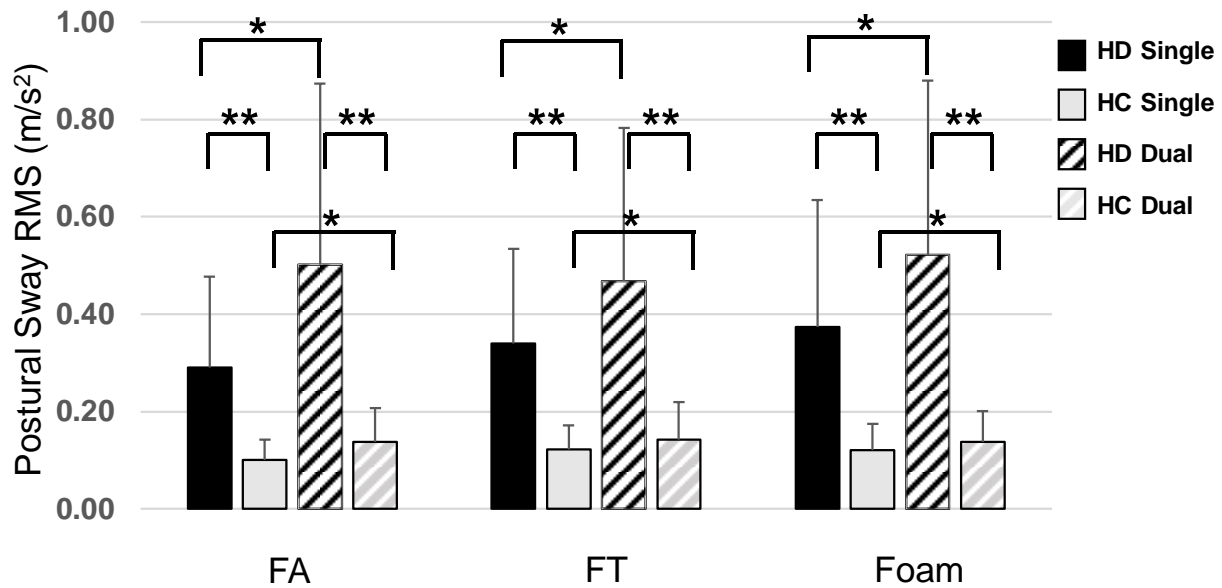


Fig 1. Mean(SD) root mean square (RMS) of postural sway for participants with HD and controls during three standing conditions (firm surface with feet apart (FA) and feet together (FT) and foam surface (Foam)) without (single) and with (dual) the Stroop interference task. The participants with HD consistently had more sway than the HC (** $p < 0.001$) and both groups increased sway moving from single to dual task performance (* $p < 0.01$)

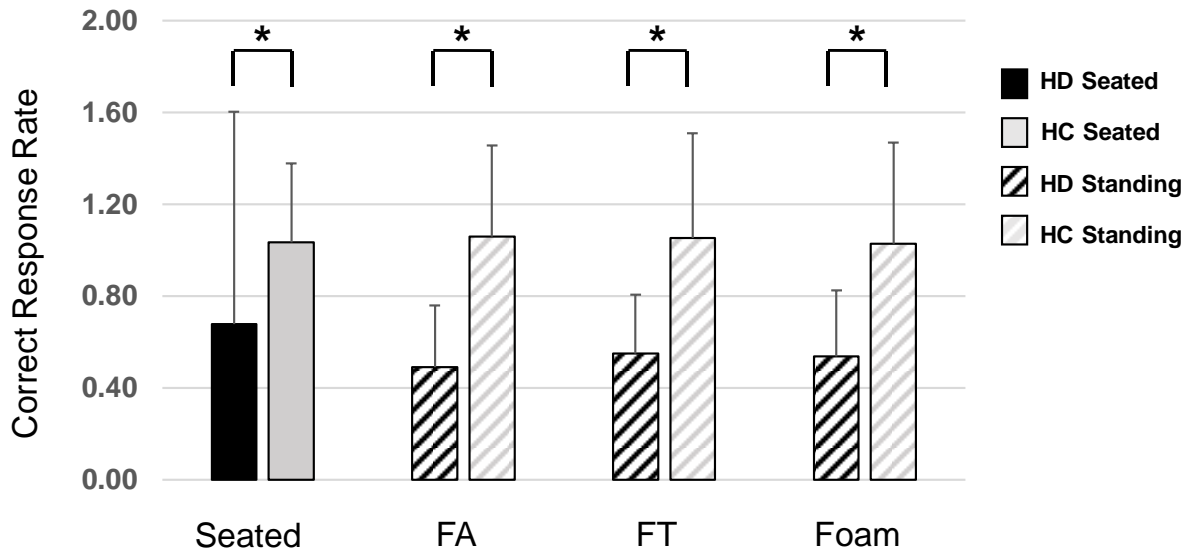


Fig 2. Mean (SD) correct response rate (CRR) on the Stroop interference task for participants with HD and controls seated and during three standing conditions (firm surface with feet apart (FA) and feet together (FT) and foam surface (Foam)). The two groups differ under all conditions (* $p < 0.005$)

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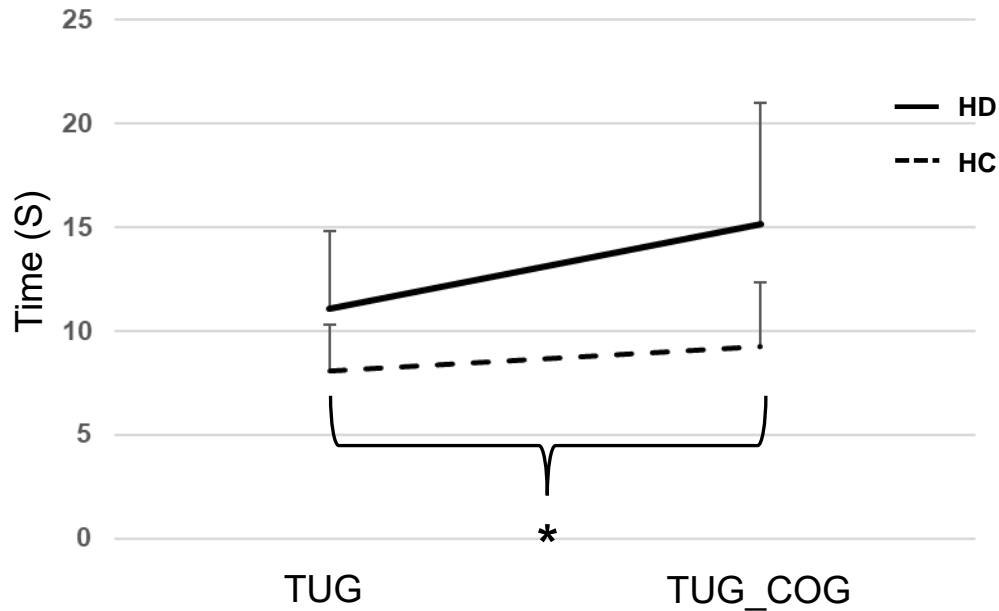
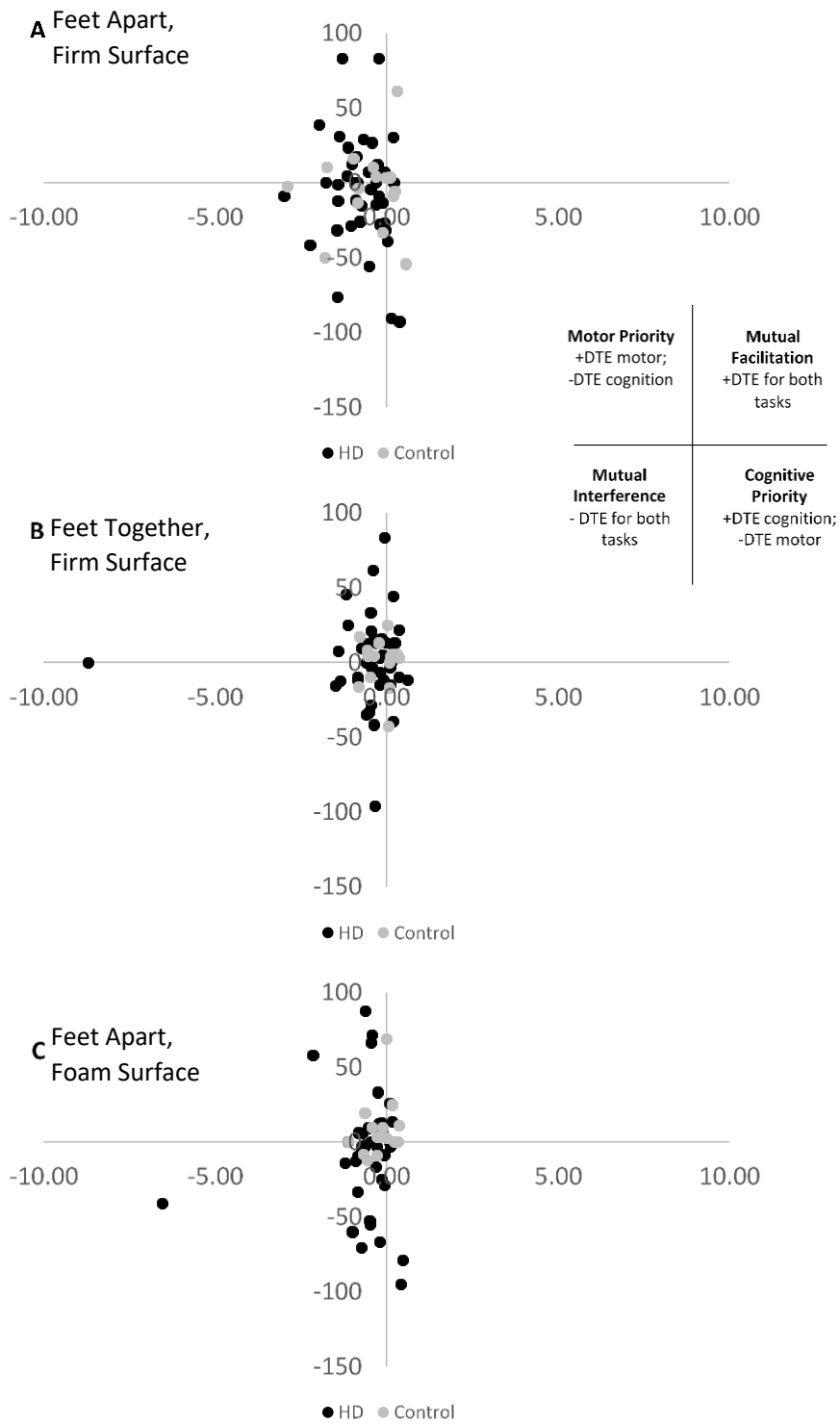


Fig 3. Mean (SD) Timed Up and Go (TUG) alone (A) and with a secondary cognitive task (TUG_Cog) (B) for participants with HD and controls. While both HD and HC groups slowed during the more complex task ($p < 0,001$) the two groups differed ($p = 0.001$) such that HD participants becoming significantly slower with the addition of a cognitive component to the task ($*p < 0.05$).



639 Fig 4. Dual-task effect (DTE) of RMS Sway motor (x-axis) and cognitive (y-axis) across with
640 varying task complexity A) feet apart, firm surface; B) feet together, firm surface; and C) feet
641 apart, foam surface. Across conditions, individuals with HD primarily demonstrate a motor
642 priority or mutual interference.

643