

This is an Open Access document downloaded from ORCA, Cardiff University's institutional repository: <https://orca.cardiff.ac.uk/id/eprint/144285/>

This is the author's version of a work that was submitted to / accepted for publication.

Citation for final published version:

Muratori, Lida M., Quinn, Lori , LI, Xueyao, Youdan, Gregory, Busse, Monica and Fritz, Nora E. 2021. Measures of postural control and mobility during dual-tasking as candidate markers of instability in Huntington's Disease. *Human Movement Science* 80 , 102881. 10.1016/j.humov.2021.102881

Publishers page: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humov.2021.102881>

Please note:

Changes made as a result of publishing processes such as copy-editing, formatting and page numbers may not be reflected in this version. For the definitive version of this publication, please refer to the published source. You are advised to consult the publisher's version if you wish to cite this paper.

This version is being made available in accordance with publisher policies. See <http://orca.cf.ac.uk/policies.html> for usage policies. Copyright and moral rights for publications made available in ORCA are retained by the copyright holders.



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

3 Lisa M. Muratori, PT, EdD  
4 Department of Physical Therapy  
5 Stony Brook University  
6 Stony Brook, NY 11794-8201  
7 [lisa.muratori@stonybrook.edu](mailto:lisa.muratori@stonybrook.edu)

8  
9 Lori Quinn, PT, EdD  
10 Department of Biobehavioral Sciences  
11 Teachers College, Columbia University  
12 New York, NY 10027  
13 [lq2165@tc.columbia.edu](mailto:lq2165@tc.columbia.edu)

14  
15 Xueyao Li  
16 3033A 30th Ave W, Seattle, WA 98199  
17 [xl2719@columbia.edu](mailto:xl2719@columbia.edu)

18  
19 Gregory Youdan, MS, MA  
20 Department of Biobehavioral Sciences  
21 Teachers College, Columbia University  
22 New York, NY 10027  
23 [gay2104@tc.columbia.edu](mailto:gay2104@tc.columbia.edu)

24  
25 Monica Busse, PhD  
26 Centre for Trials Research  
27 Cardiff University  
28 Cardiff, UK  
29 [BusseME@cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:BusseME@cardiff.ac.uk)

30  
31 \* Nora E. Fritz, PhD, PT, DPT, NCS  
32 Program in Physical Therapy and Department of Neurology  
33 Wayne State University  
34 Detroit, MI  
35 [nora.fritz@wayne.edu](mailto:nora.fritz@wayne.edu)

36  
37 \*Corresponding Author Information:  
38 Nora E. Fritz, PhD, PT, DPT, NCS  
39 259 Mack Avenue, #2324  
40 Detroit, MI 48201  
41 [nora.fritz@wayne.edu](mailto:nora.fritz@wayne.edu)

42  
43  
44 Funding Acknowledgement: This work was supported by a grant from the Jacques and Gloria  
45 Gossweiler Foundation.

46 Disclosure of Interest: The authors report no conflict of interest.

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

71  
72  
73  
74  
75  
76  
77  
78  
79  
80  
81  
82  
83  
84  
85  
86  
87  
88  
89  
90  
91  
92  
93

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,<sup>1</sup> including in those with Parkinson's disease (PD),<sup>2,3</sup> Alzheimer's disease,<sup>4</sup> and multiple sclerosis.<sup>5</sup> In Huntington's disease (HD), studies have shown impairments while performing complex cognitive dual-tasks,<sup>6-9</sup> motor-cognitive dual-tasks,<sup>10,11</sup> and motor-motor dual-tasks.<sup>9</sup> 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.<sup>10</sup> Fritz et al<sup>10</sup> 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.<sup>12</sup>

Purcell et al.<sup>11</sup> 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.<sup>13</sup> As the complexity of a task increases, requiring greater cognitive engagement as motor performance is no longer automatic,<sup>6,14</sup> 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. Garret<sup>15</sup>) This well-

94 known phenomenon, whereby accuracy decreases with increasing speed of performance, and  
95 vice versa, is associated with information processing ability.<sup>16</sup> 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.<sup>17</sup> 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.<sup>18</sup> 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.<sup>19</sup> 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.<sup>20</sup> 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.<sup>21</sup>  
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.<sup>22</sup>

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 al<sup>11</sup> demonstrated individuals with  
116 HD have greater sway, jerk and sway variability under dual-task conditions than age-matched

117 peers. Similarly, Purcell et al<sup>13</sup> 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 HD<sup>10</sup> and  
124 work demonstrating that persons with HD have greater deficits in static control tasks (standing)  
125 than dynamic control tasks (walking),<sup>23</sup> we hypothesized that dual-task postural sway would be a  
126 more sensitive marker of instability in people with HD than dual-task gait.

127

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  $\geq 7$ . 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)<sup>24</sup> 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 study<sup>25</sup>  
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).<sup>26</sup> 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 ( $m/s^2$ )<sup>11,27</sup> and the number of correct Stroop responses were  
179 recorded.

180 *Timed Up & Go (TUG) Test with and without a cognitive demand.* The TUG<sup>28</sup> 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.<sup>29</sup>  
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.<sup>30</sup> 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 Eskes<sup>31</sup>.

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

227

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,<sup>32,33</sup>  
310 decreased quality of life,<sup>34</sup> higher overall caregiver burden<sup>35</sup> and healthcare utilization<sup>36</sup> for  
311 persons with HD. The present research extends findings from separate studies showing  
312 impairments in people with HD while standing<sup>11,37</sup> and walking<sup>38</sup> 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,<sup>39</sup> or that falls occur more  
320 frequently in those with neurological disease than their healthy peers.<sup>40,41</sup> However, while many  
321 studies link falls to gait impairments (see for Axer et al<sup>42</sup> 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.<sup>43</sup> Previous work has demonstrated significantly greater deficits in performance of static  
324 control tasks compared to dynamic control tasks in HD.<sup>23</sup> In addition, there is evidence in  
325 stroke<sup>44</sup> and HD<sup>11</sup> 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 stroke<sup>45</sup> and HD,<sup>11</sup> 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.<sup>46</sup> 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<sup>28,47,48</sup> that has  
354 previously been shown to be related to falls risk in people with HD.<sup>33</sup> 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%.<sup>29</sup> 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,<sup>49,50</sup> 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.<sup>11</sup> 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.<sup>11</sup> 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.<sup>51</sup> and Purcell et al.<sup>13</sup> 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.<sup>13</sup> 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 our<sup>38</sup> 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.<sup>52</sup> It was suggested that use of a "posture-second" strategy would exacerbate fall  
412 risk in dual-tasks situations,<sup>52-54</sup> yet task prioritization during dual-tasks appears to be more  
413 challenging. Even young adults do not always prioritize gait during dual-tasks.<sup>55-58</sup> 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.<sup>54</sup> 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 estimation<sup>54</sup> 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.

423

424

### **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.

457

458

459

### **References**

- 460 1. Mclsaac TL, Fritz NE, Quinn L, Muratori LM. Cognitive-Motor Interference in Neurodegenerative  
461 Disease: A Narrative Review and Implications for Clinical Management. *Frontiers in psychology*.  
462 2018;9:2061.
- 463 2. Kelly VE, Eusterbrock AJ, Shumway-Cook A. A review of dual-task walking deficits in people with  
464 Parkinson's disease: Motor and cognitive contributions, mechanisms, and clinical implications.  
465 *Parkinson's Disease*. Epub 2012.:1–14.
- 466 3. Foley JA, Kaschel R, Sala S Della. Dual task performance in Parkinson's disease. *Behavioural*  
467 *neurology*. 2013;27:183–191.
- 468 4. Baker LD, Frank LL, Foster-Schubert K, et al. Effects of aerobic exercise on mild cognitive  
469 impairment: a controlled trial. *Archives of neurology*. 2010;67:71–79.
- 470 5. Hamilton F, Rochester L, Paul L, Rafferty D, O'Leary CP, Evans JJ. Walking and talking: an  
471 investigation of cognitive-motor dual tasking in multiple sclerosis. *Multiple sclerosis (Houndmills,*  
472 *Basingstoke, England)*. 2009;15:1215–1227.
- 473 6. Thompson JC, Poliakoff E, Sollom AC, Howard E, Craufurd D, Snowden JS. Automaticity and  
474 attention in Huntington's disease: when two hands are not better than one. *Neuropsychologia*.  
475 2010;48:171–178.
- 476 7. de Tommaso M, Ricci K, Montemurno A, Vecchio E, Invitto S. Walking-Related Dual-Task  
477 Interference in Early-to-Middle-Stage Huntington's Disease: An Auditory Event Related Potential  
478 Study. *Frontiers in Psychology*. 2017;8.
- 479 8. Vaportzis E, Georgiou-Karistianis N, Churchyard A, Stout JC. Dual Task Performance May be a  
480 Better Measure of Cognitive Processing in Huntington's Disease than Traditional Attention Tests.  
481 *Journal of Huntington's Disease*. 2015;4:119–130.
- 482 9. Vaportzis E, Georgiou-Karistianis N, Churchyard A, Stout JC. Effects of task difficulty during dual-  
483 task circle tracing in Huntington's disease. *Journal of neurology*. 2015;262:268–276.
- 484 10. Fritz NE, Hamana K, Kelson M, Rosser A, Busse M, Quinn L. Motor-cognitive dual-task deficits in  
485 individuals with early-mid stage Huntington disease. *Gait and Posture*. 2016;49.
- 486 11. Purcell NL, Goldman JG, Ouyang B, Bernard B, O'Keefe JA. The Effects of Dual-Task Cognitive  
487 Interference and Environmental Challenges on Balance in Huntington's Disease. *Movement*  
488 *Disorders Clinical Practice*. 2019;6:202–212.
- 489 12. Marder K, Zhao H, Myers RH, et al. Rate of functional decline in Huntington's disease. *Huntington*  
490 *Study Group. Neurology*. 2000;54:452–458.
- 491 13. Purcell NL, Goldman JG, Ouyang B, Liu Y, Bernard B, O'Keefe JA. The effects of dual-task cognitive  
492 interference on gait and turning in Huntington's disease. *PLoS ONE. Public Library of Science*;  
493 2020;15.
- 494 14. Delval A, Krystkowiak P, Delliaux M, et al. Role of attentional resources on gait performance in  
495 Huntington's disease. *Mov Disord*. 2008/01/05 ed. 2008;23:684–689.

- 496 15. Garrett H. A study of the relation of accuracy to speed. *Arch Psychol.* 1922;56.
- 497 16. Wickelgran W. Speed-accuracy trade-off and information processing dynamics. *Acta Psychologia.*  
498 1977;41:67–85.
- 499 17. Tomporowski PD, Audiffren M. Dual-task performance in young and older adults: speed-accuracy  
500 tradeoffs in choice responding while treadmill walking. *J Aging Phys Act.* 2014;22:557–563.
- 501 18. Fitts PM. The information capacity of the human motor system in controlling the amplitude of  
502 movement. *J Exp Psychol.* 1954;47:381–391.
- 503 19. Vaportzis E, Georgiou-Karistianis N, Churchyard A, Stout JC. Effects of task difficulty during dual-  
504 task circle tracing in Huntington’s disease. *Journal of neurology.* 2015;262:268–276.
- 505 20. Dumas M, Smolders C, Krampe RT. Task prioritization in aging: Effects of sensory information on  
506 concurrent posture and memory performance. *Experimental Brain Research. Exp Brain Res;*  
507 2008;187:275–281.
- 508 21. Yogev-Seligmann G, Giladi N, Brozgol M, Hausdorff JM. A training program to improve gait while  
509 dual tasking in patients with Parkinson’s disease: a pilot study. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil.* 2011/08/19  
510 ed. 2012;93:176–181.
- 511 22. Anderson BA, Laurent PA, Yantis S. Value-driven attentional priority signals in human basal ganglia  
512 and visual cortex. *Brain Research. Elsevier B.V.;* 2014;1587:88–96.
- 513 23. Kegelmeyer DA, Kostyk SK, Fritz NE, et al. Quantitative biomechanical assessment of trunk control  
514 in Huntington’s disease reveals more impairment in static than dynamic tasks. *Journal of the*  
515 *Neurological Sciences.* 2017;376:29–34.
- 516 24. Group HS. Unified Huntington’s Disease Rating Scale: reliability and consistency. *Mov Disord.*  
517 1996;11:136–142.
- 518 25. Protocol CS. Enroll-HD Protocol Final Version 1.0 09 September 2011. Epub 2011.:1–64.
- 519 26. Delis DC, Kramer JH, Kaplan E, Holdnack J. Reliability and validity of the Delis-Kaplan Executive  
520 Function System: An update. *Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society J Int*  
521 *Neuropsychol Soc;* 2004. p. 301–303.
- 522 27. Hasegawa N, Shah V V., Carlson-Kuhta P, Nutt JG, Horak FB, Mancini M. How to select balance  
523 measures sensitive to parkinson’s disease from body-worn inertial sensors—separating the trees  
524 from the forest. *Sensors (Switzerland).* MDPI AG; 2019;19.
- 525 28. Podsiadlo D, Richardson S. The timed “Up & Go”: a test of basic functional mobility for frail elderly  
526 persons. *JAmGeriatrSoc.* 1991;39:142–148.
- 527 29. Shumway-Cook A, Brauer S, Woollacott M. Predicting the Probability for Falls in Community-  
528 Dwelling Older Adults Using the Timed Up & Go Test. *Physical Therapy. Oxford University Press*  
529 *(OUP);* 2000;80:896–903.

- 530 30. Hall CD, Echt K V, Wolf SL, Rogers W a. Cognitive and motor mechanisms underlying older adults'  
531 ability to divide attention while walking. *Physical therapy*. 2011;91:1039–1050.
- 532 31. Plummer P, Eskes G. Measuring treatment effects on dual-task performance: a framework for  
533 research and clinical practice. *Frontiers in human neuroscience*. 2015;9:225.
- 534 32. Tian J, Herdman SJ, Zee DS, Folstein SE. Postural stability in patients with Huntington's disease.  
535 *Neurology*. 1992;42:1232–1238.
- 536 33. Busse ME, Wiles CM, Rosser a E. Mobility and falls in people with Huntington's disease. *Journal of*  
537 *neurology, neurosurgery, and psychiatry*. 2009;80:88–90.
- 538 34. Ho AK, Gilbert AS Goodman AO, Barker RA MSL. Health-related quality of life in Huntington's  
539 disease: Which factors matter most? *Mov Disord*. 2008;Dec 18 Epu.
- 540 35. Ready RE, Mathews M, Leserman A, Paulsen JS. Patient and caregiver quality of life in Huntington's  
541 disease. *Movement Disorders*. *Mov Disord*; 2008;23:721–726.
- 542 36. Thompson JA, Cruickshank TM, Penailillo LE, et al. The effects of multidisciplinary rehabilitation in  
543 patients with early-to-middle-stage Huntington's disease: a pilot study. *Eur J Neurol*. 2012/12/12  
544 ed. 2013;20:1325–1329.
- 545 37. Porciuncula F, Wasserman P, Marder KS, Rao AK. Quantifying Postural Control in Premanifest and  
546 Manifest Huntington Disease Using Wearable Sensors. *Neurorehabilitation and Neural Repair*.  
547 SAGE Publications Inc.; 2020;34:771–783.
- 548 38. Fritz NE, Hamana K, Kelson M, Rosser A, Busse M, Quinn L. Motor-Cognitive Dual-Task Deficits in  
549 Individuals with Early-Mid stage Huntington Disease. *Gait & Posture*. Elsevier B.V.; 2016;49:283–  
550 289.
- 551 39. Sartini M, Cristina ML, Spagnolo AM, et al. The epidemiology of domestic injurious falls in a  
552 community dwelling elderly population: An outgrowing economic burden. *European Journal of*  
553 *Public Health*. *Eur J Public Health*; 2010;20:604–606.
- 554 40. Wood BH, Bilclough JA, Bowron A, Walker RW. Incidence and prediction of falls in Parkinson's  
555 disease: A prospective multidisciplinary study. *Journal of Neurology Neurosurgery and Psychiatry*. *J*  
556 *Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*; 2002;72:721–725.
- 557 41. Finlayson ML, Peterson EW, Cho CC. Risk Factors for Falling Among People Aged 45 to 90 Years  
558 With Multiple Sclerosis. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil*;  
559 2006;87:1274–1279.
- 560 42. Axer H, Axer M, Sauer H, Witte OW, Hagemann G. Falls and gait disorders in geriatric neurology.  
561 *Clinical Neurology and Neurosurgery Clin Neurol Neurosurg*; 2010. p. 265–274.
- 562 43. Zhou Y, Ur Rehman RZ, Hansen C, et al. Classification of neurological patients to identify fallers  
563 based on spatial-temporal gait characteristics measured by a wearable device. *Sensors*  
564 (Switzerland). MDPI AG; 2020;20:1–15.

- 565 44. Brown LA, Sleik RJ, Winder TR. Attentional demands for static postural control after stroke.  
566 Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation. W.B. Saunders; 2002;83:1732–1735.
- 567 45. Varas-Diaz G, Kannan L, Bhatt T. Effect of mental fatigue on postural sway in healthy older adults  
568 and stroke populations. Brain Sciences. MDPI AG; 2020;10:1–17.
- 569 46. Mclsaac TL, Lamberg EM, Muratori LM. Building a Framework for a Dual Task Taxonomy. BioMed  
570 Research. 2015;2015.
- 571 47. Quinn L, Khalil H, Dawes H, et al. Reliability and minimal detectable change of physical  
572 performance measures in individuals with pre-manifest and manifest huntington disease. Physical  
573 Therapy. 2013;93.
- 574 48. Christopher A, Kraft E, Olenick H, Kiesling R, Doty A. The reliability and validity of the Timed Up and  
575 Go as a clinical tool in individuals with and without disabilities across a lifespan: a systematic  
576 review: Psychometric properties of the Timed Up and Go. Disability and Rehabilitation Taylor and  
577 Francis Ltd; 2019. p. 1–15.
- 578 49. Migliore S, D’Aurizio G, Curcio G, Squitieri F. Task-switching abilities in pre-manifest Huntington’s  
579 disease subjects. Parkinsonism and Related Disorders. Elsevier Ltd; 2019;60:111–117.
- 580 50. Rich JB, Troyer AK, Bylsma FW, Brandt J. Longitudinal analysis of phonemic clustering and switching  
581 during word-list generation in Huntington’s disease. Neuropsychology. American Psychological  
582 Association (APA); 1999;13:525–531.
- 583 51. Radovanović S, Vodopić S, Stanković I, Dragašević-Mišković N, Kostić V. Spatiotemporal gait  
584 characteristics of Huntington’s disease during dual-task walking. International Journal of  
585 Neuroscience. Taylor and Francis Ltd; 2020;130:136–143.
- 586 52. Bloem BR, Grimbergen YAM, van Dijk JG, Munneke M. The “posture second” strategy: A review of  
587 wrong priorities in Parkinson’s disease. Journal of the Neurological Sciences. 2006;248:196–204.
- 588 53. Yogev G, Giladi N, Peretz C, Springer S, Simon ES, Hausdorff JM. Dual tasking, gait rhythmicity, and  
589 Parkinson’s disease: Which aspects of gait are attention demanding? European Journal of  
590 Neuroscience. 2005;22:1248–1256.
- 591 54. Yogev-Seligmann G, Hausdorff JM, Giladi N. Do we always prioritize balance when walking?  
592 Towards an integrated model of task prioritization. Movement Disorders Mov Disord; 2012. p.  
593 765–770.
- 594 55. Canning CG. The effect of directing attention during walking under dual-task conditions in  
595 Parkinson’s disease. Parkinsonism and Related Disorders. Elsevier BV; 2005;11:95–99.
- 596 56. Yogev-Seligmann G, Rotem-Galili Y, Mirelman A, Dickstein R, Giladi N, Hausdorff JM. How does  
597 explicit prioritization alter walking during dual-task performance? Effects of age and sex on gait  
598 speed and variability. Physical Therapy. American Physical Therapy Association; 2010;90:177–186.

- 599 57. Springer S, Giladi N, Peretz C, Yogev G, Simon ES, Hausdorff JM. Dual-tasking effects on gait  
600 variability: The role of aging, falls, and executive function. *Movement Disorders. Mov Disord*;  
601 2006;21:950–957.
- 602 58. Lindenberger U, Marsiske M, Baltes PB. Memorizing while walking: Increase in dual-task costs from  
603 young adulthood to old age. *Psychology and Aging. American Psychological Association (APA)*;  
604 2000;15:417–436.
- 605
- 606
- 607

608

609

610 Table 1. Participant Demographics

	<b>HD</b>	<b>Control</b>	<b>p-value</b>
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]	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Fluency (# correct)	24.9 (11.6) [0-54]	43.1 (14.8) [20-65]	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Stroop (# correct)			
Word Reading	52.6 (20.5) [16-112]	92.2 (19.8) [57-128]	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Color Naming	49.7 (18.5) [17-89]	76.8 (15.7) [49-102]	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Interference	24.5 (11.5) [0-59]	46.4 (15.5) [28-80]	<b>&lt;0.001</b>

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 <sup>2</sup> )				Correct Response Rate (CRR)							
	Mean (SD)	F	P	η <sup>2</sup>	Mean(SD)	F	P	η <sup>2</sup>				
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.

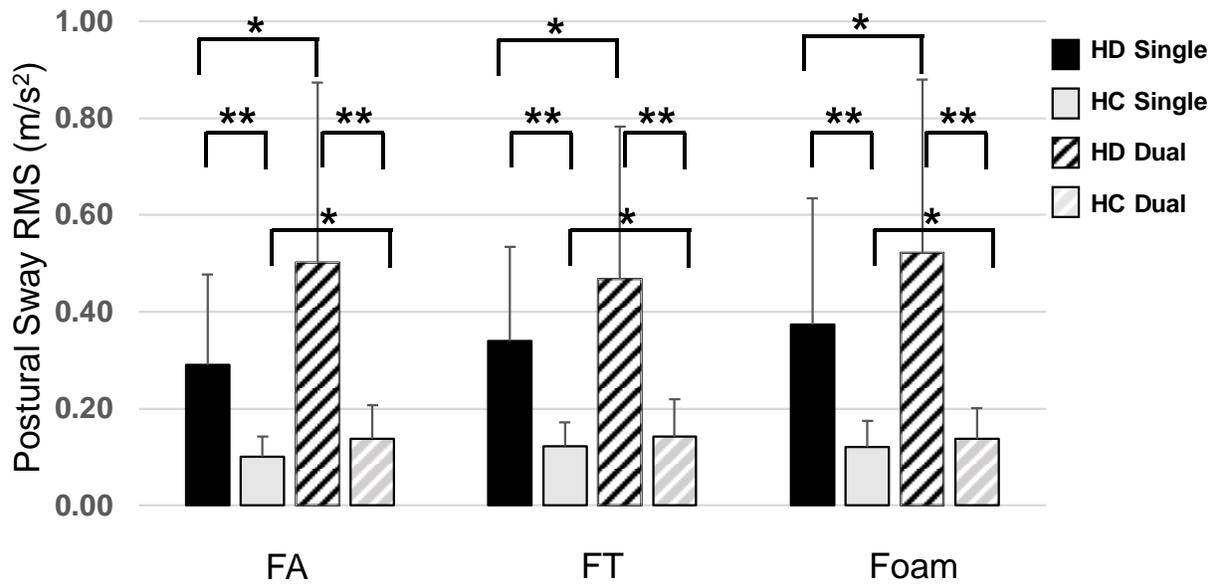


Fig 1. Mean(SD) root mean square (RMS) of postural sway for participants with HD and controls during three standing conditions (firm surface with feet apart (FA) and feet together (FT) and foam surface (Foam)) without (single) and with (dual) the Stroop interference task. The participants with HD consistently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

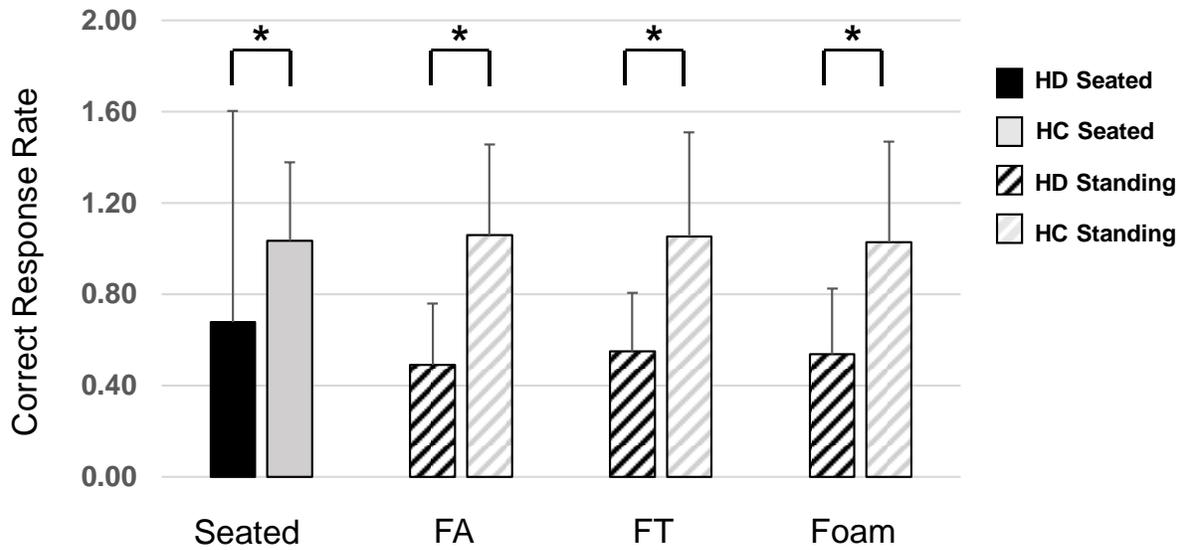


Fig 2. Mean (SD) correct response rate (CRR) on the Stroop interference task for participants with HD and controls seated and during three standing conditions (firm surface with feet apart (FA) and feet together (FT) and foam surface (Foam)). The two groups differ under all conditions (\* $p < 0.005$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

622  
 623  
 624  
 625  
 626  
 627  
 628  
 629  
 630  
 631  
 632  
 633

634

635

636

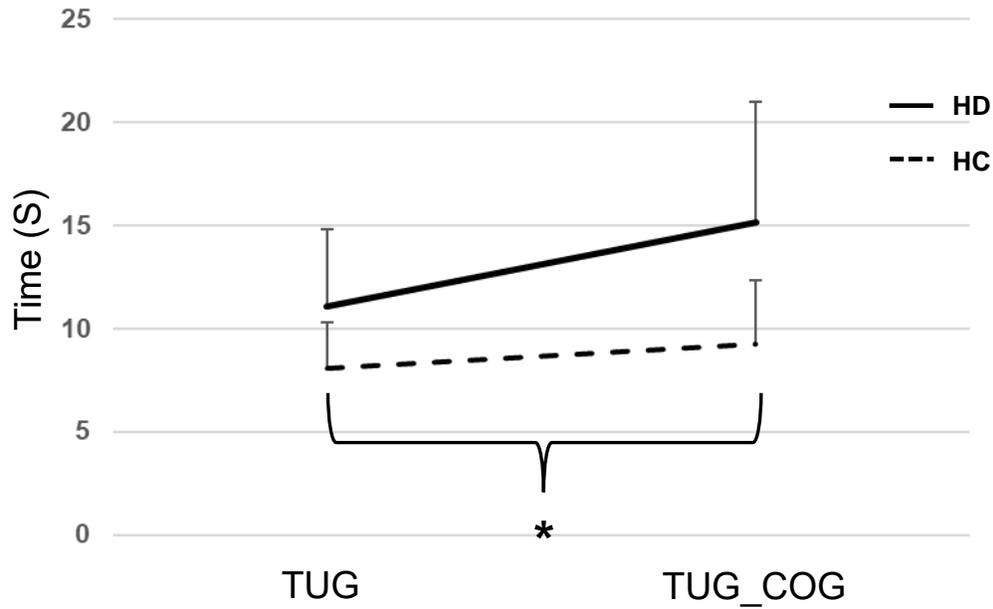
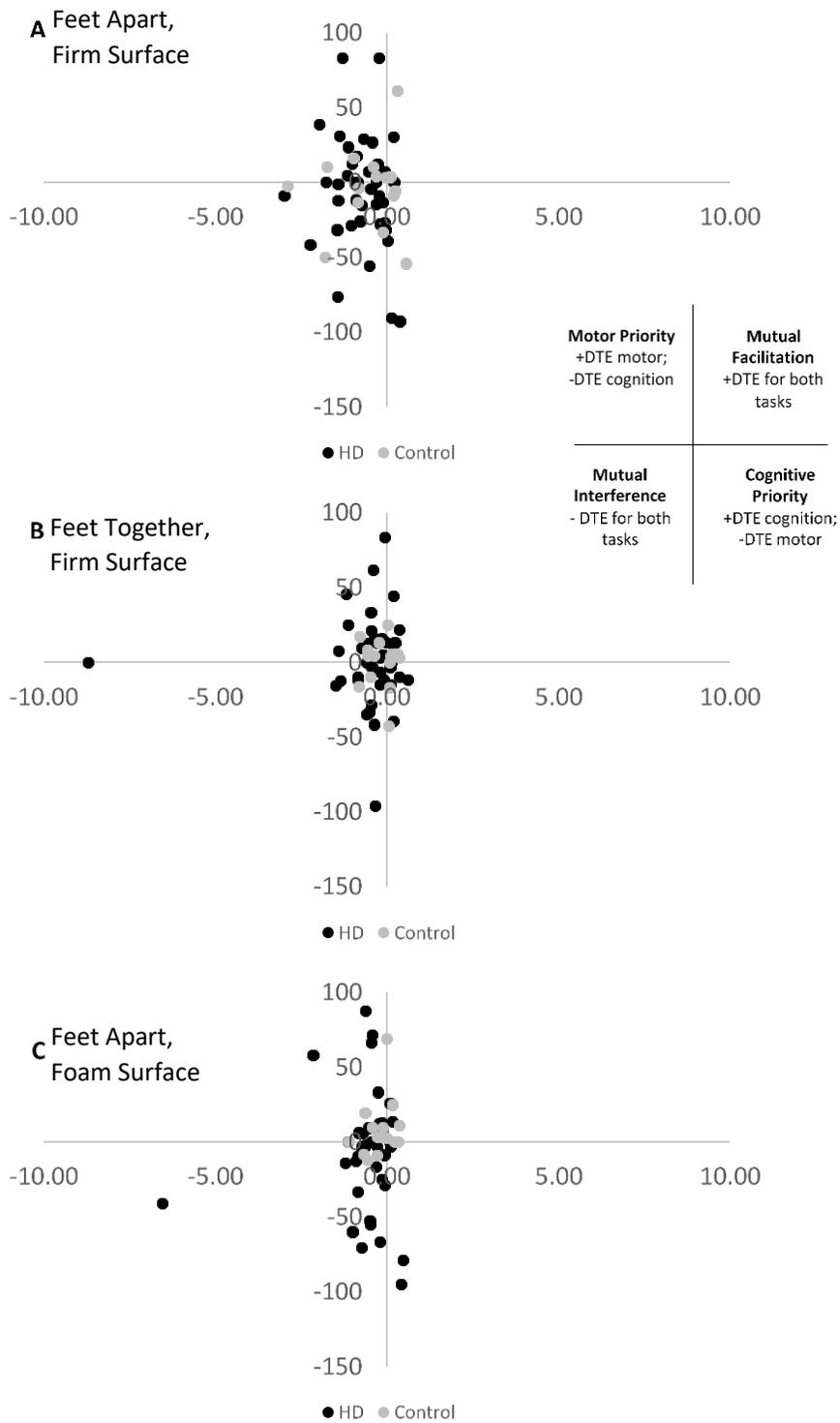


Fig 3. Mean (SD) Timed Up and Go (TUG) alone (A) and with a secondary cognitive task (TUG\_Cog) (B) for participants with HD and controls. While both HD and HC groups slowed during the more complex task ( $p < 0,001$ ) the two groups differed ( $p = 0.001$ ) such that HD participants becoming significantly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