

Available online at

ScienceDirect

www.sciencedirect.com

Elsevier Masson France





Original article

Effect of mHealth plus occupational therapy on cognitive function, mood and physical function in people after cancer: Secondary analysis of a randomized controlled trial



Mario Lozano-Lozano^{a,b,c,d,e}, Noelia Galiano-Castillo^{a,b,c,d,e}, Angela Gonzalez-Santos^{a,b,c,d,e}, Lucía Ortiz-Comino^{a,b,c,d}, Marc Sampedro-Pilegaard^{f,g}, Lydia Martín-Martín^{a,b,c,d,e,*}, Manuel Arroyo-Morales^{a,b,c,d,e}

- ^a Department of Physical Therapy, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Granada, Spain
- ^b Sport and Health Joint University Institute (iMUDS), Granada, Spain
- ^c Instituto de Investigación Biosanitaria ibs.GRANADA, Granada, Spain
- ^d "Cuídate" Support Unit for Oncology Patients, Granada, Spain
- ^e Unit of Excellence on Exercise and Health (UCEES), University of Granada, Granada, Spain
- f The Research Initiative of Activity Studies and Occupational Therapy, Department of Public Health, University of Southern Denmark, Denmark
- g REHPA, the Danish Knowledge Centre for Rehabilitation and Palliative care, Odense University Hospital, Denmark

ARTICLE INFO

Article History: Received 19 May 2021 Accepted 7 May 2022 Available online xxx

Keywords:
Breast cancer
Cancer survivors
Occupational therapy
Telemedicine
Rehabilitation
Cognitive function

ABSTRACT

Background: Medical and surgical treatments for breast cancer have various adverse effects. Both mobile health and supervised intervention strategies have been implemented to overcome these effects, but some gaps remain to be addressed. Scientific evidence for the effectiveness of occupational therapy in cancer is limited.

Objective: To compare the clinical effectiveness of the BENECA mHealth app used alone or combined with an integral supervised rehabilitation strategy that focused on cognitive performance, mood state, functional capacity, and cancer-related pain and fatigue in overweight women after breast cancer.

Methods: In this secondary analysis of an assessor-blinded randomized controlled clinical trial, 80 overweight women after breast cancer (stage I-IIIA) were randomly allocated to an integral approach group (IA; n=40) or a control group (CG; n=40). All participants participated in an 8-week intervention. Assessments were performed at baseline, 8 weeks, and 6 months and included cognitive performance (Trial Making Test and Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale), psychological state (Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale), pain (Brief Pain Inventory), fatigue (Piper Fatigue Scale), and physical function (6 min walk test). An intention-to-treat analysis was conducted with analysis of covariance.

Results: Selective attention (TMT) was significantly higher in the IA group, with a moderate to large effect size for TMT A (T2: d=1.1; T 3: d=1.2), working memory and processing speed (WAIS), anxiety and general HADS score (d=1.6), and functional capacity at 8 weeks and 6 months (d=1.5). Fatigue perception (mean difference, -0.6; 95% CI -1.4 to 0.04; p=0.009) and pain (intensity level p<0.001; interference level p=0.002) were also significantly more improved in the IA group.

Conclusions: An integral strategy involving the BENECA mHealth app with a supervised, multimodal intervention improved cognitive, psychological, and functional performance in women after breast cancer more than mHealth alone. Occupational therapy has a role to play in breast cancer rehabilitation.

© 2022 The Author(s). Published by Elsevier Masson SAS. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/)

Introduction

Cancer-related cognitive impairment is a highly reported problem in women after breast cancer [1]. Estimates of the rates of cognitive impairment related to cancer or chemotherapy treatment are varied, but the prevalence has been established to be between 65% and 75% after chemotherapy is completed, and 60% of individuals experience

E-mail address: lydia@ugr.es (L. Martín-Martín).

Database registration: ClinicalTrials.gov NCT02817724

 $^{^{\}ast}$ Corresponding author at: Department of Physical Therapy, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Granada, Spain.

late effects [2]. The exact causes of this phenomenon are not well known, but studies suggest it results from the cancer and its treatment and the individual's lifestyle and health [2]. Obesity can increase the risk of cancer worsening, recurrence and mortality and is also associated with neurocognitive disorders and poor mood in adults [3]. The effect on anxiety and depression is particularly relevant in women after cancer: after treatment, more than 30% of women experience anxiety and depression, which can persist for up to 10 years after diagnosis [4].

In addition to the emotional effects of cancer, cancer-related pain and fatigue form a cluster of symptoms that that lead to general deconditioning. Chronic pain is the most reported complication and usually has a neuropathic and nociceptive origin. Moderate to severe cancer-related fatigue is experienced by as many as one-third of women, even 10 years after the completion of treatment [4] and approximately 90% will have permanent treatment-related sequelae of this type [5]. These factors have a negative impact on the performance of their daily activities and on the satisfaction perceived in carrying them out [6]. New and effective intervention strategies are thus necessary.

Many women also report an inability to fully participate in social, physical, or instrumental activities of daily living after cancer treatment [7]. Occupational therapy (OT) is the most relevant rehabilitation discipline to address these difficulties. OT has been shown to improve psychological, cognitive, and functional processes in several populations including older people and those with stroke or hip fracture [8–10]. However, the scientific evidence available for its effectiveness in oncological populations is limited and inconclusive [11]. Innovative research is thus needed to fill the gap in the literature.

Our research team recently developed a randomized clinical trial that attempted to address the issues raised above. A mobile health application (app) called BENECA was designed and validated to monitor energy balance and promote a healthy lifestyle among women after cancer. We also developed an integral strategy that combined this application with a face-to-face OT rehabilitation program [12]. Our main results showed that this multimodal program is feasible and safe, and that it significantly improves quality of life, active range of motion, and upper limb function after 8 weeks of intervention [13]. The objective of this secondary analysis was to compare the clinical effectiveness of the BENECA mHealth app used alone versus the integral supervised rehabilitation strategy on cognitive performance, mood state, functional capacity, and cancer-related pain and fatigue. We hypothesized that both strategies would improve outcomes but that the integral strategy would produce larger improvements than the BENECA-alone strategy.

Methods

Study design and procedures

The rationale and study design have been previously described [12,13]. In brief, an assessor-blinded randomized controlled clinical trial compared an 8-week integral approach that combined the BENECA mHealth app and a face-to-face OT program (integral approach group: IA) with a usual care group that only received the mHealth lifestyle app (control group: CG). Both groups were followed up at 6 months. The study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the province of Granada (FIS PI14-01627). We reported the study according to the Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) statement.

Integral approach

The BENECA app is a validated mobile health application [14,15] that monitors the energy balance of individuals in terms of physical activity and diet. It provides real-time feedback about a possible

energy imbalance and recommendations to improve this [14]. The program included technical-therapeutic activities based on the Occupational Therapy Practice Framework: Domain and Process developed from the American Occupational Therapy Association [16] and Cognitive Orientation to Daily Occupational Performance (CO-OP) cognitive functional training [17] (supplementary Table 1). No major changes in methodology were made after the start of the trial [12,13].

Participants

The sociodemographic and clinical characteristics of the participants can be found in a previously published study, along with the RCT flowchart [13]. Participants were recruited from two hospitals: "Virgen de las Nieves" University Hospital and "San Cecilio" University Hospital, Granada (Spain). Eligible participants 1) were aged 25-75 years, 2) were diagnosed with stage I-IIIA breast cancer, 3) were overweight or obese according to the Spanish SEEDO guideline, 4) were able to access mobile apps or living with someone who had this ability, 5) were medically cleared for participation, 6) completed adjuvant therapy, except hormonal therapy, and 7) signed informed consent. The exclusion criteria were: 1) cancer recurrence, 2) chronic disease or orthopaedic issues that would interfere with study participation, and 3) uncontrolled hypertension (diastolic pressure > 95 mmHg).

Randomization and masking

In our previous primary study, subjects were randomly assigned using 3 waves (25:30:25) (Epidat, v. 4.2, 2016. Consellería de Sanidade, Xunta de Galicia, España; Organización Panamericana de la salud; Universidad CES, Colombia). An external researcher was responsible for treatment allocation with opaque envelopes to ensure blinding of the assessor to the whole randomisation process.

Outcomes

Participants were evaluated at 3 stages: baseline (T1), postintervention (T2) and 6-month follow-up (T3). The outcomes of the current study are described below.

Cognitive performance

Trail making test (TMT). TMT part A (TMT-A) consists of randomly connecting numbers from 1 to 25 as quickly as possible in the correct way. This test portion is related to visual searching, visual scanning attention and motor speed. In TMT part B (TMT-B), both numbers (from 1 to 13) and letters (from A to L) are connected in an alternating manner (1-A-2-B-3-C, etc.). TMT-B has been reported as a valid measure of the executive function of set shifting. The time required is recorded for both sections (s). We also calculated the derived ratio score (TMT-B/TMT-A).

Wechsler adult intelligence scale (WAIS). The Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Fourth Edition (WAIS-IV) is a recognized task in neuropsychological assessments. Considering our purpose, we used only two subtests of a total of 15 (core and supplemental subtests). The Working Memory Index (WMI) measures how well the individual can remember things using two specific tasks (arithmetic and digit span), and the Processing Speed Index (PSI) evaluates how quickly the person works with the other two tasks (digit symbol coding and symbol search). We calculated WAIS-IV scores according to standardized procedures (Cronbach's alpha > 0.9).

Psychological state

Hospital anxiety and depression scale (HADS). The HADS measures symptoms of anxiety and depression in people with cancer. It contains 14 items on a four-point Likert scale (ranging from 0 to 3) to assess anxiety (odd items) and depression (even items) (Cronbach's α =0.85 and α =0.83, respectively).

Pain perception and fatigue

Brief pain inventory (BPI). The BPI short form (BPI-SF) includes 4 intensity and 7 interference pain items. All of them refer to the last 24 h. In this study, both blocks of items were averaged (Cronbach's α =0.87-0.89).

Piper fatigue scale (PFS). The revised version (R-PFS) of this scale was used to measure fatigue, with a total of 22 items divided into 4 dimensions: behavioural/severity, affective meaning, sensory, and cognitive/mood (Cronbach's α =0.97).

Functional capacity

6 min walk test (6MWT). The test was performed in a 30-m-long hall-way in our research centre. Participants were asked to walk as quickly as possible for 6 min while a qualified staff member counted every lap (60-m round trip). During the task, standardized phrases of encouragement were given (intraclass correlation coefficient = 0.88<r<0.94).

Data analyses

First, descriptive analysis and normal distribution verification tests were carried out. Second, homogeneity between groups at baseline was tested using a Student t or Chi-squared/Fisher tests or equivalent nonparametric tests, as appropriate. The data contained few missing values (< 5% of the total number of cases), thus we considered missing values to be random and inconsequential and did not apply any imputation method. Finally, and consistent with our main analysis, we used intention-to-treat (ITT) analysis. If a significant interaction was found in the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), we performed a post hoc Bonferroni test. Based on clinical and research knowledge, we analysed the following covariates: age, BMI, type of surgery, cancer treatment received, stage, time since diagnosis and surgery, and marital status. We calculated Cohen d effect sizes (ES) to examine clinical differences. All statistical tests were two-tailed and p< 0.05 was considered significant. To avoid repeating details that have been published elsewhere, we have provided here a summary of the statistical data. All statistical analyses were performed using Stata Statistical Software StataCorp. 2019: Release 16. College Station, TX: StataCorp LLC.

Results

The final sample included in the analysis consisted of 78 women after breast cancer: IA group (n=40) and CG (n=38). The baseline scores of each of the variables did not differ between groups (Supplementary Table 2).

Cognitive performance

For the TMT (Table 1) the main ANCOVA indicated a significant time x group interaction for both parts A (F=15.1; p<0.001) and B (F=4.5; p=0.014) as well as the ratio score (F=5.8; p=0.004), with higher scores in the IA group. Between-group analysis of change from T1 to T2 showed significantly greater change in the IA group, with a greater reduction in performance time: part A (p<0.001), part B (p=0.004) and the ratio score (p=0.005). At T3, although scores

improved in the CG, the significantly greater improvements in the IA group were maintained on all subscales: part A (p<0.001), part B (p=0.035), and the ratio score (p=0.002). The results did not change when the covariates were included.

For the WAIS (Table 1), significant interactions were found for both the WMI (F=13.5; p<0.001) and the PSI (F=5.4; p<0.006), with higher scores in the IA group than in the CG. The scores for both subscales improved in both groups from T1 to T2, however, betweengroup analysis of change showed that the change in the IA group was significantly greater than that of the CG: WMI (p<0.001) and PSI (p=0.036). At T3, the greater improvement in the IA group were maintained, whereas the CG group score decreased slightly compared with T1: WAIS (p<0.001) and PSI (p=0.002). The results did not change when the covariates were included.

Psychological state

For the HADS (Fig. 1), the main ANCOVA indicated a significant time x group interaction on the anxiety subscale (F=24.7; p<0.001) and the global score (F=13.1; p<0.001) but not on the depression subscale (F=0.8; p=0.463). At T2, anxiety levels (p<0.001) and overall score (p<0.001) were significantly more reduced in the IA group compared than the CG. At T3, the between-group difference was maintained for both anxiety (p<0.001) and global score (p=0.001). The results did not change when the covariates were included.

Pain perception

For the BPI (Table 2), there was a significant time x group interaction for the intensity level (F=25.6; p<0.001) and the interference level (F=6.6; p=0.002). Between-group analysis of change from T1 to T2 showed a significantly higher reduction in pain intensity perception score (p<0.001) and pain interference (p=0.001) in the IA group than the CG. At T3, between-group differences were maintained on the intensity subscale (p<0.001), whereas the interference subscale showed a trend towards significance (p=0.050). The results did not change when the covariates were included.

Fatigue

For the PFS (Table 2), the main analysis showed a significant time x group interaction for the cognitive (F=7.9; p=0.001) and affective (F=3.5; p=0.036) dimensions as well as in the overall scale score (F=5.0; p=0.009) but not in the behaviour (F=2.1; p=0.125) or mood (F=1.3; p=0.287) dimensions. From T1 to T2 perception of fatigue reduced in the cognitive dimension for the IA group (p<0.001), whereas it increased in the CG for this dimension. Affective dimension (p=0.024) and global score (p=0.007) both reduced in both groups, with a significantly greater reduction in the IA group. At T3, only the between-group difference for the cognitive dimension was maintained (p=0.007), with a tendency towards significance on the global score (p=0.074), and a loss of the effect on the affective dimension (p=0.334). All the scores were better in the IA group for the other items, although the between-group difference was not significant. The results did not change when the covariates were included.

Functional capacity

For the 6MWT (Fig. 2), significant effects for distance were found in the main analysis (F=24.0; p<0001). Distance walked improved in both groups from T1 to T2 and T1 to T3, however between-group analysis of change from T1 to T2 showed that distance walked improved significantly more in the IA group (p<0.001); this effect was maintained at T3 (p<0.001). The results did not change when the covariates were included.

Table 1Within-group and between-group effects for cognitive outcome measures at T1–T3.

Outcome Measures	Study Group				
	Control Group (n = 38) mean (SD; 95% CI)	IA Group (n = 39) ^a mean (SD; 95% CI)	Between-Group Effects mean diff (95% CI)		
Trail Making Test (TMT)					
TMT A					
T1	40.9 (19.0; 34.7 to 47.2)	45.4 (13.2; 41.1 to 49.7)			
T2	39.90 (18.9; 33.7 to 46.1)	35.1 (9.9; 31.9 to 38.3)			
T3	40.5 (17.8; 34.7 to 46.4)	34.9 (9.4; 31.9 to 37.9)			
Within-group effects					
T1 to T2	-1.0 (-3.8 to 1.7)	-10.3 (-12.9 to -7.8)	-9.3 (-12.9 to -5.6) ^b		
T1 to T3	-0.4 (-3.0 to 2.2)	-10.5 (-13.1 to -7.9)	-10.1 (-13.8 to -6.4) ^b		
TMT B	, ,	, ,	,		
T1	97.9 (30.4; (87.9 to 107.9)	107.3 (35.9; 95.7 to 118.9)			
T2	93.0 (27.9; 83.8 to 102.2)	92.9 (25.9; 84.5 to 101.4)			
T3	91.8 (27.3; 82.8 to 100.8)	92.5 (24.8; 84.5 to 100.5)			
Within-group effects					
T1 to T2	-4.9 (-9.4 to -0.4)	-14.4 (-18.8 to -9.9)	$-9.5 (-15.8 \text{ to } -3.1)^{\circ}$		
T1 to T3	-6.1 (-11.9 to -0.3)	-14.8 (-20.5 to -9.1)	$-8.7 (-16.8 \text{ to } -0.6)^{\circ}$		
TMT Ratio B:A					
T1	2.6 (0.8; 2.4 to 2.9)	2.50 (0.9; 2.1 to 2.8)			
T2	2.5 (0.7; 2.3 to 2.8)	2.8 (0.9; 2.5 to 3.1)			
T3	2.4 (0.7; 2.2 to 2.7)	2.8 (0.9; 2.5 to 3.1)			
Within-group effects	, , , ,	,			
T1 to T2	-0.1 (-0.3 to 0.1)	0.3 (0.1 to 0.4)	$0.4(0.1 \text{ to } 0.6)^{c}$		
T1 to T3	-0.2 (-0.4 to 0.03)	0.3 (0.1 to 0.5)	$0.5 (0.1 \text{ to } 0.7)^{c}$		
Wechsler Adult Intelligence S		,	,		
WMI					
T1	76.7 (15.6; 71.6 to 81.9)	72.3 (17.9; 66.5 to 78.0)			
T2	84.9 (13.2; 80.6 to 89.3)	99.3 (15.0; 94.5 to 104.1)			
T3	80.6 (14.4; 75.8 to 85.3)	95.9 (9.9; 92.8 to; 99.1)			
Within-group effects	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	,			
T1 to T2	8.2 (2.1 to 14.2)	27.1 (21.2 to 33.0)	18.9 (10.4 to 27.3) ^b		
T1 to T3	3.8 (-1.6 to 9.2)	23.7 (18.4 to 29.0)	19.9 (12.3 to 27.4) ^b		
PSI	,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	,		
T1	95.4 (11.0; 91.8 to 99.0)	92.9 (16.8; 87.6 to 98.3)			
T2	97.6 (12.8; 93.4 to 101.9)	102.6 (12.1; 98.7 to 106.4)			
T3	94.7 (11.9; 90.8 to 98.7)	103.1 (12.2; 99.2 to 107.0)			
Within-group effects	,, ,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,			
T1 to T2	2.2 (-2.8 to 7.2)	9.7 (4.8 to 14.5)	$7.4(0.5\text{to}14.4)^{c}$		
T1 to T3	-0.7 (-5.4 to 4.0)	10.2 (5.5 to 14.8)	10.8 (4.2 to 17.4) ^c		

Abreviations: CI, Confidence Interval; PSI, Processing Speed Index; WMI, Working Memory Index. Bonferroni adjustment was used for pairwise comparisons.

- ^a A withdrawal due to the impossibility of taking the test on the day of the evaluation
- b p<0.001 (significant between-groups effect)
- c p<0.05 (significant between-groups effect).

Clinical effect

The ES of the significant differences between groups at T2 and T3 are shown in Fig. 3. Most ES were moderate to large, with the largest ES found at T2 and T3 for TMT A time (d=1.1; CI 95% 0.7–1.6; d=1.2; CI 95% 0,7–1,7, respectively), as well as for the reduction in the anxiety level measured with the HADS (d=1.6; CI 95% 1.1–2.1; d=1.2; CI 95% 0.6–1.5, respectively), and functional capacity assessed with the 6MWT (d=1.5; CI 95% 1.0–2.01; d=1.2; CI 95% 0.6–1.6, respectively).

Discussion

The results showed improvements in most variables for both the IA group and CG, however, improvements were significantly greater in the IA group for selective attention (TMT), working memory and processing speed (WAIS), anxiety, general HADS score and functional capacity (6MWT) after the intervention. Furthermore, results were mostly maintained at 6 months. Fatigue perception and pain also improved more in the IA group, especially after intervention, with some scores maintained at 6 months.

Cognitive performance

ES for the TMT and WAIS subscales were larger in the IA group after the intervention (moderate-to-large) (d > 1). There is a lack of studies on multimodal interventions for cognitive impairment in

women with breast cancer post-chemotherapy [18], but the existing evidence indicates that multimodal approaches for the treatment of cognitive decline may be more effective than single modalities owing to the enhanced brain stimulation from different interventions [18].

Nonpharmacological cognitive treatments based on cognitive interventions, physical activity or meditation/relaxation techniques have also been shown to improve cognitive impairment in individuals after cancer [19]. However, these improvements have been mainly found in evaluations close to the end of treatment (immediately after intervention [20] and 2 months after completion [21]) in studies involving computer applications. These results corroborate the more significant improvement in scores in our CG at the end of the mHealth app intervention than at the 6-month follow-up. In contrast, improvements were greater in the IA group at all time points. A study involving a supervised cognitive-behavioural approach that comprised cognitive skills, education, self-awareness, and activity scheduling with a phone call follow-up found improvements in cognitive function and quality of life that were also maintained at 6 months (ES for TMTA = 0.9 and for TMTB = 0.6) [22]. We believe that the similar results of the present study, as well as the maintenance of the effect size in the long term, may be due to the combination of functionally based cognitive training involving on purposeful activity combined with strategies that included new technologies, as pointed out in recent systematic reviews [23]. This theory supports our hypothesis regarding the need to combine strategies to provide a comprehensive and holistic intervention for women after breast cancer.

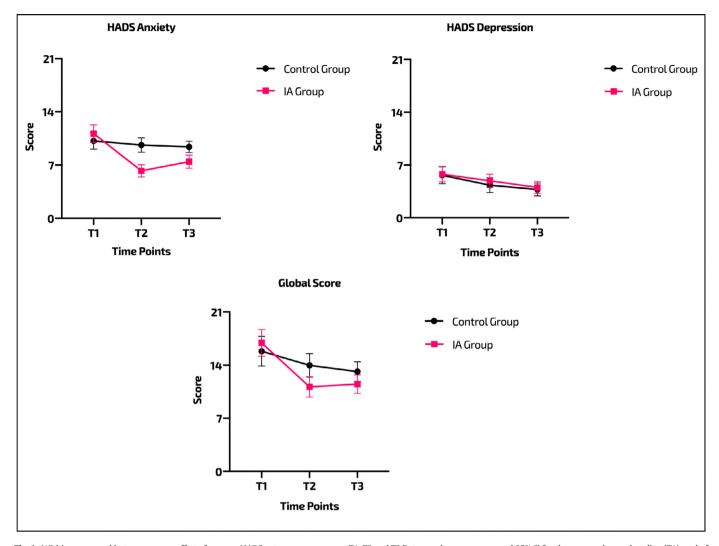


Fig. 1. Within-group and between-group effects for mean HADS outcome measures at T1, T2 and T3.Data are shown as mean and 95% CI for the mean values at baseline (T1), end of the 8-week intervention (T2) and 6-month follow-up (T3).

Psychological state

Several studies have also found that psychosocial strategies, including educational [24] and exercise interventions [25], reduce anxiety and depression post-treatment. For example, a recent study compared the effects of the use of a health and wellness coaching app versus a self-guided toolkit and one-time health education session to improve diet, physical activity rates, weight loss, depression, and fatigue in women with breast cancer (stage 0-III). In the app group, weight reduced, levels of strenuous physical activity increased, and dietary patterns improved. Fatigue and depression also improved although not significantly [26]. This matches our findings regarding depression levels, which did not improve as much as the other variables. We believe that this may relate to the duration of our study (8 weeks): it seems that interventions that last longer than 12 weeks produced larger effects on depression.

Pain

The between-group ES for pain interference was moderate however, the ES for pain intensity was large, in favour of the IA group. The evidence on the benefits of different interventions for pain in people with breast cancer mostly refers to unimodal treatments. However, the considerable heterogeneity of the available studies of this type and their methodological limitations prevent wellestablished conclusions from being drawn. We believe that the multimodal approach of our program accounts for the improvements in the variables evaluated and explains the significant improvements in pain levels in the IA group.

Fatigue

The between-group ES for fatigue was moderate for all the subscales. It is known that exercise interventions significantly reduce fatigue levels in people with cancer. A recent meta-analysis stated that exercise produces moderate benefits for cognitive, physical, and general cancer-related fatigue (p<0.01) [27], and studies of other mobile health interventions have also found that exercise contributes to reducing fatigue more than a self-guided toolkit or usual care [26]. Nevertheless, the self-management of perceived fatigue is influenced not only by treatment or physical state but also by social support [28]. The participants in the IA group were integrated into a group composed of health personnel and peers who provided social support during the intervention. This group created bonds that we think positively influenced improvements in their subjective perception of fatigue that may partly explain the significantly lower levels of fatigue in all subscales compared to the CG. Nonetheless, the type of exercise we implemented may also have influenced the results. Lowand moderate-intensity exercise seems to be more effective than high intensity exercise; it allows the individual to pace themselves

Within-group and between-group effects for pain and fatigue measures at T1-T3.

Outcome Measures	Study Group Control Group (n = 38) mean (SD; 95% CI)	IA Group (n = 40) mean (SD; 95% CI)	Between-Group Effects mean diff (95% CI)
Brief Pain Inventory (BPI)			
BPI Intensity			
Baseline	4.3 (1.6; 3.8 to 4.9)	4.9 (1.9; 4.4 to 5.6)	
8 week Intervention	4.5 (1.9; 3.9 to 5.2)	2.4 (1.7; 1.8 to 2.9)	
6 months Follow-up	3.9 (1.7; 3.4 to 4.5)	2.3 (1.7; 1.8 to 2.9)	
Within-group effects	, ,	, ,	
Baseline to 8 weeks	0.22 (-0.33 to 0.78)	-2.56 (-3.10 to -2.02)	-2.8 (-3.6 to -2.0) ^a
Baseline to 6 months	-0.3 (-0.9 to 0.3)	-2.7 (-3.3 to -2.0)	-2.3 (-3.2 to -1.4) ^a
BPI Interference			
Baseline	4.9 (1.9; 4.3 to 5.6)	4.6 (2.1; 3.9 to 5.3)	
8 week Intervention	3.8 (1.9; 3.2 to; 4.4)	2.0 (1.9; 1.4 to; 2.7)	
6 months Follow-up	3.5 (1.9; 2.8 to; 4.1)	2.2 (2.0) (1.5; 2.8)	
Within-group effects			
Baseline to 8 weeks	-1.1 (-1.7 to -0.5)	-2.5 (-3.1 to -1.9)	-1.4 (0.6 to 2.3) ^b
Baseline to 6 months	-1.4 (-2.1 to -0.7)	-2.4 (-3.1 to -1.7)	-0.9 (-1.9 to -0.01)
Piper Fatigue Scale (PFS) PFS Behaviour			
Baseline	3.8 (2.5; 2.9 to 4.6)	3.1 (2.2; 2.4 to 2.9)	
8 week Intervention	3.4 (2.1; 2.7 to; 4.1)	1.9 (1.7; 1.4 to 2.5)	
6 months Follow-up	3.2 (1.9; 2.6 to; 2.9)	1.9 (1.5; 1.5 to 2.5)	
Within-group effects	3.2 (1.5, 2.0 to, 2.5)	1.5 (1.5, 1.5 to 2.5)	
Baseline to 8 weeks	-0.4 (-0.9 to 0.1)	-1.1 (-1.6 to -0.5)	-0.7 (-1.4 to 0.0)
Baseline to 6 months	-0.5 (-1.1 to 0.1)	-1.0 (-1.6 to -0.5)	-0.5 (-1.3 to 0.3)
PFS Mood	-0.5 (-1.1 to 0.1)	-1.0 (-1.0 to -0.5)	-0.5 (-1.5 to 0.5)
Baseline	3.3 (2.2; 2.6 to 4.1)	3.6 (2.6; 2.8 to; 4.4)	
8 week Intervention	2.9 (2.1; 2.2 to; 3.6)	2.5 (1.8; 1.9 to 3.0)	
6 months Follow-up	2.7 (1.7; 2.1 to 3.3)	2.5 (1.8; 1.9 to 3.1)	
Within-group effects	217 (117, 211 to 313)	210 (110, 110 to 311)	
Baseline to 8 weeks	-0.4 (-1.0 to 0.2)	-1.0 (-1.7 to -0.4)	-0.6 (-1.5 to 0.2)
Baseline to 6 months	-0.6 (-1.2 to 0.0)	-1.0 (-1.6 to -0.4)	-0.4 (-1.3 to 0.4)
PFS Cognitive	,	,	,
Baseline	3.2 (2.1; 2.5 to 3.9)	3.6 (2.3; 2.8 to 4.3)	
8 week Intervention	3.9 (2.2; 3.2 to 4.6)	2.6 (1.6; 2.1 to 3.1)	
6 months Follow-up	3.6 (2.2; 2.9 to 4.3)	2.6 (1.9; 1.9 to 3.3)	
Within-group effects	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
Baseline to 8 weeks	0.7 (0.1 to 1.3)	-0.9 (-1.5 to -0.3)	-1.6 (-2.5 to -0.7) ^a
Baseline to 6 months	0.4 (-0.2 to 1.1)	-0.9 (-1.6 to -0.2)	-1.3 (-2.2 to -0.3) ^b
PFS Affective	,	,	,
Baseline	3.5 (1.9; 2.8 to 4.1)	3.7 (2.3; 2.9 to 4.4)	
8 week Intervention	3.5 (1.8; (2.9 to 4.1)	2.8 (1.8; 2.2 to 3.4)	
6 months Follow-up	2.9 (1.6; 2.5 to 3.5)	2.7 (1.7; 2.2 to 3.3)	
Within-group effects	, ,	, ,	
Baseline to 8 weeks	-0.0 (-0.5 to 0.5)	-0.8 (-1.4 to -0.3)	-0.8 (-1.6 to -0.1) ^b
Baseline to 6 months	-0.5 (-1.2 to 0.2)	-0.9 (-1.6 to -0.2)	-0.4 (-1.4 to 0.5)
PFS Global			
Baseline	3.5 (1.9; 2.8 to 4.1)	3.5 (2.1; 2.8 to 4.1)	
8 week Intervention	3.3 (1.8; 2.8 to 3.9)	2.4 (1.5; 1.9 to 2.9)	
6 months Follow-up	3.1 (1.6; 2.6 to 3.6)	2.4 (1.5; 1.9 to 2.9)	
Within-group effects			
Baseline to 8 weeks	-0.1 (-0.6 to 0.4)	-1.0 (-1.5 to -0.6)	-0.9 (-1.6 to -0.2) ^b
Baseline to 6 months	-0.3 (-0.9 to 0.2)	-1.0 (-1.5 to -0.5)	-0.6 (-1.4 to 0.1)

Abbreviations: CI, Confidence Interval. Bonferroni adjustment was used for pairwise comparisons.

and perform graded activities and thus helps fatigue management [29]. Adherence appears to be equally important: a meta-analysis showed that high adherence rates lead to better fatigue outcomes in cancer [29].

Functional capacity

The between-group ES for functional capacity was also in favour of the IA group (d>1). Another study showed that 8-week internetbased tailored exercise program significantly improved functional and cognitive performance in women with breast cancer compared with the CG [30]. Distance on the 6MWT improved significantly in the telehealth system group (d=0.9, p<0.001), and the positive effects were maintained at the 6-month follow-up. Similarly, a study of a personalized circuit training program (50-minutes of group exercise

twice a week for 6 weeks) for palliative cancer care, found a significant improvement in the participants' walking distance [31].

Some factors must also be considered when analysing our results, such as the interplay between symptoms and between symptoms and cognitive function. Pain and psychological disorders are strongly related in people with cancer, and pain is a known aggravating factor for depression [32] and anxiety [33], which are common in people with chronic pain [34]. Pain intensity is higher in individuals with cancer and depression [35], and mood disorders are worse in people with cancer-related pain. Thus, we hypothesize that some cognitive improvement is partially due to improvements in these variables, as the literature suggests. However, precautions should be taken when making assumptions regarding emotional outcomes. Although depression and anxiety are frequently associated with cognitive impairment, the association between psychological variables and

a p<0.001 (significant between-groups effect)
 b p<0.05 (significant between-groups effect.

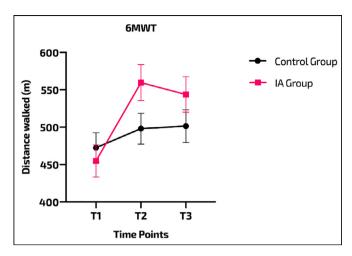


Fig. 2. Within-group and between-group effects for mean 6MWT outcome measures at T1, T2 and T3.Data are shown as mean and 95% CI for the mean values at baseline (T1), end of the 8-week intervention (T2) and 6-month follow-up (T3). 6MWT: 6-min walk test.

cognitive impairment is inconsistent among studies, especially with objectively measured cognitive impairment, as in our study [36]. Finally, concerning fatigue, several studies have also demonstrated a relationship between subjective cognitive impairment and fatigue [37,38]: processing speed is reduced when participants report high levels of fatigue [39]. However, short-term fluctuations may have little effect on perceived cognition months later [38].

When considered as a whole, the literature suggests that the cooccurrence of symptoms such as pain, fatigue or affected mood may result from shared physiological and/or behavioural mechanisms that may together contribute to cognitive impairment beyond the contribution of a single side effect. In addition, one symptom may exacerbate others, contributing to reduced cognitive function. Nevertheless, although research supports an association between these symptoms and cognitive impairment, the direction of the relationships remains unclear.

Regarding the effects of our interventions, previous studies have reported that mHealth interventions offer a promising approach to encourage health behaviour changes among cancer survivors [40], with positive effects on diet, activity participation and fatigue. Our app was designed to monitor physical activity and diet and provides recommendations to improve them when unbalanced. Our integral approach also included individualized technical-therapeutic exercises and group psychomotricity sessions. In addition, participants were guided to extrapolate the exercises to their daily activities. Other studies found that improved health behaviours, including more physical activity and changes in diet, are related to improvements in several cancer parameters, such as emotional well-being and mental health, fatigue, and pain [41]. There is also strong evidence supporting the positive impacts of physical activity on cognition across the lifespan [42], and physical activity has been shown to confer other health benefits to people with breast cancer [43]. The literature highlights exercise training as a potential method to improve varying cognitive domains after breast cancer [44], such as processing speed, spatial working memory, and self-reported cognition [45]. Even low-intensity exercises, such as those used in our study, may benefit cognitive function [46]. The mechanisms underlying the influence of physical activity on cognitive function are unknown, but research suggests that exercise may impact cellular ageing, which could reduce accelerated ageing and improve cognitive function in these populations [47].

Most of the symptoms evaluated improved in both intervention groups in the present study. However, compared with face-to-face interventions that incorporated supervision and interaction [40],

fewer positive results, which were also less well maintained over time, were found in the BENECA mHealth group. Group interventions provide emotional and social support and help participants cope with symptoms and fears and, consequently, reduce symptoms of depression [48]. The IA group participated in a compensation-based program targeted at performance and participation to help participants improve and learn new skills to complete everyday life activities; this type of support is typically provided by occupational therapists [17]. This program used education in occupational performance, occupational balance, performance of activities of daily living and stress management as strategies to manage cancer related cognitive impairment. The evidence suggests that this type of program improves executive functions and activity performance [49], and other psychoeducational approaches have already been shown to be effective in people with cancer [19]. The theories that explain this effectiveness are based on experience-dependent neuroplasticity [50] and the consequent functional changes in the brain. A study of metacognitive strategy training found that a Cognitive Orientation to daily Occupational Performance program improved cognitive performance and subjective activity performance in women with chemotherapy-induced cognitive impairment [17], similarly to our study.

This study has several limitations [13]. For ethical reasons, we did not include a CG with no intervention, and our intention was to identify differences between the 2 intervention modalities. Nevertheless, our IA group intervention aligns with the recommendations in the literature. The OT intervention followed previous recommendations in cancer therapy and included exercise/physical activity and occupation-based interventions (such as energy conservation and other education techniques to address symptoms). This group received an integral strategy, and several studies have also compared combined interventions with simple interventions, reporting better results in the groups that received the combined interventions. However, the IA group received far more health-professional attention compared to the m-Health group, which may be a limitation of the work. Applications specifically designed to address all these variables would be necessary to draw firm conclusions about the comparison with the face-to-face intervention. Finally, the program in this study may not be sustainable due to the time required by staff.

A strength of this study, is that it was a comparative effectiveness study. We wanted to determine if mHealth is as good as mHealth combined plus a face-to-face intervention to determine if the face-to-face intervention is truly worthwhile. As a comparative effectiveness study, our research sought to determine whether mHealth is as effective as mHealth plus face-to-face intervention to determine whether face-to-face intervention, which is very costly, is essential. Finally, some inclusion criteria, such as overweight/obesity, may limit the generalizability of the results. However, overweight/obesity has recently become a cancer comorbidity of special research interest, requiring specific and detailed analysis due to its consequences, such as increased recurrence or mortality.

Along with the results in the literature, the results of the present study show that mHealth may be useful in many circumstances, including in people after cancer. First, its benefits seem to outweigh its costs. Second, some studies have also shown that mHealth can improve health in terms of quality of life, pain, function, fatigue and cognition [30]. Furthermore, our study also reveals the valuable role of including an individualized intervention in people with breast cancer. Equally, our results support the inclusion of OT in cancer rehabilitation: OT is underused in this field according to the literature [40]. In addition, we consider the use of multidisciplinary teams appropriate. The multidisciplinary approach plays a key role in helping clinicians engage with the growing needs of people with cancer. Likewise, our study may help to overcome the research gap concerning cancer rehabilitation, as we have tested the effects of multiple components in this population through the OT perspective. Our results showed that the inclusion of a supervised OT intervention along with an

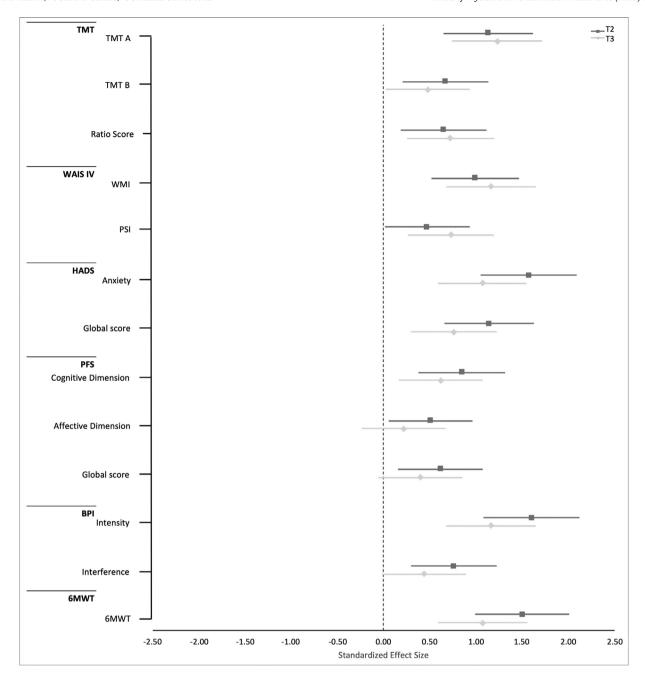


Fig. 3. Standardized effect sizes (and 95% CIs) of the difference between treatment groups for cognitive performance, psychological state, fatigue and pain perception and functional capacity outcomes.

mHealth app is more beneficial for people after cancer than mHealth alone. Future research should attempt to design an application that assists in the identification of individuals who benefit eligible for mHealth alone and those who need to be supported by an additional face-to-face intervention.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None.

Acknowledgments

The study was funded by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (Plan Estatal de I+D+I 2013-2016), Fondo de

Investigación Sanitaria del Instituto de Salud Carlos III (PI14/01627), Fondos Estructurales de la Unión Europea (FEDER), and by the Spanish Ministry of Education (FPU14/01069 and FPU18/03575). This study took place thanks to additional funding from the University of Granada, Plan Propio de Investigación 2016, Excellence Actions: Units of Excellence; Unit of Excellence on Exercise and Health (UCEES). Funding for open access charge: Universidad de Granada / CBUA. This work was part of a PhD thesis conducted in the Clinical Medicine and Public Health Doctoral Studies of the University of Granada, Spain.

Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.rehab.2022.101681.

References

- [1] Bray F, Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Siegel RL, Torre LA, Jemal A. Global cancer statistics 2018: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. CA Cancer J Clin 2018;68(6):394–424 [Internet]Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30207593.
- [2] Cerulla Torrente N, Navarro Pastor JB, de la Osa Chaparro N. Systematic review of cognitive sequelae of non-central nervous system cancer and cancer therapy. J Cancer Surviv 2020;14(4):464–82.
- [3] Veronese N, Facchini S, Stubbs B, Luchini C, Solmi M, Manzato E, et al. Weight loss is associated with improvements in cognitive function among overweight and obese people: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 2017;72:87–94.
- [4] Lovelace DL, McDaniel LR, Golden D. Long-term effects of breast cancer surgery, treatment, and survivor care. J Midwifery Womens Health 2019;64(6):713–24 Nov.
- [5] Harrington CB, Hansen JA, Moskowitz M, Todd BL, Feuerstein M. It's not over when it's over: long-term symptoms in cancer survivors—a systematic review. Int J Psychiatry Med 2010;40(2):163–81.
- [6] Player L, Mackenzie L, Willis K, Loh SY. Women's experiences of cognitive changes or "chemobrain" following treatment for breast cancer: a role for occupational therapy? Aust Occup Ther | 2014;61(4):230–40.
- [7] Arndt V, Merx H, Stegmaier C, Ziegler H, Brenner H. Persistence of restrictions in quality of life from the first to the third year after diagnosis in women with breast cancer. J Clin Oncol 2005;23(22):4945–53.
- [8] De Coninck L, Bekkering GE, Bouckaert L, Declercq A, Graff MJL, Aertgeerts B. Home- and Community-Based occupational therapy improves functioning in frail older people: a systematic review. J Am Geriatr Soc 2017;65(8):1863–9.
- [9] Zhang B, Kan L, Dong A, Zhang J, Bai Z, Xie Y, et al. The effects of action observation training on improving upper limb motor functions in people with stroke: a systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One 2019;14(8):e0221166.
- [10] Crotty M, Unroe K, Cameron ID, Miller M, Ramirez G, Couzner L. Rehabilitation interventions for improving physical and psychosocial functioning after hip fracture in older people. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2010(1):Cd007624.
- [11] Hoving JL, Broekhuizen ML, Frings-Dresen MH. Return to work of breast cancer survivors: a systematic review of intervention studies. BMC Cancer 2009;9:117.
- [12] Lozano-Lozano M, Martín-Martín L, Galiano-Castillo N, Álvarez-Salvago F, Cantarero-Villanueva I, Fernández-Lao C, et al. Integral strategy to supportive care in breast cancer survivors through occupational therapy and a m-health system: design of a randomized clinical trial. BMC Med Inform Decis Mak 2016;16(1):1– 10 Nov 25.
- [13] Lozano-Lozano M, Martín-Martín L, Galiano-Castillo N, Fernández-Lao C, Cantar-ero-Villanueva I, López-Barajas IB, et al. Mobile health and supervised rehabilitation versus mobile health alone in breast cancer survivors: randomized controlled trial. Ann Phys Rehabil Med 2020;63(4):316–24 Jul.
- [14] Lozano-Lozano M, Galiano-Castillo N, Martín-Martín L, Pace-Bedetti N, Fernán-dez-Lao C, Arroyo-Morales M, et al. Monitoring energy balance in breast cancer survivors using a mobile app: reliability study. J Med Internet Res 2018;20(3) [Internet]Mar 27Available from: http://europepmc.org/abstract/med/29588273.
- [15] Lozano-Iozano M, Cantarero-villanueva I, Martin-martin L, Galiano-castillo N, Sánchez M-J, Fernández-Lao C, et al. A Mobile System to Improve Quality of Life Via Energy Balance in Breast Cancer Survivors (BENECA mHealth): Prospective Test-Retest Quasiexperimental Feasibility Study. JMIR mHealth Uhealth 2019;7 (6):e14136. In press.
- [16] Occupational Therapy Practice Framework. Domain and process—fourth edition. Am J Occup Ther 2020;74(Supplement_2) [Internet]7412410010p1-87. Available from:. doi: 10.5014/ajot.2020.74S2001.
- [17] Wolf TJ, Doherty M, Kallogjeri D, Coalson RS, Nicklaus J, Ma CX, et al. The feasibility of using metacognitive strategy training to improve cognitive performance and neural connectivity in women with chemotherapy-induced cognitive impairment. Oncology 2016;91(3):143–52.
- [18] Floyd R, Dyer AH, Kennelly SP. Non-pharmacological interventions for cognitive impairment in women with breast cancer post-chemotherapy: a systematic review. J Geriatr Oncol 2020;12(2):173–81.
- [19] Treanor CJ, McMenamin UC, O'Neill RF, Cardwell CR, Clarke MJ, Cantwell M, et al. Non-pharmacological interventions for cognitive impairment due to systemic cancer treatment. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2016(8):Cd011325.
- [20] Ercoli LM, Petersen L, Hunter AM, Castellon SA, Kwan L, Kahn-Mills BA, et al. Cognitive rehabilitation group intervention for breast cancer survivors: results of a randomized clinical trial. Psychooncology 2015;24(11):1360–7.
- [21] Kesler S, Hadi Hosseini SM, Heckler C, Janelsins M, Palesh O, Mustian K, et al. Cognitive training for improving executive function in chemotherapy-treated breast cancer survivors. Clin Breast Cancer 2013;13(4):299–306.
- [22] Ferguson RJ, Sigmon ST, Pritchard AJ, LaBrie SL, Goetze RE, Fink CM, et al. A randomized trial of videoconference-delivered cognitive behavioral therapy for survivors of breast cancer with self-reported cognitive dysfunction. Cancer 2016;122 (11):1782–91 Jun.
- [23] Ge S, Zhu Z, Wu B, McConnell ES. Technology-based cognitive training and rehabilitation interventions for individuals with mild cognitive impairment: a systematic review. BMC Geriatr 2018;18(1):213. Sep.
- [24] Chien CH, Liu KL, Chien HT, Liu HE. The effects of psychosocial strategies on anxiety and depression of patients diagnosed with prostate cancer: a systematic review. Int J Nurs Stud 2014;51(1):28–38.

- [25] Adamsen L, Midtgaard J, Rorth M, Borregaard N, Andersen C, Quist M, et al. Feasibility, physical capacity, and health benefits of a multidimensional exercise program for cancer patients undergoing chemotherapy. Support Care Cancer 2003;11(11):707-16.
- [26] Cairo J, Williams L, Bray L, Goetzke K, Perez AC. Evaluation of a mobile health intervention to improve wellness outcomes for breast cancer survivors. J Patient Cent Res Rev 2020;7(4):313–22.
- [27] Vannorsdall TD, Straub E, Saba C, Blackwood M, Zhang J, Stearns K, et al. Interventions for multidimensional aspects of breast cancer-related fatigue: a meta-analytic review. Support Care Cancer 2020;29(4):1753–64.
- [28] Sørensen HL, Schjølberg TK, Småstuen MC, Utne I. Social support in early-stage breast cancer patients with fatigue. BMC Womens Health 2020;20(1):243. [Internet]Dec 29Available from: https://bmcwomenshealth.biomedcentral.com/ articles/10.1186/s12905-020-01106-2.
- [29] Ehlers DK, DuBois K, Salerno EA. The effects of exercise on cancer-related fatigue in breast cancer patients during primary treatment: a meta-analysis and systematic review. Expert Rev Anticancer Ther 2020;20(10):865–77.
- [30] Galiano-Castillo N, Arroyo-Morales M, Lozano-Lozano M, Fernández-Lao C, Martín-Martín L, Del-Moral-Ávila R, et al. Effect of an internet-based telehealth system on functional capacity and cognition in breast cancer survivors: a secondary analysis of a randomized controlled trial. Support Care Cancer 2017 [Internet] Available from: http://www.scopus.com/inward/record.url?eid=2-s2.0-85021076427&partnerID=MN8TOARS.
- [31] Oldervoll LM, Loge JH, Paltiel H, Asp MB, Vidvei U, Wiken AN, et al. The effect of a physical exercise program in palliative care: a phase ii study. J Pain Symptom Manag 2006;31(5):421–30.
- [32] Ko HJ, Seo SJ, Youn CH, Kim HM, Chung SE. The association between pain and depression, anxiety, and cognitive function among advanced cancer patients in the hospice ward. Korean J Fam Med 2013;34(5):347–56 Sep.
- [33] Radat F, Margot-Duclot A, Attal N. Psychiatric co-morbidities in patients with chronic peripheral neuropathic pain: a multicentre cohort study. Eur J Pain 2013;17(10):1547–57 Nov.
- [34] Castro M, Kraychete D, Daltro C, Lopes J, Menezes R, Oliveira I. Comorbid anxiety and depression disorders in patients with chronic pain. Arq Neuropsiquiatr 2009;67(4):982–5 Dec.
- [35] Chen M-L, Chang HK. Physical symptom profiles of depressed and nondepressed patients with cancer. Palliat Med 2004;18(8):712–8 Dec.
- [36] Yang Y, Hendrix CC. Cancer-Related cognitive impairment in breast cancer patients: influences of psychological variables. Asia-Pacific J Oncol Nurs 2018;5 (3):296–306.
- [37] Gullett JM, Cohen RA, Yang GS, Menzies VS, Fieo RA, Kelly DL, et al. Relationship of fatigue with cognitive performance in women with early-stage breast cancer over 2 years. Psychooncology 2019;28(5):997–1003 May.
- [38] Rodriguez N, Fawcett JM, Rash JA, Lester R, Powell E, MacMillan CD, et al. Factors associated with cognitive impairment during the first year of treatment for non-metastatic breast cancer. Cancer Med 2021;10(4):1191–200 Feb.
- [39] Small BJ, Jim HSL, Eisel SL, Jacobsen PB, Scott SB. Cognitive performance of breast cancer survivors in daily life: role of fatigue and depressed mood. Psychooncology 2019;28(11):2174–80 Nov.
- [40] Roberts AL, Fisher A, Smith L, Heinrich M, Potts HWW. Digital health behaviour change interventions targeting physical activity and diet in cancer survivors: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Cancer Surviv 2017;11(6):704–19 [Internet]Dec 4 [cited 2019 Feb 21]Available from http://link.springer.com/10.1007/ s11764-017-0632-1.
- [41] Mishra SI, Scherer RW, Geigle PM, Berlanstein DR, Topaloglu O, Gotay CC, et al. Exercise interventions on health-related quality of life for cancer survivors. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2012(8):CD007566 Aug;2012.
- [42] Piercy KL, Troiano RP, Ballard RM, Carlson SA, Fulton JE, Galuska DA, et al. The physical activity guidelines for Americans. JAMA 2018;320(19):2020–8 Nov.
- [43] Campbell KL, Winters-Stone KM, Wiskemann J, May AM, Schwartz AL, Courneya KS, et al. Exercise guidelines for cancer survivors: consensus statement from international multidisciplinary roundtable. Med Sci Sports Exerc 2019;51 (11):2375–90 Nov.
- [44] Zimmer P, Baumann FT, Oberste M, Wright P, Garthe A, Schenk A, et al. Effects of exercise interventions and physical activity behavior on cancer related cognitive impairments: a systematic review. Biomed Res Int 2016;2016:1820954.
- [45] Salerno EA, Rowland K, Kramer AF, McAuley E. Acute aerobic exercise effects on cognitive function in breast cancer survivors: a randomized crossover trial. BMC Cancer 2019;19(1):371. Apr.
- [46] Gokal K, Munir F, Ahmed S, Kancherla K, Wallis D. Does walking protect against decline in cognitive functioning among breast cancer patients undergoing chemotherapy? results from a small randomised controlled trial. PLoS One. 2018;13 (11) Nov.
- [47] Enroth S, Enroth SB, Johansson A, Gyllensten U. Protein profiling reveals consequences of lifestyle choices on predicted biological aging. Sci Rep 2015;5:17282. Dec.
- [48] Floyd A, Moyer A. Group vs. individual exercise interventions for women with breast cancer: a meta-analysis. Health Psychol Rev 2009;4(1):22–41 May.
- [49] Wolf TJ, Polatajko H, Baum C, Rios J, Cirone D, Doherty M, et al. Combined cognitive-strategy and task-specific training affects cognition and upper-extremity function in subacute stroke: an exploratory randomized controlled trial. Am J Occup Ther Off Publ Am Occup Ther Assoc 2016;70(2) 7002290010p1–10.
- [50] May A. Experience-dependent structural plasticity in the adult human brain. Trends Cogn Sci 2011;15(10):475–82 Oct.