

# 1 **The effects of acute moderate and high intensity exercise on memory**

2 **David Marchant<sup>1\*</sup>, Sophie Hampson<sup>2</sup>, Lucy Finnigan<sup>3</sup>, Kelly Marrin<sup>1</sup>, Craig Thorley<sup>4</sup>**

3 <sup>1</sup>Psychology of Sport, Exercise and Movement Laboratory, Department of Sport and Physical  
4 Activity, Edge Hill University, Ormskirk, UK.

5 <sup>2</sup>Manchester University NHS Foundation Trust

6 <sup>3</sup>School of Sport and Exercise Sciences, Liverpool John Moores University, Liverpool, UK.

7 <sup>4</sup>Department of Psychology, James Cook University, Queensland, Australia.

## 8 **\* Correspondence:**

9 Corresponding Author

10 David.Marchant@edgehill.ac.uk

11 **Keywords: acute exercise, exercise intensity, cognition, recall, recognition, false memory**

12

## 13 **Abstract**

14 Acute cardiovascular exercise can enhance correct remembering but its impact upon false  
15 remembering is less clear. In two experiments, we investigated the effect of acute bouts of exercise  
16 on correct and false remembering using the Deese–Roediger–McDermott (DRM) memory test. In  
17 Experiment 1, healthy adults completed quiet rest or moderate intensity cycling prior to the memory  
18 test. In Experiment 2, a similar sample completed moderate intensity running, high intensity sprints,  
19 or a period of quiet rest prior to the memory test. In Experiment 1, acute moderate intensity exercise  
20 increased short-term correct, but not false, recall. Experiment 2 replicated these findings but also  
21 found an acute bout of high intensity exercise had no impact upon either type of short-term recall.  
22 Acute moderate intensity exercise, but not acute high intensity exercise, can improve short-term  
23 correct recall without an accompanying increase in false recall potentially through processing of  
24 contextually specific information during encoding.

25

26 **1 Introduction**

27 Acute bouts of cardiovascular exercise provide moderate short-term post-exercise enhancements to  
28 several cognitive functions, including the speed of mental processing, attention, and executive  
29 function (see Chang, Labban, Gapin, & Etnier, 2012; McMorris, & Hale, 2012). These beneficial  
30 effects are associated with increases in arousal and available cognitive resources (e.g., Hillman,  
31 Snook, Jerome, 2003), which are also proposed to be critical variables in efficient memory  
32 functioning. The influence of acute exercise on memory may depend on the temporal relation  
33 between the exercise bout, information encoding (the initial perceiving and learning of information),  
34 consolidation (memory trace stabilization into long-term memory formation after initial encoding)  
35 and subsequent recall (the retrieval of stored information). When exercise occurs immediately before  
36 a memory encoding task, there are moderate enhancements to the volume of studied information  
37 correctly remembered, whereas exercising during encoding appears to impair encoding (see Loprinzi,  
38 Blough, Crawford, Ryu, Zou & Li, 2019, for a meta-analysis). Pre-encoding exercise is observed to  
39 be more beneficial than post-encoding exercise (Labban & Etnier, 2011), whilst concurrent exercise  
40 and encoding may impair subsequent recall (Soga, Kamijo, & Masaki, 2017). Furthermore, study  
41 characterises in terms of exercise (intensity, duration), participants (age, fitness) and memory tasks  
42 (working memory, episodic memory, prospective memory) can moderate the potential for beneficial  
43 effects (Loprinzi, 2018). The majority of work has focused in correct recall, whilst little is known  
44 regarding acute cardiovascular exercise prior to either a short-term or long-term memory test can  
45 influence false remembering (memory of information that was not present at encoding).

46 Acute bouts of cardiovascular exercise, relative to rest, can enhance both short and long term explicit,  
47 declarative memory (memory that can be consciously recalled) of previously observed word lists. For  
48 example, enhancements have been observed after participants engaged in 10 min of brisk walking  
49 (e.g., English nouns: Salas, Minakata, & Kelemen, 2011), 40 min of moderate intensity aerobic  
50 cycling (e.g., English nouns: Coles & Tomporowski, 2008), six min of high intensity anaerobic  
51 sprints (e.g., Novel vocabulary: Winter, et al., 2007), and 30 minutes of treadmill running above  
52 lactate threshold (e.g., Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test: Etnier, et al., 2016). In reviewing these  
53 patterns, when considering the type of memory task employed, Loprinzi (2018) suggests that whilst  
54 acute high-intensity exercise pre-memory task may impair working memory it can benefit episodic  
55 memory whilst high-intensity exercise post-encoding may not benefit long-term memory  
56 performance. These exercise-induced arousal memory benefits are thought to be associated with  
57 increased levels of brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and catecholamines (dopamine,  
58 epinephrine, norepinephrine) (e.g., Winter, et al. 2007).

59 The benefits of acute bouts of exercise on remembering may be of limited use if they are  
60 accompanied by increases in false remembering (e.g., recollecting events that did not happen or  
61 incorrectly recollecting events that did happen). To date, the impact of an acute bout of exercise on  
62 false remembering (as assessed using the DRM protocol) has only received limited examination.  
63 Green and Loprinzi (2018) found 15 minutes of self-paced brisk treadmill walking had no effect on  
64 correct or false declarative recall. Whilst Siddiqui and Loprinzi (2018) found that 20 minutes of  
65 brisk treadmill walking benefited accurate recall, with no differences in false recall. In contrast,  
66 Dilley, Zou, and Loprinzi (2019) found 15-minutes high-intensity treadmill running (80%HRR) pre-  
67 encoding significantly increased correct recall over moderate intensity (50%HRR) exercise, the latter  
68 also enhanced memory over rest. False recall was not significantly impacted by exercise intensity,  
69 but the authors tentatively suggest their data indicates higher-intensity exercise may increase false  
70 recall. As such, the relationship between acute exercise pre-encoding warrants further consideration.

71 The Deese/Roediger-McDermott (DRM) paradigm (Roediger & McDermott, 1995) is widely used to  
72 induce false memories (see Gallo, 2010, for a review). Participants study lists of words (e.g., bed,  
73 dream, wake, snore, etc) that are semantically associated with a non-presented critical lure word (e.g.,  
74 sleep). In later assessment, participants frequently falsely recall and falsely recognise these critical  
75 lures as a previously studied word with high confidence. The Activation-Monitoring Theory (AMT,  
76 Roediger, Watson, McDermott, & Gallo, 2001) and the Fuzzy Trace Theory (FTT, Brainerd &  
77 Reyna, 2002) explain why DRM word lists induce false memories. The AMT posits that, during  
78 encoding, the studied words (either consciously or unconsciously) activate the semantically  
79 associated critical lure. During subsequent memory tests, participants generate words based on their  
80 semantic activation at encoding. As the critical lure was activated at encoding, they commit a source-  
81 monitoring error and class it as a presented word (instead of an internally generated non-studied  
82 word). The FTT posits that participants generate two parallel memory traces (changes in the nervous  
83 system representing information) for studied words at encoding: verbatim traces (precise memory  
84 representations) and gist traces (vague meaning-based memory representations). The critical lures are  
85 strongly associated with gist of studied lists and are incorrectly presumed to have been studied. The  
86 AMT and FTT accounts are not mutually exclusive and both implicate the semantic association  
87 between studied lists and the non-studied critical lures in false remembering.

88 Currently, Loprinzi and colleagues (e.g., Siddiqui & Loprinzi, 2018) have tentatively suggested that  
89 moderate-intensity exercise may benefit accurate whilst reducing false declarative recall, whilst high-  
90 intensity exercise may elevate both accurate and false recall (Dilley, et al., 2019). Consistent with  
91 this possibility, there is converging evidence from two distinct lines of research that self-reported  
92 arousal (admittedly, from other sources) can increase false remembering. Firstly, caffeine-induced  
93 arousal increased false recall of critical lures on memory tests (e.g., Mahoney et al., 2012). The  
94 second line of research demonstrates that high pre-encoding emotion-induced arousal can increase  
95 false remembering (e.g., Corson & Verrier, 2007). Taken together, self-reported arousal is often  
96 associated with increases in short-term memory false recall. Mahoney et al. (2012) and Corson and  
97 Verrier (2007) suggest that elevated arousal increases relational processing rather than item-specific  
98 processing at encoding in explain these effects. Item-specific processing focusses attention on  
99 individual studied items and how they are distinct from each other, whereas relational processing  
100 focusses participants' attention on the commonalities amongst studied items. Roediger et al. (2001)  
101 suggest that relational processing intensifies the spread of activation to the critical lures, which are  
102 more likely to be falsely remembered. These findings suggest some forms of arousal can increase  
103 false remembering and it is of interest to know whether this effect generalises when the arousal is  
104 exercise-induced. For example, exercise-induced arousal (proposed to be associated with increases  
105 in neurotransmitters norepinephrine and dopamine) benefits speed of cognitive processing (McMorris  
106 & Hale, 2012).

107 The present within-subjects experiments examined the impact of a single acute bout of exercise on  
108 explicit, declarative short-term memory. Specifically, the effects of acute exercise undertaken  
109 immediately prior to encoding on subsequent short-term declarative correct and false remembering,  
110 as assessed via a DRM memory test. As exercise intensity, and therefore the degree of probable  
111 arousal, influences correct remembering, exercise intensity was manipulated here to see if it  
112 influences false remembering. More specifically, Experiment 1 examined whether engaging in an  
113 acute bout of moderate intensity aerobic exercise prior to encoding, relative to rest, impacts upon  
114 short-term declarative correct and false recall/recognition. Experiment 2 expanded this by examining  
115 whether engaging in acute moderate intensity aerobic exercise or high intensity anaerobic exercise  
116 prior to encoding, relative to rest, impacts upon short-term declarative correct and false  
117 recall/recognition. In both studies, it was anticipated that an acute bout of exercise prior to encoding

118 would enhance short-term correct remembering. Despite previous findings (e.g., Green & Loprinzi,  
 119 2018), it is also tentatively predicted that an acute bout of exercise will elevate short-term false  
 120 remembering as other forms of arousal (i.e., caffeine-induced, emotion-induced) are associated with  
 121 increased false remembering (e.g., Corson & Verrier, 2007; Mahoney et al., 2012).

## 122 2 Experiment 1

### 123 3 Methods

#### 124 3.1 Participants

125 Twenty six healthy and regularly physically active (>3 aerobic exercise sessions on three days per  
 126 week for at least 30 min per session, >2 years of regular exercise participation) young adults (19M,  
 127 7F, Mage = 22.19 + 3.15years) participated in the study after giving written informed consent. An a  
 128 priori power analysis (using G\*Power 3.1) with an  $\alpha$  level of 5%, medium-to-large effect size ( $d =$   
 129 0.6), and a power of 80%, based on effect sizes reported in previous within-subjects work (e.g.,  
 130 Etnier et al. 2016,  $N = 16$ ; Labban & Etnier, 2018,  $N = 15$ ) indicated that at least 19 participants  
 131 would be required. All spoke English as their first language, had normal or corrected to normal  
 132 vision, had no history of mood disorders, and were not taking any medication that would affect  
 133 cognition. Participants were asked to refrain from strenuous physical exercise on the day of testing,  
 134 to avoid caffeine and alcohol intake for 24 hours prior to testing, to arrive appropriately hydrated, and  
 135 to have not eaten for a minimum of 3 hours.

#### 136 3.2 Experimental Design

137 In a within-subjects design, participants completed two activities (rest or exercise) in a  
 138 counterbalanced order. In the rest condition, participants were seated for 30 min prior to a DRM  
 139 memory test. In the exercise condition, participants completed 30 min of moderate intensity exercise  
 140 prior to a DRM memory test.

#### 141 3.3 Activities and Measures

142 **Rest protocol.** Participants were seated alone at a table in a quiet room and given the opportunity to  
 143 read popular magazines for 30 min. This has been shown to be an acceptable rest activity that avoids  
 144 boredom and does not impact memory function (Blough & Loprinzi, 2019). Participants were  
 145 monitored to ensure they did not fall asleep or stand up and move around. Ratings of perceived  
 146 exertion (RPE; individual's perceptions of exercise intensity) and affective valence (pleasure-  
 147 displeasure) were recorded every two min.

148 **Exercise protocol.** On a cycle ergometer (Monark, Model: 824E, Country: Sweden) participants  
 149 completed a 5-min self-paced warm-up, followed by 30 min of moderate intensity cycling.  
 150 Participants were asked to self-regulate a level of perceived exertion between *somewhat hard* and  
 151 *hard* (within the 13 - 15 range on the Borg RPE scale), and were free to adjust their cadence to  
 152 maintain their RPE within the target range. A reminder of the target RPE range was continuously in  
 153 sight, and the researcher reminded participants every 2 min during exercise (offset from RPE  
 154 measurement). RPE is a validated and practical perceptual method of directing self-selected exercise  
 155 intensity, and this protocol has previously been used (e.g., Labban, & Etnier, 2011) to ensure  
 156 participants exercise at a moderate intensity below the ventilatory threshold. RPE, affective valence  
 157 (pleasure-displeasure), and heart rate (HR) were recorded every two min. Water was available ad  
 158 libitum throughout exercise.

159 **Ratings of Perceived Exertion (RPE).** The Borg RPE scale (Borg, 1998) ranging from 6 (no  
 160 exertion at all) to 20 (maximal exertion) was used to assess subjective interpretations of effort during  
 161 exercise. The RPE scale is a widely-accepted and validated method for estimating perceptions of  
 162 exercise intensity, demonstrating high correlations ( $r = 0.80 - 0.90$ ) between RPE and HR (Borg,  
 163 1998).

164 **Affect.** The Feeling Scale (FS; Hardy & Rejeski, 1989) is a single-item measure of pleasure and  
 165 displeasure (how are you feeling right now?), 11-point bipolar rating scale ranging from +5 (I feel  
 166 very good), zero (neutral), to -5 (I feel very bad).

167 **Heart rate (HR).** Participants' HR was continuously monitored via a Polar Rate Monitor (Model  
 168 A1; Polar Electro, Kempele, Finland) and recorded every 2 min.

169 **Memory Task.** The DRM paradigm (Roediger & McDermott, 1995) consisted of twelve lists of 15  
 170 word rated by Stadler, Roediger, and McDermott (1999) as producing high levels of false recognition  
 171 (critical lures: Window, Doctor, Smoke, Anger, Cup, Slow, Sleep, Sweet, Rough, Soft, Cold, River).  
 172 Participants were provided with standardized instructions on the task by the researcher, and this was  
 173 repeated on the introductory computer screens. Two sets of 6 lists were assigned to each condition in  
 174 counterbalanced order. Words were presented sequentially on a computer screen at a rate of 2s per  
 175 word with a 1 s interval. Immediately after list, participants undertook a 1-min free recall test under  
 176 the instruction to write as many words as possible using pen and paper. The number of correctly  
 177 recalled old items (studied words), falsely recalled lures, and intrusions was totalled across the six  
 178 lists. After the final free recall test, participants completed a 36-word recognition test similar to  
 179 Knott and Thorley (2014). This test contained the six critical lures, 18 previously studied words  
 180 (from positions one, five, and ten in each studied list), and 12 non-studied new words not  
 181 semantically associated with the studied words or critical lures. On a paper response sheet,  
 182 participants indicated whether the words were old (the word was previously studied) or new (the  
 183 word was not previously studied). Old words were then rated as remember (recollect some contextual  
 184 detail of seeing the word during encoding), know (recognised the word based on familiarity but had  
 185 no recollection of any contextual information), or guess. Correct recognition of studied words, false  
 186 recognition of critical lures, and incorrect recognition of non-studied new words (i.e., not critical  
 187 lures) were calculated as proportions.

### 188 **3.4 Procedure**

189 Participants completed each condition activity (rest or exercise) individually on separate days at the  
 190 same time of day in the same well-controlled laboratory setting led by the same researcher. There  
 191 was a seven-day rest period between each session to control for factors that may affect memory  
 192 performance (e.g., carry over effects). In the first session, participants read and signed an informed  
 193 consent sheet, completed exercise readiness and health screening, and were familiarized with all  
 194 equipment and testing procedures. On each day, participants first undertook the condition activity  
 195 and then immediately completed the DRM memory tasks whilst seated in front of a computer in a  
 196 distraction free testing booth situated next to the activity area. Upon completion of the activity,  
 197 transition to the testing booth, reinstruction and commencing the memory task took approximately 2  
 198 minutes. A researcher was always present in the laboratory with the participant, and they provided  
 199 the same instructions and monitoring to all participants. Following the completion of the final  
 200 condition, all participants were debriefed about the aim of the experiment.

### 201 **3.5 Statistical Analysis**

202 Recall and recognition performance was analysed with MANOVA followed by univariate ANOVAs  
 203 using SPSS (version 22.0; International Business Machines Corp, NY, USA), considering Condition  
 204 (Rest vs. Exercise) as the within-subjects factor and word type (Recall: Critical Lure, Correct Recall,  
 205 Other Error. Recognition: Critical Lure, Studied Word, New Word) as the dependent variables. If  
 206 Mauchly's Test indicated sphericity was violated, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was employed  
 207 ( $\epsilon$ GG is reported in such cases). Partial eta-squared ( $\eta^2$ ) proportion of variance effect size was  
 208 calculated and described with Cohen's (1988) cut-off points (i.e. small = .0099; medium = .0588;  
 209 large = .1379).

## 210 4 Results

### 211 4.1 Exercise Intensity

212 To check that the self-selected approach to targeting exercise intensity was successful, HR, RPE and  
 213 Affect are assessed. The mean HR during exercise was 136 bpm ( $\pm 17.34$ ), indicating exercise was  
 214 undertaken at an average of 68.40% of HRmax. The mean RPE reported during exercise was 12.65  
 215 ( $\pm 1.23$ ). Taken together, exercise was at a self-selected moderate intensity (Garber et al., 2011).  
 216 Average affective responses were significantly more positive in the rest condition (3.38,  $\pm 1.81$ )  
 217 compared to the exercise condition (1.71  $\pm 1.12$ ),  $t(25) = 4.08$ ,  $p < .001$ .

### 218 4.2 Short-Term Free Recall

219 The results showed a significant multivariate effect of Condition,  $\lambda = 0.70$ ,  $F(3, 23) = 3.28$ ,  $p = .038$ ,  
 220  $\eta_p^2 = .30$ . The follow-up univariate analyses confirmed that the difference between Rest and Exercise  
 221 was significant for Correct Recall (42.69  $\pm 9.21$  vs 39.35  $\pm 7.03$ ),  $F(1, 25) = 4.81$ ,  $MSE = 145.56$ ,  $p =$   
 222  $.038$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .16$ . Contrary to our tentative prediction, there was no significant difference in the  
 223 number of critical lures falsely recalled in the exercise (2.69  $\pm 1.52$ ) and rest conditions (2.08  $\pm 1.44$ ),  
 224  $F(1, 25) = 3.32$ ,  $MSE = 4.92$ ,  $p = .08$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .12$ . There was no significant main effect of condition on  
 225 other recall errors (2.88  $\pm 3.83$  vs 1.81  $\pm 1.90$ ),  $F(1, 25) = 0.89$ ,  $MSE = 3.25$ ,  $p = .35$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .03$  (See  
 226 table 1).

227 - - - Table 1 here - - -

### 228 4.3 Recognition Memory

229 No significant multivariate effect of Condition on the proportion of words was recognised,  $\lambda = 0.99$ ,  
 230  $F(1, 25) = 0.17$ ,  $p = .68$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .01$ , nor Condition x Word Type interaction  $\lambda = 0.99$ ,  $F(1, 24) = 0.03$ ,  $p =$   
 231  $.97$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .02$  (See table 2). Similarly, a MANOVA with Condition (Rest vs. Exercise) and Word  
 232 Type (Studied vs Critical Lure vs New) as within-subjects factor, and judgement type (Remember,  
 233 Know, Guess) as the dependent variables showed no significant multivariate effect of Condition on  
 234 the proportion of words were recognised,  $\lambda = 0.97$ ,  $F(3, 23) = 0.24$ ,  $p = .87$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .03$ , nor Condition x  
 235 Word Type interaction  $\lambda = 0.91$ ,  $F(6, 20) = 0.34$ ,  $p = .91$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .09$ . An equivalent, but large,  
 236 proportion of studied words were recognised and critical lures falsely recognised in both conditions,  
 237 whilst participants recognised few non-studied new words across conditions. Therefore contrary to  
 238 expectations, exercise did not impact upon true and false recognition.

239 - - - Table 2 here - - -

## 240 5 Discussion

241 Experiment 1 demonstrated that acute moderate intensity aerobic exercise, relative to a period of rest,  
242 prior to a DRM memory task increased short-term correct recall. This is consistent with past research  
243 showing that exercise improves the ability to retain and recall information in short-term memory  
244 (Loprinzi, et al., 2019). Contrary to expectations, participants' long-term correct recognition of  
245 studied words was equivalent regardless of whether they were tested after exercise or rest. Short-term  
246 correct recall and long-term correct recognition are, therefore, differentially impacted upon by  
247 exercise in this study. In a novel comparison, we also found that moderate intensity aerobic exercise,  
248 relative to rest, has no impact upon number of critical lures (or other non-studied words) falsely  
249 recalled during a short-term memory test or falsely recognised during a long-term memory test.  
250 Supporting initial observations (Siddiqui & Loprinzi, 2018) this suggests exercise-induced arousal,  
251 unlike other forms of arousal (e.g., caffeine-induced, mood-induced) does not increase false  
252 remembering. It remains to be determined whether intensity can also influence false remembering.  
253 Furthermore, as the recognition test took place several min after the exercise had finished, it is  
254 unclear whether participants arousal levels had deteriorated in the exercise condition, so they were on  
255 par with those in the rest condition. If so, that could account for the null results. Experiment 2  
256 therefore measures participants' arousal levels prior to and after each memory test.

## 257 **6 Experiment 2**

258 Experiment 2 compared the impact of rest, moderate intensity aerobic exercise, and high intensity  
259 anaerobic exercise on correct and false remembering as assessed via a short-term memory free recall  
260 test and a long-term memory recognition test. Consistent with several past studies (e.g., Winter et al.,  
261 2007), we used running protocols to elicit moderate and high intensity exercise. In methodological  
262 improvements to Experiment 1, we tailored the intensity in line with participants' individual fitness  
263 level.

### 264 **6.1 Method**

### 265 **6.2 Participants**

266 Twenty-five healthy, normally functioning, and physically active males volunteered for the study  
267 ( $M_{\text{age}} = 25.84 \pm 6.46$  years). Each had considerable prior experience of high intensity treadmill  
268 running. The inclusion, exclusion, and screening procedures were identical to Experiment 1. All  
269 participants were naïve to the aims of the study. Participants refrained from strenuous physical  
270 exercise on testing days, avoided caffeine and alcohol intake for 24 hours prior to testing, and arrived  
271 appropriately hydrated, and having not eaten for a minimum of 3 hours.

### 272 **6.3 Experimental Design**

273 In a within-subjects design modelled on that of Winter et al. (2007), participants completed three  
274 activities (rest, moderate intensity aerobic exercise, high intensity anaerobic exercise) in a  
275 counterbalanced order. In the rest condition participants rested for 40 min prior to a DRM memory  
276 test, in the moderate intensity exercise condition participants completed 40 min of steady state  
277 running prior to a DRM memory test, and in the high intensity exercise condition participants  
278 completed 2 x 3 min of sprints prior to a DRM memory test.

### 279 **6.4 Activities and Measures**

280 **Rest protocol.** Similar to Study 1, participants sat quietly in the laboratory for 40 min and were  
281 given popular magazines to read, and were monitored throughout.



282 **Exercise protocols.** Running was undertaken on a h/p/cosmos pulsar 3p treadmill (h/p/cosmos sports  
 283 & medical GmbH). In the first testing session, participants' baseline fitness levels were assessed. In  
 284 that session, participants completed a treadmill based graded exercise test to determine their  
 285 VO<sub>2</sub>peak and HR<sub>max</sub>. Oxygen uptake (VO<sub>2</sub>) was measured using a METAMAX cardiopulmonary  
 286 exercise testing system (Cortex Biophysik GmbH) with breathing mask, pre-calibrated according to  
 287 the manufacturer's instructions. A computerized indirect calorimetry system collected 30-s averages  
 288 for oxygen uptake (VO<sub>2</sub>) and respiratory exchange ratio (RER). **Moderate intensity exercise:**  
 289 Participants completed 40 min of continuous moderate intensity running consisting of a 5-min warm-  
 290 up (work rate at 30% of VO<sub>2</sub>peak), followed by 35 min of exercise at 60% of VVO<sub>2</sub>peak (Velocity  
 291 at Vo<sub>2</sub> Peak). **High intensity exercise:** this condition aimed to achieve a very high intensity and high  
 292 blood-lactate concentration (10 mmol/l or above) while limiting the total exercise duration, fatigue  
 293 and dehydration. Participants completed a 5-min warm-up (30% of VO<sub>2</sub>peak), and then completed  
 294 two incremental maximal efforts (3 min each), separated by 2 min passive recovery. In line with  
 295 Winter et al. (2007) running protocol description, the treadmill speed started at 8 km/h, and increased  
 296 every 10s by 2 km/h, until volitional exhaustion.

297 **Heart Rate (HR), Affective Valence, Ratings of Perceived Exertion.** These were measured in an  
 298 identical manner to Experiment 1.

299 **Arousal.** Participants reported subjective arousal levels using 20-item Activation-Deactivation  
 300 Adjective Checklist (ADCL), to generate four subscales; energy, tiredness, tension, and calmness.  
 301 Participants rate affect adjectives on a four-point scale: definitely feel, slightly feel, cannot decide,  
 302 definitely do not feel. The ADCL has acceptable reliability and validity (Thayer, 1989).

303 **Blood-lactate.** Blood-lactate levels for moderate and high intensity running exercise was predicted to  
 304 be above 10 mmol/l or below 2 mmol/l respectively (Spurway, 1992). Blood-lactate was measured  
 305 from fingertip capillary blood samples using an automated analyser (Analox GM7 enzymatic  
 306 metabolite analyzer, Analox instruments USA, Lunenburg, MA) immediately post-exercise and  
 307 between recall and recognition tasks.

308 **Memory task.** The DRM paradigm followed the same protocols from Experiment 1. Eighteen DRM  
 309 lists of 15 words (critical lures: Window, Doctor, Smoke, Anger, Cup, Slow, Sleep, Sweet, Rough,  
 310 Soft, Cold, River, Smell, Chair, Needle, City, Mountain, Spider) were divided into three sets of six  
 311 and their assignment to each condition was counterbalanced. The recognition tests were constructed  
 312 in a similar manner to Experiment 1.

## 313 **6.5 Procedure**

314 Participants individually attended four sessions (an initial screening and baseline fitness test,  
 315 followed by the three activity conditions) on separate days at the same time of day (to control for  
 316 diurnal variation) in the same laboratory. A seven-day rest period between each session controlled for  
 317 fatigue and memory carry over effects. In the first session, participants read and signed an informed  
 318 consent sheet, completed a pre-exercise health screening, the fitness test and were introduced to the  
 319 memory task. In the second, third, and fourth sessions, the order of the three conditions were  
 320 counterbalanced. To avoid dehydration, water was available ad libitum throughout exercise and  
 321 participant were instructed to arrive hydrated. The same researcher provided the same instructions  
 322 and monitored the participant during all activities and testing. Participants' RPE, affect, and HR were  
 323 taken every 2 minutes during moderate intensity exercise and rest, and in the last min of each activity  
 324 (sprint and recovery) of the high intensity condition. Immediately after each activity, a DRM memory  
 325 test was completed in a distraction free testing booth situated next to the activity area. Upon  
 326 completion of the activity, transition from the activity to the testing booth, reinstruction and



327 commencing the memory task took approximately 2 minutes. A blood-lactate sample was taken and  
 328 the ADCL was completed four times per experimental session: (1) before undertaking the activity (2)  
 329 immediately prior to the free recall test, (3) immediately prior to the recognition test, and (4) after the  
 330 recognition test. Following the final testing session, participants were debriefed regarding the aims of  
 331 the experiment.

## 332 6.6 Statistical Analysis

333 Pre-activity blood-lactate, pre-activity arousal, average RPE, FS ratings, and HR were compared  
 334 using one-way repeated measures ANOVAs. Post-activity blood-lactate was analysed using two-way  
 335 (Time  $\times$  Activity) repeated-measures ANOVA. ADCL subscale ratings were analysed using a  
 336 MANOVA considering Condition (Rest vs. Moderate Exercise vs. High Intensity Exercise) and Time  
 337 (Pre-Activity, Pre-free recall test, Pre-recognition test, and post-recognition test) as the within-  
 338 subjects factor, and ADCL subscale (Energy, Calmness, Tiredness, Tension) as dependent variables.  
 339 Mean number of studied words correctly recalled, critical lures falsely recalled, and non-studied new  
 340 words incorrectly recalled in the three activity conditions was analyzed with a MANOVA followed  
 341 by univariate ANOVAs, considering Condition (Rest vs. Moderate Exercise vs. High Intensity  
 342 Exercise) as the within-subjects factor, and recall type (correct recall, critical lure, and other errors)  
 343 as dependent variables. For the assessment of recognition, a MANOVA with Condition (Rest vs.  
 344 Moderate Intensity Exercise vs. High Intensity Exercise) as the within-subjects factor and word type  
 345 (Critical Lure, Studied Word, New Word) as the dependent variables was employed. If Mauchly's  
 346 Test indicated sphericity was violated, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was employed ( $\epsilon$ GG is  
 347 reported in such cases). Partial eta-squared ( $\eta_p^2$ ) is reported as a measure of effect-size.

348

## 349 7 Results

### 350 7.1 Baseline Arousal and Blood-Lactate

351 There were no significant multivariate effect of Condition on participants' baseline arousal levels,  
 352 assessed via the four ADCL subscales, prior to each of the three activities,  $\lambda = 0.91$ ,  $F(8, 90) = 0.53$ ,  
 353  $p = .83$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .05$ . Similarly, there was no significant difference in their baseline blood-lactate levels  
 354 prior to each activity,  $F(2, 48) = 2.63$ ,  $p = .08$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .10$  (See Table 3).

355 - - - Table 3 here - - -

### 356 7.2 End of Activity Exertion, Heart Rate, and Affect

357 RPE was significantly different in the final minute of each condition,  $F(1.33, 31.96) = 108.57$ ,  $p$   
 358  $<.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .82$ ,  $\epsilon$ GG = .67. As would be expected, participants had significantly higher average  
 359 RPE during high intensity exercise ( $16.36 \pm 3.32$ ) compared to moderate intensity exercise ( $12.68 \pm$   
 360  $2.39$ ;  $p < .001$ ) and rest ( $6.12 \pm 0.44$ ;  $p = .001$ ) conditions, and these latter conditions were also  
 361 statistically different ( $p < .001$ ). HR was also significantly different in the final minute of each  
 362 condition,  $F(2, 48) = 632.99$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .96$ , with high intensity exercise ( $170\text{bpm} \pm 12.55$ ,  
 363  $88.04\% \text{HRmax}$ ) producing significantly higher average HR than both moderate intensity exercise  
 364 ( $154.08\text{bpm} \pm 15.52$ ,  $79.43\% \text{HRmax}$ ;  $p < .001$ ) and rest ( $66.12\text{bpm} \pm 7.34$ ,  $34.03\% \text{HRmax}$ ;  $p <$   
 365  $.001$ ). The latter two activities HR were also significantly different ( $p < .001$ ). Affect was  
 366 significantly different between conditions,  $F(2, 48) = 17.48$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .42$ , with high intensity  
 367 exercise inducing less positive affect ( $0.24 \pm 2.52$ ) than moderate intensity exercise ( $2.40 \pm 1.76$ ;  $p <$   
 368  $.001$ ) and rest ( $3.04 \pm 1.67$ ;  $p < .001$ ). End of activity affect was equivalent for the latter two

369 activities ( $p = .59$ ). Finally, self-reported arousal in the final minute of each activity condition was  
 370 significantly different,  $F(2, 48) = 32.91, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .58$ . High intensity exercise ( $4.24 \pm 1.56$ )  
 371 induced average arousal levels significantly higher than moderate intensity exercise ( $3.32 \pm 1.38; p =$   
 372  $.02$ ) and rest ( $1.92 \pm 1.19; p < .001$ ), which were themselves different ( $p < .001$ ) (See table 4).  
 373 Combined, the above confirm that participants felt more exerted, aroused, and less pleasurable, in the  
 374 final minute of the high intensity exercise than the moderate intensity exercise and period of rest.  
 375 Moreover, they felt more exerted and aroused, but no less pleasurable, towards the end of the  
 376 moderate intensity exercise than the period of rest.

377 - - - Table 4 here - - -

### 378 7.3 Post-Activity Blood-Lactate

379 Our two-way analyses of post-activity blood-lactate levels revealed a significant main effect of  
 380 Activity,  $F(1.33, 31.94) = 283.78, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .92, \epsilon_{GG} = .67$ . Post-hoc analysis revealed that  
 381 blood-lactate levels were significantly higher after high intensity exercise ( $6.01 \pm 1.25$  mmol/l)  
 382 compared to moderate intensity exercise ( $1.68 \pm 0.5$  mmol/l;  $p < .001$ ) and rest ( $1.02 \pm 0.3$  mmol/l;  $p$   
 383  $< .001$ ). Moreover, moderate intensity exercise resulted in higher post-exercise blood-lactate levels  
 384 than rest ( $p < .001$ ). There was also a main effect of Time,  $F(1.24, 29.79) = 6.81, p = .002, \eta_p^2 = .22,$   
 385  $\epsilon_{GG} = .62$ , indicating decreasing BL post-exercise. Post-hoc analyses showed that blood-lactate  
 386 levels were lowest Post-Recognition ( $2.69 \pm 2.5$  mmol/l) compared to Post-Exercise ( $3.02 \pm 3.0$   
 387 mmol/l;  $p = .03$ ) and Post-Recall ( $2.99 \pm 2.5$  mmol/l;  $p < .001$ ), which were themselves not different  
 388 ( $p = .12$ ). There was no Activity  $\times$  Time interaction,  $F(1.61, 38.74) = 1.55, p = .15, \eta_p^2 = .07, \epsilon_{GG} =$   
 389  $.40$ . Together, this indicates exercise increased peripheral BL concentrations, and intense exercise  
 390 resulted in the greatest elevation indicative of greater workload (see table 3). However, whilst  
 391 moderate intensity BL concentrations are in line with expectations, the intense anaerobic exercise did  
 392 not reach the intended threshold (e.g., lactate levels above 10 mmol/l, Spurway, 1992).

### 393 7.4 Post-Activity Arousal

394 The results showed a significant multivariate Condition  $\times$  Time interaction,  $\lambda = 0.58, F(24, 493) =$   
 395  $3.45, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .13$ . The follow-up univariate analyses confirmed significant Condition  $\times$  Time  
 396 interactions for Energy,  $F(4.55, 109.17) = 13.67, \text{MSE} = 108.74, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .36, \epsilon_{GG} = .76,$   
 397 Calmness,  $F(4.02, 96.46) = 6.54, \text{MSE} = 100.65, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .21, \epsilon_{GG} = .67$ , but not Tiredness,  
 398  $F(3.42, 81.97) = 1.93, \text{MSE} = 32.56, p = .12, \eta_p^2 = .07, \epsilon_{GG} = .57$ , or Tension,  $F(4.33, 103.96) =$   
 399  $1.14, \text{MSE} = 5.40, p = .34, \eta_p^2 = .05, \epsilon_{GG} = .72$ . Energy levels increased post-activity for both  
 400 exercise conditions when compared to rest (which had reduced from baseline), these returned to  
 401 comparable levels post-recall and recognition. There were lower calmness levels post-activity for  
 402 both exercise conditions compared to rest (which increased from baseline), with the lowest calmness  
 403 post-intense exercise. These returned to comparable levels post-recall and recognition, albeit with  
 404 calmness remaining high for the rest condition. For Tiredness, there was a significant multivariate,  $\lambda$   
 405  $= 0.63, F(8, 90) = 2.89, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .20$ , and univariate,  $F(2, 48) = 3.30, \text{MSE} = 89.44, p < .05, \eta_p^2$   
 406  $= .12$ , effect of Condition. Bonferroni-adjusted pairwise comparisons revealed that Tiredness was  
 407 significantly lower in the Moderate Intensity Exercise condition ( $7.81 \pm 3.62$ ) than Rest ( $9.70 \pm 4.74,$   
 408  $p = .02$ ), but not High-Intensity Exercise ( $8.82 \pm 4.63, p = .59$ ). The latter two conditions were also  
 409 not significantly different ( $p = .84$ ). Taken together, both forms of exercise resulted comparable  
 410 reductions in calmness and increases in energy post-activity, which returned to baseline post-  
 411 recognition (See table 3). Tiredness was lowest during all phases post-moderate intensity exercise.  
 412 There was a trend for larger effects of intense exercise on energy and calmness. Rest had a smaller,  
 413 yet opposite effect on these characteristics.

## 414 7.5 Short-Term Free Recall

415 Table 5 shows mean number of studied words correctly recalled, critical lures falsely recalled, and  
 416 non-studied new words incorrectly recalled in the three activity conditions. Results showed a  
 417 significant multivariate effect of Condition,  $\lambda = 0.76$ ,  $F(6, 92) = 2.28$ ,  $p = .042$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .13$ . The follow-  
 418 up univariate analyses confirmed a significant main effect of condition for Correct Recall,  $F(2, 48) =$   
 419  $4.96$ ,  $MSE = 158.01$ ,  $p = .011$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .17$ . As expected, Bonferroni-adjusted pairwise comparisons  
 420 revealed that more studied words were correctly recalled after moderate intensity ( $47.20 + 8.36$ )  
 421 exercise than rest ( $42.20 \pm 8.36$ ,  $p = .005$ ). Contrary to expectations, there were no significant  
 422 differences in the correct recall after moderate intensity and high intensity exercise ( $45.16 \pm 9.87$ ,  $p =$   
 423  $.52$ ) or after high intensity exercise and rest ( $p = .39$ ). Importantly, the activity engaged in had no  
 424 impact upon the number of critical lures falsely recalled,  $F(2, 48) = 0.16$ ,  $MSE = 0.28$ ,  $p = .85$ ,  $\eta_p^2 =$   
 425  $.01$ , or the number of non-studied new words incorrectly recalled  $F(1.22, 46.33) = 1.82$ ,  $MSE =$   
 426  $37.92$ ,  $p = .19$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .07$  (Greenhouse-Geisser corrections applied to the latter main effect).

427 - - - Table 5 here - - -

## 428 7.6 Recognition Memory

429 The mean proportion of studied words, critical lures, and non-studied new words classed as *old*  
 430 following each of the three activities, and the proportion of *remember*, *know*, and *guess* made  
 431 responses to these words, are in Table 6. There was no significant multivariate effect of Condition on  
 432 the proportion of words correctly recognised,  $\lambda = 0.86$ ,  $F(1, 25) = 0.50$ ,  $p = .80$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .14$ . Similarly,  
 433 A MANOVA with Condition (Rest vs. Exercise) and Word Type (Studied vs Critical Lure vs New)  
 434 as within-subjects factors, and judgement type (*Remember*, *Know*, *Guess*) as the dependent variables  
 435 showed no significant multivariate effect of Condition on the proportion of words were recognised,  $\lambda$   
 436  $= 0.82$ ,  $F(6, 19) = 0.71$ ,  $p = .65$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .18$ . As such, despite large proportions of studied words being  
 437 accurately and critical lures falsely recognised, and few non-studied new words being recognised,  
 438 exercise did not impact upon true and false recognition rates.

439 - - - Table 6 here - - -

## 440 8 General Discussion

441 The current study provides initial evidence that acute aerobic exercise can not only enhance free  
 442 recall performance, but also that this benefit is not accompanied by changes in false recall. In  
 443 Experiment 1, results demonstrated that moderate intensity exercise improved free recall  
 444 performance compared to a rest condition, with no associated increase in false recall. In Experiment  
 445 2, moderate intensity exercise again improved memory performance, and that this benefit was also  
 446 observed compared to an intense exercise condition. The intense exercise condition however did not  
 447 result in an increase in false memory recall. This partially supports and advances the initial  
 448 observations made by Loprinzi and colleagues (Dilley, et al. 2019; Green & Loprinzi, 2018; Siddiqui  
 449 & Loprinzi, 2018) that exercise may have beneficial effects on false memory.

450 By assessing both free recall and recognition memory, the data suggests that whilst free recall was  
 451 benefited, recognition memory was not influenced by exercise. This supports the Dilley et al.'s  
 452 (2019) findings and may be due to the different mechanisms underlying free recall and recognition  
 453 (Diekelmann, Born, & Wagner, 2010). For example, recognition tasks aid source monitoring  
 454 processes through the reactivation of sensory details of the study words and their encoding context  
 455 (Cabeza, Rao, Wagner, Mayer, & Schacter, 2001) and recognition decisions are based on inferential  
 456 judgments. This can be evidenced by the similarly high levels of critical lure recognition in both

457 experiments, but otherwise low levels in the recall test. Also, recall tests were completed before the  
458 recognition test, which has been shown to influence recognition rates (e.g., Roediger & McDermott,  
459 1995). Similar temporal considerations are important for the impact of exercise, as the effects of  
460 exercise on self-reported arousal and blood lactate had all decreased by the recognition testing phase,  
461 reducing the effects of exercise on response bias. However, given that exercise induced arousal was  
462 elevated during encoding, this requires further consideration.

463 In line with FTT, these findings suggest that exercise did not influence gist based memory processes  
464 when compared to quiet rest. Concerning the increased correct recall of presented words, exercise  
465 appears to have increased verbatim processing through focusing active attention on the perceptual  
466 details of presented words (potentially through effective mental rehearsal). This suggestion is in line  
467 with the proposal that acute moderate intensity exercise facilitates attentional allocation and efficient  
468 information processing speeds during cognitive tasks (e.g., Hillman, Snook, Jerome, 2003; Kamijo,  
469 Nishihira, Higashiura, Kuroiwa, 2007), also evidenced through larger P3 amplitude (Hillman et al.,  
470 2003; Kamijo et al., 2007) and shorter P3 latency (Hillman et al., 2003). This improved active  
471 attentional allocation supported the encoding of contextually specific information, and  
472 consequentially assisted the recall of presented words but not non-presented words that were merely  
473 semantically activated. It is also possible that post-exercise encoding may inhibit automatic  
474 spreading activation. Given that arousal and BL levels were highest immediately post-exercise, it is  
475 likely exercise biased the encoding phase. Indeed, researchers suggest acute exercise may primarily  
476 benefit encoding rather than consolidation (stabilization of memory traces post-encoding) (e.g.,  
477 Laban & Etnier, 2018), although others highlight exercise benefiting consolidation (McNerney &  
478 Radvansky, 2015). These initial findings point to a limited impact of physical exercise on false  
479 memory generation.

480 One key limitation is that no exploration of long-term memory consolidation processes is possible,  
481 which other researchers have highlighted as a key role of exercise (e.g., Tomporowski, Pendleton,  
482 2018). There is also the potential that as the effects of exercise remain long after exercise completion,  
483 retrieval processes may also have been influenced by exercise. In addition, the present study did not  
484 take into account baseline in memory performance. This may be an important consideration given  
485 that both propensity for false recall (e.g., Diekelmann, et al., 2010) and influence of exercise on  
486 cognition (e.g., Sibley & Beilock, 2007) are sensitive cognitive capacity.

487 Whilst the present study addressed exercise intensity, the protocols in terms of intensity and  
488 manipulation were not without issue. For example, the American College of Sports Medicine  
489 (ACSM: 2013) considers moderate intensity exercise to be between 64-76% of estimated HRmax. In  
490 Experiment 1, heart rates were well within this range (68.40% HRmax), yet participants in  
491 Experiment 2 exercised on average at 79.43%HRmax in the equivalent condition. This suggests that  
492 intensity may have been higher than expected in Experiment 2, and across the sample 13 participants  
493 were above this HR range. Using perceptual data, only 6 participants rated their RPE as being above  
494 the 13 upper limit identified as indicating moderate intensity exercise. Importantly, significant  
495 differences across all conditions in Experiment 2 for RPE and HR suggest that the conditions were  
496 distinct in terms of intensity. Yet a consequence is that across the experiments, moderate intensity  
497 exercise conditions were different not only in terms of intensity, but also the resultant affective  
498 experience. With Experiment 1 participants experienced moderate intensity exercise (RPE between  
499 somewhat hard and hard, with option to adjust intensity) as more positive than in Experiment 2  
500 (intensity set at 60% of VO<sub>2</sub>peak). This may have been a result of the self-controlled nature versus  
501 prescriptive protocols employed, with self-selected exercise associated with more positive affective  
502 responses through perceived autonomy (Oliveira, Deslandes, & Santos, 2015). Future research  
503 should explore the role of exercise intensity and its manipulation in terms of true and false memory

504 generation. Finally, the generalizability of these findings are limited by the use of regularly  
505 physically active samples of young adults. Whilst there is limited evidence on the moderating role of  
506 fitness in the acute exercise and memory relationship (Loprinzi, et al., 2019), fitness status is  
507 acknowledged an important consideration (Chang, et al., 2012). Therefore, future studies are needed  
508 to explore the roles of exercise intensity and fitness, as well as other individual differences (e.g.,  
509 cognitive capacity, age), proposed to moderate acute exercise and cognitive performance  
510 relationship.

511 In conclusion, the present study found that acute bouts of moderate intensity aerobic exercise  
512 performed before encoding and immediate retrieval of semantically associated words improved the  
513 volume of studied information correctly recalled. There were no associated increases in false  
514 memory generation, suggesting that exercise induced arousal facilitated verbatim memory traces  
515 rather than promoting gist-based processing at encoding. This is in line with Lambourne and  
516 Tomporowski (2010) meta-regression analysis observations that post-exercise exercise-induced  
517 arousal facilitates speeded mental process, as well as enhancing memory storage and retrieval, even if  
518 the exercise was intended to induce physical fatigue. This also supports initial proposals made by  
519 Loprinzi and colleagues (Dilley, et al., 2019; Green & Loprinzi, 2018; Siddiqui & Loprinzi, 2018),  
520 and the encoding acute exercise benefits suggested by Labban and Etnier (2018). There may be a  
521 limitation to this arousal effect, as intense exercise did not result in improvements in free recall  
522 performance, potentially due to more negative affect during intense exercise compared to moderate  
523 intensity exercise. The beneficial effects may be associated with acute exercise's support of  
524 attentional processes and allocation, as well as arousal increasing verbatim processing of information.  
525 Research is required to address the underlying mechanisms and exercise characteristics (i.e.,  
526 intensity, mode, duration and timing) that influence these false memory effects.

527 **9 Conflict of Interest**

528 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial  
529 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

530 **10 Ethics Statement**

531 The study received institutional ethics committee approval prior to any testing. Participants were  
532 informed of the details of the study they participated in, both verbally and in writing, prior to  
533 providing written informed consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Participants  
534 were debriefed upon completion of the study.

535 **11 Author Contributions**

536 DM, CT and KM conceived, designed, and prepared the materials. DM and KM supervised data  
537 collection, and SH and LF collected data. DM wrote the first draft. All authors contributed to revising  
538 drafts critically for important intellectual content. Each author (DM, CT, KM, SH, LF) contributed  
539 to the final approval of the version to be published; and Each author (DM, CT, KM, SH, LF) is in  
540 agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

541 **12 Acknowledgments**

542 We would like to thank the participants for their time and efforts in this study.

543 **13 References**

- 544 American College of Sports Medicine (Ed.). (2013). *ACSM's health-related physical fitness*  
545 *assessment manual*. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- 546 Blough, J., & Loprinzi, P. D. (2019). Experimental manipulation of psychological control scenarios:  
547 Implications for exercise and memory research. *Psych*, 1(1), 279-289.
- 548 Borg, G. (1998). *Borg's perceived exertion and pain scales*. Champaign, IL: Human kinetics.
- 549 Brainerd, C.J., & Reyna, V.F. (2002). Fuzzy-trace theory and false memory. *Curr Dir Psychol Sci*,  
550 11, 164-169.
- 551 Cabeza, R., Rao, S.M., Wagner, A.D., Mayer, A.R., & Schacter, D.L. (2001). Can medial temporal  
552 lobe regions distinguish true from false? An event-related functional MRI study of veridical and  
553 illusory recognition memory. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 98, 4805-4810.
- 554 Chang, Y.K., Chu, C.H., Wang, C.C., Wang, Y.C., Song, T.F., Tsai, C.L., & Etnier, J.L. (2015).  
555 Dose-response relation between exercise duration and cognition. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*, 47, 159-165.
- 556 Chang, Y.K., Labban, J.D., Gapin, J.I., & Etnier, J.L. (2012). The effects of acute exercise on  
557 cognitive performance: a meta-analysis. *Brain Res*, 1453, 87-101.
- 558 Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. 2nd edition. Hillsdale, NJ:  
559 Erlbaum.
- 560 Coles, K., & Tomporowski, P.D. (2008). Effects of Acute Exercise on Executive Processing, Short-  
561 term and Long-term Memory. *Sports Sci*. 26(3), 333-344.
- 562 Corson, Y., & Verrier, N. (2007). Emotions and false memories: Valence or arousal? *Psychol Sci*, 18,  
563 208-211.
- 564 Diekelmann, S., Born, J., & Wagner, U. (2010). Sleep enhances false memories depending on  
565 general memory performance. *Behav Brain Res*, 208(2), 425-429.
- 566 Dilley, E. K., Zou, L., & Loprinzi, P. D. (2019). The effects of acute exercise intensity on episodic  
567 and false memory among young adult college students. *Health Promot Perspect*, 9(2), 143-149.
- 568 Etnier, J.L., Wideman, L., Labban, J.D., Piepmeyer, A.T., Pendleton, D.M., Dvorak, K.K., &  
569 Becofsky, K. (2016). The effects of acute exercise on memory and brain-derived neurotrophic factor  
570 (BDNF). *J Sport Exerc Psychol*, 38(4), 331-340.
- 571 Gallo, D.A. (2010). False memories and fantastic beliefs: 15 years of the DRM illusion. *Mem Cognit*,  
572 38, 833-848.
- 573 Garber, C.E., Blissmer, B., Deschenes, M.R., Franklin, B.A., Lamonte, M.J., Lee, I.M., ... Swain,  
574 D.P. (2011). Quantity and quality of exercise for developing and maintaining cardiorespiratory,  
575 musculoskeletal, and neuromotor fitness in apparently healthy adults: guidance for prescribing  
576 exercise. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*, 43(7), pp.1334-1359.
- 577 Green, D., & Loprinzi, P.D. (2018). Experimental Effects of Acute Exercise on Prospective Memory  
578 and False Memory. *Psychol Rep*, 0033294118782466.
- 579 Hardy, C.J., & Rejeski, W.J. (1989). Not what, but how one feels: The measurement of affect during  
580 exercise. *J Sport Exerc Psychol*, 11(3), 304-317.
- 581 Hillman, C.H., Snook, E.M., & Jerome, G.J. (2003). Acute cardiovascular exercise and executive  
582 control function. *Int J Psychophysiol*, 48, 307-14.
- 583 Kamijo, K., Nishihira, Y., Higashiura, T., Kuroiwa, K. (2007). The interactive effect of exercise  
584 intensity and task difficulty on human cognitive processing. *Int J Psychophysiol*, 65,114-21.



- 585 Knott, L.M., & Thorley, C. (2014). Mood-congruent false memories persist over time. *Cogn Emot*,  
586 28(5), 903-912.
- 587 Labban, J.D., & Etnier, J.L. (2011). Effects of acute exercise on long-term memory. *Res Q Exerc*  
588 *Sport*, 82, 712-721.
- 589 Labban, J.D., & Etnier, J.L. (2018). The Effect of Acute Exercise on Encoding and Consolidation of  
590 Long-Term Memory. *J Sport Exerc Psychol*, 40(6), 336-342.
- 591 Lambourne, K., & Tomporowski, P. (2010). The effect of exercise-induced arousal on cognitive task  
592 performance: a meta-regression analysis. *Brain Res*, 1341, 12-24.
- 593 Loprinzi, P. D. (2018). Intensity-specific effects of acute exercise on human memory function:  
594 Considerations for the timing of exercise and the type of memory. *Health Promot Perspect*, 8(4),  
595 255.
- 596 Loprinzi, P. D., Blough, J., Crawford, L., Ryu, S., Zou, L., & Li, H. (2019). The temporal effects of  
597 acute exercise on episodic memory function: Systematic review with meta-analysis. *Brain sciences*,  
598 9(4), 87. <https://doi.org/10.3390/brainsci9040087>
- 599 Mahoney, C.R., Brunyé, T.T., Giles, G.E., Ditman, T., Lieberman, H.R., & Taylor, H.A. (2012).  
600 Caffeine increases false memory in nonhabitual consumers. *J Cogn Psychol*, 24, 420-427.
- 601 McMorris, T., & Hale, B. J. (2012). Differential effects of differing intensities of acute exercise on  
602 speed and accuracy of cognition: a meta-analytical investigation. *Brain Cogn*, 80(3), 338-351.
- 603 McNerney, M. W., & Radvansky, G. A. (2015). Mind racing: The influence of exercise on long-term  
604 memory consolidation. *Memory*, 23(8), 1140-1151.
- 605 Oliveira, B., Deslandes, A., & Santos, T. (2015). Differences in exercise intensity seems to influence  
606 the affective responses in self-selected and imposed exercise: a meta-analysis. *Front Psychol*, 6,  
607 1105.
- 608 Roediger, H.L., & McDermott, K.B., (1995). Creating False Memories: Remembering Words Not  
609 Presented in Lists. *J Exp Psychol Learn Mem Cogn*. 21, 803-814.
- 610 Roediger, H.L., Watson, J.M., McDermott, K.B., & Gallo, D.A. (2001). Factors that determine false  
611 recall: A multiple regression analysis. *Psychon Bull Rev*, 8, 385-407.
- 612 Salas, C. R., Minakata, K., & Kelemen, W.L. (2011). Walking before study enhances free recall but  
613 not judgement-of-learning magnitude. *J Cogn Psychol*, 23, 507-513.
- 614 Sibley, B.A., & Beilock, S.L. (2007). Exercise and working memory: an individual differences  
615 investigation. *J Sport Exerc Psychol*, 29, 783-791.
- 616 Siddiqui, A., & Loprinzi, P. (2018). Experimental investigation of the time course effects of acute  
617 exercise on false episodic memory. *J Clin Med*, 7(7), 157.
- 618 Soga, K., Kamijo, K., & Masaki, H. (2017). Aerobic Exercise During Encoding Impairs  
619 Hippocampus-Dependent Memory. *J Sport Exerc Psychol*, 39(4), 249-260.
- 620 Spurway, N.C. (1992). Aerobic exercise, anaerobic exercise and the lactate threshold. *Br Med Bull*,  
621 48, 569-591.
- 622 Stadler, M.A., Roediger, H.L. & McDermott, K.B. (1999). Norms for word lists that create false  
623 memories. *Mem Cognit*, 27, 494-500.
- 624 Tomporowski, P.D., Ellis, N.R., & Stephens, R. (1987). The immediate effects of strenuous exercise  
625 on free-recall memory. *Ergonomics*, 30, 121-129.

- 626 Tomporowski, P. D., & Pendleton, D. M. (2018). Effects of the timing of acute exercise and  
627 movement complexity on young adults' psychomotor learning. *J Sport Exerc Psychol*, 40(5), 240-  
628 248.
- 629 Thayer, R.E., (1989). *The Biopsychology of Mood and Arousal*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- 630 Winter, B., Breitenstein, C., Mooren, F. C., Voelker, K., Fobker, M., Lechtermann, A., Krueger, K.,  
631 Fromme, A., Korsukewitz, C., Floel, A. & Knecht, S. (2007). High impact running improves  
632 learning. *Neurobiol Learn Mem*, 87, 597-609.
- 633
- 634

635 **14 Tables**

636 Table 1. Mean (SD) number of studied words correctly recalled (max = 90), critical lures falsely  
 637 recalled (max = 6), and non-studied new words incorrectly recalled following two activities (rest or  
 638 moderate intensity exercise) in Experiment 1. <sup>a</sup> significantly different from rest.

639

<b>Activity</b>	<b>Studied Words</b>	<b>Critical Lures</b>	<b>Non-Studied New Words</b>
Rest	39.35 (7.03)	2.08 (1.44)	2.89 (3.82)
Exercise	42.69 (9.21) <sup>a</sup>	2.69 (1.52)	1.81 (1.90)

640

641

642 Table 2. Mean (SD) proportion of studied words correctly recognised, critical lures falsely  
 643 recognised, and non-studied new items incorrectly recognised following each activity in Experiment  
 644 1.

645

		<b>Rest</b>	<b>Moderate Exercise</b>
Studied Words	Old ( <i>Correct</i> )	.78 (.12)	.77 (.19)
	Remember	.38 (.27)	.44 (.32)
	Know	.27 (.26)	.25 (.28)
	Guess	.12 (.17)	.07 (.06)
Critical Lures	Old ( <i>Incorrect</i> )	.87 (.17)	.87 (.20)
	Remember	.47 (.34)	.47 (.34)
	Know	.31 (.28)	.29 (.30)
	Guess	.09 (.12)	.11 (.14)
New Words	Old ( <i>Incorrect</i> )	.19 (.23)	.17 (.25)
	Remember	.04 (.07)	.05 (.12)
	Know	.04 (.09)	.02 (.07)
	Guess	.11 (.18)	.10 (.21)

646

**ACUTE EXERCISE IMPROVES CORRECT RECALL**

647 Table 3. Blood Lactate and Arousal responses ( $M \pm SD$ ) before and after the three activities (rest,  
648 moderate intensity exercise, high intensity exercise) in Experiment 2.

649

Measure	Time	Rest	Moderate Exercise	Intense Exercise
Blood Lactate mmol/l	Pre-activity	1.00 (0.41)	1.13 (0.42)	1.27 (0.45)
	Post-activity	1.08 (0.42)	1.78 (0.76)	6.20 (0.55)
	Post-Recall	1.01 (0.36)	1.74 (0.58)	6.22 (1.48)
	Post-recognition	0.96 (0.29)	1.51 (0.43)	5.60 (1.35)
Energy	Pre-activity	9.84 (4.09)	11.00 (4.93)	11.44 (5.08)
	Post-activity	7.88 (4.39)	13.40 (4.74)	15.36 (4.92)
	Post-Recall	10.12 (4.60)	10.80 (4.71)	10.00 (5.33)
	Post-recognition	9.96 (4.31)	9.96 (4.78)	10.36 (5.31)
Calmness	Pre-activity	14.08 (3.55)	13.60 (5.43)	13.04 (4.06)
	Post-activity	15.80 (5.26)	10.24 (3.32)	8.56 (3.92)
	Post-Recall	14.88 (5.87)	13.08 (5.34)	13.56 (3.92)
	Post-recognition	14.24 (4.87)	13.28 (3.92)	13.64 (4.21)
Tiredness	Pre-activity	9.12 (5.59)	8.52 (4.50)	8.60 (3.98)
	Post-activity	10.28 (5.73)	6.24 (3.36)	7.48 (6.47)
	Post-Recall	9.64 (5.18)	8.16 (4.90)	9.88 (5.15)
	Post-recognition	9.76 (5.44)	8.32 (4.71)	9.32 (5.48)
Tension	Pre-activity	7.44 (3.34)	7.76 (3.11)	7.68 (3.48)
	Post-activity	7.28 (2.85)	8.68 (3.04)	8.96 (2.26)
	Post-Recall	7.80 (3.23)	7.84 (3.47)	8.00 (2.69)
	Post-recognition	7.12 (2.99)	7.64 (3.60)	7.36 (2.38)

650

651

652 Table 4. During-activity RPE, HR (bpm), Affect and arousal (Mean  $\pm$  SD) from final section of the  
 653 three activities (rest, moderate intensity exercise, high intensity exercise) in Experiment 2. <sup>a</sup>  
 654 significantly different from rest, <sup>b</sup> significantly different from moderate intensity exercise, <sup>c</sup>  
 655 significantly different from high intensity exercise.

656

Activity	RPE	HR (bpm)	Affect	Arousal
Rest	6.12 (0.44) <sup>b c</sup>	66.12 (7.34) <sup>b c</sup>	3.04 (1.67) <sup>b c</sup>	1.92 (1.19) <sup>b c</sup>
Moderate Exercise	12.68 (2.39) <sup>a c</sup>	154.08 (15.52) <sup>a c</sup>	2.40 (1.76) <sup>a c</sup>	3.32 (1.38) <sup>a c</sup>
Intense Exercise	16.36 (3.32) <sup>a b</sup>	170 12.55) <sup>a b</sup>	0.24 (2.52) <sup>a b</sup>	4.24 (1.56) <sup>a b</sup>

657

658

659

660



## ACUTE EXERCISE IMPROVES CORRECT RECALL

661 Table 5. Mean (SD) number of studied words correctly recalled (max = 90), critical lures falsely  
662 recalled (max = 6), and non-studied new words (not critical lures) incorrectly recalled after the three  
663 activities in Experiment 2. <sup>a</sup> significantly different from rest, <sup>b</sup> significantly different from moderate  
664 intensity exercise, <sup>c</sup> significantly different from high intensity exercise.

665

<b>Activity</b>	<b>Studied Words</b>	<b>Critical Lures</b>	<b>Non-Studied Words</b>
Rest	42.20 (8.36)	2.68 (1.65)	1.52 (1.66)
Moderate Exercise	47.20 (7.43) <sup>a</sup>	2.64 (1.47)	2.28 (2.84)
Intense Exercise	45.16 (9.87)	2.84 (1.40)	1.96 (2.17)

666

667

668

669

670

671

672 Table 6. Mean (SD) proportion of studied words correctly recognised, critical lures falsely  
 673 recognised, and non-studied new items incorrectly recognised following each activity in Experiment  
 674 2.

675

		<b>Rest</b>	<b>Moderate</b>	<b>High</b>
			<b>Intensity Exercise</b>	<b>Intensity Exercise</b>
Studied Words	Old ( <i>Correct</i> )	.84 (.15)	.85 (.11)	.84 (.12)
	Remember	.53 (.25)	.59 (.59)	.58 (.24)
	Know	.21 (.24)	.17 (.19)	.15 (.22)
	Guess	.10 (.08)	.09 (.10)	.10 (.13)
Critical Lures	Old ( <i>Incorrect</i> )	.85 (.18)	.85 (.21)	.86 (.22)
	Remember	.52 (.30)	.59 (.36)	.53 (.35)
	Know	.24 (.31)	.15 (.20)	.24 (.27)
	Guess	.09 (.14)	.11 (.17)	.09 (.18)
New Words	Old ( <i>Incorrect</i> )	.18 (.24)	.10 (.24)	.13 (.13)
	Remember	.03 (.07)	.02 (.04)	.05 (.09)
	Know	.01 (.03)	.03 (.08)	.02 (.06)
	Guess	.14 (.23)	.05 (.09)	.05 (.08)

676

677

678