Effect of acute physical exercise on motor sequence memory

Corresponding author: Blanca MARIN BOSCH, University of Geneva, Fundamental Neurosciences, Campus Biotech, 9 chemin des Mines, 1202 Geneva, blanca.marinbosch@unige.ch

Authors

Blanca Marin Bosch[1*], Aurélien Bringard[1,2], Maria Grazia Logrieco[1], Estelle Lauer[3], Nathalie Imobersteg[1,2], Aurélien Thomas[3,4], Guido Ferretti[1,2], Sophie Schwartz[1,5,6#], Kinga Igloi[1,5,6#]

* Corresponding author

# Both authors contributed equally to this manuscript

Affiliation: (1) Department of Neuroscience, Faculty of Medicine, University of Geneva, Geneva, Switzerland; (2) Department of Anesthesiology, Pharmacology and Intensive Care, Geneva University Hospitals, Geneva, Switzerland; (3) Unit of Toxicology, CURML, Lausanne University Hospital & Geneva University Hospitals, Geneva, Switzerland; (4) Faculty of Biology and Medicine, University of Lausanne, Lausanne, Switzerland; (5) Swiss Center for Affective Sciences, University of Geneva, Geneva, Switzerland; (6) Geneva Neuroscience Center, University of Geneva, Geneva, Switzerland.

ABSTRACT

Acute physical exercise improves memory functions by increasing neural plasticity in the hippocampus. In animals, a single session of physical exercise has been shown to boost anandamide (AEA), an endocannabinoid known to promote hippocampal plasticity. Hippocampal neuronal networks encode episodic memory representations, including the temporal organization of elements, and can thus benefit motor sequence learning. While previous work established that acute physical exercise has positive effects on declarative memory linked to hippocampal plasticity mechanisms, its influence on memory for motor sequences, and especially on neural mechanisms underlying possible effects, has been less investigated.

Here we studied the impact of acute physical exercise on motor sequence learning, and its underlying neurophysiological mechanisms in humans, using a cross-over randomized within-subjects design. We measured behavior, fMRI activity, and circulating AEA levels in fifteen healthy participants while they performed a serial reaction time task (SRTT) before and after a short period of exercise (moderate or high intensity) or rest.

We show that exercise enhanced motor sequence memory, significantly for high intensity exercise and tending towards significance for moderate intensity exercise. This enhancement correlated with AEA increase, and dovetailed with local increases in caudate nucleus and hippocampus activity.

These findings demonstrate that acute physical exercise promotes sequence learning, thus attesting the overarching benefit of exercise to hippocampus-related memory functions.

INTRODUCTION

From typing on our smartphones to tying our shoes, most of our everyday activities engage a wide range of motor skills. Conversely, many neurological disorders such as ataxia (a deficit in motor coordination) or Parkinson's disease disrupt motor behavior. When learning new motor skills, both explicit and implicit mechanisms are typically involved, and have been shown to rely on hippocampal and striatal circuits [1,2]. Moreover, hippocampal damage can thus impair both explicit and implicit memory [3]. Recently, evidence has accumulated to suggest that regular physical exercise over several weeks or months may promote synaptic plasticity in the hippocampus in animal [4,5,6] and in human [7], while also enhancing learning and memory in general [8]. Regarding motor skill learning specifically, lower fitness levels have been linked to worse performance on motor sequence learning task [9].

Remarkably, one single bout of physical exercise (i.e. acute physical exercise) may also benefit diverse cognitive functions such as executive functions [10] but also hippocampal plasticity and function, including declarative memory in humans [11,12]. Acute physical exercise increases the levels of endocannabinoids in the brain, which can be measured peripherally [13,14]. Higher levels of the endocannabinoid anandamide (AEA) have been positively linked to an increase in cannabinoid receptor 1 (CB1) activity and in hippocampal plasticity [15,16] through long-term potentiation mechanisms [17]. The hippocampus is not the only brain region modulated by CB1 activity. Recent studies have shown that CB1 activity protects striatal neurons in culture against excitotoxicity [18] while CB1 activity is reduced in striatal neurons in a mouse-model of ataxia [19]. Consistent with enhanced striatal function, one report indicated that acute physical exercise also improved procedural memory in a visuomotor accuracy tracking task in a dose-response manner, with higher exercise intensity significantly more beneficial than lower intensity [20]. Finally, a recent study reported that overnight consolidation of motor sequence learning was

impaired in hippocampal amnesiacs compared to matched controls, despite similar initial

learning [21], hence further supporting a key contribution of the hippocampus to the consolidation

of not only declarative memory but also motor sequences. Based on these observations from

different research fields, we hypothesized that one bout of exercise should promote

hippocampal (and striatal) activity and functions, plausibly together with increased circulating

levels of AEA, and enhance the consolidation of memory for motor sequences. We also

predicted that high compared to moderate exercise intensity would yield stronger effects.

To test these hypotheses, we combined behavioral, imaging, and blood samples

measurements in an experimental protocol including two conditions of exercise with different

intensities (moderate intensity exercise at 70% of maximal heart rate, corresponding to 60% of

VO2max and high intensity exercise as 80% of maximal heart rate, corresponding to 75% of

VO2max) and one additional no-exercise or rest condition (Fig. 1A). We tested 15 right-handed,

healthy and fit males (23.2 ± 4.21 years old) in a randomized within-subjects design involving

three visits (one condition per visit). To assess motor sequence learning, we adapted a finger

tapping task or serial reaction time task (SRTT) previously used by Ros et al. [22], in which

participants were trained at executing a sequence of keypresses with the four fingers of their

non-dominant left hand as indicated by visual cues on a screen (Fig. 1C). Participants were not

told explicitly that they would produce a fixed sequence of 12 button presses (a different

sequence was trained on each visit), repeated 10 times in each training block. Thus, at each

visit, participants came in the morning and performed the first session (Session 1) of the motor

sequence task in the MRI. Session 1 was composed of four blocks (three sequence blocks, and

one random block in position 2, Fig. 1B). Then, participants rested for 30 minutes, or cycled at

moderate intensity for 30 minutes, or cycled at high intensity for 15 minutes, with an additional 3

minutes of warm-up and 3 minutes of cool-down to limit difference in duration length between

exercising conditions and to avoid premature fatigue due to abrupt transition from rest to high

intensity exercise. Blood samples were taken right before and right after resting or cycling (Fig.

1A). Forty-five minutes after the second blood sample, i.e. once heart and breathing rates were

back to baseline, participants entered the MRI again to perform the second session (Session 2)

of the SRTT in the MRI (see Methods section for full description). The effects of exercising on

SRTT learning were thus assessed by comparing, for each participant, performance

improvement from Session 1 to Session 2 from each exercise condition.

RESULTS

Behavioral

Participants were instructed to be as quick and as correct as possible on each trial of the

SRTT, but there was no time limit. To account for speed-accuracy trade-off, we defined

performance as the percentage of correct trials per block divided by the average reaction time

on that block. Exercise-related SRTT improvement (or consolidation) was computed as the

difference in performance from Session 1 to Session 2, as in Mang et al., 2016[23]. First, we used

separate two-sample t-tests against zero and found that participants' performance improved

only for the sequence blocks (rest: $T(14)=2.40$, $p=0.031$; moderate: $T(14)=3.74$, $p=0.002$; high:

$T(14)=3.76$, $p=0.002$), but not for the random blocks (rest: $T(14)=-0.95$, $p=0.36$; moderate:

$T(14)=0.39$, $p=0.70$; high: $T(14)=1.72$, $p=0.11$). Next, these data were analyzed using a

repeated-measures ANOVA with Exercising Condition (rest, moderate and high intensity

exercise) and Block type (sequence, random) as within-subjects factors. We report an effect of

Exercising Condition ($F(2,28)=3.36$ $p=0.049$) and an effect of Block type ($F(2,28)=16.28$

$p=0.001$), with no interaction between these effects ($F(2,28)=0.43$, $p=0.655$; Fig. 2). To better

understand the effect of Exercising Condition, we conducted post-hoc analyses and found a

significant difference between rest and high ($p=0.049$) and a tendency towards significant

difference between rest and moderate ($p=0.069$), while moderate and high did not significantly

differ (p=0.558), further there was no significant difference between random blocks according to Exercising condition ($p_{rest-mod}$ = 0.683, $p_{mod-high}$ = 1.000, $p_{rest-high}$ = 0.202). Due to the combination of results, we performed exploratory post-hoc analyses on the non-significant interaction between the effect of Exercising Condition and the effect of Block Type. This analysis revealed no difference between random and sequence blocks in the rest condition (p=0.137), while the difference between random and sequence blocks was significant for both moderate (p=0.009) and high (p=0.007) intensity Exercising conditions.

This cross-over randomized within-subjects design involved executing a visuo-motor task over three different visits. To assess for possible effects of the order of visit, we computed performance (accuracy/RT) and reaction times for each visit separately and performed two separate repeated-measures ANOVAs for each measurement type, with Visit Order (1-2-3) and Block Type (sequence-random) as repeated measures. For both performance and reaction times, we found no effect of Visit Order (performance: $F_{(2, 28)}$=0.17, p=0.84; reaction times: $F_{(2, 28)}$=0.001, p=0.99), an effect of Block Type (performance: $F_{(1, 14)}$=16.01, p=0.001; reaction times: $F_{(1, 14)}$=16.79, p=0.001) and no interaction between Visit Order and Block Type (performance: $F_{(2, 28)}$=1.99, p=0.15; reaction times: $F_{(2, 28)}$=0.71, p=0.51). To take delay between visits into account, we computed the difference in performance and in reaction times between consecutive visits (difference between visit 2 and visit 1 and difference between visit 3 and visit 2) and added time (in days) between these visits as a cofactor. Here again, these analyses yielded no effect of Visit Order (here difference between consecutive visits), and no interaction with delay between visits (all p>0.50). Altogether, these results suggest that performance or reaction times were not significantly affected by the order of the visits or by the delay between experimental sessions.

Functional MRI

After standard preprocessing and corrections for breathing and heart rate, the fMRI data from each participant acquired after each exercising condition were analyzed using an event-related general linear model (see Methods section for detailed description). Event-onsets for the sequence and random blocks were defined as the moments when one of the dots on the screen turned into a star. The inverse reaction time (-RT) of each trial was added as parametric modulator of the main event regressors. At the second level, a flexible factorial model was then run with Subject and Block type (sequence and random) as factors, using the contrast images corresponding to the main effects for each Exercising Condition (rest, moderate intensity exercise and high intensity exercise) from each participant. To identify common motor activations between the sequence and random blocks we conducted a conjunction analysis across all participants. This analysis yielded activations in the right precentral gyrus (contralateral to hand used in the task) and left cerebellum, which is consistent with previous literature for this type of tasks [24], see Table 1 for all activations). We then tested for global differences in activity elicited after exercise (moderate and high) versus rest for the sequence blocks and found increased bilateral activation of the precuneus (peaks at: [-16 -68 30] and [20 -60 22]). To directly address one of the main hypotheses that better performance after exercise would rely on hippocampal and striatal circuitry, we looked at the effect of the parametric modulator (-RT) to reveal any regions whose activation increases selectively for faster correct trials, and more so after exercise (moderate and high) than after rest. We found such an effect in the right hippocampus (peak at [30 -6 -24], Fig. 3A) and in the right caudate (peak at [20 24 2], Fig. 3B). Activations in both regions survived small volume correction (cluster level: $p_{right\ hippocampus}=0.002$, $p_{right\ caudate}=0.020$; peak level: $p_{right\ hippocampus}=0.003$, $p_{right\ caudate}=0.038$) using predefined regions of interest (see Methods). More importantly, no such activations were found when performing the same analysis on the random blocks. See Table 1 for all activations.

Anandamide

Blood samples were taken before (baseline) and after each exercising condition. Analyses on the difference between the second and the first baseline sample revealed a significant effect of Exercising Condition on AEA levels ($F_{(2, 28)}=41.991$, $p<0.001$), with increased AEA after moderate and high intensity exercise compared to after rest ($p_{mod-rest}<0.001$; $p_{high-rest}<0.001$) and no difference between both exercising conditions ($p_{high-mod}=0.080$; Fig. 4A).

Additionally, we found positive correlations between AEA increase and performance on the sequence blocks for both the moderate ($R=0.554$ $p=0.032$) and for the high ($R=0.586$ $p=0.022$) intensity exercising conditions (Fig. 4b). AEA changes did not correlate with performance on the random blocks ($R= -0.23$ $p=0.41$ for moderate condition and $R= 0.07$ $p=0.81$ for the high condition). We also directly compared the correlation coefficients between sequence and random blocks for moderate and high conditions using Fisher's r to z method. We obtained a significantly different correlation during the moderate intensity condition (Fisher $z=2.1$, p one-tailed $=0.018$, p two tailed $=0.036$) and a trend for the high intensity condition (Fisher $z=1.48$ p one tailed$=0.069$, p two tailed $= 0.139$). These results suggest a link between performance for the sequence blocks and increase in AEA.

Finally, as exploratory analyses, we tested whether changes in AEA levels correlated with hippocampal or caudal activations, but did not observe any such correlation (all $p> 0.10$).

DISCUSSION

This study shows that one short bout of acute physical exercise at both moderate and high intensities increases AEA levels and hippocampal and striatal recruitment during SRTT, dovetailed with benefits for motor learning performance.

At the behavioral level, participants successfully learned the sequence, as shown by their better performance for sequence compared to random blocks. We also observed a significant

overall effect of acute physical exercise, indicating a clear benefit from engaging in high
intensity exercise and tending towards an effect for moderate intensity exercise rather than
resting. Because we observed a main effect of Exercising condition and no interaction between
Exercising Conditions and Block type, this suggests that exercise may have a general positive
impact on visuo-motor discrimination processes. However, the participants' performance on the
random blocks did not improve in any of the Exercising Conditions. This pattern of results
alludes to some differential impact of exercise on memory processes, beyond mere visuo-motor
adaptation effects. We thus conducted a post-hoc exploration within each exercising condition,
in an attempt to better disentangle the effects of exercise on motor skill learning from those
affecting general visuo-motor processes. This analysis showed significant performance
improvement for the sequence (compared to the random) blocks only after acute exercise
(moderate and high) but a non-significant trend after the rest condition. Because the results
from the brain imaging analyses revealed a strong link between SRTT performance and
hippocampal (and striatal) activity after exercise (see also discussion below), we consider that
the trend observed in the behavior as providing further converging support to the hypothesis
that exercise promotes the consolidation of motor sequence memory.

Results from the literature present some inconsistencies, with acute exercise improving
motor skill learning in two within-subjects studies [23, 25], and in a dose-dependent manner in a
between-subjects study [20], but also no effect in yet another between-subjects study [26] and one
non-significant increase in a further between-subjects study[27]. Please note that between-
subjects designs may not have provided sufficient sensitivity for this type of manipulation. In
particular, in our within-subjects study, we used two very carefully measured and individually-
calibrated exercise intensities. While high intensity exercise yielded numerically better
performance, we did not find evidence for any dose-dependent effect, with an overall exercising
effect but no significant difference between moderate and high intensity exercise. Most studies

showing an effect of acute physical exercise on motor skill learning only compared one intensity (which is usually high) to rest [23, 26, 27, 28, 29]. The previously mentioned study by Thomas et al. [20] is one of the few comparing more than one exercise intensity to rest. However, this is an interval-based exercising intervention with alternating 2-3 minute blocks of exercise at a given intensity (EX45 condition - more or less corresponding to our moderate condition or EX90 condition – which is very high intensity a measure they consider comparable to an effort at maximal heart rate) We fully agree with these authors' statement that exercise intensity plays a crucial role; here we complement their approach with different exercising intensities at one continuous Exercising condition, which is more suitable for rehabilitation trainings and more easily implementable for patient groups.

At the brain level, we found increased bilateral precuneus activity for both the moderate and high intensity exercising conditions as compared to the rest condition, consistent with the role of the precuneus in motor tasks requiring coordination and/or imagery [30, 31]. Next, we report that activity in the right hippocampus and caudate nucleus covaried with behavioral performance on the SRTT (faster correct trials) after both moderate and high intensity exercise (compared to rest), thus directly confirming our main initial hypothesis that hippocampal and striatal circuits may be involved in exercise-related performance gains. No such relationship was found for the random sequences, further suggesting that these regions contributed to motor sequence learning, beyond simple visuo-motor mapping,

These results are consistent with motor sequence learning incorporating both implicit and explicit learning components, which implicate striatal and hippocampal regions [32, 33]. Moreover, a positive relationship between activity in the striatum and hippocampus and motor skill learning was also observed in Parkinson's patients and healthy controls after a 3-month long exercising protocol [34]. While the results of our study suggest that long-term regular exercise and one single session of exercise may impact the same brain regions, the exact mechanisms underlying the

observed brain-behavior relationships are likely to differ [35]. Specifically, in our case, activity in

the hippocampus and striatum appeared to contribute to response times for accurate motor

output, while after long-term training in [34] this effect was seen in Parkinson's patients, but not in

controls because of a ceiling effect.

Here we additionally tested whether changes in SRTT performance may relate to exercise-

related changes in endocannabinoids' levels (i.e. AEA). First, we replicated a significant AEA

increase in response to physical exercise [13, 14]. Note that levels slightly dropped after rest, as

expected from metabolic and circadian fluctuations [36, 37]. Second, we found a positive correlation

between AEA levels and SRTT performance for both the moderate and for the high intensity

exercising conditions, suggesting that sequence learning may have benefited from exercise

possibly mediated at least in part by AEA increase. Please note that while both AEA increase

and higher hippocampal/striatal activity were linked to increased SRTT performance (for the

sequence Block in the moderate and high Exercising Conditions), both measures did not

correlate (AEA correlation with hippocampal activity: $p_{rest}=0.101$, $p_{mod}=0.308$, $p_{high}=0.168$; AEA

correlation with caudal activity: $p_{rest}=0.354$, $p_{mod}=0.260$, $p_{high}=0.970$). Because of such joined

relationship with performance and because the existing animal literature strongly supports that

AEA promotes plasticity in both the hippocampus and the striatum [17, 38, 39], we cannot rule out

that increased AEA affected hippocampal and/or striatal function in our experiment, despite the

absence of a simple linear relationship. Moreover, AEA is the strongest endogenous agonist of

the CB1 system [40], which itself has known neuroprotective effects [41].

Limitations:

There are several limitations in this study, among which we here list a few. First, although we

estimated our sample size from another published study[22] using the exact same task, we

acknowledge that our estimation may be optimistic (i.e. relatively small), this is why we used a

within-subjects design to compensate for possible lack of statistical power. Second, based on

previous literature, moderate intensity exercise was set at 30 minutes whereas high intensity

lasted 21 minutes (including warm-up and cool-down) to avoid exhaustion. Thus, the durations

of the moderate and high intensity exercise conditions slightly differed to achieve comparable

overall effort demands and exhaustion levels. Third, concerning the behavioral results: while we

observed a significant main effect of Exercising Condition, the comparison between high

intensity exercise and rest was significant, but the comparison between moderate intensity

exercise and rest yielded a non-significant trend (p=0.069). Moreover, although all performance

measures were defined as the difference between performance in Session 2 as compared to

Session 1, and Exercising conditions carefully randomized, repeating a motor task may be

associated with some unspecific learning across subsequent visits. However, we did not find

any effect of visit order neither for performance nor for reaction times. Fourth, the delay in days

between experimental visits could not be maintained constant because of external factors

(availability of the scanner, of the nurse, and of the physical exercise expert together with the

availability of the participant), but the delay did not affect performance or reaction times either.

Please note that the time between Session 1 and Session 2 was always constant and all

experimental visits were performed in the morning respecting a constant circadian timing.

Lastly, here we investigated AEA levels in relation to motor sequence learning, because AEA is

reportedly involved in hippocampal plasticity mechanisms and modulated by exercise. However,

although we observed a promising positive correlation between motor sequence learning and

concentration changes in this molecule, there are likely many other molecules involved in the

effect of exercise on motor sequence learning.

To conclude, here we demonstrate that exercise enhanced hippocampal and striatal function

and increased endogenous endocannabinoids levels, and that both were linked to better

behavioral performance. The neurophysiological mechanisms highlighted in this study provide

additional evidence that physical exercise could possibly prevent cognitive decline, especially

when hippocampal function is affected. Although more research is still needed, another

plausible implication of the present findings concerns people who are unable to perform physical

activity on their own due to disease, disability or old age, and who could benefit from

pharmacotherapies targeting the AEA or CB1 system as a potential alternative to exercise.

METHODS

Participants

Twenty-one healthy young males between the ages of 18 and 35 participated in this study,

for which they gave informed consent and were financially compensated. This study was

approved by the Ethics Committee of the Geneva University Hospitals. All methods were carried

out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations. All participants included in this study

were right-handed, non-smokers, without psychiatric or neurological history, and had a normal

or corrected-to-normal vision. None of the participants had any musical training, which may

imply the learning of finger motor sequences, potentially similar to the SRTT. Participants

scored within normal ranges on self-assessment questionnaires for depression BDI, [42], anxiety

STAI, [43], and circadian typology [44].

All the included participants had a VO2max above 40ml/kg/min and below 65ml/kg/min,

which represent values observed in recreationally active individuals, see VO2max measure for

details below.

This yielded a homogenous sample of regularly exercising young men. One participant had

to be excluded for non-compliance and five were excluded due to technical difficulties. The

resulting 15 participants had a mean age of 23.699 ± 4.024.

Concerning the sample size, please note that although 15 participants may appear at the

lower limits, here we used a carefully controlled cross-over within-subjects design, which is by

essence less affected by inter-individual variability than between-subjects studies. Between-

subjects studies typically require 4 to 8 times more participants than within-subjects designs [45],

and even with half the number of participants within-subjects studies are much more powerful

than their between-subjects counterpart [46]. Based on the effect sizes from a previous behavioral

study using the same SRTT as administered here, we determined that the minimum sample

size of a within-subjects design for a targeted power of over 0.95, was 6 [22]. Concerning the fMRI

analyses, based on data from previous studies using finger sequence learning [32, 33], we

established that the minimum sample size for activation in the hippocampus and/or striatum was

7.

Experimental procedure

Participants came to the lab four times, for one introductory visit (visit 0) and three

experimental visits (visits 1, 2 and 3).

Visit 0

Participants performed a VO2max procedure (detailed below), as well as a demo session of

the serial reaction time task (SRTT). Only those participants with a VO2max between 40 and 65

ml/kg/min were called back and invited to complete the rest of the study. These VO2max limits

were set specifically so that only physically trained participants were included, thus excluding

sedentary participants or elite athletes.

Visits 1, 2 and 3

These visits were spaced by about two weeks, and exercising conditions and task versions

(see below) were fully counterbalanced, according to a cross-over within-subjects design.

Participants were instructed to keep a regular exercising schedule during the week before

each visit, and their exercising schedule was documented using a fitness tracker (Fitbit Charge

HR, Fitbit, San Francisco, USA). They were also instructed to avoid intense physical activity

during the 48 hours preceding each experimental visit.

For each visit, the same schedule was followed, starting at 8:00 AM and ending at 12:00 PM

(Figure 1A). Participants first had a standardized breakfast in the lab including black coffee or

tea, orange or apple juice, bread and jam. They were allowed to have as much of these items

as they wanted, as soon as they would have the same amount on all visits. This breakfast

minimized fat intake, because the latter is known to potentially affect circulating levels of the

endocannabinoid anandamide (AEA). One hour and a half later, participants were placed in the

MRI scanner and performed the first session of the SRTT, after which a medical doctor took a

first blood sample. Participants were then asked to rest or exercise while wearing a Polar

RS800CX N (Polar RS 800 CX, Polar, Finland) to measure heart rate. In the case of exercise,

participants pedaled on a cycle ergometer (Ergoline GmbH, Bitz, Germany), maintaining a

pedaling frequency between 60 and 80 cycles per minute. Exercise intensities were determined

individually by adapting the load on the ergometer so as to match 70% (moderate intensity) or

80% (high intensity) of each participant's maximum heart rate. For moderate intensity

participants pedaled for 30 minutes while for high intensity exercise we reduced this time to 15

minutes, but included a 3 minutes warm-up and 3 minutes cool-down period amounting to a

total of 21 minutes of cycling. This was done to avoid exhaustion as here our main goal was to

look at the effect of high physical exercise, and maintaining an effort at 80% of maximal heart

rate for 30 minutes is highly demanding and may not be achieved by all participants. Even more

important for the present study, 30 mins of exercise at 80% of maximal heart rate would have

significantly increased stress level in all participants as reviewed in [47], which in itself may

compromise memory consolidation [48, 49]. Therefore, we limited the duration of the high intensity

session. On the other hand, based on previous research, including ours, we knew that effects

for the moderate intensity exercise may require some sustained exercise session [11, 20]. Hence,

to achieve two exercise sessions of different intensities, but comparable overall effort demands

and exhaustion levels, we had to slightly adapt the session durations.

For the 'rest' condition, participants sat on a chair and were allowed to look through selected

magazines. Shortly after the end of the exercising or rest period, a second blood sample was

taken. To allow for breathing and heart rates to go back to baseline, participants waited for 45

minutes before they were placed again inside the MRI for the second session of the SRTT.

Serial Reaction Time Task (SRTT)

We used the SRTT task described in Ros et al. [22]. In each experimental visit (i.e. Visits 1, 2,

and 3), participants performed two sessions of the SRTT, one before and one after the

exercising or rest period, and each composed of 4 blocks (Fig. 1B). Participants were shown a

black screen with four white horizontally-organized dots corresponding to their index, middle,

ring and little fingers of their non-dominant hand (Fig. 1C). Each finger was placed over a button

of a 4-button MRI-compatible box (HH-1x4-CR, Current Designs Inc.). When one of the dots

turned into a star, the participants had to press the corresponding button as fast as they could.

As soon as they pressed a button, another dot would turn into a star and they had to then press

the button associated to the new star, and so on, until the full SRTT session was completed.

In each sequence block, unbeknownst to them, the button presses formed a sequence of 12

presses (or trials), repeated 10 times. Random blocks were designed to match sequence blocks

with respect of the number of digit presses and digit span between trials, but there was no

underlying repeated sequence. Each sequence or random block was formed of 120 trials, and

each session comprised 4 blocks, with the random block at the second position. None of the

participants spontaneously reported to have noticed any repetition during the sequence blocks

and they were not debriefed afterward either. One distinct 12-item sequence (or version of the

task) was used in each visit (randomly assigned to exercising or rest conditions), and we did not

observe any significant effect of task version on SRTT performance ($F(2,28)=0.690$ $p=0.510$).

Consolidation time between Session 1 and Session 2 of the SRTT always amounted to 2 hours

and 30 minutes, please note that differences in time to complete the task were very small

(mean: 34.5+/-5.3 sec), and were very little comparatively to the duration of the consolidation

time and should therefore not have influenced this measure.

During Visit 0 participants did a small introductory session of the task (demo version), where

all trials were random and feedback was given after every trial (correct or not).

Behavioral analysis

The program Statistica (Version 12, www.statsoft.com, StatSoft, Inc. TULSA, OK, USA) was

used for all behavioral analyses performed in this study. Performance was defined as accuracy

(percentage of correct responses) divided by reaction time (mean reaction time per correct trial),

to accounts for speed-accuracy trade-off effects, as typically observed in speeded reaction time

tasks. To remove any potential initial performance difference for a given sequence, we

compared pre and post exercising condition (Session 1 to Session 2) for both sequence and

random blocks to be able to separately assess sequence-related learning effects and general

visuo-motor learning effects (as in Mang et al. 2016[23] and Meehan et al. 2011[50]), therefore we

ran our analyses on the difference in performance from Session 1 to Session 2. To determine

whether learning occurred from Session 1 to Session 2, we performed t-tests against zero for

each relevant variable. Then, we performed a repeated-measures ANOVA to test for effects of

exercise on motor sequence learning using an ANOVA with Exercising Condition (rest,

moderate intensity, high intensity) and Block type (random, sequence) as factors. All post-hoc

analyses were performed using the Bonferroni post-hoc method and all correlations were

Spearman Rank Order correlations.

VO2max measure

During Visit 0, all participants performed a maximal incremental test on an electrically braked

cycle ergometer (Ergometrics er800S, Ergoline, Jaeger, Germany). Using a metabolic unit

(K4b^2, Cosmed, Italy), respiratory gas flow and ventilation were measured breath-to-breath. This

metabolic unit was composed of a Zirconium Oxygen analyzer, an infrared CO2 meter and a

turbine flowmeter. The gas analyzers and the turbine were calibrated as recommended by the

manufacturer, the former with ambient air and with a mixture of known gases (O_2 16%, CO_2 5%,

N_2 as balance), and the latter using a 3-L syringe. Heart rate was monitored on a beat-by-beat

basis using cardiotachography (Polar RS 800 CX, Polar, Finland).

The following gas exchange variables were recorded on a breath-by-breath basis: V˙O2,

V˙CO2, V˙E, and respiratory exchange ratio. They were then averaged over 10–second sliding

intervals for later analysis. The test started with participants pedaling at a power output of 50W

for 4 minutes. Power was increased by 25W every 2 minutes until achieving 80% of maximal

heart rate predicted by age. From this point forward, power was increased by 25W every 1

minute until volitional exhaustion. Pedaling frequency had to be maintained in the range of 60 -

80 cycles per minute throughout the test.

We used the criteria recommended by the American Thoracic Society (ATS) /American

College Chest Physicians (ACCP) statement on cardiopulmonary exercise testing[51] to ascertain

VO2max. VO2max was determined when the following criteria were fulfilled: respiratory

exchange ratio > 1.1, plateau in VO2 (change of <100 mL·min^{-1} in the last three consecutive 20-

s averages), and a heart rate less than 10 beats·min-1 away from the calculated maximal level

predicted by age. The results from this test were used to select the appropriate power output for

the experimental visits, based on the relationship between power output and VO2.

From our maximal incremental effort test, we first determined individual VO2max and

maximal heart rate levels. These parameters were then used to define exercising intensities

during moderate and high intensity Exercising conditions: we set the initial work rate (i.e. power

output developed by the participant in Watts, against the resistance imposed by the cycle

ergometer) based on individual VO2max and adjusted this work rate based on heart rate levels

(see the Parameters of physical exercise during Exercising conditions for details). Additionally,

to insure that all participants remained in the same intensity domain, data of the incremental

effort tests were analysed for determination of the second ventilatory threshold (VT2). VT2 was

determined by the ventilatory equivalent method, where a clear breakpoint occurs on the plot

between the increase in ventilation to the increase in CO2 and partial pressure of exhaled

carbon dioxide decrease [52, 53].

We only included participants whose VO2max was above 40ml/kg/min and below

65ml/kg/min, which correspond to values observed in recreationally active individuals. The lower

bound was used to ensure that participants would tolerate the high intensity condition, and

specially would be able to continue exercising despite the uncomfortably high ventilation rate

associated with exercise at intensities close to the second ventilatory threshold (VT2). The

upper bound was needed for a homogeneous high intensity exercise condition that remains

below VT2 (which corresponds in a cycling paradigm to about 75-80% of VO2max or 85-90% of

maximal cardiac frequency for moderately fit participants). In very highly endurance trained

individuals, whose VO2max is above 65ml/kg/min VT2 is often higher, at about 80% of VO2max

or even higher in to class athletes, corresponding to 90% (or even higher) of maximal cardiac

frequency. Thus, an intensity defined as 75% of VO2max would not correspond to comparable

difficulty levels for moderately fit vs. highly trained participants, whether it is below or above

VT2. In all of the 15 participants, both work rate corresponding to 75% VO2max and 80%

maximal heart rate remained below the intensity at VT2, as was the average work rate during

constant high intensity exercise (Table 2).

Parameters of physical exercise during Exercising conditions

Each participant performed two Exercising conditions (apart from the rest session) at

constant intensity in counterbalanced order. Gas exchanges were not assessed during

exercising sessions. We tailored the intensities from the values obtained during the maximal

incrementing effort test. We defined moderate intensity as 70% of maximal heart rate

(corresponding to 60% of VO2max) and high intensity exercise as 80% of maximal heart rate

(corresponding to 75% of VO2max). In the moderate intensity condition, participants exercised

for 30 min at a work rate that was adjusted every three minutes to maintain heart rate around

the individual target values corresponding to 70% of maximal heart rate. For the high intensity

exercising condition, participants first warmed up for 3 minutes at a work rate corresponding to

60% of their maximal heart rate and then exercised for 15 min at a work rate that was adjusted

to maintain HR at the individual target values corresponding to 80% of maximal heart rate. All

predetermined and actual work rates are listed in Table 2.

For each participant, the work rates corresponding to 60% and 75% of VO2max and those

corresponding to 70% and 80% of maximal heart rate were estimated, respectively on the

individual VO2 / work rate and heart rate / work rate relationships, both obtained during the

maximal incremental effort test for each participant. However, some discrepancy can occur

between work rate at 60% VO2max and 70% maximal heart rate on one hand, and between

work rate at 75% VO2max and 80% of maximal heart rate on the other hand. Consequently, we

set the initial work rates, from exercise onset to the 3rd minute of constant exercise, based on

the values estimated from the VO2 / work rate ratio. Then, after 3 minutes of exercise, and

throughout the constant test, we adjusted the work rate to maintain the heart rate of the

participant at the individually target values, respectively 70% and 80% of maximal heart rate, for

moderate and intense exercise. We set up this regular adjustment to take into account the

absence of steady-state of the VO2max protocol – which is inherent of incremental protocols –

but from which submaximal work rates were estimated based on VO2 / work rate and heart rate

/ work rate relationships. We corrected for small heart rate drifts occurring during prolonged

constant intensity exercises. But please note that, as reported in Table 2, the average work

rates reported during both moderate and intense exercises remained very close to the initial

predetermined work rate.

Functional MRI data acquisition and analysis

A 3 Tesla MRI scanner (SIEMENS Trio System, Siemens, Erlangen, Germany) with a 32-

channel head coil was used to acquire MRI data. We acquired T2*-weighted fMRI 2D images

with a multiband echo-planar sequence, which acquires 3 slices at a time using axial slice

orientation (66 slices; voxel size, 2 x 2 x 2 mm; repetition time (TR) = 1880 ms; echo time (TE) =

34 ms; flip angle (FA) = 60°). The last sequence of Visit 1 was a T1-weighted 3D sequence (192

contiguous sagittal slices; voxel size, 1.0 x 1.0 x 1.0 mm; TR = 1900 ms; TE = 2.27 ms; FA =

9°), which provided a whole-brain structural image.

We used SPM12 (Wellcome Department of Imaging Neuroscience, London, UK) for the

analysis of the functional images. Preprocessing followed standard procedures: realignment,

slice timing to correct for differences in slice acquisition time, normalization (to an MNI

template), and smoothing (with an isotropic 8-mm FWHM Gaussian kernel). Corrections to

regress out potential artifacts coming from heart rate and breathing were performed using

Retroicor [54] and RVHcorr [55, 56].

We included reaction time (RT) as a parametric modulator of each trial. Specifically, we used

the reaction time for each trial multiplied by -1 (or -RT), which allowed us to test for local

increases in MRI signal linked to better performance (i.e. faster reaction times). Because

moderate and high intensity exercise conditions did not differ in terms of their influence on

performance or AEA levels, we considered both exercise conditions together and compared

them to the rest condition. Thus, to reveal any effect of exercise on the parametric modulator

modeling performance, we performed a contrast between exercise and rest (i.e. moderate and

high exercise minus 2*rest), including all sequence blocks from the second session of every

visit, and found activations in the right hippocampus and right caudate. Because we had strong

a priori concerning the implication of the hippocampus and striatum in this task (see introduction

section), we created corresponding regions of interest with the AAL atlas in the WFU PickAtlas

toolbox version 2.4 [57], which we then used to perform small volume correction on the activation

map.

As a quality check procedure, we tested whether sequence and random blocks elicited

similar patterns of activity, as would be expected from the engagement of motor processes in

both types of blocks. We thus ran a flexible factorial design on the contrast images

corresponding to the main effects of each Block Type, using Subjects and Block Type

(sequence, random) as factors. We then performed a conjunction analysis and obtained the

common activations shown in Table 1 including right motor cortex and left cerebellum.

Blood samples

Before and after each exercising condition, 2.5 mL of blood were collected into a BD

Vacutainer K_2EDTA 5.4 mg tube. This tube was immediately centrifuged for 10 minutes at

8009g at 4°C, the supernatant (plasma) was taken in aliquots of 200 µL. All samples were then

frozen and stored at -80°C until analysis.

The endocannabinoid AEA levels were determined from 100 µl of plasma by liquid-liquid

extraction. This was followed by liquid chromatography (Ultimate 3000RS, Dionex, CA, USA)

and mass spectrometry using a 5500 QTrap triple quadrupole/linear ion trap (QqQLIT) mass

spectrometer equipped with a TurboIon-Spray interface (AB Sciex, Concord, ON, Canada) as

described previously [58, 59] .

REFERENCES

1. Marinelli L, Quartarone A, Hallett M, Frazzitta G, Ghilardi MF. The many facets of motor learning and their relevance for Parkinson's disease. *Clin Neurophysiol* **128**, 1127-1141 (2017).

2. Albouy G*, et al.* Both the hippocampus and striatum are involved in consolidation of motor sequence memory. *Neuron* **58**, 261-272 (2008).

3. Addante RJ. A critical role of the human hippocampus in an electrophysiological measure of implicit memory. *NeuroImage* **109**, 515-528 (2015).

4. Pereira AC*, et al.* An in vivo correlate of exercise-induced neurogenesis in the adult dentate gyrus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **104**, 5638-5643 (2007).

5. Uysal N*, et al.* The effects of regular aerobic exercise in adolescent period on hippocampal neuron density, apoptosis and spatial memory. *Neurosci Lett* **383**, 241-245 (2005).

6. Wu CW*, et al.* Treadmill exercise counteracts the suppressive effects of peripheral lipopolysaccharide on hippocampal neurogenesis and learning and memory. *J Neurochem* **103**, 2471-2481 (2007).

7. Erickson KI*, et al.* Exercise training increases size of hippocampus and improves memory. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **108**, 3017-3022 (2011).

8. Roig M, Nordbrandt S, Geertsen SS, Nielsen JB. The effects of cardiovascular exercise on human memory: a review with meta-analysis. *Neuroscience and biobehavioral reviews* **37**, 1645-1666 (2013).

9. Pontifex MB*, et al.* Poorer aerobic fitness relates to reduced integrity of multiple memory systems. *Cogn Affect Behav Neurosci* **14**, 1132-1141 (2014).

10. Yanagisawa H*, et al.* Acute moderate exercise elicits increased dorsolateral prefrontal activation and improves cognitive performance with Stroop test. *Neuroimage* **50**, 1702-1710 (2010).

11. Marin Bosch B, Bringard A, Ferretti G, Schwartz S, Igloi K. Effect of cerebral vasomotion during physical exercise on associative memory, a near-infrared spectroscopy study. *Neurophotonics* **4**, 041404 (2017).

12. van Dongen EV, Kersten IH, Wagner IC, Morris RG, Fernandez G. Physical Exercise Performed Four Hours after Learning Improves Memory Retention and Increases Hippocampal Pattern Similarity during Retrieval. *Current biology : CB* **26**, 1722-1727 (2016).

13. Dietrich A, McDaniel WF. Endocannabinoids and exercise. *Br J Sports Med* **38**, 536-541 (2004).

14. Sparling PB, Giuffrida A, Piomelli D, Rosskopf L, Dietrich A. Exercise activates the endocannabinoid system. *Neuroreport* **14**, 2209-2211 (2003).

15.	Hill MN*, et al.* Endogenous cannabinoid signaling is required for voluntary exercise-induced enhancement of progenitor cell proliferation in the hippocampus. *Hippocampus* **20**, 513-523 (2010).

16.	Tantimonaco M*, et al.* Physical activity and the endocannabinoid system: an overview. *Cellular and molecular life sciences : CMLS* **71**, 2681-2698 (2014).

17.	Carlson G, Wang Y, Alger BE. Endocannabinoids facilitate the induction of LTP in the hippocampus. *Nat Neurosci* **5**, 723-724 (2002).

18.	Blazquez C*, et al.* The CB(1) cannabinoid receptor signals striatal neuroprotection via a PI3K/Akt/mTORC1/BDNF pathway. *Cell Death Differ* **22**, 1618-1629 (2015).

19.	Rodriguez-Cueto C*, et al.* Altered striatal endocannabinoid signaling in a transgenic mouse model of spinocerebellar ataxia type-3. *PloS one* **12**, e0176521 (2017).

20.	Thomas R*, et al.* Acute Exercise and Motor Memory Consolidation: The Role of Exercise Intensity. *PloS one* **11**, e0159589 (2016).

21.	Schapiro AC, Reid AG, Morgan A, Manoach DS, Verfaellie M, Stickgold R. The hippocampus is necessary for the consolidation of a task that does not require the hippocampus for initial learning. *Hippocampus* **29**, 1091-1100 (2019).

22.	Ros T, Munneke MA, Parkinson LA, Gruzelier JH. Neurofeedback facilitation of implicit motor learning. *Biological psychology* **95**, 54-58 (2014).

23.	Mang CS, Snow NJ, Wadden KP, Campbell KL, Boyd LA. High-Intensity Aerobic Exercise Enhances Motor Memory Retrieval. *Medicine and science in sports and exercise* **48**, 2477-2486 (2016).

24.	Hardwick RM, Rottschy C, Miall RC, Eickhoff SB. A quantitative meta-analysis and review of motor learning in the human brain. *NeuroImage* **67**, 283-297 (2013).

25.	Mang CS, Snow NJ, Campbell KL, Ross CJ, Boyd LA. A single bout of high-intensity aerobic exercise facilitates response to paired associative stimulation and promotes sequence-specific implicit motor learning. *Journal of applied physiology* **117**, 1325-1336 (2014).

26.	Singh AM, Neva JL, Staines WR. Aerobic exercise enhances neural correlates of motor skill learning. *Behavioural brain research* **301**, 19-26 (2016).

27.	Ostadan F, Centeno C, Daloze JF, Frenn M, Lundbye-Jensen J, Roig M. Changes in corticospinal excitability during consolidation predict acute exercise-induced off-line gains in procedural memory. *Neurobiology of learning and memory* **136**, 196-203 (2016).

28.	Rhee J, Chen J, Riechman SM, Handa A, Bhatia S, Wright DL. An acute bout of aerobic exercise can protect immediate offline motor sequence gains. *Psychol Res*, (2015).

29. Jo JS, Chen J, Riechman S, Roig M, Wright DL. The protective effects of acute cardiovascular exercise on the interference of procedural memory. *Psychological research* **83**, 1543-1555 (2019).

30. Wenderoth N, Debaere F, Sunaert S, Swinnen SP. The role of anterior cingulate cortex and precuneus in the coordination of motor behaviour. *Eur J Neurosci* **22**, 235-246 (2005).

31. Hanakawa T, Immisch I, Toma K, Dimyan MA, Van Gelderen P, Hallett M. Functional properties of brain areas associated with motor execution and imagery. *J Neurophysiol* **89**, 989-1002 (2003).

32. Schendan HE, Searl MM, Melrose RJ, Stern CE. An FMRI study of the role of the medial temporal lobe in implicit and explicit sequence learning. *Neuron* **37**, 1013-1025 (2003).

33. Poldrack RA*, et al.* The neural correlates of motor skill automaticity. *The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience* **25**, 5356-5364 (2005).

34. Duchesne C*, et al.* Influence of aerobic exercise training on the neural correlates of motor learning in Parkinson's disease individuals. *Neuroimage Clin* **12**, 559-569 (2016).

35. Lohse KR, Wadden K, Boyd LA, Hodges NJ. Motor skill acquisition across short and long time scales: a meta-analysis of neuroimaging data. *Neuropsychologia* **59**, 130-141 (2014).

36. Murillo-Rodriguez E, Desarnaud F, Prospero-Garcia O. Diurnal variation of arachidonoylethanolamine, palmitoylethanolamide and oleoylethanolamide in the brain of the rat. *Life Sci* **79**, 30-37 (2006).

37. Valenti M*, et al.* Differential diurnal variations of anandamide and 2-arachidonoyl-glycerol levels in rat brain. *Cell Mol Life Sci* **61**, 945-950 (2004).

38. Cassilhas RC, Tufik S, de Mello MT. Physical exercise, neuroplasticity, spatial learning and memory. *Cell Mol Life Sci* **73**, 975-983 (2016).

39. Thompson JA, Perkel DJ. Endocannabinoids mediate synaptic plasticity at glutamatergic synapses on spiny neurons within a basal ganglia nucleus necessary for song learning. *J Neurophysiol* **105**, 1159-1169 (2011).

40. Scherma M, Masia P, Satta V, Fratta W, Fadda P, Tanda G. Brain activity of anandamide: a rewarding bliss? *Acta Pharmacologica Sinica* **40**, 309-323 (2019).

41. Carvalho TG, Doria JG, Ribeiro FM. mGluR5, CB1 and neuroprotection. *Oncotarget* **8**, 3768-3769 (2017).

42. Steer RA, Ball R, Ranieri WF, Beck AT. Further evidence for the construct validity of the Beck Depression Inventory-II with psychiatric outpatients. *Psychological Reports* **80**, 443-446 (1997).

43. Spielberger CD GR, Lushene R, Vagg PR, Jacobs GA. *Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Form Y).* (1983).

44. Horne JA, Ostberg O. A self-assessment questionnaire to determine morningness-eveningness in human circadian rhythms. *International journal of chronobiology* **4**, 97-110 (1976).

45. Bellemare C, Bissonnette L, Krrger S. Statistical Power of within and Between-Subjects Designs in Economic Experiments. *SSRN Electronic Journal*, (2014).

46. Thompson VA, Campbell JID. A power struggle: Between- vs. within-subjects designs in deductive reasoning research. *Psychologia* **47**, 277-296 (2004).

47. Salmon P. Effects of physical exercise on anxiety, depression, and sensitivity to stress: a unifying theory. *Clinical psychology review* **21**, 33-61 (2001).

48. Schwabe L, Wolf OT. Timing matters: temporal dynamics of stress effects on memory retrieval. *Cognitive, affective & behavioral neuroscience* **14**, 1041-1048 (2014).

49. Vogel S, Schwabe L. Learning and memory under stress: implications for the classroom. *NPJ science of learning* **1**, 16011 (2016).

50. Meehan SK, Dao E, Linsdell MA, Boyd LA. Continuous theta burst stimulation over the contralesional sensory and motor cortex enhances motor learning post-stroke. *Neurosci Lett* **500**, 26-30 (2011).

51. American Thoracic S, American College of Chest P. ATS/ACCP Statement on cardiopulmonary exercise testing. *American journal of respiratory and critical care medicine* **167**, 211-277 (2003).

52. Goldberg L, Elliot DL, Kuehl KS. Assessment of exercise intensity formulas by use of ventilatory threshold. *Chest* **94**, 95-98 (1988).

53. Neder JA, Stein R. A simplified strategy for the estimation of the exercise ventilatory thresholds. *Medicine and science in sports and exercise* **38**, 1007-1013 (2006).

54. Glover GH, Li T-Q, Ress D. Image-based method por retrospective correction of physiological motion effects in fMRI: RETROICOR. *Magnetic Resonance in Medicine* **44**, 162-167 (2000).

55. Birn RM, Diamond JB, Smith MA, Bandettini PA. Separating respiratory-variation-related fluctuations from neuronal-activity-related fluctuations in fMRI. *Neuroimage* **31**, 1536-1548 (2006).

56. Birn RM, Smith MA, Jones TB, Bandettini PA. The respiration response function: the temporal dynamics of fMRI signal fluctuations related to changes in respiration. *Neuroimage* **40**, 644-654 (2008).

57. Maldjian JA, Laurienti PJ, Kraft RA, Burdette JH. An automated method for neuroanatomic and cytoarchitectonic atlas-based interrogation of fMRI data sets. *NeuroImage* **19**, 1233-1239 (2003).

58.   Quercioli A*, et al.* Improvement in coronary circulatory function in morbidly obese individuals after gastric bypass-induced weight loss: relation to alterations in endocannabinoids and adipocytokines. *European heart journal* **34**, 2063-2073 (2013).

59.   Thomas A, Hopfgartner G, Giroud C, Staub C. Quantitative and qualitative profiling of endocannabinoids in human plasma using a triple quadrupole linear ion trap mass spectrometer with liquid chromatography. *Rapid Commun Mass Spectrom* **23**, 629-638 (2009).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to the Brain and Behavior Laboratory of the University of Geneva (Geneva, Switzerland) for providing help and scanning facilities. We are particularly grateful to Dr. Tomas Ros for providing the scripts to successfully run and analyze the task.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

B.M.B., A.B., G.F., S.S., and K.I. designed research; B.M.B., A.B., M.G.L., N.I., and K.I performed research; B.M.B., A.B., M.G.L., E.L., A.T., S.S., and K.I. analyzed data; and all the authors wrote the paper.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

The authors declare no competing interests. This work was supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (No 320030_135653 to S. Schwartz, 32003B_127620 and 3200B0-114033 to G. Ferretti), the National Center of Competence in Research (NCCR) Affective Sciences financed by the Swiss National Science Foundation (No 51NF40-104897 to S. Schwartz). No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the authors

FIGURES

Figure 1

a) Experimental protocol. Participants came to the lab four times, first to do a VO2max session
and a demo of the SRTT task, then for 3 experimental visits. Each experimental visit consisted
of two fMRI sessions (Session1 and Session 2) separated by a Rest, a Moderate exercise or a
High exercise session. Right before and right after the Exercise or Rest session blood samples
are taken. Experimental visits took part in the morning between 9AM and 12:30PM.

b) Breakdown of the fMRI sessions, both Session 1 and Session 2 are composed of 4 blocks,
i.e. 3 sequence blocks and 1 random block (in position 2) showing 4 blocks for each session. A
Block is composed of 120 trials for which participants have to press the button corresponding to
the stimuli on the screen. Sequence blocks are composed of 10 repetitions of a 12 element-long
sequence of key presses whereas random blocks do not contain any repeated sequence but
are matched in keypress frequency and intertrial finger distance to sequence blocks. c) Visual
stimulus with corresponding action by participants using the left hand.

Figure 2

Behavioral results. Performance was defined as mean accuracy (in %) over reaction time (in
ms) for both Session 1 and Session 2 of each Exercising condition. Δefficiency is the difference
in performance (Δ) from session 1 to session 2. There is a main effect of Exercising condition
and of Block type. Post-hoc analyses reveal differences between random and sequence blocks
after both moderate and high intensity exercise conditions but not after rest condition. Error bars
represent SEM.

Figure 3

Increased activity in right hippocampus and right caudate for EXERCISE > REST pmod –RT
during Session 2. Left: fMRI activations in **a)** right hippocampus (peak at [30; -6; -24]) and **b)**
right caudate nucleus (peak at [20; 24; 2]) during Session 2 of the SRTT task after moderate
and high intensity Exercising Conditions versus the rest Exercising Condition, with reaction
times as trialwise parametric modulator. Right: betas for the fMRI activations. All reported
activations survive SVC correction for a small volume defined from the AAL atlas in the WFU
PickAtlas toolbox (Wake Forest University School of Medicine) for SPM12. For display
purposes, activations are thresholded at p<0.005. Error bars represent SEM.

Figure 4

a) Increased Anandamide level (AEA) after moderate and high physical exercise compared to
after rest. For all Exercising Conditions Δ AEA corresponds to the difference in AEA between
the second blood sample taken after exercise or rest and the first blood sample taken before
exercise or rest. Error bars represent SEM.

b) Left panel: Correlation between the increase in performance from Session 1 to Session 2 (Δ
performance) for the moderate intensity exercising condition and the increase in Anandamide
levels from rest to moderate Exercising conditions (MOD-REST ΔAEA) for the sequence and
the random Blocks. Correlation is significant in sequence Blocks but not in the random Blocks.
Right panel: Correlation between the increase in performance from Session 1 to Session 2 (Δ
performance) for the high intensity exercising condition and the increase in Anandamide levels
from rest to high Exercising conditions (HIGH-REST ΔAEA) for the sequence and the random
Blocks. Correlation is significant in the sequence Blocks but not in the random Blocks.

1   **Table 1** Activated brain regions at Session 2.

Cluster size	Cluster p (unc)	Peak T	Peak Z	Peak p (unc)	x	y	z		Brain Region
	Main effect during sequence blocks									
465	2.4E-05	9.087	5.122	1.5E-07	-26	-54	-22		Left cerebellum exterior
507	1.3E-05	8.851	5.062	2.1E-07	-22	-56	-50		Left cerebellum exterior
1805	4E-12	8.122	4.864	5.7E-07	36	-26	46		Right precentral gyrus
422	4.7E-05	6.402	4.308	8.3E-06	-10	0	54		Left precentral gyrus
182	0.003	5.426	3.918	4.5E-05	38	-64	-4		Right inf. occipital gyrus
70	0.049	5.080	3.763	8.4E-05	16	2	50		Right suppl. motor cortex
83	0.034	5.033	3.741	9.2E-05	-34	16	12		Left frontal operculum
			Main effect during random blocks								
1058	6.3E-10	8.297	4.914	4.5E-07	42	-10	64		Right precentral gyrus
129	0.005	7.526	4.687	1.4E-06	-32	22	6		Left anterior insula
356	3.6E-05	6.754	4.434	4.6E-06	-20	-54	-46		Left cerebellum exterior
33	0.123	6.321	4.278	9.4E-06	34	-42	-48		Right cerebellum exterior
102	0.012	6.135	4.207	1.3E-05	34	22	8		Right frontal operculum
14	0.306	5.295	3.860	5.7E-05	22	-64	60		Right sup. parietal lobule
11	0.365	4.875	3.667	1.2E-04	-54	-20	30		Left postcentral gyrus
35	0.113	4.721	3.592	1.6E-04	50	6	26		Right precentral gyrus
31	0.133	4.708	3.586	1.7E-04	-20	-8	52		Left precentral gyrus
84	0.020	4.559	3.512	2.2E-04	30	-40	42		Right sup. parietal lobule
			Conjunction analysis								
354	4E-04	6.540	5.053	2.2E-07	-20	-54	-50		Left cerebellum
1065	6.8E-08	6.077	4.813	7.5E-07	38	-14	64		Right precentral gyrus
97	0.035	5.304	4.376	6.1E-06	-32	18	10		Bilateral frontal operculum
90	0.042	5.303	4.375	6.1E-06	34	20	10		
24	0.268	4.454	3.840	6.2E-05	32	-42	-50		Bilateral cerebellum exterior
118	0.022	4.439	3.830	6.4E-05	-24	-52	-22		
34	0.191	4.012	3.536	2E-04	-8	2	52		Left supplementary motor cortex
		Only sequence blocks: Exercise>rest									
1263	1.5E-12	8.629	5.004	2.8E-07	-18	-68	24		Left precuneus
159	0.001	5.228	3.831	6.4E-05	-10	-80	10		Left calcarine cortex
7	0.427	5.077	3.762	8.4E-05	22	-46	-52		Right cerebellum exterior
90	0.009	5.003	3.728	9.7E-05	20	-60	22		Right precuneus
	Only random blocks: Exercise>rest parametric modulator : inverse reaction time (-RT)										
10	0.280	5.39	3.90	4.7E-05	-42	-86	-4		Left inferior occipital gyrus

	Only sequence blocks: Exercise>rest parametric modulator : inverse reaction time (-RT)										
Cluster size	Cluster p(unc)	Peak T	Peak Z	Peak p (unc)	SVC p-val	x	y	z	Brain Region
88	0.006	6.822	4.457	4.15E-06	0.002	30	-6	-24	**Right hippocampus**
27	0.099	5.219	3.826	6.5E-05	0.02	22	24	6	**Right caudate nucleus**

Table 2

Subject	Antropometric data			Maximal data				Secondary criteria						Secondary ventilatory threshold VT2 (W)	High intensity exercise		Moderate intensity exercise	
	age	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)	VO2max (L/min)	VO2max (ml/kg/min)	Power (W)	Maximal heart rate (bpm)	VO2 plateau	Respiratory Exchange Ratio	220-age	210-(0.65 x age)	202-(0.72 x age)	207-(0.68 x age)		Estimated P_75% VO2max (W)	Actual high intensity	Estimated P_60% VO2max (W)	Actual moderate intensity
1	22.7	182.5	76.5	4.8	62.7	400	184	YES	1.12	197	195	187	192	375	250	250	200	180
2	20.9	176	79.5	3.7	46.5	250	201	YES	1.05	199	196	188	193	225	175	175	125	110
3	33.2	176	62	2.5	40.3	225	183	NO	1.11	187	188	179	184	200	150	139	125	108
4	22.5	180.5	68.2	4.1	60.1	375	181	YES	1.01	198	195	187	192	325	225	225	160	173
5	20.7	188	87.2	3.5	40.1	300	196	YES	1.10	199	197	188	193	275	175	154	140	140
6	21.9	183.5	75.5	3	39.7	325	198	YES	1.09	198	196	187	192	250	200	204.5	150	157
7	21.6	180.5	78.5	3.8	48.4	325	191	YES	1.10	198	196	187	192	300	225	225	175	189
8	34.6	175.5	73.5	3.9	53.1	350	182	YES	1.11	185	187	178	183	300	210	221	160	178.3
9	24.9	187.5	84.5	4.2	49.7	350	185	YES	0.99	195	194	185	190	275	225	228	175	175
10	23.1	179.5	70	3	42.1	275	195	YES	1.18	197	195	186	191	275	155	162	130	130
11	23.1	177	69.5	4	57.6	325	186	YES	1.04	197	195	186	191	275	225	225	175	175
12	23.1	179.5	68	3.4	50.0	325	185	YES	1.13	197	195	186	191	300	200	214	150	157
13	22.9	178.5	67.2	3.3	49.1	300	199	YES	1.14	197	195	186	191	275	175	164	140	140
14	21.1	177.5	75.5	4.1	53.6	330	202	YES	1.02	199	196	188	193	250	200	188	150	137.3
15	20.4	176.5	67	3.2	47.0	315	190	YES	1.06	200	197	188	193	250	200	170	140	134
MEAN	23.8	179.9	73.5	3.6	49.3	318.0	190.5		1.08	196.2	194.5	185.8	190.8	276.7	199.3	196.3	153.0	152.2
SD	4.3	4.0	7.0	0.6	7.2	44.8	7.4		0.05	4.3	2.8	2.9	2.9	41.7	28.7	33.7	21.4	25.9

Individual physical exercise parameters.