

# Effects of aquatic exercise on mental health, functional autonomy and oxidative stress in depressed elderly individuals: A randomized clinical trial

Luciano Acordi da Silva <sup>I,II,III,\*</sup>, Luana Tortelli,<sup>I</sup> Janaina Motta,<sup>I</sup> Lorhan Menguer <sup>I</sup>, Sindianra Mariano,<sup>I</sup> Gladson Tasca,<sup>IV</sup> Gustavo de Bem Silveira <sup>IV</sup>, Ricardo Aurino Pinho <sup>V</sup>, Paulo Cesar Lock Silveira <sup>IV</sup>

<sup>I</sup>Laboratorio de Fisiologia e Bioquímica do Exercício, Grupo de Pesquisa de Exercícios Aquáticos Avançados, Universidade do Extremo Sul Catarinense, Criciúma, SC, BR. <sup>II</sup>Escola Superior de Criciúma (ESUCRI), Criciúma, SC, BR. <sup>III</sup>Centro Universitário Barriga Verde (UNIBAVE), Orleans, SC, BR. <sup>IV</sup>Laboratorio de Fisiopatologia Experimental, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências da Saúde, Universidade do Extremo Sul Catarinense, Criciúma, SC, BR. <sup>V</sup>Laboratorio de Bioquímica do Exercício em Saúde, Faculdade de Medicina, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências da Saúde, Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Paraná (PUCPR), Curitiba, PR, BR.

Silva LA, Tortelli L, Motta J, Menguer L, Mariano S, Tasca G, et al. Effects of aquatic exercise on mental health, functional autonomy and oxidative stress in depressed elderly individuals: A randomized clinical trial. *Clinics*. 2019;74:e322

\*Corresponding author. E-mail: luciano\_acordi@yahoo.com.br

**OBJECTIVES:** The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of aquatic exercise on mental health, functional autonomy and oxidative stress parameters in depressed elderly individuals.

**METHODS:** Initially, ninety-two elderly individuals were included in the study and were allocated into the depression group (n=16) and nondepression group (n=14). Both groups engaged in the aquatic exercise program for 12 weeks, including two weekly sessions (45 min/session) at a low intensity (between 50% and 60% of maximal heart rate or Borg scale scores of 13 to 14) throughout the intervention. All outcomes were evaluated at baseline and 12 weeks later.

**RESULTS:** The patients were  $63.5 \pm 8.8$  years old. The following scores were decreased after training in the depressed group: depression (53%), anxiety (48%), and Timed Up & Go (33%). The following scores increased: Berg Balance Scale (9%) and flexibility (44%). Regarding the blood-based parameters, there were decreases in protein carbonylation (46%) and nitric oxide (60%) and increases in glutathione (170%) and superoxide dismutase (160%) in the depression group ( $p < 0.005$ ).

**CONCLUSIONS:** The aquatic exercise program reduces depression and anxiety, improves functional autonomy and decreases oxidative stress in depressed elderly individuals.

**KEYWORDS:** Depression; Anxiety; Oxidative Stress; Aquatic Exercise.

## INTRODUCTION

Decreased physical activity can contribute significantly to increased levels of depression (1). On the other hand, regular physical exercise positively alters the symptoms of depression thereby promoting mental health (2,3). In addition, physical exercise facilitates and stimulates social interaction with positive consequences on quality of life (1,3). Feasible and effective interventions that might provide benefits to both physical and mental health are needed for these disorders to optimize health outcomes in this vulnerable patient group (1,4).

Recently, research in this area has been focused on mental health markers, which reflect common pathophysiological

processes, related to the loss of functional autonomy and increased oxidative stress that are thought to be involved in depression (5,6,7). Psychosocial stressors, a sedentary lifestyle and low functional autonomy may alter cellular functioning and have been proposed as worthwhile intervention targets for the treatment or prevention of depression (3,4,7).

Although studies have shown significant improvement in the depressive symptoms of elderly individuals after the regular practice of physical exercises (2,8), the relations between mental health, functional autonomy and oxidative stress remain obscure. The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of aquatic exercise on mental health, functional autonomy and oxidative stress parameters in depressed elderly individuals.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Ethical details

This study was approved by the National Health Council, National Research Ethics Commission resolution CNS 466/12 for research involving humans and approved by the local

**Copyright** © 2019 CLINICS – This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>) which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium or format, provided the original work is properly cited.

No potential conflict of interest was reported.

**Received for publication on** August 13, 2017. **Accepted for publication on** April 8, 2019

**DOI:** 10.6061/clinics/2019/e322



Ethics Committee University Extreme Sul Catarinense (CAEE 47120815.3.0000.0119).

All participants provided written consent prior to participation.

**Study design**

This longitudinal clinical study, conducted for 12 weeks, subjected both the depression group and the nondepression group to the aquatic physical training program. Two days before and 48h after the program, parameters related to mental health, oxidative stress and physical fitness were analyzed.

**Group allocation**

Initially, 56 patients were screened with a medical diagnosis of major depression and confirmed by the medical clinic psychiatrist at the local University, and 36 nondepressed elderly individuals participated in the study. Of the 56 patients, 29 did not meet the inclusion criteria, and 7 declined to participate. Thus, 20 patients (9 men and 11 women) with depression, aged between 50 and 80 years old, were included in the study and formed the depression group. Of the 36 nondepressed individuals, 12 did not meet

the inclusion criteria, and 4 declined to participate. Thus, 20 (13 men and 7 women) elderly individuals without depression, aged between 50 and 80 years old, were included in the study and formed the nondepression group. Both groups were subjected to the same physical training program at the same place, time and days of the week. (Figure 1: allocation).

**Subjects**

Patients with a diagnosis of major depressive disorder (MDD), according to established criteria (e.g., DSM5), and healthy elderly individuals (according to WHO criteria) were recruited through advertising in local newspapers. The criteria for inclusion in the depression group included the following: had MDD, were not engaged in regular exercise (i.e., did not exercise more than 20 min on 3 or more days a week), were 50 years old or over, and had a recent medical release for exercise practice (in the 6 months preceding the study). The exclusion criteria were current drug abuse, psychotherapeutic treatment, contraindications to physical exercise, suicidal behavior according to the Hamilton depression rating scale (10), and metabolic or endocrine disorders. The participants were instructed to not change the medication prescribed by a psychiatrist (Table 1) throughout the study. The inclusion criteria for the healthy elderly group were as

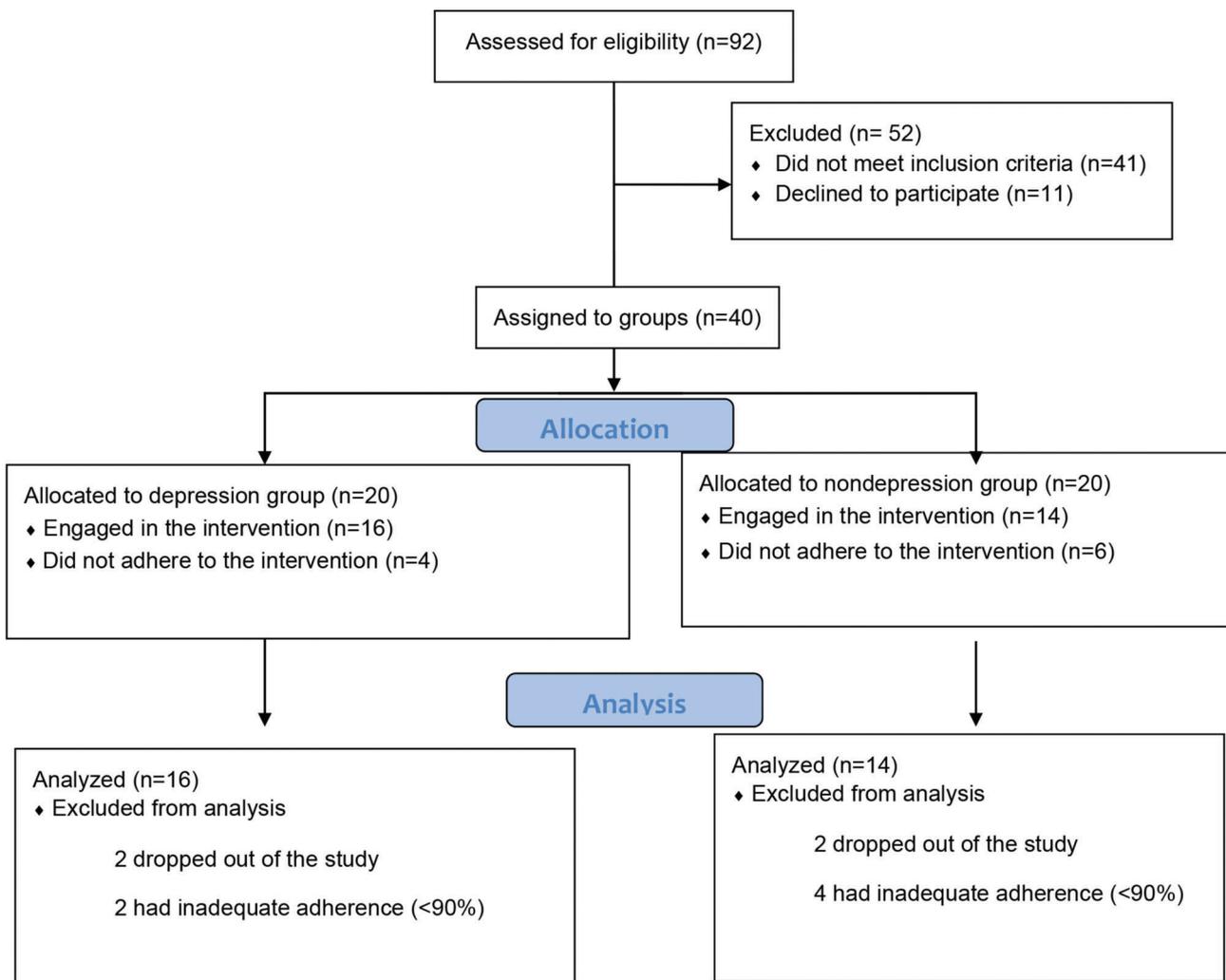


Figure 1 - Diagram of the sample selection process for this study.



follows: healthy elderly individuals who were without pathology or physical limitations for exercise practice, were 50 years old or over, and had a recent medical release for exercise practice (in the 6 months preceding the study). The exclusion criteria were individuals who presented with pathological problems (musculoskeletal, cardiometabolic or endocrine) that limited or were contraindicated for the practice of the programmed exercise. In addition, participants from either group who did not complete more than 90% of the stipulated physical activity program were excluded.

**Intervention**

Patients underwent a 12-week aquatic training program with two weekly sessions, lasting 45 min. In both groups, the intensity was similar. Heart rate (HR) was monitored every 10 sec (Polar, Kajaani, Finland), and the rate of perceived exertion (Borg scale) was measured in the final 20 sec of each stage. The aquatic training classes were always held in the afternoon in a pool with a depth of 1.20 m, measuring 25 m × 12.5 m, with water in the approximate temperature range of 26 to 28°C.

**Program exercise**

Each 45-min session was divided into a warm-up period (5 min) and the main training program (40 min), followed by a cool-down period (5 min). Both groups underwent interval-training programs with the following schedule: 9 exercises in each session; each exercise was performed as 4 sets of 30 sec with 10-sec intervals; two weekly sessions (Tuesdays/Thursdays). Exercise intensity was measured by a heart rate monitor and maintained in a low-intensity range (50% and

60% of maximum HR) or a Borg scale score of 13 to 14 points. The exercises involved the large muscle groups, with upper and lower limbs together. Both groups had identical training protocols (Table 2).

**Clinical tests**

These tests were conducted 48h before the first session and 48 h after the last training session in the patients for a clinical evaluation and included assessments of mental health, functional mobility, and oxidative stress. Before and after the intervention, an alimentary assessment was performed over 3 consecutive days.

**Mental health**

The Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (11) is a standardized self-administered questionnaire designed by the Center for Cognitive Therapy (CCT) researchers and is a widely used measure for the self-assessment of depression, both in research and in the clinical setting (12). The BDI is a participant-administered questionnaire with 21 items. The total score ranged from 0 to 63 points, and the items referred to sadness, pessimism, feeling of failure, lack of satisfaction and feeling guilty, among others. The Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) (13) presented 21 items related to anxious symptoms, and each was composed of four affirmations that increased in degree of intensity from 0 to 3. More than one affirmation could have been chosen; however, the computed score always used the affirmation of greater intensity.

**Functional mobility**

For the Timed Up & Go (TUG) test, individuals were seated in a chair (45 cm high) with their back against the chair. They were instructed to stand, walk 3 m following a straight line on the ground as fast and safely as possible, return to the chair, and sit in the starting position (14). The Berg balance scale (BBS) had a maximum score of 56, and each item had an ordinal scale of 5 alternatives ranging from 0 to 4 points. The test is simple, easy to administer, and safe for the evaluation of elderly patients. These tests require only a stopwatch and a ruler as equipment, and its execution takes approximately 15 min (15). The test used to assess the flexibility of the hamstring muscles was the Sit and Reach originally proposed by Wells and Dillon in 1952, following the Canadian standardization of physical fitness assessment tests (Canadian Standardized Test of Fitness; CSTF) (16).

**Oxidative stress parameters**

Protein oxidation was measured by the formation of carbonylated protein derivatives using 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine read spectrophotometrically at 370 nm (17). Total glutathione levels (GSH) were measured in a reaction

**Table 1 - Patients' characteristics.**

|                                | Depression  | No-Depression | p-value |
|--------------------------------|-------------|---------------|---------|
| Age                            | 59.2 ± 7.1  | 58.2 ± 8.5    | 0.082   |
| Duration of depression (years) | 7 (2-6)     | 0             |         |
| Body mass (kg)                 | 82.9 ± 16.1 | 77.1 ± 11.1   | 0.091   |
| BMI (kg <sup>2</sup> )         | 32.1 ± 7.1  | 34 ± 5        | 0.120   |
| Sex (M/W)                      | 9/7         | 13/7          | 1.000   |
| Medical treatment              |             |               |         |
| Donarlin                       | 3           | 0             |         |
| Alprozolan                     | 4           | 0             |         |
| Bupopriona                     | 2           | 0             |         |
| Fluoxetina                     | 8           | 0             |         |
| Revotril                       | 7           | 0             |         |
| Clonazepam                     | 1           | 0             |         |
| Sertralina                     | 2           | 0             |         |
| Venlafaxina                    | 2           | 0             |         |
| Citalopram                     | 10          | 0             |         |
| Brintellix                     | 1           | 0             |         |

Descriptive analysis of input data for the groups studied.

**Table 2 - Control of the intensity of the exercise sessions.**

|                      | Before      | 10 min    | 20 min    | 30 min      | 40 min    | After       |
|----------------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|-------------|-----------|-------------|
| Nondepression (HR)   | 73 ± 12     | 113 ± 10* | 137 ± 13* | 135 ± 15*   | 128 ± 8*  | 101 ± 10    |
| Depression           | 74 ± 9      | 125 ± 11* | 143 ± 8*  | 145 ± 6*    | 131 ± 11* | 111 ± 14    |
| Nondepression (Borg) | 0           | 11 ± 1*   | 12 ± 2*   | 14 ± 1*     | 13 ± 2*   | 0           |
| Depression           | 0           | 12 ± 2*   | 13 ± 1*   | 14 ± 1*     | 12 ± 2*   | 0           |
| Nondepression (mmHg) | 121/84 ± 10 |           |           | 134/83 ± 13 |           | 135/81 ± 9  |
| Depression           | 124/76 ± 12 |           |           | 138/73 ± 16 |           | 126/79 ± 11 |

Note: Values were obtained during the 1<sup>st</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> week of the exercise program. The significant differences (p < 0.05) are marked with (\*) and indicate a difference to the before values. Heart rate (HR); Borg scale of perceived exertion (Borg); Blood pressure (mmHg).



between DTNB and thiols that reached a maximum in 5 min. Absorbance was read at 412 nm after 10 min, and a standard curve of GSH was used to calculate the GSH levels in each sample (18). Superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity was estimated by adrenaline auto-oxidation inhibition, which was read at 480 nm in a spectrophotometer (19). Nitric oxide (NO) production was estimated spectrophotometrically based on nitrite generation. Samples were incubated with Griess reagent at room temperature for 10 min, and the absorbance was read at 540 nm using a microplate reader (20).

### Blood collection

Eight-milliliter samples of blood were obtained from the antecubital vein. Blood was collected in vacutainers without additives and centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. Aliquots of red blood cells and serum were stored at -70°C until used in the biochemical assays.

### Statistical analyses

All analyses were performed by blinded evaluation. The data are expressed as the means ± standard errors of the mean (SEM). The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was used to confirm normality. The  $\chi^2$  test for nonparametric analyses was also used and followed by the Bonferroni post hoc test. The a priori sample size was calculated based on a predicted difference of 0.5% in the levels of SOD=0.05 and power of 0.90, performed with IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software (Armonk, New York; version 18), that was based on the study of Silva et al. (21). This calculation indicated that 11 patients in each group would be sufficient to detect significant changes in oxidative stress. The level of significance established for the test was  $p < 0.05$ . SPSS version 21.0 was used as the statistical software.

## RESULTS

### Treatment groups

The study participants were divided into two groups: depression and nondepression. In the depression group, 56 patients were assessed for eligibility, 20 were allocated to the group, and 16 were included in the exercise program and analyses. The four individuals who were not included in this analysis were 2 who dropped out of the study and two who had inadequate adherence (<90%). In the nondepression group, of the 36 patients assessed for eligibility, 20 were randomized and 14 were included in the analyses and exercise program. The six individuals who were not included in this analysis included 2 who dropped out of the study and four who had inadequate adherence (<90%). To perform an intention-to-treat analysis, all participants were invited to undertake before and posttraining evaluations. The distribution of individuals can be observed in Figure 1.

### Baseline characterization of participants

Age, duration of depression, body mass, BMI, sex, and medical treatments are presented in Table 1. There were no significant differences between groups ( $p > 0.05$ ). The values are presented as the means ± SEM.

### Control of the intensity of the exercise sessions

As observed in Table 2, the results showed significant increases in HR and Borg scores in the nondepression and depression groups after 10 min (113 ± 10 HR; 125 ± 1 HR; 11 ± 1 points; 12 ± 2 points, respectively), 20 min (137 ± 13

HR; 143 ± 8 HR; 12 ± 2 points; 13 ± 1 points), 30 min (135 ± 15 HR; 145 ± 6 HR; 14 ± 1 points; 14 ± 1 points) and 40 min (128 ± 8 HR; 131 ± 1 HR; 13 ± 2 points; 12 ± 2 points) of the exercise sessions relative to before the exercise session (73 ± 12 HR; 74 ± 9 HR; 0 points; 0 points) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

### Depression scores

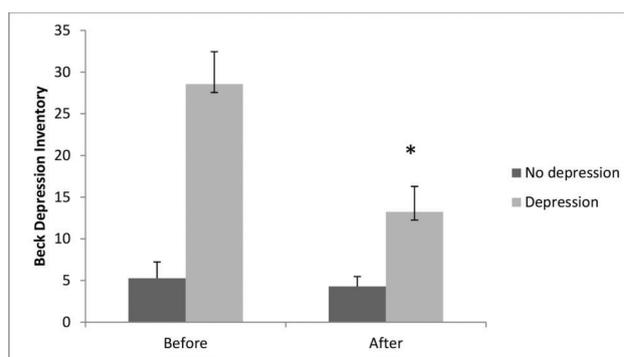
The results shown in Figure 2 reveal a significant decrease in scores for depression after the aquatic exercise program in the depression group (-13.2 ± 3 points) when compared to scores before the program (score of 28.5 ± 3.8) ( $p < 0.01$ ). The control group did not show significantly altered results on the depression scale after (4.2 ± 1.1) compared to before (5.2 ± 1.9) the program ( $p > 0.05$ ). Our results indicated that clinically, there was a 53% decrease in the scores for depression in the depressed elderly individuals.

### Anxiety scores

As shown in Figure 3, the results showed a significant decrease in scores for anxiety after the aquatic exercise program in the depression group (11.8 ± 5) when compared to before the program (22.9 ± 4) ( $p < 0.05$ ). The control group did not show significantly altered results for anxiety after the program (4.5 ± 3) compared to before the program (4.7 ± 1) ( $p > 0.05$ ). Our results indicated that clinically, there was a 48% decrease in the anxiety scores in the depressed elderly individuals.

### Timed Up & Go test (TUG)

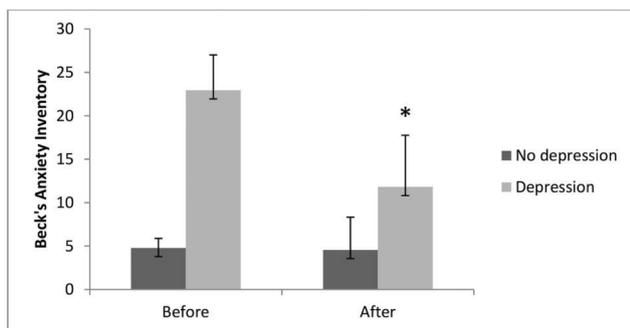
The results in Table 3 show a significant decrease in time for the Up & Go test after the aquatic exercise program in the depression group (7.68 ± 0.3 sec) compared to before the program (11.5 ± 0.7 sec) ( $p < 0.05$ ). The nondepression group did not have significantly altered results on the TUG test after (7.4 ± 0.3 sec) compared to before (7.1 ± 0.4 sec) the program ( $p > 0.05$ ). In the Berg test, the results showed a significant increase after the aquatic exercise program in the depression group (55.5 ± 0.2) compared to before the program (50.8 ± 1.3) ( $p < 0.05$ ). The nondepression group did not show altered results after (56 ± 0.1) compared to before (56 ± 0.3) the program. In addition, the results demonstrated a significant increase in the flexibility of the hamstring



**Figure 2** - Comparison between depression levels before and after the aquatic exercise program. Data are expressed as the means ± standard errors of the mean. The  $\chi^2$  test for nonparametric analyses was also used, followed by the Bonferroni post hoc test. The symbol (\*) indicates intragroup significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ).



muscles after the aquatic exercise program in the depression group ( $26 \pm 2$  cm) compared to before the program ( $18 \pm 1.8$  cm) ( $p < 0.05$ ). The nondepression group did not have altered flexibility after ( $27 \pm 1.6$  cm) compared to before ( $26 \pm 3.8$  cm) the program. Our results indicated that clinically, there was an increase of 33% in dynamic mobility, 9% in static mobility and 44% in levels of flexibility in the depressed elderly individuals.



**Figure 3** - Comparison between anxiety levels before and after the aquatic exercise program. Data are expressed as the means  $\pm$  standard errors of the mean. The  $\chi^2$  test for nonparametric analyses was also used, followed by the Bonferroni post hoc test. The symbol (\*) indicates intragroup significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ).

**Table 3** - Functional mobility.

|                  | Depression      | Percent | Nondepression | p-value |
|------------------|-----------------|---------|---------------|---------|
| TUG (sec)        |                 |         |               |         |
| Before           | 11.5 $\pm$ 0.7  |         | 7.4 $\pm$ 0.3 |         |
| After            | 7.68 $\pm$ 0.3* | 33%     | 7.1 $\pm$ .4  | 0.05    |
| BBS (scores)     |                 |         |               |         |
| Before           | 50.8 $\pm$ 1.3  |         | 56 $\pm$ 0.3  |         |
| After            | 55.5 $\pm$ 0.2* | 9%      | 56 $\pm$ 0.1  | 0.05    |
| Flexibility (cm) |                 |         |               |         |
| Before           | 18 $\pm$ 1.8    |         | 26 $\pm$ 3.8  |         |
| After            | 26 $\pm$ 2      | 44%     | 27 $\pm$ 1.6  | 0.03    |

Note: Values were obtained before and after the aquatic training program. The symbol (\*) indicates intragroup significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ). Timed Up & Go (TUG); Berg balance scale (BBS).

**Table 4** - Oxidative stress parameters.

|   | Depression       | Percent | Nondepression   | p-value |
|---|------------------|---------|-----------------|---------|
| Protein carbonylation (nmol/mg/protein) |                  |         |                 |         |
| Before                                  | 0.30 $\pm$ 0.07  |         | 0.14 $\pm$ 0.03 | > 0.05  |
| After                                   | 0.16 $\pm$ 0.04* | 46%     | 0.13 $\pm$ 0.02 | < 0.01  |
| Nitric oxide (umol/mg/protein)          |                  |         |                 |         |
| Before                                  | 28.2 $\pm$ 2     |         | 5.56 $\pm$ 2.8* | < 0.05  |
| After                                   | 11.7 $\pm$ 3.5*  | 60%     | 12.8 $\pm$ 2.5* | < 0.001 |
| Glutathione (umol/mg/protein)           |                  |         |                 |         |
| Before                                  | 1.54 $\pm$ 0.07  |         | 2.97 $\pm$ 0.08 | > 0.05  |
| After                                   | 4.17 $\pm$ 0.8*  | 170%    | 2.88 $\pm$ 0.03 | < 0.01  |
| Superoxide dismutase (U/mg/protein)     |                  |         |                 |         |
| Before                                  | 0.5 $\pm$ 0.01   |         | 1.3 $\pm$ 0.2   | > 0.05  |
| After                                   | 1.3 $\pm$ 0.3*   | 160%    | 1.44 $\pm$ 0.3  | < 0.05  |

Legends: The symbol (\*) indicates intragroup significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ).

### Oxidative stress parameters

As observed in Table 4, the results showed a significant decrease in oxidative damage indicated by protein carbonylation after the aquatic exercise program in the depression group ( $0.16 \pm 0.04$  nmol/mg protein) compared to before the program ( $0.3 \pm 0.07$  nmol/mg protein) ( $p < 0.01$ ). The nondepression group did not show significantly altered oxidative damage after ( $0.13 \pm 0.02$  nmol/mg protein) compared to before ( $0.14 \pm 0.03$  nmol/mg protein) the program ( $p > 0.05$ ). Regarding nitric oxide, the results showed a significant decrease in its production after the aquatic exercise program in the depression group ( $11.7 \pm 3.5$  nmol/mg protein) compared to before the program ( $28.2 \pm 2.5$  nmol/mg protein) ( $p < 0.001$ ). The nondepression group had significantly increased levels of this marker after ( $12.8 \pm 2.5$  nmol/mg protein) compared to before ( $5.56 \pm 2.8$  nmol/mg protein) the program ( $p < 0.05$ ). Regarding superoxide dismutase, the results showed significantly increased SOD after the aquatic exercise program in the depression group ( $1.3 \pm 0.3$  nmol/mg protein) compared to before the program ( $0.5 \pm 0.01$  nmol/mg protein) ( $p < 0.05$ ). The nondepression group did not show altered SOD after ( $1.44 \pm 0.3$  nmol/mg protein) compared to before ( $1.3 \pm 0.2$  nmol/mg protein) the program ( $p > 0.05$ ). In addition, glutathione significantly increased after the aquatic exercise program in the depression group ( $4.17 \pm 0.8$  nmol/mg protein) compared to before the program ( $1.54 \pm 0.07$  nmol/mg protein) ( $p < 0.01$ ). The nondepression group did not show altered GSH results after ( $2.88 \pm 0.03$  nmol/mg protein) compared to before ( $2.97 \pm 0.08$  nmol/mg protein) the program ( $p > 0.05$ ). Our results in the depressed group indicated that clinically, there was a reduction of 46% in protein carbonylation and 60% in nitric oxide, and there was an increase of 170% in GSH and 160% in SOD.

### Dietetic parameters

Food intake, macronutrient distribution (carbohydrates, lipids and proteins) and daily calorie intake were not altered by the 12-week training period (data not shown).

## DISCUSSION

The present study demonstrates that a low-intensity aerobic training program in the aquatic environment can contribute to the treatment of depression by reducing anxiety and depression scores, improving functional autonomy and decreasing oxidative stress.



The reduction in the depression scores found in the present study demonstrated the efficacy of aquatic training on depression in elderly individuals and corroborates previous meta-analyses (7). Dunn et al. (22) randomized adults diagnosed with depression to 12 weeks of one of five aerobic exercise-training treatment conditions and demonstrated that three to five times per week presented similar results regarding the decrease in depression scores. Our results showed that the frequency of two times a week was sufficient to reduce depression. We believe that the intermittent characteristic of the exercise, unlike the traditional “continuous aerobic” method reported by previous studies (23,24), is the crucial factor in explaining these results. Several theories have been advanced to explain the antidepressant effects of exercise, including hormonal changes (e.g., increased beta-endorphins, serotonergic adaptations and hormone levels) (1,23) and oxidative stress (oxidative damage and antioxidant defense system) (25), as well as changes in cortical activity and structure (26).

In the current study, anxiety levels were reduced among the depression group; these findings were consistent with previous studies (12,27). Regular physical exercise decreased symptoms of anxiety (27). The related release of  $\beta$ -endorphin and dopamine induced by exercise provides a tranquilizing effect in regular practitioners (5,28). Our study demonstrated that low-intensity (Table 2) exercise was sufficient to reduce anxiety. Clinical trials have indicated that physical exercise can have antidepressant and anxiolytic effects (3). Studies involving low-intensity aquatic exercises have presented significant results for the reduction in anxiety, corroborating the present findings (28,27). Several studies have shown that during physical exercise, there is release of  $\beta$ -endorphin and the neurotransmitter dopamine, providing a tranquilizing and analgesic effect, thereby reducing the symptoms of anxiety (28,29).

The anatomical and physiological changes observed in the elderly population have been associated with increased disability, frailty and falls (8,30). Regarding functional autonomy, we evaluated parameters of dynamic balance (TUG), static equilibrium (Berg) and flexibility levels (Table 3). Our results point to improvements in depressed elderly people after the aquatic exercise program. Aidar et al. (8) observed similar results in which functional autonomy can be improved by 12-week aquatic physical activities. Ochoa Martinez et al. (30) demonstrated that an aquatic exercise program for 12 weeks improved the functional autonomy of older women. It is possible that the muscular resistance caused by the water 10 times higher than that of the air during the exercises required more work of the motor cortex in the elderly individuals. This improved the synchronization of the motor units and increased the excitability of the motor neurons, which reflected an increase in muscular strength and consequently the functional autonomy of the elderly individuals (31).

Depression may be accompanied by increased oxidative stress and a decreased antioxidant system (2,7). Previous studies (1,27,31) showed that oxidative damage levels were increased in persons with depression and/or depressive symptoms. Our results showed reduced oxidative damage mediated by protein carbonylation after training in the depression group (Table 4). Ji (32) suggested that the decrease in ROS production induced by physical training could increase the level of antioxidant repair of the carbonylation process. The results of this study are in accordance with the

results reported by Nojima et al. (33). Both studies reinforced the idea that aerobic exercise can promote beneficial effects on oxidative damage reduction in patients with depression (2,7).

A recent study suggested the involvement of NO mechanisms in the pathogenesis of depression (34). Aggarwal et al. (34) showed that reducing NO can help improve neurobehavior related to depression-like effects in mice. Our results demonstrated decreased levels of NO after physical training in the depression group (Table 4). In humans, the regular practice of aerobic exercises increased endothelial-derived relaxation stimulated by acetylcholine by augmenting the release of NO (35).

There is also evidence to suggest that antioxidant enzymes are decreased in people with depressive symptoms (36,37). Previous studies have suggested that abnormal metabolism of SOD/GSH is closely related to various pathologies (36,37). Our results demonstrated that SOD/GSH levels were lower in the depression group and that physical training increased their activity. Several studies have reported that physical training increased SOD activity and GSH levels (32,33,38). For example, Pinho et al. (38) demonstrated in experimental models that physical training increases SOD activity in the heart. Brocardo et al. (3) showed that physical exercise increased glutathione levels in men and women. Somani et al. (39) showed that the exercise-induced increases in SOD activity and GSH content were higher than the increases in the mRNA levels of the respective antioxidants. The decrease in oxidative damage observed in the current study can be explained by the increase in antioxidants (SOD/GSH) in the depressed group.

On the other hand, there is some evidence to suggest that antidepressants have antioxidant properties and may act by reducing ROS production and improving antioxidant levels, thereby reducing oxidative stress (40,41). In our study, depressed individuals took medications throughout the exercise intervention. This is a limitation that occurs frequently for ethical reasons in studies involving humans. We believe that the use of the drugs associated with the exercise helped the treatment by improving the results of this study. Considering the reductions in anxiety and depression levels in our subjects and notable improvements in functional physical capacity and oxidative stress biomarkers after the exercise intervention, it is tempting, if not plausible, to speculate about the involvement of functional autonomy and oxidative mechanisms in obtaining beneficial responses. In conclusion, we demonstrated that an intermittent aquatic physical exercise program reduced anxiety, depression, and oxidative stress and improves the functional capacity of depressed elderly individuals.

## ■ AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All of the authors participated in the design, interpretation of studies, data analyses and manuscript review. Silva LA, Tortelli L, Motta J, Menguer L, Mariano S, Tasca G and Silveira GB performed the experiments and were responsible for the laboratory analysis of mental health, functional autonomy and oxidative stress. Silva LA and Silveira PCL wrote the manuscript and performed the statistical analysis.

## ■ REFERENCES

1. Moore KA, Babyak MA, Wood CE, Napolitano MA, Khatri P, Craighead WE, et al. The Association Between Physical Activity and Depression in Older Depressed Adults. *J Aging Phys Act.* 1999;7(1):55-61, <https://doi.org/10.1123/japa.7.1.55>.



2. Vucic Lovrencic M, Pibernik-Okanovic M, Sekerija M, Prasek M, Ajdukovic D, Kos J, et al. Improvement in Depressive Symptoms Is Associated With Reduced Oxidative Damage and Inflammatory Response In Type 2 Diabetic Patients with Subsyndromal Depression: The Results of a Randomized Controlled Trial Comparing Psychoeducation, Physical Exercise, and Enhanced Treatment as Usual. *Int J Endocrinol*. 2015;2015:210406, <https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/210406>.
3. Brocardo PS, Boehme F, Patten A, Cox A, Gil-Mohapel J, Christie BR. Anxiety- and depression-like behaviors are accompanied by an increase in oxidative stress in a rat model of fetal alcohol spectrum disorders: protective effects of voluntary physical exercise. *Neuropharmacology*. 2012;62(4):1607-18, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2011.10.006>.
4. De Matos DG, Mazini Filho ML, Moreira OC, De Oliveira CE, De Oliveira Venturini GR, Da Silva-Grigoletto ME, et al. Effects of eight weeks of functional training in the functional autonomy of elderly women: a pilot study. *J Sports Med Phys Fitness*. 2017;57(3):272-7.
5. Salmon P. Effects of physical exercise on anxiety, depression, and sensitivity to stress: a unifying theory. *Clin Psychol Rev*. 2001;21(1):33-61, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0272-7358\(99\)00032-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0272-7358(99)00032-X).
6. Kotan VO, Sarandol E, Kirhan E, Ozkaya G, Kirli S. Effects of long-term antidepressant treatment on oxidative status in major depressive disorder: a 24-week follow-up study. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry*. 2011;35(5):1284-90, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pnpbp.2011.03.021>.
7. Schuch FB, Vancampfort D, Rosenbaum S, Richards J, Ward PB, Veronese N, et al. Exercise for depression in older adults: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials adjusting for publication bias. *Braz J Psychiatry*. 2016;38(3):247-54, <https://doi.org/10.1590/1516-4446-2016-1915>.
8. Aidar FS, Reis AJ, Carneiro VM, Leite AM. Elderly and old adult: aquatic physical activities and functional autonomy. *Fit Perform J*. 2006;5(5):271-6.
9. American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, fifth edition (DSM-5). Arlington: American Psychiatric Publishing; 2013.
10. Hamilton M. Development of a rating scale for primary depressive illness. *Br J Soc Clin Psychol*. 1967;6(4):278-96, <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8260.1967.tb00530.x>.
11. Beck AT, Steer RA, Brown GK. BDI-II manual. 2 ed. New York: Psychological Corporation, 1996.
12. Castelino A, Fisher M, Hoskyns S, Zeng I, Waite A. The effect of group music therapy on anxiety, depression and quality of life in older adults with psychiatric disorders. *Australas Psychiatry*. 2013;21(5):506-7, <https://doi.org/10.1177/1039856213492355>.
13. Cunha JA. Manual da versão em português das Escalas de Beck. 1.ed. São Paulo: Casa do Psicólogo; 2001.
14. Podsiadlo D, Richardson S. The timed "Up & Go": a test of basic functional mobility for frail elderly persons. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 1991;39(2):142-8, <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1532-5415.1991.tb01616.x>.
15. Berg KO, Maki BE, Williams JJ, Holliday PJ, Wood-Dauphinee SL. Clinical and laboratory measures of postural balance in an elderly population. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil*. 1992;73(11):1073-80.
16. Canadian Standardized Test of Fitness (CSTF) Operations manual, 3rd ed, Fitness and Amateur Sport, Ottawa: Minister of State; 1986.
17. Levine RL, Garland D, Oliver CN, Amici A, Climent I, Lenz AG, et al. Determination of carbonyl content in oxidatively modified proteins. *Methods Enzymol*. 1990;186:464-78, [https://doi.org/10.1016/0076-6879\(90\)86141-H](https://doi.org/10.1016/0076-6879(90)86141-H).
18. Hissin PJ, Hilf R. A fluorometric method for determination of oxidized and reduced glutathione in tissues. *Anal Biochem*. 1976;74(1):214-26, [https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697\(76\)90326-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697(76)90326-2).
19. McCord JM, Fridovich I. Superoxide dismutase. An enzymic function for erythrocuprein (hemocuprein). *J Biol Chem*. 1969;244(22):6049-55.
20. Chae HJ, Park JM, Lee GY, Park HR, Chae SW, Jeong GS, et al. Ynk-Hap-Tang induces apoptosis by intervening mn-SOD in human cervical carcinoma HeLa cells. *Am J Chin Med*. 2004;32(6):883-95, <https://doi.org/10.1142/S0192415X04002491>.
21. da Silva LA, Tromm CB, Bom KF, Mariano I, Pozzi B, da Rosa GL, et al. Effects of taurine supplementation following eccentric exercise in young adults. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab*. 2014;39(1):101-4, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1139/apnm-2012-0229>.
22. Dunn AL, Trivedi MH, Kampert JB, Clark CG, Chambliss HO. Exercise treatment for depression: efficacy and dose response. *Am J Prev Med*. 2005;28(1):1-8, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2004.09.003>.
23. Byrne A, Byrne DG. The effect of exercise on depression, anxiety and other mood states: a review. *J Psychosom Res*. 1993;37(6):565-74, [https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-3999\(93\)90050-P](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-3999(93)90050-P).
24. Antunes HK, Stella SG, Santos RF, Bueno OF, de Mello MT. Depression, anxiety and quality of life scores in seniors after an endurance exercise program. *Braz J Psychiatry*. 2005;27(4):266-71, <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1516-44462005000400003>.
25. Black CN, Bot M, Scheffer PG, Cuijpers P, Penninx BW. Is depression associated with increased oxidative stress? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*. 2015;51:164-75, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psyneuen.2014.09.025>.
26. Schuch FB, Deslandes AC, Stubbs B, Gosmann NP, Silva CT, Fleck MP. Neurobiological effects of exercise on major depressive disorder: A systematic review. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev*. 2016;61:1-11, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2015.11.012>.
27. Adam D, Ramli A, Shahar S. Effectiveness of a Combined Dance and Relaxation Intervention on Reducing Anxiety and Depression and Improving Quality of Life among the Cognitively Impaired Elderly. *Sultan Qaboos Univ Med J*. 2016;16(1):e47-53, <https://doi.org/10.18295/squmj.2016.16.01.009>.
28. Brown DR, Morgan WP, Raglin JS. Effects of exercise and rest on the state anxiety and blood pressure of physically challenged college students. *J Sports Med Phys Fitness*. 1993;33(3):300-5.
29. Aschbacher K, O'Donovan A, Wolkowitz OM, Dhabhar FS, Su Y, Epel E. Good stress, bad stress and oxidative stress: insights from anticipatory cortisol reactivity. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*. 2013;38(9):1698-708, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psyneuen.2013.02.004>.
30. Ochoa Martinez PY, Hall Lopez JA, Paredones Hernandez A, Martin Dantas EH. Effect of periodized water exercise training program on functional autonomy in elderly women. *Nutr Hosp*. 2014;31(1):351-6.
31. Behm DG, Anderson KG. The role of instability with resistance training. *J Strength Cond Res*. 2006;20(3):716-22.
32. Ji LL. Antioxidant enzyme response to exercise and aging. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 1993;25(2):225-31, <https://doi.org/10.1249/00005768-199302000-00011>.
33. Nojima H, Watanabe H, Yamane K, Kitahara Y, Sekikawa K, Yamamoto H, et al. Effect of aerobic exercise training on oxidative stress in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Metabolism*. 2008;57(2):170-6, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.metabol.2007.08.021>.
34. Aggarwal A, Gaur V, Kumar A. Nitric oxide mechanism in the protective effect of naringin against post-stroke depression (PSD) in mice. *Life Sci*. 2010;19(25-26):928-35, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lfs.2010.04.011>.
35. Higashi Y, Sasaki S, Kurisu S, Yoshimizu A, Sasaki N, Matsuura H, et al. Regular aerobic exercise augments endothelium-dependent vascular relaxation in normotensive as well as hypertensive subjects: role of endothelium-derived nitric oxide. *Circulation*. 1999;100(11):1194-202, <https://doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.100.11.1194>.
36. Beydoun MA, Beydoun HA, Boueiz A, Shroff MR, Zonderman AB. Antioxidant status and its association with elevated depressive symptoms among US adults: National Health and Nutrition Examination Surveys. *Br J Nutr*. 2013;109(9):1714-29, <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114512003467>.
37. Sarandol A, Sarandol E, Eker SS, Erdinc S, Vatansever E, Kirli S. Major depressive disorder is accompanied with oxidative stress: short-term antidepressant treatment does not alter oxidative-antioxidative systems. *Hum Psychopharmacol*. 2007;22(2):67-73, <https://doi.org/10.1002/hup.829>.
38. Pinho RA, Pinho CA, Tromm CB, Pozzi BG, Souza DR, Silva LA, et al. Changes in the cardiac oxidative metabolism induced by PGC-1{Alpha}: response of different physical training protocols in infarction-induced rats. *Int J Cardiol*. 2013;168(4):4560-2, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcard.2013.06.082>.
39. Somani SM, Frank S, Rybak LP. Responses of antioxidant system to acute and trained exercise in rat heart subcellular fractions. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav*. 1995;51(4):627-34, [https://doi.org/10.1016/0091-3057\(94\)00427-K](https://doi.org/10.1016/0091-3057(94)00427-K).
40. Khanzode SD, Dakhale GN, Khanzode SS, Saoji A, Palasodkar R. Oxidative damage and major depression: the potential antioxidant action of selective serotonin re-uptake inhibitors. *Redox Rep*. 2003;8(6):365-70, <https://doi.org/10.1179/135100003225003393>.
41. Galecki P, Szemraj J, Bienkiewicz M, Zboralski K, Galecka E. Oxidative stress parameters after combined fluoxetine and acetylsalicylic acid therapy in depressive patients. *Hum Psychopharmacol*. 2009;24(4):277-86, <https://doi.org/10.1002/hup.1014>.