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# Active exergames to improve cognitive functioning in neurological disabilities: a systematic review and meta-analysis

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Reprints and permissions: For information about reprints and permissions send an email to: journals.dept@minervamedica.it - journals2.dept@minervamedica.it - journals6.dept@minervamedica.it Active exergames to improve cognitive functioning in neurological disabilities: a systematic review and meta-analysis

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#### ABSTRACT

**INTRODUCTION:** Exergames represent a way to perform physical activity through active video games, serving as potentially useful tool in the field of neurorehabilitation. However, little is known regarding the possible role of exergames in improving cognitive functions in persons suffering from neurological disabilities.

**EVIDENCE ACQUISITION:** A search for relevant articles was carried out on PubMed/Medline, Scopus, PEDro, and Google Scholar. Only randomized controlled studies and non-randomized but controlled studies were retained. The following additional inclusion criteria were applied: studies focused on physical activity interventions carried out by means of exergames; populations targeted were affected by neurological disabilities; and reported results were related to cognitive outcomes. We calculated standardized mean differences (SMD) and pooled results using a random effects meta-analysis.

**EVIDENCE SYNTHESIS**: Of 520 abstracts screened, thirteen studies met the criteria to be included yielding a total of 465 participants, 233 randomized to exergames, and 232 allocated to the alternative or no intervention. The included studies varied in terms of studied populations (e.g., multiple sclerosis, post-stroke hemiparesis, Parkinson's disease, dementia, dyslexia, Down syndrome), type and duration of interventions, and cognitive outcome measures. Exergames significantly improved executive functions (SMD=0.53, p=0.005; 8 studies, n=380) and visuo-spatial perception (SMD=0.65, p<0.0001; 5 studies, n=209) when compared to the alternative or no intervention. There were no significant differences for attention (SMD=0.57, p=0.07; 7 studies, n=250) and global cognition (SMD=0.05, p=0.80; 6 studies, n=161). **CONCLUSIONS:** Exergames are a highly-flexible tool for rehabilitation of both cognitive and motor functions in adult populations suffering from various neurological disabilities and developmental neurological disorders. Additional high-quality clinical trials with larger samples and more specific cognitive outcomes are needed to corroborate these preliminary findings.

**Clinical Rehabilitation Impact.** Exergames could be considered either as a supplemental treatment to conventional rehabilitation, or as strategy to extend benefits of conventional programs at home.

KEYWORDS: Video games- Neurological disorders- Rehabilitation- Cognition.

#### INTRODUCTION

Exergames (the portmanteau for "exercise" and "video games") are comprised of whole-body physical exercises performed through active video games that require gross motor and visual-spatial coordination, balance, and energy expenditure comparable to a moderate-intensity physical activity [1].

To participate in exergames, the player must engage in full motor involvement in the non-immersive, smallerscale, bi-dimensional virtual reality environment of the video game, through the use of the player's selected virtual shape (avatar). Using devices such as handheld remote controls, balance boards, and infrared cameras, the avatar reproduces the player's movement on the screen in order to give an immediate visual feedback of motion accuracy. Handheld controllers have to be wielded and moved the same way sports equipment (e.g., a tennis racket) is held in reality. Moreover, sensation is enhanced by vibration of the handheld controller and auditory feedback, thus giving the player full immersion in the virtual reality of the game (the so-called "haptic or kinesthetic communication"). Common exergames are those marketed by Nintendo<sup>®</sup> (Nintendo Wii Fit<sup>™</sup> and Dance Dance Revolution<sup>™</sup>), Microsoft<sup>®</sup> (Microsoft Xbox Kinect<sup>®</sup>), and Sony<sup>®</sup> (Sony Eye Toy<sup>®</sup>).

Exergames were created as low-cost entertainment tools, mostly dedicated to able-bodied younger persons. Nevertheless, more recently, exergames have been considered by researchers as a possible intervention strategy to prevent and treat obesity [2], cardiac diseases [3], and to improve postural control and balance in elderly populations [4,5], as well as in persons with neurological disabilities [6]. Several studies have considered the role of exergames in physical rehabilitation to improve balance, gait, speed and mobility in populations with neurological disabilities, such as persons affected by stroke [7], multiple sclerosis [8], Parkinson's disease [9], and in children suffering with cerebral palsy [10-12], degenerative ataxia [13,14], Down syndrome [15], developmental coordination disorders [16], and spina bifida [17]. Besides disease-specific motor symptoms, neurological disabilities are often also characterized by cognitive

impairment, represented by congenital or acquired deficits either in global intellectual performances or in one or more specific cognitive domains, such as memory, attention, orientation, verbal fluency, executive functions, learning, reasoning, visual-spatial abilities, problem solving and planning [18].

Playing exergames has been proposed as an integrated and adaptable training paradigm to improve not only motor function, but also cognitive abilities [19], by promoting processes of learning and experience-dependent plasticity [20]. Exergaming encompasses most of the principles underlying experience-dependent neural plasticity [21], such as high-intensity repetition of task-oriented exercises, incrementally increased task difficulty, real-time feedback, salience, motivation and reward, and even transfer effects [22]. This latter

concept, the so-called "far transfer effect" or "transfer of training", refers to transferring improved performance in a specific function to a different, untrained functional domain, implying little overlap between the two abilities [23]. Previous reviews of the literature emphasized the effects of exergames on physical rehabilitation [9; 24-26], without investigating the effectiveness in ameliorating cognitive deficits. There is evidence that video games provide a transfer effect from motor to cognitive skills in the able-bodied populations, including older adults [27-30]. More recently, the benefits of exergames on global cognition and individual cognitive domains (executive functions, attentional processing, and visuo-spatial skills) were demonstrated in both healthy and clinical populations [31]. Considering the growing interest on the potential role of exergames in the field of neurological rehabilitation, we performed a systematic literature review and meta-analysis to establish whether exergames are efficacious for improving cognitive deficits in persons with neurological disabilities.

#### **EVIDENCE ACQUISITION**

#### Search strategy and articles selection

The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement guided the methodology and reporting of this systematic review and meta-analysis [32]. PubMed/Medline, Scopus, PEDro, and Google Scholar were used to search for relevant articles using free-text and MeSH terms shown in **TABLE 1**. No time period restrictions were applied.

- - - Please insert Table 1 about here - - -

To avoid the risk of missing relevant articles, we searched for additional papers on the grey literature (i.e., generic web search) and through the bibliography of previous reviews. One reviewer (GM) ran the search and screened the initial titles after removing duplicates. Three authors (FS, SM and LP) independently examined potential relevant articles, using the following criteria as defined by PICO model [33]: (i) population: persons affected by congenital or acquired neurological disabilities; (ii) intervention: exergames delivered by commercial devices; (iii) comparison: no intervention (i.e., wait-list control group) or conventional treatments or rehabilitation interventions; (iv): outcomes: improvement in cognitive functions assessed by either widely-accepted neuropsychological tests, specific questionnaire(s), or dual-task measures, i.e., performance change in a motor task while simultaneously performing a cognitive task [34]. We only included papers published in peer-reviewed journals, which reported findings from experimentally

controlled studies, i.e., both randomized and non-randomized controlled trials. We excluded conference posters, articles not available in English or unpublished, as well as papers reporting findings of non-experimental studies, or involving non-exergaming interventions (e.g., "action" video games involving only hand-eye coordination).

The search was carried out from January through August 2017.

#### Quality of studies assessment

Two authors (GM and MGC) independently assessed the methodological quality of included studies through the PEDro (Physiotherapy Evidence Database) scale [35]. Studies scoring 9-10 on the PEDro scale are considered to be of "excellent" methodological quality. Scores ranging from 6 to 8 are considered to be of "good" quality, studies scoring 4 or 5 are of "fair" quality, and studies scoring below 4 are deemed to be of "poor" quality. Disagreements between authors were resolved by consensus.

#### Data synthesis and analysis

For each included article we collected and recorded the following in an electronic spreadsheet: 1) first author's name and year of publication; 2) samples in intervention and control group; 3) design and duration of the study; 4) topic (i.e., neurological disability covered by the study); 5) type of intervention; 6) assessments; 7) post-intervention outcomes.

Outcomes of interests were expressed as the mean and standard deviation (SD) of post-intervention scores [36]. When applicable, we reverse coded the score for some outcomes so that higher scores represented better cognitive functioning.

As the included studies used different scales to measure cognitive functioning, only post-intervention scores in outcomes measuring similar constructs were pooled as standardized mean differences (SMD) with the accompanying 95% confidence intervals (CIs). Positive SMDs indicated a difference in results favoring exergames; by convention, a SMD of 0.20 is considered small, 0.50 medium, and  $\geq$ 0.80 a large effect [37]. Data were analyzed using a generic inverse variance with random-effect models in Review Manager 5.3.5 (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2014). Heterogeneity of studies was addressed by the estimation of  $\tau^{A}$ 2 and I^2, considering an I^2 value <40% as an indicator of marginal heterogeneity [36]. Potential publication bias of included studies was determined by the Egger p-value and by checking Funnel plots [36].

#### **EVIDENCE SYNTHESIS**

#### **Results from the search**

From 4,364 titles originally identified through database searching, and 49 additional titles identified from the bibliography of previous reviews, we were able to assess 187 full-text articles for eligibility. **FIGURE 1** shows the process of study inclusion for qualitative and quantitative review.

- - - Please insert Figure 1 about here - - -

We found thirteen articles published from 2011 to 2017 that fulfilled our inclusion criteria, including eight randomized controlled trials [38-45], two post-hoc analyses from a randomized controlled trial [46, 47], and three non-randomized but controlled studies [48-50]. Among the included studies, two were conducted in Italy [46,49], two in the USA [42, 43], two in Taiwan [45-48], and one each in Brazil [40], Germany [50], Korea [38], Israel [47], Sweden [39], Switzerland [41], and Turkey [44]. **TABLE 2** shows the main characteristics of the included studies.

- - - Please insert Table 2 about here - - -

#### Samples

Samples in the studies ranged from 20 [39,49] to 155 participants [48]. As expected, the mean age of the participants varied according to neurological disease. Four studies targeted post-stroke survivors [38, 44, 45, 47], three targeted persons affected by multiple sclerosis [39, 46, 50], two targeted Parkinson's disease [40, 41], one targeted youth population of children with Down Syndrome [48], another youth population with dyslexia [49], one targeted Alzheimer's disease [42], and one targeted persons with mild cognitive impairment [43]. The severity of all these neurological disabilities was generally mild-to-moderate.

#### Interventions

Interventions consisted of exergames available on Nintendo Wii Sports or Nintendo Wii Fit, which require balance, motor and cognitive skills similar to actual sports. In most cases, the balance board device was used to perform balance training [39-42, 45-47, 50]. Studies on post-stroke hemiparesis, mild cognitive impairment, Down syndrome and dyslexia [38,43,44,49] required a motion-sensitive remote controller (the so-called "nunchuck"), which provides haptic or kinesthetic communication to the user.

Only one study had participants interact with different commercial devices (Xbox Kinect, Nintendo Wii Fit, Sony PlayStation 2 EyeToy, Sony PlayStation 3 MOVE) [47].

Alternative interventions performed by control groups were quite heterogeneous and included: conventional occupational therapy and/or conventional rehabilitation therapy [38, 48]; global and balance individual [40] or group [47] exercise; computer-assisted cognitive training delivered by the CogniPlus package [41]; supervised indoor walking [42]; health education programming [43]; Bobath neurodevelopmental treatment [44]; non-commercial device or conventional weight-shift training [45]; single-task balance exercises performed on an unstable platform or conventional balance training on a stable surface [50]. Franceschini and colleagues [49] used the same game (Wii Rayman Raving Rabbids) for both the exergaming and the control groups, selecting 10 active mini-games for children in the exergaming group and 10 non-active mini-games for controls. Two studies had a wait-list group without any alternative intervention [39, 46].

#### Duration, length and frequency of interventions

Duration of interventions ranged from 2 weeks [49] to 24 weeks [43]. Length and frequency of interventions varied from 30 [38, 39, 42, 45, 46, 50] to 90 [43] minutes per session, and once weekly [43] to 5-daily sessions per week [38, 46]. One study provided twice per week individually-tailored time, preceded by a warm-up phase of therapist-led global motility exercises [40].

#### **Outcomes and assessments**

Cognitive functioning was the main outcome in six studies [41, 43, 45-47, 49], the secondary or exploratory outcomes in five studies [38,39,42,44,48], while the remaining two studies analyzed dual-task performance in gait and balance [40, 50]. One study reported both dual-task measures and a global cognitive test [40] (see **TABLE 3**). Overall, we identified four cognitive domains for meta-analytic purposes: global cognition, attention, executive function (including dual-task performance), and perception (including visuo-spatial abilities). Few studies explored language [45,49] and memory [41,45]; therefore, these cognitive domains were not meta-analyzed.

Measures of general functioning in primary and secondary activities of daily living were reported in four studies, none of which found exergaming-induced changes [38, 42-44].

Post-intervention follow-up assessments ranging from 8 weeks [40, 49] to 12 weeks [45, 47] after the intervention ended were reported in four studies, and one cross-over study provided a 12-week post-training follow-up in the group which was initially randomized to the active intervention [46]. While two studies

showed no clear long-term retention of training-induced improvement, three studies demonstrated that the benefit of exergames on executive functions of persons with Parkinson's disease and stroke survivors was maintained at follow-up [40,45,47].

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#### **Quality of studies**

Quality assessment of the included studies through the PEDro scale [35] is shown in **TABLE 4**. According to the PEDro scale, most studies were considered to be of good quality: rating 8/11 in four cases [38, 39,45, 47]; 7/11 in three cases [40, 41, 44]; 6/11 in five cases [42, 43, 46, 48, 50]. Only one study was considered to be of fair quality [49], rating 4/11 on the PEDro scale. Higher scores were obtained by randomized controlled trial studies, when allocation to intervention or control group was concealed and at least one category, among therapists or assessors, was blinded to the allocation. Blinding of participants and therapists was not done in any study.

- - - Please insert Table 4 about here - - -

#### Findings from meta-analysis

The thirteen studies selected for inclusion [38-50] yielded a total of 465 persons, 233 randomized to exergames and 232 allocated to the alternative or no intervention. Three studies included more than two groups [45, 48, 50]; thus, for the meta-analysis, we choose to only include the exergaming group and the groups allocated to a conventional rehabilitation, while the untreated group (n=50) [48], and groups treated with non-commercial devices (n=50) [45] or single-task balance training (n=20) [50] were excluded. Forrest plots summarizing findings of the meta-analysis are shown in **FIGURE 2**. Mean and SD post-intervention scores were not reported in three studies [39, 41, 45]. These data were inserted after asking the lead author for the data [39, 45], or from using the median and interquartile ranges [41] or appropriate computations [36] to obtain the data.

Although we found no effect on global cognition (SMD=0.05, p=0.80), exergames significantly improved perception (SMD=0.65, p<0.0001) and executive functions (SMD=0.53, p=0.005) when compared with the alternative intervention. Despite an effect size in favor of exergames on attention, the statistical comparison with the alternative or no intervention did not reach statistical significance (SMD=0.57, p=0.07).

Significant heterogeneity was identified in the analyses for attention, and executive functions ( $I^{2} \ge 80\%$ , p-values<0.01), while there was no heterogeneity in the remaining analyses for global cognition and dual-task performance ( $I^{2} \le 25\%$ , p-values>0.20). There was no evidence for significant publication bias (Egger p-values>0.15). Visual inspection of the Funnel plot revealed a rather symmetrical distribution in the presence of bias because one study on Down syndrome [48] produced an exaggerated effect estimate in favor of the exergaming group on perception and executive functions, while another study on Alzheimer's disease [42] produced an exaggerated effect in favor of the alternative intervention on global cognition (see **FIGURE 3**). Despite these outliers, the main findings did not change even after removing these two studies from the meta-analysis, which resulted a better effect of exergames on executive functions (SMD=0.33, p=0.007) and perception (SMD=0.42, p=0.03) without significant heterogeneity ( $I^{2} < 1\%$ , p-values>0.65).

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#### Discussion

We meta-analyzed thirteen studies investigating the effect of exergames on cognitive functioning as primary or secondary outcomes in persons with neurological disabilities. Results indicated that exergames exhibited a medium effective size in improving some specific cognitive domains, such as executive functions (including dual-task performance) and perceptual/visuo-spatial abilities. In contrast, there were no significant differences between exergames and alternative interventions (or no intervention) for global cognition and attention. The present meta-analysis should be interpreted with caution, given the variability in the assessment of cognitive functions, including generic screening tool [38, 40, 42-45] or dual-task experiments [39, 42, 50], rather than more specific and sensitive tests [41, 46, 47, 49].

Our findings suggest that exergames increase the ability to allocate cognitive resources in time and space, by enhancing decision/prioritization processes (executive functions) and visuo-spatial perception. Exergaming could be considered a dual-task strategy to train persons to automate the motor task, allowing the allocation of more resources to other tasks [51]. Dual-task execution requires prioritization of a task, i.e., to hierarchically select the relevant task [52]. According to the TOTE (Test-Operate-Test-Exit) model, when planning for intentional actions, persons collect information to reach the desired result (T), then operate in practice (O), test the result (T) and exit (E) the program if the goal is reached [53]. During information processing, multiple sources of information must be recorded to integrate all available data and execute a final decision. This process occurs for both deliberate and automatic tasks, such as simple sensory-motor tasks [54], which could be trained through the immediate feedback provided by exergames.

Regarding the lack of significant results for attention, this could be attributed to a power issue given the small number of studies included in this meta-analysis. Unlike our results, the meta-analysis by Stanmore et al. [31] found benefits of exergaming interventions on executive functions, attentional processing, and visuo-spatial skills, as well as an improvement in overall cognitive functioning. However, among the seventeen studies included in the review by Stanmore and colleagues, only five studies included populations of persons with neurological disorders, with merely four on exergaming with commercial devices. Thus, future studies are warranted to better elucidate the relationship between exergames and attention in various populations. In addition to findings related to cognitive outcomes, exergaming was more efficacious compared to no-intervention [39, 46], and comparable to other therapist-led programs [40, 42-46, 50] at improving motor functions such as balance performance and walking ability. This was also evident for upper extremity motor impairment in persons with hemiparesis [38, 44]. Noticeably, one study performed on persons with multiple sclerosis detected a correlation between improved balance and better performance on a test of information processing speed [46], supporting the hypothesis that a far transfer effect can occur from balance to cognition through exergames [23].

Almost all the included studies considered the exergame programs feasible, safe, enjoyable and motivating. Some of the studies included in this review reported no or minor adverse events related to exergaming, with almost all participants in the exergaming groups completing the programs [38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 48]. Nilsagård and colleagues [39] stated that playing exergames "*functioned as a self-trigger to continue the exercise*", and Şimşek & Çekok [44] reported that "*patients stated that watching themselves enabled them to see and correct their faults during playing the games* …*they looked forward to play the next session and came to the therapy more willingly in order to improve their scores*". Independently from the objectively measured improvements, exergame-related motivation and salience could explain why this rehabilitation tool is appreciated by therapists and persons with neurological disabilities.

Prior research showed that virtual environment training allows people to develop spatial navigation tasks indistinguishable from those acquired from training in the real world, and that those skills could be transfer into real-world situations [55]. Such transfer from the virtual reality training might be also obtained with exergames, as suggested by their effect on the functional reach test [56], improvement in self-perceived walking ability [39], and in activities of daily living [40].

#### Implications

Among the thirteen studies included in this review, exergames have been used in different clinical contexts such as persons affected by post-stroke hemiparesis, Parkinson's disease, multiple sclerosis, Alzheimer's disease, mild cognitive impairment, and in children with intellectual disabilities or learning disorders, reflecting the unique versatility of this tool. Availability of multiple games and devices encourage creating tailored rehabilitation programs. Moreover, the flexibility of devices permits the framework for making 'adhoc' modifications to video games to optimize them for use in different clinical settings. For example, Pau and colleagues [57] suggested that specific video games should be developed to exploit the full potential of video game-based rehabilitation; Choi and colleagues [38] developed a forearm orthosis to enable persons with hemiparesis to hold the Wii remote control; dos Santos Mendes and colleagues [56] highlighted the importance of training persons with Parkinson's disease using only games in which they exhibit no learning deficit.

Although none of the included studies performed a cost-efficacy analysis of exergames compared to conventional or other interventions, some authors assumed that exergames are less expensive than traditional therapies that are typically delivered on a regular basis by therapists in a hospital setting or at home [38, 39, 41, 44, 46].

In few studies, exergames were delivered in addition to conventional treatment, including pharmacotherapy in persons with Parkinson's disease [40, 41, 56]. It has been demonstrated that exercise is an effective addon strategy to impact cognitive outcomes in persons suffering from Parkinson's disease [58], and dementia [59], and to enhance antidepressant-related neurotrophic action on hippocampal atrophy in people with severe depression [60].

While it is not possible to recommend exergames instead of conventional rehabilitation therapies, we strongly support further investigations on the effectiveness of exergames. Specifically, exergames could be proposed as an add-on intervention to conventional rehabilitation, and/or as strategy to avoid deconditioning during temporary discontinuation of physiotherapy, thus extending benefits of conventional programs.

#### **Study limitations**

Major limitations of this review mainly encompass the small sample sizes of the selected studies, the dissimilarity in outcomes and assessments used to measure cognitive functioning, and the heterogeneity of populations included in the analysis. We meta-analyzed persons with a wide range of ages, and disparate neurological conditions, such as subacute stroke, Parkinson's disease, multiple sclerosis, mild dementia, and children with Down syndrome or learning disorders.

Because of these heterogeneities, we are aware that it is not possible to draw univocal conclusions about the efficacy of exergames in improving cognitive functioning in persons with neurological disabilities. Moreover, because exergames were not specifically designed for cognitive rehabilitation, our preliminary findings strongly support the need for high-quality studies, such as randomized controlled trials, with an appropriate sample size calculation.

Lastly, we were not able to extrapolate the metabolic equivalents (METS) spent during exergaming from selected studies. This is relevant information that should be implemented in future studies, since exergames are, by definition, supposed to correspond to moderate intensity training [1], i.e., 40% to <60% oxygen uptake reserve, or heart rate reserve of 3 to <6 METS, according to the American College of Sport Medicine (ACSM) [61].

#### CONCLUSIONS

The results of this meta-analysis confirm prior literature highlighting the potential role of exergames in enhancing cognitive skills in older adults [62, 63] in school children [64], and in persons affected by developmental disorders [11]. Nevertheless, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first review of experimental studies exclusively devoted to establish the efficacy of exergames on cognition in persons with neurological disabilities.

Exergames could provide a potential rehabilitation tool for improving both cognitive and motor functions by means of unique training, with the hypothesis that playing action video games can modulate the activity of brain regions serving both motor and cognitive domains [65]. Moreover, rehabilitation in neurological disabilities by means of exergaming has been confirmed to be safe, flexible, and is characterized by high rates of adherence. However, quality research including larger samples are needed to better establish the type of games, the frequency, and the intensity upon which exergames could be beneficial for cognition in persons with neurological disabilities.

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#### TABLE 1. Search strategy.

CATEGORY	TERMS USED ("OR" TERMS)
Population	Nervous System Diseases; Nervous System Diseases/rehabilitation; stroke; Multiple
	Sclerosis; Parkinson Disease; Alzheimer Disease; Dementia; Trauma, Nervous System;
	Chorea; Neurodevelopmental Disorders; Intellectual Disability; Cerebral Palsy.
Intervention	Video Games*; Video Games/therapeutic use; computer game*; computer interact*;
	virtual reality*; VR; virtual reality exposure therapy/methods*; User-Computer Interface;
	serious game; Exergam*; Active video games; Nintendo Wii; Wii; Microsoft Kinect;
	Kinect; Dance Dance Revolution; Sony EyeToy.
Comparison	Randomized; Controlled; Control group*; RCT; Clinical trial; Control condition
Outcomes	Cognit*; Neurocognitive; Neuropsychological; Neurological; Executive Function*; Brain
	function* Attention; Memory; Problem Solving; Processing; Learning; Language

TABLE 2. Main characteristics of the included studies (in alphabetic order).

AUTHORS, YEAR	TOPIC	SAMPLE Size	AGE, YRS mean±SD	DESIGN	DURATION	FREQUENCY	INTERVENTIONS	MAIN RESULTS
Choi et al., 2014 [38]	Stroke	20	64.3±10.3 64.7±11.3	RCT	4 weeks	30-min/session, 5 sessions/week	<b>Exergames (n=10):</b> Nintendo Wii Sports Resort (swordplay, table tennis, and canoe) + conventional rehabilitation therapy	Exergames was as effective as conventional occupational therapy on the upper extremity motor function. Exergames was as effective as conventional occupational therapy on
							<b>Control (n=10):</b> conventional occupational therapy + conventional rehabilitation therapy	the MMSE score and number of correc detections at the auditory CPT. The number of commission errors at th auditory CPT and number of correct
								detections in the visual CPT improved only in the exergaming group.
Franceschini et al., 2013 [49]	Dyslexia	20	9.8±1.4	controlled	2 weeks + 8-week	9 sessions lasting 80 minutes, for a	Exergames (n=10): active mini-games of Wii Rayman Raving Rabbids	General reading abilities improved with active and not non-active video games
					follow-up	12 hours of total training	Control (n=10): non-active mini-games	In the reading speed of pseudo-word decoding tasks and in word text readin
						D	of Wii Rayman Raving Rabbids	skills, the exergaming group showed a
								bigger improvement. The reading improvements after the
								active video games training were
								characterized by the increased reading speed without a cost in accuracy.
Hughes et al.	Mild cognitive	20	77.4±5.8	RCT	24 weeks	90-min/session,	Exergames (n=10): interactive video	All participants completed the
ZU15 [43]	Impaiment					опсе weekly	games or will sports and sports Resort	intervention and 90% of them attended at least 80% of the scheduled sessions
							Control (n=10): passive connitive	Evernames improved connitive and
							stimulation consisting of learning and	physical functioning, but these effects
							discussing about age-specific health-	did not reach the statistical significance
							related topics with professionals	
Hung et al.	Stroke	37	56	RCT	12 weeks	30-min/session,	Exergames (n=12):	There were no between-group
2017 [45]			range: 43-64		+ 12-week	2 sessions/week		differences in change of global
					follow-up		Control 1 (n=13): non-commercial	cognition after the intervention.
							device equipped with a force platform	Exergames improved some aspects or
							providing rear-unite visual recupacy (reula biofeedback system)	cognitive runctions, mannery abstract- indoement and language. Only the
								improvement in abstract-judgement we
							Control 2 (n=12): conventional weight-	maintained at 3-month follow-up.
Kramer et al.,	Multiple	61	47±9	non-randomized	3 weeks	9 sessions lasting	Exergames (n=21): Will Sports	All groups showed significantly
2014 [30]	scierusis			matched group				inproved banarice and gait scores, but
							plauolill	uny ure exergance naming group showed significantly higher
							Control 1 (n=20): single-task exercises	improvements in the dual-task conditio
							performed on an unstable platform	of the gait test than in the single-task condition.
							Control 2 (n=20): conventional balance training on a stable surface	

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No statistical between-group difference in several balance measures. A significant improvement in the TUG- cognitive test was observed only in exergaming group.	It Exergaming group improved on balanc and gait measures. No significant intra-group change, nor group-by-time interaction on MMSE in score were detected in both groups.	<ul> <li>No additional advantages associated</li> <li>Vii with exergames on UPDRS-II.</li> <li>Both groups showed a significant improvement on global cognitive skills after training that was maintained at follow-up.</li> <li>Sise and</li> </ul>	eo Exergames was associated with improvement of speed of information processing and sustained attention, thi was not maintained at follow-up.	Both groups showed a significant improvement on executive functions after training that was maintained at follow-up.	Exergames were as effective as Bobat treatment on daily living functions and quality of life. Participants in exergaming group were more satisfied from the intervention.	<ul> <li>Participants in the exergaming group had a better pre-post change on motor proficiency, visual-integrative abilities, and sensory integrative functioning.</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>There was a significantly greater</li> <li>enhancement of attention after Wii</li> <li>training compared with CogniPlus.</li> <li>A positive trend in favor of Wii training</li> <li>compared with CogniPlus was showed</li> <li>for visuo-construction and episodic</li> </ul>
<b>Exergames (n=42)</b> : Supervised Nintendo Wii Fit plus games with Nintendo Balance Board <b>Control (n=42)</b> : no intervention	Exergames (n=11): supervised Wii F games (including strength, yoga and balance training) Control (n=11): supervised walking (i group of 3 or 4 subjects)	<ul> <li>Exergames (n=16): 30 minutes of glc exercises + 30 minutes of Nintendo M Fit games, with motor, balance and cognitive demands</li> <li>Control (n=16): 30 minutes of global exercises + 30 minutes balance exerc therapy without the provision of extern cues, feedback and cognitive stimulati</li> </ul>	Exergames (n=10): home-based vide games selected from Nintendo Wii Fit Plus Control (n=11): no intervention	Exergames (n=20): video games selected from consoles (Xbox Kinect, Nintendo Wii Fit, Sony PlayStation 2 EyeToy, Sony PlayStation 3 MOVE) Control (n=19): Goal-directed motor activities	Exergames (n=20): games selected from the Wii sports and Wii Fit packag for upper limb and balance training Control (n=22): Bobath neurodevelopmental treatment	<ul> <li>Exergames (n=52): sports games fro Nintendo Wii Sports Resort</li> <li>Control 1 (n=53): standard occupatio therapy</li> <li>Control 2 (n=50): no intervention</li> </ul>	Exergames (n=20): sports games fro Nintendo Wii Sports Resort (each 10 minutes lasting): Table Tennis, Swordplay, Archery, and Air Sports Control (n=19): CogniPlus consisting
30-min/session, 2 sessions/week	30-min/session, 5 sessions/week	60-min/session, 2 sessions/week	30-min/session, 5 sessions/week	60-min/session, 2 sessions/week	45-60 min/day, 3 days/week	60-min/session, 2 days/week	40 min/session, 3 times/week
6 weeks	8 weeks	7 weeks + 8-week follow-up	12 weeks + 12 weeks follow-up	12 weeks + 12 weeks follow-up	10 weeks	24 weeks	4 weeks
RCT	RCT	RCT	Cross-over trial	RCT	RCT	non- randomized matched group	RCT
50.0±11.5 49.4±11.1	79.3±9.8 81.6±5.2	67.4±8.1	35.1±8.4	59.2±10.1	58.04 <b>±16.56</b>	Range: 7-12 years	66.3±9.7 66.3±9.7
84	22	32	21	39	42	155	0 2
Multiple sclerosis	Alzheimer's disease	Parkinson's disease	Multiple sclerosis	Stroke	Stroke	Down syndrome	Parkinson's disease
Nilsagård et al., 2013 [39]	Padala et al., 2012 [42]	Pompeu et al., 2012 [40]	Prosperini et al., 2015 [46]	Rozental-Iluz et al., 2016 [47]	Simsek et al., 2016 [44]	Wuang YP et al. 2011 [48]	Zimmermann et al., 2014 [41]

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memory. Changes in working memory and executive functions (flexibility) were no different. 4 modules training different cognitive domains: FOCUS, focused attention; NBACK, working memory; PLAND, planning and action skills (executive functions); HIBIT, response inhibition (executive functions)

sgend. CPT: Continuous Performance Test; MMSE: Mini-Mental State Examination; RCT: randomized controlled trial; SD: standard deviation; TUG: Timed Up-and-Go sst; UPDRS-II: Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale, section II.

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	Global cognition	Attention	Visuo-spatial abilities /perception	Executive functions /dual-task performance
Choi et al., 2014 [38]	Korean version of Mini-Mental State Examination (K-MMSE)	Auditory Continuous Performance Test (A-CPT)	Visual Continuous Performance Test (V-CPT)	
Franceschini et al., 2013 [49]		Cross-modal Temporal Attention task, reaction time	Distributed and Focused Attention tasks, spatial attention	
Hughes et al. 2015 [43]	Computerized Assessment of Mild Cognitive Impairment (CAMCI)	CAMCI, Tracking A	1	CAMCI, Tracking B
Hung et al. 2017 [45]	Cognitive Abilities Screening Instrument Chinese, version 2.0 (CASI-C)	Attention subscale (CASI-C)	Orientation subscale (CASI-C)	Abstract/judgement subscale (CASI-C)
Kramer et al., 2014 [50]		1	1	Both-legs postural sway in dual-task condition
Nilsagård et al., 2013 [39]		1	1	Cognitive Timed up-and Go-Test (TUG-C)
Padala et al., 2012 [42]	Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MCA)	-	-	Unipedal Stance Test in dual-task condition
Pompeu et al., 2012 [40]	Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE)	-	-	1
Prosperini et al., 2015 [46]		Paced Auditory Serial Addition Test	1	
Rozental-Iluz et al., 2016 [47]	1	1	1	Executive Function Route-finding Task (EFRT Executive Function Performance Test (EFPT) Trail-Making Test (TMT)
Simsek et al., 2016 [44]	Functional Independent Measures (FIM), cognitive	ı	1	
Wuang YP et al. 2011 [48]	1	Test of Sensory Integration Function, attention and activity	Developmental Test of Visual Motor Integration (VIM), visual perception	Test of Sensory Integration Function, emotion behavioral reactivity
Zimmermann et al., 2014 [41]	I	Test of Attentional Performance (TAP), Alertness	Block-Design Test	Trail-Making Test (TMT)

TABLE 3. Cognitive outcome measures assessed in the included studies (in alphabetic order) according to their construct.

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		-		1	-	-	-			-	
Score	8/11	4/11	6/11	8/11	6/11	8/11	6/11	7/11	6/11	8/11	7/11
۲۱. Point estimates and variability	≻	≻	≻	Y	7	7	7	7	×	~	~
comparison comparisons											
10. Between-group statistical	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻
9. Intention-to-treat analysis	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	z	≻	z
qu-wolloî əîsupəbA .8	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	z	≻	≻
7. Blinding of assessors	≻	z	z	≻	≻	≻	z	≻	≻	≻	≻
6. Blinding of therapists	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z
5. Blinding of subjects	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z	z
4. Baseline comparability	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻
3. Concealed allocation	≻	z	z	≻	z	≻	z	z	≻	≻	≻
2. Random allocation	≻	z	≻	≻	z	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻
۲. Eligibility criteria *	≻	z	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻	≻
AUTHOR, YEAR	Choi et al., 2014 [38]	Franceschini et al., 2013 [49]	Hughes et al., 2015 [43]	Hung et al., 2017 [45]	Kramer et al., 2014 [50]	Nilsagård et al., 2013 [39]	Padala et al., 2012 [42]	Pompeu et al., 2012 [40]	Prosperini et al., 2015 [46]	Rozental-Iluz et al., 2016 [47]	Şimşek TT et al., 2016 [44]

Wuang et al., 2011 [48]	≻	z	z	~	z	z	~	~	≻	~	~	6/11
Zimmermann et al., 2014 [41]	≻	≻	7	≻	≻	z	z	≻	≻	Y	7	7/11

\* Eligibility criteria item does not contribute to total score.

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#### FIGURE 2. Forest plots of included studies.

	Expe	riment	al	с	ontrol		:	Std. Mean Difference	Std. Mean Difference
Study or Subgroup	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total	Weight	IV, Random, 95% CI	IV, Random, 95% CI
1.1.1 Global cognition									
Choi et al. 2014	25.8	3.5	10	25.5	3.3	10	13.8%	0.08 [-0.79, 0.96]	<b>_</b>
Hughes et al. 2014	27.4	5.1	10	25.4	7.6	10	13.6%	0.30 [-0.59, 1.18]	
Hung et al. 2017	89	11.5	12	90.9	5	13	16.3%	-0.21 [-1.00, 0.58]	
Padala et al. 2012	22.4	2.8	11	25.5	4.1	11	13.7%	-0.85 [-1.73, 0.03]	
Pompeu et al. 2012	23.1	4.6	16	22.2	4.5	16	19.5%	0.19 [-0.50, 0.89]	<b>_</b>
Simsek et al. 2015	33.3	2.79	20	31.59	4.14	22	23.1%	0.47 [-0.14, 1.09]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			79			82	100.0%	0.05 [-0.32, 0.41]	<b>•</b>
Heterogeneity: Tau <sup>2</sup> = 0.05	5; Chi² = 6	6.68, df	= 5 (P	= 0.25);	l² = 25%	6			
Test for overall effect: Z =	0.26 (P =	0.80)							
		,							
1.1.2 Attention									
Choi et al. 2014	122.6	10.2	10	104.4	24.9	10	13.1%	0.92 [-0.02, 1.85]	
Franceschini et al. 2013	-320	74	10	-402	100	10	13.1%	0.89 [-0.04, 1.82]	
Hughes et al. 2014	0.04	0.02	10	0.04	0.02	10	13.5%	0.00 [-0.88, 0.88]	
Hung et al. 2017	7.33	0.98	12	7.42	0.79	13	14.3%	-0.10 [-0.88. 0.69]	<b>_</b>
Prosperini et al. 2015	46.2	7.6	10	39.9	12.3	11	13.5%	0.58 [-0.29. 1.46]	
Wuang et al. 2015	-50.4	3.2	52	-54.7	1.8	53	16.9%	1.65 [1.20, 2.09]	│ _ <b>_</b>
Zimmermann et al. 2014	-275	75.8	20	-272	41.7	19	15.6%	-0.05 [-0.68, 0.58]	<b>_</b>
Subtotal (95% CI)			124			126	100.0%	0.57 [-0.05, 1.19]	◆
Heterogeneity: Tau <sup>2</sup> = 0.54	l: Chi <sup>2</sup> = 2	29.48. d	lf = 6 (F	> < 0.000	01): l <sup>2</sup> =	80%			
Test for overall effect: Z =	, 1.81 (P =	0.07)	- (		- ,,				
		,							
1.1.3 Executive functions	dual-ta	sk per	formar	nce)					
Hughes et al. 2014	0.02	0.01	10	0.01	0.01	10	8.7%	0.96 [0.02, 1.89]	
Hung et al. 2017	10.3	1.8	12	9.7	1.1	13	10.4%	0.39 [-0.40, 1.19]	-+
Kramer et al. 2014	-59	38	21	-75	40	20	12.8%	0.40 [-0.22, 1.02]	+
Nilsagard et al. 2012	13.3	6.2	41	12.6	6.8	38	15.6%	0.11 [-0.33, 0.55]	
Pompeu et al. 2012	26	20.3	16	20.3	19.8	16	11.7%	0.28 [-0.42, 0.97]	
Rozental-Iluz et al. 2016	-130.8	67.3	20	-187.5	101.5	19	12.4%	0.65 [0.00, 1.29]	
Wuang et al. 2015	-48.3	2.23	52	-51.8	2.98	53	15.8%	1.32 [0.89, 1.74]	
Zimmermann et al. 2014	2.42	0.63	20	2.35	0.53	19	12.7%	0.12 [-0.51, 0.75]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			192			188	100.0%	0.53 [0.16, 0.90]	•
Heterogeneity: Tau <sup>2</sup> = 0.18	3; Chi² = 2	20.08, d	lf = 7 (F	⊃ = 0.00	5); I² = 6	5%			
Test for overall effect: Z =	2.82 (P =	0.005)	```						
		,							
1.1.4 Perception (visuo-s	patial ab	ilities)							
Choi et al. 2014	128.5	11	10	121.3	9.7	10	9.6%	0.66 [-0.24, 1.57]	+
Franceschini et al. 2013	0.38	0.14	10	0.28	0.18	10	9.7%	0.59 [-0.31, 1.49]	+
Hung et al. 2017	17.5	0.8	12	17.2	1.1	13	12.6%	0.30 [-0.49, 1.09]	
۔ Wuang et al. 2015	71.38	6.65	52	66.2	4.6	53	48.5%	0.90 [0.50, 1.30]	
Zimmermann et al. 2014	26.8	11.2	20	23.5	10.8	19	19.7%	0.29 [-0.34, 0.93]	-+ <b>-</b>
Subtotal (95% CI)			104			105	100.0%	0.65 [0.37, 0.93]	•
Heterogeneity: Tau <sup>2</sup> = 0.00	); Chi² = 3	3.49. df	= 4 (P	= 0.48):	l² = 0%			-	
Test for overall effect: Z =	4.57 (P <	0.0000	))	- /,					
	Ň		,						
									<b>├</b> ─── <b>├</b> ─── <b>├</b> ───

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SE: standard error; SMD: standardized mean difference.