

**Cochrane** Database of Systematic Reviews

# Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment (Review)

Gates NJ, Vernooij RWM, Di Nisio M, Karim S, March E, Martínez G, Rutjes AWS

Gates NJ, Vernooij RWM, Di Nisio M, Karim S, March E, Martínez G, Rutjes AWS. Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2019, Issue 3. Art. No.: CD012279. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD012279.pub2.

www.cochranelibrary.com



# TABLE OF CONTENTS

HEADER	1
ABSTRACT	1
PLAIN LANGUAGE SUMMARY	2
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FOR THE MAIN COMPARISON	4
BACKGROUND	6
OBJECTIVES	8
METHODS	8
RESULTS	12
Figure 1	13
Figure 2	16
Figure 3	17
Figure 4	19
Figure 5	20
Figure 6	22
ADDITIONAL SUMMARY OF FINDINGS	23
DISCUSSION	26
AUTHORS' CONCLUSIONS	27
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	27
REFERENCES	28
CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDIES	49
DATA AND ANALYSES	92
Analysis 1.1. Comparison 1 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 1 Global cognitive	•
function.	94
Analysis 1.2. Comparison 1 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 2 Episodic	
memory.	95
Analysis 1.3. Comparison 1 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 3 Speed of	
processing.	96
Analysis 1.4. Comparison 1 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 4 Executive	
function.	97
Analysis 1.5. Comparison 1 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 5 Working	
memory.	99
Analysis 1.6. Comparison 1 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 6 Verbal	
fluency. $\ldots$	100
Analysis 1.7. Comparison 1 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 7 Depression.	101
Analysis 1.8. Comparison 1 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 8 Functional	
performance	102
Analysis 1.9. Comparison 1 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 9 Quality of	
life	103
Analysis 1.10. Comparison 1 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 10 Serious	
adverse events: mortality.	103
Analysis 2.1. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 1 Global	
cognitive function. $\ldots$	104
Analysis 2.2. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 2 Episodic	
memory.	104
Analysis 2.3. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 3 Executive	101
function.	105
Analysis 2.4. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 4 Verbal	10)
Auency.	105
Analysis 2.5. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 5 Depression.	105
Analysis 2.6. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 6 Functional	100
performance.	106
•	
Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment (Review)	i

APPENDICES										107
CONTRIBUTIONS OF AUTHORS										116
DECLARATIONS OF INTEREST										116
SOURCES OF SUPPORT										117
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PROTOCOL AND REVIEW										117

[Intervention Review]

# Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Nicola J Gates<sup>1</sup>, Robin WM Vernooij<sup>2</sup>, Marcello Di Nisio<sup>3</sup>, Salman Karim<sup>4</sup>, Evrim March<sup>5</sup>, Gabriel Martínez<sup>6</sup>, Anne WS Rutjes<sup>7,8</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Centre for Healthy Brain Ageing (CHeBA), University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia. <sup>2</sup>Iberoamerican Cochrane Centre, Barcelona, Spain. <sup>3</sup>Department of Medicine and Ageing Sciences, University "G. D'Annunzio" of Chieti-Pescara, Chieti Scalo, Italy. <sup>4</sup>Psychiatry, Lancashire Care NHS Foundation Trust, Preston, UK. <sup>5</sup>St Vincent's Adult Mental Health, St Vincent's Hospital (Melbourne), Fitzroy, Australia. <sup>6</sup>Faculty of Medicine and Dentistry, Universidad de Antofagasta, Antofagasta, Chile. <sup>7</sup>Institute of Social and Preventive Medicine (ISPM), University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland. <sup>8</sup>Institute of Primary Health Care (BIHAM), University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland

Contact address: Nicola J Gates, Centre for Healthy Brain Ageing (CHeBA), University of New South Wales, Suite 407 185 Elizabeth Street, Sydney, NSW, 2000, Australia. n.gates@unsw.edu.au, nicolagates@bigpond.com.

**Editorial group:** Cochrane Dementia and Cognitive Improvement Group. **Publication status and date:** New, published in Issue 3, 2019.

**Citation:** Gates NJ, Vernooij RWM, Di Nisio M, Karim S, March E, Martínez G, Rutjes AWS. Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2019, Issue 3. Art. No.: CD012279. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD012279.pub2.

Copyright © 2019 The Cochrane Collaboration. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

# ABSTRACT

# Background

The number of people living with dementia is increasing rapidly. Clinical dementia does not develop suddenly, but rather is preceded by a period of cognitive decline beyond normal age-related change. People at this intermediate stage between normal cognitive function and clinical dementia are often described as having mild cognitive impairment (MCI). Considerable research and clinical efforts have been directed toward finding disease-modifying interventions that may prevent or delay progression from MCI to clinical dementia.

# Objectives

To evaluate the effects of at least 12 weeks of computerised cognitive training (CCT) on maintaining or improving cognitive function and preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment.

# Search methods

We searched to 31 May 2018 in ALOIS (www.medicine.ox.ac.uk/alois) and ran additional searches in MEDLINE, Embase, PsycINFO, CINAHL, ClinicalTrials.gov, and the WHO portal/ICTRP ( www.apps.who.int/trialsearch) to identify published, unpublished, and ongoing trials.

# Selection criteria

We included randomised controlled trials (RCTs) and quasi-RCTs in which cognitive training via interactive computerised technology was compared with an active or inactive control intervention. Experimental computerised cognitive training (CCT) interventions had to adhere to the following criteria: minimum intervention duration of 12 weeks; any form of interactive computerised cognitive training, including computer exercises, computer games, mobile devices, gaming console, and virtual reality. Participants were adults with a diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment (MCI) or mild neurocognitive disorder (MND), or otherwise at high risk of cognitive decline.

Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment (Review) Copyright © 2019 The Cochrane Collaboration. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

# Data collection and analysis

Two review authors independently extracted data and assessed risk of bias of the included RCTs. We expressed treatment effects as mean differences (MDs) or standardised mean differences (SMDs) for continuous outcomes and as risk ratios (RRs) for dichotomous outcomes. We used the GRADE approach to describe the overall quality of evidence for each outcome.

#### Main results

Eight RCTs with a total of 660 participants met review inclusion criteria. Duration of the included trials varied from 12 weeks to 18 months. Only one trial used an inactive control. Most studies were at unclear or high risk of bias in several domains. Overall, our ability to draw conclusions was hampered by very low-quality evidence. Almost all results were very imprecise; there were also problems related to risk of bias, inconsistency between trials, and indirectness of the evidence.

No trial provided data on incident dementia. For comparisons of CCT with both active and inactive controls, the quality of evidence on our other primary outcome of global cognitive function immediately after the intervention period was very low. Therefore, we were unable to draw any conclusions about this outcome.

Due to very low quality of evidence, we were also unable to determine whether there was any effect of CCT compared to active control on our secondary outcomes of episodic memory, working memory, executive function, depression, functional performance, and mortality. We found low-quality evidence suggesting that there is probably no effect on speed of processing (SMD 0.20, 95% confidence interval (CI) -0.16 to 0.56; 2 studies; 119 participants), verbal fluency (SMD -0.16, 95% CI -0.76 to 0.44; 3 studies; 150 participants), or quality of life (mean difference (MD) 0.40, 95% CI -1.85 to 2.65; 1 study; 19 participants).

When CCT was compared with inactive control, we obtained data on five secondary outcomes, including episodic memory, executive function, verbal fluency, depression, and functional performance. We found very low-quality evidence; therefore, we were unable to draw any conclusions about these outcomes.

# Authors' conclusions

Currently available evidence does not allow us to determine whether or not computerised cognitive training will prevent clinical dementia or improve or maintain cognitive function in those who already have evidence of cognitive impairment. Small numbers of trials, small samples, risk of bias, inconsistency between trials, and highly imprecise results mean that it is not possible to derive any implications for clinical practice, despite some observed large effect sizes from individual studies. Direct adverse events are unlikely to occur, although the time and sometimes the money involved in computerised cognitive training programmes may represent significant burdens. Further research is necessary and should concentrate on improving methodological rigour, selecting suitable outcomes measures, and assessing generalisability and persistence of any effects. Trials with long-term follow-up are needed to determine the potential of this intervention to reduce the risk of dementia.

# PLAIN LANGUAGE SUMMARY

# Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

#### Background

The terms 'cognition' and 'cognitive function' describe all of the mental activities related to thinking, learning, remembering, and communicating. There are normal changes in cognition with age, There are also diseases that affect cognition, principally dementia, in which cognition is impaired to the point of affecting a person's ability to manage daily activities. More common than dementia is a condition often described as mild cognitive impairment (MCI), in which mild impairment of cognition, more than expected from age alone, can be detected on testing, but by which daily functioning is largely unaffected. For some people, MCI is a stage on the way to developing dementia. There is a lot of interest in anything that might prevent further decline in cognitive training consists of a set of standardised tasks intended to 'exercise the brain' in various ways. These days, cognitive training exercises are often delivered via computers or mobile technology, so that people can do them on their own at home. We wanted to know whether CCT is an effective way for people with MCI to maintain their cognitive function and reduce their risk of going on to develop dementia.

#### What we did

We searched the medical literature up to 15 March 2018 for trials in which a group of people with MCI had participated in CCT for at least 12 weeks and had been compared with another group that had not received any CCT. This 'control' group could have taken part in an alternative activity instead, or group members could have received no intervention at all. For the comparison to be as fair as possible, it should have been decided at random whether people were in the CCT or control group. We were primarily interested in whether study participants developed dementia and in their overall cognitive function, but we also looked for evidence on particular cognitive skills, daily activities, quality of life, mood, or mental well-being, and any harmful effects.

# What we found

We found eight trials with 660 participants to include in the review. Seven of the trials (623 participants) compared CCT to an alternative activity. None of the included trials examined development of dementia, so this review presents no evidence on whether taking part in computerised cognitive training will help to prevent dementia. Our main finding in relation to all of the other outcomes in which we were interested was that the overall quality of the evidence was very low. This very low quality was mainly due to small sample sizes, problems with study methods, and differences between trials. Therefore, although we found some evidence for a few benefits of CCT for cognition, we were highly uncertain about study results and consider it likely that future research might lead to different results.

# Our conclusions

Unfortunately, it is not yet possible to answer our review question with any certainty. We think it remains an important area for further study. We would like to see larger studies, which would be more able to detect effects of CCT, and longer studies, which are needed to show whether there are any benefits, whether benefits are long-lasting, and whether there is a chance of preventing or delaying the development of dementia.

# SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FOR THE MAIN COMPARISON [Explanation]

Computerised cognitive training compared with active control in people with mild cognitive impairment

Patient or population: patients with mild cognitive impairment

Settings: general population

Intervention: computerised cognitive training

Comparison: active control

Comparison: active control												
Outcomes	Differences between CCT and control (95% CI)*	No. of participants (studies)	Quality of the evidence (GRADE)	Comments								
Global cognitive functioning (follow-up ranging from 3 months up to 2 years)	SMD 0.53 lower (1.06 lower to 0.01 lower)	407 participants (5 studies)	⊕⊖⊖⊖ very low <sup>b</sup>	It is uncertain whether CCT main- tains global cognitive functioning bet- ter than active control								
Episodic memory (follow-up ranging from 3 months up to 2 years)	SMD 0.79 lower (1.54 lower to 0.04 lower)	223 participants (5 studies)	$\oplus \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$ very low <sup>b</sup>	It is uncertain whether CCT improves episodic memory compared to active control								
Speed of processing (follow-up ranging from 3 months up to 2 years)	SMD 0.20 higher (0.16 lower to 0.56 higher)	119 participants (2 studies)	⊕⊕⊖⊖ low <sup>c</sup>	CCT may have little or no effect on speed of processing								
Executive functioning (follow-up ranging from 3 months up to 2 years)	SMD 0.31 lower (0.90 lower to 0.28 higher)	150 participants (3 studies)	$\oplus$ $\bigcirc$ $\bigcirc$ very low <sup>b</sup>	It is uncertain whether CCT improves executive functioning better than ac- tive control								
Working memory (follow-up rang- ing from 3 months up to 9 months)		72 participants (3 studies)	⊕⊖⊖⊖ very low <sup>d</sup>	It is uncertain whether CCT improves working memory compared to active control								
Verbal fluency (follow-up ranging from 3 months up to 18 months)	SMD 0.16 lower (0.76 lower to 0.44 higher)	150 participants (3 studies)	⊕⊕⊖⊖ Iow <sup>c</sup>	CCT may have little or no effect on speed of processing								
Quality of life (3 months of follow-up)	MD 0.40 higher (1.85 higher to 2.65 lower)	19 participants (1 study)	⊕⊕⊖⊖ low <sup>c</sup>	CCT may have little or no effect on quality of life								

Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment (Review) Copyright © 2019 The Cochrane Collaboration. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

4

\* The **risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% Cl).

CCT: computerised cognitive training; CI: confidence interval; MD: mean difference; RR: risk ratio; SMD: standardised mean difference

GRADE Working Group grades of evidence.

High quality: further research is very unlikely to change our confidence in the estimate of effect.

Moderate quality: further research is likely to have an important impact on our confidence in the estimate of effect and may change the estimate.

Low quality: further research is very likely to have an important impact on our confidence in the estimate of effect and is likely to change the estimate.

Very low quality: we are very uncertain about the estimate.

<sup>*a*</sup>The direction of the difference in effect was standardised, so that lower values favour CCT and higher values favour control.

<sup>b</sup>Downgraded three levels for imprecision (confidence interval included effects that are not clinically relevant), inconsistency (high heterogeneity), and risk of bias.

<sup>c</sup>Downgraded two levels for imprecision (confidence interval included effects that are not clinically relevant) and risk of bias. <sup>d</sup>Downgraded four levels for imprecision (confidence interval included effects that are not clinically relevant), inconsistency (high heterogeneity), indirectness, and risk of bias.

# BACKGROUND

# **Description of the condition**

#### Mild cognitive impairment

Normal ageing is associated with decline in many core cognitive functions (Salthouse 2003). When cognition deteriorates beyond normal age-related change, but the ability to complete ordinary activities of daily function remains largely intact, the condition is described as mild cognitive impairment (MCI). In some people, MCI is an intermediate state on the pathway from normal cognition to dementia. When several cognitive domains are involved and function in daily activities has deteriorated significantly, the diagnosis is changed to that of dementia. However, there is no clear demarcation between normal cognition and mild cognitive impairment, or between mild cognitive impairment and dementia, and it is impossible to identify the specific points of conversion (Aisen 2011; Albert 2011).

One review identified 16 different classification and measurement approaches for MCI (Matthews 2008); there remains no standard definition of MCI accepted for use in clinical trials (Stephan 2013). The National Institute on Aging (NIA)-Alzheimer's Association published criteria for MCI in 2011 (Albert 2011), but the criteria suggested earlier by Petersen are still commonly used in clinical research (Petersen 1999). Clinical subtypes have been introduced based on the presence or absence of a primary memory impairment (amnestic or non-amnestic MCI), and on the number of cognitive domains affected (single domain or multiple domains) (Petersen 2009; Winblad 2004). Further subdivisions can be made depending on the suspected underlying cause of cognitive deficits, for example, MCI due to Alzheimer's disease (MCI-AD) and MCI due to vascular disease (also termed 'vascular cognitive impairment no dementia' (VCIND)). The term 'mild neurocognitive disorder' is broadly synonymous with MCI.

The prevalence of MCI is more than double than that of dementia (Petersen 2009). A recent review suggests a prevalence of MCI of 6.7% in those aged 60 to 64 years, increasing to 25.2% among those aged 80 to 84 (Petersen 2018). However prevalence rates vary depending on the diagnostic criteria used. When 18 different definitions of MCI were mapped, prevalence estimates were found to range from 0.1% to 42%, and 'conversion' rates to dementia were found to be generally low (Stephan 2007). Prevalence and conversion rates in specialist settings are higher than those observed in population-based studies, with the adjusted annual conversion rate from MCI to dementia of 9.6% in specialist settings compared to 4.9% in the general population (Mitchell 2009). A large number of individuals with a diagnosis of MCI do not go on to develop dementia, and between 14% and 40% revert to normal cognitive function for their age (Koepsell 2012). Mild cognitive

difficulties in themselves have functional and psychological ramifications for quality of life (Mitchell 2009).

# Dementia

Dementia is usually a progressive syndrome of cognitive and functional decline. Although most commonly associated with 'forgetfulness', dementia, by definition, involves impairments in more than one cognitive domain, and impairments in language, executive function, complex attention, and social cognition are commonly identified. As the syndrome progresses, those affected become increasingly dependent on care from others for all activities of daily living (e.g. feeding, bathing, taking medication). Dementia is one of the principal causes of disease, disability, and decreased quality of life among older adults and is now identified as one of the biggest global health challenges. It may affect up to 135 million adults worldwide by 2050 (Prince 2013). The global economic cost of care for people with dementia is currently estimated at \$315 billion (Wimo 2010).

Dementia is sometimes referred to as a neurocognitive disorder, as in the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, 5th Edition (DSM-V; APA 2013); the two terms may be used interchangeably. Subtypes of dementia are distinguished by the underlying brain pathology. The four most common subtypes of dementia include:

• dementia due to Alzheimer's disease (AD), which accounts for an estimated 60% to 70% of all dementia cases;

- vascular dementia (VaD);
- dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB); and
- frontotemporal dementia (FTD).

Accurate diagnosis of subtypes can be difficult, especially when the clinical disease is severe. Mixed pathology is commonly reported, with more than 80% of cases having some features of AD (Jellinger 2006; WHO 2012).

Alzheimer's disease (AD), the most common cause of dementia, is now known to have a long prodromal period. In those with AD, MCI - the symptomatic pre-dementia phase - offers an opportunity to introduce interventions that may prevent or postpone the onset of clinical dementia (Leifer 2003). Delaying progression from MCI to dementia would lead to a reduction in the incidence of dementia, with a significant reduction in associated costs to society and improved quality of life for individuals. Postponement of dementia onset by five years may reduce prevalence by 50% (Brookmeyer 1998). No drugs are currently available that can reduce the risk of progression from MCI to dementia (Russ 2012). As a result, investigations are focusing on non-pharmacological interventions that may delay clinical progression (Acevedo 2007; Dresler 2013).

# Risk and protective factors for MCI and dementia

Age is the strongest risk factor for dementia. However, research has identified several additional risk and protective factors linked with

late-onset dementia in general and with AD in particular (World Alzheimer Report 2014). The World Health Organization 2017 Dementia Action Plan reports that reducing such risks is a major health objective to reduce disability (who.int/mental\_health/neurology/dementia/action\_plan\_2017\_2025/en/). Epidemiological evidence suggests that AD shares many risk factors with vascular dementia; these include cerebrovascular disease, type 2 diabetes, midlife obesity, midlife hypertension, smoking, and physical inactivity (Pendlebury 2009; WHO 2012; World Alzheimer Report 2014). It has recently been suggested that, after non-independence between risk factors is accounted for, around a third of AD cases worldwide might be attributable to potentially modifiable risk factors (Norton 2014), including alcohol intake, depression, diet, physical exercise, education, and mental activity (Barnes 2011; de Bruijn 2013; Diniz 2013; Erickson 2011; Jorm 2001). Lifestyle factors could increase or decrease risk of dementia (Amoyal 2012; Karp 2006).

Mental activity has been identified as a potentially important protective factor. Epidemiological studies indicate that lifelong cognitively stimulating experiences, including education and occupation and leisure activities, are linked to improved late-life cognition, reduced risk of cognitive decline, and lower incidence of AD (Barnes 2011; Marioni 2014; Verghese 2003; Wilson 2002). Lack of education has been identified in meta-analyses as a particularly strong predictor of dementia (Beydoun 2014). However, prospective studies indicate that even when mental activity is commenced late in life, it may have positive effects on cognition, with lowered rates of decline and lowered dementia incidence reported (Geda 2012; Wilson 2010; Wilson 2012). Cognitively stimulating activity may therefore offer an opportunity to maintain cognitive function, or to prevent or delay further deterioration, among those in early stages of cognitive decline.

# **Description of the intervention**

This review focuses on randomised controlled trials (RCTs) investigating the effects of computerised cognitive training (CCT) interventions for maintenance of cognition and prevention of dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment. 'Cognitive training' has been operationally defined as an intervention consisting of repeated practice on standardised cognitive exercises targeting specific cognitive domains for the purpose of stimulating cognitive function (Gates 2010; Gates 2014; Kueider 2012). Although cognitive training may include traditional pen and paper tasks, it more commonly takes the form of computer-based tasks, including exercises, games, and virtual reality. Computerised cognitive training may be delivered in individual sessions or within groups, with supervision or privately at home.

#### How the intervention might work

The underlying premise of cognitive training is that intensive cognitive exercises may build up or restore brain and cognitive reserve, providing greater resilience against neuropathology and maintaining function (Liberati 2012). 'Brain reserve' refers to structural tolerance of the brain to disease and may be evident in increased brain volume; 'cognitive reserve' refers to functional differences in neural activity and cognitive processes (Sterne 2012). Up to 33% of individuals functioning independently without clinical dementia have the same volume of disease pathology as those with clinical dementia (Neuropathology Group 2001). The concept of reserve provides a theoretical explanation for the differences between those who succumb to AD pathology and develop clinical dementia, and those who tolerate the disease and maintain function (Sterne 2012). It has been further suggested that cognitive stimulation may result in neural plasticity and neural compensation, that is, in the development of compensatory networks maintaining cognitive performance and potentially masking or preventing the clinical manifestation of neurocognitive disease (Grady 2012; Park 2013).

Although the evidence base is very limited, some human trials of cognitive training have suggested positive neuroplastic changes. Diverse changes have been reported, including neurochemical activation (Olesen 2004; Rosen 2011), altered fluorodeoxyglucose uptake (Belleville 2012), and reduced  $\beta$ -amyloid burden (Landau 2012). Several diverse studies investigating neurophysiological changes seen on functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) have identified increased prefrontal and parietal activity and hippocampal activation (Olesen 2004; Rosen 2011; Suo 2012a; Valenzuela 2003). Electroencephalography (EEG) and magnetic resonance spectrometry (MRS) studies of cognitive training support the concept of functional neural plasticity post training, with results indicating positive changes in brain metabolism, task-dependent brain activation, and resting-state networks (Belleville 2012; Berry 2010; Förster 2011). However, the research is limited, and significant further investigation is required.

#### Why it is important to do this review

The potential of CCT to be an effective intervention to maintain cognitive function, or to reduce the risk of clinical dementia, along with its low implementation costs and its high availability and accessibility, has led to the American Alzheimer's Association recommending rapid development and testing of such training (Alzheimer's Association 2014). However, the evidence base to date has been inconclusive, with mixed results reported. Several prior reviews exist, but these include mixed populations and varied interventions, and they need to be updated (Bahar-Fuchs 2013; Martin 2011). Earlier reviews have been critical of clinical trials for poor specification of interventions, small sample sizes, failure to assign treatments randomly, and lack of longitudinal follow-up - all factors that may contribute to heterogeneous results (Gates 2010; Gates 2014; Kueider 2012; Mowszowski 2010;

Papp 2009; Reijnders 2013; Walton 2014). Additional methodological criticisms with an impact upon valid evaluation of cognitive training include lack of differentiation between interventions, lack of adequate control conditions to isolate intervention benefit, a limited number of trials with active controls, and limited outcome measures to determine generalisation to non-trained cognitive domains and persistence of benefits (Gates 2010; Green 2014; Mowszowski 2010; Park 2013; Walton 2014). Primary studies have identified that the benefits of cognitive training may depend upon several factors including age, cognitive level, and non-cognitive factors (Lampit 2014; Stine-Morrow 2014). Therefore a robust review is warranted to investigate the efficacy of computerised cognitive training for people with MCI on non-trained cognitive domains, and to evaluate potential sources of bias and heterogeneity in the literature. If sufficient trials are identified, then it is important to examine the intervention characteristics and other factors that may affect outcomes.

There has been a proliferation of commercial brain training products purporting to improve cognitive function and reduce dementia risk. For older people, fear of cognitive decline and dementia may be a powerful motivator to seek such preventive interventions. However the development of such programmes has frequently outpaced thorough research into product benefits (Gates 2014; Lampit 2015). The World Alzheimer Report 2014 has reported that cognitively stimulating activities, including reading, playing musical instruments, and playing cards and board games, may be beneficial for improving and maintaining while preventing decline in cognitive functioning, although most of these activities have not been investigated in clinical trials. In this context of confusing and potentially misleading claims, this review is important to provide potential consumers with information on how best to spend time, effort, and money they might invest to prevent cognitive decline.

As well as informing individuals, the findings of this review may be useful to public health decision-making bodies, healthcare practitioners, and researchers, providing them with a comprehensive synthesis of information about the current state of the evidence, and identifying research gaps and unanswered questions in the field.

We also refer readers to companion reviews on the effects of computerised cognitive training on healthy people at midlife and in late life (Gates 2019a; Gates 2019b).

# OBJECTIVES

To evaluate the effects of at least 12 weeks of computerised cognitive training (CCT) on maintaining or improving cognitive function and preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment.

# METHODS

### Criteria for considering studies for this review

# **Types of studies**

We included randomised controlled trials (RCTs) and quasi-RCTs, published or unpublished, reported in any language. Full reports and other types of reports, such as conference abstracts, were eligible for inclusion. We included studies involving both randomised and non-randomised trial arms but considered only results from the former. We included cross-over studies but extracted and analysed data from the first treatment period only.

# **Types of participants**

We included studies of people with a diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment (MCI) or mild neurocognitive disorder (MND), or from a population at high risk of cognitive decline.

We accepted diagnoses of MCI, MND, and risk of cognitive decline made by the authors of each clinical trial and recorded the definitions used. These could include diagnostic assessment and/ or subjective memory complaints with reduced scores on cognitive tests such as the Mini Mental State Examination. In all cases, an attempt should have been made by the trial authors to exclude dementia, and it was acceptable for the purpose of excluding dementia for a study to have used a cognitive score cut-off. Again, we accepted whatever cut-off study authors used, and we explored this as a possible source of heterogeneity.

We excluded studies of adults with a diagnosis of dementia, any other neurological condition, or psychiatric illness.

We contacted study authors if we needed clarification to determine health status. If we received no response, clinical experts in our review group classified the trials or listed them as 'Studies awaiting classification'.

# **Types of interventions**

We included studies that compared cognitive training interventions using interactive computerised technology versus active or inactive control interventions over at least 12 weeks.

Experimental interventions had to adhere to the following criteria: any form of interactive computerised cognitive intervention, including computer exercises, computer games, mobile devices, gaming console, and virtual reality, that involve repeated practice on standardised exercises including a specified cognitive domain or domains, for the purpose of enhancing cognitive function.

By 'active control', we mean all those control conditions that involve unguided computer- and/or screen-based tasks that are not planned as interventions. These tasks can involve watching educational videos or playing computer games with no particular training component. By 'inactive control', we refer to control groups

for which no intervention is applied that may be expected to have an effect on cognition.

The minimum treatment duration was set at 12 weeks, and all included trials had to report outcomes at a minimum of one time point 12 or more weeks after randomisation. To evaluate the effects of training on meaningful long-term outcomes, it was necessary to make a judgement about the minimum 'dose' of training that may be required to effect an enduring change. Previous research suggests that acute brain changes can be seen following eight weeks of training (Engvig 2014), but we are unable to find any evidence that such brain changes persist. Most studies examining the benefits of brain and cognitive reserve identify long-term cognitive stimulation from years of education. We therefore made an arbitrary judgement that at least 12 weeks of regular cognitive training would be required for intervention to have an enduring effect. Addtionally, this time frame is consistent with recommendations from reviews of clinical trials (Lampit 2014a). It is recognised that the relationship between short-term cognitive training effects and maintenance of cognitive function over longer periods of time is unclear.

We excluded interventions that did not involve any form of computer delivery. We also excluded studies where researchers combined the experimental intervention with any other form of intervention, unless the added intervention was provided in a standardised manner to both experimental and control groups.

# Types of outcome measures

#### **Primary outcomes**

Primary outcomes included the following.

• Incidence of all-cause dementia (measured as a dichotomous outcome).

• Global cognitive function (measured as a continuous outcome).

Global cognitive functioning could be measured using any validated tests, for example (but not limited to):

• Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale - Cognitive subscale (ADAS-Cog);

• Mini Mental State Examination (MMSE);

• Repeatable Battery for Assessment of Neuropsychological Status (RBANS); and

• Cambridge Cognition Examination (CAMCOG).

The main time point of interest was 'end of trial', defined as the time point with the longest period of follow-up from randomisation (see also section Data collection and analysis). We also extracted and presented outcome data reported at other time points after randomisation.

#### Secondary outcomes

Secondary outcomes included the following.

• Cognitive tests not included in the training programme, administered before and after training, that are any validated measure of:

- episodic memory;
- executive functioning;
- speed of processing;
- o attention/working memory; or
- verbal fluency.

• Quality of life/psychological well-being, either generic or disease-specific.

• Daily function, such as measures of instrumental activities of daily living.

• Number of participants experiencing one or more serious adverse events.

If a trial provided data on more than one cognitive scale for a specific outcome, we applied a predetermined hierarchy of cognitive outcome scales and used data on the cognitive scale that was highest on this hierarchy. For example, if a trial reported results on both the Mini Mental State Examination and the Clinical Dementia Rating scale (CDR), we used outcome data from the MMSE in our quantitative analyses. The order of a scale in the hierarchy was determined by the frequency of its use in a large set of 79 trials, evaluating vitamin and mineral supplementation, dietary interventions, and physical exercise interventions.

# Outcomes included in the 'Summary of findings' table

We addressed critical effectiveness outcomes in a 'Summary of findings' table for each comparison. We planned to include all outcomes related to cognitive function on non-trained tasks and quality of life. For the comparison CCT versus active control, we were able to include the following outcomes: (1) global cognitive functioning, (2) episodic memory, (3) speed of processing, (4) executive functioning, (5) working memory, (6) verbal fluency, and (7) quality of life. For the comparison CCT versus inactive control, we were able to include the following outcomes: (1) global cognitive functioning, (2) episodic memory, (3) executive functioning, (4) verbal fluency, (5) depression, and (6) functional performance.

# Search methods for identification of studies

# **Electronic searches**

We searched ALOIS ( www.medicine.ox.ac.uk/alois) - the specialised register of the Cochrane Dementia and Cognitive Improvement Group - up to 31 May 2018.

The Information Specialist for the CDCIG maintained ALOIS, which contains studies that fall within the areas of dementia prevention, dementia treatment and management, and cognitive en-

hancement in the healthy elderly populations. These studies are identified through:

• monthly searches of several major healthcare databases: MEDLINE, Embase, the Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature (CINAHL), PsycINFO, and Latin American Caribbean Health Sciences Literature (LILACS);

• monthly searches of several trial registers: the University hospital Medical Information Network Clinical Trials Registry ( Japan) (UMIN-CTR) (www.umin.ac.jp/ctr/index.htm); the World Health Organization (WHO) portal (which covers ClinicalTrials.gov (clinicaltrials.gov/); International Standard Randomized Controlled Trials Number (ISRCTN) ( www.isrctn.com/); the Chinese Clinical Trials Register ( ChiCTR) (who.int/ictrp/network/chictr/en/); the German Clinical Trials Register (GermanCTR) (who.int/ictrp/network/ drks2/en/); the Iranian Registry of Clinical Trials (IRCT) ( who.int/ictrp/network/irct2/en/); and the Netherlands National Trials Register (NTR) (who.int/ictrp/network/ntr/en/), plus others);

• quarterly searches of the Central Register of Controlled Trials, in the Cochrane Library (CENTRAL); and

• six-monthly searches of several grey literature sources: Institute for Scientific Information (ISI) Web of Knowledge Conference Proceedings; Index to Theses; Australasian Digital Theses.

To view a list of all sources searched for ALOIS, see About ALOIS on the ALOIS website ( www.medicine.ox.ac.uk/alois).

Details of the search strategies run in healthcare bibliographic databases, used for retrieval of reports of dementia, cognitive improvement, and cognitive enhancement trials, can be viewed in the 'Methods used in reviews' section within the editorial information about the Cochrane Dementia and Cognitive Improvement Group.

We conducted additional searches in MEDLINE, Embase, PsycINFO, CINAHL, ClinicalTrials.gov, and the WHO Portal/International Clinical Trials Registry Platform (ICTRP) ( www.apps.who.int/trialsearch), to ensure that the searches were as comprehensive and as up-to-date as possible. The search strategies used are shown in Appendix 1.

#### Searching other resources

We screened the reference lists of all included trials. In addition, we screened the reference lists of recent systematic reviews, health technology assessment reports, and subject-specific guidelines identified through www.guideline.gov. We restricted the search to those guidelines meeting National Guideline Clearinghouse (NGC) 2013 published inclusion criteria.

We contacted experts in the field and companies marketing included interventions to request additional randomised trial reports not identified by the search.

# Data collection and analysis

We used the protocol for this review alongside instructions for data extraction, quality assessment, and statistical analyses generated by the editorial board of CDCIG, and based in part on a generic protocol approved by the Cochrane Musculoskeletal Group for another series of reviews (da Costa 2012; da Costa 2014; Reichenbach 2010; Rutjes 2009a; Rutjes 2009b; Rutjes 2010).

#### Selection of studies

If multiple reports described the same trial, we included all of them to allow extraction of complete trial details.

We used crowdsourcing to screen the search results. Details of this approach have been described at www.medicine.ox.ac.uk/alois/ content/modifiable-risk-factors. In brief, teams of volunteers performed a 'first assess' on the search results. The crowd was recruited through the network called Students For Best Evidence ( www.students4bestevidence.net). The crowd provided an initial screen of the results using an online tool developed for the Cochrane EMBASE project, but tailored for this programme of work. The crowd decided (based on reading of title and abstract) whether the citation was describing a randomised trial or a quasi-randomised trial, irrespective of the citation topic. We then screened the remaining results (titles and abstracts). Four independent review authors (NG, EM, SK, RV) assessed the full text of studies for eligibility, with any disagreements resolved by a fifth independent review author.

We recorded the selection process in sufficient detail to complete a PRISMA flow diagram and Characteristics of excluded studies table (Moher 2009). We did not impose any language restrictions.

# Data extraction and management

Five review authors (NG, MN, SK, RV, AR), working independently, extracted trial information using a standardised and piloted extraction method, referring also to a guidance document, and resolving discrepancies by discussion, or by involvement of an independent review author. Where possible, we extracted the following information related to characteristics of participants, interventions, and study design.

# **Participant characteristics**

- Gender
- Age (range, median, mean)
- Education (level and years of education)
- Baseline cognitive function
- Cognitive diagnostic status
- Duration of cognitive symptoms
- Ethnicity
- Apo-E genotype
- Vascular risk factors (hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidaemia)

- Body mass index (BMI)
- Depression and stress
- Physical activity
- Work status

# Intervention characteristics

- Type and description of cognition-based intervention
- Type and description of the control condition

• Delivery mode (individualised, group intervention, supervision)

- Length of training sessions (intensity)
- Frequency of sessions per week (dose)
- Duration of treatment programme
- Presence of supervision
- Group or individual
- Any concomitant treatments

#### **Methodological characteristics**

• Trial design (individual or cluster randomisation; parallelgroup, factorial, or cross-over design)

- Number of participants
- Outcome measures used
- Duration of follow-up as measured from randomisation
- Duration of follow-up as measured from end of treatment
- Source of financial support
- Publication status

If outcome data were available at multiple time points within a given trial, we extracted data at 12 weeks, along with short-term (up to one year), medium-term (one to two years), and long-term results (more than two years). Within these time periods, we extracted the latest data reported by the study (e.g. if the study reports data at six months, nine months, and one year, we extracted only the one-year data, and we analysed these for the one-year (shortterm) time point). For dichotomous outcomes (such as number of participants experiencing one or more serious adverse events), we extracted from each trial the number of participants with each outcome at each time point. For continuous outcomes, we extracted the number of participants for whom the outcome was measured, as well as the mean and standard deviation (SD) of the change from baseline for each outcome at each time point. If change from baseline data were not available, we extracted the mean value at each time point. When necessary and possible, we approximated means and measures of dispersion from figures in the reports. For cross-over trials, we extracted data on the first treatment period only. Whenever possible, we extracted intention-to-treat data (i.e. analysing all participants according to the group randomisation); if this information was not available, we extracted and reported data from available case analyses. If none of these data were available, we considered data from per-protocol analyses. We contacted the trial authors if we could not obtain necessary data from the trial report.

# Assessment of risk of bias in included studies

After completion of a standardised training session provided by AR, one member of the review author team and one experienced review author provided by the editorial team independently assessed the risk of bias in each of the included trials, using Cochrane's 'Risk of bias' tool (Higgins 2011), and resolved disagreements by consensus. We assessed the risk of bias potentially introduced by suboptimal design choices with respect to sequence generation, concealment of allocation, blinding of participants and caregivers, blinded outcome assessment, selective outcome reporting, and incomplete outcome data, including the type of statistical analysis used (true intention-to-treat vs other). Based on the aforementioned criteria, we rated the studies as 'low risk', 'unclear risk', or 'high risk' of bias for each domain, including a description of the reasoning for our rating. The general definitions used are reported in the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions (Higgins 2011). We derived review-specific definitions in part from a previously published systematic review (Rutjes 2012), and we have explained them in detail in Appendix 2.

# Measures of treatment effect

The measure of treatment effect for continuous outcomes was an effect size (standardised mean difference), defined as the betweengroup difference in mean values divided by the pooled SD. In case a single trial contributed to a comparison, or if all studies used the same instrument, we used the mean difference to describe and analyse results. We expressed the treatment effect for dichotomous outcomes as a risk ratio (RR) with a 95% confidence interval (CI).

# Unit of analysis issues

We identified no cluster-randomised trials for inclusion. We included one cross-over study, but we extracted and analysed data from the first treatment period only.

# Dealing with missing data

Missing data in the individual trials may put study estimates of effects at high risk of bias and may lower the overall quality of evidence according to the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development, and Evaluation (GRADE) Working Group (www.gradeworkinggroup.org). We dealt with missing data in our 'Risk of bias' assessments and planned evaluation of attrition bias in stratified analyses of the primary outcomes (Appendix 2; Differences between protocol and review). We analysed available information and did not contact study authors with a request to provide missing information, nor did we impute missing data ourselves.

# Assessment of heterogeneity

We planned to examine between-trial heterogeneity in stratified analyses by trial, participant, and intervention. As the number

of trials identified was too small to permit meaningful analyses, we refrained from performing such analyses (Differences between protocol and review). We visually inspected forest plots for the presence of heterogeneity and calculated the variance estimate tau<sup>2</sup> as a measure of between-trial heterogeneity (DerSimonian 1986). We prespecified a tau<sup>2</sup> of 0.04 to represent low heterogeneity, 0.09 to represent moderate heterogeneity, and 0.16 to represent high heterogeneity between trials (Spiegelhalter 2004). In addition, we used the I<sup>2</sup> statistic and the corresponding Chi<sup>2</sup> test to assist readers more familiar with these statistics (Higgins 2011). I<sup>2</sup> describes the percentage of variation across trials attributable to heterogeneity rather than to chance, with values of 25%, 50%, and 75% interpreted as low, moderate, and high ( respectively) between-trial heterogeneity. We preferred tau2 over I2 in interpreting betweentrial heterogeneity, as interpretation of I<sup>2</sup> can be largely affected by the precision of trials included in the meta-analysis ( Rcker 2008). All P values are two-sided.

# Assessment of reporting biases

We did not identify enough trials to construct funnel plots to explore reporting biases and other biases related to small-study effects (Differences between protocol and review).

#### Data synthesis

We reported summary and descriptive statistics (means and SDs) for participant and intervention characteristics.

We used standard inverse-variance random-effects meta-analysis to combine outcome data across trials at end of trial (DerSimonian 1986), and, if possible, at least one additional time point (see Primary outcomes and Data collection and analysis for definitions of time points). We conducted statistical analyses in Review Manager 5 (RevMan 2014) and in STATA, release 14 (Statacorp, College Station, Texas, USA).

# **GRADE** and 'Summary of findings' tables

We used GRADE to describe the quality of the overall body of evidence for each outcome in the 'Summary of findings' tables (Guyatt 2008; Higgins 2011). We defined quality as the degree of confidence that we can place in the estimates of treatment benefits and harms. There were four possible ratings: high, moderate, low, and very low. Rating evidence as 'high quality' implies that we are confident in our estimate of the effect and further research is very unlikely to change this. A rating of 'very low' quality implies that we are very uncertain about the obtained summary estimate of the effect. The GRADE approach rates evidence from RCTs that do not have serious limitations as 'high quality'. However, several factors can lead to downgrading of the evidence to 'moderate', 'low', or 'very low'. The degree of downgrading is determined by the seriousness of these factors: study limitations (risk of bias); inconsistency; indirectness of evidence; imprecision; and publication bias (Guyatt 2008; Higgins 2011).

# Subgroup analysis and investigation of heterogeneity

We did not identify enough trials to conduct subgroup analyses.

#### Sensitivity analysis

For the primary outcome, we performed one sensitivity analysis, including only those trials that used an internationally accepted definition of MCI.

# RESULTS

# **Description of studies**

See Characteristics of included studies, Characteristics of excluded studies, Characteristics of studies awaiting classification, and Characteristics of ongoing studies.

#### **Results of the search**

We conducted searches in January 2015, July 2015, February 2016, July 2016, and May 2018. In total, we retrieved 8392 records through the five searches. After de-duplication, 6233 records remained. A crowd and the CDCIG Information Specialist assessed these records at the title and abstract level. In total, 1091 results remained after this assessment. We then screened these records. Of these, we assessed 321 full-text articles for eligibility, and we included eight studies in the review (Barnes 2013; Djabelkhir 2017; Fiatarone Singh 2014; Gooding 2016; Herrera 2012; Kwok 2013a; Optale 2010; Rozzini 2007). We have depicted this process in Figure 1.

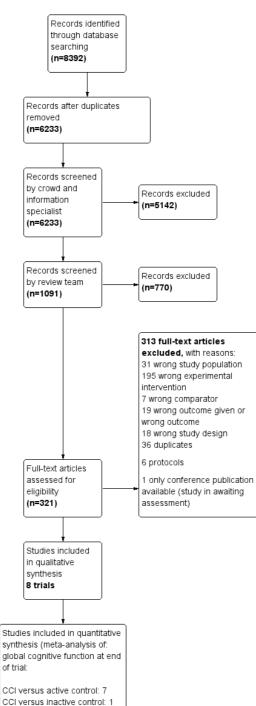


Figure I. Study flow diagram.

# **Included studies**

We have provided study details in the Characteristics of included studies section and have briefly summarised them below. We included in this review eight studies with a total of 660 participants.

#### Design

All studies are RCTs, with seven comparing CCT versus an active control and one versus an inactive control condition.

Study durations were 12 weeks (Kwok 2013a), three months ( Barnes 2013; Djabelkhir 2017), four months (Gooding 2016), six months (Optale 2010), nine months (Herrera 2012), 12 months (Rozzini 2007), and 18 months (Fiatarone Singh 2014).

# Sample size

Barnes 2013 randomised 126 participants to four different treatment arms (including one control arm), each with 31 or 32 participants. Djabelkhir 2017 randomised 10 participants to the experimental arm and 10 to the control arm. Fiatarone Singh 2014 randomised 51 participants to the experimental arms and 49 to the control arms. Gooding 2016 randomised 96 participants to the three arms of interest (the number of participants randomised to each arm is not reported). Herrera 2012 randomised 11 participants to both intervention and control groups. Kwok 2013a was the largest trial, with 111 participants randomised to the experimental arm and 112 to the control arm. Optale 2010 randomised 18 participants to each of the intervention and control groups. Finally, Rozzini 2007 randomised 15 participants to the intervention group and 22 to the control group.

#### Setting

Barnes 2013 was conducted at a single centre in the USA. Djabelkhir 2017 was conducted at a single centre in France. Fiatarone Singh 2014 was conducted in Australia. Gooding 2016 was conducted at four different sites in the USA; Herrera 2012 at a single centre in France; Kwok 2013a at six community centres randomly chosen from three districts in Hong Kong; Optale 2010 at a single centre; and Rozzini 2007 at two centres in Italy.

# Participants

Four studies included participants with established MCI at baseline. Diagnostic criteria were consistent with Petersen criteria in Djabelkhir 2017, Herrera 2012 (Petersen 2004 criteria), Fiatarone Singh 2014 (Petersen 1999 criteria), and Rozzini 2007 (Petersen 2001 criteria). Optale 2010 included participants with a memory deficit defined by a corrected total score below 15.76 on the Verbal Story Recall (VSR) test. Barnes 2013, Gooding 2016, and Kwok 2013a included participants with self-reported or informant-reported cognitive complaints at baseline and satisfied our inclusion criteria, as participants had reduced scores on standardised dementia screening tests.

The mean age of participants in experimental and control groups ranged from 70 to 82 years. Rozzini 2007 gave an age range for participants (63 to 78 years), and Gooding 2016 gave only the median age for those who completed the study (76 years).

#### Interventions

Barnes 2013 used a 2 × 2 factorial design by which all participants received computerised training (Posit Science software) (MA-I) or active mental control educational videos (MA-C), along with an exercise regimen (EX-I) or a sham exercise regimen (EX-C) (Barnes 2013). We have included this study in comparison 1: computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control. Djabelkhir 2017 treated the intervention group with a computerised multi-domain software programme (KODRO) and trained the control group to use a tablet PC and stiimulate social interactions among participants. We have included this study in comparison 1: computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control.

Fiatarone Singh 2014 used a  $2 \times 2$  factorial design involving cognitive training (CT) with Cogpack computer-based exercises or sham cognitive training (watching educational videos followed by a set of questions), as well as progressive resistance training (PRT) or sham PRT (stretching and seated callisthenics exercises). We included all participants receiving CT (Cogpack) in the experimental group and all participants receiving sham CT in the active control group. We included these data in comparison 1: computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control.

Gooding 2016 included three study arms. One arm received computerised cognitive training in the BrainFitness programme, another arm received the same BrainFitness programme and a motivational therapeutic milieu (not included in the analysis). The third arm played computer games. We have included this study in comparison 1: computerised cognition-based interventions (BrainFitness programme only) versus active control.

Kwok 2013a provided 12 weekly sessions of computerised training focused on attention, memory, and reasoning as the experimental intervention. The control group received a series of health-related educational lectures on prevention of mood disorder, heart disease, diabetes, and stroke. We have included this study in comparison 1: computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control. Herrera 2012 allocated the intervention group to computerised memory and attention task training programmed in Java, while the control group participated in activities such as finding names

of countries and corresponding capitals, organising a list of purchases by categories, and finding similarities and differences. We have included this study in comparison 1: computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control.

Optale 2010 provided virtual reality training as the experimental intervention and music therapy as the control intervention. We have included this study in comparison 1: computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control.

Rozzini 2007 included three study arms. One arm received CT through a computerised multi-domain software programme (TNP software) plus a cholinesterase inhibitor; another arm received a cholinesterase inhibitor only; and the third arm received neither CT nor cholinesterase inhibitor treatment (not included in the analysis). We have included data from the first two arms in comparison 2: computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control.

#### Outcomes

Here we describe outcome measures addressing outcomes of interest to our review that we included in one or more meta-analyses. We refer to the Characteristics of included studies table for other instruments reported by trial authors that we did not select for any meta-analyses. We have described under Types of outcome measures the method used to select outcome measures for inclusion.

# Primary outcomes

# Global cognitive function

Eight studies measured global cognitive function as an outcome. Four studies measured global cognitive functioning using the MMSE (Djabelkhir 2017; Optale 2010; Rozzini 2007; with the modified MMSE (mMMSE) used in Gooding 2016); Kwok 2013a used the Chinese equivalent of the Mattis Dementia Rating Scale; and Fiatarone Singh 2014 used ADAS-Cog.

Barnes 2013 used a composite score change at three months to measure global cognitive functioning. We could not include this outcome in the meta-analyses (see Effects of interventions).

#### Secondary outcomes

# Cognitive function subdomain: episodic memory

One study used the Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test (RAVLT) to measure episodic memory (Barnes 2013). Fiatarone Singh 2014 used the Wechsler Memory Scale (WMS) Logical Memory I (immediate) at 6 months and 18 months; Gooding 2016

used the WMS Logical Memory II (delayed). Optale 2010, and Rozzini 2007 used non-specified story recall. Herrera 2012, and Djabelkhir 2017 measured episodic memory using a list learning task: the 16-Item free recall (FR) and cued recall (CR) test (16-FR/CR test).

# Cognitive function subdomain: executive functioning

Two studies used Trails B to measure executive functioning (Barnes 2013; Djabelkhir 2017).

Fiatarone Singh 2014 measured executive function on the Similarities subtest of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-III (WAIS-III) at 6 and 18 months; Optale 2010 used dual task performance to measure executive functioning; and Rozzini 2007 measured executive functioning using Raven's coloured matrices.

# Cognitive function subdomain: speed of processing

Two studies used Trails A to measure speed of processing (Barnes 2013; Djabelkhir 2017).

Fiatarone Singh 2014 measured speed of processing using the Symbol Digit Modality Test (SDMT) at 6 months and 18 months.

# Cognitive function subdomain: verbal fluency

Several studies measured verbal fluency using letter verbal fluency (number of words generated beginning with specified letters), including Barnes 2013, which measured in one minute all the words the attendee could remember, words not stated, one attempt; Djabelkhir 2017, which measured in two minutes all the words the attendee could remember, starting with the letter P, attempts not stated; Fiatarone Singh 2014, which used the Controlled Oral Words Association Test,(COWAT); Optale 2010, which measured in one minute all the words the attendee could remember, starting with the letters C, P, and S, attempts not stated; and Rozzini 2007, which measured in one minute all the words the attendee could remember, words not stated, attempts not stated.

#### Cognitive function subdomain: working memory

Three studies used the digit span to measure working memory: Djabelkhir 2017 (WAIS, 4th edition), Herrera 2012 (not stated), and Optale 2010 (WAIS procedure).

# Quality of life/Psychological well-being

Two studies measured depression using the Geriatric Depression Scale (Optale 2010; Rozzini 2007): Djabelkhir 2017 measured

depression using the Goldberg Scale, and Gooding 2016 measured depression using the Beck Depression Inventory. Djabelkhir 2017 measured quality of life using the quality of life

scale for older French people.

# Functional performance

Only three studies measured this outcome: Fiatarone Singh 2014 and Rozzini 2007 measured daily function with the BAYER -Activities of Daily Living scale (B-ADL), and Optale 2010 used the Activities of Daily Living - Function scale.

# Number of participants experiencing one or more serious adverse events

Optale 2010 reported mortality at six months.

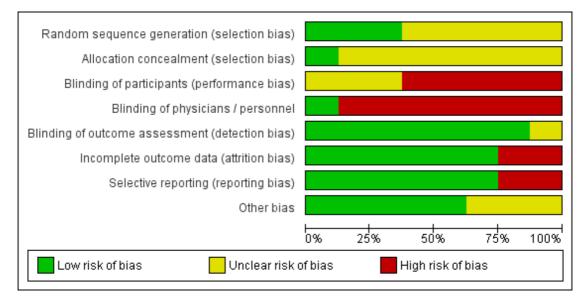
# **Excluded studies**

We excluded 312 full-text articles during the full-text screening. Of these, we excluded one because it focused on cognitively healthy people in midlife (Corbett 2015), and we excluded nine because they focused on cognitively healthy people in late life (Desjardins-Crépeau 2016; Klusmann 2010; Lampit 2014; Lampit 2015; Legault 2011; Leung 2015; Peretz 2011; Shatil 2013; Van het Reve 2014). Two other Cochrane reviews have included these 10 studies (Gates 2019a; Gates 2019b). We excluded 195 reports that investigated an intervention because it was provided for less than 12 weeks or because it did not involve computerised cognitive training; and we excluded 18 because the study did not use an eligible study design. We identified no ongoing trials in the trial registers or conference proceedings. One study is awaiting classification because, at the time of the final search, it was available only as a conference abstract from which eligibility could not be determined (not clear how cognitive training was delivered). Reasons for exclusion of studies can be found in the Characteristics of excluded studies table.

# **Risk of bias in included studies**

For details, please see Characteristics of included studies. Figure 2 and Figure 3 display study level and aggregate results of the risk of bias assessments.

# Figure 2. Risk of bias graph: review authors' judgements about each risk of bias item presented as percentages across all included studies.



	Random sequence generation (selection bias)	Allocation concealment (selection bias)	Blinding of participants (performance bias)	Blinding of physicians / personnel	Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias)	Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias)	Selective reporting (reporting bias)	Other bias
Barnes 2013	•	?	•	•	•	•	•	•
Djabelkhir 2017	•	?	?	•	•	•	•	•
Fiatarone Singh 2014	•	•	?	•	•	•	•	•
Gooding 2016	?	?	•	•	?	•	•	•
Herrera 2012	?	?	?	•	•	•	•	?
Kwok 2013a	?	?	•	•	•	•	•	•
Optale 2010	?	?	•	•	•	•	•	?
Rozzini 2007	?	?	•	•	•	•	•	?

Figure 3. Risk of bias summary: review authors' judgements about each risk of bias item for each included study.

# Allocation

One study has low risk of selection bias due to adequate random sequence generation and allocation concealment (Fiatarone Singh 2014). Two studies have unclear risk of selection bias because allocation concealment was not described in sufficient detail, although the study authors described an adequate method for generating a random sequence (Barnes 2013; Djabelkhir 2017). The remaining studies did not describe any method for sequence generation nor allocation concealment (Gooding 2016; Herrera 2012; Kwok 2013a; Optale 2010; Rozzini 2007); we also judged these studies to be at unclear risk of selection bias.

# Blinding

We considered Barnes 2013 to have high risk of performance bias because participants were not blinded to the type of intervention. However, both study personnel and outcome assessors were adequately blinded to the study treatment; therefore we judged the risk of detection bias to be low. We judged Fiatarone Singh 2014, Djabelkhir 2017, and Herrera 2012 to have unclear risk of performance bias for participants and high risk of performance bias for personnel, who were not blinded. However, study authors described adequate blinding of outcome assessors, giving these studies low risk of detection bias. We considered Kwok 2013a, Optale 2010, and Rozzini 2007 to be at high risk of performance bias due to lack of blinding for participants and personnel, but at low risk of detection bias as outcome assessors were adequately blinded. Gooding 2016 did not blind participants nor physicians (high risk of performance bias), and we identified unclear risk of detection bias due to lack of information regarding blinding of outcome assessors.

# Incomplete outcome data

We considered six studies to be at low risk of attrition bias (Barnes 2013; Djabelkhir 2017; Fiatarone Singh 2014; Herrera 2012; Kwok 2013a; Rozzini 2007). We judged risk of attrition bias to be high in Gooding 2016 because 77% of randomised participants were analysed. In Optale 2010, 83% of participants randomised to the intervention arm and 89% randomised to the control arm were analysed; we judged this to put the study at high risk of attrition bias.

# Selective reporting

We considered six studies to be at low risk of reporting bias (Barnes 2013; Djabelkhir 2017; Fiatarone Singh 2014; Gooding 2016;

Herrera 2012; Rozzini 2007). We judged the remaining two studies to be at high risk of reporting bias. Optale 2010 did not report one outcome that was described as measured and Kwok 2013a incompletely reported outcome data described as non-significant.

### Other potential sources of bias

We identified no other sources of bias.

# **Effects of interventions**

See: Summary of findings for the main comparison; Summary of findings 2

# Comparison I: computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

See Summary of findings for the main comparison for the comparison CCT versus active control. Although Barnes 2013 reported eligible outcome data for all cognitive outcomes, we could not include these data in our meta-analyses because the data were reported as standardised mean changes (z-scores). Therefore, we report these results separately.

#### **Primary outcomes**

# Incidence of dementia

We found no data on the incidence of dementia.

# Global cognitive function

Evidence on global cognitive function at end of trial (Analysis 1.1; Figure 4) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, inconsistency, and risk of bias. Therefore we are very uncertain of this result. Negative values favour the CCT group. Analysis of global cognitive function at end of follow-up gives a standardised mean difference (SMD) of -0.53 (95% confidence interval (CI) -1.06 to -0.01; 5 studies; 407 participants). Results at individual time points are as follows: immediate time point (12 weeks) SMD -0.31 (95% CI -0.70 to 0.08; 4 studies; 356 participants); shortterm time point (12 weeks to one year) SMD -1.23 (95% CI -1.89 to -0.56; 2 studies; 82 participants); and medium-term time point (one to two years) SMD 0.16 (95% CI -0.23 to 0.55; 1 study; 100 participants).

# Figure 4. Forest plot of comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, outcome: I.I Global cognitive function.

			Favours CCT			Std. Mean Difference	Std. Mean Difference
Study or Subgroup	Std. Mean Difference	SE	Total	Total	Weight	IV, Random, 95% Cl	IV, Random, 95% Cl
1.1.1 End of trial							
Djabelkhir 2017		0.466	9	10	14.9%		
Fiatarone Singh 2014	0.163	0.2	51	49	23.5%		
Gooding 2016	-0.941		31	20	20.1%		
<wok 2013a<="" td=""><td>-0.207</td><td>0.14</td><td>103</td><td>103</td><td>25.2%</td><td></td><td></td></wok>	-0.207	0.14	103	103	25.2%		
Optale 2010	-1.633	0.419	15	16	16.3%		
Subtotal (95% CI)			209	198	100.0%	-0.53 [-1.06, -0.01]	
Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0 Test for overall effect: Z	.26; Chi <sup>2</sup> = 20.51, df = 4 ( = 2.00 (P = 0.05)	P = 0.0	004); I² = 80%				
1.1.2 Immediate time p	oint (12 weeks)						
Djabelkhir 2017	-0.44	0.466	9	10	13.2%	-0.44 [-1.35, 0.47]	• • •
Fiatarone Singh 2014	0.04	0.2	51	49	31.8%	0.04 [-0.35, 0.43]	
Kwok 2013a	-0.207	0.14	103	103	38.1%	-0.21 [-0.48, 0.07]	
Optale 2010	-1.113	0.388	15	16	16.9%		
Subtotal (95% CI)			178	178	100.0%	-0.31 [-0.70, 0.08]	
Test for overall effect: Z	. ,	= 0.07)	; I² = 58%				
1.1.3 Short time point (							_
Gooding 2016	-0.941		31	20	58.8%		
Optale 2010	-1.633	0.419	15	16	41.2%		
Subtotal (95% CI)			46	36	100.0%	-1.23 [-1.89, -0.56]	
Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0 Test for overall effect: Z	.11; Chi <sup>2</sup> = 1.80, df = 1 (F = 3.60 (P = 0.0003)	= 0.18)	; I² = 44%				
1.1.4 Medium time poir	it (1 year to 2 years)						
Fiatarone Singh 2014	0.163	0.2	51	49	100.0%		
Subtotal (95% CI)			51	49	100.0%	0.16 [-0.23, 0.55]	
Heterogeneity: Not appl	licable						
Test for overall effect: Z	= 0.81 (P = 0.42)						
							-0.5 -0.25 0 0.25 0.5
							-0.5 -0.25 0 0.25 0.5 Favours CCT Favours active control
Fest for subaroup differ	ences: Chi <sup>2</sup> = 13.52. df =	3 (P = I	0.004). <b>P</b> = 77.8	3%			

Test for subgroup differences; Chi<sup>2</sup> = 13,52, df = 3 (P = 0.004), l<sup>2</sup> = 77.8%

# Trial with outcome data not included in the meta-analyses

Barnes 2013 derived a composite score from six distinct cognitive instruments at three months. Higher values indicated improvement. Study authors reported there were no significant differences between groups (P from interaction = 0.26). In the comparison between groups also receiving sham exercise, the mean change in z-score was 0.17 in the CCT group (95% CI 0.03 to 0.31) and 0.16 in the educational DVD group (95% CI 0.05 to 0.26). In the comparison between groups also receiving aerobic exercise, the mean z-score change was 0.22 in the CCT group (95% CI 0.12 to 0.33) and 0.08 in the educational DVD control group (95% CI -0.004 to 0.17). Overall we deemed the quality of this evidence to be very low (downgraded for imprecision, indirectness of the study population, and risk of bias).

# Sensitivity analyses

We conducted a prespecified sensitivity analysis including only trials in which MCI was diagnosed on the basis of internationally accepted diagnostic criteria. Two studies with 119 participants contributed to this analysis (Djabelkhir 2017; Fiatarone Singh

2014). At our main time point of interest - end of trial - we found no clear evidence of an effect of training: SMD 0.01 (95% CI -0.51 to 0.52; Tau<sup>2</sup> = 0.05; I<sup>2</sup> = 29%). We considered this to be lowquality evidence (downgraded for imprecision and risk of bias).

#### Secondary outcomes

# Cognitive subdomain: episodic memory

Evidence regarding episodic memory at end of trial (Analysis 1.2; Figure 5) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, inconsistency, and risk of bias. Therefore we are very uncertain about this result. Negative values favour the CCT group. Analysis at end of follow-up gives an SMD of -0.79 (95% CI -1.54 to -0.04; 5 studies; 223 participants). Results at individual time points are as follows: immediate time point (12 weeks) SMD -0.99 (95% CI -1.80 to -0.19; 4 studies; 172 participants); short-term time point (12 weeks to one year) SMD -1.39 (95% CI -2.35 to -0.44; 3 studies; 104 participants); and medium-term time point (one to two years) SMD 0.02 (95% CI -0.37 to 0.41; 1 study; 100 participants).

# Figure 5. Forest plot of comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, outcome: 1.2 Episodic memory.

				Active control		Std. Mean Difference	Std. Mean Difference
	Std. Mean Difference	SE	Total	Total	Weight	IV, Random, 95% Cl	IV, Random, 95% Cl
1.2.1 End of trial							
Optale 2010	-2.513		15	16	17.8%	-2.51 [-3.47, -1.56]	
Herrera 2012	-0.852		11	11	18.7%	-0.85 [-1.73, 0.02]	• • •
Djabelkhir 2017	-0.556		9	10	18.2%	-0.56 [-1.48, 0.36]	
Gooding 2016	-0.396	0.29	31	20	21.9%	-0.40 [-0.96, 0.17]	
Fiatarone Singh 2014	0.018	0.2	51	49	23.4%	0.02 [-0.37, 0.41]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			117	106	100.0%	-0.79 [-1.54, -0.04]	
Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.5		P < 0.01	001); I²∶	= 83%			
Test for overall effect: Z =	2.06 (P = 0.04)						
1.2.2 Immediate time poi	int (12 weeks)						
Herrera 2012	-1.719	0.506	11	11	21.9%	-1.72 [-2.71, -0.73]	<b>▶</b>
Optale 2010	-1.658	0.42	15	16	24.5%	-1.66 [-2.48, -0.83]	•
Djabelkhir 2017	-0.556	0.469	9	10	23.0%	-0.56 [-1.48, 0.36]	
Fiatarone Singh 2014	-0.271	0.201	51	49	30.6%	-0.27 [-0.66, 0.12]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			86	86	100.0%	-0.99 [-1.80, -0.19]	
Heterogeneity: Tau <sup>2</sup> = 0.5	1; Chi <sup>2</sup> = 13.82, df = 3 (	P = 0.0	03); I² =	78%			
Test for overall effect: Z =	2.43 (P = 0.02)						
1.2.3 Short time point (12	2 weeks to 1 year)						
Optale 2010	-2.513	0.488	15	16	30.4%	-2.51 [-3.47, -1.56]	←
Gooding 2016	-0.941	0.302	31	20	37.5%	-0.94 [-1.53, -0.35]	<b>_</b>
Herrera 2012	-0.852	0.447	11	11	32.0%	-0.85 [-1.73, 0.02]	← ■ → → → → → → → → → → → → → → → → → →
Subtotal (95% CI)			57	47	100.0%	-1.39 [-2.35, -0.44]	
Heterogeneity: Tau <sup>z</sup> = 0.5 Test for overall effect: Z =		= 0.01)	; I <b>²</b> = 77	%			
1.2.4 Medium time point	(1 year to 2 years)						
Fiatarone Singh 2014	0.018	0.2	51	10	100.0%	0.02 [-0.37, 0.41]	
Subtotal (95% CI)	0.010	0.2	51		100.0%	0.02 [-0.37, 0.41]	
Heterogeneity: Not applic	ahle		۰.				
Test for overall effect: Z =							
restion overall ellect. Z -	0.00 (1 = 0.00)						
							-1 -0.5 0 0.5 1
							Favours CCT Favours active control

Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 11.65$ , df = 3 (P = 0.009),  $I^2 = 74.3\%$ 

#### Trial with outcome data not included in the meta-analyses

Barnes 2013 reported outcome data on verbal learning and memory (RAVLT), number of words learned, as standardised mean changes (z-scores) at three months. Higher values indicated improvement. Study authors reported no significant differences between groups (P from interaction = 0.38). In the comparison between groups receiving sham exercise, the mean change in z-score was 0.13 in the CCT group (95% CI -0.11 to 0.37) and 0.33 in the educational DVD group (95% CI 0.09 to 0.58). In the comparison between groups receiving aerobic exercise, the mean change in z-score was -0.04 in the CCT group (95% CI -0.42 to 0.33) and 0.14 in the educational DVD control group (95% CI -0.14 to 0.43). We judged the quality of this evidence to be very low (downgraded for imprecision, indirectness of the study population, and risk of bias).

# Cognitive subdomain: speed of processing

Evidence regarding speed of processing at end of trial (Analysis 1.3) was low quality, downgraded because of imprecision and risk of bias. Negative values favour the CCT group. Analysis at end

of follow-up gives an SMD of 0.20 (95% CI -0.16 to 0.56; 2 trials; 119 participants). This result is imprecise but indicates there may be little or no difference in the speed of processing between intervention and control groups. Results at individual time points are as follows: immediate time point (12 weeks) SMD 0.11 (95% CI -0.25 to 0.47; 2 studies; 119 participants) and medium-term time point (one to two years) SMD 0.14 (95% CI -0.25 to 0.53; 1 study; 100 participants).

#### Trial with outcome data not included in the meta-analyses

Barnes 2013 reported outcome data on Trail Making test part A as standardised mean changes (z-scores) at three months. Lower values indicated improvement. Study authors reported no significant differences between groups (P from interaction = 0.24). In the comparison between groups receiving sham exercise, the mean change in z-score was -0.03 in the CCT group (95% CI -0.50 to 0.44) and -0.36 in the educational DVD group (95% CI -0.58 to -0.15). In the comparison between groups receiving aerobic exercise, the mean change in z-score was -0.03 in the CCT group (95% CI -0.58 to -0.15). In the comparison between groups receiving aerobic exercise, the mean change in z-score was -0.36 in the CCT group (95% CI -0.63 to -0.08) and -0.12 in the educational DVD con-

trol group (95% CI -0.32 to 0.07). We judged the quality of this evidence to be very low (downgraded for imprecision, indirectness of the study population, and risk of bias).

# Cognitive subdomain: executive function

Evidence regarding executive function at end of trial (Analysis 1.4) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, inconsistency, and risk of bias. Therefore we are very uncertain about this result. Negative values favour the CCT group. Analysis at end of follow-up gives SMD -0.31 (95% CI -0.90 to 0.28; 3 studies; 150 participants). Results at individual time points are as follows: immediate time point (12 weeks) SMD -0.18 (95% CI - 0.50 to 0.14; 3 studies; 150 participants); short-term time point (12 weeks to one year) SMD -0.81 (95% CI -1.54 to -0.07; 1 study; 31 participants); and medium-term time point (one to two years) SMD 0.08 (95% CI -0.31 to 0.48; 1 study; 100 participants).

# Trial with outcome data not included in the meta-analyses

Barnes 2013 reported outcome data on Trail Making test part B as standardised mean changes (z-scores) at three months. Lower values indicated improvement. No differences between groups were found (P from interaction = 0.31). In the comparison between groups receiving sham exercise, the mean change in z-score was 0.13 in the CCT group (95% CI -0.21 to 0.48) and -0.22 in the educational DVD group (95% CI -0.45 to 0.002). In the comparison between groups receiving aerobic exercise, the mean change in z-score was -0.25 in the CCT group (95% CI -0.51 to 0.01) and -0.18 in the educational DVD control group (95% CI -0.49 to 0.13). We judged the quality of this evidence to be very low (downgraded for imprecision, indirectness of the study population, and risk of bias).

#### Cognitive subdomain: working memory

Evidence regarding working memory at end of trial (Analysis 1.5) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, inconsistency, indirectness, and risk of bias. Therefore we are very uncertain about this result. Negative values favour the CCT group. Analysis at end of follow-up gives SMD -0.88 (95% CI -1.73 to -0.03; 3 studies; 72 participants). Results at individual time points are as follows: immediate time point (12 weeks) SMD -0.66 (95% CI -1.26 to -0.06; 3 studies; 72 participants) and short-term time point (12 weeks to one year) SMD -1.29 (95% CI -1.88 to -0.69; 2 studies; 53 participants).

# Cognitive subdomain: verbal fluency

Evidence regarding verbal fluency at end of trial (Analysis 1.6) was low quality, downgraded because of imprecision and risk of bias. Negative values favour the CCT group. Analysis at end of

follow-up gives SMD -0.16 (95% CI -0.76 to 0.44; 3 studies; 150 participants). Results at individual time points are as follows: immediate time point (12 weeks) SMD -0.02 (95% CI -0.46 to 0.42; 3 studies; 150 participants), short-term time point (12 weeks to one year) SMD -0.78 (95% CI -1.51 to -0.04; 1 study; 31 participants), and medium-term time point (one to two years) SMD 0.17 (95% CI -0.22 to 0.57; 1 study; 100 participants).

#### Trial with outcome data not included in the meta-analyses

Barnes 2013 reported outcome data on verbal fluency - number of words, by letter, as standardised mean changes (z-scores) at three months. Higher values indicated improvement. Researchers found no differences between groups (P from interaction = 0.57). In the comparison between groups receiving sham exercise, the mean change in z-score was 0.24 in the CCT group (95% CI -0.11 to -0.58) and -0.05 in the educational DVD group (95% CI -0.33 to 0.24). In the comparison between groups receiving aerobic exercise, the mean change in z-score was 0.22 in the CCT group (95% CI -0.15 to 0.58) and 0.08 in the educational DVD control group (95% CI -0.21 to 0.37). We judged the quality of this evidence to be very low (downgraded for imprecision, indirectness of the study population, and risk of bias).

# Depression

Evidence regarding depression at end of trial (Analysis 1.7) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, indirectness, and risk of bias. Negative values favour CCT. Analysis at end of follow-up gives SMD of -0.77 (95% CI -2.07 to 0.52; 3 studies; 101 participants). Results at individual time points are as follows: immediate time point (12 weeks) SMD 0.22 (95% CI -0.68 to 1.13; 1 study; 19 participants) and short-term time point (12 weeks to one year) SMD -1.26 (95% CI -3.11 to 0.59; 2 studies; 82 participants).

# Functional performance

Evidence regarding functional performance (Analysis 1.8) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, indirectness, and risk of bias. Therefore we are very uncertain about this result. Negative values favour CCT. Analysis at end of follow-up gives SMD 0.09 (95% CI -0.51 to 0.70; 2 studies; 131 participants). Results at individual time points are as follows: immediate time point (12 weeks) SMD 0.33 (95% CI -0.02 to 0.67; 2 studies; 131 participants), short-term time point (12 weeks to one year) SMD -0.29 (95% CI -1.00 to 0.41; 1 study; 31 participants), and medium-term time point (one to two years) SMD 0.34 (95% CI -0.06 to 0.73; 1 study; 100 participants).

# Quality of life

Evidence regarding quality of life at end of trial (12 weeks) (Analysis 1.9) was low quality, downgraded because of imprecision and risk of bias. Negative values favour CCT. The mean difference (MD) was 0.40 (95% CI -1.85 to 2.65; 1 study; 19 participants). This result indicates that there may be little or no difference in quality of life between intervention and control groups.

#### Serious adverse events: mortality

Evidence regarding serious adverse events: mortality (Analysis 1.10) comes from a single study and was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision (double downgrading) and risk of bias (Optale 2010). At short-term follow-up (12 weeks to one year), the risk ratio (RR) was 0.50 (95% CI 0.05 to 5.04; 1 study; 36 participants).

# Comparison 2: computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control

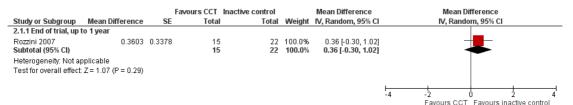
See Summary of findings 2 for the comparison CCT versus inactive control. This comparison included only one study (Rozzini 2007). No data on incidence of dementia were available.

#### **Primary outcomes**

#### Global cognitive function

Evidence on global cognitive function at end of trial (12 months) (Analysis 2.1; Figure 6) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, indirectness, and risk of bias. Therefore we are very uncertain about this result. The MD was 0.36, favouring the inactive control group (95% CI -0.30 to 1.02; 37 participants).

# Figure 6. Forest plot of comparison: 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, outcome: 2.1 Global cognitive function.



# Sensitivity analyses

As only a single trial contributed to the comparison, we performed no sensitivity analysis.

#### Secondary outcomes

#### Cognitive subdomain: episodic memory

Evidence regarding episodic memory at end of trial (12 months) (Analysis 2.2) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, indirectness, and risk of bias. Therefore we are very uncertain about this result. The MD was -2.70, favouring CCT (95% CI -5.00 to -0.40; 37 participants).

#### Cognitive subdomain: executive function

Evidence regarding executive function at end of trial (12 months) (Analysis 2.3) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, indirectness, and risk of bias. Therefore we are very uncertain about this result. Negative values favour the CCT group. Analysis at end of follow-up gives MD -2.70 (95% CI -6.21 to 0.81; 37 participants).

#### Cognitive subdomain: verbal fluency

Evidence regarding verbal fluency at end of trial (Analysis 2.4) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, indirectness, and risk of bias. Negative values favour the CCT group. Therefore we are very uncertain about this result. Analysis at end of follow-up gives MD 1.90 (95% CI -4.50 to 8.30; 37 participants).

# Depression

Evidence regarding depression at end of trial (Analysis 2.5) was
very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, indirectness,
and risk of bias. Therefore we are very uncertain about this result.

Negative values favour CCT. Analysis at end of follow-up gives MD -1.30 (95% CI -2.61 to 0.01; 37 participants).

# **Functional performance**

Evidence regarding functional performance (Analysis 2.6) was very low quality, downgraded because of imprecision, indirectness, and risk of bias. Therefore we are very uncertain about this result. Negative values favour CCT. Analysis at end of follow-up gives MD 0.00 (95% CI -0.48 to 0.48; 37 participants).

# ADDITIONAL SUMMARY OF FINDINGS [Explanation]

Computerised cognitive training compared with inactive control in people with mild cognitive impairment

Patient or population: patients with mild cognitive impairment

Settings: general population

Intervention: computerised cognitive training

Comparison: inactive control

Outcomes	Difference between CCT and con- trol (95% CI)*	No. of participants (studies)	Quality of the evidence (GRADE)	Comments							
Global cognitive functioning (measured at 12 months of fol- low-up)	MD 0.36 lower (0.30 lower to 1.02 higher)	37 participants (1 study)	⊕⊖⊖⊖ very low <sup>b</sup>	It is uncertain whether CCT main- tains global cognitive functioning bet- ter than inactive control							
Episodic memory (measured at 12 months of fol- low-up)	MD 2.70 lower (5.00 lower to 0.40 lower)	37 participants (1 study)	⊕⊖⊖⊖ very low <sup>b</sup>	It is uncertain whether CCT improves episodic memory compared to inac- tive control							
Executive function (measured at 12 months of follow-up)	MD 2.70 lower (6.21 lower to 0.81 higher)	37 participants (1 study)	⊕⊖⊖⊖ very low <sup>b</sup>	It is uncertain whether CCT improves executive function compared to inac- tive control							
Verbal fluency (measured at 12 months of follow-up)	MD 1.90 higher (4.50 lower to 8.30 higher)	37 participants (1 study)	⊕⊖⊖⊖ very low <sup>b</sup>	It is uncertain whether CCT improves verbal fluency compared to inactive control							
Depression (measured at 12 months of follow-up)	MD 1.30 lower (2.61 lower to 0.01 higher)	37 participants (1 study)	⊕⊖⊖⊖ very low <sup>b</sup>	It is uncertain whether CCT improves depression compared to inactive con- trol							
Functional performance (mea- sured at 12 months of follow-up)		37 participants (1 study)	⊕⊖⊖⊖ very low <sup>b</sup>	It is uncertain whether CCT improves functional performance compared to inactive control							

24

\* The **risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% Cl).

CCT: computerised cognitive training; CI: confidence interval; MD: mean difference; RR: risk ratio

GRADE Working Group grades of evidence.

High quality: further research is very unlikely to change our confidence in the estimate of effect.

Moderate quality: further research is likely to have an important impact on our confidence in the estimate of effect and may change the estimate.

Low quality: further research is very likely to have an important impact on our confidence in the estimate of effect and is likely to change the estimate.

Very low quality: we are very uncertain about the estimate.

<sup>a</sup>The direction of the difference in effect was standardised so that lower values favour CCT and higher values favour control <sup>b</sup>Downgraded 3 levels for imprecision (confidence interval included effects that are not clinically relevant), risk of bias, and indirectness (cholinesterase inhibitors were included in the comparison which is not an approved medication for MCI patients)

# DISCUSSION

# Summary of main results

This review examined the effects of computerised cognitive training (CCT), compared to active or inactive controls, on cognitive function in adults with mild cognitive impairment (MCI). Eight randomised controlled trials (RCTs) with a total of 660 participants were included. None of the studies reported on the incidence of dementia. All evidence was low or very low quality.

Seven trials compared CCT to a variety of active control interventions. Evidence was low quality (two outcomes) or very low quality (all other outcomes), and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) of the effect estimates were very wide, so we are very uncertain about all effect estimates. In our analyses, CCT appeared to improve performance on the primary outcome global cognition, and on secondary outcomes episodic memory and working memory, compared to active controls. However, these results are based on very low-quality evidence. We found no evidence for effects on the cognitive subdomains of speed of processing, verbal fluency, and executive function, nor on functional performance, quality of life, depression, and serious adverse events, although, again, a high level of uncertainty is associated with all these results.

One small study compared CCT versus an inactive control intervention. Evidence for all outcomes was very low quality, so we were very uncertain about all results. With this caveat, CCT was favoured for episodic memory and executive function, but researchers found no evidence of effects on global cognition (primary outcome) nor on any of the secondary outcomes.

# Overall completeness and applicability of evidence

The search was very broad including multiple data sources, all article forms, and publications in any language, so it is unlikely that relevant trials were missed. We searched for unpublished and ongoing data, but we had to rely on published data only to complete analyses. Although we did not detect publication bias, we could not formally assess this via funnel plot evaluations because of the small number of trials identified. Our objective was to measure treatment effects in participants with MCI at baseline, but we also included trials that sampled participants with cognitive deficits not meeting the MCI diagnosis (Barnes 2013; Optale 2010). We restricted inclusion to trials with a treatment duration of at least 12 weeks, and we excluded a significant number of trials with shorter periods of intervention. Although we think that a shorter treatment duration is less likely to result in treatment effects, our decision implies that our results may not be applicable to intervention programmes of shorter duration. An important limitation of this review is that we did not identify any trial with sufficiently long follow-up to measure effects on the incidence of all-cause dementia.

# Quality of the evidence

We restricted inclusion to RCTs that we deemed to use the most valid approach in measuring treatment effects related to this topic. We identified several limitations of the included studies, and we classified none as having low risk of bias. We judged that only one study described adequate methods of both randomisation and allocation concealment and hence had low risk of selection bias ( Fiatarone Singh 2014). We considered none of the included studies to have low risk of performance bias. Most studies had low risk of detection, attrition, and reporting bias.

Upon applying GRADE criteria, we considered the quality of evidence across outcomes to be very low or low, indicating that our confidence in the effect estimate is limited and, for most outcomes, very limited. Identified issues involving quality were due to imprecision, inconsistency, indirectness, and risk of bias.

# Potential biases in the review process

We adhered to high standards in conducting our review, with at least two review authors independently performing trial selection, data extraction, and quality assessment to minimise bias and transcription errors. Tools used for quality assessment of trials and the overall body of evidence are those advised by the Cochrane Collaboration and the GRADE Working Group. We faced an important challenge in this and in our other Cochrane reviews evaluating CCT: the use of multiple instruments to measure a specific cognitive outcome within and across trials. Whereas others may have preferred to consider a single preferred instrument for each cognitive domain, using the mean difference to combine outcome data across trials, we preferred to use a hierarchy to select outcome data from a single validated instrument, employing the standardised mean difference (SMD) to combine outcome data across trials. Both strategies have advantages and disadvantages. For example, with the first approach, most trials will not be considered in the meta-analyses, as studies reported large variation in the use of instruments. The advantage is that all outcome data can be easily interpreted on the natural scale. The advantage of using a hierarchy is that it allows for inclusion of all trials but makes interpretation of effect size (SMD) less intuitive. In addition, some claim that combining data derived from multiple instruments increases between-trial heterogeneity. However, empirical evidence that supports such a claim is lacking in the field of cognitive functioning. Yet another method is to consider all reported outcome data for a specific cognitive domain, and to combine outcome data from all instruments within a trial before pooling across trials. Although this method may be valid if individual patient data are available, we deem the risk of ecological fallacy to be high when only group means are available. For this reason, we did not use such an approach. Some trials reported outcome data as z-score changes, and even after we consulted several experienced statisticians, we were unable to transform these data to allow inclusion in the meta-

analyses. A future update of this review would benefit from clear author descriptions regarding the type of z-score used and access to data supplements where estimates with confidence intervals are provided on the natural scale for each instrument.

In summary, our review is limited by the quality of included trials and the diversity of instruments reported to measure outcomes.

# Agreements and disagreements with other studies or reviews

When we applied our rigorous quality assessment methods, we found only very low-quality evidence for any beneficial effects of CCT. Two recent reviews have reported some positive results. In a recent review - Hill 2016 - review authors found an overall positive effect on cognition across 17 MCI trials (Hedges' g = 0.35, 95% CI 0.20 to 0.51) and small to moderate effects for global cognition, attention, working memory, learning, memory, and psychosocial functioning, including depressive symptoms. In a meta-analysis, Chandler 2016 examined the effects of cognitive interventions on more general outcome measures in MCI, including activities of daily living, mood, and quality of life; review authors identified only six computerised cognitive intervention studies and found that researchers reported benefits for mood (depression, anxiety, and apathy) among participants given the intervention compared to those given controls.

However, overall, the literature remains mixed. In adults with MCI or preclinical and early dementia, the number of clinical trials remains rather limited and studies show considerable differences between trial interventions and study methods (Gates 2014). Although multiple reviews of cognitive interventions in MCI have reported significant immediate and longer-term benefits for cognitive function, they reported on different types of interventions such as CCT, along with cognitive stimulation and remediation, or they included mixed populations (e.g. Chandler 2016; Coyle 2014; Kurz 2009; Reijnders 2013; Simon 2012).

Subjective cognitive decline (SCD) is another cognitive category that includes healthy older adults who report concerns about a decline in cognitive function, although their performance on cognitive tests is within normal limits (Jessen 2014). Emerging evidence suggests that SCD may represent a preclinical phase of Alzheimer's disease. Therefore it is noteworthy that a recent meta-analyses of interventions in SCD showed benefits for cognitive outcomes following cognitive training, even compared to active controls (Smart 2017).

# AUTHORS' CONCLUSIONS

# Implications for practice

It is accepted that mild cognitive impairment (MCI) may represent a transitional state between normal aging and clinical dementia in some individuals; therefore it has been seen as an optimal period for intervention.

We were unable to draw any firm conclusions about the efficacy of computerised cognitive training (CCT) because of the quality of available evidence gathered for this review. However, our results suggest that CCT may have positive effects on global cognitive function, episodic memory, and working memory, when compared to involvement in other cognitively stimulating activities.

# Implications for research

Adults with MCI and subjective cognitive decline (SCD) may possibly benefit from CCT in terms of improved cognitive function. This intervention therefore warrants longer-term and largerscale trials of improved methodological quality to examine effects on cognition, conversion to dementia, daily functioning, mental well-being and quality of life.

Key methodological considerations for future studies relate to selection of outcome measures, duration of follow-up, and study design. First, greater attention must be paid to generalisation of benefits from trained tasks to other cognitive activities and daily function. For any programme of CCT to be useful, training must demonstrate transfer of benefits from trained to untrained tasks, and then generalisation to global function, real-world skills, daily function, and mental health. Selected outcomes should be sensitive to subtle, and possibly non-linear change; must have high reliability; are available in alternative forms or are psychometrically robust for repeated use; and are not affected by floor and ceiling effects.

Second, assessing the maintenance of any training gains is important. Studies with longer follow-up are needed to measure change immediately after the intervention ends and then over time.

Third, improved reporting of study methods should be a matter of priority because of the high proportion of unclear risks of bias. Studies should adhere to CONSORT, improve data management to reduce reporting of incomplete data, and develop methods to facilitate blinding of participants and personnel. Blinding of participants is especially important given the commercialisation of CCT, advertisement, and widespread community exposure; an active control comparison arm may partially address this potential bias.

In summary, high-quality longitudinal studies with appropriately selected outcome measures are required to determine whether CCT can contribute to maintaining cognitive function and preventing further cognitive decline and progression to clinical dementia in people with MCI.

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The review authors would like to thank the group's Information Specialist, Anna Noel-Storr, for drafting and running electronic searches and for co-ordinating the crowd effort. This review is part of a programme grant by which 11 other reviews were produced, using a protocol template (Abraham 2015; Al-Assaf 2015; Denton 2015; Forbes 2015; Forbes 2015a; Forbes 2015b; Gates 2019a; Gates 2019b; Harrison 2015; Siervo 2015; Tang 2015). All authors participating in this review also acted as authors in several other reviews. As a consequence, wording chosen in the methods section may be identical across reviews, and concepts discussed, and as a result reviews, may be similar.

We also thank the following members of the Cochrane Crowd, who made significant contributions to screening the search results: Michael J. Arnatt, Soumyadeep Bhaumik, María Paz Campos Pérez, C. Cartlidge, Daniel Casey, Mohamed Fawzy Abdelghafar, Cristi Francis, Pishoy Gouda, Dan Griffiths, Michael Haas, Shirley Hall, Jake Hartley, Michael Hull, Geanina Ilinoiu, Deborah Jackson, Sofia Jaramillo, Robert Kemp, Ivan Murrieta Alvarez, Shireen Rafeeq, Miriam Thiel, Jennifer Ware, and Hakan Yaman.

# REFERENCES

# References to studies included in this review

#### Barnes 2013 {published data only}

Barnes DE, Santos-Modesitt W, Poelke G, Kramer AF, Castro C, Middleton LE, et al. The Mental Activity and eXercise (MAX) trial: a randomized controlled trial to enhance cognitive function in older adults. *JAMA Internal Medicine* 2013;**173**(9):797–804.

# Djabelkhir 2017 {published data only}

Djabelkhir L, Wu YH, Vidal JS, Cristancho-Lacroix V, Marlats F, Lenoir H, et al. Computerized cognitive stimulation and engagement programs in older adults with mild cognitive impairment: comparing feasibility, acceptability, and cognitive and psychosocial effects. *Clinical Interventions in Aging* 2017;**12**:1967–75.

# Fiatarone Singh 2014 {published data only}

Fiatarone Singh MA, Gates N, Saigal N, Wilson GC, Meiklejohn J, Brodaty H, et al. The Study of Mental and Resistance Training (SMART) study-resistance training and/or cognitive training in mild cognitive impairment: a randomized, double-blind, double-sham controlled trial. *Journal of the American Medical Directors Association* 2014; **15**(12):873–80.

# Gooding 2016 {published data only}

Gooding AL, Choi J, Fiszdon JM, Wilkins K, Kirwin PD, van Dyck CH, et al. Comparing three methods of computerised cognitive training for older adults with subclinical cognitive decline. *Neuropsychological Rehabilitation* 2016;**26**(5-6):810–21.

# Herrera 2012 {published data only}

Herrera C, Chambon C, Michel BF, Paban V, Alescio-Lautier B. Positive effects of computer-based cognitive training in adults with mild cognitive impairment. *Neuropsychologia* 2012;**50**(8):1871–81.

#### Kwok 2013a {published data only}

Kwok TC, Bai X, Li JC, Ho FK, Lee TM. Effectiveness of cognitive training in Chinese older people with subjective cognitive complaints: a randomized placebo-controlled trial. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2013;**28** (2):208–15.

#### Optale 2010 {published data only}

Optale G, Urgesi C, Busato V, Marin S, Piron L, Priftis K, et al. Controlling memory impairment in elderly adults using virtual reality memory training: a randomized controlled pilot study. *Neurorehabilitation and Neural Repair* 2010;**24** (4):348–57.

# Rozzini 2007 {published data only}

Rozzini L, Costardi D, Chilovi BV, Franzoni S, Trabucchi M, Padovani A. Efficacy of cognitive rehabilitation in patients with mild cognitive impairment treated with cholinesterase inhibitors. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2007;**22**(4):356–60.

### References to studies excluded from this review

#### Adel 2013 {published data only}

Adel D, Boulanouar K, Chauveau N, Delrieu J, Voisin T, Vellas B, et al. Structural MRI and FDG-PET modifications induced by one year multidomain intervention in elderly. *Conference: 26th Annual Congress of the European Association of Nuclear Medicine 2013, EANM, Lyon, France,* 2013;Conference Start: 20131019 Conference End: 20131023:S208.

#### Alves 2014 {published data only}

Apóstolo JL, Cardoso DF, Rosa AI, Paúl C. The effect of cognitive stimulation on nursing home elders: a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship* 2014;**46**(3): 157–66.

#### Alves 2014a {published data only}

Alves J, Alves-Costa F, Magalhães R, Gonçalves OF, Sampaio A. Cognitive stimulation for Portuguese older adults with cognitive impairment: a randomized controlled trial of efficacy, comparative duration, feasibility, and experiential relevance. *American Journal of Alzheimer's Disease and Other Dementias* 2014;**29**(6):503–12.

#### Anderson 2014 {published data only}

Anderson S, White-Schwoch T, Choi HJ, Kraus N. Partial maintenance of auditory-based cognitive training benefits in older adults. *Neuropsychologia* 2014;**62**:286–96.

# Ann 2012 {published data only}

Ann B, Eva E, Siv S, Elisabeth A. Effects of working memory training on functioning in daily life. *Conference: 9th Annual* 

Conference of the Special Interest Group in Neuropsychological Rehabilitation of the World Federation for NeuroRehabilitation 2012, WFNR, Bergen, Norway, 2012;Conference Start: 20120702 Conference End: 20120703:182.

# Apostolo 2014 *{published data only}*

Apóstolo JL, Cardoso DF, Rosa AI, Paúl C. The effect of cognitive stimulation on nursing home elders: a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship* 2014;**46**(3): 157–66.

# Baglio 2011 {published data only}

Baglio F, Griffanti L, Preti MG, Lagana MM, Alberoni M, Critelli R, et al. Cognitive training in outpatients affected by mild cognitive impairment: a longitudinal study with fMRI. *Conference: 6th Sindem Meeting: Italian Association for the Study of Dementia linked to the Italian Neurological Society 2011, SIN, Milan, Italy,* 2011;**Conference Start:** 20110317 Conference End: 20110319:S47–8.

#### Ball 2002 {published data only}

Ball K, Berch DB, Helmers KF, Jobe JB, Leveck MD, Marsiske M, et al. Effects of cognitive training interventions with older adults: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA* 2002;**288**(18):2271–81.

# Ball 2002a {published data only}

Ball K, Berch DB, Helmers KF, Jobe JB, Leveck MD, Marsiske M, et al. Effects of cognitive training interventions with older adults - A randomized controlled trial. *JAMA* 2002;**288**(18):2271–81.

#### Ball 2006 {published data only}

Ball K, Unverzagt F, Rebok G, Morris J, Tennstedt SL, Marsiske M. ACTIVE: advanced cognitive training for independent and vital elderly. https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/ show/NCT00298558, 2006.

# Ball 2013 {published data only}

Ball KK, Ross LA, Roth DL, Edwards JD. Speed of processing training in the ACTIVE study: how much is needed and who benefits?. *Journal of Aging and Health* 2013;**25**(8):65S–84S.

# Ballesteros 2014 {published data only}

Ballesteros S, Prieto A, Mayas J, Toril P, Pita C, Ponce de León L, et al. Brain training with non-action video games enhances aspects of cognition in older adults: a randomized controlled trial. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2014;**6**:277.

#### Ballesteros 2014a {published data only}

Ballesteros S, Prieto A, Mayas J, Toril P, Pita C, Ponce de León L, et al. Brain training with non-action video games enhances aspects of cognition in older adults: a randomized controlled trial. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2014;**6**:277.

# Ballesteros 2015 {published data only}

Ballesteros S, Mayas J, Prieto A, Toril P, Pita C, Laura Pde L, et al. A randomized controlled trial of brain training with non-action video games in older adults: results of the 3-month follow-up. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2015;7: 45.

#### Ballesteros 2015a {published data only}

Ballesteros S, Prieto A, Mayas J, Toril P, Pita C, Ponce de León L, et al. Corrigendum: brain training with non-action video games enhances aspects of cognition in older adults: a randomized controlled trial. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2015;7:82.

#### Ballesteros 2017 {published data only}

Ballesteros S, Mayas J, Prieto A, Ruiz-Marquez E, Toril P, Reales JM. Effects of video game training on measures of selective attention and working memory in older adults: results from a randomized controlled trial. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2017;**9**:354.

# Bamidis 2015 {published data only}

Bamidis PD, Fissler P, Papageorgiou SG, Zilidou V, Konstantinidis EI, Billis AS, et al. Gains in cognition through combined cognitive and physical training: the role of training dosage and severity of neurocognitive disorder. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2015;7:152.

#### Baniqued 2014 {published data only}

Baniqued PL, Kranz MB, Voss MW, Lee H, Cosman JD, Severson J, et al. Cognitive training with casual video games: points to consider. *Frontiers in Psychology* 2014;4: 1010.

# Baniqued 2015 {published data only}

Baniqued PL, Allen CM, Kranz MB, Johnson K, Sipolins A, Dickens C, et al. Working memory, reasoning, and task switching training: transfer effects, limitations, and great expectations? *PLoS One* 2015;**10**(11):e0142169.

# Barban 2012 {published data only}

Barban F, Annicchiarico R, Perri R, Fadda L, Carlesimo GA, Pantelopoulos S, et al. Randomized clinical trial of a computer-based cognitive treatment for healthy elderly, clinical and preclinical Alzheimer's disease. the SOCIABLE project. *Conference: 7th Congresso Sindem: Italian Association for the Study of Dementia Linked to the Italian Neurological Society 2012, SIN, Naples, Italy,* 2012;Conference Start: 20120322 Conference End: 20120324:101.

# Barban 2016 {published data only}

Barban F, Annicchiarico R, Pantelopoulos S, Federici A, Perri R, Fadda L, et al. Protecting cognition from aging and Alzheimer's disease: a computerized cognitive training combined with reminiscence therapy. *International Journal* of Geriatric Psychiatry 2016;**31**(4):340–8.

#### Barbosa 2015 {published data only}

Barbosa AR, Guimaraes AV. Effects of exergames on cognitive performance and functional fitness in older adults: a pilot study. *Conference: 2015 Annual Scientific Meeting of the American Geriatrics Society National Harbor, MD, United States,* 2015;**Conference Start: 20150515 Conference End: 20150517**:S176.

#### Barcelos 2015 {published data only}

Barcelos N, Shah N, Cohen K, Hogan MJ, Mulkerrin E, Arciero PJ, et al. Aerobic and cognitive exercise (ACE) pilot study for older adults: executive function improves with cognitive challenge while exergaming. *Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society* 2015;**21**(10): 768–79.

### Barnes 2006 {published data only}

Barnes DE, Yaffe K, Belfor N, Jagust WJ, DeCarli C, Reed BR, et al. Computer-based cognitive training for mild cognitive impairment: results from a pilot randomized controlled trial. *Alzheimer Disease and Associated Disorders* 2006;**66**(5):A249.

### Barnes 2009 {published data only}

Barnes DE, Yaffe K, Belfor N, Jagust WJ, DeCarli C, Reed BR, et al. Computer-based cognitive training for mild cognitive impairment: results from a pilot randomized, controlled trial. *Alzheimer Disease and Associated Disorders* 2009;**23**(3):205–10.

# Basak 2016 {published data only}

Basak C, O'Connell MA. To switch or not to switch: role of cognitive control in working memory training in older adults. *Frontiers in Psychology* 2016;7:230.

# Beck 2013 {published data only}

Beck C, Fausett JK, Krukowski RA, Cornell CE, Prewitt TE, Lensing S, et al. A randomized trial of a communitybased cognitive intervention for obese senior adults. *Journal* of Aging and Health 2013;**25**(1):97–118.

# Belchior 2007 {published data only}

Belchior PD. Cognitive training with video games to improve driving skills and driving safety among older adults. *http://etd.fcla.edu/UF/UFE0021218/belchior* p.pdf. University of Florida, 2007:209.

# Belchior 2008 {published data only}

Belchior PD. Cognitive training with video games to improve driving skills and driving safety among older adults. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering.* (9-B). Vol. **68**, APA PsycNET, 2008.

# Belleville 2006 {published data only}

Belleville S, Gilbert B, Fontaine F, Gagnon L, Ménard E, Gauthier S. Improvement of episodic memory in persons with mild cognitive impairment and healthy older adults: evidence from a cognitive intervention program. *Dementia and Geriatric Cognitive Disorders* 2006;**22**(5-6):486–99.

#### Belleville 2014 {published data only}

Belleville S, Mellah S, de Boysson C, Demonet JF, Bier B. The pattern and loci of training-induced brain changes in healthy older adults are predicted by the nature of the intervention. *PLoS One* 2014;**9**(8):e102710.

# Berry 2010 {published data only}

Berry AS, Zanto TP, Clapp WC, Hardy JL, Delahunt PB, Mahncke HW, et al. The influence of perceptual training on working memory in older adults. *PLoS One* 2010;**5**(7): e11537.

#### Bier 2015 {published data only}

Bier N, Grenier S, Brodeur C, Gauthier S, Gilbert B, Hudon C, et al. Measuring the impact of cognitive and psychosocial interventions in persons with mild cognitive impairment with a randomized single-blind controlled trial: rationale and design of the MEMO plus study. *International Psychogeriatrics* 2015;**27**(3):511–25.

#### Binder 2016 {published data only}

Binder JC, Martin M, Zöllig J, Röcke C, Mérillat S, Eschen A, et al. Multi-domain training enhances attentional control. *Psychology and Aging* 2016;**31**(4):390–408.

#### Bittner 2013 {published data only}

Bittner DM, Bittner V, Hausmann J, Reinhold D, Machts J, Westphal S, et al. Training intervention improves memory in mild cognitive impairment and healthy controls, but plasma BDNF acts differentially. *Conference: International Conference "Aging and Cognition", IfADo 2013, Germany,* 2013;Conference Start: 20130425 Conference End: 20130427 Sponsor: Brain Products - Solutions for Neurophysiological Research, Dortmund Tourismus, DFG - Deutsche Forschungsgemeinsch:49–50.

# Borella 2010 {published data only}

Borella E, Carretti B, Riboldi F, De Beni R. Working memory training in older adults: evidence of transfer and maintenance effects. *Psychology and Aging* 2010;**25**(4): 767–78.

# Borella 2013 {published data only}

Borella E, Carretti B, Zanoni G, Zavagnin M, De Beni R. Working memory training in old age: an examination of transfer and maintenance effects. *Archives of Clinical Neuropsychology* 2013;**28**(4):331–47.

# Borella 2014 {published data only}

Borella E, Carretti B, Cantarella A, Riboldi F, Zavagnin M, De Beni R. Benefits of training visuospatial working memory in young-old and old-old. *Developmental Psychology* 2014;**50**(3):714–27.

#### Borella 2017 {published data only}

Borella E, Carretti B, Sciore R, Capotosto E, Taconnat L, Cornoldi C, et al. Training working memory in older adults: is there an advantage of using strategies?. *Psychology and Aging* 2017;**32**(2):178–91.

# Boripuntakul 2012 {published data only}

Boripuntakul S, Kothan S, Methapatara P, Munkhetvit P, Sungkarat S. Short-term effects of cognitive training program for individuals with amnestic mild cognitive impairment: a pilot study. *Physical & Occupational Therapy In Geriatrics* 2012;**30**(2):138–49.

# Borness 2013 {published data only}

Borness C, Proudfoot J, Crawford J, Valenzuela M. Putting brain training to the test in the workplace: a randomized, blinded, multisite, active-controlled trial. *PLoS ONE* 2013; **8**(3):e59982.

# Bottiroli 2009 {published data only}

Bottiroli S, Cavallini E. Can computer familiarity regulate the benefits of computer-based memory training in normal aging? A study with an Italian sample of older adults. Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition 2009; Vol. 16, issue 4:401–18.

# Bottiroli 2009a {published data only}

Bottiroli S, Cavallini E. Can computer familiarity regulate the benefits of computer-based memory training in normal

aging? A study with an Italian sample of older adults. *Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition* 2009;**16**(4):401–18.

# Bozoki 2013 {published data only}

Bozoki A, Radovanovic M, Winn B, Heeter C, Anthony JC. Effects of a computer-based cognitive exercise program on age-related cognitive decline. *Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics* 2013;**57**(1):1–7.

# Brehmer 2012 {published data only}

Brehmer Y, Westerberg H, Bäckman L. Working-memory training in younger and older adults: training gains, transfer, and maintenance. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 2012;6: 63.

# Brum 2013 {published data only}

Brum P, Yassuda M, Forlenza O. Memory training in healthy elderly and seniors with mild cognitive impairment: benefits on cognitive parameters. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2013, Boston, MA, United States,* 2013;Conference Start: 20130713 Conference End: 20130718:P493.

#### Buitenweg 2017 {published data only}

Buitenweg JI, van de Ven RM, Prinssen S, Murre JM, Ridderinkhof KR. Cognitive flexibility training: a largescale multimodal adaptive active-control intervention study in healthy older adults. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 2017;**11**:529.

### Buiza 2008 {published data only}

Buiza C, Etxeberria I, Galdona N, González MF, Arriola E, López de Munain A, et al. A randomized, two-year study of the efficacy of cognitive intervention on elderly people: the Donostia longitudinal study. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2008;**23**(1):85–94.

#### Bureš 2016 {published data only}

Bureš V, č ech P, Mikulecká J, Ponce D, Kuca K. The effect of cognitive training on the subjective perception of wellbeing in older adults. *PeerJ* 2016;4:e2785.

#### Buschert 2011 {published data only}

Buschert V, Giegling I, Merensky W, Jolk S, Teipel S, Hampel H, et al. Long-term effects of a multicomponent cognitive intervention in amnestic mild cognitive impairment (AMCI). *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2011, AAIC 11, Paris, France,* 2011;**Conference Start: 20110716 Conference End:** 20110721:S513–4.

# Buschert 2011a {published data only}

Buschert VC, Friese U, Teipel SJ, Schneider P, Merensky W, Rujescu D, et al. Effects of a newly developed cognitive intervention in amnestic mild cognitive impairment and mild alzheimer's disease: a pilot study. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2011;**25**(4):679–94.

#### Buschert 2012 {published data only}

Buschert VC, Giegling I, Teipel SJ, Jolk S, Hampel H, Rujescu D, et al. Long-term observation of a multicomponent cognitive intervention in mild cognitive impairment. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry* 2012;**73**(12): e1492–8.

#### Buschert 2012a {published data only}

Buschert VC, Giegling I, Teipel SJ, Jolk S, Hampel H, Rujescu D, et al. Long-term observation of a multicomponent cognitive intervention in mild cognitive impairment. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry* 2012;**73**(12): e1492–8.

#### Calkins 2011 {published data only}

Calkins AW, Deveney CM, Weitzman ML, Hearon BA, Siegle GJ, Otto MW. The effects of prior cognitive control task exposure on responses to emotional tasks in healthy participants. *Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy* 2011; **39**(2):205–20.

#### Cammarata 2011 {published data only}

Cammarata S, Novello C, Pollero V, Colucci M. Cognitive rehabilitation in patients with mild cognitive impairment. *Conference: 6th Sindem Meeting: Italian Association for the Study of Dementia linked to the Italian Neurological Society 2011, SIN, Milan, Italy,* 2011;Conference Start: 20110317 Conference End: 20110319:S50.

#### Cancela 2015 {published data only}

Cancela JM, Vila Suarez MH, Vasconcelos J, Lima A, Ayan C. Efficacy of brain gym training on the cognitive performance and fitness level of active older adults: a preliminary study. *Journal of Aging and Physical Activity* 2015;**23**(4):653–8.

# Candela 2015 {published data only}

Filippo C, Zucchetti G, Magistro D, Rabaglietti E. The effects of a physical activity program and a cognitive training program on the long-term memory and selective attention of older adults: a comparative study. *Activities, Adaptation & Aging* 2015;**39**(1):77–91.

# Cantarella 2017 {published data only}

Cantarella A, Borella E, Carretti B, Kliegel M, de Beni R. Benefits in tasks related to everyday life competences after a working memory training in older adults. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2017;**32**(1):86–93.

# Cao 2016 {published data only}

Cao W, Cao X, Hou C, Li T, Cheng Y, Jiang L, et al. Effects of cognitive training on resting-state functional connectivity of default mode, salience, and central executive networks. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2016;**8**:70.

#### Carretti 2013 {published data only}

Carretti B, Borella E, Fostinelli S, Zavagnin M. Benefits of training working memory in amnestic mild cognitive impairment: specific and transfer effects. International Psychogeriatrics 2013; Vol. 25, issue 4:617–26.

# Casutt 2014 {published data only}

Casutt G, Theill N, Martin M, Keller M, Jäncke L. The drive-wise project: driving simulator training increases real driving performance in healthy older drivers. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2014;**6**:85.

# Chapman 2015 {published data only}

Chapman SB, Aslan S, Spence JS, Hart JJ Jr, Bartz EK, Didehbani N, et al. Neural mechanisms of brain plasticity with complex cognitive training in healthy seniors. *Cerebral Cortex* 2015;**25**(2):396–405.

# Chapman 2016 {published data only}

Chapman SB, Aslan S, Spence JS, Keebler MW, DeFina LF, Didehbani N, et al. Distinct brain and behavioral benefits from cognitive vs. physical training: a randomized trial in aging adults. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 2016;**10**:338.

#### Chapman 2017 {published data only}

Chapman SB, Spence JS, Aslan S, Keebler MW. Enhancing innovation and underlying neural mechanisms via cognitive training in healthy older adults. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2017;**9**:314.

# Cheng 2012 {published data only}

Cheng Y, Wu W, Feng W, Wang J, Chen Y, Shen Y, et al. The effects of multi-domain versus single-domain cognitive training in non-demented older people: a randomized controlled trial.. *BMC Medicine* 2012;**10**:30.

# Cheng 2018 {published data only}

Cheng CP, Chiu-Wa Lam L, Cheng ST. The effects of integrated attention training for older Chinese adults with subjective cognitive complaints: a randomized controlled study. *Journal of Applied Gerontology* 2018;**37**(10): 1195–214.

#### Cho 2002 {published data only}

Cho BH, Ku J, Jang DP, Kim S, Lee YH, Kim IY, et al. The effect of virtual reality cognitive training for attention enhancement. *Cyberpsychology and Behavior* 2002;**5**(2): 129–37.

# Cleverley 2012 {published data only}

Cleverley M, Walker Z, Dannhauser T. Engaging patients at high risk of dementia in multimodal cognitive health promoting activities: the Thinkingfit study. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2012, Vancouver, BC, Canada,* 2012;**Conference Start: 20120714 Conference End: 20120719**:P220–1.

# Cohen-Mansfield 2014 {published data only}

Cohen-Mansfield J, Cohen R, Buettner L, Eyal N, Jakobovits H, Rebok G, et al. Interventions for older persons reporting memory difficulties: a randomized controlled pilot study. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2015;**30**(5):478–86.

# Cohen-Mansfield 2014a {published data only}

Cohen-Mansfield J, Cohen R, Buettner L, Eyal N, Jakobovits H, Rebok G, et al. Interventions for older persons reporting memory difficulties: a randomized controlled pilot study. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2015;**30**(5):478–86.

# Cohen-Mansfield 2015 {published data only}

Cohen-Mansfield J, Cohen R, Buettner L, Eyal N, Jakobovits H, Rebok G, et al. Interventions for older persons reporting memory difficulties: a randomized controlled pilot study. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2015;**30**(5):478–86.

# Cohen-Mansfield 2015a {published data only}

Cohen-Mansfield J, Cohen R, Buettner L, Eyal N, Jakobovits H, Rebok G, et al. Interventions for older persons reporting memory difficulties: a randomized controlled pilot study. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2015;**30**(5):478–86.

# Combourieu 2014 {published data only}

Combourieu L, Perrot A, Bloch F, Seux ML, Kemoun G. Effect of three different trainings on executive function and gait speed in MCI old adults. *Conference: 19th European Congress of Physical and Rehabilitation Medicine 2014, Marseilles, France,* 2014;**Conference Start: 20140526 Conference End: 20140531**:e138.

# Corbett 2015 {published data only}

Corbett A, Owen A, Hampshire A, Grahn J, Stenton R, Dajani S, et al. The effect of an online cognitive training package in healthy older adults: an online randomized controlled trial. *Journal of the American Medical Directors Association* 2015;**16**(11):990–7.

# Costa 2015 {published data only}

Costa NB, Aramaki F, Cecato J, Stella B, Araujo I, Aprahamian I, et al. Benefits of a computer-based cognitive training program for elderly subjects with mild Alzheimer's disease. *Conference: 17th IPA International Congress 2015, Berlin, Germany,* 2015;**Conference Start: 20151013 Conference End: 20151016**:S119.

# Danassi 2015 {published data only}

Danassi E. SOCIABLE: a surface computing platform empowering effective cognitive training for healthy and cognitively impaired elderly. *Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology* 2015;**821**:129–30.

# Dannhauser 2014 {published data only}

Dannhauser TM, Cleverley M, Whitfield TJ, Fletcher BC, Stevens T, Walker Z. A complex multimodal activity intervention to reduce the risk of dementia in mild cognitive impairment - ThinkingFit: pilot and feasibility study for a randomized controlled trial. *BMC Psychiatry* 2014;**14**:129.

# de Almondes 2017 {published data only}

de Almondes KM, Leonardo ME, Moreira AM. Effects of a cognitive training program and sleep hygiene for executive functions and sleep quality in healthy elderly. *Dementia & Neuropsychologia* 2017;**11**(1):69–78.

# de Macedo 2015 {published data only}

de Macedo LD, De Oliveira TC, Soares FC, Bento-Torres J, Bento-Torres NV, Anthony DC. Beneficial effects of multisensory and cognitive stimulation in institutionalized elderly: 12-month follow-up. *Clinical Interventions in Aging* 2015;**10**:1351–9.

#### Desjardins-Crépeau 2016 {published data only}

Desjardins-Crépeau L, Berryman N, Fraser SA, Vu TT, Kergoat MJ, Li KZ, et al. Effects of combined physical and cognitive training on fitness and neuropsychological outcomes in healthy older adults. *Clinical Interventions in Aging* 2016;**11**:1287–99.

#### De Vreese 1996 {published data only}

De Vreese LP, Neri M, Boiardi R, Ferrari P, Belloi L, Salvioli G. Memory training and drug therapy act differently on memory and metamemory functioning: evidence from a pilot study. *Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics* 1996;**23** (Suppl 5):9–22.

#### Diamond 2015 {published data only}

Diamond K, Mowszowski L, Cockayne N, Norrie L, Paradise M, Hermens DF, et al. Randomized controlled trial of a healthy brain ageing cognitive training program: effects on memory, mood, and sleep. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2015;44(4):1181–91.

# Dittmann-Kohli 1991 {published data only}

Dittmann-Kohli F, Lachman ME, Kliegl R, Baltes PB. Effects of cognitive training and testing on intellectual efficacy beliefs in elderly adults. *Journal of Gerontology* 1991;**46**(4):P162–4.

# Duncan 2009 {published data only}

Duncan NL, Greenaway MC. The memory support system for mild cognitive impairment: emotional impacts of a cognitive rehabilitation program. *Conference: 29th Annual Meeting of the National Academy of Neuropsychology 2009, New Orleans, LA, United States,* 2009;**Conference Start: 20091111 Conference End: 20091114**:438.

# Dwolatzky 2005 {published data only}

Dwolatzky T. The effect of computerized cognitive training on neuropsychological measures of cognitive function in the elderly. NCT00146263, 2005.

# Eckroth-Bucher 2009 {published data only}

Eckroth-Bucher M, Siberski J. Preserving cognition through an integrated cognitive stimulation and training program. *American Journal of Alzheimer's Disease and Other Dementias* 2009;**24**(3):234–45.

# Edwards 2005 {published data only}

Edwards JD, Wadley VG, Vance DE, Wood K, Roenker DL, Ball KK. The impact of speed of processing training on cognitive and everyday performance. *Aging and Mental Health* 2005;**9**(3):262–71.

# Edwards 2011 {published data only}

Edwards JD. Cognitive speed of processing training transfers to improved functional performance. *Conference: International Conference "Aging and Cognition" 2011, Dortmund, Germany,* 2011;Conference Start: 20101014 Conference End: 20101016:10.

#### Edwards 2015 {published data only}

Edwards JD, Valdés EG, Peronto C, Castora-Binkley M, Alwerdt J, Andel R, et al. The efficacy of InSight cognitive training to improve useful field of view performance: a brief report. *Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition* 2015;**70**(3): 417–22.

# Edwards 2015a {published data only}

Edwards JD, Valdés EG, Peronto C, Castora-Binkley M, Alwerdt J, Andel R, et al. The efficacy of InSight cognitive training to improve useful field of view performance: a brief report. *Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition* 2015;**70**(3): 417–22.

# Efthymiou 2011 {published data only}

Efthymiou A, Konstantinidis V, Tryfonopoulos E, Karpathiou N, Dimakopoulou E, Nikolaou C, et al. Nonpharmacological intervention: effectiveness of a multicomponent rehabilitation program on cognitive functions of people with mild cognitive impairment. Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2011, AAIC 11, Paris, France, 2011. 2011; Vol. Conference Start: 20110716 Conference End: 20110721:S643.

# Engvig 2014 {published data only}

Engvig A, Fjell AM, Westlye LT, Skaane NV, Dale AM, Holland D, et al. Effects of cognitive training on gray matter volumes in memory clinic patients with subjective memory impairment. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2014; **41**(3):779–91.

# Fabre 2002 {published data only}

Fabre C, Chamari K, Mucci P, Massé-Biron J, Préfaut C. Improvement of cognitive function by mental and/or individualized aerobic training in healthy elderly subjects. *International Journal of Sports Medicine* 2002;**23**(6):415–21.

# Faille 2007 {published data only}

Faille L. Performance on a brain-plasticity-based memorytraining computer program for the elderly as influenced by cognitive functioning and gender. *Thesis* 2007;**68**(3-B): 1922.

### Fairchild 2010 {published data only}

Fairchild JK, Scogin FR. Training to enhance adult memory (TEAM): an investigation of the effectiveness of a memory training program with older adults. *Aging and Mental Health* 2010;**14**(3):364–73.

# Feng 2013 {published data only}

Feng W, Li CB, Chen Y, Cheng Y, Wu WY. Integrative cognitive training for healthy elderly Chinese in community: a controlled study. *Allied Academics* 2013;**24**(2):223–9.

# Feng 2015 {published data only}

Feng W, Yokoyama JS, Yu S, Chen Y, Cheng Y, Bonham LW, et al. APOE genotype affects cognitive training response in healthy Shanghai community-dwelling elderly individuals. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2015;**47**(4):1035–46.

# Feng 2017 {published data only}

Feng H, Li G, Xu C, Ju C, Qiu X. Training rehabilitation as an effective treatment for patients with vascular cognitive impairment with no dementia. *Rehabilitation Nursing* 2017;**42**(5):290–7.

# Finn 2011 {published data only}

Finn M, McDonald S. Computerised cognitive training for older persons with mild cognitive impairment: a pilot study using a randomised controlled trial design. *Brain Impairment* 2011;**12**(3):187–99.

# Finn 2015 {published data only}

Finn M, McDonald S. Repetition-lag training to improve recollection memory in older people with amnestic mild cognitive impairment. A randomized controlled trial. *Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition* 2015;**22**(2):244–58.

# Finn 2015a {published data only}

Finn M, McDonald S. Repetition-lag training to improve recollection memory in older people with amnestic mild cognitive impairment. A randomized controlled trial.

Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition 2015;**22**(2):244–58.

## Flak 2013 {published data only}

Flak M, Hernes SS, Skranes J, Lohaugen GC. Memory aid-computer based working memory training in elderly with mild cognitive impairment (MCI). A randomized, controlled trial. *Conference: 21st World Congress of Neurology* 2013, Vienna, Austria, 2013;Conference Start: 20130921 Conference End: 20130926:e322–3.

## Flak 2014 {published data only}

Flak MM, Hernes SS, Chang L, Ernst T, Douet V, Skranes J, et al. The Memory Aid study: protocol for a randomized controlled clinical trial evaluating the effect of computerbased working memory training in elderly patients with mild cognitive impairment (MCI). *Trials* 2014;**15**:156.

## Flak 2014a {published data only}

Flak MM, Hernes SS, Chang L, Ernst T, Douet V, Skranes J, et al. The Memory Aid study: protocol for a randomized controlled clinical trial evaluating the effect of computerbased working memory training in elderly patients with mild cognitive impairment (MCI). *Trials* 2014;**15**:156.

## Flak 2016 {published data only}

Flak MM, Hernes SS, Chang L, Ernst T, Douet V, Skranes J, et al. Erratum to: 'The Memory Aid study: protocol for a randomized controlled clinical trial evaluating the effect of computer-based working memory training in elderly patients with mild cognitive impairment (MCI)'.[Erratum for Trials. 2014;15:156 Note: Chang, Linda; Ernst, Thomas; and Douet, Vanessa [Added]; PMID: 24886034]. *Trials* 2016;**17**:40.

## Foerster 2009 {published data only}

Foerster S, Buschert VC, Buchholz HG, Teipel SJ, Zach C, Hampel H, et al. Positive effects of a 6-month stage-specific cognitive intervention program on brain metabolism in subjects with amnestic mild cognitive impairment (AMCI) and mild Alzheimer's disease (AD). Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference on Alzheimer's Disease 2009, Vienna, Austria. 2009; Vol. Conference Start: 20090711 Conference End: 20090716:38–.

#### Forloni 2012 {published data only}

Forloni G, Polito L, Davin A, Abbondanza S, Vaccaro R, Valle E. Cognitive stimulation and APOE genotype in non-demented elderly subjects: a randomized controlled study (RCT). Conference: 5th Conference Clinical Trials on Alzheimer's Disease 2012, Monte Carlo, Monaco. 2012; Vol. Conference Start: 20121029 Conference End: 20121031:841–2.

## Forster 2011 {published data only}

Förster S, Buschert VC, Teipel SJ, Friese U, Buchholz HG, Drzezga A, et al. Effects of a 6-month cognitive intervention on brain metabolism in patients with amnestic MCI and mild Alzheimer's disease. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2011;**26**(3):337–48.

## Fortman 2013 {published data only}

Fortman J. Computer-based cognitive training for agerelated cognitive decline and mild cognitive impairment. *Thesis* 2013;74(5-B(E)):No Pagination Specified.

## Gagnon 2012 {published data only}

Gagnon LG, Belleville S. Training of attentional control in mild cognitive impairment with executive deficits: results from a double-blind randomised controlled study. *Neuropsychological Rehabilitation* 2012;**22**(6):809–35.

## Gagnon 2012a {published data only}

Gagnon L. Working memory in Alzheimer's disease and mild cognitive impairment (MCI): assessment and intervention. *Thesis* 2012;**73**(5-B):3262.

## Gaitan 2013 {published data only}

Gaitán A, Garolera M, Cerulla N, Chico G, Rodriguez-Querol M, Canela-Soler J. Efficacy of an adjunctive computer-based cognitive training program in amnestic mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease: a single-blind, randomized clinical trial. *International Journal* of Geriatric Psychiatry 2013;**28**(1):91–9.

## Gajewski 2012 {published data only}

Gajewski PD, Falkenstein M. Training-induced improvement of response selection and error detection in aging assessed by task switching: effects of cognitive, physical, and relaxation training. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 2012;**6**:130.

#### Gajewski 2017 {published data only}

Gajewski PD, Freude G, Falkenstein M. Cognitive training sustainably improves executive functioning in middle-aged industry workers assessed by task switching: a randomized controlled ERP study. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 2017;**11**:81.

#### Garcia-Campuzano 2013 {published data only}

Garcia-Campuzano MT, Virues-Ortega J, Smith S, Moussavi Z. Effect of cognitive training targeting associative memory in the elderly: a small randomized trial and a longitudinal evaluation. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2013;**61**(12):2252–4.

## Gates 2011 {published data only}

Gates NJ, Valenzuela M, Sachdev PS, Singh NA, Baune BT, Brodaty H, et al. Study of mental activity and regular training (SMART) in at risk individuals: a randomised double blind, sham controlled, longitudinal trial. *BMC Geriatrics* 2011;**11**:19.

#### Gill 2016 {published data only}

Gill DP, Gregory MA, Zou G, Liu-Ambrose T, Shigematsu R, Hachinski V, et al. The healthy mind, healthy mobility trial: a novel exercise program for older adults. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise* 2016;**48**(2):297–306.

## Gillette 2009 {published data only}

Gillette S. The multidomain Alzheimer preventive trial (MAPT): a new approach for the prevention of Alzheimer's disease. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference on Alzheimer's Disease 2009, Vienna, Austria,* 2009;Conference Start: 20090711 Conference End: 20090716:145.

#### Giovannini 2015 {published data only}

Giovannini E, Borso E, Benso F, Carabelli E, Del Sette M, Ciarmiello A. FDG-PET in the evaluation of brain metabolic changes induced by Cognitive stimulation in aMCI subjects. *Conference: 28th Annual Congress of the European Association of Nuclear Medicine 2015, EANM, Hamburg, Germany,* 2015;Conference Start: 20151010 Conference End: 20151014:S552–3.

## Giuli 2016 {published data only}

Giuli C, Papa R, Lattanzio F, Postacchini D. The effects of cognitive training for elderly: results from my mind project. *Rejuvenation Research* 2016;**19**(6):485–94.

#### Giuli 2017 {published data only}

Giuli C, Fattoretti P, Gagliardi C, Mocchegiani E, Venarucci D, Balietti M, et al. My Mind Project: the effects of cognitive training for elderly - the study protocol of a prospective randomized intervention study. *Aging Clinical and Experimental Research* 2017;**29**(3):353–60.

## Golino 2017 {published data only}

Golino MT, Flores Mendoza C, Golino HF. Effects of cognitive training on cognitive performance of healthy older adults. *Spanish Journal of Psychology* 2017;**20**:E39.

## Haesner 2015 {published data only}

Haesner M, O'Sullivan JL, Gövercin M, Steinhagen-Thiessen E. Requirements of older adults for a daily use of an internet-based cognitive training platform. *Informatics for Health and Social Care* 2015;**40**(2):139–53.

## Haesner 2015a {published data only}

Haesner M, Steinert A, O'Sullivan JL, Weichenberger M. Evaluating an online cognitive training platform for older adults: user experience and implementation requirements. *Journal of Gerontological Nursing* 2015;**41**(8):22–31.

## Haimov 2013 {published data only}

Haimov I, Shatil E. Protocol S1.doc. *PLoS One* 2013;**8**(4): e61390.

## Haimov 2013a {published data only}

Haimov I, Shatil E. Checklist S1.pdf. *PLoS One* 2013;**8**(4): e61390.

## Haimov 2013b {published data only}

Haimov I, Shatil E. Cognitive training improves sleep quality and cognitive function among older adults with insomnia. *PLoS One* 2013;8(4):e61390.

## Haimov 2013c {published data only}

Haimov I, Shatil E. Cognitive training improves sleep quality and cognitive function among older adults with insomnia. *PLoS One* 2013;**8**(4):e61390.

#### Haimov 2013d {published data only}

Haimov I, Shatil E. Cognitive training improves sleep quality and cognitive function among older adults with insomnia. *Conference: 5th International World Association of Sleep Medicine Congress and the 22nd Annual Congress of the Spanish Sleep Society 2013, Valencia, Spain,* 2013;Conference Start: 20130928 Conference End: 20131002:e61390.

#### Haimov 2014 {published data only}

Haimov I, Shatil E. Cognitive training improves sleep quality and cognitive function among older adults with insomnia. *Conference: 22nd Annual Meeting of the Israel Society for Neuroscience, ISFN and the 2nd Bi national Italy-Israel Neuroscience Meeting 2014, Eilat, Israel,* 2014;Conference Start: 20131214 Conference End: 20131217:S60.

## Haimov 2014a {published data only}

Haimov I, Shatil E. Cognitive training improves sleep quality and cognitive function among older adults with insomnia. *Conference: 22nd Congress of the European Sleep Research Society 2014, Tallinn, Estonia,* 2014;**Conference Start: 20140916 Conference End: 20140920**:137.

#### Hardy 2015 {published data only}

Hardy JL, Nelson RA, Thomason ME, Sternberg DA, Katovich K, Farzin F, et al. Enhancing cognitive abilities with comprehensive training: a large, online, randomized, active-controlled trial. *PLoS One* 2015;**10**(9):e0134467.

## Hausmann 2012 {published data only}

Hausmann J, Machts J, Bittner V, Mueller N, Heinze HJ, Bittner D. No title provided. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2012, Vancouver, BC, Canada,* 2012;Conference Start: 20120714 Conference End: 20120719:P393.

## Hayashi 2012 {published data only}

Hayashi N, Kazui H, Morhora T, Yokokoji K, Kono A, Hata Y, et al. Cognitive training and occupational recreational therapy on elderly Japanese in Osaka: major outcome (ADAS) from prospective, randomized, open, blind-endpoint trial. *Alzheimer's and Dementia* 2012;**P3**:219.

## Hayslip B Jr 2016 {published data only}

Hayslip B Jr, Paggi K, Caballero D. The impact of mental aerobics training on older adults. *Journal of Applied Gerontology* 2016;**35**(11):1130–53.

## Heinzel 2014 {published data only}

Heinzel S, Schulte S, Onken J, Duong QL, Riemer TG, Heinz A, et al. Working memory training improvements and gains in non-trained cognitive tasks in young and older adults. *Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition* 2014;**21**(2): 146–73.

#### Hötting 2013 {published data only}

Hötting K, Holzschneider K, Stenzel A, Wolbers T, Röder B. Effects of a cognitive training on spatial learning and associated functional brain activations. *BMC Neuroscience* 2013;**14**:73.

## Hudak 2013 {published data only}

Hudak EM. The effects of cognitive stimulation and computerized memory training among older adults residing in independent-living facilities. *Thesis* 2013;74(1-B(E)):No Pagination Specified.

#### Ignjatovic 2015 {published data only}

Ignjatović VB, Kalabić S, Batić S, ž ikić M. Improvement of cognitive efficiency through cognitive training in healthy subjects. *Acta Clinica Croatica* 2015;**54**(2):169–78.

## Irigaray 2012 {published data only}

Irigaray TQ, Gomes Filho I, Schneider RH. Effects of an attention, memory and executive functions training on the cognition of healthy elderly people. *Psicologia: Reflexão e Crítica* 2012;**25**(1):188–202.

## Israel 1997 {published data only}

Israël L, Myslinski M, Dubos G, Mélac M. [Combined therapies in family practice and hospitals. A controlled clinical study of a population of 162 patients with criteria of

age-related memory disorders]. [French]. Presse Mé dicale 1997;26(25):1186-91.

## ISRCTN70130279 {published data only}

ISRCTN70130279. Effects of the six-month training on cognitive, physical performance, and daily physical activity in older adults. clinicaltrials.gov.

#### Jackson 2012 {published data only}

Jackson JJ, Hill PL, Payne BR, Roberts BW, Stine-Morrow EA. Can an old dog learn (and want to experience) new tricks? Cognitive training increases openness to experience in older adults. *Psychology and Aging* 2012;**27**(2):286–92.

## Jansen 2012 {published data only}

Jansen P, Dahmen-Zimmer K. Effects of cognitive, motor, and karate training on cognitive functioning and emotional well-being of elderly people. *Frontiers in Psychology* 2012;**3**: 40.

#### Jean 2010 {published data only}

Jean L, Simard M, Wiederkehr S, Bergeron ME, Turgeon Y, Hudon C, et al. Efficacy of a cognitive training programme for mild cognitive impairment: results of a randomised controlled study. *Neuropsychological Rehabilitation* 2010;**20** (3):377–405.

## Jeong 2016 {published data only}

Jeong JH, Na HR, Choi SH, Kim J, Na DL, Seo SW, et al. Group- and home-based cognitive intervention for patients with mild cognitive impairment: a randomized controlled trial. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics* 2016;**85**(4):198–207.

## Jobe 2001 {published data only}

Jobe JB, Smith DM, Ball K, Tennstedt SL, Marsiske M, Willis SL, et al. ACTIVE: a cognitive intervention trial to promote independence in older adults. *Controlled Clinical Trials* 2001;**22**(4):453–79.

## Jones 2013 {published data only}

Jones RN, Marsiske M, Ball K, Rebok G, Willis SL, Morris JN, et al. The ACTIVE cognitive training interventions and trajectories of performance among older adults. *Journal of Aging and Health* 2013;**25**(8):186S–208S.

## Kampanaros 2010 {published data only}

Kampanaros D, Weber IL, Endler PC. Conventional and complementary interventions and cognitive performance in old age. *Conference: 3rd European Congress for Integrative Medicine, ECIM, 2010, Berlin, Germany,* 2010;Conference Start: 20101203 Conference End: 20101204:264.

#### Kholin 2010 {published data only}

Kholin V. Cognitive-emotional stimulation in mild cognitive impairment. *Conference: 14th Congress of the* 

*European Federation of Neurological Societies 2010, EFNS, Geneva, Switzerland,* 2010;Conference Start: 20100925 Conference End: 20100928:362.

#### Kim 2012 {published data only}

Kim GH, Jeon S, Lee BH, Kim HS, Chin JH, Kim GY. Robot assisted cognitive training can change the brain in the elderly: a single blind, randomized controlled trial of clinical efficacy. *Conference: 5th Conference Clinical Trials on Alzheimer's Disease 2012, Monte Carlo, Monaco,* 2012;**Conference Start: 20121029 Conference End:** 20121031:865–6.

#### Kim 2013 {published data only}

Kim HJ, Sun Yang Y, Choi KH, Kim TY. The effect of computer-based cognitive training program on cognition. *Dementia and Neurocognitive Disorders* 2013;**12**(4):87–93.

## Kim 2013a {published data only}

Kim GH, Jeon S, Im K, Seo SW, Cho H, Noh Y, et al. Structural brain changes after robot assisted cognitive training in the elderly: a single-blind randomized controlled trial. *Alzheimer's & Dementia* 2013;9(4):P476–7.

## Kim 2015 {published data only}

Kim GH, Jeon S, Im K, Kwon H, Lee BH, Kim GY, et al. Structural brain changes after traditional and robot-assisted. *PLoS One* 2015;**10**(4):e0123251.

## Kim 2015a {published data only}

Kim KW, Choi Y, You H, Na DL, Yoh MS, Park JK, et al. Effects of a serious game training on cognitive functions in older adults. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2015; **63**(3):603–5.

#### Kim 2015b {published data only}

Kim GH, Jeon S, Im K, Kwon H, Lee BH, Kim GY, et al. Structural brain changes after traditional and robot-assisted multi-domain cognitive training in community-dwelling healthy elderly. *PLoS One* 2015;**10**(4):e0123251.

## Kivipelto 2014 {published data only}

Kivipelto M, Ngandu T, Lehtisalo J, Hanninen T,
Jula A, Laatikainen T, et al. A multidomain two-year randomized controlled trial to prevent cognitive impairment
the FINGER study. Conference: 10th International Congress of the European Union Geriatric Medicine Society
Geriatric Medicine Crossing Borders, EUGMS, 2014, Rotterdam, Netherlands, 2014;Conference Start: 20140917
Conference End: 20140919:S69.

#### Klusmann 2009 {published data only}

Klusmann V, Evers A, Schwarzer R, Dimeo FC, Reischies FM, Heuser I. Complex mental and physical activity in older women maintains episodic memory and working memory: a 6-month randomized controlled trial. *Conference: 64th Annual Scientific Convention and Meeting of the Society of Biological Psychiatry 2009, Vancouver, BC, Canada,* 2009;Conference Start: 20090514 Conference End: 20090516:106S.

#### Klusmann 2010 {published data only}

Klusmann V, Evers A, Schwarzer R, Schlattmann P, Reischies FM, Heuser I, et al. Complex mental and physical activity in older women and cognitive performance: a 6-

month randomized controlled trial. *Journals of Gerontology. Series A, Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences* 2010;**65A** (6):680–8.

## Klusmann 2010a {published data only}

Klusmann V, Evers A, Schwarzer R, Schlattmann P, Reischies FM, Heuser I, et al. Complex mental and physical activity in older women and cognitive performance: a 6month randomized controlled trial. *Journals of Gerontology. Series A, Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences* 2010;**65**(6): 680–8.

## Klusmann 2011 {published data only}

Klusmann V, Evers A, Heuser I. Cognitive benefits from mental and physical activity in older women: results from the Berlin Stays Fit study. *Conference: International Conference "Aging and Cognition" 2010, Dortmund, Germany,* 2011;Conference Start: 20101014 Conference End: 20101016:18.

## Kudelka 2014 {published data only}

McDaniel MA, Binder EF, Bugg JM, Waldum ER, Dufault C, Meyer A, et al. Effects of cognitive training with and without aerobic exercise on cognitively demanding everyday activities. *Psychology and Aging* 2014;**29**(3):717–30.

## Kwak 2015 {published data only}

Kwak KP, Lee S, Kim T, Bae N. Cognitive training programs for very old lone adults in a Korean rural community. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference* 2015, Washington, DC, United States, 2015;Conference Start: 20150718 Conference End: 20150723:P590.

## Kwak 2017 {published data only}

Kwak K, Kim T. Cognitive stimulation intervention improves BDNF peripheral levels in older adults with non-amnestic mild cognitive impairment. Alzheimer's & Dementia. 2017; Vol. Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference, AAIC 2017:P860–1.

#### Kwok 2013 {published data only}

Kwok T, Wong A, Chan G, Shiu YY, Lam KC, Young D, et al. Effectiveness of cognitive training for Chinese elderly in Hong Kong. *Clinical Interventions in Aging* 2013;**8**:213–9.

## Lampit 2013 {published data only}

Lampit A, Hallock H, Moss R, Kwok S, Rosser M, Lukjanenko M, et al. A dose-response relationship between computerized cognitive training and global cognition in older adults. *Conference: 6th Conference Clinical Trials on Alzheimer's Disease 2013, San Diego, CA, United States,* 2013;Conference Start: 20131114 Conference End: 20131116:803–4.

## Lampit 2014 {published data only}

Lampit A, Hallock H, Moss R, Kwok S, Rosser M, Lukjanenko M, et al. The timecourse of global cognitive gains from supervised computer-assisted cognitive training: a randomised active-controlled trial in elderly with multiple dementia risk factors. *Journal of Prevention of Alzheimer's Disease* 2014;1(1):33–9.

Lampit A, Hallock H, Suo C, Naismith SL, Valenzuela M. Cognitive training-induced short-term functional and longterm structural plastic change is related to gains in global cognition in healthy older adults: a pilot study. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2015;7:14.

### Lampit 2015 {published data only}

Lampit A, Hallock H, Suo C, Naismith SL, Valenzuela M. Cognitive training-induced short-term functional and longterm structural plastic change is related to gains in global cognition in healthy older adults: a pilot study. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2015;7:14.

## Lavretsky 2016 {published data only}

Lavretsky H. Changes in the functional brain connectivity and cognitive performance following yoga or memory training in older adults with subjective memory complaints. *Conference: 71st Annual Scientific Convention and Meeting of the Society of Biological Psychiatry, SOBP 2016, Atlanta, GA, United States,* 2016;**Conference Start: 20160512 Conference End: 20160514**:2095.

## Law 2014 {published data only}

Law LL, Barnett F, Yau MK, Gray MA. Effects of functional tasks exercise on older adults with cognitive impairment at risk of Alzheimer's disease: a randomised controlled trial. *Age Ageing* 2014;**43**(6):813–20.

## Law 2014a {published data only}

Law LL, Barnett F, Yau MK, Gray MA. Effects of functional tasks exercise on older adults with cognitive impairment at risk of Alzheimer's disease: a randomised controlled trial. *Age Ageing* 2014;**43**(6):813–20.

#### Lee 2013 {published data only}

Lee YM, Jang C, Bak IH, Yoon JS. Effects of computerassisted cognitive rehabilitation training on the cognition and static balance of the elderly. *Journal of Physical Therapy Science* 2013;**25**(11):1475–7.

## Lee 2013a {published data only}

Lee TS, Goh SJ, Quek SY, Phillips R, Guan C, Cheung YB, et al. A brain-computer interface based cognitive training system for healthy elderly: a randomized control pilot study for usability and preliminary efficacy. *PLoS One* 2013;**8** (11):e79419.

## Lee 2013b {published data only}

Lee TS, Goh SJ, Quek SY, Guan C, Cheung YB, Krishnan KR. Efficacy and usability of a brain computer interface system in improving cognition in the elderly. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2013, Boston, MA, United States,* 2013;Conference Start: 20130713 Conference End: 20130718:P296.

## Lee 2014 {published data only}

Lee TS, Goh ASJ, Quek SY, Phillips R, Guan C, Cheung YB, et al. Pilot trials of EEG-based brain-computer interface (BCI) training system for improving cognitive performance in older persons. *Conference: NUHS Academic Psychiatry Conference 2014, Singapore, Singapore, 2014*;Conference Start: 20141031 Conference End: 20141101:S27.

## Lee 2015 {published data only}

Lee TS, Quek SY, Goh SJ, Phillips R, Guan C, Cheung YB, et al. A pilot randomized controlled trial using EEG-based brain-computer interface training for a Chinese-speaking

group of healthy elderly. *Clinical Interventions in Aging* 2015;**10**:217–27.

## Legault 2011 {published data only}

Legualt C, Jennings JM, Katula JA, Dagenbach D, Gaussoin SA, Sink KM, et al. Designing clinical trials for assessing the effects of cognitive training and physical activity interventions on cognitive outcomes: the Seniors Health and ACtivity Research PRogram Pilot (SHARP-P) study, a randomized controlled trial. *BMC Geriatrics* 2011;**11**:27.

## Leon 2015 {published data only}

León J, Ureña A, Bolaños MJ, Bilbao A, Oña A. A combination of physical and cognitive exercise improves reaction time in persons 61-84 years old. *Journal of Aging and Physical Activity* 2015;**23**(1):72–7.

## Leung 2015 {published data only}

Leung NT, Tam HM, Chu LW, Kwok TC, Chan F, Lam LC, et al. Neural plastic effects of cognitive training on aging brain. *Neural Plasticity* 2015;**2015**:535618.

## Li 2010 {published data only}

Li KZ, Roudaia E, Lussier M, Bherer L, Leroux A, McKinley PA. Benefits of cognitive dual-task training on balance performance in healthy older adults. *Journals of Gerontology. Series A, Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences.* 2010;**65** (12):1344–52.

#### Linde 2014 {published data only}

Linde K, Alfermann D. Single versus combined cognitive and physical activity effects on fluid cognitive abilities of healthy older adults: a 4-month randomized controlled trial with follow-up. *Journal of Aging and Physical Activity* 2014; **22**(3):302–13.

## Mace 2015 {published data only}

Mace RA, Mansbach WE. The efficacy of a computerassisted cognitive rehabilitation program for patients with mild cognitive deficits: a pilot study. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2015, Washington, DC, United States,* 2015;**Conference Start: 20150718 Conference End: 20150723**:P783.

## Mahncke 2006 {published data only}

Mahncke HW, Connor BB, Appelman J, Ahsanuddin ON, Hardy JL, Wood RA, et al. Memory enhancement in healthy older adults using a brain plasticity-based training program: a randomized, controlled study. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 2006;**103**(33):12523–8.

## Man 2012 {published data only}

Man DW, Chung JC, Lee GY. Evaluation of a virtual reality-based memory training programme for Hong Kong Chinese older adults with questionable dementia: a pilot study. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2012;**27** (5):513–20.

#### Mann 2012 {published data only}

Mann D, Szwanki VL, Mistry JJ. The effect of brain training on cognitive assessment: a pilot investigation. Conference: 10th Annual Conference on Brain Injury of the North American Brain Injury Society's, NABIS 2012, Miami, FL, United States. 2012; Vol. Conference Start: 20120912 Conference End: 20120915:E39–40.

## Margrett 2006 {published data only}

Margrett JA, Willis SL. In-home cognitive training with older married couples: individual versus collaborative learning. *Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition* 2006;**13**(2): 173–95.

## Mayas 2014 {published data only}

Mayas J, Parmentier FB, Andrés P, Ballesteros S. Plasticity of attentional functions in older adults after non-action video game training: a randomized controlled trial. *PLoS One* 2014;**9**(3):e92269.

## McAvinue 2013 {published data only}

McAvinue LP, Golemme M, Castorina M, Tatti E, Pigni FM, Salomone S, et al. An evaluation of a working memory training scheme in older adults. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2013;**5**:20.

## McDaniel 2014 {published data only}

McDaniel MA, Binder EF, Bugg JM, Waldum ER, Dufault C, Meyer A, et al. Effects of cognitive training with and without aerobic exercise on cognitively demanding everyday activities. *Psychology and Aging* 2014;**29**(3):717–30.

## McDougall 2012 {published data only}

McDougall S, House B. Brain training in older adults: evidence of transfer to memory span performance and pseudo-Matthew effects. *Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition* 2012;**19**(1-2):195–221.

#### Middleton 2012 {published data only}

Middleton LE, Poelke G, Santos W-M, Yaffe K, Barnes DE, Goodson W. Impact of a 12-week exercise intervention on non-cognitive outcomes in sedentary elders with cognitive complaints or mild cognitive impairment: findings from the max trial. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2012, Vancouver, BC, Canada,* 2012;**Conference Start: 20120714 Conference End: 20120719**:P146.

#### Miller 2013 {published data only}

Miller KJ, Dye RV, Kim J, Jennings JL, O'Toole E, Wong J, et al. Effect of a computerized brain exercise program on cognitive performance in older adults. *American Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2013;**21**(7):655–63.

## Mohs 1998 {published data only}

Mohs RC, Ashman TA, Jantzen K, Albert M, Brandt J, Gordon B, et al. A study of the efficacy of a comprehensive memory enhancement program in healthy elderly persons. *Psychiatry Research* 1998;77(3):183–95.

## Mombelli 2012 {published data only}

Mombelli G, Riva M, Cerea E, Zanetti M, Rozzini L, Padovani A. Neuropsychological training (TNP) in MCI subjects: one year follow-up study. Journal of Alzheimer's disease. 2012:77.

#### Moon 2013 {published data only}

Moon SK, Chung S, Han M-I. The effectiveness of selfefficacy based memory training program for the elderly with

mild cognitive impairment. Conference: 16th International Congress of the International Psychogeriatric Association, IPA 2013, Seoul, South Korea. 2013; Vol. Conference Start: 20131001 Conference End: 20131004:S141–2.

### Mowszowski 2014 {published data only}

Mowszowski L, Hermens DF, Diamond K, Norrie L, Cockayne N, Ward PB, et al. Cognitive training enhances pre-attentive neurophysiological responses in older adults 'at risk' of dementia. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2014;**41** (4):1095–108.

## Mowszowski 2014a {published data only}

Mowszowski L, Hermens DF, Diamond K, Norrie L, Cockayne N, Ward PB, et al. Cognitive training enhances pre-attentive neurophysiological responses in older adults 'at risk' of dementia. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2014;**41** (4):1095–108.

## Mozolic 2010 {published data only}

Mozolic JL, Hayasaka S, Laurienti PJ. A cognitive training intervention increases resting cerebral blood flow in healthy older adults. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 2010;**4**:16.

## Mozolic 2011 {published data only}

Mozolic JL, Long AB, Morgan AR, Rawley-Payne M, Laurienti PJ. A cognitive training intervention improves modality-specific attention in a randomized controlled trial of healthy older adults. *Neurobiology of Aging* 2011;**32**(4): 655–68.

## Muller 2011 {published data only}

Muller NG, Bittner V, Hausmann J, Bittner DM. The effect of a combined motor and cognitive training on cognitive function, structural and functional MRI and BDNF plasma levels in MCI patients. *Conference: International Conference "Aging and Cognition" 2010, Dortmund, Germany,* 2011;Conference Start: 20101014 Conference End: 20101016:22–3.

## Na 2013 {published data only}

Na HR, Choi S, Jeong JH, Na D, Park SA, Kim EJ, et al. A multicenter, randomized trial to assess efficacy of home-based and group cognitive intervention programs in amnestic mild cognitive impairment. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2013, Boston, MA, United States,* 2013;**Conference Start: 20130713 Conference End: 20130718**:P495.

## Na 2014 {published data only}

Na HR, Choi SH, Jeong JH, Kim JE, Na DL, Seo SW, et al. A multicenter, randomized trial to assess efficacy of home-based and group cognitive intervention programs for amnestic mild cognitive impairment. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2014, Copenhagen, Denmark*, 2014;Conference Start: 20140712 Conference End: 20140717:P916.

#### Naismith 2014 {published data only}

Mowszowski L, Hermens DF, Diamond K, Norrie L, Cockayne N, Ward PB, et al. Cognitive training enhances pre-attentive neurophysiological responses in older adults 'at risk' of dementia. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2014;**41** (4):1095–108.

#### Navarro 2006 {published data only}

Navarro JI, Menacho I, Alcalde C, Marchena E, Simon Velez R, Aguilar M. Comparative study of two cognitive training procedures for elderly people. [Spanish]. *Geriátrika* 2006;**22**(6):36–42.

## NCT00544856 {published data only}

NCT00544856. Effects of a complex cognitive training in mild cognitive impairment and mild Alzheimer's disease. https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT00544856 2007.

## NCT02417558 2015 {published data only}

NCT02417558. Study to evaluate the effectiveness of personalized brain network activation technology in a cognitive/physical computer-game blended training of elderly (Alterniity AR). clinicaltrials.gov 2015.

## NCT02462135 2014 {published data only}

NCT02462135. The development and evaluation of the effectiveness of a virtual interactive memory training program for older adults with mild cognitive impairment: protocol of a randomized controlled study. clinicaltrials.gov 2014.

#### NCT02480738 2012 {published data only}

NCT02480738. Effectiveness of computerized cognitive training apparatus (CoCoTA) in the elderly With normal cognition, subjective cognitive impairment, mild cognitive impairment. clinicaltrials.gov 2012.

## NCT02512627 2015 {published data only}

NCT02512627. Evolving methods to combine cognitive and physical training for individuals with mild cognitive impairment: an efficacy study. clinicaltrials.gov 2015.

## NCT02747784 2016 {published data only}

NCT02747784. Randomized evaluation to assess cognitive training for the prevention of post-operative cognitive decline (REACT) - a pilot study. clincaltrials.gov 2016.

## NCT02774083 2015 {published data only}

NCT02774083. An Evaluation of the Feuerstein instrumental enrichment program for the cognitive enhancement of older people with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) living in the community. clinicaltrials.gov 2015.

## NCT02785315 2016 {published data only}

NCT02785315. Cognitive intervention for persons with amnestic mild cognitive impairment: the efficacy in enhancement of cognition and complex activities of daily living function. clinicaltrials.gov 2016.

## NCT02808676 2016 {published data only}

NCT02808676. SYNchronizing Exercises, Remedies in GaIt and Cognition (SYNERGIC): a randomized controlled double blind trial. clinicaltrials.gov 2016.

## Neely 2013 {published data only}

Neely AS, Sehlstedt I, Ekman U, Eriksson J, Sandberg P, Qwillbard T, et al. Working memory updating training in older adults: is level of performance after training related to transfer?. *Conference: International Conference "Aging and Cognition", IfADo 2013, Germany,* 2013;Conference Start: 20130425 Conference End: 20130427 Sponsor:

Brain Products - Solutions for Neurophysiological Research, Dortmund Tourismus, DFG - Deutsche Forschungsgemeinsch:69–70.

## Ng 2015 {published data only}

Ng TP, Feng L, Nyunt MS, Feng L, Niti M, Tan BY, et al. Nutritional, physical, cognitive, and combination interventions and frailty reversal among older adults: a randomized controlled trial. *American Journal of Medicine* 2015;**128**(11):1225–36.

## Ngandu 2015 {published data only}

Ngandu T, Lehtisalo J, Solomon A, Levälahti E, Ahtiluoto S, Antikainen R, et al. A 2 year multidomain intervention of diet, exercise, cognitive training, and vascular risk monitoring versus control to prevent cognitive decline in at-risk elderly people (FINGER): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 2015;**385**(9984):2255–63.

## Ngandu 2015a {published data only}

Ngandu T, Lehtisalo J, Solomon A, Levälahti E, Ahtiluoto S, Antikainen R, et al. A 2 year multidomain intervention of diet, exercise, cognitive training, and vascular risk monitoring versus control to prevent cognitive decline in at-risk elderly people (FINGER): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 2015;**385**(9984):2255–63.

#### Nishiguchi 2015 {published data only}

Nishiguchi S, Yamada M, Tanigawa T, Sekiyama K, Kawagoe T, Suzuki M, et al. A 12-week physical and cognitive exercise program can improve cognitive function and neural efficiency in community-dwelling older adults: a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2015;**63**(7):1355–63.

## Nouchi 2012 {published data only}

Nouchi R, Taki Y, Takeuchi H, Hashizume H, Akitsuki Y, Shigemune Y, et al. Brain training game improves executive functions and processing speed in the elderly: a randomized controlled trial. *PLoS One* 2012;7(1):e29676.

## Nouchi 2013 {published data only}

Nouchi R, Taki Y, Takeuchi H, Hashizume H, Nozawa T, Kambara T, et al. Brain training game boosts executive functions, working memory and processing speed in the young adults: a randomized controlled trial. *PLoS One* 2013;**8**(2):e55518.

#### Nozawa 2015 {published data only}

Nozawa T, Taki Y, Kanno A, Akimoto Y, Ihara M, Yokoyama R, et al. Effects of different types of cognitive training on cognitive function, brain structure, and driving safety in senior Daily drivers: a pilot study. *Behavioral Neurology* 2015;**2015**:525901.

## O'Caoimh 2015 {published data only}

O'Caoimh R, Sato S, Wall J, Igras E, Foley MJ, Timmons S, et al. Potential for a "memory gym" Intervention to delay conversion of mild cognitive impairment to dementia. *Journal of the American Medical Directors Association* 2015; **16**(11):998–99.

#### Oei 2013 {published data only}

Oei AC, Patterson MD. Enhancing cognition with video games: a multiple game training study. *PLoS One* 2013;**8** (3):e58546.

### Oliveira 2013 {published data only}

Oliveira de Lima Queiroz L, Junqueira AX, Fontana AM, De Oliveira ER, Lima VC, Guarienti VC. Prevention of cognitive impairment through a cognitive stimulation and rehabilitation program mediated by computers and internet. *Conference: 21st World Congress of Neurology, Vienna, Austria,* 2013;**Conference Start: 20130921 Conference End: 20130926:**e537.

#### Otsuka 2015 {published data only}

Otsuka T, Tanemura R, Noda K, Nagao T, Sakai H, Luo ZW. Development of computer-aided cognitive training program for elderly and its effectiveness through a 6 months group intervention study. *Current Alzheimer Research* 2015; **12**(6):553–62.

## Park 2009 {published data only}

Park MH, Kwon DY, Seo WK, Lim KS, Song MS. The effects of cognitive training on community-dwelling elderly Koreans. *Journal of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing* 2009;**16**(10):904–9.

## Park 2014 {published data only}

Park SH, Seo JH, Kim YH, Ko MH. Long-term effects of transcranial direct current stimulation combined with computer-assisted cognitive training in healthy older adults. *Neuroreport* 2014;**25**(2):122–6.

#### Payne 2012 {published data only}

Payne BR, Jackson JJ, Hill PL, Gao X, Roberts BW, Stine-Morrow EA. Memory self-efficacy predicts responsiveness to inductive reasoning training in older adults. *Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition* 2012;**67**(1): 27–35.

## Payne 2017 {published data only}

Payne BR, Stine-Morrow EA. The effects of home-based cognitive training on verbal working memory and language comprehension in older adulthood. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2017;**9**:256.

## Peretz 2011 {published data only}

Peretz C, Korczyn Ad, Shatil E, Aharonson V, Birnboim S, Giladi N. Computer-based, personalized cognitive training versus classical computer games: a randomized double-blind prospective trial of cognitive stimulation. *Neuroepidemiology* 2011;**36**(2):91–9.

## R000001637 {published data only}

R000001637. Randomized prospective cognitive training study on elderly Japanese in Osaka. https://upload.umin.ac.jp/cgi-open-bin/ctr\_e/ctr\_view.cgi?recptno=R000001637 2007.

#### Rahe 2015 {published data only}

Rahe J, Petrelli A, Kaesberg S, Fink GR, Kessler J, Kalbe E. Effects of cognitive training with additional physical activity compared to pure cognitive training in healthy older adults. *Clinical Interventions in Aging* 2015;**10**:297–310.

## Rahe 2015a {published data only}

Rahe J, Becker J, Fink GR, Kessler J, Kukolja J, Rahn A, et al. Cognitive training with and without additional physical activity in healthy older adults: cognitive effects, neurobiological mechanisms, and prediction of training success. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2015;7:187.

#### Rebok 2013 {published data only}

Rebok GW, Langbaum JB, Jones RN, Gross AL, Parisi JM, Spira AP, et al. Memory training in the ACTIVE study: how much is needed and who benefits?. *Journal of Aging and Health* 2013;**25**(8):21S–42S.

## Rebok 2014 {published data only}

Rebok GW, Ball K, Guey LT, Jones RN, Kim HY, King JW, et al. Ten-year effects of the advanced cognitive training for independent and vital elderly cognitive training trial on cognition and everyday functioning in older adults. *Journal* of the American Geriatrics Society 2014;**62**(1):16–24.

## Redick 2013 {published data only}

Redick TS, Shipstead Z, Harrison TL, Hicks KL, Fried DE, Hambrick DZ, et al. No evidence of intelligence improvement after working memory training: a randomized, placebo-controlled study. *Journal of Experimental Psychology. General* 2013;**142**(2):359–79.

## Requena 2016 {published data only}

Requena C, Turrero A, Ortiz T. Six-year training improves everyday memory in healthy older people. Randomized controlled trial. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2016;**8**:135.

## Rizkalla 2015 {published data only}

Rizkalla M. Cognitive training in the rural elderly: a randomized trial to evaluate the efficacy and accessibility of a new approach. Thesis 2015; Vol. 75, issue 11–B(E).

## Rojas 2013 {published data only}

Rojas GJ, Villar V, Iturry M, Harris P, Serrano CM, Herrera JA, et al. Efficacy of a cognitive intervention program in patients with mild cognitive impairment. *International Psychogeriatrics* 2013;**25**(5):825–31.

#### Rose 2015 {published data only}

Rose NS, Rendell PG, Hering A, Kliegel M, Bidelman GM, Craik FI. Cognitive and neural plasticity in older adults' prospective memory following training with the Virtual Week computer game. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 2015;**9**:592.

## Rosen 2011 {published data only}

Rosen AC, Sugiura L, Kramer JH, Whitfield-Gabrieli S, Gabrieli JD. Cognitive training changes hippocampal function in mild cognitive impairment: a pilot study. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2011;**26**(Suppl 3):349–57.

## Ryu 2013 {published data only}

Ryu SH, Kim S, Youn JH, Lee JY. Improvement cognitive functions in the elderly with mild cognitive impairment and subjective memory complaints. *Conference: 16th International Congress of the International Psychogeriatric Association, IPA 2013, Seoul, South Korea,* 2013;Conference Start: 20131001 Conference End: 20131004:S165.

#### Sakka 2015 {published data only}

Sakka P, Ntanasi E, Zoi P, Kalligerou F, Pantelopoulos S. Sociable: a comprehensive ICT cognitive training programme for healthy and cognitively impaired elderly. *Neurology* 2015;**84**(14):P6.188.

## Santos 2011 {published data only}

Santos G, Ortega L, Yassuda M, Forlenza O, Nunes P. The effects of a multiprofessional cognitive and functional rehabilitation program for patients with Alzheimer's disease and mild cognitive impairment. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference, AAIC 11, Paris, France,* 2011;Conference Start: 20110716 Conference End: 20110721:S800.

## Schoene 2015 {published data only}

Schoene D, Valenzuela T, Toson B, Delbaere K, Severino C, Garcia J, et al. Interactive cognitive-motor step training improves cognitive risk factors of falling in older adults - a randomized controlled trial. *PLoS One* 2015;**10**(12): e0145161.

#### Schoene 2015a {published data only}

Schoene D, Valenzuela T, Toson B, Delbaere K, Severino C, Garcia J, et al. Interactive cognitive-motor step training improves cognitive risk factors of falling in older adults - a randomized controlled trial. *PLoS One* 2015;**10**(12): e0145161.

#### Schumacher 2013 {published data only}

Schumacher V, Theill N, Martin M. Improving cognitive performance and motor-cognition adaptability of older adults using an integrative motor-cognitive training approach. *Conference: International Conference "Aging and Cognition", IfADo 2013, Germany,* 2013;Conference Start: 20130425 Conference End: 20130427 Sponsor: Brain Products - Solutions for Neurophysiological Research, Dortmund Tourismus, DFG - Deutsche Forschungsgemeinsch:68–9.

## Shah 2012 {published data only}

Shah T, Verdile G, Sohrabi H, Martins R. Cross-training of auditory and visual brain training software program improves cognition and alters plasma BDNF levels in healthy older adults. Alzheimer's & Dementia. 2012:99. Shah T, Verdile G, Sohrabi H, Martins R. Physical activity and cognitive stimulation improve cognition and alters levels of plasma beta-amyloid in healthy elderly. Alzheimer's & Dementia. 2012:151.

#### Shatil 2013 {published data only}

Shatil E. Does combined cognitive training and physical activity training enhance cognitive abilities more than either alone? A four-condition randomized controlled trial among healthy older adults. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2013;**5**: 8.

#### Shatil 2014 {published data only}

Shatil E, Mikulecká J, Bellotti F, Bureš V. Novel televisionbased cognitive training improves working memory and executive function. *PLoS One* 2014;**9**(7):e101472.

## Shatil 2014a {published data only}

Shatil E, Mikulecká J, Bellotti F, Bureš V. Novel televisionbased cognitive training improves working memory and executive function. *PLoS One* 2014;**9**(7):e101472.

## Sisco 2013 {published data only}

Sisco SM, Marsiske M, Gross AL, Rebok GW. The influence of cognitive training on older adults' recall for short stories. *Journal of Aging and Health* 2013;**25**(8):230S–48S.

## Slegers 2009 {published data only}

Slegers K, van Boxtel M, Jolles J. Effects of computer training and internet usage on cognitive abilities in older adults: a randomized controlled study. *Aging Clinical and Experimental Research* 2009;**21**(1):43–54.

#### Smith 2009 {published data only}

Smith GE, Housen P, Yaffe K, Ruff R, Kennison RF, Mahncke HW, et al. A cognitive training program based on principles of brain plasticity: results from the improvement in memory with plasticity-based adaptive cognitive training (IMPACT) study. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2009;**57**(4):594–603.

## Smith-Ray 2014 {published data only}

Smith-Ray RL, Makowski-Woidan B, Hughes SL. A randomized trial to measure the impact of a communitybased cognitive training intervention on balance and gait in cognitively intact Black older adults. *Health Education and Behavior* 2014;**41**(1):62S–9S.

## Smith-Ray 2015 {published data only}

Smith-Ray RL, Hughes SL, Prohaska TR, Little DM, Jurivich DA, Hedeker D. Impact of cognitive training on balance and gait in older adults. *Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition* 2015;**70**(3):357–66.

## Smith-Ray 2015a {published data only}

Smith-Ray RL, Hughes SL, Prohaska TR, Little DM, Jurivich DA, Hedeker D. Impact of cognitive training on balance and gait in older adults. *Neuropsychology, Development, and Cognition. Section B, Aging, Neuropsychology and Cognition* 2015;**70B**(3):357–66.

## Solomon 2014 {published data only}

Solomon A, Levalahti E, Soininen H, Tuomilehto J, Lindstrom J, Lehtisalo J, et al. A multidomain, twoyear, randomized controlled trial to prevent cognitive impairment: the finger study. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2014, Copenhagen, Denmark*, 2014;Conference Start: 20140712 Conference End: 20140717:P137–8.

#### Song 2009 {published data only}

Park MH, Kwon DY, Seo WK, Lim KS, Song MS. The effects of cognitive training on community-dwelling elderly Koreans. *Journal of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing* 2009;**16**(10):904–9.

#### Stepankova 2014 {published data only}

Stepankova H, Lukavsky J, Buschkuehl M, Kopecek M, Ripova D, Jaeggi SM. The malleability of working memory and visuospatial skills: a randomized controlled study in older adults. *Developmental Psychology* 2014;**50**(4): 1049–59.

#### Stine-Morrow 2014 {published data only}

Stine-Morrow EA, Payne BR, Roberts BW, Kramer AF, Morrow DG, Payne L, et al. Training versus engagement as paths to cognitive enrichment with aging. *Psychology and Aging* 2014;**29**(4):891–906.

## Strenziok 2013 {published data only}

Strenziok M, Parasuraman R, Clarke E, Cisler DS, Thompson JC, Greenwood PM. Neurocognitive enhancement in older adults: comparison of three cognitive training tasks to test a hypothesis of training transfer in brain connectivity. *Neuroimage* 2013;**85**:1027–39.

## Strenziok 2014 {published data only}

Strenziok M, Parasuraman R, Clarke E, Cisler DS, Thompson JC, Greenwood PM. Neurocognitive enhancement in older adults: comparison of three cognitive training tasks to test a hypothesis of training transfer in brain connectivity. *Neuroimage* 2014;**85**:1027–39.

#### Sturz 2011 {published data only}

Stürz K, Hartmann S, Eder-Pelzer B, Günther V. [Computer assisted cognitive training advances mood and psychological wellbeing - a comparison to paper pencil training relating to neuropsychological parameters, mood and cognitions] [German]. *Neuropsychiatrie* 2011;25(2):85–92.

## Sturz 2011a {published data only}

Stürz K, Hartmann S, Eder-Pelzer B, Günther V. [Computer assisted cognitive training advances mood and psychological wellbeing - a comparison to paper pencil training relating to neuropsychological parameters, mood and cognitions]. [German]. *Neuropsychiatrie* 2011;25(2):85–92.

## Sturz 2015 {published data only}

Sturz K, Hartmann S, Kemmler G, Gunther V. Influence of a relaxation program, cognitive training and a combination of both intervention forms on neuropsychological and affective parameters in elderly care home residents. *Conference: 23rd European Congress of Psychiatry, EPA* 2015, Vienna, Austria, 2015;Conference Start: 20150328 Conference End: 20150331:1447.

#### Styliadis 2015 {published data only}

Styliadis C, Kartsidis P, Paraskevopoulos E, Ioannides AA, Bamidis PD. Neuroplastic effects of combined computerized physical and cognitive training in elderly individuals at risk for dementia: an eLORETA controlled study on resting states. *Neural Plasticity* 2015;**2015**:172192.

## Styliadis 2015a {published data only}

Styliadis C, Kartsidis P, Paraskevopoulos E, Ioannides AA, Bamidis PD. Neuroplastic effects of combined computerized physical and cognitive training in elderly individuals at risk for dementia: an eLORETA controlled study on resting states. *Neural Plasticity* 2015;**2015**:172192.

## Suo 2012 {published data only}

Suo C, Fiatarone Singh MA, Sachdev PS, Gates NJ, Valenzuela M. Resting state network adaptation in older adults with MCI in the SMART trial: unique effects

of combined cognitive training and physical exercise. Conference: 3rd Biennial Conference on Resting State Brain Connectivity, Magdeburg, Germany, 2012;Conference Start: 20120905 Conference End: 20120907:A90–1.

## Szelag 2012 {published data only}

Szelag E, Skolimowska J. Cognitive function in elderly can be ameliorated by training in temporal information processing. *Restorative Neurology and Neuroscience* 2012;**30** (5):419–34.

## Talib 2008 {published data only}

Talib LL, Yassuda MS, Diniz BS, Forlenza OV, Gattaz WF. Cognitive training increases platelet PLA2 activity in healthy elderly subjects. *Prostaglandins, Leukotrienes, and Essential Fatty Acids* 2008;**78**(4-5):265–9.

## Tappen 2014 {published data only}

Tappen RM, Hain D. The effect of in-home cognitive training on functional performance of individuals with mild cognitive impairment and early-stage Alzheimer's disease. *Research in Gerontological Nursing* 2014;7(1):14–24.

## Tennstedt 2013 {published data only}

Tennstedt SL, Unverzagt FW. The ACTIVE study: study overview and major findings. *Journal of Aging and Health* 2013;**25**(8):3S–20S.

#### Tesky 2012 {published data only}

Tesky V, Pantel J. Cognitively stimulating leisure activities: a new approach for patients with mild cognitive impairment (MCI). *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2012 Vancouver, BC, Canada,* 2012;**Conference Start: 20120714 Conference End: 20120719**:P571.

#### Tsai 2008 {published data only}

Tsai AY, Yang MJ, Lan CF, Chen CS. Evaluation of effect of cognitive intervention programs for the communitydwelling elderly with subjective memory complaints. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* 2008;**23**(11): 1172–4.

## Tsolaki 2013 {published data only}

Tsolaki M, Poptsi E, Kounti F, Christina A, Evaggelia B, Aikaterini S, et al. Longitudinal cognitive training in people with mild cognitive impairment. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2013, Boston, MA, United States,* 2013;**Conference Start: 20130713 Conference End: 20130718**:P491–2.

## Tucker-Drob 2009 {published data only}

Tucker-Drob EM, Johnson KE, Jones RN. The cognitive reserve hypothesis: a longitudinal examination of ageassociated declines in reasoning and processing speed. *Developmental Psychology* 2009;**45**(2):431–46.

## Vance 2007 {published data only}

Vance DE, Dawson J, Wadley VG, Edwards JD, Roenker D, Rizzo M, et al. The accelerate study: the longitudinal effect of speed of processing training on cognitive performance of older adults. *Rehabilitation Psychology* 2007;**52**(1):89–96.

## van den Berg 2016 {published data only}

van den Berg M, Sherrington C, Killington M, Smith S, Bongers B, Hassett L, et al. Video and computer-based interactive exercises are safe and improve task-specific balance in geriatric and neurological rehabilitation: a randomised trial. *Journal of Physiotherapy* 2016;**62**(1):20–8.

## van der Ploeg 2016 {published data only}

van der Ploeg ES, Hoorweg A, van der Lee J. User friendliness of computer-based cognitive training for psychogeriatric patients with mild to moderate cognitive impairments [Gebruiksvriendelijkheid van computerondersteunde cognitieve training bij psychogeriatrische patiënten met lichte tot matige cognitieve functiestoornissen]. *Tijdschrift Voor Gerontologie en Geriatrie* 2016;**47**(2):58–67.

#### Van het Reve 2014 {published data only}

van het Reve E, de Bruin ED. Strength-balance supplemented with computerized cognitive training to improve dual task gait and divided attention in older adults: a multicenter randomized-controlled trial. *BMC Geriatrics* 2014;**14**:134.

#### Vidovich 2009 {published data only}

Vidovich MR, Lautenschlager NT, Flicker L, Clare L, Almeida OP. The PACE study: a randomised clinical trial of cognitive activity (CA) for older adults with mild cognitive impairment (MCI). *Trials* 2009;**10**:114.

## Vidovich 2015 {published data only}

Vidovich MR, Lautenschlager NT, Flicker L, Clare L, McCaul K, Almeida OP. The PACE study: a randomized clinical trial of cognitive activity strategy training for older people with mild cognitive impairment. *American Journal* of Geriatric Psychiatry 2015;**23**(4):360–72.

## Vidovich 2015a {published data only}

Vidovich MR, Lautenschlager NT, Flicker L, Clare L, McCaul K, Almeida OP. The PACE study: a randomized clinical trial of cognitive activity strategy training for older people with mild cognitive impairment. *American Journal* of *Geriatric Psychiatry* 2015;**23**(4):360–72.

## von Bastian 2013 {published data only}

von Bastian CC, Langer N, Jäncke L, Oberauer K. Effects of working memory training in young and old adults. *Memory* & Cognition 2013;41(4):611–24.

## Wadley 2007 {published data only}

Wadley VG, Crowe M, Marsiske M, Cook SE, Unverzagt FW, Rosenberg AL, et al. Changes in everyday function in individuals with psychometrically defined mild cognitive impairment in the advanced cognitive training for independent and vital elderly study. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2007;**55**(8):1192–8.

## Walton 2015 {published data only}

Walton CC, Kavanagh A, Downey LA, Lomas J, Camfield DA, Stough C. Online cognitive training in healthy older adults: a preliminary study on the effects of single versus multi-domain training. *Translational Neuroscience* 2015;6 (4):13–9.

#### Wang 2013 {published data only}

Wang JR, Hsieh S. Neurofeedback training improves attention and working memory performance. *Clinical Neurophysiology* 2013;**124**(12):2406–20.

## Weicker 2013 {published data only}

Weicker J, Hudl N, Marichal E, Muller K, Lepsien J, Trapp S, et al. Training of working memory in healthy elderly subjects - a randomized controlled trial. *Conference: Joint Meeting of the FESN/GNP 2013, Berlin, Germany,* 2013;**Conference Start: 20130912 Conference End:** 20130914:371.

#### Wild-Wall 2012 {published data only}

Wild-Wall N, Falkenstein M, Gajewski PD. Neural correlates of changes in a visual search task due to cognitive training in seniors. *Neural Plasticity* 2012;**2012**;529057.

## Williams 2014 {published data only}

Williams K, Herman R, Bontempo D. Reasoning exercises in assisted living: a cluster randomized trial to improve reasoning and everyday problem solving. *Clinical Interventions in Aging* 2014;**9**:981–96.

## Willis 1986 {published data only}

Willis SL, Schaie KW. Training the elderly on the ability factors of spatial orientation and inductive reasoning. *Psychology and Aging* 1986;1(3):239–47.

## Willis 2006 {published data only}

Willis SL, Tennstedt SL, Marsiske M, Ball K, Elias J, Koepke KM, et al. Long-term effects of cognitive training on everyday functional outcomes in older adults. *JAMA* 2006;**296**(23):2805–14.

## Willis 2006a {published data only}

Willis SL, Tennstedt SL, Marsiske M, Ball K, Elias J, Koepke KM, et al. Long-term effects of cognitive training on everyday functional outcomes in older adults. *JAMA* 2006;**296**(23):2805–14.

#### Willis 2007 {published data only}

Willis SL, Tennstedt SL, Marsiske M, Ball K, Elias J, Koepke KM, et al. Long-term effects of cognitive training on everyday functional outcomes in older adults. *American Journal of Health Prevention* 2007;**21**(5):469–70.

## Willis 2013 {published data only}

Willis SL, Caskie GI. Reasoning training in the ACTIVE study: how much is needed and who benefits?. *Journal of Aging and Health* 2013;**25**(8):43S–64S.

## Wojtynska 2011 {published data only}

Wojtynska R, Wlazlo A, Trypka E, Zimny A, Frydecka D. The evaluation of the effectiveness of the program of the cognitive rehabilitation of patients with MCI and early dementia of Alzheimer's type. *European Psychiatry* 2011;**26** (1):504.

#### Wolinsky 2006 {published data only}

Wolinsky FD, Unverzagt FW, Smith DM, Jones R, Wright E, Tennstedt SL. The effects of the ACTIVE cognitive training trial on clinically relevant declines in health-related quality of life. *Journals of Gerontology. Series B, Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences* 2006;**61**(5):S281–7.

## Wolinsky 2006a {published data only}

Wolinsky FD, Unverzagt FW, Smith DM, Jones R, Stoddard A, Tennstedt SL. The ACTIVE cognitive training trial and health-related quality of life: protection that lasts for 5 years. *Journals of Gerontology. Series A, Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences* 2006;**61**(12):1324–9.

## Wolinsky 2010 {published data only}

Wolinsky FD, Vander Weg MW, Martin R, Unverzagt FW, Willis SL, Marsiske M, et al. Does cognitive training improve internal locus of control among older adults?. *Journals of Gerontology. Series B, Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences* 2010;**65B**(5):591–8.

## Wolinsky 2010a {published data only}

Wolinsky FD, Mahncke H, Vander Weg MW, Martin R, Unverzagt FW, Ball KK, et al. Speed of processing training protects self-rated health in older adults: enduring effects observed in the multi-site ACTIVE randomized controlled trial. International Psychogeriatrics 2010; Vol. 22, issue 3: 470–8.

#### Wolinsky 2013 {published data only}

Wolinsky FD, Vander Weg MW, Howren MB, Jones MP, Dotson MM. A randomized controlled trial of cognitive training using a visual speed of processing intervention in middle aged and older adults. *PLoS One* 2013;**8**(5):e61624.

## Wolinsky 2015 {published data only}

Wolinsky FD, Vander Weg MW, Howren MB, Jones MP, Dotson MM. The effect of cognitive speed of processing training on the development of additional IADL difficulties and the reduction of depressive symptoms: results from the IHAMS randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Aging and Health* 2015;**27**(2):334–54.

## Yam 2014 {published data only}

Yam A, Gross AL, Prindle JJ, Marsiske M. Ten-year longitudinal trajectories of older adults' basic and everyday cognitive abilities. *Neuropsychology* 2014;**28**(6):819–28.

## Yassuda 2015 {published data only}

Yassuda MS, Camargo MC, Brum PS, Bento T, Silva L, Spindola L. Working memory training: effects on cognition and psychological wellbeing of seniors without dementia and depression. *Conference: Alzheimer's Association International Conference 2015, Washington, DC, United States,* 2015;Conference Start: 20150718 Conference End: 20150723:P462.

## Yip 2012 {published data only}

Yip CB. An intelligent rehabilitation system for cognitive rehabilitation. *Thesis* 2012;**73**(3-B):1524.

#### Yoonmi 2012 {published data only}

Lee Y, Lee CR, Hwang B. Effects of computer-aided cognitive rehabilitation training and balance exercise on cognitive and visual perception ability of the elderly. *Journal of Physical Therapy Science* 2012;**24**(9):885–7.

## Youn 2011 {published data only}

Youn JH, Lee JY, Kim S, Ryu SH. Multistrategic memory training with the metamemory concept in healthy older adults. *Psychiatry Investigation* 2011;**8**(4):354–61.

#### Zelinski 2011 {published data only}

Zelinski EM, Dalton SE, Smith GE. Consumer-based brain fitness programs. *Enhancing Cognitive Fitness in Adults:* A Guide to the Use and Development of Community-Based Programs. Philadelphia, PA: Springer, 2011:45–66.

## Zelinski 2011a {published data only}

Zelinski EM, Spina LM, Yaffe K, Ruff R, Kennison RF, Mahncke HW, et al. Improvement in memory with plasticity-based adaptive cognitive training: results of the 3month follow-up. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2011;**59**(2):258–65.

## Zhuang 2013 {published data only}

Zhuang JP, Fang R, Feng X, Xu XH, Liu LH, Bai QK, et al. The impact of human-computer interaction-based comprehensive training on the cognitive functions of cognitive impairment elderly individuals in a nursing home. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2013;**36**(2):245–51.

#### Zimmermann 2014 {published data only}

Zimmermann N, Netto TM, Amodeo MT, Ska B, Fonseca RP. Working memory training and poetry-based stimulation programs: are there differences in cognitive outcome in healthy older adults?. *NeuroRehabilitation* 2014;**35**(1): 159–70.

## Additional references

## Abraham 2015

Abraham RP, Denton DA, Al-Assaf AS, Rutjes AW, Chong LY, Malik MA, et al. Vitamin and mineral supplementation for prevention of dementia or delaying cognitive decline in people with mild cognitive impairment. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2015, Issue 10. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD011905

#### Acevedo 2007

Acevedo A, Loewenstein DA. Nonpharmacological cognitive interventions in aging and dementia. *Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry and Neurology* 2007;**20**(4):239-49.

#### Aisen 2011

Aisen PS, Andrieu S, Sampaio C, Carrillo M, Khachaturian ZS, Dubois B, et al. Report of the task force on designing clinical trials in early (pre-dementia) AD. *Neurology* 2011; **76**(3):280–6.

## Al-Assaf 2015

Al-Assaf AS, Denton DA, Abraham RP, Rutjes AW, Chong LY, Anderson JL, et al. Vitamin and mineral supplementation for maintaining cognitive function in cognitively healthy people in late life. *Cochrane Database* of *Systematic Reviews* 2015, Issue 10. DOI: 10.1002/ 14651858.CD011906

#### Albert 2011

Albert MS, DeKosky ST, Dickson D, Dubois B, Feldman HH, Fox NC, et al. The diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment due to Alzheimer's disease: recommendations from the National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's & Dementia* 2011;7(3): 270–9.

## Alzheimer's Association 2014

Alzheimer's Association National Plan Milestone Workgroup, Fargo KN, Aisen P, Albert M, Au R, Corrada MM, DeKosky S, et al. Report on the milestones for the US national plan to address Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dementia* 2014;**10**(5 Suppl):S430–52.

#### Amoyal 2012

Amoyal N, Fallon E. Physical exercise and cognitive training clinical interventions used in slowing degeneration associated with mild cognitive impairment. A review of the literature. *Topics in Geriatric Rehabilitation* 2012;**28**(3): 208–16.

#### APA 2013

American Psychiatric Association. *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*. 5th Edition. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association, 2013.

#### Bahar-Fuchs 2013

Bahar-Fuchs A, Clare L, Woods B. Cognitive training and cognitive rehabilitation for persons with mild to moderate dementia of the Alzheimer's or vascular type: a review. *Alzheimer's Research and Therapy* 2013;**5**(4):35.

#### Barnes 2011

Barnes D, Yaffe K. The projected effect of risk factor reduction on Alzheimer's disease prevalence. *Lancet Neurology* 2011;**10**(9):819–28.

#### Belleville 2012

Belleville S, Bherer L. Biomarkers of cognitive training effects in aging. *Current Translational Geriatrics and Experimental Gerontology Reports* 2012;1(2):104–10.

## Beydoun 2014

Beydoun MA, Beydoun HA, Gamaldo AA, Teel A, Zonderman AB, Wang Y. Epidemiologic studies of modifiable factors associated with cognition and dementia: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Public Health* 2014;**14**(1):643.

## Brookmeyer 1998

Brookmeyer R, Johnson E, Ziegler-Graham K, Arrighi HM. Forecasting the global burden of Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's & Dementia* 2007;**3**(3):186–91.

## da Costa 2012

da Costa BR, Nuesch E, Reichenbach S, Juni P, Rutjes AW. Doxycycline for osteoarthritis of the knee or hip. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2012, Issue 11. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD007323.pub3

## da Costa 2014

da Costa BR, Nüesch E, Kasteler R, Husni E, Welch V, Rutjes AWS, et al. Oral or transdermal opioids for osteoarthritis of the knee or hip. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2014, Issue 9. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD003115.pub4

## de Bruijn 2013

de Bruijn RF, Schrijvers EM, de Groot KA, Witteman JC, Hofman A, Franco OH, et al. The association between physical activity and dementia in an elderly population: the Rotterdam Study. *European Journal of Epidemiology* 2013; **28**(3):277–83.

## Denton 2015

Denton DA, Abraham RP, Al-Assaf AS, Rutjes AW, Chong LY, Anderson JL, et al. Vitamin and mineral

supplementation for maintaining cognitive function in cognitively healthy people in mid life. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2015, Issue 10. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD011904

#### DerSimonian 1986

DerSimonian R, Laird N. Meta-analysis in clinical trials. *Controlled Clinical Trials* 1986;7(3):177–88.

#### Diniz 2013

Diniz BS, Butters MA, Albert SM, Dew MA, Reynolds CF 3rd. Late-life depression and risk of vascular dementia and Alzheimer's disease: systematic review and meta-analysis of community-based cohort studies. *British Journal of Psychiatry: Journal of Mental Science* 2013;**202**(5):329–35.

#### Dresler 2013

Dresler M, Sandberg A, Ohla K, Bublitz C, Trenado

C, Mroczko-Wą sowicz A, et al. Non-pharmacological cognitive enhancement. *Neuropharmacology* 2013;**64**: 529–43.

## Erickson 2011

Erickson KI, Voss MW, Prakash RS, Basak C, Szabo A, Chaddock L, et al. Exercise training increases size of hippocampus and improves memory. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 2011;**108**(7):3017–22.

#### Forbes 2015

Forbes SC, Forbes D, Forbes S, Blake CM, Chong LY, Thiessen EJ, et al. Exercise interventions for preventing dementia or delaying cognitive decline in people with mild cognitive impairment. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2015, Issue 5. DOI: 10.1002/ 14651858.CD011706

## Forbes 2015a

Forbes SC, Forbes D, Forbes S, Blake CM, Chong LY, Thiessen EJ, et al. Exercise interventions for maintaining cognitive function in cognitively healthy people in mid life. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2015, Issue 5. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD011705

## Forbes 2015b

Forbes SC, Forbes D, Forbes S, Blake CM, Chong LY, Thiessen EJ, et al. Exercise interventions for maintaining cognitive function in cognitively healthy people in late life. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2015, Issue 5. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD011704

## Förster 2011

Förster S, Buschert VC, Teipel SJ, Friese U, Buchholz HG, Drzezga A, et al. Effects of a 6-month cognitive intervention on brain metabolism in patients with amnestic MCI and mild Alzheimer's disease. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2011;**26**(Suppl 3):337–48.

### Gates 2014

Gates NJ, Sachdev P. Is cognitive training an effective treatment for preclinical and early Alzheimer's disease?. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2014;**42**(Suppl 4):S551-9.

## Gates 2019a

Gates NJ, Rutjes AWS, Di Nisio M, Salman K, Chong L, March E, Vernooij RWM. Computerised cognitive training for maintaining cognitive function in cognitively healthy people in late life. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* [under submission], Issue [under submission].

#### Gates 2019b

Gates NJ, Rutjes AWS, Di Nisio M, Karim S, Chong L, March E, Vernooij RWM. Computerised cognitive training for maintaining cognitive function in cognitively healthy people in midlife. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* [under submission]. Issue [under submission].

#### Geda 2012

Geda YE, Silber TC, Roberts RO, Knopman DS, Christianson TJ, Pankratz VS, et al. Computer activities, physical exercise, aging, and mild cognitive impairment: a population-based study. *Mayo Clinic Proceedings* 2012;**87** (5):437–42.

## Grady 2012

Grady C. The cognitive neuroscience of ageing. *Nature Reviews. Neuroscience* 2012;**13**(7):491–505.

#### Green 2014

Green CS, Strobach T, Schubert T. On methodological standards in training and transfer experiments. *Psychological Research* 2014;**78**(6):756–72.

#### Guyatt 2008

Guyatt GH, Oxman AD, Vist GE, Kunz R, Falck-Ytter Y, Alonso-Coello P, Schünemann HJ, GRADE Working Group. GRADE: an emerging consensus on rating quality of evidence and strength of recommendations. *BMJ* 2008; **336**(7650):924–6.

#### Harrison 2015

Harrison SL, Birdi R, Smart CO, Brittain K, Rutjes AW, Siervo M, et al. Dietary interventions for maintaining cognitive function in cognitively healthy people in mid life. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, 2015, issue 10. DOI: 10.1002/ 14651858.CD011911; CD011911

#### Higgins 2011

Higgins JPT, Green S. Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions Version 5.1.0. The Cochrane Collaboration, 2011. Available from http:// handbook.cochrane.org., Updated March 2011.

#### Jellinger 2006

Jellinger KA. Clinicopathological analysis of dementia disorders in the elderly - an update. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* 2006;**9**(3 Suppl):61–70.

#### Jorm 2001

Jorm AF. History of depression as a risk factor for dementia: an updated review. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry* 2001;**35**(6):776-81.

## Karp 2006

Karp A, Paillard-Borg S, Wang HX, Silverstein M, Winblad B, Fratiglioni L. Mental, physical and social components in leisure activities equally contribute to decrease dementia risk. *Dementia and Geriatric Cognitive Disorders* 2006;**21** (2):65–73.

## Koepsell 2012

Koepsell TD, Monsell SE. Reversion from mild cognitive impairment to near-normal cognition: risk factors and prognosis. *Neurology* 2012;**79**(15):1591–8.

#### Kueider 2012

Kueider AM, Parisi JM, Gross AL, Rebok GW. Computerized cognitive training with older adults: a systematic review. *PLoS One* 2012;7(7):e40588.

## Lampit 2014a

Lampit A, Hallock H, Valenzuela M. Computerized cognitive training in cognitively healthy older adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis of effect modifiers. *PLoS Medicine* 2014;**11**(11):e1001756.

#### Landau 2012

Landau SM, Marks SM, Mormino EC, Rabinovici GD, Oh H, O'Neil JP, et al. Association of lifetime cognitive engagement and low B-amyloid deposition. *Archives of Neurology* 2012;**69**(5):623–9.

#### Leifer 2003

Leifer BP. Early diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease: clinical and economic benefits. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2003;**51**(5 Suppl):S281–8.

## Liberati 2012

Liberati G, Raffone A, Olivetti Belardinelli M. Cognitive reserve and its implications for rehabilitation and Alzheimer's disease. *Cognitive Processing* 2012;**13**(1):1–12.

#### Marioni 2014

Marioni RE, Proust-Lima C, Amieva H, Brayne C, Matthews FE, Dartigues JF, et al. Cognitive lifestyle jointly predicts longitudinal cognitive decline and mortality risk. *European Journal of Epidemiology* 2014;**29**(3):211–9.

## Martin 2011

Martin M, Clare L, Altgassen AM, Cameron MH, Zehnder F. Cognition-based interventions for healthy older people and people with mild cognitive impairment. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2011, Issue 1. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD006220.pub2

#### Matthews 2008

Matthews FE, Stephan BC, McKeith IG, Bond J, Brayne C, Medical Research Council Cognitive Function and Ageing Study. Two-year progression from mild cognitive impairment to dementia: to what extent do different definitions agree?. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2008;**56**(8):1424–33.

## Mitchell 2009

Mitchell AJ, Shiri-Feshki M. Rate of progression of mild cognitive impairment to dementia - meta-analysis of 41 robust inception cohort studies. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica* 2009;**119**(4):252–65.

## Moher 2009

Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG. Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *BMJ* 2009;**339**(2535):332–6.

#### Mowszowski 2010

Mowszowski L, Batchelor J, Naismith S. Early intervention for cognitive decline: can cognitive training be used as a selective prevention technique?. *International Psychogeriatrics* 2010;**22**(4):537–48.

## Neuropathology Group 2001

Neuropathology Group of the Medical Research Council Cognitive Function and Ageing Study. Pathological correlates of late-onset dementia: a multi-centre community based population in England and Wales. *The Lancet* 2001; **357**(9251):169–75.

### Norton 2014

Norton S, Matthews FE, Barnes DE, Yaffe K, Brayne C. Potential for primary prevention of Alzheimer's disease: an analysis of population-based data. *Lancet Neurology* 2014; **13**(8):788–94.

## Olesen 2004

Olesen PJ, Westerberg H, Klingberg T. Increased prefrontal and parietal activity after training of working memory. *Nature Neurosciences* 2004;7(1):75–9.

## Papp 2009

Papp KV, Walsh SJ, Snyder PJ. Immediate and delayed effects of cognitive interventions in healthy elderly: a review of current literature and future directions. *Alzheimer's and Dementia* 2009;**5**(1):50–60.

## Park 2013

Park DC, Bischof GN. The aging mind: neuroplasticity in response to cognitive training. *Dialogues in Clinical Neuroscience* 2013;**15**:109–19.

## Pendlebury 2009

Pendlebury ST, Rothwell PM. Prevalence, incidence, and factors associated with pre-stroke and post-stroke dementia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Neurology* 2009;**8**(11):1006-18.

### Petersen 1999

Petersen RC, Smith GE, Waring SC, Ivnik RJ, Tangalos EG, Kokmen E. Mild cognitive impairment: clinical characterization and outcome. *Archives of Neurology* 1999; **56**(3):303–8.

## Petersen 2001

Petersen RC, Doody R, Kurz A, et al. Current concepts in mild cognitive impairment. *Archives of Neurology* 2001;**58**: 1985-92.

#### Petersen 2004

Petersen RC. Mild cognitive impairment as a diagnostic entity. *Journal of Internal Medicine* 2004;**256**:183-94.

#### Petersen 2009

Petersen RC, Roberts RO, Knopman DS, Boeve BF, Geda YE, Ivnik RJ, et al. Mild cognitive impairment: ten years later. *Archives of Neurology* 2009;**66**(12):1447–55.

#### Petersen 2018

Petersen RC, Lopez O, Armstrong MS, Getchius TS, Ganguli M. Practice guideline update summary: mild cognitive impairment. *Neurology* 2018;**90**(3):126–35.

#### Prince 2013

Prince M, Bryce R, Albanese E, Wimo A, Ribeiro W, Ferri CP. The global prevalence of dementia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Alzheimer's and Dementia* 2013;9(1): 63–75.

## Reichenbach 2010

Reichenbach S, Rutjes AW, Nuesch E, Trelle S, Juni P. Joint lavage for osteoarthritis of the knee. *Cochrane Database* of Systematic Reviews 2010, Issue 5. DOI: 10.1002/ 14651858.CD007320.pub2

#### **Reijnders 2013**

Reijnders J, van Heugten, van Boxtel M. Comparative interventions in healthy adults and those with mild cognitive impairment: a systematic review. *Ageing Research Reviews* 2013;**12**:263–75.

## **Russ 2012**

Russ TC, Morling JR. Cholinesterase inhibitors for mild cognitive impairment. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2012, Issue 9. DOI: 10.1002/ 14651858.CD009132.pub2

## Rutjes 2009a

Rutjes AW, Nüesch E, Sterchi R, Kalichman L, Hendriks E, Osiri M, et al. Transcutaneous electrostimulation for osteoarthritis of the knee. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2009, Issue 4. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD002823.pub2

## Rutjes 2009b

Rutjes AW, Nuesch E, Reichenbach S, Juni P. S-Adenosylmethionine for osteoarthritis of the knee or hip. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2009, Issue 4. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD007321.pub2

#### Rutjes 2010

Rutjes AW, Nuesch E, Sterchi R, Juni P. Therapeutic ultrasound for osteoarthritis of the knee or hip. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2010, Issue 1. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD003132.pub2

## Rutjes 2012

Rutjes AW, Juni P, da Costa BR, Trelle S, Nuesch E, Reichenbach S. Viscosupplementation for osteoarthritis of the knee: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 2012;**157**(3):180–91.

## Salthouse 2003

Salthouse TA. Memory aging from 18 to 80. Alzheimer Disease and Associated Disorders 2003;17(3):162–7.

## Siervo 2015

Siervo M, Lara J, Munro A, Tang EY, Rutjes AW, Stephan B. Dietary interventions for maintaining cognitive function in cognitively healthy people in late life. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2015, Issue 10. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD011910

#### Spiegelhalter 2004

Spiegelhalter DJ, Abrams KR, Myles JP. *Bayesian Approaches* to *Clinical Trials and Health-care Evaluation*. Chichester, UK: John Wiley, 2004.

#### Stephan 2007

Stephan BC, Matthews FE, McKeith IG, Bond J, Brayne C, Medical Research Council Cognitive Function and Aging Study. Early cognitive change in the general population: how do different definitions work?. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2007;**55**(10):5534–40.

#### Stephan 2013

Stephan CMB, Minett T, Pagett E, Siervo M, Brayne C, McKeith IG. Diagnosing mild cognitive impairment (MCI) in clinical trials: a systematic review. *BMJ Open* 2013;3(2): e001909. [PubMed: 23386579]

## Sterne 2012

Sterne Y. Cognitive reserve in ageing and Alzheimer's disease. *Lancet Neurology* 2012;**11**(11):1006–12.

## Suo 2012a

Suo C, Valenzuela MJ. Neuroimaging outcomes of brain training trials. In: Bright P editor(s). *Neuro-imaging-Cognitive and Clinical Neurosciences*. Croatia: InTech, 2012.

#### Tang 2015

Tang EY, Harrison SL, Albanese E, Gorman TJ, Rutjes AW, Siervo M, et al. Dietary interventions for prevention of dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2015, Issue 10. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD011909

#### Valenzuela 2003

Valenzuela MJ, Jones M, Wen W, Rae C, Graham S, Shnier R, et al. Memory training alters hippocampal neurochemistry in healthy elderly. *Neuroreport* 2003;**14** (10):1333–7.

## Verghese 2003

Verghese J, Lipton RB, Katz MJ, Hall CB, Derby CA, Kuslansky G, et al. Leisure activities and the risk of dementia in the elderly. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2003;**348**(25):2508–16.

#### Walton 2014

Walton CC, Mowszowski L, Lewis SJ, Naismith SL. Stuck in the muck: time for change in the implementation of cognitive training research in ageing?. *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience* 2014;**6**:43.

## WHO 2012

World Health Organization. Dementia: A Public Health Priority. *Dementia: A Public Health Priority.* Geneva, Switzerland: WHO, 2012.

#### Wilson 2002

Wilson RS, Mendes De Leon CF, Barnes LL, Schneider JA, Bienias JL, Evans DA, et al. Participation in cognitive stimulating activities and risk of incidence of Alzheimer's Disease. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 2002; **287**(6):742–8.

## Wilson 2010

Wilson RS, Barnes LL, Aggarwal NT, Boyle PA, Hebert LE, Mendes de Leon CF, et al. Cognitive activity and the cognitive morbidity of Alzheimer disease. *Neurology* 2010; **75**(11):990–6.

## Wilson 2012

Wilson RS, Segawa E, Boyle PA, Bennett DA. Influence of late-life cognitive activity on cognitive health. *Neurology* 2012;**78**(15):1123–9.

## Wimo 2010

Wimo A, Winbald B, Johnsson L. The worldwide societal costs of dementia: estimates for 2009. *Alzheimer's and Dementia* 2010;6(2):98–103.

## Winblad 2004

Winblad B, Palmer K, Kivipelto M, Jelic V, Fratiglioni L,

Wahlund LO, et al. Mild cognitive impairment - beyond controversies, towards consensus: report of the international working group on mild cognitive impairment. *Journal of International Medicine* 2004;**256**(3):240–6.

## World Alzheimer Report 2014

The World Alzheimer Report 2014. Dementia and Risk Reduction: An Analysis of Protective and Modifiable Factors. London: Alzheimer's Disease International (ADI), 2014.

\* Indicates the major publication for the study

# CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDIES

# Characteristics of included studies [ordered by study ID]

## Barnes 2013

Methods	<ul> <li>Design: 4-arm RCT with factorial design</li> <li>Recruitment period: 2008 to 2009</li> <li>No. of centres involved: 1</li> <li>Unit of randomisation: individuals</li> <li>No. randomised: 126</li> <li>Number of arms considered in this review: 4</li> <li>Maximum trial duration: 3 months</li> <li>Funding by non-profit organisation: this study was funded through a Career Development Award from the National Institute on Aging (grant K01-AG024069), the Alzheimer's Association (grant IIRG-06-27306), the University of California School of Medicine, and the Institutes of Health/National Center for Research Resources/University of California, San Francisco-Clinical and Translational Science Institute (grant KL2 RR024130)</li> <li>Funding by commercial organisation: none reported</li> <li>Publication status: full-text report</li> </ul>
Participants	<ul> <li>Type of MCI: participants with self-reported cognitive complaints at baseline</li> <li>Patient flow: 31 randomised, 31 described at baseline in experimental group; 32 randomised, 32 described at baseline in experimental group 2, 31 randomised, 31 described at baseline in experimental group 3; 32 randomised, 32 described at baseline in control group</li> <li>Number of females: 18 of 31 (58%) in experimental group 1; 20 of 32 (63%) in experimental group 2; 21 of 31 (68%) in experimental group 3; 20 of 32 (63%) in control group 1</li> <li>Average age (SD): 74 (5.7) years in experimental group 1; 75 (6.1) years in experimental group 2; 71 (5.5) years in experimental group 3; 74 (6.3) years in control group 1</li> <li>Average (SD) education: 16.8 (2.3) years in experimental group 1; 16.7 (2.2) years in experimental group 2; 15.6 (2.8) years in experimental group 3; 16.3 (2.1) years in control group 1</li> <li>Baseline cognitive function: instrument to measure baseline cognitive function not reported</li> <li>Selection criteria on cognition overall: mean modified Mini Mental State examination score: 94.4; experimental group 1: global cognition (3MS) score, mean (SD): 94.4 (3.9); experimental group 2: global cognition (3MS) score, mean (SD): 94.6 (5.6); control group 1: global cognition (3MS) score, mean (SD): 94.6 (5.6); control group 1: global cognition (3MS) score, mean (SD): 94.6 (5.6); control group 1: global cognition (3MS) score, mean (SD): 94.6 (5.6); control group 1: global cognition (3MS) score, mean (SD): 94.6 (5.6); control group 1: global cognition (3MS) score, mean (SD): 94.6 (5.6); control group 1: 0 white, 0 Indian, 0 Asian, 21 black, 0 other, 9 unclear; experimental group 2: 0 white, 0 Indian, 0 Asian, 21 black, 0 other, 11 unclear; control group 1: 0 white, 0 Indian, 0 Asian, 21 black, 0 other, 14 unclear; control group 1: 0 white, 0 Indian, 0 Asian, 22 black, 0 other, 14 unclear; control group 1: 0 white, 0 Indian, 0 Asian, 22 black, 0 other, 14 unclear; control group 1: 0 white, 0 Indian,</li></ul>

Interventions	<ul> <li>Type of experimental intervention 1: computerised CT and sham exercise (stretching)</li> <li>Details of experimental intervention: intervention provided as individual training, without supervision. Games designed to enhance the speed and accuracy of visual and auditory processing (Posit Science). For the first 6 weeks, games focused on visual tasks, and for the second 6 weeks, games focused on auditory tasks</li> <li>Type of experimental intervention 2: computerised CT and aerobic exercise</li> <li>Details of experimental intervention 2: computerised CT as in experimental arm 1 but with concomitant aerobic exercise</li> <li>Type of experimental intervention 3: other</li> <li>Details of experimental intervention 3: DVDs of educational lectures on art, history, and science and aerobic exercise</li> <li>Type of control intervention: DVDs of educational lectures on art, history, and science and sham exercise (stretching)</li> <li>Session duration: 60 minutes in all groups</li> <li>Number of treatment sessions: 36 in all groups</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration: 12 weeks in all groups</li> </ul>
Outcomes	<ul> <li>Cognitive functioning outcomes considered         <ul> <li>Global cognitive functioning measured with composite score change at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Episodic memory measured with RAVLT, no. of words learned at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Executive functioning measured with Trails B at 3 months, on a scale from not reported with lower values indicating benefit</li> <li>Speed of processing measured with Trails A at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with lower values indicating benefit</li> <li>Speed of processing measured with Trails A at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with lower values indicating benefit</li> <li>Verbal fluency measured with no. of words by letter at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Physical functioning outcome considered: none reported</li> <li>Quality of life outcome considered: none reported</li> <li>Safety outcome considered: none reported</li> <li>Available cognitive functioning outcomes not considered in this review                 <ul> <li>Episodic memory measured with RAVLT No. of words recalled at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Executive functioning measured with EFT Congruent reaction time at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with Higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Executive functioning measured with EFT Incongruent reaction time at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Speed of processing measured with DSST, No. correct at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not</li></ul></li></ul></li></ul>

# Barnes 2013 (Continued)

	speed at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit • Verbal fluency measured with No. of words, by category at 3 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit • Visuospatial function (UFOV) on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit
Notes	<ul> <li>Experimental trial arm 1 includes participants who received mental activity intervention and group exercise control (stretching and relaxation)</li> <li>Control arm 1 includes participants who received mental activity control and group exercise control (stretching and relaxation);</li> <li>Experimental trial arm 2 includes participants who received mental activity intervention as experimental trial arm 1 in combination with group exercise intervention (aerobic exercise and strength training)</li> <li>Experimental trial arm 3 includes participants who received mental activity control (same as control arm 1) in combination with group exercise intervention (aerobic exercise and strength training)</li> </ul>

Risk of bias

Bias	Authors' judgement	Support for judgement
Random sequence generation (selection bias)	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : random sequence adequately generated <b>Quote(s)</b> : "participants were randomized in blocks of 4. The randomization sequence was prepared in advance by using a ran- dom-number generator on a computer"
Allocation concealment (selection bias)	Unclear risk	Judgement: study authors state that alloca- tion was concealed, although the method of allocation concealment is not reported Quote(s): "research staff involved with en- rolment and outcome assessment were un- aware of the randomization sequence and blinded to group assignment"
Blinding of participants (performance bias)	High risk	Judgement: patients were not blinded to the type of intervention Quote(s): "study participants were un- aware of study hypotheses and were told that the goal of the study was to compare the effects of different physical and mental activity programs"
Blinding of physicians / personnel	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : therapists were blinded to study treatment <b>Quote(s)</b> : "research staff involved with en- rolment and outcome assessment were un-

# Barnes 2013 (Continued)

		aware of the randomization sequence and blinded to group assignment"
Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias) All outcomes	Low risk	Judgement: therapists were blinded to study treatment Quote(s): "research staff involved with en- rolment and outcome assessment were un- aware of the randomization sequence and blinded to group assignment"
Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias) All outcomes	Low risk	<b>Judgement:</b> 32 out of 32 (100%) ran- domised to the experimental group were analysed, and 31 out of 31 (100%) ran- domised to the control group were ran- domised; the statistical analyses were re- ported to be done according to the intent- to-treat principle; 9/32 in experimental and 3/31 in control withdrew from study but were included in the final analysis <b>Quote(s):</b> "all analyses were performed us- ing intent-to-treat principles"
Selective reporting (reporting bias)	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : all outcomes mentioned in the methods section are reported in the results section
Other bias	Low risk	Judgement: no other sources of bias are apparent

# Djabelkhir 2017

Methods	<ul> <li>Design: 2-arm RCT with parallel-group design</li> <li>Recruitment period: December 2014 to July 2015</li> <li>No. of centres involved: 1 hospital in France</li> <li>Unit of randomisation: individuals</li> <li>No. randomised: 20 (10 participants each arm)</li> <li>Number of arms considered in this review: 2</li> <li>Maximum trial duration: 3 months (12 weeks)</li> <li>Funding by non-profit organisation: none described</li> <li>Funding by commercial organisation: computerised cognitive exercises web platform (KODRO) was provided by the company</li> <li>Publication status: full-text report</li> </ul>	
Participants	<ul> <li>Patient flow: 53 participants were screened and 20 were randomised: 10 participants received computerised cognitive stimulation (Intervention) (CCS) and 10 received computerised cognitive engagement (control) (CCE)</li> <li>Number of females: intervention (CCS): 7 of 10 (70%); control (CCE): 6 of 10 (60%)</li> </ul>	

#### Djabelkhir 2017 (Continued)

• Average age (SD): intervention (CCS): 75.2 (6.4); control (CCE): 78.2 (7.0) • Education (college degree or higher, n (%)): intervention (CCS): 4 (44.4%); control (CCE): 6 (60%) • Baseline cognitive function in MMSE (mean, SD): intervention (CCS): 27.7 (1.9); control (CCE): 27.4 (2.0) • Selection criteria: inclusion criteria: community-dwelling older adults ( $\geq 60$ years) meeting MCI criteria according to Petersen; mini Mental Status Examination (MMSE) score > 24; reported a subjective memory complaint, preferably corroborated by an informant; performed at/below 1.5 standard deviations (SDs) from the mean for age and education on more than 1 neuropsychological test, with preserved or minimal impairment in functional abilities; absence of dementia. Exclusion criteria: psychiatric and neurological disorders (e.g. bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, stroke, Parkinson's disease, epilepsy); history of alcohol or other substance abuse; sensory and/or motor deficits affecting the use of a tablet PC • Ethnicity: not reported • APOE: not reported • Type of experimental intervention: computerised cognitive training (CCS), Interventions group; treatment duration of 3 months (12 weeks); intervention provided in small group format under trained neuropsychologist supervision • Details of experimental intervention: intervention group attended 1 group session per week (5 to 7 participants) for 3 months (12 sessions in total). The CCS programme was designed to stimulate several cognitive domains with computerised cognitive exercises and social interactions among participants. Each session was conducted as follows: presentation of the day's programme, recall of the last session and discussion (15 minutes). Cognitive exercises on tablet with a short break between exercises (60 minutes). Feedback and group discussion about the session (15 minutes). Computerised cognitive exercises were selected from the institution version of KODRO (Altera-Group, Paris, France), a web-based platform that provided several applications (e.g. appointment and event reminding, cognitive games, communication, entertainment, videos and a library) tailored to older adults • Type of concomitant treatment provided: not stated • Session duration: 90 minutes in experimental group • Number of treatment sessions: 12 in experimental group • Treatment frequency: 1 session per week • Maximum treatment duration in months: 3 months (12 sessions) in experimental group • Type of control intervention: inactive; control group (CCE) attended 1 group session per week (5 to 7 participants) for 3 months (12 sessions in total). Each session lasted 90 minutes and was conducted by a trained neuropsychologist blinded to assessment

• Details of control intervention: CCE programme was designed to train participants to use a tablet PC and to stimulate social interactions among participants. CCE participants were involved in a casual atmosphere, while the content was preprogrammed. A specific topic was defined for each session, and participants were invited to explore different applications related to this. For example, for the theme "compensating for memory problems", participants discovered the calendar and learned to schedule an appointment on it. During sessions, participants were invited to suggest

# Djabelkhir 2017 (Continued)

Bias	Authors' judgement	Support for judgement
Risk of bias		
Notes	KODRO provided access to the software; study authors reported no conflict of interest in the study	
	<ul> <li>reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit <ul> <li>Executive function measured in seconds with TMT-B at 12 weeks on a scale from not reported to not reported with lower values indicating benefit</li> <li>Speed of processing measured with TMT-A at 12 weeks, on a scale from not reported to not reported with lower values indicating benefit</li> <li>Working memory with the Backward Digit Span from the Wechsler Adult</li> </ul> Intelligent Scale (WAIS) 4th edition, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit <ul> <li>Verbal fluency measured in number of words with letter P in 2 minutes</li> </ul> Physical functioning outcome considered: none reported <ul> <li>Quality of life outcome considered: quality of life was assessed using the quality of life</li> <li>scale for older French people (Echelle de Qualité de Vie adpatée aux Personnes Agées)</li> <li>Safety outcome considered: depression symptoms measured with Goldberg</li> </ul> Anxiety and Depression Scales, on a scale from not reported to not reported with lower values indicating benefit <ul> <li>Other outcome data on cognitive functioning not considered in our metaanalyses</li> <li>Episodic memory measured with Visuospatial memory test from the cognitive efficiency profile, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Verbal fluency measured with TMT-B error on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> </ul></li></ul>	
Outcomes	values indicating benefit • Episodic memory measured with reported to not reported with higher values	1MSE on a scale from 0 to 30 with higher 16-FR/CR test on a scale from not indicating benefit
	<ul> <li>a theme, and the neuropsychologist showed applications associated with the theme</li> <li>Type of concomitant treatment provided: not stated</li> <li>Session duration: 90 minutes in control group.</li> <li>Number of treatment sessions: 12 in control group</li> <li>Treatment frequency: 1/week in control group</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration in months: 3 months (12 sessions) in control group</li> </ul>	

Random sequence generation (selection bias)	Low risk	Judgement: adequate method of random sequence generation Quote(s): "patients were assigned to ei- ther a computerized CS (CCS) group or a computerized cognitive engagement (CCE) group with a simple computerized randomization procedure
Allocation concealment (selection bias)	Unclear risk	Judgement: no description provided
Blinding of participants (performance bias)	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : study described as single- blinded; however, it is not clear if and how participants were blinded <b>Quote(s)</b> : "we designed a randomized sin- gle-blind study conforming to Consoli- dated Standards of Reporting Trials criteria for pilot and feasibility studies"
Blinding of physicians / personnel	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : therapists could not be blinded
Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias) All outcomes	Low risk	<b>Judgement:</b> blinded outcome assessment <b>Quote(s)</b> : "these were carried out by an ex- perienced neuropsychologist blinded to the intervention"
Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias) All outcomes	Low risk	<b>Judgement:</b> no participants were lost to follow-up <b>Quote(s)</b> : "none of the participants dis- continued the intervention. Only one par- ticipant in the CCS group did not per- form the M3 assessment for medical rea- sons (surgery), resulting in 19 subjects for the final analyses"
Selective reporting (reporting bias)	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : all outcomes indicated in the methods section are reported in the results section
Other bias	Low risk	Judgement: no other sources of bias are apparent

# Djabelkhir 2017 (Continued)

Methods	<ul> <li>Design: international 4-arm RCT with factorial design</li> <li>Quote study design: "randomized, fully-factorial, double-blind, double sham training-controlled clinical trial"</li> <li>Recruitment period: not reported</li> <li>No. of centres involved: not reported</li> <li>Unit of randomisation: individuals</li> <li>No. randomised: 100</li> <li>Number of arms considered in this review: 4</li> <li>Maximum trial duration: 18 months</li> <li>Funding by non-profit organisation: this study was funded by a National</li> <li>Health and Medical Research Council (NH&amp;CMRC) of Australia Dementia Research Grant, project grant ID No. 512672, from 2008 to 2011(https://www.nhmrc.gov.au).</li> <li>Additional funding for a research assistant position was sourced from the NHMRC Program Grant ID No. 568969, and the project was supported by the University of Sydney and the University of New South Wales</li> <li>Funding by commercial organisation: none reported</li> <li>Publication status: full-text report</li> </ul>
Participants	<ul> <li>Type of MCI: MCI consistent with the Petersen 1999 criteria</li> <li>Patient flow: 24 randomised, 24 described at baseline in experimental group 1 (CT and sham physical exercise); 27 randomised, 27 described at baseline in experimental group 2 (CT and physical exercise); 27 randomised, 27 described at baseline in control group 1 (double sham); 22 randomised, 22 described at baseline in control group 2 (physical exercise and sham CT)</li> <li>Number of females overall: 68 of 100 (68%)</li> <li>Average age (SD) overall: 70 (6.7) years</li> <li>Average (SD) education: not reported</li> <li>Baseline cognitive function: instrument to measure baseline cognitive function not reported</li> <li>Selection criteria on cognition overall: Clinical Dementia Rating Algorithm (0 to 4): 0.14 (0.22); 71% rated 0, 29% rated 0.5; Mini Mental State Exam: 27 (1) (23 to 29)</li> <li>Ethnicity: not reported</li> <li>APOE: number of participants positive for APOE not reported</li> </ul>
Interventions	<ul> <li>Type of experimental intervention: computerised CT group, treatment duration 24 weeks; intervention provided in group format, under supervision</li> <li>Details of experimental intervention: "CT intervention involved computerbased multimodal and multidomain exercises targeting memory, executive function, attention, and speed of information processing. The training used the COGPACK program". Participants also received progressive resistance training (PRT) performed with exercise or sham exercise (factorial design)</li> <li>Session duration: 75 minutes in experimental group</li> <li>Number of treatment sessions: 48 in experimental group</li> <li>Treatment frequency: 2/week in experimental group</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration: 24 in experimental group</li> <li>Type of control intervention: usual care, treatment duration 24 weeks; intervention provided in group format, under supervision</li> <li>Details of control intervention: sham cognitive consisted of watching 5 short</li> </ul>

## Fiatarone Singh 2014 (Continued)

	<ul> <li>National Geographic videos, followed by a set of 15 questions (3/video) regarding the presented material. Sham exercise consisted of stretching and seated callisthenics, designed so as not to notably increase heart rate or aerobic capacity, nor improve balance, enhance strength, or other physiological outcomes. PRT was performed with pneumatic resistance machines (Keiser Sports Health Equipment, Ltd., Gloucestershire, UK), which were used for training at high intensity, with 3 sets of 8 repetitions of each of 56 exercises/session for most major muscle groups (chest press, leg press, seated row, standing hip abduction, knee extension)</li> <li>Session duration: 60 minutes in control group</li> <li>Number of treatment sessions: 48 in control group</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration: 24 in control group</li> </ul>
Outcomes	• Cognitive functioning outcomes considered
	• Global cognitive functioning measured with ADAS-Cog at 6 and 18 months,
	on a scale from not reported to not reported with lower values indicating benefit • Episodic memory measured with Logical Memory II (delayed) at 6 and 18
	months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating
	benefit*
	<ul> <li>Executive functioning measured with WAIS-III Similarities at 6 and 18</li> </ul>
	months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating
	benefit
	• Speed of processing measured with SDMT at 6 and 18 months, on a scale
	from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit
	• Verbal fluency measured with COWAT at 6 and 18 months, on a scale from
	not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit
	Physical functioning outcome considered
	• Daily function measured with BAYER-ADL scale at 6 and 18 months, on a
	scale from not reported to not reported with lower values indicating benefit
	• Quality of life outcome considered: none reported
	• Safety outcome considered: none reported
	• Depression outcome considered: none reported
	• Available cognitive functioning outcomes not considered in this review
	• Global cognitive functioning measured with Global Cognition Domain at 6
	and 18 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values
	indicating benefit

• Episodic memory measured with BVRT at 6 and 18 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit

 $\,\circ\,$  Episodic memory measured with Logical Memory I (immediate) at 6 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit\*

 Executive functioning measured with WAIS-III Matrices at 6 and 18 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit

Verbal fluency measured with Category Fluency at 6 and 18 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit
 \*Our hierarchy did not indicate a preference for the delayed subscale over the immediate subscale. Whenever both immediate and delayed subscales were available, the delayed subscale was included in the meta-analyses, as it was thought to be more clinically relevant

58

# Fiatarone Singh 2014 (Continued)

## Notes

# Risk of bias

Risk of blas			
Bias	Authors' judgement	Support for judgement	
Random sequence generation (selection bias)	Low risk	Judgement: adequate method of random sequence generation Quote(s): "a concealed, computer-gen- erated sequence of randomly permuted blocks in a 1:1:1:1 ratio to each of the 4 intervention arms, stratified by sex and age (<75 and 75 years), was generated by a re- search assistant not otherwise involved in the study via a statistical website"	
Allocation concealment (selection bias)	Low risk	Judgement: adequate method of conceal- ment allocation Quote(s): "assignments were then placed in sealed opaque envelopes and delivered to participants by the recruitment officer"	
Blinding of participants (performance bias)	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : study described as double- blinded; however, it is not clear if patients were blinded <b>Quote(s)</b> : "all training was fully supervised by research assistants from exercise physi- ology or physical therapy backgrounds"	
Blinding of physicians / personnel	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : researchers supervising train- ing were not blinded <b>Quote(s)</b> : "all training was fully supervised by research assistants from exercise physi- ology or physical therapy backgrounds"	
Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias) All outcomes	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : blinded outcome assessment <b>Quote(s)</b> : "blinded assessors administered all outcome measures at baseline, 6 and 18 months"	
Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias) All outcomes	Low risk	<b>Judgement:</b> Comparison 1: 24 out of 24 (100%) ran- domised were analysed in experimental group 1, and 27 out of 27 (100%) ran- domised were analysed in control group 1 Comparison 2: 27 out of 27 (100%) ran- domised were analysed in experimental group 2, and 22 out of 22 (100%) ran-	

# Fiatarone Singh 2014 (Continued)

		domised were analysed in control group 2. Statistical analyses were reported to be done according to the intent-to-treat principle <b>Quote(s)</b> : "all patients randomised were in- cluded in the analysis"; "n = 100 for all out- comes"
Selective reporting (reporting bias)	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : all outcomes indicated in the methods section are reported in the results section
Other bias	Low risk	Judgement: no other sources of bias are apparent

# Gooding 2016

Methods	<ul> <li>Design: 3-arm RCT with parallel-group design</li> <li>Recruitment period: not reported</li> <li>No. of centres involved: 4 (participants were recruited through the Memory Disorders Center (MDC) at Columbia University, which includes the Alzheimer's Disease Research Center (ADRC), Doctors Private Offices at the Neurological Institute, and the Memory Disorders Clinic at the New York State Psychiatric Institute (NYSPI), as well as through the Department of Geriatric Psychiatry at the VA Connecticut Healthcare System)</li> <li>Unit of randomisation: individuals</li> <li>No. randomised: 96 (data reported for 74 participants who completed the study - 20 participants in the control group, 31 in the computerised cognitive training group, and 23 in the cognitive vitality programme)</li> <li>Number of arms considered in this review: 3</li> <li>Maximum trial duration: 4 months</li> <li>Funding by non-profit organisation: funded by a grant from the Alzheimer's Association (IIRG-09-131861) and by a Department of Veterans Affairs RR&amp;D Career Development Award (RRD-B4146V)</li> <li>Funding by commercial organisation: none stated</li> <li>Publication status: full-text report</li> </ul>
Participants	<ul> <li>Patient flow: A total of 96 participants were recruited for this study and completed the baseline neuropsychological evaluation. Of these, 74 participants completed the full treatment, 7 completed partial treatment, and 15 did not complete any portion of the assigned treatment. The overall study attrition rate was 23%. Among those who did not complete treatment, 6 participants dropped out after the baseline neuropsychological evaluation, 4 dropped out after completing a portion of the 2-month follow-up evaluation, and 12 dropped out after completing the full 2-month follow-up evaluation</li> <li>Data provided only for 74 participants who completed the study:</li> <li>Number of females, n (%): 43 (58.1%)</li> <li>Average age (SD): 75.79 (8.75)</li> <li>Education (years) (mean, SD): 15.14 (2.58)</li> <li>Baseline cognitive function in mMMSE (mean, SD): 50.58 (2.72)</li> </ul>

## Gooding 2016 (Continued)

• Selection criteria: study sample was recruited through the Memory Disorders Center (MDC) at Columbia University and the VA Connecticut Healthcare System. Inclusion criteria: diagnosis of subclinical cognitive decline established by (1) subjective or informant memory complaints; (2) verbal memory impairment, as measured by > 0. 5 SD decline on Wechsler Memory Scale-Revised (WMS-R) Logical Memory (LM)-II, or Buschke Selective Reminding Test (BSRT); (3) normal general cognitive function, as determined by Mini Mental State Examination (MMSE) score > 24; and (4) normal independent functioning as determined by physician report and > 75 percentile score on Independent Living Scales (ILS)

• Ethnicity (%): non-Hispanic white 59.5%, African American 17.6%, Hispanic/ Latino 17.6%, Asian: 5.4%

• APOE: not reported

#### • Type of experimental intervention (2 arms):

• 1 arm computerised cognitive training (CCT) and 2 arms cognitive vitality training (CVT): treatment phase sessions were provided in individual or group format, twice per week, with each session lasting approximately 60 minutes. Total exposure was the same for all treatment groups and required approximately 30 hours of training within a 16-week period

## • Details of experimental intervention:

• **CCT**: programme incorporated repeated drill-and-practice exercises involving memory, attention, and executive functions within domain-specific training modules that allow for adaptive training with titrated difficulty levels. Software used was BrainFitness version 2.0.1

• **CVT**: participants in the CVT group completed the same exercises as the CCT group using the BrainFitness programme described above, but within an incorporated motivational therapeutic milieu based on the principles put forth by NEAR (allowed to personalise incidental features in the training programme (i.e. can set personal goals rather than follow clinician-set goals)), provided choice over aspects of the training activity (i.e. can select module of choosing and set personal time constraints), and allowed to conceptualise the training into a meaningful, real-world situation (i.e. training programme embedded into the context of high-interest or real-world themes, such as sport games or simulating a business transaction). **This arm was not included in the analysis** 

Type of concomitant treatment provided: not stated

• Session duration: 60 minutes in experimental group

• Number of treatment sessions: twice a week for 16-week period in experimental group

- Treatment frequency: 2 sessions per week
- Maximum treatment duration in months: 16 weeks in experimental group

• Type of control intervention: active; control group, treatment phase sessions were provided in individual or group format, twice per week, with each session lasting approximately 60 minutes. Total exposure was the same for all treatment groups and required approximately 30 hours of training within a 16-week period

• Details of control intervention: participants assigned to the ACG worked on various commercially available computer games and puzzles (e.g. BrainAge, Sudoku, crossword puzzles). Participants in this group worked on computerised games in a similar format to individuals in the CCT group (either at the hospital or remotely from home), and treatment dosage and intensity were identical to the CCT group (i.e. total

#### Interventions

# **Gooding 2016** (Continued)

	<ul> <li>of 2 hours per week)</li> <li>Type of concomitant treatment provided: not stated</li> <li>Session duration: 60 minutes in control group</li> <li>Number of treatment sessions: twice a week for 16-week period in control group</li> <li>Treatment frequency: 2 sessions per week</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration in months: 16 weeks in control group</li> </ul>
Outcomes	<ul> <li>Cognitive functioning outcomes considered <ul> <li>Global cognitive function with mMMSE on a scale from not reported with</li> </ul> </li> <li>An end of the state of</li></ul>
Notes	Funded by a grant from the Alzheimer's Association (IIRG-09-131861) and a Depart- ment of Veterans Affairs RR&D Career Development Award (RRD-B4146V); study authors report no conflict of interest in the study The third arm (CVT) consisted of CCT plus a motivational therapeutic milieu and was not included in the analysis due to the ACG that did not receive the motivational therapeutic milieu intervention

# Risk of bias

Bias	Authors' judgement	Support for judgement
Random sequence generation (selection bias)	Unclear risk	Judgement: no methods for randomisation described Quote(s): "this randomised clinical trial used a test-re-test treatment controlled de- sign with recruited patients randomly as- signed to one of three research arms - com- puterised cognitive training (CCT), cogni- tive vitality training (CVT), or an active control group (ACG)"

# **Gooding 2016** (Continued)

Allocation concealment (selection bias)	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement:</b> no methods for allocation concealment described
Blinding of participants (performance bias)	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : blinding not feasible <b>Quote(s)</b> : none
Blinding of physicians / personnel	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : blinding not feasible <b>Quote(s)</b> : none
Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias) All outcomes	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement:</b> no methods for blinding the outcome assessor described
Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias) All outcomes	High risk	Judgement: high proportion of partici- pants were lost to follow-up Quote(s): "a total of 96 participants were recruited for this study, and completed the baseline neuropsychological evaluation. Of those, 74 participants completed the full treatment, 7 completed a partial portion of the treatment, and 15 did not complete any portion of the assigned treatment. The overall study attrition rate was 23%"
Selective reporting (reporting bias)	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : all outcomes described in the methods section are adequately addressed in the results section
Other bias	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : no other sources of bias are apparent

# Herrera 2012

Methods	<ul> <li>Design: 2-arm RCT with parallel-group design</li> <li>Recruitment period: not reported to not reported</li> <li>No. of centre involved: 1</li> <li>Unit of randomisation: individuals</li> <li>No. randomised: 22</li> <li>Number of arms considered in this review: 2</li> <li>Maximum trial duration: 9 months</li> <li>Funding by non-profit organisation: unclear</li> <li>Funding by commercial organisation: unclear</li> <li>Publication status: full-text report</li> </ul>	
Participants	<ul> <li>Type of MCI: amnestic MCI multiple domains subtype (A-MCImd) consistent with Petersen 2004 criteria</li> <li>Patient flow: 11 randomised, 11 described at baseline in experimental group; 11 randomised, 11 described at baseline in control group</li> </ul>	

## Herrera 2012 (Continued)

• Number of females: 5 of 11 (45%) in experimental group 1; 6 of 11 (55%) in control group 1

• Average age (SD): 75 (2.0) years in experimental group 1; 78 (1.4) years in control group 1

• Average (SD) education: not reported. Experimental group 1: primary: 54%; secondary: 36%; more than secondary: 10%. Control group 1: primary: 37%; secondary: 45%; more than secondary: 18%

• Baseline cognitive function: 3 selection criteria on cognition overall: 1) participants meet definition criteria for A-MCImd (Petersen 2004); 2) all patients had memory complaint; and 3) have normal general cognitive functioning as determined by a Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) score  $\geq 24$ .

• Selection criteria on cognition: experimental group 1: amnestic MCI multiple domains subtype (A-MCImd, according to Petersen 2004). All participants had memory complaint, usually verified by an informant. MMSE, mean (SD): 27.36 (0. 53). Control group 1: amnestic MCI multiple domains subtype (A-MCImd, according to Petersen 2004). All participants had memory complaint, usually verified by an informant. MMSE, mean (SD): 27.18 (0.40)

• Ethnicity: not reported

• APOE: number of participants positive for APOE not reported

• **Type of experimental intervention**: computerised CT group; treatment duration 12 weeks; Intervention provided in group format, under supervision

• Details of experimental intervention: training involved a memory task and an attention task. It was programmed in Java (Release 1.4) and conducted on a Microsoft Windows-based computer. Stimuli were pictures belonging to various categories (e.g. animals, flowers, objects of everyday life) and common words pronounced by the computer. Each picture was  $256 \times 256$  pixels in size. Responses to training tasks were given using a tactile screen, a standard keyboard (using only 2 keys), and a computer mouse. For attention training, we used response time tasks to yes/no choice; for memory training, we used recognition memory tasks with forced choice

- Type of concomitant treatment provided: none reported
- Session duration: 60 minutes in experimental group
- Number of treatment sessions: 24 in experimental group
- Treatment frequency: 2/week in experimental group
- Maximum treatment duration in weeks: 12 in experimental group

• Type of control intervention: other; treatment duration 12 weeks; Intervention provided as individual training, under supervision

• Details of control intervention: cognitive activities consisting of exercises in which participants were asked to find names of countries and corresponding capitals, to organise a list of purchases in categories, to find similarities and differences, to choose a newspaper article and bar all the letters "A", to read a text and then answer questions, to tell a story or construct a sentence from a list of words in disorder, etc.

- Session duration: 60 minutes in control group
- Number of treatment sessions: 24 in control group
- Treatment frequency: 2/week in control group

• Cognitive functioning outcome considered

• <b>Maximum treatment duration in weeks:</b> 12 in control group	
---	--

Outcomes

Interventions

• Episodic memory measured with 16-item free and cued reminding test (16-

## Herrera 2012 (Continued)

FR/CR test) at 3 and 9 months, on a scale from 0 to 16 with higher values indicating benefit

• Working memory measured with Digit span test, backward (type of digit span test used not stated) at 3 and 9 months, on a scale from 0 to not reported with higher values indicating benefit

- Physical functioning outcome considered: none reported
- Quality of life outcome considered: none reported
- Safety outcome considered: none reported
- Depression outcome considered: none reported
- Available cognitive functioning outcomes not considered in this review

• Episodic memory measured with MMSE-recall of 3 words at 3 months, on a scale from 0 to not reported with higher values indicating benefit

• Episodic memory measured with Doors recognition subtest (doors and people battery) set A/12 at 3 and 9 months, on a scale from 0 to not reported with higher values indicating benefit

• Episodic memory measured with Doors recognition subtest (doors and people battery) set B/12 at 3 and 9 months, on a scale from 0 to not reported with higher values indicating benefit

• Episodic memory measured with 12-word-list recall test from BEM-144 memory battery (Signoret 1991) at 3 and 9 months, on a scale from 0 to 12 with higher values indicating benefit

• Episodic memory measured with recall of the Rey-Osterrieth Complex Figure at 3 and 9 months, on a scale from 0 to 36 with higher values indicating benefit

• Episodic memory measured with delayed matching-to-sample 48 test (DMS48 test)-set 1 expressed as recognition score (%) at 3 and 9 months, on a scale from 0 to not reported with higher values indicating benefit

• Working memory measured with Digit span test, forward, at 3 months, on a scale from 0 to not reported with higher values indicating benefit

Notes

Risk	of	bias

Bias	Authors' judgement	Support for judgement
Random sequence generation (selection bias)	Unclear risk	Judgement: no methods for randomising participants have been described Quote(s): "the 22 patients were randomly assigned into two groups (11 patients per group): a group that performed training (Trained group) and a group that partic- ipated in stimulating cognitive activities (Control group)"
Allocation concealment (selection bias)	Unclear risk	Judgement: no description provided
Blinding of participants (performance bias)	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : blinding not reported and in- terventions are clearly different. Neverthe- less, depending on the information partic-

# Herrera 2012 (Continued)

		ipants received, blinding could have been successful. As trial authors did not measure this, we judged unclear risk of bias
Blinding of physicians / personnel	High risk	Judgement: therapists could not be blinded Quote(s): "three trained neuropsycholo- gists were involved in the study: one admin- istered and scored the pre-tests, post-tests, and follow-up tests (this person was kept blind to the group membership of patients) , one supervised training, and one super- vised cognitive activities"
Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias) All outcomes	Low risk	Judgement: assessors were blinded to the treatment assigned, although the method of blinding is not described in detail Quote(s): "three trained neuropsycholo- gists were involved in the study: one admin- istered and scored the pre-tests, post-tests, and follow-up tests (this person was kept blind to the group membership of patients) , one supervised training, and one super- vised cognitive activities"
Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias) All outcomes	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : 11 out of 11 (100%) ran- domised were analysed in the experimen- tal group, and 11 out of 11 (100%) randomised were analysed in the control group. It is not clearly reported if all ran- domised participants were evaluated for this test, so for statistical analyses, we used the number randomised as the number analysed
Selective reporting (reporting bias)	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : all outcomes described in the methods section are adequately addressed in the results section
Other bias	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : the selection process for par- ticipants is not described in sufficient de- tail; few baseline characteristics are de- scribed, not allowing a judgement whether between-group baseline imbalances oc- curred in this small trial

Kwok 2013a

Methods	<ul> <li>Design: 2-arm randomised controlled pilot trial with parallel-group design</li> <li>Recruitment period: not reported</li> <li>No. of centres involved: 6</li> <li>Unit of randomisation: individuals</li> <li>No. randomised: 223</li> <li>Number of arms considered in this review: 2</li> <li>Maximum trial duration: 9 months</li> <li>Funding by non-profit organisation: CADENZA, a Jockey Club Initiative for Seniors</li> <li>Funding by commercial organisation: none described</li> <li>Publication status: full-text report</li> </ul>
Participants	<ul> <li>Type of MCI: not addressed</li> <li>Patient flow: 111 randomised, 111 described at baseline in experimental group;</li> <li>112 randomised, 112 described at baseline in control group</li> <li>Number of females: 97 of 111 (87%) in experimental group; 93 of 112 (83%) in control group</li> <li>Average age (SD): 75 (5.8) years in experimental group; 75 (5.8) years in control group</li> <li>Average (SD) education: no formal education 6 (5.4%); below or at primary level 84 (75.7%); secondary or above 21 (18.9%) in experimental group; no formal education 14 (12.5%); below or at primary level 72 (64.3%); secondary or above 26 (23.2%) in control group</li> <li>Baseline cognitive function: measured with CMSS and CMMSE</li> <li>Selection criteria on cognition: subjective memory complaints: score ≥ 3 on Chinese Memory Symptoms Scale (mean 4.2, SD 0.8 in experimental group; mean 4. 0, SD 0.8 in control group); no dementia: score ≥ 20 on Chinese version of Mini Mental State Examination (mean 25.6, SD 2.5 in experimental group; mean 25.7, SD 2.5 in control group)</li> <li>Ethnicity: 111 Asian in experimental group; 112 Asian in control group</li> <li>APOE: number of participants positive for APOE not reported</li> </ul>
Interventions	<ul> <li>Type of experimental intervention: computerised CT, treatment duration 12 weeks; intervention provided as group training, under supervision</li> <li>Details of experimental intervention: CCT based on ACTIVE trial protocol, with focus on attention, memory, and reasoning</li> <li>Type of concomitant treatment provided: none</li> <li>Session duration: 90 minutes in experimental group</li> <li>Number of treatment sessions: 12 in experimental group</li> <li>Treatment frequency: 1/week in experimental group</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration: 12 weeks in experimental group</li> <li>Type of control intervention: other; treatment duration 12 weeks; intervention provided as group training, under supervision</li> <li>Details of control intervention: "series of health-related educational lectures in small groups on prevention of mood disorder, heart diseases, diabetes, and stroke"</li> <li>Session duration: 90 minutes in control group</li> <li>Number of treatment sessions: 12 in control group</li> <li>Maximum treatment sessions: 12 in control group</li> <li>Mumber of treatment sessions: 12 in control group</li> <li>Mumber of treatment sessions: 12 in control group</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration: 12 weeks in control group</li> </ul>

# Kwok 2013a (Continued)

Outcomes	<ul> <li>Cognitive functioning outcome considered <ul> <li>Global cognitive functioning measured with total score of the Chinese</li> </ul> </li> <li>Version of Mattis Dementia Rating Scale (CDRS) at 12 weeks on a scale from 0 to 144, with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Physical functioning outcome considered: none</li> <li>Quality of life outcome considered: none</li> <li>Depression outcome considered: none</li> <li>Safety outcome considered: none</li> <li>Safety outcome considered: none</li> <li>Available cognitive functioning outcomes not considered in this review <ul> <li>CDRS subscale: attention at 12 weeks and 9 months on a scale from 0 to 37 with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>CDRS subscale: construction at 12 weeks and 9 months on a scale from 0 to 6 with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>CDRS subscale: construction at 12 weeks and 9 months on a scale from 0 to 6 with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>CDRS subscale: conceptualisation at 12 weeks and 9 months on a scale from 0 to 6 with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>CDRS subscale: conceptualisation at 12 weeks and 9 months on a scale from 0 to 6 with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>CDRS subscale: conceptualisation at 12 weeks and 9 months on a scale from 0 to 25 with higher values indicating benefit</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
Notes	Although Kwok 2013a measured global cognitive function at 9 months of follow-up, they did not report data for the entire study population

# Risk of bias

Bias	Authors' judgement	Support for judgement
Random sequence generation (selection bias)	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : method of allocation not reported <b>Quote(s)</b> : "single-blind randomized placebo-controlled trial"
Allocation concealment (selection bias)	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : method of allocation conceal- ment not reported <b>Quote(s)</b> : none
Blinding of participants (performance bias)	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : blinding not feasible <b>Quote(s)</b> : none
Blinding of physicians / personnel	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : blinding not feasible <b>Quote(s)</b> : none
Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias) All outcomes	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : outcome assessor explicitly reported to be blind <b>Quote(s)</b> : "trained research assistant who was blind to treatment assignment"

# Kwok 2013a (Continued)

Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias) All outcomes	Low risk	Judgement: 103 out of 111 (93%) ran- domised in experimental group were anal- ysed, and 103 out of 112 (92%) ran- domised in control group were analysed. Fraction with missing data below 10% Quote(s): none; "the authors did not men- tion analyses to be in line with intent-to- treat principles, neither did they report on imputation techniques"
Selective reporting (reporting bias)	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : incomplete reporting of non- significant outcome data for the overall group. For example, outcome data for the CDRS total score were not abstractable for the overall group but were reported for sub- groups with low, moderate, or high educa- tional baseline values
Other bias	Low risk	Judgement: none detected

# Optale 2010

Methods	<ul> <li>Design: 2-arm randomised controlled pilot trial with parallel-group design</li> <li>Recruitment period: not reported</li> <li>No. of centres involved: 1</li> <li>Unit of randomisation: individuals</li> <li>No. randomised: 36</li> <li>Number of arms considered in this review: 2</li> <li>Maximum trial duration: 6 months</li> <li>Funding by non-profit organisation: Consorzio Sociale CPS gestore centro servizi "Anni Sereni" Rest-Home, Scorzè, Venice, Italy (to Gabriele Optale). Cosimo Urgesi was supported by the Scientific Institute (IRCCS) Eugenio Medea (Ricerca Corrente 2009, Italian Ministry of Health)</li> <li>Funding by commercial organisation: none reported</li> <li>Publication status: full-text report</li> </ul>
Participants	<ul> <li>Type of MCI: not applicable; diagnosis of MCI was not required</li> <li>Patient flow: 18 randomised, 15 described at baseline in experimental group; 18 randomised, 16 described at baseline in control group</li> <li>Number of females: 10 of 15 (67%) in experimental group 1; 11 of 16 (69%) in control group 1</li> <li>Average age (SD): 79 (10.9) years in experimental group 1; 82 (5.0) years in control group 1</li> <li>Average (SD) education: 5.3 (2.4) years in experimental group; 6 (3.5) years in control group</li> <li>Baseline cognitive function: measured with selection criteria on cognition overall: presence of memory deficits as documented by a corrected total score at the Verbal Story Recall (VSR) Test below the cut-off value (15.76)</li> </ul>

	<ul> <li>Selection criteria on cognition: presence of memory deficits as documented by a corrected total score at the Verbal Story Recall (VSR) test below the cut-off value (15. 76). Corrected MMSE score ranged from 9.7 to 29.3, with 9 participants in experimental group presenting a score below the cut-off value (23.8) and ranging from 13.1 to 29, and with 12 participants in control group presenting a score below the cut-off value (23.8)</li> <li>Ethnicity: not reported</li> <li>APOE: number of participants positive for APOE not reported</li> </ul>
Interventions	<ul> <li>Type of experimental intervention: computerised CT, individualised; treatment duration 24 weeks; intervention provided as individual training, under supervision</li> <li>Details of experimental intervention: virtual reality memory training that involved auditory stimulation and virtual reality experiences in path finding. VR experiences are administered through a head-mounted display V6. The VR system runs on a notebook PC</li> <li>Type of concomitant treatment provided: both groups participated in recreational expressive activities (reading/discussing newspapers and magazines, watching TV documentaries, participating in creative and painting workshops) and assisted-mobility activities during training</li> <li>Session duration: 30 minutes in experimental group</li> <li>Number of treatment sessions: 60 in experimental group</li> <li>Treatment frequency: 3/week during first 3 months (36 sessions); 2/week in subsequent 3 months (24 sessions) in experimental group</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration, in weeks: 24 in experimental group</li> <li>Type of control intervention: "individual face-to-face training sessions using music therapy"</li> <li>Session duration: 30 minutes in control group</li> <li>Number of treatment sessions: 60 in control group</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration, in weeks: 24 in experimental group</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration; in control group</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration; in control group</li> <li>Mumber of treatment sessions: 60 in control group</li> <li>Mumber of treatment sessions: 60 in control group</li> <li>Mumber of treatment sessions: 60 in control group</li> <li>Mumber of treatment sessions: 20 in control group</li> <li>Mumber of treatment sessions: 40 in control group</li> </ul>
Outcomes	<ul> <li>Cognitive functioning outcomes considered         <ul> <li>Global cognitive functioning measured with Mini Mental State Examination at 3 and 6 months, on a scale from 0 to 30, with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Episodic memory measured with Verbal Story Recall at 3 and 6 months, on a scale from 0 to 28, with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Executive functioning measured with Dual Task Performance at 3 and 6 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Working memory measured with Digit Span ('WAIS procedure') at 3 and 6 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Verbal fluency measured with Phonemic Verbal Fluency at 3 and 6 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Verbal fluency measured with Phonemic Verbal Fluency at 3 and 6 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Verbal fluency measured with Phonemic Verbal Fluency at 3 and 6 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Verbal fluency measured with Phonemic Verbal Fluency at 3 and 6 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>("The PVF requires the participant to produce in 1 minute all the words he or she can remember, starting with the letters C, P, and S")</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

# **Optale 2010** (Continued)

<ul> <li>Physical functioning outcome considered <ul> <li>Daily function measured with Activities of Daily Living - functions at 3 and</li> </ul> </li> <li>6 months, on a scale from 0 to 60, with lower values indicating benefit <ul> <li>Quality of life outcome considered:</li> <li>Nortality measured at 6 months</li> </ul> </li> <li>Depression outcome considered <ul> <li>Depression outcome considered</li> <li>Depression measured with Geriatric Depression Scale at 3 and 6 months, on</li> </ul> </li> <li>a scale from 0 to 15, with lower values indicating benefit <ul> <li>Available cognitive functioning outcomes not considered in this review</li> <li>Executive functioning measured with Cognitive Estimation Test at 3 and 6 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

Notes

Risk	of bias	•

Bias	Authors' judgement	Support for judgement
Random sequence generation (selection bias)	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : method for generating ran- dom sequence is not clearly reported <b>Quote(s)</b> : "for each replicate, half of the participants were randomly allocated to the EG, whereas the remaining participants were allocated to the CG"
Allocation concealment (selection bias)	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : method of allocation conceal- ment is not reported <b>Quote(s)</b> : "for each replicate, half of the participants were randomly allocated to the EG, whereas the remaining participants were allocated to the CG"
Blinding of participants (performance bias)	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : patients were not blinded <b>Quote(s)</b> : "a randomized controlled single- blind procedure was used, in which the ex- aminer administrating the clinical and neu- ropsychological tests remained unaware of the participants' allocations to the EG or CG"
Blinding of physicians / personnel	High risk	Judgement: therapist supervising the train- ing was not blinded Quote(s): "a randomized controlled single- blind procedure was used, in which the ex- aminer administrating the clinical and neu- ropsychological tests remained unaware of the participants' allocations to the EG or CG"

Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias) All outcomes	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : the outcome assessor was explicitly described to be blinded to the intervention assigned <b>Quote(s)</b> : "the examiner administrating the clinical and neuropsychological tests remained unaware of the participants' allocations to the EG or CG"
Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias) All outcomes	High risk	Judgement: 15 out of 18 (83%) ran- domised in experimental group were anal- ysed, and 16 out of 18 (89%) randomised in control group were analysed. We judged high risk of bias, as the percentage ran- domised but not analysed exceeded 10%; a complete case analyses was performed <b>Quote(s)</b> : "one experimental group (EG) participant and 2 control group (CG) participants died before completing the booster training. Furthermore, 2 EG par- ticipants left the rest home and went back to their families before completing the booster phase. Because we aimed to investigate the effects of both the initial and the booster training phases, the 5 participants yielding incomplete data were not included in the analyses"
Selective reporting (reporting bias)	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : 1 out of 13 outcomes was not consistently performed for unclear reasons <b>Quote(s)</b> : "the Trail Making Test was also part of the evaluation protocol but could not be administered to most participants and was not included in the final analysis"
Other bias	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : no other potential risks of bias detected.

# **Optale 2010** (Continued)

Rozzini 2007

Methods	<ul> <li>Design: 3-arm RCT with parallel-group design</li> <li>Recruitment period: not reported</li> <li>No. of centres involved: 2</li> <li>Unit of randomisation: individuals</li> <li>No. randomised: 37</li> <li>Number of arms considered in this review: 2</li> <li>Maximum trial duration: 12 months</li> <li>Funding by non-profit organisation: unclear</li> <li>Funding by commercial organisation: unclear</li> <li>Publication status: full-text report</li> </ul>
Participants	<ul> <li>Type of MCI: consistent with Petersen 2001 criteria</li> <li>Patient flow: 15 randomised, 15 described at baseline in experimental group; 22 randomised, 22 described at baseline in control group</li> <li>Number of females: unknown in experimental group 1; unknown in control group 1</li> <li>Average age (SD): median age (min to max) is 63 to 78 years in experimental group 1</li> <li>Average (SD) education: not reported</li> <li>Baseline cognitive function: instrument to measure baseline cognitive function not reported</li> <li>Selection criteria on cognition overall: MCI Petersen criteria</li> <li>Ethnicity: not reported</li> <li>APOE: number of participants positive for APOE not reported</li> </ul>
Interventions	<ul> <li>Type of experimental intervention: computerised CT; intervention provided as individual training, under supervision</li> <li>Details of experimental intervention: multi-dimensional software (TNP software)</li> <li>Type of concomitant treatment provided: "the patients treated with ChEIs (n ¼37) received at baseline donepezil (n =26; 70%), rivastigmine (n = 6; 16%) and galantamine (n = 5; 14%) as per the clinician's judgment at different dosages (donepezil 5-10 mg/ daily; rivastigmine 1, 5-3 mg/b.i.d. or higher; galantamine 4-8 mg/b.i.d. or higher). There were no statistical differences in the distributions of drugs between the treated groups"</li> <li>Session duration: 60 minutes in experimental group</li> <li>Treatment frequency: 5/week in experimental group</li> <li>Maximum treatment duration, in weeks: 12 in experimental group</li> <li>Type of control intervention: other; treatment duration not reported; intervention provided as individual training, without supervision</li> <li>Details of control intervention: cholinesterase inhibitors</li> <li>Session duration: not reported in control group</li> <li>Number of treatment sessions: not reported in control group</li> </ul>
Outcomes	<ul> <li>Cognitive functioning outcomes considered         <ul> <li>Global cognitive functioning measured with MMSE at 12 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> <li>Episodic memory measured with short story at 12 months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

## Rozzini 2007 (Continued)

<ul> <li>Executive functioning measured with Raven's coloured matrices at 12</li> </ul>
months, on a scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating
benefit
• Verbal fluency measured with Letter verbal fluency at 12 months, on a scale
from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit
Physical functioning outcome considered
$\circ~$ Daily function measured with BADL at 12 months, on a scale from not
reported to not reported with lower values indicating benefit
Quality of life outcome considered
<ul> <li>Not reported</li> </ul>
• Safety outcome considered: none reported
Depression outcome considered
• Depression measured with Geriatric Depression Scale at 1 year, on a scale
from 0 to 15, with lower values indicating benefit
• Available cognitive functioning outcome not considered in this review
• Verbal fluency measured with Semantic verbal fluency at 12 months, on a
scale from not reported to not reported with higher values indicating benefit

Notes

# Risk of bias

Bias	Authors' judgement	Support for judgement
Random sequence generation (selection bias)	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : method of random sequence generation not reported <b>Quote(s)</b> : "randomisation was made by a member of the research team"
Allocation concealment (selection bias)	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : method of allocation not reported <b>Quote(s)</b> : "randomisation was made by a member of the research team"
Blinding of participants (performance bias)	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : blinding not feasible <b>Quote(s)</b> : none
Blinding of physicians / personnel	High risk	<b>Judgement</b> : blinding not feasible <b>Quote(s)</b> : none
Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias) All outcomes	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : blinded outcome assessors <b>Quote(s)</b> : "the administration of the pre- post neuropsychological measures and the training program were conducted by two different experienced neuropsychologist, blinded to the subjects' group status"

## Rozzini 2007 (Continued)

Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias) All outcomes	Low risk	<b>Judgement:</b> 15 out of 15 (100%) ran- domised in experimental group were anal- ysed, and 22 out of 22 (100%) randomised in control group were analysed. From the Table, it seems that all included patients were considered for inclusion in the analy- sis, although this is not clearly reported in the text
Selective reporting (reporting bias)	Low risk	<b>Judgement</b> : all outcomes indicated in the methods section are reported in the results section
Other bias	Unclear risk	<b>Judgement</b> : participants characteristics are not described and the selection process is not reported; it is unclear if participants were included consecutively

16-FR/CR test: 16-item free and cued reminding test (also RI-RI-16: rappel libre / rappel indicé à 16 items)

3MS: Mini Mental State Examination.

ACG: active control group.

ADAS-Cog: Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale Cognitive.

A-MCImd: amnestic MCI multiple domains subtype.

APOE: apolipoprotein E.

BADL: Brief Activities of Daily Living.

BAYER-ADL: Bayer Activities of Daily Living Scale.

BSRT: Buschke Selective Reminding Test.

BVRT: Benton Visual Retention Test.

CCE: computerised cognitive engagement.

CCS: computerised cognitive stimulation.

CG: control group.

ChEI: cholinesterase inhibitor. CMMSE: Chinese version of Mini-Mental State Examination.

CMSS: Chinese Memory Symptoms Scale

COWAT: Controlled Oral Word Association Test.

CT: cognitive training.

CVT: cognitive vitality training.

DSST: Digit Symbol Substitution Test.

EFT: Eriksen Flanker Test

EG: experimental group.

ILS: independent living scales.

LM: logical memory.

MCI: mild cognitive impairment.

mMMSE: modified Mini Mental State Examination.

MMSE: Mini Mental State Examination.

NEAR: Neuropsychological and Educational Approach to Remediation model of treatment

PRT: progressive resistance training.

RAVLT: Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test.

RCT: randomised controlled test. SD: standard deviation. SDMT: Symbol Digit Modality Test. TMT-B and -A: Trail Making Test-B and -A. UFOV: useful field of view. WAIS: Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale. WMS-R: Wechsler Memory Scale-Revised.

# Characteristics of excluded studies [ordered by study ID]

Study	Reason for exclusion
Adel 2013	Wrong study design
Alves 2014	Wrong intervention
Alves 2014a	Wrong intervention
Anderson 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (2-arm trial; $n = 67$ ; likely cognitive healthy; mean age 63 years; extension of earlier trial)
Ann 2012	Wrong patient population
Apostolo 2014	Wrong patient population
Baglio 2011	Nature of intervention unclear
Ball 2002	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 5- to 6-week intervention period with 2- to 3-week booster period at 11 and 35 months (4-arm trial ACTIVE; n = 2832; cognitively healthy; mean age 74 years)
Ball 2002a	Duplicate
Ball 2006	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks. Multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Ball 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Ballesteros 2014	Duplicate
Ballesteros 2014a	Duplicate
Ballesteros 2015	Duplicate
Ballesteros 2015a	Duplicate
Ballesteros 2017	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Bamidis 2015	Wrong study design

Baniqued 2014	Adult population
Baniqued 2015	Younger than 30 years of age
Barban 2012	Duplicate
Barban 2016	Wrong study design
Barbosa 2015	Wrong intervention
Barcelos 2015	Wrong intervention
Barnes 2006	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Barnes 2009	Duplicate
Basak 2016	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 2 week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 46; cognitively healthy; mean age 69 years)
Beck 2013	Wrong intervention
Belchior 2007	Wrong outcomes
Belchior 2008	Wrong outcomes
Belleville 2006	Wrong intervention
Belleville 2014	Wrong outcomes
Berry 2010	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 3 to 5 weeks (2-arm trial: n = 32; cognitively healthy; mean age 72 years)
Bier 2015	Wrong study design
Binder 2016	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Bittner 2013	Wrong study design
Borella 2010	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 2 weeks (2-arm trial; n = 40; cognitively healthy; mean age 69 years)
Borella 2013	Wrong intervention
Borella 2014	Duplicate
Borella 2017	Wrong intervention
Boripuntakul 2012	Wrong intervention

Borness 2013	Wrong patient population
Bottiroli 2009	Duplicate
Bottiroli 2009a	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 3 training sessions (2-arm trial; n = 44; cognitively healthy; mean age 66 years)
Bozoki 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 6-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 60; cognitively healthy; mean age 69 years)
Brehmer 2012	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 5-week intervention period (2-arm trial stratified by younger and older age groups; $n = 45$ in old age groups, $n = 55$ in young age groups; cognitively healthy; mean age 64 years in old age groups, 26 in young age groups)
Brum 2013	Duplicate
Buitenweg 2017	Wrong intervention
Buiza 2008	Wrong intervention
Bureš 2016	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Buschert 2011	Wrong intervention
Buschert 2011a	Duplicate
Buschert 2012	Wrong intervention
Buschert 2012a	Duplicate
Calkins 2011	Wrong intervention
Cammarata 2011	No outcome given
Cancela 2015	Wrong patient population
Candela 2015	Wrong intervention
Cantarella 2017	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Cao 2016	Wrong route of administration
Carretti 2013	Wrong intervention
Casutt 2014	Wrong outcomes
Chapman 2015	Wrong intervention

Chapman 2016	Wrong intervention
Chapman 2017	Wrong intervention
Cheng 2012	Wrong intervention
Cheng 2018	Wrong patient population
Cho 2002	Younger than 30 years of age
Cleverley 2012	Wrong intervention
Cohen-Mansfield 2014	Wrong intervention
Cohen-Mansfield 2014a	Wrong intervention
Cohen-Mansfield 2015	Wrong intervention
Cohen-Mansfield 2015a	Duplicate
Combourieu 2014	Wrong outcomes
Corbett 2015	Wrong patient population
Costa 2015	Wrong patient population
Danassi 2015	Duplicate
Dannhauser 2014	Wrong study design
de Almondes 2017	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
de Macedo 2015	Wrong outcomes
De Vreese 1996	Wrong intervention
Desjardins-Crépeau 2016	Wrong patient population
Diamond 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 7-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 64; cognitively healthy; mean age 66 years)
Dittmann-Kohli 1991	Wrong intervention
Duncan 2009	Wrong intervention

Dwolatzky 2005	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Wolinsky 2015 (IHAMS study) . This citation refers to the trial registration NCT01165463
Eckroth-Bucher 2009	Wrong patient population
Edwards 2005	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: maximum 12 sessions (2-arm SKILL trial; n = 126; participants with initial processing speed or processing difficulty; mean age 76 years)
Edwards 2011	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for Edwards 2005 (SKILL trial)
Edwards 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: planned treatment duration 10 to 12 weeks, but less than 12 weeks provided on average
Edwards 2015a	Duplicate
Efthymiou 2011	Wrong comparator.
Engvig 2014	Wrong study design
Fabre 2002	Wrong intervention
Faille 2007	Nature of intervention unclear
Fairchild 2010	Wrong intervention
Feng 2013	Wrong intervention
Feng 2015	Wrong intervention
Feng 2017	Wrong patient population
Finn 2011	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Finn 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 4-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 41; participants with MCI; mean age 75 years)
Finn 2015a	Duplicate
Flak 2013	Study protocol
Flak 2014	Study protocol
Flak 2014a	Study protocol
Flak 2016	Study protocol
Foerster 2009	No outcome given

Forloni 2012	No outcome given
Forster 2011	Wrong intervention
Fortman 2013	Wrong comparator
Gagnon 2012	Wrong study design
Gagnon 2012a	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 2-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 24; participants with MCI; mean age 68 years)
Gaitan 2013	Wrong patient population
Gajewski 2012	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: cognitive training over 16 weeks, of which 12 concerned comput- erised cognitive training (4-arm trial; n = 141; cognitively healthy; mean age 71 years)
Gajewski 2017	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Garcia-Campuzano 2013	Nature of intervention unclear
Gates 2011	Study protocol
Gill 2016	Wrong intervention
Gillette 2009	No outcome given
Giovannini 2015	No outcome given
Giuli 2016	Wrong intervention
Giuli 2017	Wrong intervention
Golino 2017	Wrong intervention
Haesner 2015	Wrong study design
Haesner 2015a	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention (2-arm trial; n = 80, 40 cognitively healthy and 40 with subjective memory complaints; mean age 70 years)
Haimov 2013	Duplicate
Haimov 2013a	Duplicate
Haimov 2013b	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (2-arm study; n = 51; likely cognitively healthy; mean age 72 years)

Haimov 2013c	Duplicate
Haimov 2013d	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for Haimov 2013b
Haimov 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for Haimov 2013b
Haimov 2014a	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for Haimov 2013b
Hardy 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 10-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 9919; cognitively healthy; mean age 39 years; subgroup data by age can be analysed)
Hausmann 2012	Wrong intervention
Hayashi 2012	Wrong intervention
Hayslip B Jr 2016	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Heinzel 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 4-week intervention period (2-arm trial; $n = 60$ ; 2-arm trial stratified by younger and older age groups; $n = 30$ in old age groups, $n = 30$ in young age groups; cognitively healthy; mean age 66 years in old age groups, 26 in young age groups)
Hudak 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 10-week intervention period (3-arm trial; n = 53; cognitively healthy; mean age 82 years)
Hötting 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 6 sessions during 1 month (4-arm trial; n = 33; cognitively healthy; mean age 49 years)
Ignjatovic 2015	Younger than 30 years of age
Irigaray 2012	Wrong intervention
Israel 1997	Nature of intervention unclear
ISRCTN70130279	Wrong intervention
Jackson 2012	Nature of intervention unclear
Jansen 2012	Wrong intervention
Jean 2010	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 3-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 22; participants with MCI; mean age 69 years)
Jeong 2016	Wrong intervention
Jobe 2001	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Jones 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)

Kampanaros 2010	Wrong intervention
Kholin 2010	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 30-day intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 60; participants with MCI; age not reported; conference abstract)
Kim 2012	Wrong outcomes
Kim 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 10-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 20; participants with MCI or dementia; mean age 69 years)
Kim 2013a	Wrong outcomes
Kim 2015	Nature of intervention unclear
Kim 2015a	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 28; cognitively healthy; mean age 72 years)
Kim 2015b	Duplicate
Kivipelto 2014	Wrong intervention
Klusmann 2009	Duplicate
Klusmann 2010	Wrong patient population
Klusmann 2010a	Duplicate
Klusmann 2011	Younger than 30 years of age
Kudelka 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (4-arm trial; n = 96; cognitively healthy; mean age 65 years)
Kwak 2015	Nature of intervention unclear
Kwak 2017	Nature of intervention unclear
Kwok 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 194; mean MMSE score 25.92; mean age 75 years)
Lampit 2013	Wrong study design
Lampit 2014	Wrong patient population
Lampit 2015	Wrong outcomes
Lavretsky 2016	Nature of intervention unclear

Law 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 10-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 83; participants with MCI; mean age 74 years)
Law 2014a	Duplicate
Lee 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 6-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 30; mean MMSE-K 26; mean age 72 years)
Lee 2013a	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 31; cognitively healthy; mean age 65 years)
Lee 2013b	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for Lee 2013a
Lee 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (2 2-arm pilots trials; $n = 31 \& n = 39$ ; likely cognitively healthy; age not reported; conference abstract that is part of multiple reports for Lee 2015)
Lee 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 39; cognitively healthy; mean age 65 years)
Legault 2011	Wrong patient population
Leon 2015	Wrong comparator
Leung 2015	Wrong patient population
Li 2010	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: intervention period 5 weeks (2-arm trial; n = 20; cognitively healthy; mean age 76 years)
Linde 2014	Nature of intervention unclear
Mace 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 3-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 43; mild cognitive complaints; mean age 78 years)
Mahncke 2006	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8 to 10 weeks (2-arm trial; n = 182; cognitively healthy; mean age 71 years)
Man 2012	Wrong comparator
Mann 2012	Wrong study population
Margrett 2006	Wrong patient population
Mayas 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 20 sessions provided in 10- to 12-week intervention period (n = 27; 2-arm trial; cognitively healthy; mean age 69)

McAvinue 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 5-week intervention period (n = 36; 2-arm trial; likely cognitively healthy; mean age 70)
McDaniel 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (n = 96; 4-arm trial, cognitively healthy, mean age 65 years)
McDougall 2012	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 6-week intervention period (n = 41; 2-arm trial; likely cognitively healthy; mean age 75)
Middleton 2012	Wrong intervention
Miller 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (n = 69; 2-arm trial; cognitively healthy; mean age 81.8)
Mohs 1998	Wrong intervention
Mombelli 2012	No outcome given
Moon 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 10-week intervention period (n = 38; likely participants with MCI; age not reported; conference abstract only)
Mowszowski 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 7-week intervention period ( $n = 53$ ; participants with memory complaints, MCI or late life depression; mean age 66)
Mowszowski 2014a	Duplicate
Mozolic 2010	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (n = 66; mean age 69; cognitively healthy participants)
Mozolic 2011	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for Mozolic 2010
Muller 2011	Nature of intervention unclear
Na 2013	Duplicate
Na 2014	Nature of intervention unclear
Naismith 2014	Duplicate
Navarro 2006	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 14 sessions; intervention duration not reported, but maximal follow- up duration was 84 days (2-arm trial; n = 80; likely cognitively healthy; mean age 66 years)
NCT00544856	Nature of intervention unclear
NCT02417558 2015	Nature of intervention unclear
NCT02462135 2014	No outcome given

NCT02480738 2012	No outcome given
NCT02512627 2015	No outcome given
NCT02747784 2016	Wrong patient population
NCT02774083 2015	Wrong comparator
NCT02785315 2016	Wrong intervention
NCT02808676 2016	Wrong intervention
Neely 2013	Nature of intervention unclear
Ng 2015	Wrong intervention
Ngandu 2015	Wrong intervention
Ngandu 2015a	Wrong intervention
Nishiguchi 2015	Wrong intervention
Nouchi 2012	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 4-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 32; cognitively healthy; mean age 69)
Nouchi 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Nozawa 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (3-arm trial; n = 37; cognitively healthy; mean age 68)
O'Caoimh 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Oei 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 4-week intervention period (5-arm trial; n = 75; cognitively healthy; mean age 21)
Oliveira 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 10-week intervention period. (2-arm cohort study; n = 182; subjective memory complaints; mean age not reported, all over 50 years of age, conference abstract only)
Otsuka 2015	Wrong study design
Park 2009	Nature of intervention unclear
Park 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 2-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 40; cognitively healthy; mean age 70)
Payne 2012	Wrong intervention

Payne 2017	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks
Peretz 2011	Wrong patient population
R000001637	Nature of intervention unclear
Rahe 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 6.5-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 30; cognitively healthy; mean age 67 years)
Rahe 2015a	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 7-week intervention period (3-arm trial; n = 81; cognitively healthy; mean age 68 years)
Rebok 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Rebok 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Redick 2013	Younger than 30 years of age
Requena 2016	Wrong intervention
Rizkalla 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 4-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 56; cognitively healthy; mean age 73 years)
Rojas 2013	Wrong intervention
Rose 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 1-month intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 59; cognitively healthy; mean age 67 years)
Rosen 2011	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 2-month intervention period (2-arm pilot trial; n = 12; participants with MCI; mean age 74)
Ryu 2013	Wrong study design
Sakka 2015	Wrong study design
Santos 2011	Wrong comparator
Schoene 2015	Duplicate
Schoene 2015a	Duplicate
Schumacher 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 10-week intervention period (3-arm trial; n = 63; cognitively healthy participants; mean age 72; conference abstract)
Shah 2012	Wrong patient population
Shatil 2013	Wrong patient population

Shatil 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 140; cognitively healthy; mean age 68)
Shatil 2014a	Duplicate citation
Sisco 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Slegers 2009	Wrong intervention
Smith 2009	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (2-arm trial IMPACT; n = 487; cogni- tively healthy; mean age 75 years)
Smith-Ray 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 10-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 45; cognitively healthy; mean age 72)
Smith-Ray 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 10-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 51; cognitively healthy; mean age 82)
Smith-Ray 2015a	Duplicate
Solomon 2014	Wrong comparator
Song 2009	Wrong intervention
Stepankova 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 5-week intervention period (3-arm trial; n = 68; cognitively healthy; mean age 68 years)
Stine-Morrow 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: CCT intervention period 10 weeks (3-arm trial; n = 461; cognitively healthy; mean age 73 years)
Strenziok 2013	Duplicate
Strenziok 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 6-week intervention period (3-arm trial; n = 42; cognitively healthy; mean age 69 years)
Sturz 2011	Wrong patient population
Sturz 2011a	Nature of intervention unclear
Sturz 2015	Duplicate
Styliadis 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention (5-arm trial; n = 70; participants with MCI; mean age 71 years)
Styliadis 2015a	Duplicate
Suo 2012	Wrong outcomes

Szelag 2012	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-week intervention period (3-arm trial; n = 30; cognitively healthy; mean age 69 years)
Talib 2008	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 4-session intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 23; cognitively healthy; mean age 68 years)
Tappen 2014	Wrong intervention
Tennstedt 2013	Study protocol: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Tesky 2012	Wrong intervention
Tsai 2008	Wrong study design
Tsolaki 2013	Nature of intervention unclear
Tucker-Drob 2009	Wrong study design
van den Berg 2016	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 2-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 58; rehabilitation inpatients with MMSE $\geq$ 21 (mean MMSE 26 with SD = 3 in experimental and 27 with SD = 3 in control); mean age 80 years)
van der Ploeg 2016	Wrong study design
Van het Reve 2014	Wrong patient population
Vance 2007	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 2 to 3 months (n = 159; cognitively healthy but with speed of processing impairment; mean age 75 years)
Vidovich 2009	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Vidovich 2015 (PACE trial)
Vidovich 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 5-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 160; participants with MCI; mean age 75 years; PACE trial)
Vidovich 2015a	Duplicate
von Bastian 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 4-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 57 in the elderly subgroup; cognitively healthy; mean age 69 years in the elderly subgroup)
Wadley 2007	Wrong study design
Walton 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 4-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 28; cognitively healthy; mean age 64 years)
Wang 2013	Wrong intervention

Weicker 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 4-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = not reported; cognitively healthy; age 60 to 75 years; conference abstract)
Wild-Wall 2012	Wrong outcomes
Williams 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 3-week intervention period (3-arm trial; n = 103; mild impairment in cognition, expressed concern about cognitive changes, or mild dementia - mean MMSE = 25.3; mean age 86 years)
Willis 1986	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 2-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 229; cognitively stable and cognitively declined participant subgroups; mean age 73 years)
Willis 2006	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Willis 2006a	Duplicate
Willis 2007	Duplicate
Willis 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Wojtynska 2011	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 6-week intervention period (2-arm trial, stratified by 3 cognitive strata; $n = 34$ MCI, $n = 29$ AD, $n = 12$ cognitively healthy; participants with MCI and early dementia; mean age 69 years; conference abstract)
Wolinsky 2006	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Wolinsky 2006a	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Wolinsky 2010	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Wolinsky 2010a	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Ball 2002 (trial ACTIVE)
Wolinsky 2013	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Wolinsky 2015 (IHAMS study)
Wolinsky 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 5- to 6-week intervention period with booster at 11 months (4- arm trial; $n = 681$ ; cognitively healthy; 50 to 64 years, $n = 455$ ; and 65 years and above, $n = 226$ ; Iowa Healthy and Active Minds Study (IHAMS study)
Yam 2014	Wrong intervention
Yassuda 2015	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 8-session intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 60; participants without depression/dementia; mean age not reported; conference abstract)
Yip 2012	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 5-week intervention period (3-arm trial; n = 56; participants with acquired brain injury and subjective memory complaints; mean age 52 years)

Yoonmi 2012	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 6-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 30; cognitively healthy; aged 65 to 80 years)
Youn 2011	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 5-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 40; participants with subjective memory complaints; mean age 69 years)
Zelinski 2011	Wrong study design
Zelinski 2011a	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: multiple reports for excluded trial: Smith 2009 (IMPACT)
Zhuang 2013	Wrong patient population
Zimmermann 2014	Intervention shorter than 12 weeks: 6-week intervention period (2-arm trial; n = 20; cognitively healthy; mean age 68 years)

MMSE: Mini Mental State Examination.

# DATA AND ANALYSES

Outcome or subgroup title	No. of studies	No. of participants	Statistical method	Effect size
1 Global cognitive function	5		Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
1.1 End of trial	5	407	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.53 [-1.06, -0.01]
1.2 Immediate time point (12 weeks)	4	356	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.31 [-0.70, 0.08]
1.3 Short time point (12 weeks to 1 year)	2	82	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-1.23 [-1.89, -0.56]
1.4 Medium time point (1 year to 2 years)	1	100	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.16 [-0.23, 0.55]
2 Episodic memory	5		Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
2.1 End of trial	5	223	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.79 [-1.54, -0.04]
2.2 Immediate time point (12 weeks)	4	172	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.99 [-1.80, -0.19]
2.3 Short time point (12 weeks to 1 year)	3	104	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-1.39 [-2.35, -0.44]
2.4 Medium time point (1 year to 2 years)	1	100	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.02 [-0.37, 0.41]
3 Speed of processing	2		Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
3.1 End of trial	2	119	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.20 [-0.16, 0.56]
3.2 Immediate time point (12 weeks)	2	119	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.11 [-0.25, 0.47]
3.3 Medium time point (1 year to 2 years)	1	100	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.14 [-0.25, 0.53]
4 Executive function	3		Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
4.1 End of trial	3	150	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.31 [-0.90, 0.28]
4.2 Immediate time point (12 weeks)	3	150	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.18 [-0.50, 0.14]
4.3 Short time point (12 weeks to 1 year)	1	31	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.81 [-1.54, -0.07]
4.4 Medium time point (1 year to 2 years)	1	100	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.08 [-0.31, 0.48]
5 Working memory	3		Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
5.1 End of trial	3	72	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.88 [-1.73, -0.03]
5.2 Immediate time point (12 weeks)	3	72	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.66 [-1.26, -0.06]
5.3 Short time point (12 weeks to 1 year)	2	53	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-1.29 [-1.88, -0.69]
6 Verbal fluency	3		Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
6.1 End of trial	3	150	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.16 [-0.76, 0.44]
6.2 Immediate time point (12 weeks)	3	150	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.02 [-0.46, 0.42]
6.3 Short time point (12 weeks to 1 year)	1	31	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.78 [-1.51, -0.04]

# Comparison 1. Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

6.4 Medium time point (1 year to 2 years)	1	100	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.18 [-0.22, 0.57]
7 Depression	3		Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
7.1 End of trial	3	101	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.77 [-2.07, 0.52]
7.2 Immediate time point (12 weeks)	1	19	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.22 [-0.68, 1.13]
7.3 Short time point (12 weeks to 1 year)	2	82	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-1.26 [-3.11, 0.59]
8 Functional performance	2		Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
8.1 End of trial	2	131	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.09 [-0.51, 0.70]
8.2 Immediate time point (12 weeks)	2	131	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.33 [-0.02, 0.67]
8.3 Short time point (12 weeks to 1 year)	1	31	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-0.29 [-1.00, 0.41]
8.4 Medium time point (1 year to 2 years)	1	100	Std. Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.34 [-0.06, 0.73]
9 Quality of life	1		Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
9.1 End of trial; 12 weeks	1	19	Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.4 [-1.85, 2.65]
10 Serious adverse events: mortality	1		Risk Ratio (IV, Fixed, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
10.1 Short time point (12 weeks to 1 year)	1	36	Risk Ratio (IV, Fixed, 95% CI)	0.5 [0.05, 5.04]

# Comparison 2. Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control

Outcome or subgroup title	No. of studies	No. of participants	Statistical method	Effect size
1 Global cognitive function	1		Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
1.1 End of trial, up to 1 year	1	37	Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.36 [-0.30, 1.02]
2 Episodic memory	1		Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
2.1 End of trial, up to 1 year	1	37	Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-2.7 [-3.00, -0.40]
3 Executive function	1		Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
3.1 End of trial, up to 1 year	1	37	Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-2.7 [-6.21, 0.81]
4 Verbal fluency	1		Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
4.1 End of trial, up to 1 year	1	37	Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	1.90 [-4.50, 8.30]
5 Depression	1		Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
5.1 End of the trial, up to 1	1	37	Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	-1.3 [-2.61, 0.01]
year				
6 Functional performance	1		Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	Subtotals only
6.1 End of trail, up to 1 year	1	37	Mean Difference (Random, 95% CI)	0.0 [-0.48, 0.48]

## Analysis I.I. Comparison I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome I Global cognitive function.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

Outcome: I Global cognitive function

Study or subgroup	Favours CCT N	Active control N	Std. Mean Difference (SE)	Std. Mean Difference IV,Random,95% Cl	Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV,Random,95% CI
End of trial						
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	-0.44 (0.466)	+ <b>=</b>	14.9 %	-0.44 [ -1.35, 0.47 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.163 (0.2)		→ 23.5 %	0.16 [ -0.23, 0.55 ]
Gooding 2016	31	20	-0.941 (0.302)	<u>←</u>	20.1 %	-0.94 [ -1.53, -0.35 ]
Kwok 2013a	103	103	-0.207 (0.14)		25.2 %	-0.21 [ -0.48, 0.07 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-1.633 (0.419)	•	16.3 %	-1.63 [ -2.45, -0.81 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	209	198			100.0 %	-0.53 [ -1.06, -0.01 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.26$ ; of fest for overall effect: $Z = 2.6$ c. Immediate time point (12 v	00 (P = 0.046)	= 4 (P = 0.00040);	I <sup>2</sup> =80%			
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	-0.44 (0.466)	* <b>=</b>	13.2 %	-0.44 [ -1.35, 0.47 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.04 (0.2)		31.8 %	0.04 [ -0.35, 0.43 ]
Kwok 2013a	103	103	-0.207 (0.14)		38.1 %	-0.21 [ -0.48, 0.07 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-1.113 (0.388)	←	16.9 %	-1.11 [ -1.87, -0.35 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	178	178			100.0 %	-0.31 [ -0.70, 0.08 ]
Heterogeneity: Tau <sup>2</sup> = 0.09; ( Test for overall effect: Z = 1.1 Short time point (12 weeks Gooding 2016	56 (P = 0.12)	3 (P = 0.07); I <sup>2</sup> =5	-0.941 (0.302)	<u> </u>	58.8 %	-0.94 [ -1.53, -0.35 ]
Optale 2010	15		-1.633 (0.419)		41.2 %	-1.63 [ -2.45, -0.81 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	46	36			100.0 %	-1.23 [ -1.89, -0.56 ]
Heterogeneity: Tau <sup>2</sup> = 0.11; $ext{rest for overall effect: } Z = 3.0;$ Hedium time point (1 year Fiatarone Singh 2014	$Chi^2 = 1.80, df =$ 60 (P = 0.00032)	$  (P = 0.18);  ^2 = 4$	0.163 (0.2)		+ 100.0 %	0.16 [ -0.23, 0.55 ]
<b>Subtotal (95% CI)</b> Heterogeneity: not applicable fest for overall effect: Z = 0.8 fest for subgroup differences	82 (P = 0.42)	<b>49</b> f = 3 (P = 0.00), I <sup>2</sup>	=78%		- 100.0 %	0.16 [ -0.23, 0.55 ]

## Analysis I.2. Comparison I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 2 Episodic memory.

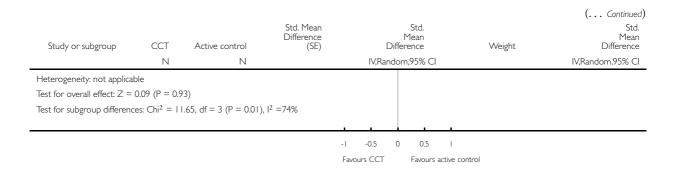
Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

Outcome: 2 Episodic memory

Study or subgroup	CCT N	Active control N	Std. Mean Difference (SE)	Std. Mean Difference IV,Random,95% C	Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV,Random,95% CI
I End of trial						
Optale 2010	15	16	-2.513 (0.488)	•	17.8 %	-2.51 [ -3.47, -1.56 ]
Herrera 2012	11	11	-0.852 (0.447)	•	18.7 %	-0.85 [ -1.73, 0.02 ]
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	-0.556 (0.469)	• <b>•</b>	18.2 %	-0.56 [ -1.48, 0.36 ]
Gooding 2016	31	20	-0.396 (0.29)		21.9 %	-0.40 [ -0.96, 0.17 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.018 (0.2)	<b>_</b>	23.4 %	0.02 [ -0.37, 0.41 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	117	106			100.0 %	-0.79 [ -1.54, -0.04 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.59$ ; Test for overall effect: $Z = 2$ 2 Immediate time point (12	.06 (P = 0.0	,	007); I <sup>2</sup> =83%			
Herrera 2012	11	11	-1.719 (0.506)	←	21.9 %	-1.72 [ -2.71, -0.73 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-1.658 (0.42)	<b>←</b>	24.5 %	-1.66 [ -2.48, -0.83 ]
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	-0.556 (0.469)	• <b></b>	23.0 %	-0.56 [ -1.48, 0.36 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	-0.271 (0.201)		30.6 %	-0.27 [ -0.66, 0.12 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	86	86			100.0 %	-0.99 [ -1.80, -0.19 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.5I$ ;	$Chi^2 = 13.3$	82, df = 3 (P = 0.003	3); I <sup>2</sup> =78%			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 2$	.43 (P = 0.0	015)				
3 Short time point (12 week						
Optale 2010	15	16	-2.513 (0.488)	1	30.4 %	-2.51 [ -3.47, -1.56 ]
Gooding 2016	31	20	-0.941 (0.302)		37.5 %	-0.94 [ -1.53, -0.35 ]
Herrera 2012	11	11	-0.852 (0.447)	+∎	32.0 %	-0.85 [ -1.73, 0.02 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	57	47			100.0 %	-1.39 [ -2.35, -0.44 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.54$ ;	$Chi^2 = 8.5$	4, df = 2 (P = 0.01);	$ ^2 = 77\%$			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 2$	.86 (P = 0.0	0043)				
4 Medium time point (1 yea	,					
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.018 (0.2)		100.0 %	0.02 [ -0.37, 0.41 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	51	49			100.0 %	0.02 [ -0.37, 0.41 ]
				-1 -0.5 0 0.5	1	
					s active control	

(Continued . . . )



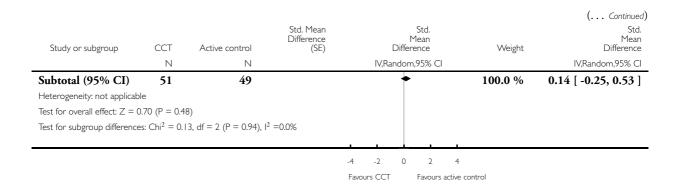
## Analysis I.3. Comparison I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 3 Speed of processing.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

Outcome: 3 Speed of processing

Study or subgroup	ССТ	Std. Mean Difference CCT Active control (SE)		Std. Mean Difference	Weight	Std. Mean Difference
	Ν	Ν		IV,Random,95% CI		IV,Random,95% CI
I End of trial						
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	0.509 (0.468)		15.4 %	0.51 [ -0.41, 1.43 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.14 (0.2)	<b>=</b>	84.6 %	0.14 [ -0.25, 0.53 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	60	59		+	100.0 %	0.20 [ -0.16, 0.56 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.0$ ; (	Chi <sup>2</sup> = 0.53,	df = 1 (P = 0.47); $I^2$	=0.0%			
Test for overall effect: $Z = I$	.07 (P = 0.2	.8)				
2 Immediate time point (12	weeks)					
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	0.509 (0.468)		15.4 %	0.5  [ -0.4 ,  .43 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.032 (0.2)		84.6 %	0.03 [ -0.36, 0.42 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	60	59		•	100.0 %	0.11 [ -0.25, 0.47 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.0$ ; (	$Chi^2 = 0.88,$	df = 1 (P = 0.35); $I^2$	=0.0%			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0$	0.57 (P = 0.5	57)				
3 Medium time point (1 yea	ir to 2 years	)				
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.14 (0.2)		100.0 %	0.14 [ -0.25, 0.53 ]
				-4 -2 0 2 4		
				Favours CCT Favours active	control	
						(Continued )



## Analysis I.4. Comparison I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 4 Executive function.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

Outcome: 4 Executive function

Study or subgroup	CCT Active control		Std. Mean Difference (SE)	Std. Mean Difference	Weight	Std. Mean Difference
	Ν	Ν		IV,Random,95% CI		IV,Random,95% Cl
I End of trial						
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	-0.419 (0.465)		24.1 %	-0.42 [ -1.33, 0.49 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.084 (0.2)		45.7 %	0.08 [ -0.31, 0.48 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-0.809 (0.375)		30.2 %	-0.81 [ -1.54, -0.07 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	75	75		-	100.0 %	-0.31 [ -0.90, 0.28 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.16$	; Chi <sup>2</sup> = 4.7	9, df = 2 (P = 0.09);	l <sup>2</sup> =58%			
Test for overall effect: $Z = I$	I.02 (P = 0.3	31)				
2 Immediate time point (12	weeks)					
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	-0.419 (0.465)		12.5 %	-0.42 [ -1.33, 0.49 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	-0.034 (0.2)		67.4 %	-0.03 [ -0.43, 0.36 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-0.531 (0.366)		20.1 %	-0.53 [ -1.25, 0.19 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	75	75		•	100.0 %	-0.18 [ -0.50, 0.14 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.0;$	Chi <sup>2</sup> = 1.72	, df = 2 (P = 0.42); $I^2$	=0.0%			
				-2 -1 0 1 2		
				Favours CCT Favours active	control	(Continued )

(Continued ...)

Study or subgroup	CCT N	Active control N	Std. Mean Difference (SE)	Std. Mean Difference IV.Random,95% Cl	Weight	( Continued) Std. Mean Difference IV,Random,95% CI
Test for overall effect: $Z = 1$						
3 Short time point (12 weel	`	,				
Optale 2010	15	16	-0.809 (0.375)		100.0 %	-0.81 [ -1.54, -0.07 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	15	16		-	100.0 %	-0.81 [ -1.54, -0.07 ]
Heterogeneity: not applicabl	le					
Test for overall effect: $Z = 2$		31)				
4 Medium time point (1 yea	ir to 2 years	)				
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.084 (0.2)	-=	100.0 %	0.08 [ -0.31, 0.48 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	51	49		-	100.0 %	0.08 [ -0.31, 0.48 ]
Heterogeneity: not applicabl	le					
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0$	0.42 (P = 0.6	7)				
Test for subgroup difference	s: $Chi^2 = 4.7$	73, df = 3 (P = 0.19)	, l <sup>2</sup> =37%			
				<u> </u>		
				-2 -1 0 1 2		

Favours CCT Favours active control

# Analysis 1.5. Comparison I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 5 Working memory.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

Outcome: 5 Working memory

Study or subgroup	CCT	Active control	Std. Mean Difference (SE)	Std. Mean Difference	Weight	Std. Mean Difference
	Ν	N		IV,Random,95% CI		IV,Random,95% CI
I End of trial						
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	0 (0.459)		32.6 %	0.0 [ -0.90, 0.90 ]
Herrera 2012	11	11	-1.47 (0.486)		31.2 %	-1.47 [ -2.42, -0.52 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-1.169 (0.391)		36.2 %	-1.17 [ -1.94, -0.40 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	35	37		-	100.0 %	-0.88 [ -1.73, -0.03 ]
Heterogeneity: Tau <sup>2</sup> = 0.36;	Chi <sup>2</sup> = 5.6	9, df = 2 (P = 0.06);	l <sup>2</sup> =65%			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 2$ .	04 (P = 0.0	041)				
2 Immediate time point (12	weeks)					
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	0 (0.459)	-+-	30.4 %	0.0 [ -0.90, 0.90 ]
Herrera 2012	11	11	-1.014 (0.456)		30.7 %	-1.01 [ -1.91, -0.12 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-0.902 (0.378)		38.9 %	-0.90 [ -1.64, -0.16 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	35	37		•	100.0 %	-0.66 [ -1.26, -0.06 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.10;$	$Chi^2 = 3.0$	8, df = 2 (P = 0.21);	l <sup>2</sup> =35%			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 2$ .	16 (P = 0.0)	031)				
3 Short time point (12 week	s to I year	)				
Herrera 2012	11	11	-1.47 (0.486)		39.3 %	-1.47 [ -2.42, -0.52 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-1.169 (0.391)		60.7 %	-1.17 [ -1.94, -0.40 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	26	27		•	100.0 %	-1.29 [ -1.88, -0.69 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.0$ ; C	$Chi^2 = 0.23$	, df = 1 (P = 0.63); $I^2$	=0.0%			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 4$ .	23 (P = 0.0	000024)				
Test for subgroup differences	s: Chi <sup>2</sup> = 2.	13, df = 2 (P = 0.35)	, l² =6%			

Favours CCT Favours active control

# Analysis I.6. Comparison I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 6 Verbal fluency.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

Outcome: 6 Verbal fluency

Study or subgroup	CCT N	Active control N	Std. Mean Difference (SE)	Std. Mean Difference IV,Random,95% Cl	Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV,Random,95% CI
I End of trial						
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	-0.0137 (0.4595)		24.7 %	-0.01 [ -0.91, 0.89 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.175 (0.2)	-	44.9 %	0.18 [ -0.22, 0.57 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-0.777 (0.374)		30.4 %	-0.78 [ -1.51, -0.04 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	75	75		•	100.0 %	-0.16 [ -0.76, 0.44 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.17$ ;	$Chi^2 = 5.0$	04, df = 2 (P = 0.08)	$  ^2 = 60\%$			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0$	`	.60)				
2 Immediate time point (12						
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	-0.0137 (0.4595)		19.0 %	-0.01 [ -0.91, 0.89 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.22 (0.201)	-	54.0 %	0.22 [ -0.17, 0.61 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-0.495 (0.365)		27.0 %	-0.50 [ -1.21, 0.22 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	75	75		+	100.0 %	-0.02 [ -0.46, 0.42 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.05$ ;	$Chi^2 = 2.9$	96, df = 2 (P = 0.23)	;  2 =33%			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0$	.08 (P = 0)	.94)				
3 Short time point (12 week	ks to I yea	r)		_		
Optale 2010	15	16	-0.777 (0.374)		100.0 %	-0.78 [ -1.51, -0.04 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	15	16		•	100.0 %	-0.78 [ -1.51, -0.04 ]
Heterogeneity: not applicabl	e					
Test for overall effect: $Z = 2$	.08 (P = 0	.038)				
4 Medium time point (1 yea	r to 2 year	s)				
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.175 (0.2)	<mark></mark>	100.0 %	0.18 [ -0.22, 0.57 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	51	49		+	100.0 %	0.18 [ -0.22, 0.57 ]
Heterogeneity: not applicable	e					
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0$	.87 (P = 0	.38)				
Test for subgroup difference	s: Chi <sup>2</sup> = 5	5.20, df = 3 (P = $0.16$	5), l <sup>2</sup> =42%			
					L	
				-4 -2 0 2 4		
				Favours CCT Favours activ	e control	

## Analysis 1.7. Comparison I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 7 Depression.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

Outcome: 7 Depression

Study or subgroup	CCT N	Active control N	Std. Mean Difference (SE)		Std. Mean fference om,95% Cl	Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV,Random,95% CI
I End of trial							
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	0.222 (0.461)		•	32.2 %	0.22 [ -0.68, 1.13 ]
Gooding 2016	31	20	-0.348 (0.289)		_	35.6 %	-0.35 [ -0.91, 0.22 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-2.238 (0.464)	4		32.2 %	-2.24 [ -3.15, -1.33 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	55	46				100.0 %	-0.77 [ -2.07, 0.52 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 1.15$ ;	$Chi^2 = 16.2$	38, df = 2 (P = 0.000	28); I <sup>2</sup> =88%				
Test for overall effect: $Z = I$ .	17 (P = 0.2	14)					
2 Immediate time point (12	weeks)						
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	0.222 (0.461)			100.0 %	0.22 [ -0.68, 1.13 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	9	10				100.0 %	0.22 [ -0.68, 1.13 ]
Heterogeneity: not applicable	e						
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0$ .	48 (P = 0.6	53)					
3 Short time point (12 week	s to I year	)					
Gooding 2016	31	20	-0.348 (0.289)		<u> </u>	51.8 %	-0.35 [ -0.91, 0.22 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-2.238 (0.464)	•		48.2 %	-2.24 [ -3.15, -1.33 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	46	36				100.0 %	-1.26 [ -3.11, 0.59 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 1.64$ ;	$Chi^2 = 11.9$	95, df = 1 (P = 0.000	155); I <sup>2</sup> =92%				
Test for overall effect: $Z = I$ .	33 (P = 0.1	8)					
Test for subgroup differences	s: Chi <sup>2</sup> = 2.	81, df = 2 (P = 0.25)	, l <sup>2</sup> =29%				
				-1 -0.5	0 0.5 I		
				Environ CCT	En jours activo	control	

Favours CCT Favours active control

## Analysis I.8. Comparison I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 8 Functional performance.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

Outcome: 8 Functional performance

Study or subgroup	CCT N	Active control N	Std. Mean Difference (SE)	Std. Mean Difference IV.Random,95% Cl	Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV.Random,95% CI
						., ,
I End of trial	51	49	0.338 (0.201)		61.3 %	0.34 [ -0.06, 0.73 ]
Fiatarone Singh 2014	21	49	0.338 (0.201)		61.3 %	0.34 [ -0.06, 0.73 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	-0.293 (0.361)	← <b>■</b>	38.7 %	-0.29 [ -1.00, 0.41 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	66	65			100.0 %	0.09 [ -0.51, 0.70 ]
Heterogeneity: Tau <sup>2</sup> = 0.11; 0	$Chi^2 = 2.32$	3, df = 1 (P = 0.13); 1	2 =57%			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0.3$	BI (P = 0.7	76)				
2 Immediate time point (12 v	veeks)					
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.338 (0.201)		76.3 %	0.34 [ -0.06, 0.73 ]
Optale 2010	15	16	0.294 (0.361)		23.7 %	0.29 [ -0.41, 1.00 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	66	65			100.0 %	0.33 [ -0.02, 0.67 ]
Heterogeneity: $Tau^2 = 0.0$ ; Cl	$hi^2 = 0.01$ ,	df = 1 (P = 0.92); $I^2$	=0.0%			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 1.8$	87 (P = 0.0	)62)				
3 Short time point (12 weeks	s to I year	)				
Optale 2010	15	16	-0.293 (0.361)		100.0 %	-0.29 [ -1.00, 0.41 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	15	16			100.0 %	-0.29 [ -1.00, 0.41 ]
Heterogeneity: not applicable						
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0.8$	BI (P = 0.4	12)				
4 Medium time point (1 year	to 2 years	)				
Fiatarone Singh 2014	51	49	0.338 (0.201)		100.0 %	0.34 [ -0.06, 0.73 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	51	49			100.0 %	0.34 [ -0.06, 0.73 ]
Heterogeneity: not applicable						
Test for overall effect: $Z = 1.6$	68 (P = 0.0	)93)				
Test for subgroup differences:	$Chi^2 = 2.$	89, df = 3 (P = 0.41)	, l <sup>2</sup> =0.0%			

Favours CCT Favours active control

## Analysis I.9. Comparison I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 9 Quality of life.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

Outcome: 9 Quality of life

Study or subgroup	CCT N	Active control N	Mean Difference (SE)	Mean Difference IV.Random.95% Cl		Weight	Mean Difference IV.Random,95% Cl
	14	1 4		IV,IVAIIC			10,1 and 011,7 570 Ci
End of trial;   2 weeks							
Djabelkhir 2017	9	10	0.4 (1.1455)		- <b>-</b>	100.0 %	0.40 [ -1.85, 2.65 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	9	10				100.0 %	0.40 [ -1.85, 2.65 ]
Heterogeneity: not applicat	ole						
Test for overall effect: Z =	0.35 (P = 0	.73)					
Test for subgroup difference	es: Not app	licable					
						L	
				-2 -1	0 1 2	2	

Favours CCT Favours active control

## Analysis 1.10. Comparison I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control, Outcome 10 Serious adverse events: mortality.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: I Computerised cognition-based interventions versus active control

Outcome: 10 Serious adverse events: mortality

Study or subgroup	CCT n/N	Active control n/N	Risk Ratio IV,Fixed,95% Cl	Weight	Risk Ratio IV.Fixed,95% Cl
	11/11	17/19	IV,I IXEd,7578 CI		10,11Xed,75% CI
I Short time point (12 weeks	to I year)				
Optale 2010	1/18	2/18		100.0 %	0.50 [ 0.05, 5.04 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	18	18		100.0 %	0.50 [ 0.05, 5.04 ]
Total events: I (CCT), 2 (Activ	/e control)				
Heterogeneity: not applicable					
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0.59$	9 (P = 0.56)				
			0.01 0.1 1 10 100		
			Favours CCT Favours active	control	

# Analysis 2.1. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome I Global cognitive function.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control

Outcome: I Global cognitive function

Study or subgroup	Favours CCT	Inactive control	Mean Difference (SE)	Mean Difference	Weight	Mean Difference
	N	N		IV,Random,95% CI		IV,Random,95% CI
I End of trial, up to I year	<b>_</b>					
Rozzini 2007	15	22	0.3603 (0.3378)		100.0 %	0.36 [ -0.30, 1.02 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	15	22		•	100.0 %	0.36 [ -0.30, 1.02 ]
Heterogeneity: not applica	ible					
Test for overall effect: Z =	I.07 (P = 0.29)					
					L	
				-4 -2 0 2 4	1	
				Favours CCT Favours inact	ive control	

# Analysis 2.2. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 2 Episodic memory.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control

Outcome: 2 Episodic memory

Study or subgroup	CCT	Inactive control	Mean Difference (SE)	Mean Difference IV.Random.95% Cl		Weight	Mean Difference
	N	N		IV,Kand	om,95% Cl		IV,Random,95% CI
I End of trial, up to I year							
Rozzini 2007	15	22	-2.7 (1.172)	←		100.0 %	-2.70 [ -5.00, -0.40 ]
	1.5	22				100.0.0/	
Subtotal (95% CI)	15	22				100.0 %	-2.70 [ -5.00, -0.40 ]
Heterogeneity: not applical	ole						
Test for overall effect: Z =	2.30 (P =	0.021)					
				-2 -1	0   2		
				Favours CCT	Favours inacti	ve control	

# Analysis 2.3. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 3 Executive function.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control

Outcome: 3 Executive function

Study or subgroup	CCT	Inactive control	Mean Difference (SE)	Mean Mean Difference Weight Difference
	N	N		IV,Random,95% CI IV,Random,95% CI
I End of trial, up to I year				
Rozzini 2007	15	22	-2.7 (1.7934)	↓ 100.0 % -2.70 [ -6.21, 0.81 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	15	22		100.0 % -2.70 [ -6.21, 0.81 ]
Heterogeneity: not applical	bie			
Test for overall effect: $Z =$	1.51 (P =	0.13)		
				-2 -1 0 1 2
				Favours CCT Favours inactive control

# Analysis 2.4. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 4 Verbal fluency.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control

Outcome: 4 Verbal fluency

Study or subgroup	CCT N	Inactive control N	Mean Difference (SE)	Mean Difference IV,Random,95% CI		Weight	Mean Difference IV,Random,95% Cl
l End of trial, up to l year Rozzini 2007	15	22	1.9 (3.2635)	_		100.0 %	1.90 [ -4.50, 8.30 ]
<b>Subtotal (95% CI)</b> Heterogeneity: not applicab Test for overall effect: Z = 0		<b>22</b>		-	-	100.0 %	1.90 [ -4.50, 8.30 ]
				-20 -10 0 Favours CCT	10 : Favours inac	20 ctive control	

## Analysis 2.5. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 5 Depression.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control

Outcome: 5 Depression

Study or subgroup	CCT	Inactive control	Mean Difference (SE)		۱ Differ	Mean rence		Weight	Mean Difference
	Ν	Ν			IV,Rando	m,95% Cl			IV,Random,95% CI
I End of the trial, up to I y	ear								
Rozzini 2007	15	22	-1.3 (0.6664)					100.0 %	-1.30 [ -2.61, 0.01 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	15	22			•			100.0 %	-1.30 [ -2.61, 0.01 ]
Heterogeneity: not applicat	ole								
Test for overall effect: $Z =$	I.95 (P = 0	).05T)							
Test for subgroup difference	es: Not ap	olicable							
				-10	-5 0	5	10		
				Favou	urs CCT	Favours in	active co	ontrol	

## Analysis 2.6. Comparison 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control, Outcome 6 Functional performance.

Review: Computerised cognitive training for preventing dementia in people with mild cognitive impairment

Comparison: 2 Computerised cognition-based interventions versus inactive control

Outcome: 6 Functional performance

Study or subgroup	Experimental	Active control	Mean Difference (SE)	Mean Difference	Weight	Mean Difference
	Ν	Ν		IV,Random,95% C	1	IV,Random,95% CI
I End of trail, up to I year						
Rozzini 2007	15	22	0 (0.2466)	-	100.0 %	0.0 [ -0.48, 0.48 ]
Subtotal (95% CI)	15	22		•	100.0 %	0.0 [ -0.48, 0.48 ]
Heterogeneity: not applica	ble					
Test for overall effect: $Z =$	0.0 (P = 1.0)					
Test for subgroup difference	es: Not applicable					
				-2 -1 0 1	2	
				Favours CCT Favours	inactive control	

## APPENDICES

### Appendix I. Sources searched and search strategies

Source	Search strategy	Hits retrieved
ALOIS (www.medicine.ox.ac.uk/alois) [Date of most recent search: 31 May 2018]	Basic search: COG [Studies within ALOIS are coded COG if the intervention is a cognitive-based inter- vention]	-
MEDLINE In-process and other non- indexed citations and MEDLINE 1950- present (Ovid SP) [Date of most recent search: 31 May 2018]	<ol> <li>"cognitive stimulation".ti,ab.</li> <li>cognitive ADJ3 train*.ti,ab.</li> <li>"cognitive exercis*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"brain train*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"brain train*".ti,ab.</li> <li>(memory adj3 train*).ti,ab.</li> <li>"memory rehab*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"memory enhance*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"poetry-based stimulation".ti,ab.</li> <li>"cognitive flexibility".ti,ab.</li> <li>"cognitive rehab*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"cognitive flexibility".ti,ab.</li> <li>"cognitive rehab*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"cognitive intervention*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"cognitive intervention*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"cognitive motor intervention*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"cognitive enrich*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"cognitive Therapy/ mt</li> <li>cor/1-19</li> <li>*aging/</li> <li>Aged</li> <li>"Aged, 80 and over"</li> <li>Middle Aged</li> <li>Age Factors</li> <li>Cognition Disorders/</li> <li>Memory/</li> <li>Memory/</li> <li>Memory/</li> </ol>	Jan 2015: 1455 Jul 2015: 70 Feb 2016: 303 Jul 2016: 423 May 2018: 703

30. Brain/ 31. Mild Cognitive Impairment/ 32. Executive Function/ 33. (cognit\* ADJ3 (func\* OR declin\* OR reduc\* OR impair\* OR improve\* OR deficit\* OR progress\* 34. OR perform\*)). ti,ab 35. "mental perform\*".ti,ab. 36. memory.ti,ab. 37. "executive function\*".ti,ab. 38. MCI.ti,ab. 39. AAMI.ti,ab. 40. ACMI.ti,ab. 41. ARCD.ti,ab. 42. CIND.ti,ab. 43. (nMCI OR aMCI OR mMCI OR MCIa).ti,ab. 44. Dementia/ 45. Alzheimer Disease/ 46. dement\*.ti,ab. 47. alzheimer\*.ti,ab. 48. "old\* age\*".ti,ab. 49. elderly.ti,ab. 50. "middle age\*".ti,ab. 51. "old\*adults".ti,ab. 52. seniors.ti,ab. 53. "senior citizens".ti,ab. 54. "community dwelling".ti,ab. 55. pensioners.ti,ab. 56. or/21-55 57. randomized controlled trial.pt. 58. controlled clinical trial.pt. 59. randomized.ab. 60. placebo.ab. 61. drug therapy.fs. 62. randomly.ab. 63. trial.ab. 64. groups.ab. 65. or/57-64 66. exp animals/ not humans.sh. 67.65 NOT 66 68. 67 AND 56 AND 20 [all results] 69. ("cognitive stimulation" OR "cognitive training").ti. 70. \*Cognition 71. \*Aging/ 72. and/69-71 73. 72 AND 57 ['no brainer' results - di-

108

	rectly sent to core author team] 74. 68 NOT 73 [results minus 'no brainer' results - for the crowd to screen]	
Embase 1974-24 January 2018 (Ovid SP) [Date of most recent search: 31 May 2018]	<ol> <li>aging/</li> <li>aged/</li> <li>middle aged/</li> <li>mild cognitive impairment/</li> <li>elderly.ti,ab.</li> <li>MCI.ti,ab.</li> <li>AAMI.ti,ab.</li> <li>ACMI.ti,ab.</li> <li>ACD.ti,ab.</li> <li>CIND.ti,ab.</li> <li>CIND.ti,ab.</li> <li>(nMCI or aMCI or mMCI or MCIa).</li> <li>ti,ab.</li> <li>elderly.ti,ab.</li> <li>elderly.ti,ab.</li> <li>elderly.ti,ab.</li> <li>seniors.ti,ab.</li> <li>"old* age*".ti,ab.</li> <li>"senior citizens".ti,ab.</li> <li>"senior citizens".ti,ab.</li> <li>"community dwelling".ti,ab.</li> <li>"community digit (func* or declin* or reduc* or impair* or improve* or deficit* or progress* or perform* or abilit*)).ti,ab</li> <li>or/1-22</li> <li>*cognition/</li> <li>memory/ or episodic memory/</li> <li>executive function/</li> <li>mental perform*".ti,ab.</li> <li>dementia/</li> <li>Alzheimer disease/</li> <li>dementia/</li> <li>Alzheimer disease/</li> <li>dementia/</li> <li>Alzheimer disease/</li> <li>alzheimer*.ti,ab.</li> <li>(randomly adj2 allocat*).ab.</li> <li>(randomly adj2 allocat*).ab.</li> <li>(randomly adj2 divide*).ab.</li> <li>(randomly adj2 divide*).ab.</li></ol>	Jan 2015: 1289 Jul 2016: 380 Jul 2016: 268 May 2018: 796

	trial)).ti,ab. 41. "double-blind*".ti,ab. 42. "single blind*".ti,ab. 43. groups.ab. 44. or/35-43 45. "cognitive stimulation".ti,ab. 46. (cognitive adj3 train*).ti,ab. 47. "cognitive exercis*".ti,ab. 48. "brain train*".ti,ab. 49. (memory adj3 train*).ti,ab. 50. "memory enhance*".ti,ab. 51. "memory rehab*".ti,ab. 52. "brain exercis*".ti,ab. 53. "cognitive rehab*".ti,ab. 54. "cognitive rehab*".ti,ab. 55. "mnemonic train*".ti,ab. 56. CST.ti,ab. 57. (mental adj3 activit*).ti,ab. 58. "cognitive intervention*".ti,ab. 59. "cognitive motor intervention*".ti,ab. 60. "cognitive motor intervention*".ti,ab. 61. "cognitive enrich*".ti,ab. 62. "reality orientation".ti,ab. 63. (memory adj2 game*).ti,ab. 64. or/45-63 65. 23 and 34 and 44 and 64 66. ("cognitive stimulation" or "cognitive training").ti,ab. 67. cognition/ 68. (MCI or "mild cognitive impairment" or elderly or "old* adults" or "middle age*") .ti 69. 66 and 67 and 68 70. 35 and 69 71. 65 not 70	
PSYCINFO 1806-January week 2 2018 (Ovid SP) [Date of most recent search: 31 May 2018]	<ol> <li>exp Aging/</li> <li>exp Cognitive Impairment/</li> <li>"cognit* impair*".ti,ab.</li> <li>MCI.ti,ab.</li> <li>AAMI.ti,ab.</li> <li>ACMI.ti,ab.</li> <li>ACMI.ti,ab.</li> <li>CIND.ti,ab.</li> <li>(nMCI or aMCI or mMCI or MCIa).ti, ab.</li> <li>"old* age*".ti,ab.</li> <li>elderly.ti,ab.</li> <li>"middle age*".ti,ab.</li> </ol>	Jan 2015: 166 Jul 2015: 20 Feb 2016: 25 Jul 2016: 12 May 2018: 84

- 13. "old\* adults".ti,ab.
- 14. seniors.ti,ab.
- 15. "senior citizens".ti,ab.
- 16. "community dwelling".ti,ab.
- 17. pensioners.ti,ab.
- 18. or/1-17
- 19. randomi?ed.ti.
- 20. (randomly adj2 allocat\*).ab.
- 21. (randomly adj2 divide\*).ab.
- 22. RCT.ti,ab.
- 23. "double-blind\*".ti,ab.
- 24. "single blind\*".ti,ab.
- 25. "randomi?ed trial".ab.
- 26. "randomi?ed control\* trial".ab.
- 27. "random allocation".ab.
- 28. "controlled clinical trial".ti,ab.
- 29. (controlled adj4 (study or design or

trial)).ti,ab.

- 30. or/19-29
- 31. "cognitive stimulation".ti,ab.
- 32. (cognitive adj3 train\*).ti,ab.
- 33. "cognitive exercis\*".ti,ab.
- 34. "brain train\*".ti,ab.
- 35. (memory adj3 train\*).ti,ab.
- 36. "memory enhance\*".ti,ab.
- 37. "memory rehab\*".ti,ab.
- 38. "brain exercis\*".ti,ab.
- 39. "cognitive rehab\*".ti,ab.
- 40. "cognitive rehab\*".ti,ab.
- 41. "mnemonic train\*".ti,ab.
- 42. CST.ti,ab.
- 43. (mental adj3 activit\*).ti,ab.
- 44. "cognitive intervention\*".ti,ab.
- 45. "cognitive motor intervention\*".ti,ab.
- 46. "cognition based intervention\*".ti,ab.
- 47. "cognitive enrich\*".ti,ab.
- 48. "reality orientation".ti,ab.
- 49. (memory adj2 game\*).ti,ab.
- 50. or/31-49
- 51. 18 and 30 and 50
- 52. \*Cognition/
- 53. (MCI or "mild cognitive impairment" or elderly or "old\* adults" or "middle age\*")
- .ti

54. ("cognitive stimulation" or "cognitive

- training").ti,ab.
- 55. 19 or 20 or 21
- 56. 52 and 53 and 54 and 55
- 57. 51 not 56

CINAHL (EBSCOhost) [Date of most recent search: 31 May 2018]		Jan 2015: 390 Jul 2015: 13 Feb 2016: 57 Jul 2016: 12 May 2018: 181
ISI Web of Science [includes: Web of Science (1945-present); BIOSIS Pre- views (1926-present); MEDLINE (1950- present); Journal Citation Reports]; BIO- SIS Previews [Date of most recent search: 31 May 2018]	("mild cognitive impairment" OR elderly OR "age* subjects" OR "old* adult*" OR "middle age*" OR MCI) AND TOPIC: ("randomly allocated" OR "random alloca- tion" OR randomised OR randomized OR RCT OR "controlled trial" OR "double blind" OR "single blind") AND TOPIC: ("cognit* stim*" OR "cognit* train*" OR puzzle OR "brain train*" OR "cognit* ex- ercis*" OR "brain exercis*" OR "memory exercis*" OR "brain gam*" OR "cognit* gam*" OR "memory gam*" OR sudoku OR crossword* OR "reality orientation") AND TOPIC: (cognition OR dementia OR memory OR "executive function" OR alzheimer*) Timespan: All years. Search language=Auto	Jul 2015: 44 Feb 2016: 108 Jul 2016: 35
LILACS (BIREME) [Date of most recent search: 31 May 2018]		Jan 2015: 4 Jul 2015: 0 Feb 2016: 0 Jul 2016: 0 May 2018: 0
CENTRAL ( <i>via CRSO)</i> [Date of most recent search: 31 May 2018]	<ul> <li>#1 MeSH descriptor: [Aged, 80 and over] explode all trees</li> <li>#2 MeSH descriptor: [Aged] explode all trees</li> <li>#3 MeSH descriptor: [Middle Aged] ex- plode all trees</li> <li>#4 MeSH descriptor: [Mild Cognitive Im- pairment] explode all trees</li> <li>#5 "cognit* impair*" or MCI</li> <li>#6 elderly</li> <li>#7 "old* adults"</li> <li>#8 "old* age*"</li> <li>#9 "old* sample"</li> <li>#10 senior citizens</li> <li>#11 pensioners</li> <li>#12 seniors</li> <li>#13 #1 or #2 or #3 or #4 or #5 or #6 or #</li> </ul>	Jul 2016: 4

	7 or #8 or #9 or #10 or #11 or #12 #14 MeSH descriptor: [Cognition] ex- plode all trees #15 MeSH descriptor: [Dementia] explode all trees #16 cognit* #17 memory #18 "executive function*" #19 processing #20 "mental perform*" #21 dement* #22 alzheimer* #23 #14 or #15 or #16 or #17 or #18 or # 19 or #20 or #21 or #22 #24 "cognitive stimulation" #25 "cognitive training" #26 "brain train*" #27 "brain gam*" #28 "memory train*" or "memory game*" #30 crossword* #31 sudoku* #32 "mental game*" #33 "mental agil*" #34 "cognitive exercis*" #36 #24 or #25 or #26 or #27 or #28 or # 29 or #30 or #31 or #32 or #33 or #34 or #35 #37 #13 and #23 and #36	
Clinicaltrials.gov (www.clinicaltrials.gov) [Date of most recent search: 31 May 2018]		Jan 2015: 17 Jul 2015: 4 Feb 2016: 2 Jul 2016: 0 May 2018: 4
ICTRP Search Portal (http://apps.who.int/trialsearch) [includes Aus- tralian New Zealand Clinical Trials Reg- istry; Clinical Trials.gov; ISRCTN; Chinese Clinical Trial Registry; Clinical Trials Reg- istry - India; Clinical Research Informa- tion Service - Republic of Korea; German Clinical Trials Register; Iranian Registry of Clinical Trials; Japan Primary Registries Network; Pan African Clinical Trial Reg- istry; Sri Lanka Clinical Trials Register]		Jan 2015: 22 Jul 2015: 3 Feb 2016: 1 Jul 2016: 0 May 2018: 4

[Date of most recent search: 31 May 2018]	
TOTAL before de-duplication	Jan 2015: 3981 Jul 2015: 332 Feb 2016: 935 Jul 2016: 754 May 2018: 2390 <b>TOTAL: 8392</b>
TOTAL after de-duplication	TOTAL: 6233
TOTAL after first assessment by the Crowd and CDCIG Information Specialists	Jan 2015: 604 Jul 2015: 60 Feb 2016: 164 Jul 2016: 73 May 2018: 190

# Appendix 2. Definitions of design, patient, and intervention characteristics as applied in the stratified analyses exploring between-trial variations in intervention effects

ITEM	DEFINITION
Design-related characteristics*	
Concealment of allocation (avoiding selection bias)	Guidance from the <i>Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of</i> <i>Interventions</i> will be used to judge bias related to sequence gener- ation and concealment of allocation using the 2 Cochrane 'Risk of bias' items (Higgins 2011). From these, the statistician will de- rive a single variable to be used in the stratified analysis: alloca- tion concealment will be judged at low risk of bias if the inves- tigators responsible for patient selection were unable to suspect before allocation which treatment was next. Concealment will be downgraded to high risk of bias if there is evidence of inadequate sequence generation (Rutjes 2012)
Blinding of patients and personnel (avoiding performance bias)	Low risk of bias will be judged: - if a credible sham procedure was used; or if a placebo supplement or pill was used that was reported to be identical in appearance to the experimental intervention and the specific outcome or group of outcomes is/are likely to be influenced by lack of blinding - if blinding is absent or suboptimal and the specific outcome, such as mortality, is not likely to be influenced by lack of blinding

Blinding of outcome assessment (avoiding detection bias)	For self-reported/partner-reported outcomes: Low risk of bias will be judged if self-report outcomes were assessed AND blinding of patients was considered adequate AND there was no information to suggest that there was an investigator in- volved during the process of outcome assessment; OR if blinding of investigators performing the outcome assessment was reported AND an attempt to blind patients was reported For other outcomes: Outcome assessment was considered to be blinded if outcome as- sessment was reported to be blinded
Statistical analyses (avoiding attrition bias)	<ul> <li>For continuous outcomes:</li> <li>Low risk of bias will be judged: <ul> <li>if at least 90% of the patients randomised were analysed AND the difference in percentage of participants not analysed was 5% or lower across trial arms</li> <li>for trials using imputations to handle missing data: the percentage of participants with missing data did not exceed 20% AND the difference in percentage of participants with imputed data was 5% or lower across trial arms AND applied imputation methods were judged to be appropriate. Multiple imputation techniques will be considered appropriate, simple methods such as 'last observation carried forward' or 'baseline carried forward' will be considered inappropriate</li> <li>For binary outcomes of rare events:</li> <li>Low risk of bias will be judged if the event rate is low (e.g. incidence of dementia) AND at least 95% of the patients randomised were analysed AND there is no evidence of differential reasons for missing data that may alter the estimate AND the rate of missing data does not exceed the expected event rates</li> <li>For binary outcomes of non-rare events:</li> <li>Low risk of bias will be judged if at least 90% of the patients randomised were analysed AND the difference in percentage of participants not analysed was 5% or lower across trial arms AND there is no evidence of difference and the expected event rates</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
Trial size	The cut-off to distinguish small from larger trials will be deter- mined by a sample size calculation on the primary outcome
Publication status	Full journal article vs other type or unpublished material
Follow-up duration	For the cognitive outcomes, we will group studies according to these follow-up cut-offs to describe immediate results (up to 12 weeks) and short-term (up to 1 year), medium-term (1 to 2 years) , and longer-term results (more than 2 years)

Treatment-related characteristics	
Treatment and control Treatment duration	<ul> <li>Analyses will be stratified by <ul> <li>control intervention (placebo vs no intervention vs usual care, where no intervention refers to RCTs with standardised concurrent treatments in both experimental and control arms</li> <li>training multiple domains (yes/no)</li> <li>mode of delivery <ul> <li>training supervision (yes/no)</li> <li>group training (yes/no)</li> </ul> </li> <li>Analyses will be stratified into session length &gt; 30 minutes (yes no), frequency &gt; 3 sessions per week (yes/no), based upon previou findings (Lampit 2014), and total number of sessions. The minimum treatment duration of 3 months is considered short term, 5 to 12 months as medium term, and 12 months as long term. Fo the outcome all-cause dementia, only outcome data at 1 year of follow-up or longer will be considered, and therefore the grouping will include short-term (up to 1 year), medium-term (1 to 2 years)</li> </ul></li></ul>
Participant-related characteristics	
Cognition and participant-related criteria	Gender, level of education (in years), ApoE-4 (yes/no), baseline age (mid-life vs late-life vs other), and time since diagnoses

\*The descriptions given in this table are provided in addition to the guidance provided by the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* (Higgins 2011). Stratified analyses are performed only for the primary outcome if about 10 RCTs contributed to the analyses

## CONTRIBUTIONS OF AUTHORS

Completion of the protocol: NG, SK, AR, RV.

Screening of references: Students For Best Evidence (title/abstract screening), NG, SK, GM, RV.

Acquisition of data: NG, RV, MdN, SK, EM, AR, GV.

'Risk of bias' assessments and GRADE-ing: NG, RV, MdN, SK, EM, AR, GM.

Statistical analysis: AR.

SoF & GRADE-ing: RV.

Overall interpretation of data: NG, RV, MdN, EM, AR, GM.

Manuscript preparation: NG, AR, RV, EM, GM.

#### DECLARATIONS OF INTEREST

Nicola J Gates - none known

Robin WM Vernooij - none known

Marcello Di Nisio - Di Nisio declares partial funding by a grant for the project 'OPERAM: OPtimising therapy to prevent Avoidable hospital admissions in the Multi-morbid elderly' supported by the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under the grant agreement No 6342388. Di Nisio reports participation to Advisory Boards for Daiichi-Sankyo, Aspen, and Pfizer, and consultancy fees for Daiichi-Sankyo, Bayer Health Care, and Leo Pharma outside the submitted work.

Salman Karim - none known

Evrim March - none known

Gabriel Martínez - none known

Anne WS Rutjes - Dr. Rutjes declares partial funding by a grant for the project 'OPERAM: OPtimising therapy to prevent Avoidable hospital admissions in the Multi-morbid elderly' supported by the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under the grant agreement No 6342388, and by the Swiss State Secretariat for Education, Research and Innovation (SERI) under contract number 15.0137.

### SOURCES OF SUPPORT

#### Internal sources

• No sources of support supplied

#### **External sources**

• National Institute for Health Research, UK.

This protocol was supported by the National Institute for Health Research, via a Cochrane Programme Grant to the Cochrane Dementia and Cognitive Improvement Group. The views and opinions expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the Systematic Reviews Programme, NIHR, National Health Service (NHS), or the Department of Health.

• SERI and Horizon 2020, Other.

The review authors AR and MdN are partially funded by a grant for the project 'OPERAM: OPtimising therapy to prevent Avoidable hospital admissions in the Multi-morbid elderly', supported by the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme, under the grant agreement No. 6342388, and by the Swiss State Secretariat for Education, Research, and Innovation (SERI), under contract number 15.0137. The opinions expressed and the arguments employed herein are those of the review authors and do not necessarily reflect the official views of the EC and the Swiss government.

#### DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PROTOCOL AND REVIEW

We planned stratified analyses to explore between-trial heterogeneity according to the features outlined in Appendix 2, and we planned to prepare funnel plots to explore the impact of publication bias and other biases associated with small sample size. By protocol, we indicated that about 10 trials should contribute to the analysis for it to be meaningful. As the number of trials identified was substantially lower, we refrained from undertaking such analyses. We planned to perform one sensitivity analysis for the primary outcome, including high-quality trials only. We aimed to define high quality by using results of the stratified analyses. As stratified analyses could not be performed, we refrained from conducting sensitivity analyses. Although not described in our published protocol, we made the decision to use a hierarchy to select outcome data before starting data extraction. The hierarchy itself was also established before any trial in this and two other Cochrane reviews had started (Gates 2019a; Gates 2019b).