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Highlights

- VRADA, the VR stationary bike, provides physical and cognitive training ٠ performance.
- On MCI patients were assessed the inflammatory and AD hallmarks. •
- A decrease in IL-1 β titers and TNF- α levels measured after the VRADA • intervention.
- The ratio $A\beta_{42}/A\beta_{40}$ had an improvement in VRADA group after intervention.
- A thorough amelioration of total tau and tau-p181 was found after the • intervention.

VRADA training system as a non-pharmacological dual intervention to alleviate symptoms of the pathophysiology of Mild Cognitive Impairment

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Abstract

In this study, a VR system called VRADA (VR Exercise App for Dementia and Alzheimer's Patients) was designed for physical and cognitive training for individuals with Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI). The inflammatory factors IL-1 β and TNF- α , Alzheimer's disease (AD) hallmarks total tau, p181-tau, A β_{42} and A β_{40} , the ratio of A $\beta_{42/40}$ and p181-tau/A β_{42} were assessed on the blood serum of patients diagnosed with MCI to determine the effect of VRADA training. No significant differences were verified in the levels of inflammatory markers after the end of the study, however IL-1 β levels of the VRADA group were significantly lower than those of the control group, at the follow-up of the study. Also, patients following VRADA intervention presented significantly lower levels of A β_{42} , of the ratio A $\beta_{42}/A\beta_{40}$, of total tau, p-tau181, and of the crucial ratio p-tau181/A β_{42} in comparison with patients of the VRADA training during early dementia, and hopefully for halting the progression to AD.

Keywords

Virtual-assisted training, Mild cognitive impairment, Alzheimer's disease, inflammatory markers, amyloid beta, tau

1. Introduction

Nowadays, the augmented life expectancy gave rise to malign, age-related diseases such as Mild cognitive impairment (MCI) which in many cases lead to Alzheimer's disease (AD) – a deleterious neurodegenerative disease without any effective curative reported until now. MCI patients present alterations in the abilities of memory, attention, orientation, and executive functions (Gómez-Soria et al., 2021), which though are not considered an obstacle in everyday life, are lower compared to established standards for their educational and age level. The cause of the disease is not yet elucidated, and the pathophysiology may differ depending on the brain region which is suffering (Albert et al., 2011; Austrom and Lu, 2009; Gauthier et al., 2006).

AD is strongly accompanied by inflammatory dysregulation (Amor et al., 2010; Faria et al., 2014; McGeer and McGeer, 2010), which may attributed to microbiota disruption, chronic microbial infections (Ashraf et al., 2019; Bostanciklioğlu, 2019; Franceschi and Campisi, 2014), or chronic astrogliosis (Katsipis et al., 2021; Osborn et al., 2016; Verkhratsky et al., 2019) and microglial exacerbation (Heneka et al., 2014; Norden et al., 2015), due to the presence of pathological aggregates of amyloid beta-42 peptide $(A\beta_{42})$ and hyperphosphorylated tau protein (p-tau). It is not yet fully described what is the exact contribution of inflammation in the progression of the disease (Calsolaro and Edison, 2016). The levels of several cytokines are considered as indicators of neuroinflammation. A part of them might increase during disease progression or temporarily from the MCI stage to AD (Brosseron et al., 2014).

As many therapies to cure AD have proven inadequate or ineffective, the key to coping with the disease might be nested in early prevention (Austrom and Lu, 2009). Research in the field of physical exercise (PE) shed light on the direct correlation of exercise on the down-regulation of pro-inflammatory cytokines in the brain (Souza et al., 2013). Pro-inflammatory cytokines are found to be decreased by engagement of MCI patients in PE (Nascimento et al., 2014; Segal et al., 2012). Furthermore, increased incline has been detected in anti-inflammatory cytokines (Pedersen, 2000; Pedersen and Bruunsgaard, 2003; Petersen and Pedersen, 2005). Findings showed that PE decreases cognitive decline and

dementia (Blondell et al., 2014), but the effect on AD hallmarks has not yet been examined in detail (Frederiksen et al., 2018; Jensen et al., 2015).

Among the non-pharmacological therapies, combined PE with cognitive training, multicomponent intervention (Park et al., 2019), and Virtual Reality (VR) (Zucchella et al., 2018) are regarded as one of the most effective ways to cease the progression of the AD (Daviglus et al., 2010). PE combined with cognitive exercise has a neuroprotective effect on both non-demented individuals and patients suffering from MCI, AD, or other dementias (Cammisuli et al., 2017; Du et al., 2018; Gallaway et al., 2017; Macpherson et al., 2017; Rolland et al., 2010; Ströhle et al., 2015). VR exercise, however holds a prominent position in cognitive and physical improvement when compared to physical and cognitive exercises for normal adults and elderly (Htut et al., 2018). VR environments are regarded beneficial for reconstruction of brain plasticity and cellular synapses (Mrakic-Sposta et al., 2018). This intervention aims to stimulate and "restore" cognitive function to manage the autonomy of patients (Mrakic-Sposta et al., 2018).

VR has been employed as assistant therapy for cerebral palsy, depression, and Parkinson's disease (Roosink et al., 2016). VR technology is also highly used for neurophysiological assessment and cognitive remediation (García-Betances et al., 2015). MCI and dementia patients declared that fully immersive VR cognitive training provided a safe environment, satisfaction, engagement, and lower anxiety when compared to usual pen-paper training ensuring the adherence of patients to the training (Manera et al., 2016).

VR is additionally considered a driving force for MCI patients to be capable to perform activities of everyday life such as walking, feeding, and shopping on their own (García-Betances et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2019). It is noteworthy that the rehabilitation of MCI individuals performing activities of everyday life mitigates the risk of AD's manifestation (Liao et al., 2020). Augmented cognitive and executive function found in MCI and AD patients using computer or VR technology (Coyle et al., 2015).

Given this, to increase the evidence of VR in the rehabilitation of cognitive function in MCI patients we aimed to assess the enriched environment that VR bicycle offers on MCI patients through a 3-month intervention process. In this study, a nonpharmacological intervention with dual task VR system for physical and cognitive training of people with MCI was designed (Hassandra et al., 2021). A person-centered technology was adapted to provide a comfortable environment for the users which customs an immersive VR training system named VRADA (VR Exercise App for Dementia and Alzheimer's Patients). The program of physical and cognitive training was previously tested (Bamidis et al., 2015). The VRADA system was designed to be fully adapted to the needs of users effectively and efficiently achieving a more accurate assessment of user desire. MCI patients and healthy individuals participated in this study firstly for assessing the potential of the VRADA system at cognitive effectiveness and secondly for examining the sera of the VRADA group compared to the control group in the field of biomarkers, specifically Tumor Necrosis Factor α (TNF- α), Interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), A β_{42} , A β_{40} , total tau, p181-tau, and the ratios A $\beta_{42}/4_0$ and p181-tau/A β_{42} to elucidate the impact of VR-PE on cognitive impairment.

2. Material and methods

2.1 Subjects

The participants were from a Mediterranean area (Thessaloniki region, northern Greece) and were employed between 2020 and 2022. All subjects were white, community-dwelling individuals. Participants were literate and were not suffering from any debilitating diseases (e.g. cancer) as ascertained from their medical history, and physical and neurological examination tests. All participants were recruited from the Greek Association of Alzheimer's Disease and Related Disorders' Day Care Centre "Saint Helen" (Alzheimer Hellas, DCCSH) and underwent neuropsychological assessments, such as the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE). MCI patients were randomly divided into the groups of Control before and Control after (n=23) and VRADA before and after (n=12). MCI patients in the Control Group followed no program of physical or mental activity.

All participants' demographic characteristics are provided in Table 1, as mean values \pm standard deviations (SD).

2.2 Study Design

The training system consisted of a cycle-ergometer (stationary seated bike type; Toorx, ChronoLine, BRX R 300) and a VR head-mounted display (the Oculus Go headset) with a single 3DOF controller. VRADA application was based on a platform called ORamaVR MAGES. The VR environment consisted of training in a forest that was generated as the MCI patient moved along the forest path. Mental stimulation succeeded through the animal appearance during the VR training. Patients were asked to recall them at the end of the session. Moreover, math calculations were conducted on the MCI patients.

All groups were asked to perform 2 or 3 sessions a week for 12 weeks period of time. The duration of VR exercise for the first 5 sessions was 20 minutes and 20 km/h speed of cycling, The time and the speed of cycling were progressively elevated to 30 minutes and 30 km/h (mild to moderate intensity), respectively.

2.3 Manipulation of blood serum samples

Whole blood samples were collected from subjects in the morning hours after overnight fasting, before the onset of the study (Baseline) and after its completion (After study), *3* months later. Serum separator tubes were employed, allowing samples to clot for 30 minutes at room temperature. Then, blood was centrifuged for 20 minutes at 1,000x g, sera were collected, aliquoted, and stored at -80°C until analysis. Care has been taken to avoid multiple freeze-thaw cycles. Necessary dilutions of the sera before the analyses were performed with commercial dilution buffer provided with the kits described below, just before the analyses.

2.4 Analyses of biomarkers levels by ELISA

All studied biomarkers in the sera of the study participants were detected by commercial sandwich, HRP-conjugated ELISA kits provided by Assay Genie (Dublin, Ireland), as follows: Human IL-1 beta PharmaGenie ELISA kit (#SBRS0740), Human TNF-alpha PharmaGenie kit (#HUDC0073), Human Amyloid Beta 42 / AB 1-42 kit (#HUFI02245), Human Amyloid Beta 40 / AB 1-

40 ELISA kit (#HUFI02244), Human MAPtau (Microtubule Associated Protein Tau/Tau Protein) kit (#HUES02072), and Human Phospho Tau (P181) kit (#HUFI03189). All analyses were run per the manufacturer's instructions, in duplicates. Baseline and after-study serum samples were analyzed by different researchers, who were blind to the origin of the samples, as well as to the analyses performed by each other. Quantification of biomarkers' levels in blood serum samples was performed after the construction of standard curves, employing protein standards included in the kits. Double distilled water (d.d. H_2O) was used in all cases when needed.

2.5 Statistical analyses

Statistical analysis and graphs are conducted with GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software Inc.). Outcome data were presented as mean \pm SD. Participants' baseline demographic and clinical characteristics and Body Mass Index (BMI) were evaluated with standard unpaired t-tests, while for gender, Chi-Squared analysis with Yates' correction was used.

Statistical tests exploited in the study were chosen after performing analyses for normal (Gaussian) distribution and homogeneity of the data, performed with the tests of Anderson-Darling and Bartlett, respectively. To examine possible discrimination for biomarkers' levels between baseline and after the performance of the interventions, paired t-test was employed. Based on the outcomes of the tests of Anderson-Darling and Bartlett, Wilcoxon non-parametric paired t-test has been employed for comparing the titers of IL-1 β , A β_{40} and of the ratio p-tau181/A β_{42} for control group, and of the ratio A β_{42} /A $\beta_{/40}$ for Control and VRADA groups. In all other cases, standard paired t-test was used. To examine possible discrimination between the control group after the study, and the group of patients assigned to VRADA intervention, a standard unpaired t-test was performed. To verify the power of the conducted analyses, a post-hoc power analysis was performed, with G*Power 3.1 (Faul et al., 2007).

Correlation analysis with Spearman's test has been used for determining the relationships among analyzed variables and multilinear regression with backward elimination for evaluating the best predictor for the p-tau181 ratio. All the analyses were carried between the start and the end of the clinical trial for every cohort. Levels of $A\beta_{42}$ and p-tau181 have been excluded from multilinear regression analysis, due to their immediate relationship to the ratio, which would subsequently lead to artificially lower significance for the other factors.

The statistical significance was set at p<0.05 in all cases.

2 Results

3.1 Statistical analysis of subjects' demographics and power analysis

Participants' baseline demographics and the p values of the statistical analyses are summarized in Table 1, where the values displayed represent mean values \pm SD. Graphs containing the comparison of age, gender, education, BMI, and the number of participants are depicted in Supplementary Fig. S1. Comparing the demographics mentioned, no significant differences were observed between healthy control participants and the VRADA group.

Post-hoc power analysis was performed for determining the power of the performed analyses and screenshots of the received results are provided in the Supplementary material. Biomarkers' analyses, except for TNF- α , were found to be of good statistical power (>0.8).

3.2 Assessment of inflammatory markers in sera of MCI patients after VRADA intervention compared to the control group

By implementing ELISA, IL-1 β and TNF- α levels in the blood showed a reduction thanks to VRADA engagement. The mean levels ±SD of the tested biomarkers of the two groups are provided in Table 1, and the distribution of those is depicted in Fig. 1.

IL-1 β levels have an augmented tendency in the control group at the end of the study, while a reduction has been found in the VRADA group with no statistical significance difference (p>0.05, in both cases). Comparing the levels of IL-1 β of the Control after and VRADA after, a significant reduction of IL-1 β levels was observed in the VRADA group (p=0.001). As regard to TNF- α levels, no significant changes were observed between the studied groups. The aforementioned results imply that physical and brain stimulation through VRADA

technology could be able to exert an anti-inflammatory effect, as may be observed from the decline of IL-1 β levels. However, the low power found from the analyses should be taken under notice, and therefore these results should be verified in the future with bigger cohorts.

3.3 The effect of VRADA technology on $A\beta$ deposition before and after the intervention on MCI patients

Previous studies showed that reduction of $A\beta_{42}$ and $A\beta_{40}$ plasma levels was associated with cognitive decline, indicating AD manifestation (Janelidze et al., 2016). To further investigate the effects of VRADA on the hallmarks of AD, we assessed amyloidosis in our clinical samples. All the received data as mean ±SD of the tested biomarkers are provided in Table 1 and the tendency of those is depicted in Fig. 2.

To estimate the effect of VRADA on the MCI group on the $A\beta_{42}$ and $A\beta_{40}$ levels, we determined the levels of these $A\beta$ species in the sera of all the cohort groups before and after the treatment. Significantly lower levels of $A\beta_{42}$ (p= 0.0023) were found at the Control After group, indicating that amyloid homeostasis and clearance from the brain worsened in the absence of intervention. On the other hand, no significant differences were found in the VRADA group at the follow-up. After the VRADA intervention, patients presented significantly higher levels of serum $A\beta_{42}$ in comparison with the Control group (p= 0.0219), which may imply an ameliorative effect of VRADA technology, as higher levels of $A\beta_{42}$ in serum are regarded to correlate with higher clearance from the brain of the patients.

Serum A β_{40} levels were found significantly elevated in the Control group at the end of the trial (p<0.0001), which may be related to increased production of amyloid peptides due to gradual disease progression to the AD stage. Conversely, no significant changes in A β_{40} levels were found for patients following the VRADA intervention. Additionally, A β_{40} levels of the VRADA patients were significantly lower than those of the Control group (p=0.0364), at the 3-month follow-up of the study. Also, in the Control group, the A β_{42} /A β_{40} ratio was diminished in a significant manner (p=0.001), while no changes were found in the

VRADA groups. The patients employed in VRADA intervention presented significantly higher levels of $A\beta_{42}/A\beta_{40}$ ratio at the follow-up (p= 0.0069). Decreased plasma levels of $A\beta_{42}$ and lower $A\beta_{42}/A\beta_{40}$ ratio were previously regarded crucial for progression of MCI to dementia stage in a recent study conducted on 485 patients with MCI (Hanon et al., 2022). Also, *Fandos et al.* reported that a diminished $A\beta_{42}/A\beta_{40}$ plasma ratio is correlated with a higher risk of dementia. To summarize, an ameliorative tendency is brewed from the comparison of the VRADA baseline and VRADA group after intervention regarding general amyloidosis in MCI patients (Fandos et al. 2017).

3.4 The effect of VRADA reduces tau species

We next assessed the effect of VRADA intervention on tau levels through the measurement of total tau protein levels and phosphorylated tau species in the serum of all participants. P-tau181 protein levels in the serum (phosphorylation of threonine at 181 site) have been considered to be responsible for loss of physiological function, gain of toxicity, and its aggregation to form neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs) (Miao et al., 2019). In addition, we determined the ratio of tautotal/p-tau181 and p-tau181/A β_{42} as markers of cognitive decline. The mean levels (±SD) of tau species of every studied group, before and post-intervention, are summarized in Table 1, and the distribution of those is depicted in Fig. 3. Notably, elevated levels of tau-total were detected in the Control group after the intervention compared to baseline (p< 0.0001). On the contrary, when Control group at the follow-up was compared with the VRADA group after intervention, a significantly lower level of tau-total was measured (p=0.0002).

Given that tau-total levels were changed thanks to VRADA intervention, the ptau181 form has been next examined in the serum of MCI participants to detect the response to VRADA on hyperphosphorylation of tau. As far as the Control group is concerned, we observed an elevated tendency of p-tau181 after the end of the study on a significantly high level (p<0.0001). On the other side, the comparison of the VRADA group with the Control group after intervention showed an overall amelioration of p-tau181 (p<0.0001), implying that VRADA treatment may reduce toxic p-tau181 and total tau level. The same tendency was proved from the measurement of p-tau181/A β_{42} , where significantly higher levels were observed in patients who did not follow any intervention compared to the VRADA group after the end of the study (p<0.0001). These results may potentially imply that VR technology as a non-pharmacological intervention can delay the progression of the disease from MCI to AD or holistic deter the onset of deleterious effects of the disease regarding tau pathology.

3.5 Correlation analysis

The possible correlation of the levels of all studied markers between each other was also assessed. Regarding inflammatory markers results are provided in Table 2. IL-1 β baseline levels were not found to correlate with any studied biomarker, while at the follow-up of the study, significant correlations were demonstrated with AD hallmarks, A β_{42} , total tau, p-tau181, and the ratios A $\beta_{42/40}$, and ptau181/A β_{42} . IL-1 β also correlated positively with tau species and the ratio ptau181/A β_{42} , while a negative correlation was demonstrated for A β_{42} and the ratio A $\beta_{42/40}$. In addition, TNF- α levels were found to positively correlate with total tau and p-tau181 levels at both the baseline and the follow-up of the study. Significant correlations were also demonstrated only at the follow-up of some biomarkers, namely a negative correlation with A β_{42} and A $\beta_{42/40}$ levels, and positive correlations with A β_{40} and p-tau181/A β_{42} . Finally, a positive correlation between baseline TNF-a levels and follow-up levels was verified. In, Fig. S2 graphs for the correlations of the ratios A $\beta_{42/40}$ and p181-tau/A β_{42} with the inflammatory markers are also provided. These correlations underline the implication of inflammation on amyloid and tau hallmarks of AD.

As far as AD hallmarks are concerned, A β species correlations are given in Table 3, while regarding tau species, correlation results can be found in Table 4. A β_{42} levels were found to correlate positively with p181-tau levels only at the baseline. A strong positive correlation with A $\beta_{42/40}$ ratio at both baseline and follow-up as well as a strong negative correlation between A β_{42} level only at follow-up and p181-tau/A β_{42} ratio, was also demonstrated. A β_{40} levels were found to correlate with total tau and p181-tau levels at both baseline and follow-up. Also, positive correlations were found to be significant between A β_{40} and the ratio p181-

tau/A β 42 ratio, and more strongly between baseline and follow-up levels of this amyloid species. Total tau levels positively correlate with p181-tau at baseline, but more strongly at the follow-up. Also, positive correlations, only at the follow-up, were found between total tau and the ratio p181-tau/A β ₄₂, while a positive, significant correlation was also found between follow-up total tau and the age of the participants. Positive significant correlations regarding age were also verified for p-tau181 levels and the ratio p181-tau/A β ₄₂, implying a significant implication of the age of the participants, for VRADA intervention to present better effects.

3.6 Multilinear regression analysis for determinants of ratio p181-tau/ $A\beta_{42}$

To establish how the several biomarkers studied here are implicated in the general AD pathology for both Control and VRADA groups, a multilinear regression analysis was performed for best predictors of p181-tau/A β_{42} levels - a crucial ratio reflecting the status of AD hallmarks. The results are presented in Table 5. At baseline, the multilinear model derived after backward elimination could not be verified as statistically significant, with no studied biomarkers presenting any significant effect on the ratio. To be noted, A β_{42} and p-tau, which would present significant implications on the ratio, were omitted from this study, to verify the effect of other determinants.

A very different result was found, after the competition of the VRADA intervention. A strong, significant positive effect of total tau levels was verified, while also IL-1 β was found to be a significant, though less strong, determinant of the ratio levels. The multilinear model (which is provided in Fig. 3d), was found to be significant. Thus, this analysis proves that VRADA intervention would possibly lead to a diminished p181-tau/A β_{42} ratio, possibly through a pathway including a simultaneous decrease of soluble total tau levels. This effect could reflect a decreased rate of axon degeneration, through a simultaneous alleviation of inflammatory pathways, as is found by the reduced IL-1 β levels proven in this study.

3 Discussion

Dementia is considered a multifactorial disease where the mechanisms which are involved are not yet fully understood. A critical role appears to be the interplay between inflammatory and environmental factors. Currently, the unearthing of non-toxic or non-pharmacological interventions targeting AD has attracted considerable attention in AD research. As the elixir to cooperate with the deleterious effects of the disease still not comes to light, disease prevention appears to be a potential possibility to manage the onset or the progression state.

VRADA training model was designed by a group of experts according to the previous guidelines and methodology for artificial therapeutic and health apps (Birckhead et al., 2019; Mummah et al., 2016). Having bear in mind these recommendations, the VR system was formed to have a dual performance of physical and cognitive training for the elderly suffering from MCI.

The pleasure, engagement, tolerance, acceptance, and easy-to-use VRADA system were reflected in the measured scores which were proved to be above the mean and succeeded in higher scores compared to a group of students (Hassandra et al., 2021). This kind of technology system, which is continuously tested, based on human needs proved to be user-friendly (Hassandra et al., 2021). Patients unfamiliar with the application had short-term training for their encouragement to use VR. Past studies support that the use of immersive VR by older adults creates symptoms such as instability and sensory conflict (Cobb et al., 1999). No side effects such as nausea, dizziness, and anxiety were declared from patients who suffered from MCI and participated in VRADA training.

We aimed to assess and quantify the possible amelioration at biomarkerlevel in older adults with mild cognitive decline compared to the control group who received no intervention compared to VRADA intervention. More specifically, we focused on the inflammatory cascade to examine possible mitigation by 3-month engagement on VRADA, reflecting in the overall amelioration of AD biomarkers. For this reason, having in mind that there were no reported studies that have correlated the improvement thanks to VR technology, this is the first research that embodied inflammatory and AD biomarkers to provide data in detail for the possible potential of this new technology. Moreover, our aim was to investigate if a non-pharmacological intervention may halt or mitigate the progression of MCI to AD state. First, concerning inflammation, a significant decrease in IL-1 β levels was measured after the VRADA intervention, with a significant difference between the Control group and VRADA group at the follow-up. The decrease in IL-1 β may imply that patients suffering from MCI may profit from a healthier status after the VRADA sessions. These results come in agreement with those of *Kohanpour et al*. where patients were engaged in aerobic exercise with simultaneous consumption of *Glycyrrhiza glabra* extract. Secondly, TNF- α levels were found diminished despite the lack of significant group differences possibly because of the short period of intervention (Kohanpour et al. 2017).

Pro-inflammatory cytokine, IL-6 increases in response to abrupt decrement in the post hoc period triggering the augmentation of anti-inflammatory response through IL-1ra and IL-10 (Pedersen and Fischer, 2007; Steensberg et al., 2003). The activation of IL-6 via physical activity seems to have an anti-inflammatory role which counteracting as an obstacle to TNF-a activation in healthy individuals (Starkie et al., 2003). Moreover, augmented titers of IL-1 are considered to be pathological evidence of AD due to their implication in memory disturbance (Ben-Menachem-Zidon et al., 2014). In a transgenic animal model, the chronic silence of the IL-1 receptor resulted in the amelioration of neuroinflammation and neuronal pathology (Kitazawa et al., 2011).

A multi-tasking device, except for the attainment of a more active lifestyle, mostly affects cognitive function in the elderly community-dwelling population with MCI. This VR stationary bike system, called VRADA, provides physical and cognitive training performance creating a safe, comfortable, and engaged environment to evaluate the possible potential of a non-pharmacological intervention to ameliorate the deleterious pathophysiology of dementia patients or to overcome the progression of the disease. The dual stimulation both physically and mentally adopted in the present protocol was sufficient and able to achieve a preliminary mitigated effect reflecting an alleviation of patients who suffered from MCI. To determine the effect of VRADA intervention on blood serum biomarkers of patients diagnosed with MCI, this study accompanied cognitive stimulation by assessment of inflammatory factors (IL-1 β , TNF- α), the biomarkers hallmarks of AD (total tau, p181-tau, A β 42, and A β 40, as well as the ratios of A β 42/40 and p181-tau/A β 42).

As for amyloid peptides, $A\beta_{42}$ had an increased tendency in the post-VRADA group with a significant difference compared to the post-Control group reinforcing the evidence that supports PE for A β clearance. The ratio A $\beta_{42}/A\beta_{40}$ had an improvement in the VRADA-after group despite the lack of significance between the post-VRADA and post-Control groups. All studied biomarkers were assessed in serum as an alternative and easy-to-obtain source that reflects the pathology of the disease (Tzekaki et al., 2021a, 2021b). More promising results were revealed from the measurement of tau forms in the sera of the MCI VRADA patients group compared to the control group at baseline level and the end of the study. We found a decisive amelioration of total tau and p-tau181 after the intervention with a significant difference compared to the Control group after the intervention. The same improvement turns out to have the ratio of p-tau181/A β_{42} . This could indicate that at the start of the study, participants with higher A β_{42} levels tended to have higher p-tau181 levels. However, as the study progressed and follow-up measurements were taken, this correlation might have altered or diminished altogether. The initial positive correlation might reflect an early stage of the disease, but as it progresses, other factors could become more influential, leading to a weakening or disappearance of the correlation. The study involved VRADA interventions which could have an impact on the biomarker's level, thus affecting the correlation observed at the baseline.

These results are strongly supported by statistical analysis through Multilinear Regression. The biomarker which is actively contributed to the amelioration of p-tau181/A β_{42} observed in the VRADA group is owed to tau mitigation and IL-1 β levels.

An interplay between AD and inflammation is well-proven (Ransohoff, 2016). It has not been elucidated if inflammation is the driving force for A β deposition or A β toxicity provokes inflammatory response (Bagyinszky et al., 2017). On Amyloid Precursor Protein (APP) transgenic mice, physical exercise was sufficient to activate the neprilysin, the A β -degrading enzyme, alleviating A β pathology, and memory (Maesako et al., 2012). In addition, PE augments adulthood neurogenesis in mice, as proved by morphological studies and attenuated cytokine-level (Sun et al., 2018).

The main element of amyloid plaques is found to be $A\beta_{42}$ which forms aggregations in the brain of AD patients. Both Positron emission tomography (PET) results and CSF-blood amyloid levels confirmed the aggregation of cerebral amyloid (Nakamura et al., 2018; Spallazzi et al., 2019). To the best of our knowledge, till now, the literature reported data have not been correlated to a specific tendency of A β levels of MCI patients (Wilczyńska and Waszkiewicz, 2020). Consequently, A β_{40} is not counted as a predictor of dementia opposing to the ratio of A $\beta_{42/40}$ (Koyama et al., 2012). Studies suggested that decreased plasma levels of A $\beta_{42/40}$ (Giudici et al., 2020) are strongly associated with the onset of AD and future cognitive decline (Graff-Radford et al., 2007; van Oijen et al., 2006, Fandos et al., 2017).

Fibrillary form of A β extracellularly conglomerates and form senile plaques which in turn stimulate tau hyperphosphorylation generating a neurotoxic environment (Zhang et al., 2021). However, it is not yet fully understood whether the neurotoxicity of A β dependent on tau (Zhang et al., 2021). A significant increase of p181-tau depleted A β_{42} , and increased tau-total evidence the amyloid deposition and faster cognitive decline (Chen et al., 2021). which are associated with CSF biomarkers at the clinical stage of AD (Brickman et al., 2021; Kivisäkk et al., 2022; Lantero Rodriguez et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021). P181-tau deleterious augmentation is prodromal of AD stage in MCI patients (Thomas et al., 2022). In a recent longitudinal study plasma p181-tau levels were greater, at baseline of MCI and AD dementia, and augmented over time at the preclinical, prodromal, and dementia stage of AD (Chen et al., 2021). It is underwritten that the ratio of p181- tau/A β_{42} constitutes a useful tool for discrimination of the disease stage (Campbell et al., 2021). As high as the ratio is the risk of AD onset is enhanced (Campbell et al., 2021). In addition, the plasma p181-tau/A β_{42} ratio is considered a double-sided mirror to depict tau deposition in diffuse brain regions (Park et al., 2019).

To the best of our knowledge, two studies for older adults with MCI have detected the amelioration owing to VR-PE on general cognitive function (Htut et al., 2018; Park and Yim, 2015), executive function (Anderson-Hanley et al., 2012; Hsieh et al., 2019; Htut et al., 2018), working memory capacity (Anderson-Hanley et al., 2012), short-term memory (Monteiro-Junior et al., 2017) and verbal episodic

memory (Anderson-Hanley et al., 2018) compared to the control groups. A significant improvement was found in the MCI group compared to healthy elderly in executive functions (Sakaki et al., 2021). As for the dual role of intervention, VR and physical exercise have been reported to overcome the inhibition performance in older adults with and without mild cognitive decline (Anderson-Hanley et al., 2012; Mrakic-Sposta et al., 2018). VR-PE was effective in shifting performance measured by trial making (Eggenberger et al., 2015) or color trials (Anderson-Hanley et al., 2012) in healthy older adults. Two studies have measured dual-task performance (Delbroek et al., 2017; Htut et al., 2018), and one study the abstract thinking (Hsieh et al., 2019).

Even if this research has recruited a small number of participants the physical performance in conjunction with cognitive tasks in a virtual reality environment was able to decrement inflammatory cytokines, IL-1 β , TNF- α and increment the ratio of A $\beta_{42}/_{40}$, and p181-tau/A β_{42} by implemented ELISA in serum of all patients with MCI and comparing to control group. The reason that may plausibly justify this evidence is summarized in the concept that exercise activates the body's recovery system resulting in the production of trophic, anti-oxidant, and anti-inflammatory factors which in turn improve brain plasticity and function (Gomez-Cabrera et al., 2008; Mee-Inta et al., 2019; Nagamatsu et al., 2014; Yoo et al., 2019). As a result, the adopted training protocol resulted in the amelioration of MMSE and the mitigation of the disease (Hassandra et al., 2021). The subjects in the VR intervention group strongly adhered to the training and the dropout number was low.

In addition, patients' declarations revealed engagement with the training performance of VRADA, a pleasured environment, and a broad acceptance as a multi-useful tool for conducting cognitive tasks combined with delight retrieved from the PE. The training program was well put in and accepted by all participants who declared in most cases thrilled for the use of the new tool, which represents a key tool when coping with the elderly (Dillon and Morris, 1996).

The adaptation of a lifestyle in nourishing (Hoscheidt et al., 2022; Phillips et al., 2021) combined with physical activity on a moderate level day-to-day is considered the key source to alleviate or overcome cognitive decline (Cammisuli

et al., 2017; Du et al., 2018; Gallaway et al., 2017; Macpherson et al., 2017; Rolland et al., 2010; Ströhle et al., 2015).

Therefore, it is out of emergency the adoption of preventive measures of everyday life to confront the disease. VR constitutes a new trend that floods our society, but it stood to preliminary applications as a therapy tool. In the domain of prevention and treatment of MCI, VR continues to require more clinical research. As this method is expanded to patients with different dementias levels it is expected to gain more therapeutic strategies having in its center the patients' needs with a view to qualified. The future of VR in MCI therapeutic strategies is strongly correlated with new technological data that aim to create an ever more engaging and safer artificial interactive environment.

4 LIMITATIONS

Even though VRADA technology presented advantages such as respecting acceptability, usability, and tolerability, however, its effectiveness has some limitations indeed. These limitations are concerned with its pilot study characteristics (i.e., small sample and a short period of treatment). The monitoring of the physical activity in the experimental sessions and the social activity program in the control group strengthen the clinical study. A backbone study with a long-term follow-up is indispensable to evaluate the rehabilitation efficacy in detail. Despite the small number of patients, the strength of this study includes the supervised exercise program, a high rate of adherence to the intervention, and the use of validated outcome measures.

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Figure. 1. Blood serum levels of (a) IL-1 β and (b) TNF- α as measured from the implemented ELISA on patients with MCI who did not receive any intervened therapy (Controls) (n=23) compared to MCI patients who received non-pharmacological therapy called VRADA (VRADA) (n=12). Blood from patients was collected at the Baseline levels (Control and VRADA baseline) and the end of the study (Control and VRADA after). Results are provided with individual values scatter plots which as mean values ± standard deviation (SD). All samples were analyzed at least in duplicates. Statistical analyses were performed with Graph Pad Prism 8.0 statistical software. One-way ANOVA was used to examine possible differences between groups. *Differences between follow-up (After) levels of the Control group and the VRADA group. ns: non-significant, *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, ***: p < 0.001, ***: p < 0.0001.



Figure. 2. Blood serum levels of (a) amyloid peptide 1-42 ($A\beta_{42}$), (b) amyloid peptide 1-40 ($A\beta_{40}$), and (c) of the ratio $A\beta_{42}/A\beta_{40}$ ($A\beta_{42/40}$) as measured from the implemented ELISA on patients with MCI who did not receive any intervened therapy (Controls) (n=23) compared to MCI patients who received non-pharmacological therapy called VRADA (VRADA) (n=12). Blood from patients was collected at the Baseline levels (Control and VRADA baseline) and the end of the study (Control and VRADA after). Results are provided with individual values scatter plots which as mean values ± standard deviation (SD). All samples were analyzed at least in duplicates. Statistical analyses were performed with Graph Pad Prism 8.0 statistical software. One-way ANOVA was used to examine possible differences between follow-up (After) levels of the Control group and the VRADA group. ns: non-significant, *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, ***: p < 0.001, ****: p < 0.001.



Figure. 3. Blood serum levels of (a) total tau protein (t-tau), (b) tau protein phosphorylated at Threonine-181 (p181-tau), and (c) of the ratio p181-tau/A β_{42} as measured from the implemented ELISA on patients with MCI who did not receive any intervened therapy (Controls) (n=23) compared to MCI patients who received non-pharmacological therapy called VRADA (VRADA) (n=12). Blood from patients was collected at the Baseline levels (Control and VRADA baseline) and the end of the study (Control and VRADA after). Results are provided with individual values scatter plots which as mean values \pm standard deviation (SD). All samples were analyzed at least in duplicates. Statistical analyses were performed with Graph Pad Prism 8.0 statistical software. Oneway ANOVA was used to examine possible differences between groups. *Differences between follow-up and baseline levels. #Differences between follow-up (After) levels of the Control group and the VRADA group. ns: nonsignificant, *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, ***: p < 0.001, ***: p < 0.001. (d) Scatter plot of p-tau181/A β 42 levels against predicted p-tau181/A β 42 levels. Multilinear regression analysis with stepwise elimination has been performed for the evaluation of the effect of each biochemical and demographical characteristic of the VRADA group. R squared values of the proposed models and the p-value of the corresponding equation are provided in the plot. Statistical analyses were performed with Graph Pad Prism 8.0 statistical software. (d) Scatter plot of tau-p181/A β_{42} levels against predicted tau-

p181/A β_{42} levels. Multilinear regression analysis with stepwise elimination has been performed for the evaluation of the effect of each biochemical and demographical characteristic of VRADA group. R squared values of the proposed models and p value of the corresponding equation is provided in the plot. Statistical analyses were performed with Graph Pad Prism 8.0 statistical software.

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Table 1. Demographics data and biomarkers' levels (IL-1 β , IL-6, TNF- α , A β_{42} , A β_{40} , total tau protein, and p181-tau) of MCI patients assigned to VRADA intervention, or to the Control group, from whom blood serum was received.

Blood Donor Demographics			Biomarker Analysis of Study Groups					
Demograp hics	Cont rol	VRA DA	P value s	Biomar ker	Contr ol Baseli ne	Cont rol After	VRAD A Baseli ne	VRA DA After
Participant s Number (N)	17	12		IL-1β (pg/mL)	35.13 ± 8.26	42.37 ± 9.10 ^a	34.72 ± 8.13	28.14 ± 7.33 ^b
Gender (Female/M ale)	15/2	9/3	0.423 9	TNF-α (pg/mL)	17.94 ± 4.74	17.16 ± 7.09	17.33 ± 4.51	16.43 ± 4.23
Age (years)	76.1 ± 6.8	67.6 ± 10.7	0.069 7	Αβ ₄₂ (pg/mL)	30.63 ± 5.91	23.73 ± 4.79 ^a	29.24 ± 7.18	29.73 ± 8.46 ^b
Education (years)	11.2 ± 3.7	14.2± 1.8	0.069 7	Αβ ₄₀ (pg/mL)	92.42 ± 12.36	106.7 0 ± 12.33 a	93.06 ± 26.88	92.48 ± 22.32
			X	Tau total (pg/mL)	0.18 ± 0.04	0.27 ± 0.07 ^a	0.19 ± 0.04	0.18 ± 0.04 ^b
Body Mass Index (kg/m²)	27.9 27.8 >0 ± 3.7 ± 5.7 9	27.8	>0.99	p181- tau (pg/mL)	0.57 ± 0.20	0.96 ± 0.21 ^ª	0.60 ± 0.15	0.60 ± 0.15 ^b
		39	Αβ ₄₂ /Αβ 40	0.34 ± 0.07	0.22 ± 0.05 ^a	0.33 ± 0.08	0.35 ± 0.16 ^b	
				p181- tau/Aβ₄ ²	0.019 ± 0.007	0.042 ± 0.011 ª	0.021 ± 0.003	0.022 ± 0.009 b

The levels of studied biomarkes, were determined with Sandwich, quantitative ELISA. Ratios of $A\beta_{42}/A\beta_{40}$, p181-tau/total tau protein, and p181-tau/ $A\beta_{42}$ were calculated afterward All values are provided as Mean ± Standard Deviation (SD). Statistical analysis for differences in the demographic data between groups was performed with the usage of the Graph Pad Prism 8 statistical package. No statistically significant differences (p < 0.05) were found between the demographics of the studied groups. MCI: Mild Cognitive Impairment; VRADA: virtual reality application for the exercise of dementia and Alzheimer's patients. Statistical analysis for studied biomarkers was performed with the usage of the Graph Pad Prism 8 statistical package. Paired t-test was applied for

determining statistical differences between baseline and after-study values, for each study group. An unpaired t-test was performed to estimate differences between the effects after VRADA intervention and Control group after the study. Statistically significant differences (p < 0.05) with ^a Baseline; ^b Control after study. MCI: Mild Cognitive Impairment; VRADA: virtual reality application for the exercise of dementia and Alzheimer's patients.

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Table 2. Correlation analysis of serum cytokines IL-1 β and TNF- α with the analyzed biomarkers and demographics of the study.

Biomarker	Correlation Analysis of Study Groups					
	IL	-1β	ΤΝϜα			
	Baseline	After	Baseline	After		
IL-1β		-0.099	0.310	0.340		
TNF-α	0.310	0.340		0.516**		
Αβ ₄₂	0.140	-0.399*	0.313	-0.335****		
Αβ ₄₀	-0.007	0.246	0.343	0.450*		
T-tau	0.131	0.463*	0.392*	0.531**		
p181-tau	0.066	0.490**	0.523**	0.475**		
Αβ _{42/40}	0.061	-0.446*	-0.042	-0.442*		
p181-Tau/Aβ ₄₂	-0.077	0.591**	0.262	0.562**		
Age	-0.239	0.301	0.001	0.051		
Education	-0.281	-0.325	-0.066	0.054		
BMI	0.248	-0.060	0.033	0.155		

Correlation analysis has been performed with Graph Pad Prism 8.0 statistical package and rank correlation coefficients (r) and their corresponding p values were evaluated using Spearman's test. *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, ***: p < 0.001, ****: p < 0.0001.

Biomarker	Correlation Analysis of Study Groups					
	Αβ ₄₂		Αβ ₄₀		Αβ _{42/40}	
	Baseline	After	Baseline	After	Baseline	After
Αβ ₄₂		-0.216	0.352	-0.176	0.626***	0.863****
Αβ ₄₀	0.352	-0.176		0.725****	-0.367	-0.556**
T-tau	0.352	-0.284	0.515**	0.410*	-0.080	-0.421*
p181-tau	0.428*	-0.319	0.373*	0.418**	0.032	-0.498**
Αβ _{42/40}	0.626***	0.863****	-0.367	-0.556		0.018
p181-Tau/Aβ ₄₂	-0.304	- 0.702****	0.228	0.428*	-0.577**	-0.796****
Age	0.074	-0.109	0.136	0.166	-0.034	-0.205
Education	-0.049	0.350	0.148	0.113	-0.092	0.282
BMI	0.263	-0.283	-0.045	0.102	0.260	-0.337

Table 3. Correlation analysis of serum amyloid ($A\beta_{42}$, $A\beta_{40}$, and the ratio $A\beta_{42/40}$) with the analyzed biomarkers and demographics of the study.

Correlation analysis has been performed with Graph Pad Prism 8.0 statistical package and rank correlation coefficients (r) and their corresponding p values were evaluated using Spearman's test. *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, ***: p < 0.001, ***: p < 0.0001.

Table 4 Correlation analys	sis of serum tau (T-tau,	, p181-tau, and the ratio p181-

Biomarker	er Correlation Analysis of Study Groups					
	T-tau		p181-tau		p181-Tau/Aβ ₄₂	
	Baseline	After	Baseline	After	Baseline	After
T-tau		0.280	0.417*	0.871****	0.295	0.771****
p181-tau	0.417*	0.871****		0.484**	0.646****	0.843****
p181-Tau/Aβ ₄₂	0.295	0.771****	0.646***	0.843****		0.122
Age	0.063	0.404*	0.194	0.507**	0.148	0.394*
Education	0.171	-0.226	0.271	-0.257	0.232	-0.337
BMI	0.083	0.033	-0.139	0.051	-0.320	0.148

tau/A β_{42}) with the analyzed biomarkers and demographics of the study.

Correlation analysis has been performed with Graph Pad Prism 8.0 statistical package and rank correlation coefficients (r) and their corresponding p values were evaluated using Spearman's test. *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, ***: p < 0.001, ****: p < 0.0001.

Predictor marker	Multilinear regression analysis of ratio p-tau181/Aβ ₄₂						
	Bas	seline	Follow-up				
	β	р	β	р			
IL-1β	< 0.0001	ns	0.0004	*			
TNF-α	0.0003	ns	0.0001	ns			
Αβ ₄₀	< 0.0001	ns	0.0001	ns			
Total Tau	0.0073	ns	0.1212	****			
Age	< 0.0001	ns	0.0002	ns			
Gender	0.0036	ns	0.0019	ns			
Education	0.0006	ns	-0.0002	ns			
BMI	-0.0003	ns	0.0005	ns			
Intercept	0.0124	**	-0.0085	ns			
R Squared	0.1270	ns	0.6750	****			

Table 5. Independent predictors of ratio p181-tau/A β_{42} from a multilinear regression model using backward elimination.

The biomarkers IL-1 β , TNF- α , $A\beta_{40}$, and tau-total that were analyzed in blood sera of MCI patients before and at the follow-up of the VRADA intervention, and demographic parameters (age, education, BMI) were included in the multi-variable analysis (Graph Pad Prism 8) and were eliminated step to step, based on the significance of the contribution to the p181-tau/A β_{42} . β : standardized regression coefficient; MCI: Mild Cognitive Impairment; BMI: Body Mass Index ns: non-significant, *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, ***: p < 0.001, ****: p < 0.001.

Declareation of interest Statement

All the authors declare no conflict of interest.