Low vision rehabilitation in improving the quality of life for patients with impaired vision
A systematic review and meta-analysis of 52 randomized clinical trials

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Abstract

Background & aim: Low vision rehabilitation optimizes the use of residual vision after severe vision loss, but also teaches skills to improve visual functioning in daily life. These skills promote independence and active participation in society. This meta-analysis was designed to evaluate the efficacy of low vision rehabilitation in improving the quality of life (QoL) in visually impaired adults.

Methods: We searched the Cochrane Library, PubMed, EMBASE, and Web of Science up to January 1, 2020. Randomized controlled trials (RCTs) that compared rehabilitation interventions with active or inactive controls were included. The standardized mean difference (SMD) with a 95% confidence interval (CI) was estimated to compare outcomes. Two reviewers extracted data and assessed trial quality independently. All statistical analyses were performed using the standard statistical procedures of RevMan 5.2.

Results: A total of 52 RCTs with 6,239 participants were included in this meta-analysis. Compared to inactive comparators including waiting list or no care, low vision rehabilitation improved vision-related QoL, visual functioning (QoL: psychological aspect), and self-efficacy or self-esteem (QoL: psychological aspect), with pooled SMDs of −0.61 (95% CI: 0.95 to −0.26; \(P=0.0006\)), −1.14 (95% CI: −1.69 to −0.59; \(P<0.0001\)), and −0.84 (95% CI: −1.47 to −0.22; \(P<0.0001\)) respectively. Compared to active comparators, low vision rehabilitation improved vision-related QoL (SMD = −0.26; 95% CI = −0.46 to −0.06; \(P=0.01\)) and activities of daily living (QoL: physical aspect) (SMD = −0.39; 95% CI = −0.67 to −0.12 \(P<0.0001\)). However, no significant difference in health-related QoL and adaptation to vision loss (QoL: psychological aspect) was found between low vision rehabilitation and inactive comparators.

Conclusions: This meta-analysis indicated that low vision rehabilitation interventions, particularly psychological therapies and methods of enhancing vision, may improve vision-related QoL and visual functioning in people with sight loss compared to usual care. Further studies should explore longer maintenance effects and the costs of several types of low vision rehabilitation. Studies characterizing the mechanisms of rehabilitation interventions in different settings, including low-income countries, are also required.

Abbreviations: CI = confidence interval, QoL = quality of life, RCTs = randomized controlled trials, SMD = standardized mean difference.

Keywords: efficacy, low vision rehabilitation, quality of life

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This Article Has Been Retracted
1. Introduction

Approximately 216.6 million people have been estimated to have moderate to severe visual impairment (<6/18) and that 36 million people are blind. Visual impairment is especially problematic in developing countries, where approximately 80% of all visually impaired persons live. Vision loss mainly affects older people; 82% of those who are blind and 65% of those with mild to severe vision loss are 50 years or older. Vision loss is one of the leading causes of disability in older people. Besides physical dysfunction, limitations in daily life activities, visual functioning, and anxiety, vision loss also leads to decreased life satisfaction and quality of life (QoL).

Low vision rehabilitation for adults is a professional service that optimizes residual vision and also teaches visually impaired people skills to improve visual functioning in daily life. In addition, it helps patients to adapt to vision loss and improve psychosocial functioning. This may lead to greater independence and more active participation in society. Low vision rehabilitation should ultimately improve the QoL of visually impaired patients.

Several studies in the field of low vision rehabilitation have focused on objective tasks or specific measures of functional ability such as reading speed or other performance-based measures. Although these measures are important to assess functioning, they do not capture all facets of the individual’s experience. Comprehensive patient-reported outcome measures such as health-related QoL and disease-specific QoL have been introduced because of the growing interest of governments and health insurance companies in these outcome measures as parameters for quality of care. In the field of low vision, increasing attention has been focused on the theoretical constructs of vision-related QoL and visual functioning as important outcomes of rehabilitation. A comprehensive literature review by Binns and colleagues showed that the evidence supporting vision rehabilitation remains unclear with respect to health-related QoL or vision-related QoL. However, the authors did not specifically assess methodological quality and included observational studies. Hence, this meta-analysis was designed to assess the effectiveness of low vision rehabilitation interventions on health-related QoL, vision-related QoL, and visual functioning and closely related patient-reported outcomes in visually impaired adults.

2. Methods

2.1. Criteria for considering studies

We included studies if they met the following criteria: a. Randomized controlled trials (RCTs) that compared one or more rehabilitation interventions with wait lists/no care or with usual care/other care; b. studies in which the effect of low vision rehabilitation was assessed among adults (≥18 years) of either gender with a vision impairment; and c. studies that measured health-related QoL and vision-related QoL as 2 primary outcomes or related patient-reported outcomes as secondary outcomes, such as physical and functional measures, psychological measures, and/or social measures, at any follow-up time after the intervention ended.

Studies were excluded if they met the following criteria: a. experimental trial on animals or a non-human study, non-RCTs, quasi-RCTs, or observational studies; b. study population included patients with other diseases that would affect outcomes; c. study reported in the form of an abstract, letter, editorial, expert opinion, review, or case report; or d. lack of sufficient data or failure to meet the inclusion criteria. We excluded studies focusing on the following interventions or devices: neuro-rehabilitation interventions, interventions to improve visual field loss after brain damage, medical interventions, and preferences regarding low vision aid designs.

The present study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Wangjing Hospital of Chinese Academy of Traditional Chinese Medicine.

2.2. Search strategy

We searched the Cochrane Library, PubMed, EMBASE, and Web of Science to January 1, 2020. Our strategy was based on combinations of keywords including “low vision,” “impaired vision,” “rehabilitation,” “intervention,” “quality of life,” and “visual function.” Two assessors independently screened the titles and abstracts of each study. When a relevant study was identified, its full text was obtained for further evaluation. The full text of related references was also obtained for review. References that met the inclusion criteria were also included in the meta-analysis.

2.3. Quality assessment and data extraction

Two reviewers assessed the quality of each RCT using the risk of bias assessment tool. In addition, the risk of bias, for each individual study and across all studies, was evaluated and graphically displayed in figures generated by RevMan 5.2 software.

Data for the comparative outcomes were extracted independently by 2 reviewers. Disagreements were resolved through discussion. The extracted data included first author, year of publication, sample size, intervention, participant age, follow-up time, and outcomes. These data were standardized and input into RevMan 5.2 software for analysis.

2.4. Definition of intervention types

Considering the clinical diversity of low vision rehabilitation interventions, the studies were categorized into 4 groups of related intervention types (and by comparator):

*Intervention type I*: Psychological therapies and/or group programs;
*Intervention type II*: Methods of enhancing vision;
*Intervention type III*: Multidisciplinary rehabilitation programs;
*Intervention type IV*: Other programs.

Comparators were no care/waiting list as an inactive control group and usual care / other care as an active control group.

2.5. Statistical analysis

Data on study outcomes were combined and analyzed using the standard statistical procedures of RevMan 5.2. Standardized mean difference (SMD) with a 95% confidence interval (CI) was estimated to compare the outcomes. The $P_b$ value and $I^2$ statistic (ranging from 0%–100%) derived the Chi-Squared-based Q test and were used to assess heterogeneity between studies. A $P_b$ value ≤ .10 was deemed to represent significant heterogeneity; in such cases, pooled estimates were calculated using a random-effects model (the DerSimonian and Laird method). When
heterogeneity was not observed ($P_h > 0.10$), a fixed-effects model (the Mantel-Haenszel method $^{[23]}$) was used. Differences in outcome measures were considered significant if the 95% CI of the pooled SMD did not include 0.

Regarding the pooled SMD estimates of the improvement in vision-related QoL and visual functioning, we performed subgroup analysis by different intervention types. In addition, we checked for publication bias using Begg funnel plots.$^{[24]}$ If the shape of a funnel plot was not obviously asymmetrical, we concluded that there was no obvious publication bias.$^{[25]}$ All statistical analyses were performed using the standard statistical procedures of RevMan 5.2.$^{[19]}$

The reporting in this study is consistent with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses$^{[26]}$ and Assessment of Multiple Systematic Reviews guidelines.$^{[27]}$

3. Results

3.1. Characteristics of the included studies

The initial search generated 16,118 records. After removal of duplicates, 14,125 records remained, of which 13,904 were excluded after screening the title and abstracts. Following full-text review of the 221 studies chosen for further evaluation, 169 full texts were excluded, and 52 RCTs (N=6239 participants) that met the inclusion criteria were included in the final analysis.$^{[28-79]}$ Of the 52 included studies, 26 studies were performed with intervention type I, 15 with intervention type II, 7 with intervention type III, and 4 studies with intervention type IV. In addition, 20 studies compared the intervention with inactive comparators, namely no care (6 studies) or wait list (14 studies), and 26 studies compared the intervention with active comparators including usual care (13 studies) or other care (13 studies). Most studies investigated the efficacy of low vision rehabilitation in older people with visual impairment (the mean age across 23 studies was >70 years, and the mean age of 13 studies was >80 years). Details of the search process and a summary of the studies are shown in the study flow diagram (Fig. 1). Other study characteristics are shown in Table 1.

3.2. Quality assessment

Risk-of-bias graphs were generated to assess the quality of studies. Data on the risk of bias for each RCT and across RCTs are presented as percentages (see Figure 1 and 2, Supplemental Digital Content, http://links.lww.com/MD2/A135, http://links.lww.com/MD2/A136 which illustrate the Risk of bias as percentages and summary of each included study). The risk-of-bias graphs indicated generally good methodological quality. Most studies had adequate (low risk) random sequence generation, as random number tables, computer random number generators, or other low-tech methods were used to randomize participants. Risks due to blinding issues were unclear in previous studies because, in the field of low vision, most trials used a pragmatic approach in which masking of participants and personnel were not possible. The risk of attrition bias in most

![Flow diagram of literature search and selection of included studies for meta-analysis.](image-url)
### Table 1
The characteristics of included studies for meta-analysis.

| Study/Year     | Country     | Participants | Interventions                                                                                                         | Control                                                                 | Intervention type | Follow-up time | Outcomes                                      |
|----------------|-------------|--------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|----------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| Acton, JH, et al, 2016 | UK          | 71 75.2 54% | Intervention to visit a visual rehabilitation officer                                                                | Waiting list receiving no care                                          | Type III         | 6–4 mo                       | VR-QoL or difficulty in performing daily activities, consisting of mobility, visual motor skills, reading, visual information processing scales and an overall score, AES |
| Bradley, P, et al, 2005 | UK          | 12 76 50%   | Group-based peer support and information provision, discussion groups. 6 leaflets with information were distributed and weekly topic-specific sessions of 1.5 hours led by people experienced in living with AMD | Waiting list, intervention delayed for 6 weeks                          | Type I           | 6 wks                       | MacDDQOL, selected QoL items, 12-item Well-being Questionnaire |
| Brody BL, et al, 1999 | USA         | 92 79±5.70 50% | Self-management group focused on behavioural skills training for elderly adults with AMD who were legally blind in one or both eyes, 6 sessions of 2 hours in groups of 7–10 participants | Participants on the waiting list did not receive treatment              | Type I           | 6+4 wks                      | POMS, QWBS, AMD-SEQ, Health and impact Questionnaire |
| Brody BL, et al, 2002 | USA         | 231 80.9±6.1 NR | Self-management group intervention in which 8–10 participants had six 2-h sessions led by an experienced professional in public health and behavioral medicine | a series of 12 h of audiotapes of health lectures on AMD and healthy aging | Type I           | 6+4.5 mo                    | POMS, NEI-VFQ mediators, AMD-SEQ, DSS, LOT-R |
| Brody BL, et al, 2006 | USA         | 32 81.5±7.5 NR | Self-management group intervention in which 8–10 participants had six 2-h sessions led by an experienced professional in public health and behavioral medicine | a series of 12 h of audiotapes of health lectures on AMD and healthy aging | Type I           | 6+4.5 mo                    | GDS-15: extent of depressive symptoms, NEI-VFQ, DSS, LOT-R and AMD-SEQ |
| Brunstrom G, et al, 2004 | Sweden      | 46 76 (20–90) NR | Improved lighting in the living room in addition to usual/basic lighting adjustments in other rooms | only usual, basic lighting adjustments in other rooms                    | Type II          | 6 mo                        | PGWBS = HR-Qol questionnaire, PGWBS questionnaire, Factors on perceived QoL |
| Bryan JL, et al, 2015 | USA         | 81 42 (20–74) 69% | Expressive writing intervention, expressing emotions through written disclosure of a post-traumatic experience for 20 min on three separate days during a 1-wk period | neutral writing intervention, however, similar in dose and intensity. Received only usual instructions from the supplier who delivered the CCTV | Type I           | 3 and 6 wk, 1 wk, 6 wk | QoL-ES, PSS, NEI-VFQ, mental health subscale, Social support Physical symptoms, NEI-VFQ for VR-QoL |
| Burggraaff MC, et al, 2012 | Netherlands | 122 77.4 58.2% | Usual instructions from supplier when CCTV was delivered combined with training sessions in the use of the device from a low vision therapist | Reading speed, LVQOL, AVL, QoL-ES, EQ-5D | Type II          | 3±2 mo                      | Reading speed, LVQOL, AVL, QoL-ES, EQ-5D |
| Christy B, et al, 2010 | India       | 436 43.7 (16–86) 30% | Centre and/or community-based service delivery | Centre-based non-interventional community visits | Type III          | 9±4.5 mo                  | WHO-Qol for HR-Qol, daily activities |
| Coco-Martin MB, et al, 2013 | Spain       | 41 76.1±7.8 61% | Immediate intervention: low vision assessment, within 2 weeks of enrolment | Reading rehabilitation program (RP) | Type I           | 6±12 mo                    | Reading performance, QoL |
| Coco-Martin MB, et al, 2017 | Spain       | 51 68.5±13.8 61% | Reading rehabilitation program (RP) | Participating in the waiting list did not receive treatment | Type I           | 6±12 mo                    | The reading speed, reading duration, and font size |
| Conrod BE, et al, 1998 | Canada      | 49 70 NR | Five weekly Individual 1-hour training sessions in which participants, under supervision, followed a perceptual training protocol manual | Fully sighted persons, no training | Type II          | 7–8 wks                    | Distance and near acuity, Frostig Figure Ground test, Coping, Activity level, Personal assessment of residual vision VR-Qol: VFO-48 |
| Draper E, et al, 2016 | USA         | 55 63-66 54% | Clinic-basedLVR: visit 1 to 5 in clinic | Home-based low vision rehabilitation: visit 1 to 5 in clinic | Type III          | 2–3 mo                     | Difference in mean change in Activity Inventory (visual ability) after 3 mo and after 6 mo |
| Dunbar HM, et al, 2013 | UK          | 100 57 62% | Immediate intervention: low vision assessment, within 2 weeks of enrolment | Home-based low vision rehabilitation: visit 1, 3 in clinic; visit 2, 4 at home | Type III          | 3±2.5 mo                   | Validation questionnaire, AQL staircase, SF-36: general HRQOL, Self-reported health problems |
| Eblend K, et al, 2008 | Sweden      | 229 78 (66–91) 74% | Health education programme 'Discovering new ways', Two hours a week | Intervention, LV assessment, 3 months after enrolment, providing information, discussing aids, and services and dispensing prescribed LV aids | Type I           | 4 and 28, 6 mo             | Validated questionnaire, AQL staircase, SF-36: general HRQOL, Self-reported health problems |
| Gal C, et al, 2011 | Germany     | 42 57.1±13.6 31% | Centre and/or community-based service delivery | Individual intervention programme, mainly consisted of 1–2 1-hour sessions | Type II          | 2 mo                       | Visual field changes and vision-related quality of life |
| Girdler SJ, et al, 2010 | Australia   | 77 79.1 64.9% | use care plus vision self-management, including self-efficacy and a group model based on service delivery theories and principles, 8-week (24 h) structured programme of welcome and warm-up exercises, learning sessions and homework assignments plus revisions | Fully sighted persons, no training | Type I           | 12±4 wks                   | Activity Card Sort (ACS), SF-36, GDS, GSES, AVL, AMD-SEQ |

(continued)
Table 1 (continued).

| Study/Year | Country | Total No. | Age (year) | Female | Treatment | Interventions | Control | Intervention type | Follow-up time | Outcomes |
|------------|---------|-----------|------------|--------|-----------|---------------|---------|------------------|----------------|----------|
| Gleeson M, et al, 2015 | Australia | 120 | 75 ± 11 | 71% | Alexander Technique to improve balance | usual care by ‘guide dogs’ and community services with 12 weekly sessions | Usual care by ‘guide dogs’ and community services | Type IV | 12 ± 3 mo | physical measures, falls, balance, mobility, GDS-5, PANAS, MI, PAS, KAP, Socialisation |}
| Goldstein RB, et al, 2007 | USA | 154 | 77.5 (39-92) | 64.2% | educational video which addressed educational, emotional and socio-spatial skills associated with LV | waiting list, received no care | Waiting list + no care | Type I | 2 wks + 3 mo | Knowledge, Attitude, Behaviour, Willingness to use devices |}
| Herrero AJ, et al, 2014 | Spain | 188 | 85 ± 6.6 | 70.2% | in-home BA + LVR or ST + LVR | waiting list control group | Waiting list control group | Type I | 4 mo | depressive disorder, activity inventory, NEI-VFO, NEI-VQ, quality-of-life |}
| Holloway E, et al, 2018 | USA | 18 | NR | NR | 6-8 weekly telephone sessions of PST-PC delivered by expertly trained professionals | waiting list control group | Waiting list control group | Type I | 6-8 weeks | Depressive symptoms (PHQ-9), health-related quality of life (HRQOL), Assessment of QoL |}
| Jackon M, et al, 2017 | USA | 37 | 71 | 46% | usual comprehensive vision rehabilitation with optical aids of preference, plus access to a desk top video magnifier | usual comprehensive vision rehabilitation with optical aids of preference | waiting list control group | Type II | 1 mo | Reading speed in words per minute, IV, DASS, 41 reading subscale |}
| Kalleenegger K, et al, 2019 | Germany | 37 | 72 (75-79) | 57% | Reading training with sequentially presented text (RSVP) in addition to magnifying aids | training to support people’s coping with the threats and demands of the disease and to enable them to self-regulate stress-induced problem | waiting list control group | Type II | 12 wks | Reading speed, fixation stability and preferred retinal locus, MDRS, DemTect, IRI, Heart rate |}
| Kakea G, et al, 1996 | Canada | 23 | 52 (20-68) | 78.2% | cognitive behavioural therapy-based self-care tool intervention up to three coaching 10-minute phone calls by a trained former nurse | training to support people’s coping with the threats and demands of the disease and to enable them to self-regulate stress-induced problem | waiting list control group | Type II | 6 wks | Intraocular pressure (IOP), Psychological strain (KAB), Heart rate |}
| Kampa H, et al, 2017 | USA | 30 | 76 | 62% | eccentric viewing training within 1 week after randomisation | usual care: waiting list control group | waiting list control group | Type II | 8 wks | PHQ-9: depressive symptoms, GAD-7: generalised anxiety symptoms, Life Space assessment questionnaire, Self-efficacy scale |}
| Leat SJ, et al, 2017 | Canada | 14 | 82 | 20% | provision of magnifying visual aids and training | eccentric viewing training within 1 week after randomisation | waiting list control group | Type II | 8 wks | Reading accuracy and reading speed and performance, Reading behaviour inventory, VFQ-25: VR-QoL, GDS: depression, VRQL, the efficacy of rehabilitative treatments |}
| Luo RJ, et al, 2011 | China | 500 | NR | NR | Family rehabilitation intervention. The social work interview included an exploration of the meaning of vision loss for the family unit and the ways the family members worked together to adapt to the loss | Family rehabilitation intervention, which focused solely on the participant | Waiting list, rehabilitation possible after 3 months | Type III | NR | Self-reported Functional Assessment Questionnaire (FAQ), Observer-rated FAPT |}
| McCabe P, et al, 2000 | USA | 97 | 76 (91-191) | 53.6% | Family rehabilitation intervention. The social work interview included an exploration of the meaning of vision loss for the family unit and the ways the family members worked together to adapt to the loss | Family rehabilitation intervention, which focused solely on the participant | Waiting list, rehabilitation possible after 3 months | Type III | NR | Self-reported Functional Assessment Questionnaire (FAQ), Observer-rated FAPT |}
| Milieu A, et al, 2013 | Germany | 20 | 79 (65-85) | 65% | Family rehabilitation intervention. The social work interview included an exploration of the meaning of vision loss for the family unit and the ways the family members worked together to adapt to the loss | Family rehabilitation intervention, which focused solely on the participant | Waiting list, rehabilitation possible after 3 months | Type II | 3+2.5 mo | GDS-5, ADS-L, DemTect, MMS, NEI-VQ 25, REST |}
| Morfah Jalal MD, et al, 2014 | Iran | 60 | 60-40 | NR | group-based rational emotive behavioural therapy which is a comprehensive, active-directive psychotherapy focusing on resolving emotional and behavioural problems | no intervention other than a 6 wk low vision assessment | waiting list control group | Type II | 6 wks | depressive symptoms, BD-II, GDS-15, visual functioning, VR-QoL, the efficacy of rehabilitative treatments |}
| Nollet CL, et al, 2016 | UK | 85 | 70 | 59% | orienting and mobility training and/or blind rehabilitation teaching and/or LV evaluation | orienting and mobility training and/or blind rehabilitation teaching and/or LV evaluation | Waiting list control group | Type II | 4-6 wks | reading accuracy and reading speed and performance, Reading behaviour inventory, VFQ-25: VR-QoL, GDS: depression, VRQL, the efficacy of rehabilitative treatments |}
| Pavlov V, et al, 2004 | USA | 30 | 77.8 (65-90) | 56.7% | LV outpatient treatment including examination, prescription of low vision devices for 4 wk use to determine which would be most beneficial and single training session | LV outpatient treatment including examination, prescription of low vision devices for 4 wk use to determine which would be most beneficial and single training session | Waiting list control group | Type II | 3 to 3.5 mo | Reading accuracy and reading speed and performance, Reading behaviour inventory, VFQ-25: VR-QoL, GDS: depression, VRQL, the efficacy of rehabilitative treatments |}
| Patoda Y, et al, 2017 | Canada | 16 | NR | NR | LV outpatient treatment including examination, prescription of low vision devices for 4 wk use to determine which would be most beneficial and single training session | LV outpatient treatment including examination, prescription of low vision devices for 4 wk use to determine which would be most beneficial and single training session | Waiting list control group | Type II | 4 wks | reading accuracy and reading speed and performance, Reading behaviour inventory, VFQ-25: VR-QoL, GDS: depression, VRQL, the efficacy of rehabilitative treatments |}
| Pearce E, et al, 2011 | UK | 120 | 73.1 | 37.5% | 1-hour low vision support worker 2 weeks after the initial low vision assessment, reviewing handling of low vision devices, discussing daily issues at home, focusing on low vision devices | 1-hour low vision support worker 2 weeks after the initial low vision assessment, reviewing handling of low vision devices, discussing daily issues at home, focusing on low vision devices | Waiting list control group | Type II | 1 and 3 mo | reading accuracy and reading speed and performance, Reading behaviour inventory, VFQ-25: VR-QoL, GDS: depression, VRQL, the efficacy of rehabilitative treatments |}
| Pinniger R, et al, 2013 | Australia | 17 | 73.4 | 100% | 1 hour of low vision support worker 2 weeks after the initial low vision assessment, reviewing handling of low vision devices, discussing daily issues at home, focusing on low vision devices | 1 hour of low vision support worker 2 weeks after the initial low vision assessment, reviewing handling of low vision devices, discussing daily issues at home, focusing on low vision devices | Waiting list control group | Type IV | 2.5 mo | reading accuracy and reading speed and performance, Reading behaviour inventory, VFQ-25: VR-QoL, GDS: depression, VRQL, the efficacy of rehabilitative treatments |}
| Rees G, et al, 2015 | Australia | 153 | 80 ± 8 | 60% | 1 hour of low vision support worker 2 weeks after the initial low vision assessment, reviewing handling of low vision devices, discussing daily issues at home, focusing on low vision devices | 1 hour of low vision support worker 2 weeks after the initial low vision assessment, reviewing handling of low vision devices, discussing daily issues at home, focusing on low vision devices | Waiting list control group | Type IV | 1 and 6 mo | reading accuracy and reading speed and performance, Reading behaviour inventory, VFQ-25: VR-QoL, GDS: depression, VRQL, the efficacy of rehabilitative treatments |}

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Table 1 (continued).

| Study/Year | Country | Total No. | Age (year) | Female % | Participants | Interventions | Control | Intervention type | Follow-up time | Outcomes |
|------------|---------|-----------|------------|----------|--------------|---------------|---------|------------------|----------------|----------|
| Reeves BC, et al, 2004 | UK | 226 | 81 | 66.4% | 2 VR programs provided by hospital eye service and CLVR enhanced with home visits from a rehabilitation officer for the visually impaired | Q-VR supplement with home visits, from a community care worker, which did not include CEBVR usual care, provided by ophthalmologist or other health care providers | Type III | 12 mo | VR-Qol core measures, SF-36, NAS, Measured task performance, LVA (Low Vision Aid) use |
| Ronner BW, et al, 2007 | USA | 206 | 81.2 | 69.9% | 2 PSTs: teaching problem-solving skills, in addition to care-as-usual | PST teaches problem-solving skills in a structured way to enable participant to identify his problems, generate and select a solution | Type I | 2 and 6 mo | DSM-IV diagnosis of depression, HIRS-VA, Contract sensitivity, NIH-VFQ-17 |
| Ronner BW, et al, 2013 | USA | 241 | 82 | 63.5% | 2 PST teaches problem-solving skills in a structured way to enable a participant to identify his problems, generate and select a solution | The ST therapists informed participants that its purpose was to explore the impact of vision loss on their lives in home supportive therapy controlling for the nonspecific effects of attention + low vision rehabilitation + waiting list control | Type I | 3 and 6 mo | TVF, NIH-VFQ 25 + supplement, AI, Physical health status, PHI |
| Deemer AD, et al, 2017 | USA | 188 | 84 ±7 | 70% | 2 sessions and one follow along visit after 6 weeks | Treatment by a rehabilitation professional | Type I | 4+2 mo | PHQ-9, NIH-VFQ, AI Activity Inventory, NIH-VFQ-25 plus |
| Rumlir PD, 1999 | USA | 48 | 43.6 (16–69) | 64.6% | LV devices with a rehabilitation therapist providing instruction and homework on the use of low vision devices, economic viewing, and environmental modification | Receiving LV devices with no therapy | Type I | 16 wks | Accommodation self-efficacy, Accommodation activity, Americans with Disabilities Act knowledge |
| Scariani AM, et al, 2004 | Canada | 64 | 81 | 64.1% | 2 extended teaching programme in reading with microscopes, consisting of five 1-hour sessions at the clinic + Visual awareness + eccentric viewing, control of reading eye movements, Reading practice with sequential presentation of visual information | Traditional teaching session of 1-hour in reading with microscopes delayed treatment for 18 weeks | Type I | 12+7 wks | NEI-VFQ, reading ability |
| Soppie W, et al, 2011 | USA | 36 | 79 / 78.5 | 50% | 2 Standard treatment: incorporating bilateral prisms to match participants’ preferred power and base direction; Standard treatment: incorporating standard bilateral prisms | Placebo, consisting of spectacles matched in weight and thickness to prism spectacles but without the prism Treatment was delayed for 4 mo | Type I | 18 wks | Reading performance, VR-Qol, HR-Qol, depressive symptoms, adaptation to vision loss |
| Smith HJ, et al, 2005 | UK | 243 | 81 | 64.6% | 2 Custom treatment: incorporating bilateral prisms to match participants’ preferred power and base direction; Standard treatment: incorporating standard bilateral prisms | 5 weekly sessions (approximately 2 hours per session) at the LV clinic to learn strategies for more effective use of remaining vision and use of LV devices | Type I | 3 mo | logMAR VA, Reading speed performance, NIH-VFQ-25, activities of daily living performance, helpfulness and use of test spectacles |
| Stelmack JA, et al, 2008 | USA | 126 | 78.9 | 98% | LV devices with a rehabilitation therapist providing instruction and homework on the use of low vision devices, economic viewing, and environmental modification | LV devices with therapy | Type I | 4+2 mo | Change in visual reading ability, mobility, visual information processing, visual motor skills and overall visual ability |
| Stelmack JA, et al, 2017 | USA | 323 | 80 ±10.5 | 97% | LV devices with a rehabilitation therapist providing instruction and homework on the use of low vision devices, economic viewing, and environmental modification | LV devices without therapy | Type I | 4 mo | Reading, visual information, visual motor, and mobility, reading speed, critical print size, and reading accuracy |
| Stoupie KT, et al, 2018 | China | 100 | 62 (25–75) | NR | LV self-management programme on top of usual care in which participants picked a goal they wished to achieve, focus on learning process of new techniques to enhance activities of daily living, providing information | Physical therapy, however, specific content unclear | Type II | 4 mo, 3 to 5 min | Reading, visual information, visual motor, and mobility, reading speed, critical print size, and reading accuracy |
| Sun W, et al, 2012 | UK | 100 | 71 | 62% | 2 Portable electronic device on top of non-electronic optical devices | Non-electronic optical devices | Type II | 3 mo | logMAR VA, Reading speed performance, NIH-VFQ-25, activities of daily living performance, helpfulness and use of test spectacles |
| Taylor JJ, et al, 2017 | Singapore | 165 | 60.2 ±11.3 | 36.2% | LV self-management programme on top of usual care in which participants picked a goal they wished to achieve, focus on learning process of new techniques to enhance activities of daily living, providing information | Standard ophthalmic care and low vision aid training and referral to occupational or mobility training as the participant’s request | Type II | 4+2 mo | Change in visual reading ability, mobility, visual information processing, visual motor skills and overall visual ability |
| Tow CS, et al, 2019 | Belgium | 205 | 74 | 70% | LV self-management programme on top of usual care in which participants picked a goal they wished to achieve, focus on learning process of new techniques to enhance activities of daily living, providing information | Usual care by rehabilitation worker or any other healthcare service | Type I | 12 mo | Cumulative incidence of depression and anxiety disorder after 24 mo measured with the MINI diagnostic interview |
| Van der Aa HPA, et al, 2017 | Netherlands | 69 | 74 | 70% | LV self-management programme on top of usual care in which participants picked a goal they wished to achieve, focus on learning process of new techniques to enhance activities of daily living, providing information | Usual care from NHS three social visits; two telephone calls by trained low vision volunteers | Type III | 4 and 6 mo | Falls and injurious falls, Physical activity, SF-12: QoL, visual disability, VR-Qol, AFRS |
| Waterman H, et al, 2016 | UK | 49 | 81 (65–96) | 66% | 2 Home safety programme by occupational therapist visiting twice and making safety modifications plus one phone call | Usual care from NHS three social visits; two telephone calls by trained LV volunteers | Type IV | 12 mo | VR-Qol core measures, SF-36, NAS, Measured task performance, LVA (Low Vision Aid) use |

AED = adverse events, AMD = age-related macular degeneration, AFRS = Attitudes to Falls Related Interventions Scale, AMD-SEQ = age-related macular degeneration self-efficacy questionnaire, AI = activity inventory, BA = behavior activation, BDI = Beck Depression Inventory-II, CIV = closed-circuit television, CES-D = Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale, CSS = Duke Social Support Index, FT = functional visual performance test, HR-Qol = Health-related quality of life, LM = impact of visual impairment profile, Intervention type I = psychological therapies and/or group programmes, Intervention type II = methods of enhancing vision, Intervention type III = multidisciplinary rehabilitation programmes, Intervention type IV = other programmes, LV = low vision rehabilitation, LV = low vision, LVOOL = low vision quality of life questionnaire, LOT-R = Life Orientation Test Revised, LVA = low vision rehabilitation, MINI = mini-international neuropsychiatric interview, MacDQOL = MacMaster depression quality of life questionnaire, MACRS = Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale, NCS = National Health Service, NCR = National Eye Institute visual functioning questionnaire, PMI = profile of mood states, PST = problem solving treatment, PHQ-9 = patient health questionnaire 9-item version, PSWQ = Psychological and General Well-Being Scale, Qol = quality of life, QWBS = Quality of Well-Being Scale, SCS = Self-rating Depression Scale, SAS = Self-rating Anxiety Scale, SCL-90 = Symptom Checklist 90-items, TVF = targeted vision function, VR-Qol = vision-related quality of life, VR-Qol = vision-related quality of life.
studies was considered low because follow-up rates and compliance were similar in the groups, and analyses were often based on the intention-to-treat principle with limited attrition. For 10 studies, attrition bias was unclear, and another 10 studies seemed to have a high risk. The unclear risk of bias was observed mainly in performance and reporting bias.

3.3. Effects of low vision rehabilitation on vision-related QoL

Thirteen studies including 922 participants compared low vision rehabilitation with wait list or no care addressing vision-related QoL. As shown in Figure 2, compared to wait list or no care, low vision rehabilitation improved vision related QoL, with pooled SMDs of \(-0.61\) (95% CI \(-0.95\) to \(-0.26\); \(P = 0.0006\)). As significant heterogeneity was observed (\(I^2 = 82\%\)), pooled analysis was conducted using the random-effect model. We further conducted subgroup analysis according to different intervention types. Subgroup analysis revealed significant difference between low vision rehabilitation and wait list or no care with regard to vision-related QoL, with pooled SMDs of \(-0.28\) (95% CI \(-0.47\) to \(-0.08\)) for intervention type I, but no significant difference for intervention type II and III, with pooled SMD of \(-0.19\) (95% CI \(-0.54\) to 0.15) and \(-1.04\) (95% CI \(-2.24\) to 0.17) respectively (Table 2).

Eighteen studies including 2342 participants compared the effects of low vision rehabilitation with active comparators on vision-related QoL. As shown in Figure 3, compared to active comparators, low vision rehabilitation was more successful in improving vision-related QoL, with a pooled SMD of \(-0.15\) (95% CI \(-0.25\) to \(-0.04\); \(P = 0.007\)). As significant heterogeneity was observed (\(I^2 = 35\%\)), pooled analysis was conducted using the random-effect model. We further conducted subgroup analysis according to different intervention types. Significant results were observed for intervention type II, with pooled SMDs of \(-0.24\) (95% CI \(-0.40\) to \(-0.08\)). However, we observed no significant difference between active comparators and low vision rehabilitation using intervention types I (SMD \(-0.11\); 95% CI \(-0.24\) to 0.01), III (SMD 0.01; 95% CI \(-0.18\) to 0.20), and IV (SMD \(-0.21\); 95% CI \(-0.53\) to 0.10) (Table 2).

3.4. Effects of low vision rehabilitation on visual functioning

Nine studies including 693 participants compared low vision rehabilitation with wait list or no care in terms of their effects on visual functioning. As shown in Figure 4, compared to wait list or no care, low vision rehabilitation was more successful in improving visual functioning, with a pooled SMD of \(-0.86\) (95% CI \(-1.40\) to \(-0.33\); \(P = 0.002\)). As significant heterogeneity

| Subgroups | No. of studies | No. of patients | SMD | 95% CI | \(P\) value | Analytical effect model |
|-----------|----------------|----------------|-----|--------|-------------|------------------------|
| Compared with wait list or no care | | | \(-0.28\) | \(-0.47\), \(-0.08\) | \(0.005\) | Fixed-effect model |
| Intervention type I | 4 | 433 | \(-0.82\) | \(-1.67\), \(0.03\) | \(0.06\) | Random-effect model |
| Intervention type II | 5 | 180 | \(-0.77\) | \(-1.62\), \(0.08\) | \(0.07\) | Random-effect model |
| Intervention type III | 4 | 309 | \(-0.11\) | \(-0.24\), \(0.01\) | \(0.005\) | Random-effect model |
| Compared with active comparator | | | \(-0.24\) | \(-0.40\), \(-0.08\) | \(0.005\) | Random-effect model |
| Intervention type I | 7 | 1245 | \(0.01\) | \(-0.18\), \(0.20\) | | Random-effect model |
| Intervention type II | 8 | 660 | \(-0.21\) | \(-0.53\), \(0.10\) | | Random-effect model |
| Intervention type III | 3 | 464 | \(-0.21\) | \(-0.53\), \(0.10\) | | Random-effect model |

SMD = standardized mean difference, CI = confidence intervals.
was observed ($I^2=90\%$), the pooled analysis was conducted using the random-effect model. We further conducted subgroup analysis according to different intervention types. Subgroup analysis revealed differences between low vision rehabilitation and wait list or no care for their effects on visual functioning; pooled SMDs were $-1.23$ (95% CI $-2.18$ to $-0.28$) for intervention type I and $-0.86$ (95% CI $-1.50$ to $-0.23$) for intervention type II. However, no significant difference was found for intervention type III, with a pooled SMD of $-0.16$ (95% CI $-0.44$ to 0.13) (Table 3).

Twelve studies including 1453 participants compared low vision rehabilitation with active comparators in terms of changes in visual functioning. As shown in Figure 5, compared to active comparators, low vision rehabilitation more successfully improved visual functioning, with pooled SMDs of $-0.13$ (95% CI $-0.23$ to $-0.03$; $P=.01$). As no significant heterogeneity was observed ($I^2=0\%$), the pooled analysis was conducted using the fixed-effect model. Our subgroup analysis showed significant improvement of visual functioning with low vision rehabilitation using intervention type I, with a pooled SMD of $-0.14$ (95% CI $-0.25$ to $-0.04$). However, no significant difference in the improvement in visual functioning was found between active comparators and low vision rehabilitation using intervention types II (SMD $-0.22$; 95% CI $-0.59$ to 0.15) and IV (SMD 0.03; 95% CI $-0.33$ to 0.39) (Table 3).

### 3.5. Effects of low vision rehabilitation on health-related QoL

Compared to wait list or no care, low vision rehabilitation did not result in greater improvement in health-related QoL, with a pooled SMD of 0.02 (95% CI $-0.23$ to 0.28). No significant result was found based on subgroup analyses (intervention type I: SMD 0.26; 95% CI $-0.28$ to 0.80; intervention type II: SMD...
Compared to active comparators, low vision rehabilitation showed no greater improvement in health-related QoL (SMD \(-0.08; 95\% \text{ CI } -0.37 \text{ to } 0.21\)). Compared to wait list or no care, no significant difference was observed in activities of daily living and adaptation to vision loss, with pooled SMDs of \(-0.04 (95\% \text{ CI } -0.33 \text{ to } 0.26)\) and \(-0.11 (95\% \text{ CI } -0.51 \text{ to } 0.29)\), respectively. However, we found significant improvement in self-efficacy or self-esteem with low vision rehabilitation (SMD \(-0.84; 95\% \text{ CI } -1.47 \text{ to } -0.22\)). Compared to active comparators, no significant difference between low-vision rehabilitation and active comparators was found for activities of daily living (SMD \(-0.15; 95\% \text{ CI } -0.37 \text{ to } 0.07\)). However, significant improvement in activities of daily living was found with intervention type I (SMD \(-0.39; 95\% \text{ CI } -0.67 \text{ to } -0.12\)). In addition, no significant difference was observed between low vision rehabilitation and active comparators in self-efficacy or self-esteem (for all subgroups) or adaptation to vision loss (for all subgroups) (Table 5).

3.7. Publication bias

Begg funnel plots were generated to assess publication bias in the included studies. As shown in Figure 6, no obvious asymmetry was present, indicating a lack of publication bias.

4. Discussion and conclusion

Low vision rehabilitation for adults is a professional service to optimize residual vision and also teaches visually impaired people to improve (visual) functioning in daily life. Other goals may be to help patients adapt to vision loss or improve psychosocial functioning. This may lead to greater independence and more active participation in society. Low vision rehabilitation should ultimately improve the QoL of visually impaired patients.

Low vision rehabilitation is not available everywhere, and when available, it is organized differently in nearly every country. Some countries may have multidisciplinary in- or outpatient centers, where occupational therapists, optometrists, low vision specialists, clinical physicists, psychologists, social workers, mobility and orientation trainers, and computer trainers work together. Other countries have a single-service system, where, for example, the prescription of optical aids is completed by 1

| Subgroups | No. of studies | No. of patients | SMD | 95% CI | Analytical effect model |
|-----------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------|------------------------|
| Compared with waiting list or no care | | | | | |
| Intervention type I | 5 | 456 | \(-1.23\) | \(-2.18, -0.28\) | Random-effect model |
| Intervention type II | 2 | 44 | \(-0.86\) | \(-1.50, -0.23\) | Random-effect model |
| Intervention type III | 2 | 133 | \(-0.16\) | \(-0.44, 0.13\) | Random-effect model |
| Compared with active comparator | | | | | |
| Intervention type I | 9 | 1334 | \(-0.14\) | \(-0.25, -0.04\) | Fixed-effect model |
| Intervention type II | 3 | 162 | \(-0.22\) | \(-0.59, 0.15\) | Fixed-effect model |
| Intervention type IV | 1 | 120 | 0.03 | \(-0.33, 0.39\) | – |

SMD = standardized mean difference, CI = confidence intervals.

Figure 5. Forest plot of comparison between low vision rehabilitation and active comparator with regard to visual functioning.
organization, and social work is provided by another. In addition, in some countries, outpatient services are linked to ophthalmology departments, for example, in academic hospitals, whereas in others, this is not the case. Individual or group sessions with social workers or psychologists seem to be increasingly common, as are home environment assessments and training sessions for the use of optical or other aids (e.g., canes) and low vision software. Training in leisure time or vocational activities is also an important aspect of rehabilitation. Depending on agreements between organizations or policies in different countries, low vision rehabilitation services may be provided by commercial, non-profit, or charity organizations.

In this review, we adopted a broad perspective to map and summarize evidence from RCTs in which several types of rehabilitation interventions were evaluated with the goal of improving QoL in adults with low vision. We adopted both health-related QoL and vision-related QoL as primary outcomes because general and disease-specific measures are used across medical specialties so that policy makers can make informed decisions about resources. The interpretation of our results is complicated by the fact that low vision rehabilitation is not a standard process, as interventions are highly tailored and can vary in different settings, where a mixture of different optometric or therapeutic components are used. For this reason, we grouped the study interventions into 4 broad categories. Unlike several other Cochrane Reviews, which present results by comparison, in the main text, we have presented effects on an outcome basis, which allows us to explore the consistency of the effects of several types of low vision rehabilitation interventions on each QoL, vision-related QoL, or related outcome. Heterogeneity was mainly found in the analysis of vision-related QoL and depression. We performed subgroup analyses and also found significant heterogeneity except the analysis of other QoL. For analysis with significant heterogeneity, we used random-effect models to analyze the results to eliminate the influence of heterogeneity. Considering small number of studies in each subgroup, we did not perform sensitivity analysis. The obvious heterogeneity may mainly cause by the multiple interventions the studies used, though we summarized these interventions and classified different types.

Our results indicated that some low vision rehabilitation interventions, particularly psychological therapies and methods of enhancing vision, may improve vision-related QoL and visual functioning in people with sight loss better than usual care. Although various rehabilitation interventions were used across studies, our comparison of low vision rehabilitation and active or inactive comparators was consistent. For vision-related QoL and visual functioning, comparisons of low vision rehabilitation with both active and inactive comparators showed significantly greater improvement. In addition, the effect size for comparisons

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### Table 4

The efficacy of low vision rehabilitation with regard to health-related QoL for patients with impaired vision.

| Subgroups                          | No. of studies | No. of patients | SMD   | 95% CI         | Analytical effect model |
|------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------|-------|----------------|-------------------------|
| Compared with waiting list or no care | 3              | 237             | 0.02  | -0.23, 0.28    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type I                 | 1              | 54              | 0.26  | -0.28, 0.80    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type III               | 2              | 183             | -0.08 | -0.3, 0.21     | Fixed-effect model      |
| Compared with active comparator     | 9              | 1461            | -0.08 | -0.18, 0.03    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type I                 | 4              | 600             | -0.09 | -0.39, 0.20    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type II                | 2              | 443             | -0.09 | -0.28, 0.09    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type III               | 2              | 375             | -0.10 | -0.31, 0.12    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type IV                | 1              | 43              | -0.05 | -0.7, 0.60     | Fixed-effect model      |

SMD = standardized mean difference, CI = confidence intervals.

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### Table 5

The efficacy of low vision rehabilitation with regard to other QoL for patients with impaired vision.

| Subgroups                          | No. of studies | No. of patients | SMD   | 95% CI         | Analytical effect model |
|------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------|-------|----------------|-------------------------|
| Compared with waiting list or no care | 2              | 181             | -0.04 | -0.33, 0.26    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Activities of daily living         | 2              | 550             | -0.84 | -1.47, -0.22   | Random-effect model     |
| Self-efficacy or self-esteem       | 2              | 97              | -0.11 | -0.51, 0.29    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Adaptation to vision loss          | 2              | 120             | 0.11  | -0.25, 0.47    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Compared with active comparator    | 3              | 328             | -0.15 | -0.37, 0.07    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Activities of daily living         | 2              | 208             | -0.39 | -0.67, -0.12   | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type II               | 1              | 133             | 0.11  | -0.56, 0.12    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Self-efficacy or self-esteem       | 5              | 560             | -0.10 | -0.27, 0.06    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type I                | 4              | 427             | -0.06 | -0.26, 0.15    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type III              | 1              | 133             | -0.22 | -0.56, 0.12    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Adaptation to vision loss          | 6              | 993             | -0.08 | -0.2, 0.05     | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type I                | 3              | 495             | -0.11 | -0.28, 0.07    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type II               | 1              | 122             | -0.30 | -0.65, 0.06    | Fixed-effect model      |
| Intervention type III              | 2              | 376             | -0.02 | -0.24, 0.19    | Fixed-effect model      |

SMD = standardized mean difference, CI = confidence intervals.
with inactive comparators was larger than that for active comparators (SMD of $-0.46$ for inactive comparators and $-0.15$ for active comparators for vision-related QoL; SMD $=-0.86$ for inactive comparators and $-0.13$ for active comparators for visual functioning). This consistency may support the potential benefits of active rehabilitation interventions for low vision.

A limitation of our results is that participants in the included studies were mainly individuals with age-related macular degeneration living in high-income countries. Further studies are required in middle- and low-income countries if low vision services are available. Other “forgotten” subgroups, which should be separately addressed, are young and working age adults. Only 1 (unfortunately rather low quality) RCT was found that addressed work-related issues when living with vision loss. As the prevalence of visual impairment in working age adults and children is low, we encourage collaboration with other (inter-) national research groups in organizing adequately powered trials providing more and stronger evidence on the effectiveness of rehabilitation programs. Apart from QoL in younger adults, these outcomes should focus on return to work. Other subgroups should receive more attention regarding the implementation of effective interventions, for example, people with multiple disabilities, such as intellectual disabilities or concurrent hearing disabilities. Another potential limitation of our methodology is the use of the SMD, which is the most common pooling method for instruments that use different scales. Finally, in clinical practice, training in the use of modern devices such as user-friendly computer software, tablets, and smartphones specifically for visually impaired individuals are increasingly offered. These interventions may increase participation, but further studies are required to evaluate their effectiveness and cost-effectiveness. Finally, the diversity of visual acuity and visual field in the visual impaired patients may affect the quality of life, which was failed to evaluate in this analysis and may lead to any risk of bias in the results. Thus, future propensity score matched studies should be conducted to avoid these multiple risk factors.

The present meta-analysis indicated that some low vision rehabilitation interventions, particularly psychological therapies and methods of enhancing vision, may improve vision-related QoL and visual functioning in people with sight loss compared to usual care. Further studies should explore the longer maintenance effects and costs of several types of low vision rehabilitation. Studies on the mechanisms of rehabilitation interventions in different settings, including low-income countries, are also required.

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