



City Research Online

City, University of London Institutional Repository

Citation: Hoe, J., Orrell, M. & Livingston, G. (2010). Quality of life measures in old age. In: Abou Saleh, M., Anand, K. & Katona, C. (Eds.), *Principles and Practice of Geriatric Psychiatry*. (pp. 183-192). Wiley Blackwell. ISBN 978-0-470-74723-0

This is the accepted version of the paper.

This version of the publication may differ from the final published version.

Permanent repository link: <https://openaccess.city.ac.uk/id/eprint/16532/>

Link to published version:

Copyright: City Research Online aims to make research outputs of City, University of London available to a wider audience. Copyright and Moral Rights remain with the author(s) and/or copyright holders. URLs from City Research Online may be freely distributed and linked to.

Reuse: Copies of full items can be used for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge. Provided that the authors, title and full bibliographic details are credited, a hyperlink and/or URL is given for the original metadata page and the content is not changed in any way.

Quality of Life Measures in Old Age

Authors:

Juanita Hoe: Senior Clinical Research Associate, UCL

Martin Orrell: Professor of Ageing and Mental Health, UCL

Gill Livingston: Professor of Psychiatry of Older People, UCL

Department of Mental Health Sciences

*correspondence address

University College London

Charles Bell House

67-73 Riding House Street

London W1W 7EJ

Tel: 020 7679 9166

Fax: 020 7679 9426

j.hoe@ucl.ac.uk

Word Count: 4128

Quality of Life Measures in Old Age

Hoe, J. Orrell, M. & Livingston, G.

Introduction

The maintenance of physical and cognitive functioning and the avoidance of disease are associated with well-being and quality of life (QoL) in old age, as poor health can lead to loss of control, autonomy and independence.^{1,2} Traditionally, outcomes of treatment have been evaluated in terms of mortality or symptoms, but a more important outcome measure may be the patient's perspective; as symptoms may improve in one area while overall quality of life decreases because of the negative effects of treatment.³ The emergence of QoL as a fundamental measure for evaluating and monitoring health outcomes in old age is attributed to the ethical and economic concerns associated with the ageing population and the concomitant increase in chronic illness and disability. Birren & Dieckmann⁴ identify three main areas of concern associated with this increase: first is the impact on health service resources and the potential financial burden anticipated; second is the intrusive use of medical technologies and thirdly the QoL for people in institutions. In chronic illness, people can suffer both from the disability and the treatment.⁵ Moreover, treatment can often result in limited gains in terms of survival, or absence of cure, which changes the balance as to acceptable side effects. Aggressive interventions may have therapeutic benefits that are overshadowed by the negative effects, thus leading to reduced QoL overall. Any detrimental impact on QoL needs to be weighed against the advantages offered through treatment.⁶ It is the individual's perception that predicts whether they seek help, accept treatment or regard themselves to be well and recovered, and therefore, should be part of any outcome measures.⁷ Thus, subjective health measures can be used to help provide a fuller picture of the individual's health state.

The meaning of QoL

The term quality of life is used frequently in everyday life, with most people assuming they know what it means without considering how to define or measure it. In terms of health, QoL has become a popular, broadly used expression, that is frequently taken for granted without the meaning being clear. There is debate about the true definition and meaning of QoL, particularly whether ratings should be objective or subjective, what criteria should be used and what is actually being measured 'the

quality of an individual's life, state of life, or the meaning of life in general'.⁸ QoL is argued to be less related to basic needs than to individual expectations and experiences of life, which include individual perceptions of wellbeing, happiness, goodness and satisfaction with various aspects of their lives and environment.⁹⁻¹¹ What is apparent is that QoL is a multidimensional concept 'just as is life itself'.¹² A wide range of domains are suggested for inclusion as QoL indicators, including physical and mental health, intellectual and emotional function, social and role function, activities of daily living, economic aspects, job and life satisfaction.¹³⁻¹⁵ The expression QoL may also overlap with the terms health status and functional status and have been considered interchangeable.¹⁶ Perceptions of wellbeing may however be influenced by psychological factors unrelated to health or function.¹⁷

Definitions and conceptualisations of QOL

There are several meanings of the term QoL which remains a vague, elusive concept for which there is no single widely accepted definition. The definitions provided are broad and varied; indeed, there may be as many QoL definitions as there are people.¹⁸ QoL is viewed as 'a concept which incorporates all aspects of an individual's existence'¹⁹ and as 'an abstraction which integrates and summarises all those features of our lives that we find more or less desirable and satisfying'.²⁰ The inclusion of the terms life satisfaction, morale and happiness are debated but may be considered to be transient states which should be distinguished from QoL as they differ in their degree of subjectivity.²¹ Alternatively, life satisfaction, self-esteem, and physical health are argued to be key dimensions of QoL.²² Lawton²³ defines QoL as 'the multidimensional evaluation, by both intrapersonal and social-normative criteria, of the person-environment system of an individual in time past, current and anticipated' and hypothesises four dimensions of QoL: behavioural competence, perceived QoL, objective environment, and psychological well-being. Each sector is intrinsic and considered core to the concept of QoL and also interlinked. Fundamentally, QoL is perceived as being continuous and dynamic in nature and may be evaluated negatively or positively depending on the individual's own internal perceptions and response to their environment.

Health related QoL

Within the context of health, QoL is defined as a reflection of patients' perception and response to their health status and to other non-medical aspects that have an impact on patient's lives, and within health-related quality of life (HRQoL) this includes

physical, psychological and social perspectives.^{24,25} This definition is in keeping with that given by the World Health Organisation Quality of Life Group (WHOQOL), as “the individuals’ perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns”.²⁶ This broad description encompasses the complex nature of the person’s physical, psychological and social wellbeing in relation to their environment. The recognition of cultural factors is particularly important when considering the QoL of the ageing population and especially those people with dementia. Memory impairment is not regarded as so important in all cultures.²⁷ Similarly, functional disability may seem less important in cultural contexts where independence and autonomy in activities of daily living are a less central part of the older person’s role.²⁸ Older people are frequently marginalised as society holds a negative view of their QoL, and health and social research tends to focus on decline and disability.²⁹ There are however both positive and negative elements that impact on an older person’s QoL and Hughes³⁰ identifies the key domains that should be evaluated when measuring older people’s QoL, these include: physical environment, social environment, socio-economic, cultural, health status, personality and personal autonomy factors.

Measuring QoL in health

Lerner³¹ argues that ‘health is more than just a biomedical phenomenon; it involves a social human-being functioning in a social environment with social roles they need to fulfil’. The use of QoL as an outcome measure focuses the impact of the patient’s condition and treatment on their emotional and physical functioning and lifestyle.³ Hence health related QoL has become important in measuring the impact of chronic disease.¹⁶ This is of particular significance as patients with the same clinical symptoms often differ in their evaluation of what the illness means to their life. The term ‘disability paradox’, is used to describe how patients with significant health and functional problems frequently have high QoL scores despite their health status.³² QoL measures can be used to evaluate human and financial costs-benefits of interventions and care provided through assessing change in physical, functional, mental and social health.³³

Calman³⁴ suggests that people perceive QoL in relationship to their past experiences, current life-style, hopes and ambitions for the future. QoL measures the gap between the individual’s present experience and their expectations for the

future, QoL can therefore be improved by narrowing this gap either by improving experience or lowering expectations.³⁴ Importantly, the model recognises the highly individual nature of QoL and the influence of culture and past experience.³⁵ Carr et al³⁶ further propose a model of the relation between expectations and experience and identify three areas of difficulty in measuring QoL: people have different expectations; people are at different stages of their illness when QoL is measured and expectations may change over time. By providing health education, information and increasing awareness of risks, patients are helped to adapt to their disability through changing their health expectations. The impact of the disability on their QoL may thus be reduced.³⁶

Subjective and Objective dimensions of QOL

Testa & Simonson³³ recommend that measures of QoL should cover the objective and subjective components important to the relevant patient group that may be affected positively or negatively by interventions. Objective factors are primarily needs-based and incorporate basic needs that determine people's well-being in society such as environment and material resources, including levels of income, crime, pollution, transport, housing type, access to amenities and employment.^{2,37} Whereas subjective factors include life satisfaction and psychological well-being, morale, individual fulfilment, happiness and self-esteem and are expressed in terms of satisfaction, values and perceptions of individual life circumstances.¹ Whilst health status is defined through the objective components, QoL is determined through subjective perception and expectations (see Figure 1).³³ The subjective perceptions thus translate that objective assessment into the actual QoL experienced.³³ Nevertheless, Bowling³ cautions that subjective measures are not designed to be used as substitutes for traditional measures of clinical endpoints but to complement existing measures and provide a fuller picture of health state.

Variation among QoL scales is often due to the different emphasis placed on objective and subjective dimensions, which domains are covered and the question format rather than differences in how QoL is defined.³³ The overall satisfaction an individual has with life is argued to be the most important domain of QoL.^{2,38} This means the importance of the individual's personal sense of satisfaction with various

areas of life is recognised; these include physical comfort, emotional well-being, and interpersonal connections.³⁸

Validity and Reliability

QoL scales should be able to demonstrate validity but this is complicated as there is no measure of criterion validity; as no scale can provide a full picture of people's life quality or be relevant to all individuals.^{33,39,40} Content validity includes evaluation in terms of the applicability of the questionnaire and its comprehensiveness; as well as its clarity, simplicity, and likelihood of bias.⁴¹ Scales should also have predictive validity, sensitivity and be responsive to change in QoL, particularly for clinically important changes.^{3,33,42,43} This ensures the areas relevant to the patient's QoL are measured and that scales are responsive to the different stages of the disease and interventions or treatment given. Orley et al⁴⁴ argues that QoL is influenced by a broad range of facets and is therefore unlikely to alter markedly from day to day. Fallowfield⁴⁵ recommends that QoL measures should discriminate between patient groups and identify those patients experiencing good QoL and those that are not. In addition, QoL measures used in clinical practice must be appropriate and acceptable for their intended use and the results meaningful and amenable to clinical interpretation.⁴³

Generic v Disease Specific Measures of QoL

Generic as opposed to disease specific instruments offer broader measures of health status and are useful for making comparisons with other conditions, whilst disease specific instruments are used for assessing disease related attributes when greater sensitivity to specific aspects of the clinical condition is required.^{3,33} Generic measures include single indicators, health profiles, and utility measures. Health profiles attempt to measure all aspects of health related QoL potentially affected by a condition or its treatment, thus generic instruments tend to be lengthy to ensure sensitivity and adequate psychometric properties.³ They can be applied irrespective of the underlying condition but may be unresponsive to changes in specific conditions. Disease specific instruments aim to have greater discrimination between severity levels of a particular disease and thus have increased sensitivity to clinical outcomes.⁴⁴ They are more concise and should be able to reflect clinically significant change in health status or disease severity. Therefore in order to detect significant clinical changes generic measures may need to be supplemented with disease specific measures,¹⁶ particularly for evaluating therapeutic interventions within clinical

trials.³³ The use of disease specific measures may however be limited as their narrow focus may not assess the impact of disease or interventions upon wider aspects of life, which could disadvantage arguments for additional resources.^{24,46}

Essentially the use of both generic and disease specific measures are recommended to ensure assessment of both disease specific and wider aspects of life and to detect positive or negative impacts of interventions.^{3,16,24}

Methods of QOL measurement

Self-assessment scales

The use of visual analogue scales is a common method for measuring subjective experiences such as QoL.⁴⁷ They are however, time consuming to complete and may not be relevant to the experience being considered.⁴⁵ Self reports are obtained using standardised measures that have response formats with closed questions in a categorical dichotomous format (e.g. yes/no) or sequences of categorised responses (e.g. strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree). Standardised measures have fixed questions and a range of answers and Carr & Higginson³² caution that these may not measure patients QoL unless scores are weighted for the individual patient. Individual weightings are important for obtaining a true assessment of QoL and being responsive to change. Scores may be calculated for each domain separately or combined to provide a composite or index score of overall life satisfaction. The disadvantage of scales that are calculated to produce an overall score is that the total may result from several combinations of responses thus leading to a loss of information about the individual components of the scale.⁴⁸ Muldoon et al¹⁷ and Lawton⁴⁹ both argue that the use of a composite score fails to recognise QoL measures as being multi-dimensional and that it is illogical to aggregate scores that combine appraisals of objective measures of behaviour, function and subjective wellbeing and there is a need to evaluate individual domains separately within research and clinical practice.^{12,30,49} Alternatively, Gill & Feinstein²⁵ advocate the use of a global rating through aggregating the scores of individual QoL domains as this explains QoL more comprehensively and they encourage more explicit criteria or weighting of the different components that construct QoL. Furthermore global ratings have been considered more acceptable for use in clinical trials as change in QoL could be more easily distinguished

Direct Observation

Where self ratings of QoL are difficult to elicit, such as in dementia, observational ratings may be of more benefit.⁵⁰⁻⁵² Observational methods are undertaken either through direct observation of the person with dementia which records the frequency that certain behaviours present or by applying attribute ratings of observed affect states over time. Direct observation is time consuming and costly, but it has been argued, provides the most objective method of rating QoL in dementia as the subjective component is removed.^{49,53} Observation requires a degree of interpretation by the rater and training to reduce any influence on the behaviour observed. In addition, multiple observations of the same individual are needed to achieve a consistent result and cannot be limited to the 'working day' of the observer.⁵⁴ Observational tools have however been devised that can be used to reliably measure health related QoL and well-being in people with dementia,^{55,56} with the use of Dementia Care Mapping⁵⁶ being increasingly used to assess the well-being of people with dementia in care settings and well-being scores were found to be closely associated with QoL.⁵⁷

Proxy ratings

Proxy ratings involve a judgement of the person's QoL being made by another person to whom they are known and may be provided by a paid or family caregiver. Proxy reports may be the only source of information available, particularly for those people with the most severe levels of cognitive impairment.⁵⁸ Proxy ratings have been shown to be a reliable and valid indicator of patient QoL.^{59,60} Nevertheless, proxies impose their own judgment, and in dementia these are thought to be influenced by feelings of caregiver burden and depression as well as by how the person with dementia is feeling.^{59,61} Moreover, QoL is consistently rated lower by caregivers than patients with mild-moderate dementia.⁶²⁻⁶⁶ Whilst proxy ratings may be considered necessary where cognitive impairment exists, the inclusion of the individual's own rating of QoL is the preferred method for assessment, as QoL ultimately reflects the person's with the disease experience.^{67,68}

Utility assessments (cost-effectiveness)

Utility measures of QoL originate from economic and decision theory and are devised to reflect the health status and value of that health status to a patient,¹⁶ to assess cost-effectiveness in health care. When applying utility measures, values are placed

on different health states and the preference of a particular health outcome is determined through calculating a single summary score.³ A common utility measure is quality adjusted life years (QALY) which are used as indicators of health gain for health service resource allocation. QALYs integrate two concepts, life expectancy and life quality that offer a mathematical outcome for rationing the allocation of health service resources.⁸ Although offering a utilitarian argument for determining the greatest health gain for the greatest number, QALYs are criticised as being ageist and for focusing on cure rather than care and their use marginalises the most disabled, elderly and chronically ill.⁴⁸ Older people have a shorter life expectancy in comparison to younger people. A further criticism of using QALYs is that the 'disability paradox', where QoL scores do not appear commensurate with the patient's health status, prevents direct comparisons of different patient groups for allocating resources.⁴³ There are however other measures of cost effectiveness which consider the cost per unit of health gain and do not involve years. Cost-utility ratios are being calculated in some trials in dementia using utility scores computed from the EQ-5D and societal weights. The National Institute of Clinical Effectiveness (NICE) now uses cost-effectiveness in consideration of all interventions in the UK.⁶⁹

Measuring QOL in Older Age

Early studies identify retirement, bereavement, loneliness and isolation as important influences on older people's lives.⁷⁰ Whereas, more recent studies found that older people define good QoL as family, social contacts, health, mobility/ability, material circumstances, activities, happiness, youthfulness and living environment.⁷¹ Hyde et al⁷² argue that the improved health and financial status of older people means the lives of older people has changed over recent decades, with increased healthy life expectancy and access to personal incomes, such as private pensions, share dividends and rent. The QoL of people entering old age who are younger, healthier, and wealthier will differ from those much older people who are more likely to experience chronic and degenerative ill health or require palliative care. Not all older people can be assumed to suffer poor QoL and whilst health status is an essential component of QoL it cannot be used as a proxy for QoL in older age.⁷² Individual perceptions are therefore essential in assessing health related QoL in people of all age groups. Magaziner⁷³ reported that a fifth of older adults living in the community and half of those living in institutions are reluctant or unable to be interviewed. In contrast, Livingston et al⁷⁴ administered the Index of Health-Related Quality of Life

(IHQL)⁷⁵ to a community sample of 782 older people aged 65 years and older. Their study found that three quarters of the respondents were able to complete the IHQL and the other measures used, and interestingly this included those people with dementia. Those experiencing somatic symptoms or subjective memory impairment were less likely to complete the questionnaires. They found that the scale was not valid in older people. Pettit et al⁷⁶ administered the 12-item Health Status Questionnaire (HSQ-12)⁷⁷ or the 12-item Short Form Health Survey (SF-12)⁷⁸ to a community sample of 1085 older people over 65 years of age. They found that both Health-Related QoL measures were acceptable and valid for use within this population. Completion rates were lower in those people with dementia and the SF-12 was found not to distinguish between people with and without dementia. It is clear therefore that most older people and those experiencing dementia are able to complete instruments assessing their own QoL.

Measuring QoL in Mental Illness

Orley et al⁴⁴ discuss the use of QoL measures in psychiatric patients and consider how QoL ratings may be affected by the impact of the disorder through disturbed affect or thinking and through institutionalisation. Whilst psychiatric symptoms such as depression may affect a persons' QoL they do not distort it or make their perceptions invalid. In addition, whilst institutionalisation may mean psychiatric patients perceive a good QoL due to lowered expectations their assessments are still valid. Proxy ratings for patients with cognitive impairment may be useful for planning and evaluating care, but they should not be taken as a measure of perceived QoL⁴⁴.

Measuring QoL in dementia

The nature of dementia which affects cognition and communication means assessing QoL in dementia offers a unique challenge. The progression of dementia is non-linear and has multiple causes and outcomes and is a complex disorder when compared with other health states.⁴⁶ Difficulties are routinely assumed in people with dementia providing subjective assessments of their QoL or care, owing to limitations with comprehension and reliability.⁷⁹ Providing an answer does not mean that the question is necessarily understood, and QoL may also be perceived differently as the disease progresses.⁸⁰ However, it is logical to assume that people with dementia will have likes and dislikes⁵⁵. Even in the most severe dementia it is possible to display preferences and aversions through emotional expression. Lawton⁴⁹ reasons that

although subjective measures demand a degree of cognitive skill people with dementia can provide reliable assessments of their mood and QoL. The patient's subjective ratings of QoL are suggested as the gold standard for measuring QoL.

Several studies have now shown that QoL can be reliably measured in people with mild, moderate and severe dementia using self rating QoL scales.^{51,61,81,82} However, there are differences in QoL ratings as given by caregiver proxies and the person with dementia's own ratings.^{62,83-86} Clinicians should be aware that proxy ratings do not necessarily replicate the person with dementia's views of QoL and should not be substituted for self-ratings.

Few studies have employed QoL as an outcome measure for interventions in dementia and at present the evidence is not consistent, possibly due to the variety of measures used. Studies have indicated both an increase and decrease in QoL as dementia advances.^{65,87,88} Some studies which have identified cognition and dementia severity as a predictor of QoL in dementia,^{59,89} were based on caregiver proxy ratings of the person, although more recent studies found caregiver proxy ratings of QoL were strongly associated with depression, disability, and neuropsychiatric symptoms of the person with dementia.^{64,83,84,90,91} Depressive symptoms have most consistently been identified as a predictor of lower QoL in dementia.^{59,62-64,66,81-84} A review of recent studies of QoL in dementia found that depression was most strongly associated with lower QoL in dementia, but found no consistent association between lower QoL and socio-demographic factors or a decline in cognition and functional ability.⁹²

Choosing a QoL measure

There are a broad range of QoL scales which may be used for people with psychiatric disorder^{3,93} and for older people.^{42,94} The evidence for the validity, reliability and acceptability of generic QoL scales with older people is mixed, although their use is encouraged within research and clinical practice to promote evidence based healthcare.^{1,42,74,94,95} Table 1 gives some examples of generic scales^{72,77,78,96} that have been used in studies involving older people with mental health needs.^{76,97,98} Haywood et al's^{42,94} review of QoL measures in old age found the SF-36 showed the best reliability and recommend its use where a comprehensive assessment of health is required in older people. Alternatively, the EQ-5D⁹⁶ (see figure 2) is recommended

where a briefer assessment is needed and significant changes in health are anticipated.^{42,94}

Table 2 gives examples of disease specific QoL scales in dementia.^{51,61,88,99,100} Each of the disease specific QoL scales have been included in previous literature reviews examining the validity and reliability of QoL scales in dementia and their use is supported.^{68,80,101-105} The QOL-AD⁶¹ (see figure 3) is the preferred measure of choice, as it is brief and has demonstrated sensitivity to psychosocial interventions.¹⁰¹ However, none of the reviews conclusively identifies a QoL scale for use with people with dementia and Schölzel-Dorenbos et al¹⁰² state that no QoL scale can be used across all stages of dementia.

Overall, QoL measures should be brief, easy to use, valid and reliable, sensitive to change and useful for both clinical and research settings. In dementia these should where possible include both patient and proxy ratings. It is also possible to generate QALY's from the scores of some QoL scales such as the SF-12, EQ-5D and DEMQOL, to provide an economic evaluation.

Conclusion

Within health, HRQoL provides a global measure of wellbeing in patients and is an appropriate outcome measure for the assessment of disease impact and interventions provided to older people. Moreover, in chronic and disabling disorders where symptomatic and functional recovery is unrealistic, improving quality of life is a particularly worthwhile outcome. QoL is now an established outcome measure for older people and should be routinely included within studies evaluating the effectiveness of care and treatment. Further evidence is needed to show how interventions influence QoL provided to older people with mental health needs. The research undertaken in recent years has established the validity and reliability of a number of QoL measures for use with older people, particularly, within dementia. Where possible the individual's perceptions should be sought in preference to the views of others and this may offer a challenge to health professionals working with older people experiencing increasing physical and mental frailty.

References

1. Bowling A. Ageing well: Quality of life in old age. Maidenhead: Oxford University Press; 2005.
2. Bond J, Corner L. Quality of life and older people. Maidenhead: Oxford University Press; 2004.
3. Bowling A. Measuring disease: A review of disease specific quality of life measurement scales. 2nd ed. Buckingham: Oxford University Press; 2001.
4. Birren JE, Dieckmann L. Concepts and content of quality of life in the later years: An overview. In: Birren JE, Lubben JE, Rowe JC, Deutchman DE, editors. The concept and measurement of quality of life in the frail elderly. San Diego: Academic Press; 1991 p. 344-60.
5. Velarde-Juradon E, Avila-Figuero C. Methods for the quality of life assessment. *Salud Publica Mex.* 2002; 44:448-63.
6. Fayers PM, De Haes JCJM. Editorial: Quality of life assessment in clinical trials. *Lancet* 1995; 346:1-2.
7. Bowling A. Measuring health: a review of quality of life measurement scales. Milton Keynes: Open University Press; 1991.
8. Oliver J, Huxley P, Bridges K, Mohamad H. Quality of life and mental health services. London: Routledge; 1996.
9. Franklin JL, Simmons J, Solovitz B, Clemons JR, Miller GE. Assessing quality of life of the mentally ill: a three dimensional model. *Eval Health Prof* 1986; 9(3):376-88.
10. Lehman AF. The well-being of chronic mental patients: assessing their quality of life. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1983; 40(4):369-73.
11. Dalkey NC, Rourke DL. Experimental assessment of Delphi procedures with group value judgement. In: Dalkey NC, Rourke DL, Lewis R, Snyder, D, editors. *Studies in the quality of life*. Massachusetts: Lexington Books; 1972.

12. Lawton M. A multidimensional view of quality of life in frail elders. In: Birren JE, Lubben JE, Rowe JC, Deutchman DE, editors. The concept and measurement of quality of life in the frail elderly. San Diego: Academic Press; 1991. p. 3-27.
13. Pearlman RA, Uhlmann RF. Quality of life in chronic diseases: Perceptions of elderly patients. *J Gerontol: Med Sci.* 1988; 43:25-30.
14. Ochs J, Mulhern R, Kun L. Quality-of-life assessment in cancer patients. *Am. J. Clin. Oncol.* 1988; 11:415-21.
15. Spitzer WO, Dobson AJ, Hall J, Chesterman E, Levi J, Shepherd R, et al. Measuring the quality of life in cancer patients: A concise QL index. *J Chron Dis.* 1981; 40:585-97.
16. Guyatt GH, Feeney DH, Patrick DL. Measuring Health-related Quality of Life. *Ann Int Med.* 1993, 118(8):622-9.
17. Muldoon M, Barger SD, Flory JD, Manuck SB. What are quality of life measurements measuring. *Br Med J.* 1998; 316(7130):542-5.
18. Liu BC. Quality of life indicators in US metropolitan areas: a statistical analysis. New York: Praeger; 1976.
19. Torrance GW. Utility approach to measuring health-related quality of life. *J Chron Dis.* 1987; 40:592-600.
20. Bigelow DM, Brodsky G, Steward LK, Olson MM. The concept and measurement of quality of life as a dependent variable in evaluation of mental health services. In: Stahler GJ, Tash WR, editors. Innovative approaches to mental health evaluation. New York: Academic Press; 1982
21. Gentile KM. A review of the literature on interventions and quality of life in the frail elderly. In: Birren JE, Lubben JE, Rowe JC, Deutchman DE, editors. The concept and measurement of quality of life in the frail elderly. San Diego: Academic Press; 1991. p. 74-88.

22. George LK, Bearon LB. Quality of life in older persons: Meaning and measurement. New York: Human Sciences Press; 1980.
23. Lawton MP. Environment and other determinants of well-being in older people. *Gerontologist*. 1983; 23:349-57.
24. Cheater F. Quality of life measures for the healthcare environment. *Nurs Res*. 1998; 5(3):17-30.
25. Gill TM, Feinstein AR. A critical appraisal of the quality of quality-of-life measurements. *JAMA*. 1994; 272(8):619-26.
26. WHOQOL Group. Measuring quality of life: The development of the world health organization quality of life instrument (WHOQOL). Geneva: WHO; 1983.
27. Chiu H, Zhang H. Dementia research in China. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2000; 15:947-53.
28. Gureje O, Oguyinni A, Kola L. The profile and impact of probable dementia in a sub-saharan African community: results from the Ibadan study of aging. *J Psychosom Res*. 2006; 61:327-33.
29. Gabriel Z, Bowling A. Quality of life in old age from the perspectives of older people. In: Walker A, Hennessy C, editors. *Growing older: Quality of life in old age*. Maidenhead: Open University Press; 2004.
30. Hughes B. Quality of life. In: Peace SM, editor. *Researching social gerontology: concepts, methods and issues*. London: Sage; 1990. p. 46-58.
31. Lerner M. Conceptualisation of health and social welfare. In: Berg RL, editor. *Health status indexes*. Chicago (IL): Hospital Research and Educational Trust; 1973.
32. Carr AJ, Higginson IJ. Measuring quality of life: Are quality of life measures patient centred? *Br Med J*. 2001; 322:1357-60.

33. Testa MA, Simonson DC. Current concepts: assessment of quality-of-life outcomes. *N Engl J Med*. 1996; 334(13):835-40.
34. Calman KC. Quality of life in cancer patients – an hypothesis. *J Med Ethics*. 1984; 10:124-7
35. Higginson IJ. The quality of expectation: healing, palliation or disappointment. *J R Soc Med*. 2000; 93(12):609-10.
36. Carr AJ, Gibson B, Robinson PG. Measuring quality of life: Is quality of life determined by expectations or experience? *Br Med J*. 2001; 322:1240-3.
37. Delhey J, Bohnke P, Habich R, Zapf W. Quality of life in a European perspective: The EUROMODULE as a new instrument for comparative welfare research. *Soc Indic Res*. 2002; 58:163-76.
38. Logsdon RG, Albert SM. Assessing Quality of Life in Alzheimer's Disease: Conceptual and Methodological Issues. *J Ment Health Aging*. 1999; 5(1):3-6.
39. Hickey AM, Bury G, O'Boyle CA, Bradley F, O'Kelly FD, Shannon W. A new short form individual quality of life measure (SEIQoL-DW): application in a cohort of individuals with HIV/AIDS. *Br Med J*. 1996; 313:29-33
40. Hankiss E. Socio-economic studies 5: Quality of life: Problems of assessment and measurement. UNESCO. Paris. Harper AC, Harper DA, Chambers: Paris.1983
41. Feinstein AR. *Clinimetrics*. New Haven, Conn: Yale University Press; 1987.
42. Haywood KL, Garratt AM, Schmidt LJ, Mackintosh AE, Fitzpatrick R. Health status and quality of life in older people: a structured review of patient-reported health instruments report from the patient-reported health instruments group (formerly the patient-assessed Health Outcomes Programme) to the Department of Health, April 2004.
43. Higginson IJ, Carr AJ. Measuring quality of life: Using quality of life measures in the clinical setting. *Br Med J*. 2001; 322:1297-1300.

44. Orley J, Saxena S, Herrman H. Quality of life and mental illness. Reflections from the perspective of the WHOQOL. *Br J Psychiatry*. 1998; 172(4):291-3.
45. Fallowfield L. The quality of life: the missing measurement in health care. London: Souvenir Press; 1990.
46. Mack JL, Whitehouse PJ. Quality of life in dementia: State of the art - Report of the international working group for harmonization of dementia drug guidelines and the Alzheimer's Society satellite meeting. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord*. 2001; 15(2):69-71.
47. Polit DF, Hungler BP. Nursing research: Principles and methods. 5th ed. Philadelphia: JB Lippincott Company; 1995. p. 271-300.
48. Bowling A. Research methods in health: Investigating health and health services. Open University Press: Maidenhead; 1997.
49. Lawton MP. Assessing quality of life in Alzheimer disease research. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord*. 1997; 11 Suppl 6:91-9.
50. Novella JL, Ankri J, Morrone I, Guillemin F, Jolly D, Jochum C, et al. Evaluation of the Quality of Life in Dementia with a Generic Quality of Life Questionnaire: The Duke Health Profile. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord*. 2001; 12:158-66.
51. Brod M, Stewart AL, Sands L, Walton P. Conceptualization and measurement of quality of life in dementia: The dementia quality of life instrument (DQOL). *Gerontologist*. 1999; 39:25-35.
52. Whitehouse P. Measurements of quality of life in dementia. In: Wimo A, Jonsson B, Karlsson G, Winblad B, editors. *Health economics of dementia*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd; 1998. p. 403-17.
53. Whitehouse P. Conclusion: Quality of life in alzheimer's disease: Future directions. *J Ment Health Aging*. 1999; 5(1):107-10.

54. Kane RA. Definition, measurement, and correlates of quality of life in nursing homes: toward a reasonable practice, research, and policy agenda. *Gerontologist*. 2003; 43(Spec Issue II):28-36.
55. Lawton MP, Van Haitsma K, Perkinson M, Ruckdeshchel K. Observed affect and quality of life in dementia: Further affirmations and problems. *J Ment Health Aging*. 1999; 5(1):69-81.
56. Kitwood T, Bredin K. Towards a theory of dementia care: personhood and well-being. *Ageing Soc*. 1992; 12 pp262-87.
57. Fossey J, Lee L, Ballard C. Dementia Care Mapping as a research tool for measuring quality of life in care settings: Psychometric properties. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2002; 17:1064-70.
58. Magaziner J. Use of proxies to measure health and functional outcomes in effectiveness research in persons with Alzheimer disease and related disorders. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord*. 1997; 11(Suppl 6):168-74.
59. Karlawish JHT, Casarett D, Klocinski JL, Clark CM. The relationship between caregivers' global ratings of Alzheimer's disease patients' quality of life, disease severity and the caregiving experience. *J Am Geriatr Soc*, 2001; 49(8):1066-70.
60. Albert SM, Castillo-Castanada BA, Jacobs DM, Sano M, Bell K, Merchant C, et al. Proxy-reported quality of life in Alzheimer's patients: comparison of clinical and population-based samples. *J Ment Health Aging*. 1999; 5(1):49-58.
61. Logsdon RG, Gibbons LE, McCurry SM, Teri L. Quality of life in Alzheimer's disease: Patient and caregiver reports. *J Ment Health Aging*. 1999; 5:21-32.
62. Vogel A, Mortensen EL, Hasselbalch SG, Andersen BB, Waldemar G. Patient versus informant reported quality of life in the earliest phases of Alzheimer's disease. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2006; 21:1132-8.

63. Fuh J-L, Wang S-J. Assessing quality of life in Taiwanese patients with Alzheimer's disease. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2006; 21:103-7.
64. Ready RE, Ott BR, Grace J. Patient versus informant perspectives of quality of life in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2004; 19:256-65.
65. Logsdon RG, Gibbons LE, McCurry SM, Teri L. Assessing quality of life in older adults with cognitive impairment. *Psychosom Med*. 2002; 64:510-9.
66. Selai CE, Trimble MR, Rossor MN, Harvey RJ. Assessing quality of life in dementia: Preliminary psychometric testing of the quality of life assessment schedule. *Neuropsychol Rehabil*, 2001; 11(3/4):219-43.
67. Brod M, Stewart AL. Conceptualization of Quality of Life in Dementia. *J Ment Health Aging*. 1999; 5(1):7-19.
68. Walker MD, Salek SS, Bayer AJ. A review of quality of life in Alzheimer's disease. Part 1: Issues in assessing disease impact. *Pharmacoeconomics*, 1998; 14(5):499-530.
69. National Institute for Clinical Excellence. Developing costing tools: Methods guide. London: NICE; 2008.
70. Tunstall J. *Old and alone*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul; 1966.
71. Farquhar M. Definitions of quality of life: a taxonomy. *J Adv Nurs*. 1995 22(3):502-8.
72. Hyde M, Wiggins RD, Higgs P, Blane DB. A measure of quality of life in early old age: The theory, development and properties of a needs satisfaction model (CASP-19). *Aging Ment Health*. 2003; 73:186-94
73. Magaziner J. The use of proxy respondents in health studies of the aged. In: Wallace RB, Woolson RF, editors. *The epidemiologic study of elderly*. New York: Oxford University Press; 1992. p. 120-129.

74. Livingston G, Watkin V, Manela M, Rosser R, Katona C. Quality of life in older people. *Aging Ment Health*. 1998; 2(1):20-3.
75. Rosser RM, Cottee M, Rabin R, Selai C. Index of health related quality of life. In: Hopkins A, editor. *Measures of the quality of life and the uses to which such measures may be put*. London: Royal College of Physicians; 1992
76. Pettit T, Livingston G, Manela M, Kitchen G, Katona C, Bowling A. Validation and normative data of health status measures in older people: The Islington study. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2001; 16:1061-70.
77. Radosevich DM, Pruitt M. Twelve-item health status questionnaire (HSQ-12) Cooperative validation project: comparability study. Abstracts from the Academy of Health Services Research Annual Meeting: Atlanta, USA. June 1996; 9-11. URL: <http://www.academyhealth.org/abstracts/1996/index.htm>
78. Ware JE, Kosinski M, Keller S. A 12 item short form health survey: construction of scales and preliminary tests of reliability and validity. *Med Care*, 1996; 34:220-33.
79. Stewart A, Sherbourne C, Brod M. Measuring health-related quality of life in older and demented populations. In: Spiker B, editor. *Quality of life and pharmacoeconomics in clinical trials*. 2nd ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott-Raven; 1996. p. 819-29.
80. Ettema PT, Dröes R-M, De Lange J, Mellenbergh GJ, Ribbe MW. A review of quality of life instruments used in dementia. *Qual Life Res*. 2005; 14:675-86.
81. Hoe J, Katona C, Roche B, Livingston G. Use of the QOL-AD for measuring quality of life in people with severe dementia - The LASER-AD study. *Age Ageing*. 2005; 34(2):130-5.
82. Thorgrimsen L, Selwood A, Spector A, Royan L, De Madariaga Lopez M, Woods RT, et al. Whose quality of life is it anyway? The validity and reliability of the quality of life - Alzheimer's disease (QOL-AD) scale. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord*. 2003; 17(4):201-8.

83. Hoe J, Katona C, Livingston G, Orrell M. Quality of life in dementia: care recipient and caregiver perceptions of quality of life in dementia: The LASER-AD study. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2007; 22:1031-6
84. Hoe J, Hancock G, Livingston G, Orrell M. Quality of Life of people with dementia in residential care homes. *Br J Psychiatry*. 2006; 188:460-4.
85. Spector A, Orrell M. Quality of Life (QoL) in dementia: A comparison of the perceptions of people with dementia and care staff in residential homes. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord*. 2006; 20(3):160-5.
86. Sands LP, Ferreira MD, Stewart AL, Brod M, Yaffe K. What explains differences between dementia patients' and their caregivers' ratings of patients' quality of life? *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2004; 12(3):272-80.
87. Terada S, Ishizu H, Fujisawa Y, Fujita D, Yokota O, Nakashima H, et al. Development and evaluation of a health-related quality of life questionnaire for the elderly with dementia in Japan. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2002; 17(9):851-8.
88. Rabins PV, Kasper JD, Kleinman L, Black BS, Patrick DL. Concepts and methods in the development of the ADRQL: An instrument for assessing health-related quality of life in persons with Alzheimer's disease. *J Ment Health Aging*. 1999; 5(1):33-48.
89. Albert SM, Jacobs DM, Sano M, Marder K, Bell K, Devanand D, et al. Longitudinal study of quality of life in people with advanced Alzheimer's disease. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2001; 9(2):160-8.
90. Banerjee S, Smith SC, Lamping DL, Harwood RH, Foley B, Smith P, et al. Quality of life in dementia: more than just cognition. An analysis of associations with quality of life in dementia. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2006; 77:146-8.
91. Shin I-S, Carter M, Masterman D, Fairbanks L, Cummings JL. Neuropsychiatric symptoms and quality of life in Alzheimer disease. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2005; 13(6):469-74.

92. Banerjee S, Samsi K, Petrie CD, Alvir J, Treglia M, Schwam EM, et al. A review of the emerging evidence on the predictive and explanatory value of disease specific measures of health related quality of life in people with dementia. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2009; 24:15-24
93. Schmidt LJ, Garratt AM, Fitzpatrick R. Instruments for mental health: a review report from the patient-reported Health Instruments Group (formerly the Patient-assessed Health Outcomes Programme) to the Department of Health. September 2000.
94. Haywood KL, Garratt AM, Fitzpatrick R. Quality of life in older people: A structured review of generic self-assessed health instruments. *Qual Life Res*. 2005; 14:1651-68
95. Parker SG, Peet SM, Jagger C, Farhan M, Castleden CM, Measuring health status in older patients. The SF-36 in practice. *Age Ageing*. 1998; 27:13–18.
96. EUROQOL Group, A new facility for the measurement of health related quality of life. *Health Policy*, 1990; 16:199-208.
97. Wolfs CAG, Dirksen CD, Kessels A, Willems DCM, Verhey FRJ, Severens JL. Performance of the EQ-5D and the EQ-5D+C in elderly patients with cognitive impairments. *Health Qual Life Outcomes*. 2007; 5:33
98. Coucill W, Bryan S, Bentham P, Buckley A, Laight A. EQ-5D in patients with dementia: An investigation of inter-rater agreement. *Med Care*. 2001; 39(8):760-71.
99. Smith SC, Lamping DL, Banerjee S, Harwood R, Foley B, Smith P et al. Measurement of health-related quality of life for people with dementia: development of a new instrument (DEMQOL) and an evaluation of current methodology. *HTA*. 2005; 9(10):1-112.
100. Ready RE, Ott BR, Grace J, Fernandez I. The Cornell-Brown scale for quality of life in dementia. *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord*. 2002; 16(2):109-15

101. Moniz-Cook E, Vernooij-Dassen M, Woods R, Verhey F, Chattat R, De Vugt M, et al, for the Interdem group. European consensus on outcome measures for psychosocial intervention research in dementia care. *Aging Ment Health*. 2008; 12(1):14-29.
102. Schölzel-Dorenbos CJM, Ettema TP, Bos J, Boelens-Van Der Knoop, E, Gerritsen DL, Hoogeveen F, et al. Evaluating the outcome of interventions on quality of life in dementia: Selection of the appropriate scale. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2007; 22:511-9.
103. Ready RE, Ott BR. Quality of life measures for dementia. *Health Qual Life Outcomes*. 2003; 1(11) URL: <http://www.hqlo.com/content/1/1/11>
104. Salek SS, Walker MD, Bayer AJ. A review of quality of life in Alzheimer's disease. Part 2: Issues in assessing drug effects. *Pharmacoeconomics*, 1998; 14(6):613-27.
105. Howard K, Rockwood K. Quality of life in Alzheimer's disease *Dementia*, 1995; 6:113-6.

Figure 1: Conceptual scheme of the domains and variables involved in a Quality-of-Life Assessment (Taken from Testa & Simonson, 1996)

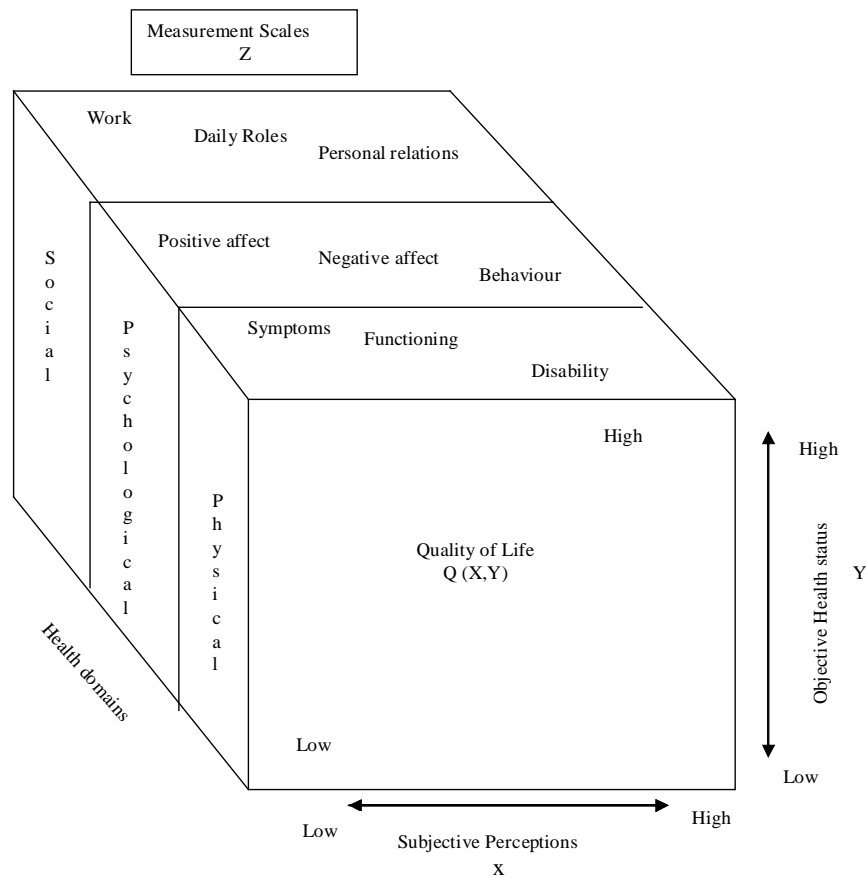


Table 1: Generic quality of life instruments for use with older people						
QoL Measure	Target population	Respondent	Item No	Domains	Single score	Time taken
EQ-5D EuroQol group, (1990)	General	Self-report	5	Mobility Self-care Usual activities Pain/discomfort Anxiety/depression	Yes	5mins
SF-12 Ware et al., (1996)	General	Self-report	12-36	Physical functioning Role - physical Bodily pain General Health Vitality Social functioning Role emotional Mental Health Health Transition	Yes	10 mins
HSQ – 12 item Radosevich & Pruitt, (1996)	General	Self-report	12-39	Physical functioning Role - physical Bodily pain Health perception Energy/fatigue Social functioning Role mental Mental Health	Yes	10 mins
CASP-19 Hyde et al., (2003)	Early Old Age	Self-report	19	Control Autonomy Self-realization Pleasure	No	Not specified

Table 2: Dementia-specific quality of life instruments						
QoL Measure	Target population	Respondent	Item No	Domains	Single score	Time taken
ADRQL Rabins et al., (1999)	Mild/moderate & severe dementia	Caregiver - proxy Formal & informal	47	Social interaction Awareness of self Feeling & mood Enjoyment of activities Response to surroundings	Yes	Not specified
DQOL Brod et al., (1999)	Mild/moderate dementia MMSE ≥12	Self-report	29	Self-esteem Positive affect Negative affect Feeling of belonging Sense of aesthetics	No	15 - 20 mins
QOL-AD Logsdon et al., (1999)	Mild/moderate dementia Severe dementia MMSE ≥3	Self-report Caregiver - proxy	13	Physical health Mental health Personal relationships Finances Overall life quality	Yes	10 mins
C-BS Ready et al., (2002)	MCI Mild/moderate dementia MMSE ≥ 9	Self-report Caregiver - proxy	19	Negative affectivity Positive affectivity Self esteem Physical complaints Satisfactions	Yes	15 mins
DEMQOL Smith et al., (2005b)	Mild/moderate dementia MMSE ≥ 10	Self-report	28	Health Well-being Cognitive functioning, Social relationships Self-concept	Yes	Not specified

Figure 2 : EuroQol (EQ-5D) UK English version

By placing a tick in one box in each group below, please indicate which statements best describe your own health state today.

Mobility

1. I have no problems in walking about ☐
2. I have some problems in walking about ☐
3. I am confined to bed ☐

Self-Care

1. I have no problems with self-care ☐
2. I have some problems washing or dressing myself ☐
3. I am unable to wash or dress myself ☐

Usual Activities (*e.g. work, study, housework, family or leisure activities*)

1. I have no problems with performing my usual activities ☐
2. I have some problems with performing my usual activities ☐
3. I am unable to perform my usual activities ☐

Pain/Discomfort

1. I have no pain or discomfort ☐
2. I have moderate pain or discomfort ☐
3. I have extreme pain or discomfort ☐

Anxiety/Depression

1. I am not anxious or depressed ☐
2. I am moderately anxious or depressed ☐
3. I am extremely anxious or depressed ☐

Figure 3: Quality of Life in Alzheimer's Disease (QOL-AD)
(Participant Version)

ID Number Assessment Number Interview Date

Instructions: Interviewer administer according to standard instructions.

Circle your responses.

1.	Physical health	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
2.	Energy	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
3.	Mood	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
4.	Living situation	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
5.	Memory	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
6.	Family	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
7.	Marriage	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
8.	Friends	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
9.	Self as a whole	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
10.	Ability to do chores around the house	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
11.	Ability to do things for fun	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
12.	Money	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
13.	Life as a whole	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent

Total

Comments:

Taken from © 1996 R.G. Logsdon. Department of Psychosocial and Community Health, Box 357263 University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195-7263.
Logsdon@u.washington.edu