

Aging & Mental Health



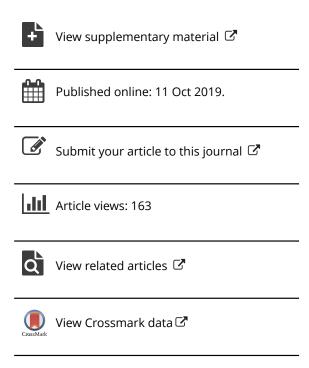
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REVIEW



A systematic review of interventions for loneliness among older adults living in long-term care facilities

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ABSTRACT

Objectives: This study aimed to review loneliness interventions for older adults living in long-term care (LTC) facilities over the past 10 years, to categorize interventions by type, and to compare effectiveness of loneliness interventions in these settings.

Methods: Systematic review followed PRISMA guidelines. Articles matching search criteria were collected from PubMed, PsycINFO, and Web of Science from 2009 to 2019. The inclusion criteria were as follows: 1) English language, 2) intervention studies with a quantitative measure that compares pre-trial to post-trial changes, 3) loneliness as a primary or secondary outcome 4) subjects age >65, and 5) subjects living in a LTC facility, such as a nursing home, assisted-living, or hospice.

Results: A total of 15 intervention studies qualified for systematic review. Most of these interventions were psychological therapies and leisure/skill development interventions. Approximately, 87% of studies reported significant decreases in loneliness following intervention. Laughter therapy, horticultural therapy, and reminiscence therapy were associated with the greatest decreases in loneliness.

Discussion: Results suggest that, although less common than interventions in the community, there are several effective interventions to reduce loneliness among older adults living in LTC facilities. Lack of standardized measures and high-quality studies limits comparisons between intervention types and generalizability to different populations.

ARTICLE HISTORY

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KEYWORDS

Loneliness; long-term care facilities; systematic review; older adults

Introduction

Loneliness, defined as 'a distressing feeling that accompanies the perception that one's social needs are not being met by the quantity or especially the quality of one's social relationships (Hawkley & Cacioppo, 2010),' is a common condition, with significant implications for population health and well-being (Hawkley & Cacioppo, 2010). A nationally representative survey conducted by AARP in 2010 found that 35% of adults 45 and older considered themselves to be lonely (Anderson, 2010). Importantly, a growing body of evidence has begun to document the links between loneliness and negative physical and mental health outcomes (Cacioppo, Grippo, London, Goossens, & Cacioppo, 2015; Gardiner, Geldenhuys, & Gott, 2018; Gerst-Emerson & Jayawardhana, 2015; Landeiro, Barrows, Nuttall Musson, Gray, & Leal, 2017; Prieto-Flores, Forjaz, Fernandez-Mayoralas, Rojo-Perez, & Martinez-Martin, 2011). As such, there is increasing recognition of the need to address loneliness to help mitigate its negative consequences.

While loneliness may affect people of all ages, older adults (age 65+) are uniquely vulnerable. Loss of friends and family, widowhood, fewer social connections through work and community groups, and other common experiences of older age may lead to or exacerbate feelings of loneliness. Among older adults living in long-term care (LTC)

facilities, a greater number of chronic health conditions, need for functional assistance, and limited ability to engage in daily activities may further limit the ability to maintain existing social relationships (Pinguart & Sorensen, 2001). Consequently, research suggests that older adults living in LTC facilities have higher rates of loneliness than in the community. A study by Prieto-Flores et al (2011) reported that older adults in nursing homes are two times more likely to be lonely than those living in the community (Prieto-Flores et al., 2011). Similarly, a limited number of studies conducted in Europe have reported that 50-55% of nursing home residents have experienced loneliness (Drageset, Kirkevold, & Espehaug, 2011; Nyqvist, Cattan, Andersson, Forsman, & Gustafson, 2013). However, despite the potentially greater likelihood of loneliness among facility-dwelling older adults, little is known about potential preventive measures for loneliness in this population.

Loneliness negatively impacts both physical and mental health among older adults. It has been linked to greater risk of an array of health problems including high blood pressure, cardiovascular disease, disability, cognitive decline, depression, and early mortality (Gerst-Emerson & Jayawardhana, 2015). For example, a study by Luo et al. found that chronically lonely older adults in the community were nearly two times more likely to die within six years

than older adults who were not lonely (Luo, Hawkley, Waite, & Cacioppo, 2012). Loneliness may also lead to greater healthcare utilization and costs, although evidence is mixed (Flowers et al., 2017; Gerst-Emerson & Jayawardhana, 2015; Valtorta, Moore, Barron, Stow, & Hanratty, 2018). For example, Gerst-Emerson & Jayawardhana (2015) found that chronically lonely older adults were more likely to use physician services than those who did not report chronic loneliness (Gerst-Emerson & Jayawardhana, 2015). However, these differences may be explained, in part, by differences in individual health status (Valtorta et al., 2018). Thus, it remains unclear whether reducing loneliness might be an effective means of reducing health care costs among older adults receiving LTC services.

In recognition of the negative health outcomes associated with loneliness, several interventions to combat loneliness among older adults have been developed (Poscia et al., 2018). Gardiner et al. classify current interventions for loneliness among older people into six categories: social facilitation interventions, psychological therapies, health and social care provision, animal interventions, befriending interventions, and leisure/skill development interventions (Gardiner et al., 2018). Each of these intervention types has been implemented among older adults in the community, with varying degrees of effectiveness (Fokkema & Knipscheer, 2007; Gardiner et al., 2018; Hemingway & Jack, 2013); however, there is little comparative evidence regarding the characteristics or effectiveness of different loneliness reduction approaches in LTC settings. A specific focus on the LTC population is important for at least three reasons. First, failure to distinguish between different older adult populations may obscure important differences that may inform more effective implementation and intervention development. Second, interventions developed for older adults living in the community, such as those based on physical activity or skills development, may not be effective in LTC environments, where residents may have limited mobility, functional abilities, or access to technology. Third, LTC facilities represent points of sustained engagement between older adults and healthcare service providers, which might be leveraged to reduce loneliness. LTC providers and facility staff may play an important role in identifying and managing loneliness, as they come in frequent contact with residents.

Given the potential importance of loneliness reduction to health and well-being among older adults and specific knowledge gaps regarding loneliness interventions in LTC, the current study objectives were to 1) identify interventions to reduce loneliness among older adults living in LTC facilities implemented in the past 10 years, and 2) compare the effectiveness and characteristics of different approaches in these settings. By describing the current state of knowledge and synthesizing intervention trial results, the overall goal of this review was to improve understanding of interventions for loneliness among older adults in facilities to inform future research and practice.

Methods

The following review steps were performed in accordance with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines for conducting a

systematic review (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, Altman, & The PRISMA Group, 2009). A systematic search was first conducted using the following databases: PubMed, PsycINFO, and Web of Science using search strategies described in Appendix 1. Studies from the past 10 years (January 2009) to January 2019) were included. This time period was chosen to capture studies that better reflect current practices and structures in LTC and loneliness research. The search was conducted twice, both in October 2018 and in February 2019, to ensure that any articles published after the initial search were included. Appropriate medical subject headings (MeSH) were used along with text word searches and phrases. The predetermined population of interest was adults, age 65 and older living in a LTC facility such as a nursing home, assisted living, or hospice facility. Search terms were chosen to identify interventions with quantitative measures of loneliness, with post-intervention loneliness in intervention groups compared to either a control group or pre-trial loneliness scores. Eligible study designs included randomized controlled trials, quasi-experimental studies, and single-group design studies. The algorithms used in the initial database search are shown in Appendix 1.

The analysis of retrieved studies was conducted in 3 steps, which followed the following inclusion criteria:

(1) Manuscript must be in the English language; (2) Study must describe an intervention with a quantitative comparison of pre-trial and post-trial measures; (3) Loneliness must be one of the primary outcomes assessed; (4) Greater than 50% of subjects must be age 65 or older; (5) The subjects must live in a facility, such as a nursing home, assisted living, or hospice facility. We defined facilities as places where residents received some level of health care or functional support for an extended period (greater than 1 month). Therefore, acute care hospitals and retirement communities that did not provide health services or functional support to residents were not included.

Because the concepts of loneliness and social isolation are sometimes used interchangeably in research literature, studies that used the term 'social isolation' were included in the title and abstract screening steps. Articles measuring only social isolation were excluded in the full text review step if social isolation referred to an objective and quantifiable measure of reduced social network size or lack of social contacts (Steptoe, Shankar, Demakakos, & Wardle, 2013), rather than the subjective concept of loneliness as defined in this and previous studies (Hawkley & Cacioppo, 2010).

Step 1: Title screening

Articles were title screened for inclusion and those that did not meet inclusion criteria were excluded. All articles were title screened by two of the following investigators: NQ, ML, NR. Conflicts were settled by the third investigator or by discussion between the two individuals screening the article.

Step 2: Abstract screening

Articles that passed title screening were uploaded into the systematic review management software Covidence (2019) and underwent abstract screening, using the inclusion criteria. All articles were screened by two of the following investigators: NQ, ML, NR. Conflicts were settled by the third investigator or by discussion between the two screening the article.

Step 3: Full text review

Full text review was undertaken on articles remaining after title and abstract screening. Articles were excluded for the following reasons: wrong patient population, wrong study design, wrong outcomes, wrong comparator, or for lack of peer review. All the articles were screened by both NQ and ML, and conflicts were settled with discussion between NQ and ML.

Articles that passed full text screening were assessed for methodological quality. As a template for quality assessment, we used two tools from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Quality Assessment (NHLBI): Quality Assessment of Before and After (Pre-Post) Studies With No Control Group and the Quality Assessment of Controlled Intervention Studies (National Institutes of Health, 2014). These criteria included differences in baseline characteristics between groups, the randomization techniques used for sampling in controlled studies, drop-out rate, adherence to treatment, and other criteria noted in the Supplemental Tables. All studies were assigned a quality rating of Good, Fair, or Poor.

For the final set of included articles, we extracted author information, year of publication, participant information, sample participant characteristics, type of study, follow-up timeline, intervention information, control information, setting, outcome measures, and statistical findings. The principal summary measures recorded were between-group and within-group statistical differences in the change in loneliness between the pre-trial and post-trial stages. Articles were classified following the categorization schema of Gardiner et al. (2018).

Results

Search results

An initial literature search of several journal databases yielded 1858 articles meeting text search criteria. After removing duplicates, 1376 articles underwent title screening (Figure 1). After initial title screening, 80 articles underwent abstract screening. Of the 32 articles remaining after abstract screening, 15 were included after full text screening, representing the total study sample for this review. Additional details of the article search and exclusion process are described in Figure 1.

Of the final 15 articles, five described randomized controlled trials, eight were quasi-experimental, and two were single-group design. Four studies were conducted in Taiwan, four in China, and one in each of the following countries: USA, New Zealand, Italy, Netherlands, Turkey, Egypt and Australia. Almost two-thirds of the studies (n=9) had mostly female participants. The majority of facilities were described as nursing homes, followed by assisted-living and residential care facilities. Two of the studies also included participants that were independent, community-dwelling residents.

Individuals with cognitive impairment, as measured by clinical diagnosis or cognitive screening tools such as the Mini Mental State Examination, were excluded from 14 of 15 studies. One study included participants with suggested cognitive impairment (n = 19, 48%) (Robinson, Macdonald, Kerse, & Broadbent, 2013).

Loneliness measurement strategies

As shown in Table 1, the most commonly used loneliness measure from the 15 studies was the UCLA Loneliness Scale v3, which was used by 11 of the studies in either its original, translated, or shortened forms (Chen & Ji, 2015; Chiang et al., 2010; Robinson et al., 2013; Sollami, Gianferrari, Alfieri, Artioli, & Taffurelli, 2017; Tsai & Tsai, 2011; Tsai, Tsai, Wang, Chang, & Chu, 2010; Tse, 2010; Tse et al., 2010; Tse, Tang, Wan, & Vong, 2014; Tse, Yeung, Lee, & Ng, 2016; Winstead, Yost, Cotten, Berkowsky, & Anderson, 2014). The De Jong Gierveld Loneliness Scale was the second most commonly used scale, with versions used in two studies from Turkey and the Netherlands (Kuru Alici, Zorba Bahceli, & Emiroglu, 2018; Westerhof, Korte, Eshuis, & Bohlmeijer, 2017). Remaining studies used a mix of study-specific or researcher-created loneliness measures (Elsherbiny & Al Maamari, 2018; Travers & Bartlett, 2011).

Other related effectiveness measures commonly used in interventions included well-being, depression, anxiety, physical pain, and social isolation. Most studies tested intervention effectiveness by comparing loneliness scores at baseline and at around eight weeks later. Only two studies included long-term follow-up (greater than 14 weeks), assessing loneliness changes up to five and 12 months post-intervention, respectively (Chiang et al., 2010; Tsai & Tsai, 2011).

Interventions

According to the intervention clustering model proposed by Gardiner et al., we categorized interventions into six types, as shown in Table 1 (Gardiner et al., 2018). The most common intervention type was leisure/skill development (six studies), such as exercise and pain programs, gardening, and radio listening, followed by psychological therapies (five studies), including nostalgic, humorous, and existential types, and by both social facilitation interventions as well as animal support interventions (two studies each). Animal interventions included both real life animals and robot animals. The two intervention categories from the cluster model, health and social care provision and befriending interventions, were not represented in the facility-based interventions.

Quality assessment

Out of the 15 studies, five were rated as 'Good,' representing low risk of bias. In general, these studies included randomized controlled trials with or without blinding of intervention group membership for loneliness assessment. Seven studies, typically those involving quasi-experimental designs or post hoc assessment for confounding and bias were given a rating of 'Fair.' Three studies were given a rating of 'Poor.' Poor ratings typically resulted from unclear

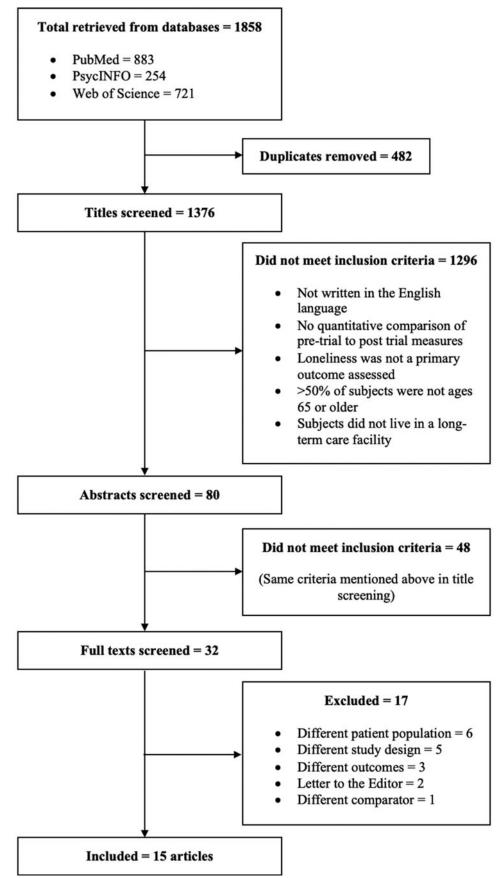


Figure 1. Study flow diagram and search results.

statistical methods, non-experimental study protocols, or otherwise high risk of bias (Supplemental Tables).

Quantitative findings

Thirteen studies reported statistically significant differences in loneliness scores either between pre-trial and post-trial

for the experimental group, or between experimental and control groups at post-trial (Table 2). While these were statistically significant changes, absolute loneliness score changes in most studies were modest, ranging from approximately 3.6% to 25% decreases in loneliness in the intervention groups at follow-up (Table 2). The study

Table 1 Intervention Categorizations according to Gardiner et al. (2018)

Type of intervention	Description
Social facilitation interventions	 Video conferencing (Tsai & Tsai, 2011; Tsai et al., 2010)
Psychological therapies	 Reminiscence therapy (Chiang et al., 2010)
	 Autobiographical memory intervention (Westerhof et al., 2017)
	 Humor therapy (Mimi M Y Tse et al., 2010)
	• Laughter therapy (Kuru Alici et al., 2018)
	 Logotherapy (Elsherbiny & Al Maamari, 2018)
Health and social care provision	N/A
Animal interventions	 Pet therapy (Sollami et al., 2017)
	 Paro companion robot interaction (Elsherbiny & Al Maamari, 2018)
Befriending interventions	N/A
Leisure/skill development interventions	 Physical exercise training (Tse et al., 2014)
	 Indoor gardening participation (Tse, 2010)
	 Pain management program(Tse et al., 2016)
	 Participation in activities (Winstead et al., 2014)
	 Horticultural therapy (Chen & Ji, 2015)
	 Reminiscent radio listening (Travers & Bartlett, 2011)

Reminiscence therapy consisted of a group therapy class, whereas reminiscent radio listening was comprised of individuals listening to a radio program on their own time (Chiang et al., 2010; Travers & Bartlett, 2011).

reporting the largest difference in loneliness scores between pre- and post-intervention was the laughter therapy intervention, which showed a greater than 50% decrease in loneliness among intervention group participants using the De Jong Gierveld Loneliness Scale for the experimental group (pre-trial mean = 17.95, SD = 2.704, n = 20; post-trial mean = 7.15, SD = 1.755, n = 20) (Kuru Alici et al., 2018). This decrease was found to be significantly greater than the decrease in the control group (pretrial mean = 16.77, SD = 3.51, n = 30; post-trial mean = 15.63, SD = 5.027, n = 30) (Kuru Alici et al., 2018). Two studies involving participation in general activities and reminiscent radio listening program reported no statistically significant differences in loneliness following intervention (Travers & Bartlett, 2011; Winstead et al., 2014).

Because nine of the 15 studies measured loneliness using the full UCLA Loneliness Scale v3, they can be best compared. According to the UCLA Scale, the greatest mean decreases in loneliness from pre-trial to post-trial were found for reminiscence therapy and horticultural therapy, with mean decreases of 7.24 and seven points, respectively (Chen & Ji, 2015; Chiang et al., 2010). The smallest mean decreases came from the physical exercise program, with a mean decrease of 1.49 (Tse et al., 2014). Disregarding differences in sample sizes and standard deviations, the mean decrease in UCLA Loneliness Scale v3 score over all of the nine studies was 4.61 from pre-trial to post-trial.

Discussion

The purpose of this research was to compile and review existing literature on interventions for loneliness among older adults living in LTC facilities from 2009 to 2019, and to develop a greater understanding of effective intervention features. Our search identified 15 studies, with a wide variety of intervention designs, study quality, settings, and sample characteristics. We found that psychological therapies and leisure/skill development interventions were the most common interventions in LTC facility settings. While variability in study design and measures used to assess loneliness limited comparisons of effectiveness across studies, the majority of interventions (approximately 87%) were successful in reducing loneliness over time, with laughter therapy, reminiscence therapy, and horticultural therapy reporting the greatest absolute decreases in loneliness

scores. These findings have implications for the design and tailoring of interventions to decrease loneliness in LTC and other specialized health care facilities.

By specifically focusing on interventions for loneliness reduction in facilities, this study extends findings from prior research and reviews regarding loneliness reduction approaches for older adults (Cohen-Mansfield & Perach, 2015; Gardiner et al., 2018; MacLeod et al., 2018; O'Rourke, Collins, & Sidani, 2018; Poscia et al., 2018; Stojanovic et al., 2017). In general, our findings are consistent with previous studies focused on both community-dwelling and facilitydwelling older adults. For instance, a review by Cohen-Mansfield and Perach, of 34 studies, with 23 conducted among community-dwelling older adults and eight conducted among older adults living in facilities, found that interventions for community dwelling older adults and those in LTC shared similar characteristics and designs (Cohen-Mansfield & Perach, 2015). As in the current review, loneliness interventions in the community consisted primarily of instructional group bonding activities, educational lessons, and skills development (Cohen-Mansfield & Perach, 2015; Poscia et al., 2018; Stojanovic et al., 2017). Unlike previous work focused on community-dwelling older adults (Khosravi, Rezvani, & Wiewiora, 2016; Poscia et al., 2018), we found little use of mHealth, computer, or internet-based interventions in LTC. As several such approaches have been shown to reduce loneliness in older adults (Khosravi et al., 2016), it is unclear why few LTC interventions incorporated these strategies, but possible explanations include perception of poor technological literacy among LTC residents, limited resources, or even lack of knowledge regarding these strategies among LTC staff (Khosravi et al., 2016). More studies regarding technology-based interventions in LTC are needed to draw conclusions about their relative effectiveness.

Contrary to the present study, previous reviews of community-based interventions found that fewer interventions were effective at reducing loneliness (Cohen-Mansfield & Perach, 2015; Poscia et al., 2018). For instance, two previous reviews by Cohen-Mansfield and Perach (2015) and Poscia et al. (2018) reported respectively that 21.7% and 66.7% of community-based interventions successfully reduced loneliness (Cohen-Mansfield & Perach, 2015; Poscia et al., 2018). In conjunction with findings from the current study, in which a majority (87%) of facility-based interventions

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Numerical results	[Baseline] Experimental: Mean = 36.44, SD = 9.76, n = 20 Control: Mean = 31.71, SD = 9.5, n = 20 [12 Weeks] Experimental Mean = 32.23, SD = 9.92, n = 17 Control: Mean = 33.93, SD = 8.52, n = 17	Baseline Experimental Mean = 42.24, SD = 7.37,	Baseline		Experimental Mean = 40.98, SD = 11.77,
Findings	After adjusting for baseline loneliness scores, a significant difference between experimental and control group loneliness scores was found with $p=0.033$.	A significant difference in the feeling of loneliness was found between groups with $z = -27.26$, $p < 0.0001$, $z = -22.75$, $p < 0.0001$.	In the intervention group, loneliness had a significant improvement, with a mean decrease from 50 to 44.43 in the UCLA Loneliness Scale v3 from pre to post trial. This was a change of -5.57 with $p=0.001$.	Loneliness decreased in both intervention and control groups. Significant within-subject contrasts were found at the post-intervention (F(1,79) = 7.4; $p = .008$) and follow-up (F(1,79) = 13.0; $p = .001$).	The score changes in loneliness was more significant in the
Outcome measure	Scale v3	Scale v3	Scale v3	De Jong Gierveld 11-Point Loneliness Scale	UCLA Loneliness Scale v3
Setting	Hillsborough, Auckland, New Zealand	Taipei, Taiwan	Italy	Netherlands	Residents receiving Hong Kong, China UCLA Loneliness usual services Scale v3
Control	Bus trips, crafts, movies, bingo	Waiting List	Residents receiving Italy usual services	Fach participant would do unstructured activities with their volunteer, such as conversing or playing cards.	Residents receiving usual services
Intervention	[Paro companion robot interaction]: On two weekday afternoons for 12 weeks, group discussions were held where experimental group participants all had the chance to interact with the Paro robot.	(Reminiscence therapy): Structured 90 min/ week discussion sessions focused on the recall and sharing memories, as well as better expressing one's feelings.	[Pet therapy]: 2 times a week, participants spent 1 hour in a group with a pet therapy dog.	[Autobiographical memory Each participant intervention]: For five would do 45-minute sessions unstructured over 8 weeks, activities with intervention their voluntes participants discussed such as positive memories conversing or from childhood, adolescence, and adulthood with a volunteer	[Physical exercise training]: For an hour a week for 8 weeks,
Follow-up	12 weeks	2 months, 5 months	8 weeks	8 weeks	8 weeks
Type of Study	אק	אַל	אַל	"מ בי	e RCT
Sample characteristics	3/4 women, ages 55–100 for both intervention and control group	All males, mean age was 77.24	Wean age around 85 for both intervention and control group	62% female, mean age around 84 for both groups	55% male, mean age RCT around 85, for both groups
Participants	Older residents from 3 the Selwyn Heights retirement home in Hillsborough, Auckland, New Zealand	Nursing home in Taipei area and (1) Conscious and able to speak Mandarin or Taiwanese, (2) aged 65 years or over, and (3) the MMSE score was greater than 20	Older residents from a Mean age around 85 RCI nursing home for both in Italy in Italy control group	LTC facility residents 6	Nursing home residents from 10 nursing homes in
Author, year	Robinson O et al. (2013)	Chiang N et al. (2010)	Sollami O et al. (2017)	Westerhof L'et al. (2017)	Tse N et al. (2014)

Quality assessment				(continued)
ass		poog	Fair	Fair 36
Numerical results	n = 225 Control Mean = 40.17, SD = 11.8, n = 171 [8 weeks] Experimental Mean = 39.49, SD = 10.52, n = 225 Control Mean = 40.41, SD = 10.52, 12.5 = 17.1			
Findings	intervention group than in the control group with p <0.05.	The changes in UCLA Loneliness Scale v3 scores for the intervention group at 12 months was –6.42 with p < 0.01. The change was significantly lower than for the comparison group with changes of 2.77, with p value=.02.	The changes in the mean UCLA Loneliness Scale v3 scores were significantly different for intervention groups at one week (-1.21, p = 0.02) and three months (-2.84, p = 0.03).	A significant difference in loneliness was found between baseline and post-intervention for the intervention group with $\rho=0.001$. No difference was found between intervention and control group $\rho=0.096$ at the $\rho=0.096$ at th
Outcome measure		UCLA Loneliness Scale v3	UCLA Loneliness Scale v3	UCLA Loneliness Scale v3
Setting		Taiwan	Taiwan	g China
Control		No video conference interaction	No video conference interaction	Residents receiving China usual services
Intervention	intervention participants took part in a physical exercise program led by a physiotherapist and research assistants.	1 week, 3 months [Video conferencing]: For 3 months, intervention group participants received > = 5 minutes a week of videoconference interaction with family members.	(Video conferencing): For No video 3 months, intervention confer group participants interaction with family members, with the help of a research assistant.	[Humor therapy]: For an hour a week for 8 weeks, researchers read jokes and stories, lectured on humor research, and gave mindfulness tips for humor. Participants completed laughing exercises and games as well.
Follow-up		1 week, 3 months	3 months, 6 months, 12 months	8 weeks
Type of Study		Quasi- experimental Study	Quasi- experimental Study	Quasi- experimental Study
Sample characteristics		58% female, mean age around 74 for both groups	55% women, mean age around 74 for both groups	54% women, mean age around 79 for both groups
Participants	Hong Kong, China, musculoskeletal pain in the past 6 months	Nursing home residents from 14 different nursing homes in Taiwan	Nursing home residents from 16 different nursing homes in Taiwan	One nursing home as experimental group, another as control group
Author, year F		Tsai et al. (2010)	Tsai (2011)	Tse 0 et al. (2010)

Author, year	Participants	Sample characteristics	Type of Study	Follow-up	Intervention	Control	Setting	Outcome measure	Findings	Numerical results	Quality assessment
Tse (2010)	Nursing home residents from 4 nursing homes in Hong Kong, China	85% female, mean age around 85 for both groups	Quasi- experimental Study	8 weeks	[Indoor gardening participation]: Once a week for 8 weeks, intervention participants wrote in a planting diary, positioned and watered plants, made natural pesticides and discussed gardening skills.	Residents receiving Hong Kong, China UCLA Loneliness usual services Scale v3	Kong, China		There was a statistically significant difference between the intervention and control groups with p < 0.05.	[Baseline] Experimental Mean = 41.38, SD = 8.18,	Fair 7
Tse et al. (2016)		Majority female participants, mean age around 85 for both groups	Quasi- experimental Study	12 weeks	다. 12 마;	A weekly one-hour China session of a pain management program, not peer led		Chinese version of M UCLA Loneliness Scale	Chinese version of Mean loneliness score UCLA dropped from Loneliness Scale 44.5±8.7 to 34.3±8.3 for the experimental group p < 0.001. Control group mean score dropped from 42.8±10.5 to 38.9±9.8 with p = 0.031.		Fair 8 2
Kuru Alici et al. (2018)	Older residents age 50 Slightly over half) or older from two were women, nursing homes in around 2/3 we Ankara Turkey ages 65-75	are.	Quasi- experimental Study	5 weeks	[Laughter therapy]: For two 1-hour sessions a week for 12 months, intervention participants took part in peer-led pain management classes, which included physical exercise, interactive teaching and sharing of pain management education.	Residents receiving Ankara, Turkey usual services		De Jong Gierveld W Loneliness Scale	With p < 0.001, a statistically significant difference was found between mean DJGLS scores of the intervention (7.15 ± 1.755) and control groups (15.63 ± 5.027) after the intervention.	[Baseline] Experimental Mean = 17.95 , SD = 2.704 , $n = 20$ Control Mean = 16.77 , SD = 3.51 , $n = 30$ [5 weeks] Experimental Mean = 7.15 , SD = 1.755 , $n = 20$ Control Mean = 1.55 , SD = 1.755 , $n = 20$ Control Mean = 1.56 , SD = 1.755 , $n = 20$	Fair
Eisherbiny and Al Maamari (2018)	Elsherbiny and Private elderly care Al institution in Egypt (2018)	Around 2/3 were male, mean age around 68 for both groups	Quasi- experimental Study	12 weeks, 14 weeks (follow up)	[Logotherapy]: 24 group intervention sessions, lasting 20-30 minutes each and 3 counselling interviews per participant, lasting 30-45 minutes. The intervention consisted of various activities to instill participants with meaning, including personal interests, friendships and internet training	Residents receiving Egypt usual services		Perceived Isolation A Scale (Cornwell and Waite 2009)	Perceived Isolation A significant difference Scale (Comwell was found between and intervention and Waite 2009) control groups after the intervention with $t=4.76$. During follow up, the two groups also showed a significant different at $\alpha=0.05$, with $t=4.13$.	[Ba] T = T = T	Fair

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Table 2. Continued	intinued.										
Author, year	Participants	Sample characteristics	Type of Study	Follow-up	Intervention	Control	Setting	Outcome measure	Findings	Numerical results	Quality assessment
Winstead et al. (2014)	Assisted and 4) independent living residents	N/A	Quasi- experimental Study	8 weeks	[Participation in activities]: No activity Participation in activities weekly over 8 weeks.	No activity participation	USA	3-item UCLA Loneliness Scale	No significant differences were found in loneliness scores pre- post trial or between groups.	[Baseline] Experimental Mean = 4.08, SD = 1.4, n = 104 Control Mean = 4.14, SD = 1.31, n = 37	Poor
										[8 weeks] Experimental Mean = 4.03, SD = 1.38, n = 104 Control Mean = 4.27, SD = 1.48, n = 37	
Chen and Ji (2015)	Older residents from a 60% were men, nursing home mean age in Taichung was 75.3	a 60% were men, mean age was 75.3	Single- Group Design	5 weeks, 10 weeks	[Horticultural therapy]: Gardening for 1.5 hours a week, consisting of planting	No control group	No control group Taichung, Taiwan UCLA Loneliness Scale v3	UCLA Loneliness Scale v3	The loneliness score decreased from 42.9 (SD = 9.26) at baseline to 34.2 (SD =		Fair
					seeds, propagating plants, cooking using plants, learning plant care techniques, and using plants to				7.54) at 5 weeks and then to 35.9 (SD = 6.08) at 10 weeks with p < 0.001.	7.54) at 5 weeks and [10 weeks] then to 35.9 (SD = Experimental 6.08) at 10 weeks with $\overline{\text{Mean}}=35.9$, SD = 6.08, $n=10$ p < 0.001.	
Travers and Bartlett (2010)	Community-dwelling older adults and older residential care facility residents	70% women, mean age around 80	Single- Group Design	3 months	, 0 -	No control group	Brisbane, Australia Single- Quei	Single- Question Item	No significant change in the loneliness question before and after intervention, with $z=-1.27$, and $p=0.2$.	No change on the loneliness question ($Z=-1.27$, $p=0.2$)	Poor
					popular in the 1920–1950s.						

reported significant reductions in loneliness, these findings suggest that loneliness interventions in facilities can be at least as effective in LTC facilities as in the community. There are several possible explanations for the success of LTC-based interventions. First, these results may reflect inherent advantages of facility-based implementation, such as ability to develop engagement with health service professionals employed by facilities, as well as opportunities for group activities and social connections among residents. As others have noted, loneliness intervention effectiveness is bolstered by tailoring to a target population (Stojanovic et al., 2017), and LTC settings may offer fewer barriers to customization than in the community. An alternative explanation for high success rates in contemporary facility-based interventions is that study populations were not representative of older adults in LTC. For instance, 14 of 15 reviewed studies excluded individuals with some level of cognitive impairment. Because cognitive impairment is associated with greater loneliness (Cacioppo & Hawkley, 2009; Shankar, McMunn, Banks, & Steptoe, 2011) and may be a barrier to effectiveness, study results in LTC facilities may reflect some bias in the selection of participants. Studies including participants with greater physical and cognitive limitations are thus needed to evaluate whether loneliness interventions can be effective with a more general and representative older adult population.

This study provides a more thorough understanding of the components of successful loneliness interventions for facility-dwelling older adults. In the facility-dwelling population, decreases in mobility and greater health concerns may lead to fewer social relationships, which may lead to increased feelings of loneliness (Pinguart & Sorensen, 2001). Consistent with this idea, the most successful interventions included in this study were those that did not rely on significant physical activity or mobility. For instance, participants in horticultural, laughter, and reminiscence therapies, which allow formation and maintenance of social relationships through group activities within facility settings (Chen & Ji, 2015; Chiang et al., 2010; Kuru Alici et al., 2018), demonstrated the greatest decreases in loneliness over time. Similarly, video conferencing interventions were found to reduce loneliness modestly among nursing home residents. Such interventions may act by allowing older adults to sustain social relationships with family and friends, without the need for physical exercise or travel (Stojanovic et al., 2017). In most studies we reviewed, it was unclear if such factors or adaptations were considered in the intervention development process. Future development of interventions and strategies to reduce loneliness in LTC facilities should be guided by considerations of the unique challenges in these settings (Stojanovic et al., 2017). This should include the use of more technology-based interventions shown to be effective among older adults (Khosravi et al., 2016; Poscia et al., 2018) and inclusion of more representative patient populations. Despite shortcomings, these findings indicate that a variety of intervention strategies may be effective in LTC, and so greater utilization of loneliness interventions in these facilities, in general, is warranted (Mann et al., 2017).

This study found significant variability in the measures used to define and estimate loneliness. The lack of a consendefinition of loneliness limits comparisons and generalizability of findings across different countries, cultures, and even residential populations (Lykes Kemmelmeier, 2014; Rokach, Orzeck, & Neto, 2004). Although the measures used to assess loneliness in LTC were primarily those developed for use in the community, it is unclear whether interpretations of loneliness differ between facility-dwelling and community-dwelling older adults, or whether they view loneliness as distinct from 'social isolation' or other related concepts. The variability in loneliness measures suggests a need for better understanding, not only of cultural differences in the interpretation of loneliness, but differences according to residential context (Russell, 2009).

This review had limitations. There was considerable variability of study design, loneliness measures, and sample sizes. This limited our ability to estimate a pooled measure of effectiveness across multiple interventions or to quantitatively compare overall effectiveness between facility- and community-based interventions. Likewise, the variability of intervention types limited our ability to quantitatively evaluate the specific components of the interventions associated with greater or lesser loneliness reduction and so our conclusions regarding optimal features of interventions remain speculative. Lastly, due to limitations of the software used during study screening, we were unable to quantitatively assess reviewer agreement during title and abstract screening. Despite these limitations, strengths included the rigorous search strategy and data-extraction approach, and use of an intervention clustering classification method (Gardiner et al., 2018). These methods allowed for synthesis of findings from multiple intervention and facility types.

In conclusion, the results of this review suggest that despite the inherent challenges of addressing loneliness among older adults in facilities, successful strategies have been developed in a diverse set of settings and populations. The findings demonstrate that, for the most part, current loneliness interventions are effective at reducing loneliness among LTC residents. This may have important implications for the treatment and prevention of loneliness among older adults and may be of particular interest to administrators and other health professionals looking to reduce loneliness among their patients or residents. Our results also suggest that certain types of interventions are particularly effective, indicating that these may be more appropriate in facility settings, where older adults may have greater medical burden, reduced mobility, and potentially less access to technology. Further research about the specific challenges and issues of loneliness intervention implementation in LTC is necessary.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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