Quality of care in long term care facilities in Japan: From both clinical outcomes and consumer's perspectives

日本の介護保険施設におけるケアの質に関する研究

―健康アウトカムと利用者の視点から―

Xueying Jin

金 雪瑩

Doctoral Program in Human Care Science,
Graduate School of Comprehensive Human Sciences,
University of Tsukuba
April 2018

Contents

| Abstract | 4 |
|--|------|
| Abbreviations | 7 |
| Definitions of long-term care facilities | 9 |
| Figures and tables | 11 |
| Chapter 1 Introduction | 14 |
| 1.1 Long-term care facility | 14 |
| 1.2 Quality of care | 15 |
| 1.3 Framework of quality of care measurement | 16 |
| 1.4 Outcome measurement overseas | 17 |
| 1.4.1 Objective quality of care measurement based on clinical outcomes | 17 |
| 1.4.2 Subjective quality of care measurement based on consumers' perspectives | 20 |
| 1.5 Quality of care measurement in long-term care facilities in Japan | 20 |
| 1.5.1 Long-term care insurance system | 20 |
| 1.5.2 Care-need level assessment | 23 |
| 1.5.3 Long-term care facilities under long-term care insurance system | 23 |
| 1.5.4 Government efforts on measuring quality of care | 25 |
| 1.5.5 Outcome assessment using clinical outcome in Japan | 27 |
| 1.5.6 Outcome assessment from consumer's perspectives in Japan | 28 |
| 1.5.7 Care-need level change as a possible outcome indicator | 28 |
| 1.6 Research aims and conceptual framework of thesis | 29 |
| Chapter 2: Quality of care measurement using clinical outcomes | 30 |
| 2.1 Care-need level change rates among facilities: A descriptive analysis using nati | onal |
| level data (Study 1) | 30 |
| 2.1.1 Aim | 30 |
| 2.1.2 Methods | 30 |
| 2.1.3 Results. | 35 |
| 2.1.4 Discussion | 39 |
| 2.2 Overview of literature on associated factors with functional decline in long-term | care |
| facilities | 42 |
| 2.2.1 Factors associated with care-need level deterioration in long-term care | 42 |
| 2.2.2 Factors associated with functional decline in long-term care facilities | 42 |
| 2.3 Resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioratio | n in |

| long-term care welfare facilities in Japan (Study 2) | 45 |
|--|-------------|
| 2.3.1 Aim | 45 |
| 2.3.2 Methods | 45 |
| 2.3.3 Results | 48 |
| 2.3.4 Discussion | 55 |
| 2.4 Resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deter | ioration in |
| long-term care health facilities for the elderly in Japan (Study 3) | 58 |
| 2.4.1 Aim | 58 |
| 2.4.2 Methods | 58 |
| 2.4.3 Results | 61 |
| 2.4.4 Discussion | 67 |
| 2.5 Discussion of facility effect on residents care-need level deterioration | 71 |
| Chapter 3: Quality of care measurement from consumer's perspectives | 73 |
| 3.1 Literature review of resident satisfaction instruments | 73 |
| 3.2 Development of a satisfaction survey in Long term care health facilities in Ja | pan: Based |
| on the Ohio Department of Aging-Resident Satisfaction Survey (Study 4) | 78 |
| 3.2.1 Aims | 78 |
| 3.2.2 Method | 78 |
| 3.2.3 Results | 83 |
| 3.2.4 Discussion | 87 |
| Chapter 4: Overall discussion and conclusion | 90 |
| 4.1 Overall discussion | 90 |
| 4.2 Conclusion | 95 |
| 4.3 Author contributions | 96 |
| Acknowledgements | 97 |
| References | 98 |
| Annendix | 105 |

Abstract

Since the implementation of the long term care insurance system, older adults have been able to choose their facility freely and choose among various types of providers, such as NPOs and private companies, which have emerged in the long term care market in Japan. This has led to disparities in quality among long-term care facilities. The Japanese government, providers and researchers have attempted to evaluate quality of care in long-term care facilities. However, most quality assessment tools have been focused on structure and process, and outcome assessment is not yet well documented.

Overseas reviews reported that there are two kinds of outcome assessments of quality of care. One is objective assessments which focus on medical and clinical outcomes such as ADL (activities of daily living) or mortality and the other is subjective assessments which are based on consumers' perceptions such as customer's feedback or satisfaction. In Japan, there is little research applying clinical outcomes to measure quality of care and none have developed satisfaction survey by examining psychometric measure for long-term care facilities. Therefore, the aim of the study is to measure the quality of care in long-term care facilities from both a clinical outcome and consumer perspective.

Care-need level is determined by municipalities strictly based on assessment of physical and mental status. This thesis uses changes in assessed care-need level as an outcome indictor because previous studies showed strong correlation between ADL and care-need level. By taking advantage of nationally standardized assessment of care-need level, study 1 was conducted to describe the status of quality of care by calculating a risk-adjusted care-need level deterioration rate, sustainment rate and improvement rate among all long-term care welfare facilities. Among the three outcome indicators, care-need level deterioration rate was considered to be more straightforward to identify problematic facility. Study1 aimed to grasp the simple situation of the care-need level deterioration in national level to see the possibility to apply it as outcome assessment. Studies 2 and 3 were conducted to investigate resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration in long-term care welfare facilities (study 2) and long-term care health facilities (study 3) respectively.

Quality of care measures based on clinical outcome are often criticized for lack of consumers' view which could help providers to clarify consumers' desired service. Especially in Japan, taking the consumers' perspective when providing care is a common goal and vision for long-term care facilities. Therefore, study 4 was conducted to develop a resident satisfaction survey in long-term care health facilities which includes testing validity and reliability.

The obtained findings showed that there are variety of care-need level change rates among all long-term care welfare facilities. Moreover, facility level factors of metropolitan location were consistently negatively associated with care-need level deterioration in both long-term care welfare and long-term care health facilities. Several facility characteristics had an effect in different settings. Among long-term care welfare facilities, facilities with unit care type, fewer year in business, higher proportion of registered nurses among all nurses and higher proportion of registered dietitians among all dietitians were less likely to have residents with care-need level deterioration. In long-term care health facilities, facilities with higher percentage of private rooms, fewer licensed practice nurses per 100 users and fewer doctors per 100 users were less likely to deteriorate in care-need level. The findings from developing the satisfaction survey indicated good construct validity and reliability for 7 domains: "activities", "employee relations", "communication", "rehabilitation", "meals", "employee responsiveness", "resident environment".

In conclusion, distribution of adjusted care-need level change rate among all facilities were varied in wide range (0 to 58.3%) and this distribution could be useful to find out possibly problematic facility. However, bias due to exclusion of residents for preventing ceiling effect and floor effect should be considered in the future study. Multi-level analyses of both resident and facility effects were found to be significant in this thesis and those associated risk factors could be used as documentation for a quality improvement program. The satisfaction survey was developed using a psychometric test. This survey could be a useful tool to provide information to consumers for them to select a facility of their choice. However, one of the challenges of the present satisfaction survey used in this thesis is that it needs to be modified for eventual

nationwide use. Despite of these limitations, this thesis is the first to analyze quality of care in long-term care facilities at a national level, and the first to develop a resident satisfaction survey in long-term care facilities in Japan.

Abbreviations

ADL Activities of daily living

AL Assisted living facilities

ALRSS Assisted living resident satisfaction scale

CLSDR Care-need level specific deterioration rates

CFA Confirmatory factor analysis

CFI Comparative fit index

EFA Exploratory factor analysis

IOM Institute of medicine

IFI Incremental fit index

LPN Licensed Practical Nurse

LTCI long-term care insurance

LTCICD Long term care insurance claims data

LTCWF Long-term care welfare facility

LTCHF Long-term care health facility

LTCMF Long-term care medical facility

MDS Minimum data set

MHLW Ministry of Health Labour, welfare

NH Nursing homes

ODA-RSS Ohio department of aging-resident satisfaction survey

OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

ONHRSS Ohio nursing home resident satisfaction survey

OR Odds ratio

OT Occupational therapist;

PT Physical therapist

QI Quality indicator

RAC Residential aged care

RC Residential care facilities

Ref. Reference

RN Register nurses

RSQ Resident satisfaction questionnaire

RSI Resident satisfaction index

RAC Residential aged care

SES Social economic status

SNHI Satisfaction with nursing home instrument

SPO Structure-process-outcome

ST Speech therapist

USA United States of America

WAM NET Welfare and medical service network system

Definitions of long-term care facilities

Long-term care facilities (OECD definition)

Long-term care facilities refer to nursing and residential care facilities which provide accommodation and long-term care as a package. They include specially designed institutions or hospital-like settings where the predominant service component is long-term care and the services are provided for people with moderate to severe functional restrictions.

Nursing home

(Operational definition of long-term care facilities in this study; Sanford et al. 2015)

A nursing home is a facility with a domestic-styled environment that provides 24-hour functional support and care for persons who require assistance with ADLs and who often have complex health needs and increased vulnerability. Residency within a nursing home may be relatively brief for respite purposes, short term (rehabilitative), or long term, and may also provide palliative/hospice and end-of-life care.

Types of long-term care facilities in USA

(Citied from Department of Health and Human Services)

Nursing homes

Nursing homes, also called skilled nursing facilities, provide a wide range of health and personal care services. Their services focus on medical care more than most assisted living facilities. These services typically include nursing care, 24-hour supervision, three meals a day, and assistance with everyday activities. Rehabilitation services, such as physical, occupational, and speech therapy, are also available.

Some people stay at a nursing home for a short time after being in the hospital. After they recover, they go home. However, most nursing home residents live there permanently because they have ongoing physical or mental conditions that require constant care and supervision.

Assisted living/Residential care facilities

Assisted living is for people who need help with daily care, but not as much help as a nursing home provides. Assisted living residents usually live in their own apartments or rooms and share common areas. They have access to many services, including up to three meals a day; assistance with personal care; help with medications, housekeeping, and laundry; 24-hour supervision, security, and on-site staff; and social and recreational activities. Exact arrangements vary from state to state.

Figures and tables

Figures

- Figure 1. SPO systems model of nursing care quality in nursing homes.
- Figure 2. Conceptual framework of thesis and research aim
- Figure 3. Diagram of flow of the selection participants (Study 1)
- Figure 4. Care-need level deterioration rate by sex (N=1732)
- Figure 5. Participant flow chart diagram (Study 2)
- Figure 6. Participant selection flow diagram (Study 3)
- Figure 7. Descriptive of contents of resident satisfaction survey in long-term care health facilities in Japan.
- Figure 8. Results of studies combining with SPO system model

Tables

- Table 1 Quality monitoring and use of quality indicators in seven countries.
- Table 2. Difference between previous system and present LTCI system
- Table 3. Characteristics of long-term care insurance facilities
- Table 4. Quality of care measurement in long-term care services
- Table 5. Basic characteristics of study facilities in October 2012
- Table 6. Care-need level-change at individual level and adjusted care need level change at facility level
- Table 7. Positively associated resident and facility characteristics with functional decline
- Table 8. Descriptive analysis of the resident and facility characteristics at baseline and the care-need level deterioration in the one year follow-up.
- Table 9. Unadjusted logistic regression of the care-need level deterioration for the resident and facility characteristics
- Table 10. Facility and resident characteristics associated with the care-need level deterioration: results of the multilevel logistic regression analysis
- Table 11. Facility and resident characteristics associated with the care-need level deterioration in traditional type facilities: results of the multilevel logistic regression analysis
- Table 12. Descriptive analysis of the dependent and independent variables from Oct. 2012
- Table 13. Unadjusted logistic regression of care-need level deterioration for resident and facility characteristics.
- Table 14. Facility and resident characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration
- Table 15. Facility and resident characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration by private room users and shared room users
- Table 16. Resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration: results from study 2 and 3.
- Table 17. General information of instruments included in the literature review

Table 18. Characteristics of participants

Table 19. Confirmatory factor analysis model fit statistics for satisfaction survey

Table 20. Correlation of scales with overall satisfaction

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Long-term care facility

Definition of long-term care facilities

There is no international agreed definition of long-term care facility. One of the most commonly used by countries is defined by OECD¹:

"Long-term care facilities refer to nursing and residential care facilities which provide accommodation and long-term care as a package. They include specially designed institutions or hospital-like settings where the predominant service component is long-term care and the services are provided for people with moderate to severe functional restrictions."

However, with this definition it is difficult to understand the details of what kind of users reside in and what kind of services are provided in long-term care facilities.

Operational definition in this study

There is often confusion in distinguishing the terms long-term care facilities and nursing homes. An international definition for "Nursing Home" was established by one current study after conducting survey in 17 countries.²

"A nursing home is a facility with a domestic-styled environment that provides 24-hour functional support and care for persons who require assistance with ADLs and who often have complex health needs and increased vulnerability. Residency within a nursing home may be relatively brief for respite purposes, short term (rehabilitative), or long term, and may also provide palliative/hospice and end-of-life care".²

Among the 17 countries, 15 countries including Japan had agreements of consideration of nursing home as long-term care facilities. This study applied the international definition of nursing home to long-term care facility for better understanding the function of long-term care facilities.

Demand of long-term care facilities

Longer life expectancy combined with declining fertility rates have produced rapid growth in the elderly population around the world. According to the United States Census Bureau, the proportion of the elderly (65 years old or more) was 7% in 2015,

however, the proportion will increase to 16.9% by 2050. The share of the older population will exceed 21% in 94 countries, including 39 countries with 28% or more of their total population being older.³

As humans age, their physical and mental abilities start to decline. One study reported that 24% of the total elderly needs some long-term care assistance.⁴ Elderly are more likely to experience functional decline and this is associated with needing subsequent long-term care. Long-term care users generally prefer to receive service at home, however, depending individual circumstance, long-term care facilities can be a better option for the elderly particularly if they are living alone or requiring round the clock care and supervision⁵ or people living in remote areas with limited home-care support.¹

Nowadays, demand for long-term care facilities remains high in OECD countries.⁶ Furthermore, the shortage of registered nurses has increased pressure on long-term care services.^{6, 7} Countries have long-term care systems bound to their own culture, history and financial circumstance but virtually all developed nations facing the challenges of limitless demand within the context of finite resources and are struggling to bridge the quality gap in long-term care facilities.^{8, 9}

1.2 Quality of care

There are numerous definitions of quality of care. In earlier times, Donabedian mentioned that quality of care is the kind of care which is expected to maximize an inclusive measure of patient welfare, after one has taken account of the balance of expected gains and losses that attend the process of care in all its parts.¹⁰

Recently, definition of quality of care from the Institute of Medicine (IOM) was well-cited: "Quality of care is the degree to which health services provided to individuals and patient populations improve desired health outcomes and are consistent with current professional knowledge".¹¹

Harries-Kojetin and Stone mentioned that customer satisfaction represents a valuable subjective measure of quality of care that is different from, yet complementary to, that generated from service providers or more objective clinical indicators.¹²

Therefore, quality of care should also focus on non-medical outcomes such as satisfaction and feedback from customer perspective which is essential to understanding what services they desire.

1.3 Framework of quality of care measurement

Donabedian's SPO model and SPO systems model of nursing care quality in nursing homes

With regard to quality of care assessment, Avedis Donabedian was called as father of quality assurance by developing structure-process-outcome (SPO) quality model. ¹³ In the SPO model, structure measures are the professional and organizational resources associated with the provision of care. Process measures are the characteristics of things done to and for the residents. Outcome measures are the desired states one would (or would not) like to achieve for the resident. ¹³ The SPO model is widely supported by researchers, ¹⁴⁻¹⁹ however, SPO originally were not developed specially for nursing homes and some have questioned its suitability for this setting. ^{15, 20} Unruh and Wang (2004) ¹⁶ developed a SPO systems model of nursing care quality in nursing home through a review of frameworks of nursing home and empirical studies regarding associated variables with quality of care. Figure 1 presents what kind of factors associated with quality of care. According to Unruh and Wang (2004) ¹⁶, quality of care were associated with both structure, process characteristics and resident characteristics. They also mentioned that contextual factors which presents external environment such as political contexts have indirect effect to quality of care.

According to Donabedian, outcome indicators are considered more stringent quality indicators than structural or process indicators because deviations from appropriate care should influence residents' health outcome. ¹³ In addition, Spector and Mukamel (1998) mentioned that outcome measures should be used more to improve care. Therefore, this thesis determined to focus on outcome measures.

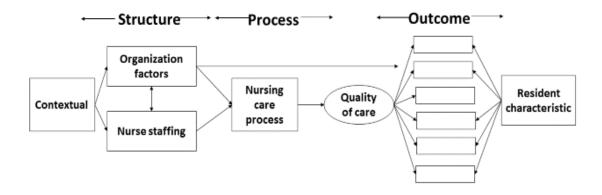


Figure 1. SPO systems model of nursing care quality in nursing homes. ¹⁶

1.4 Outcome measurement overseas

Outcome measures reflect the impact of health care services or interventions on the health status of patients.²¹ The narrower term of outcome measure refers to the population's change of the health status through the care they have received.¹⁰ Objective assessment using clinical outcome such as physical function, were supported by researchers to measure the change of the health status in previous studies.²²⁻²⁷ Broad term of outcome measure included subjective assessment of consumer's perspectives¹⁰ such as consumer's satisfaction, complaints, health-related quality of life which shared common feature of subjective assessment.^{12, 18, 28-30}

1.4.1 Objective quality of care measurement based on clinical outcomes Quality indicators (QIs)

QI are quantitative measures reflecting a professional care standard which can be used as guides to monitor and evaluate the quality of important patient care and support service activities.³¹ QIs are used as a surrogate measure for quality of care and could be measured from three domains: structure, process and outcome.⁹

Brief history of quality measurement in long-term care facilities

The origin and development of nursing home quality come from government supervision through requirements of licensure to open nursing home facilities. In 1961, United States of America first studied nursing home state licensures after problems were

being reported by the Commission on Chronic Illness and by a number of states. 32 The Public Health Service issued a Nursing Home Standards Guide with 77 health and safety standard recommendations. Only structural QI was recommended at that time.³³ In 1977, the Health Care Financing Administration were created in US and continued to develop standards of certification. By 1987, health and safety standards were increased to 98 structural indicator and 38 process indicator. 15, 32 The significant influence of outcome indicator has come from Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act (OBRA) in 1987. The IOM report recommended that nursing home regulations should be refocused and to move from assessment of structure and process to an assessment of outcomes. 15 The Resident Assessment Instrument / Minimum Data Set (RAI/MDS) was created and forms a core tool in quality monitoring today. The MDS records information about resident's strengths and needs and thereafter to help staff evaluate goal achievement and revise care plans.³⁴⁻³⁶ The MDS includes a clinical assessment of over 400 items including demographics and medical condition and so on. QIs are calculated by aggregating resident level clinical data to the facility level which are then used for monitoring improving quality improvement.^{27, 36} Following its implementation in USA, a number of other country such as Canada, Switzerland and Finland have applied MDS to monitor quality of care. 9, 37

Nursing home QIs among 7 countries

One previous study has provided an overview of nursing home QIs from 7 nations ⁹ (USA, Australia, Norway, New Zealand, England, Sweden and Denmark) to shown the state of art regarding sensitivity of nursing home quality assessment. They reported that, except for Sweden, all of the study countries undertake nationally standardized assessment of patient before admission to nursing home. (Table 1) Among those countries, only USA had systematically developed QIs on the basis of resident assessments and tested reliability.⁹

Table 1 Quality monitoring and use of QIs in seven countries.

| Country | Patient admission assessment | QI for monitoring nursing home care in use (No. of QI) | Quality monitoring systems for nursing homes | Legal rules or regulations |
|-----------------|---|---|---|--|
| USA | Resident Assessment Instrument-Min imum Data Set (RAI-MDS) | National QI derived from RAI-MDS (24 QI) | Accreditation by Joint Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Organizations (QI, observations and external audits) | Omnibus Budget and Reconciliation Act (OBRA) 1987 and the Federal Nursing Home Reform Act 1987 |
| Australia | Aged Care Assessment Program (ACAP) | Aged Care Standards (4 standards with 44 indicators for expected outcomes) | Accreditation by the Aged Care Standards and Accreditation Agency | Aged Care Act 1997 |
| Norway | [IPLOS] Individual care needs data set | Derived from KOSTRA (national reporting, published on Bedrekommune.no) (5 QI) | Norwegian Board of Health Supervision, Supervision of health and social services | Municipal Health Service Act 1985 and the Social Service Act 1990 |
| New Zealand | National needs assessment | Health and Disability Sector Standards for Ministry of Health Certification (6 outcomes with 42 standards) | Certification by the Ministry of Health. Certification audits by auditing agency (legal requirements met) | Health and Disability Services (Safety) Act 2001. Health and Disability Services (Safety) Hospital Care, Residential Disability Care and Rest Home Care Standards Notice 2002 |
| UK (England) | Single Assessment Process (SAP) Minimum Data Set for Health Care in UK (MDS HC) | Standards for Care Homes for Older People (38 standards) | The Commission for Social Care Inspection (CSCI) inspection reports including rating 0–5 stars (38 standards). Self-assessment Annually reported to CSCI (38 standards) | Care Standard Act 2000, National Minimum Standards Care Homes for Older People |
| Sweden | [SAMSPRA° K] (Shared language) (not used nationally) | - | Health care supervision boards. Internal audits | Social Services Act 1982 and the Health and Medical Services Act 1983 |
| Denmark | [Fællessprog] (shared language) | Local standards (varying number of QI derived) | Inspections by local senior public physician | Social Service Act 1997 |

Source: Nakrem et al. (2009). Nursing sensitive quality indicators for nursing home care:

International review of literature, policy, and practice. International Journal of Nursing Studies

1.4.2 Subjective quality of care measurement based on consumers' perspectives

Objective QIs using clinical outcome are often criticized for a lack of "human voice". ¹⁵ From the perspective of regarding residents as a consumer who decides what service they need, consumer's assessment of service, such as satisfaction ratings, should be an important outcome measure. ^{38, 39}

Documents regarding resident satisfaction reported mainly in late 1990s to early 2000s. ^{29, 39-46} Castle (2007) conducted systemic review on satisfaction surveys in long-term care settings. ²⁹ 50 studies which have used and developed satisfaction instruments in long-term care settings were analyzed. He reported that satisfaction survey instruments varied greatly in numerous ways including contents of items, assessment of psychometric properties and number of total items and domains used. ²⁹ Castle maintains that a good, standardized instrument on a survey should have sample with representative of population, internal consistency reliability, test-retest reliability, internal reliability and construct validity. ²⁹ Although none of the surveys had satisfied all the standardized condition, he mentioned that Ohio satisfaction instruments handled the problem of reliability and validity. In 2007, Straker et al. developed resident satisfaction survey by rigorous psychometric testing (internal consistency reliability, test-retest reliability and construct validity) with a total of 869 of the 956 nursing homes in Ohio. ²⁸

1.5 Quality of care measurement in long-term care facilities in Japan

1.5.1 Long-term care insurance system

In 2000, Japanese government implemented long-term care insurance (LTCI) system. The aim of the system is to establish a system which responds to society's major concerns about aging, the care provision problem, whereby citizens can be assured that they will receive care and be supported by society as a whole.⁴⁷ The difference between previous system and LTCI system is shown in Table 2.

Since the system changed, there has been a considerable increase in the number of long-term care facility service users. The number of facility service users were 520,000 in 2000 and now it was increased to 890,000 in 2013.⁴⁸ With the new policies under LTCI System and expansion of the care market, the following reasons have led to increased interest in and necessity of quality of care measure in long-term care.

- ① Since LTCI users have become able to choose the type of services and facilities, the need for information about facility such as quality of care has increased.
- ② Various associations, such as private companies and NPOs, have entered into the care market and this has brought disparities in quality of care.⁴⁹
- (3) With the transition to a 'super aging society', the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) reported that approximately 18.2% of facility were experiencing staff shortage.⁵⁰ How to assure quality of care under limited human resource were currently discussed.⁵¹
- ④ In 2013, the Long-Term Care Benefit Expenses was increased to 9.4 trillion, reaching the highest outlay ever.⁵² Considering the huge amount of public expenditure, a national check on the quality of care is essential.⁴⁹

Table 2. Difference between previous system and present LTCI system

| previous system | LTCI system | | | |
|--|---|--|--|--|
| ① Municipal governments decided | Users themselves can choose services | | | |
| services, after users' application. | and service providers. | | | |
| ② Separated applications were required for | By making use plans of care service | | | |
| each service of medical and welfare | (Care Plan), integrated medical and | | | |
| systems. | welfare services can be utilized. | | | |
| ③ Services were provided mainly by | Services are provided by various | | | |
| municipal governments and other public | associations such as private companies | | | |
| organizations (e.g. Council of Social | and NPOs, etc. | | | |
| Welfare). | | | | |
| 4 Co-payment was heavy burden for the | Regardless of income, co-payment is set | | | |
| middle/upper income group, which kept | as 10% (20% for persons with income | | | |
| them from applying to services. | above certain level, after August 2015) | | | |

Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare 2016^{53}

1.5.2 Care-need level assessment

Residents who live in long-term care facilities have fulfilled the requirements of the LTCI. All citizens who are aged 65 and over or those who are between the ages of 40 to 64 with health-related disability are eligible to use LTCI. For citizens who apply to their municipality for care-need level assessments, a trained local government official visits the home to evaluate nursing care needs using a nationally standardized questionnaire on current physical and mental status (73 items) and use of medical procedures (12 items). Depending on the amount of care required, the Japanese LTC insurance system consists of 7 eligibility levels, including 2 support levels and 5 care levels. This certification is determined after a judgment screening based on the opinion of a doctor. Support levels 1 or 2 are intended to provide preventive services. In addition to care-need support level, the other five levels of care range from care-need level 1 (less disabled) to care-need level 5 (most disabled) and are eligible to use facility services by the LTCI.⁵⁴ The certificate is available for maximum of two years (one year in principle) for persons who renew the certificates and maximum of one year (6 months in principle) for new LTCI users.⁵⁵ However, users are allowed to re-apply for the care-need level certificate whenever they experienced functional changes, even as within a short period such as one month. Only users with care-need levels 1 to 5 are eligible to use facility services under the LTCI system.⁵⁵

1.5.3 Long-term care facilities under long-term care insurance system

Facility services provided under LTCI system could be classified into three types: Long-term care welfare facilities (LTCWFs), Long-term care health facilities (LTCHFs) and Long-term care medical facilities (LTCMFs). The fundamental function, human resource allocation criteria and the number of facilities are shown in Table 3.

Briefly, the target of users in the three types of facilities are differentiate by medical needs. LTCWF is a living facility provides majority service regarding live, and LTCHF is an intermediary facility between hospitals, homes. LTCMF focused on residents who have high medical needs, however this designation will be abolished before the end of 2023.⁵⁶

Table 3. Characteristics of long-term care insurance facilities

| Facilities | Long-term care Welfare | Long-term care Health | Long-term care Medical | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------|--|--|
| | facility | facility | facility | | |
| Fundamental | Life service for older | Rehabilitation, nursing and/or | Medical and nursing care, | | |
| function | people who require | care to help enable them to | and long-term treatment | | |
| | long-term care | return home | | | |
| Eligible users | People requiring | The elderly whose illness is | For patients requiring | | |
| | long-term care and who | stable and does not require | nursing care, and whose | | |
| | are unable to live at home | hospital treatment yet which | acute-phase treatment is | | |
| | | requires rehabilitation, nursing | over yet require long-term | | |
| | | or care. | recuperation under | | |
| | | | constant medical | | |
| | | | management | | |
| Human | •Physician (either visiting | •Physician (regular employee): | •Physician (regular | | |
| resource | or regular employee): 1 | 1 | employee): 3 | | |
| allocation | •Nurses: 3 | •Nurses: 9 | •Nurses: 17 | | |
| criteria | •Care staff: 31 | •Care staff: 25 | •Care staff: 17 | | |
| | •Care manager: 1 | •Physical therapist, | •Care manager: 1 | | |
| | •Daily life counselors: 1 | occupational therapist, speech | | | |
| | | therapist: 1 | | | |
| | | •Care manager: 1 | | | |
| Number of | 5953 | 3533 | 1711 | | |
| facilities | | | | | |
| Mean length | 1474.9days (1465.1days) | 329.2days (277.6days) | 412.0days (427.2days) | | |
| of stay | | | | | |

Source: Ministry of Health Labour, Welfare, 2002⁵⁷

Japan association of Geriatric Health Facilities⁵⁸

Japan Nursing Association⁵⁹

Mean length of stay: As of Sept. 2010. () indicates 2007 figures

1.5.4 Government efforts on measuring quality of care

Along with the implementation of LTCI system, the government has made efforts to evaluate the quality of facility care services. In 2001, MHLW reported "Third Party Evaluation of welfare service" (DAISANNSYAHYOKA). The core content of the Third Party Evaluation is evaluating the facility service by a third party to ensure an objective perspective. The aim of this evaluation is to 1) grasp problem to improve quality of care 2) provide the facility information to make consumer's choice of facilities broadly. The detail content of third party evaluations of welfare service include vision and policy of facility, leadership and management, service assurance and so on.⁶⁰ The content only included structure and process factors but no issues related to outcome assessment was mentioned. Today, the Third Party Evaluation of welfare service is still being carried out, however, according to the statistics of Japan National Council of Social Welfare, the participation rate of long-term care welfare facility was merely 6.41% in 2017.⁶¹ The reason for low participation rate were expensive commission and too many items contained in the survey.⁴⁹

In 2006, MHLW developed "Welfare and medical service network system (WAM NET)". The purpose of this system is to provide comprehensive information on medical and welfare service for all people. Regarding long-term care facilities, structural and process information such as general information, operation status, number of staff, operation vision are publically available on the internet. However, according to the result of survey for users of WAM NET, the information is mainly used for work requirements (93.6% of the total purpose) and most of the users (93.1% of the total users) are from government or institution related to medical and welfare area. This means insufficient utilization or isolated information of WAM NET for potential long-term care facility users. Another difficulty and concern with the efficient use of this is that the information is too detailed and complex.

In 2014, MHLW summarized long-term care services evaluated by structure and process outcome (table 4) and point out that outcome measurement was yet to be systematically implemented. Later in 2015, MHLW made recommendation that conducting regular check of improvement or sustainment of residents' status using

standardized method is necessary. By now, the efforts to introduce outcome assessment to LTCI based on resident health status are underway.

Table 4. Quality of care measurement in long-term care services

| | Structure | | Process | | Outcome |
|---------------------------------|-----------|---------------------|---------|----------------------|--------------|
| Specified criteria for | • | human resource | • | Standards for | None |
| long-term care | | allocation criteria | | operating/ | |
| facility/providers | • | Standards for | | management | |
| | | equipment | | | |
| Guidance and Inspection | • | Inspection in | • | Guidance of | None |
| in long-term care | | human resource | | operation (guidance | |
| facility/providers | | allocation criteria | | of care management | |
| | | | | process) | |
| Welfare and medical | • | Status of | • | Status of efforts in | |
| service network system | | equipment | | quality assurance | |
| | • | Status of staff | | | |
| Evaluation based on care | • | Additional charge | • | Rehabilitation | • Additional |
| compensation | | for facility | | management | charge for |
| | | policies | | additional charge | high home |
| | | | | | return rate |

Source: Ministry of Health Labour, Welfare 2014

1.5.5 Outcome assessment using clinical outcome in Japan

Difficulty in applying outcome assessment in national level in Japan

Under guidance of nationally standardized MDS outcome QI assessment, Yamada and Ikekami (2004)²⁴ tried to develop outcome assessment based on MDS and applied Morries et al⁶⁴ risk adjustment method to Long-term care facilities. They assessed residents' health status regularly for at least once in 4 months and calculated the proportion of the resident who had experience of categorized clinical outcome including falls, ADL decline, and incontinence and so on. The resident level QIs were aggregated across all residents in a facility to define facility-level QIs such as fall incidence rate and prevalence of ulcers.⁶⁴ The values of these facility-level QIs are risk adjusted on the basis of covariates resulting from logistic regression analysis on each of the QIs.⁶⁵ About QI of ADL decline, although USA didn't used risk-adjustment, mean ADL of the new admitted residents were used as covariates in the Japanese study.²⁴ In general, result showed useful of the outcome assessment, however, there are difficulty of enhancing the outcome assessment to national level.²⁴ Thus, using aforementioned clinical outcome measurement to describe the status of quality of care among all facilities is inapplicable. In other words, if possible, it seems more practical to apply existing nationally assessed clinical outcome to describe the status of quality of care among all facilities.

Exploring facility characteristics associated with outcome indicators

One study⁶⁶ used clinical outcome of falls, pressure ulcers and dehydrations by calculating the proportion of residents of a facility that have one or more for each outcome. Facility with good performance (the first quartile) and not so good performance (the remaining 75%) was determined. Then, facility characteristics associated with good performance was investigated. This was the first study which try to explore facility characteristics associated with outcome indicator, however, facility was the unit of analysis, and it failed to control resident characteristics⁶⁶ which influence outcome especially when nursing homes are not captured in case mix.¹⁶ Furthermore, the subjects of previous study represented only a 3% of the total of facility users which remained doubt about generalizability.⁶⁶

1.5.6 Outcome assessment from consumer's perspectives in Japan

Outcome assessments from the consumer's perspectives were conducted in several facilities using resident satisfaction survey. However, the contents of the surveys varied a lot and contained abstract questions such as "Are you satisfied with our service?" or "Please let us know if you have an opinion for improving the quality of care". The report was limited to show the percentage of each answer and no argument or explanation was about how to improve the care based on their results. 49 Moreover, none of the survey was validated.

Research regarding development of resident satisfaction surveys for care services were focused on home help services⁶⁷ and LTCI service.⁶⁸ None of the resident satisfaction on facility service was developed by researchers. In this regard, to provide comparable information of resident satisfaction among facilities, a validated survey is necessary.

In summary, outcome assessment of quality of care in Japanese facilities is still in the trial period. The government has not taken practical action to set standardized outcome indicators.⁶⁹ Researchers have attempted to develop Japanese version of MDS but this failed to spread to the national level.²⁴ Exploring facility characteristics associates with quality of care is sparsely documented.⁶⁶ On the other hand, existing resident satisfaction survey based on consumer's perspectives have not yet been validated.⁷⁰

1.5.7 Care-need level change as a possible outcome indicator

National standardized QI are used in countries such as USA, Australia, Norway, New Zealand and play an important role in certification and funding. The USA has developed twenty four QIs and those are used for guiding care planning and monitoring for residents in long-term care settings. Among QIs, two indicators are related to status change in physical functioning: incidence of decline in late loss ADLs, incidence of decline in range of motion. Likewise, in Japan, concerning clinical outcome related to physical functioning, care-need level change could be a possible outcome indicator because care-need level is strongly related to ADL. Furthermore, several Japanese studies have used changes in care-need level as an outcome indicator to investigated

long-term care services.⁷²⁻⁷⁶ It is therefore this thesis focuses on care-need level change to measure quality of care in long-term care facilities.

1.6 Research aims and conceptual framework of thesis

The aim of this thesis is to measure quality of care in long-term care facilities from both clinical outcomes and consumer's perspectives. This thesis aims to answer the following three questions. "What is the status of quality of care among all long-term care facilities?", "What facility characteristics works on quality of care?", "What domains are comprised in resident satisfaction?"

Thus, the specific aims are:

- ① To describe the status of quality of care among facilities by applying care-need level change as an outcome indicator (**Study 1**)
- ② To determine what resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration (**Study 2** focused on LTCWFs, **Study 3** focused on LTCHFs)
- ③ To develop reliable and validated resident satisfaction survey. (**Study 4**) Figure 2 shows the conceptual framework and research aims of this thesis.

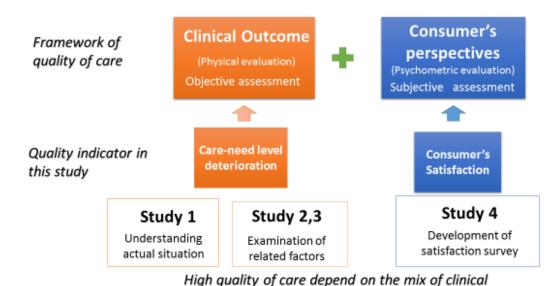


Figure 2. Conceptual framework of thesis and research aim

outcomes and consumer's perspectives.

Chapter 2: Quality of care measurement using clinical outcomes

2.1 Care-need level change rates among facilities: A descriptive analysis using national level data (Study 1)

2.1.1 Aim

To describe the status of quality of care among all facilities by applying an outcome indicator, in terms of care-need level change.

2.1.2 Methods

Long term care claims data

One study was performed with using primary data in limited facilities. 66 However, the subjects represented only a 3% of the total of facility users. This casts a shadow of uncertainty regarding the generalizability of that study. Secondary long-term care insurance claims data (LTCICD) could be an effective research tool, because it records some basic functional conditions and the usage of long-term care services. Having an accurate and updated functional record for users could provide the users with functional change records to understand quality of care. So far, LTCICD is the best option because other secondary data, such as care-need level assessment data, specific health examination data and medical claims data, cannot be linked to the information of residents with facilities at a national level.

Study design and participants

This study used national care monthly claims data of LTCI from October 2012 to October 2013. The care claims data included demographic information on sex, age and the latest certified care-need level status. The sample flow chart is shown in figure 3. Among the 4021 facilities and 389350 residents who have a care-need level record and were admitted to a special nursing home from October 2012 to October 2013, 93466 residents were excluded because they had no information about care-need level by October 2013. This study also excluded 7105 residents who lived in a facility for a period shorter than 1 year because they do not provide enough information for detecting

level-change. In the next step, 35700 residents who stayed in facilities where the operations started less than 1 year since opening by October 2012 were excluded because of concerns regarding the instability of quality of care in recently opened facilities. Finally, 3628 residents from facilities where the number of residents as less than 30 people were excluded. The final study participants were 245858 residents in 2935 facilities.

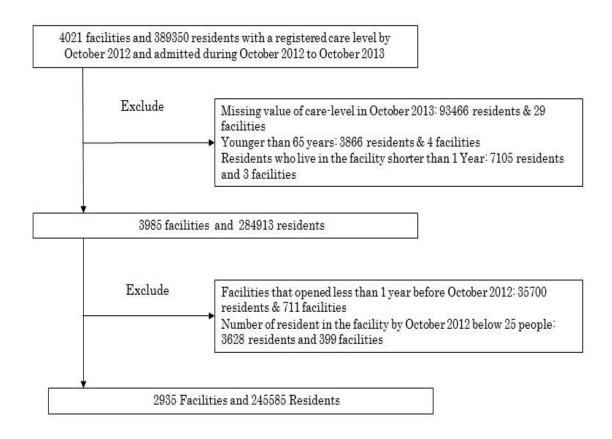


Figure 3. Diagram of flow of the selection participants (Study 1)

Facility care-need level change rate

In USA, QIs are calculated by aggregating resident clinical outcome to facility level.^{24,} ⁷⁷ QI, in raw form, are fractions derived from a numerator (number of residents with a particular outcome) and a denominator (number of residents at risk for the outcome).³⁶ Following above-mentioned calculation, this study applied resident care-need level change to calculate facility level outcome indicator of care-need level change rate.

Three outcome indicators of care-need level improvement rate, care-need level sustainment rate and care-need level deterioration rate in one year was calculated in the first step. For example, care-need level deterioration rate in this study is, the number of residents who experienced care-need level deterioration divided by the total number of residents in that facility.

Risk adjustment

Adjustment for clinical risk factors of residents could produce fairer comparisons of facilities quality of care, because some resident clinical factors increase the risk of adverse outcomes independently of quality of care.^{27, 36} In this study there is only one clinical outcome of care-need level and it was used for risk adjustment.

There are two main approaches of stratification and standardization are mainly used in long-term care facilities.³⁶ Stratification involves the identification of discrete risk-groups and computing facility level outcome indicators separately within each group (strata).³⁶ However, when there are many groups being compared, this may not be a viable option and in such case, researchers should prefer standardization.⁷⁸ Compared to stratifying residents to five care-need level groups, this study decided to use standardization adjustment⁷⁹ to create a single risk-adjusted rate for each facility.

Indirect standardization is used when there is no data about group specific rate (care-need level deterioration rate in each care-need level) in one or two populations being compared (i.e. facilities).⁸⁰ Since the aforementioned information is available for calculations, this study determined to apply direct standardization.

Floor and ceiling effects

Residents who were at care-need level 5 at base line could not deteriorate anymore because this is the highest care-need level and may cause a ceiling effect. This study focused on care-need levels 1 to 4 for the analysis of deterioration rates. By contrast, care-need level 1 could improve to care-need level 0 (support level), but in this study, no subjects of care-need level 0 was included because special nursing home care claims data, in which care-need level 1 to care-need level 5 are eligible for LTCI facilities. This causes a floor effect in care-need level 1, and we focused on care-need levels 2 to 5 for the analysis of improvement rates. Therefore, the sustainment rates for care-need level 1

and care-need level 5 were overestimated in this study.

Statistical analysis

The formula of the calculation is applied from Lester and Klein (1995) which conduced age-specific mortality using direct standarzation.⁷⁹ Three researchers and I discussed about the stratification strategy, and all the calculation were performed by me.

When care-need level adjusted deterioration rates are calculated in one facility, the care-need levels are aggregated into i=1, 2, 3, 4, 5 care-need level groups. Let

 d_i

= the number of care-need level deteriorated residents in October 2013 compared to October 2012 in i care-need level group.

 p_i = the number of residents in the i care-need level group in 2012.

The total number of care-need level deteriorated residents in a facility is

$$d = \sum_{i} d_{i}$$

The total resident number of a facility is

$$p = \sum_{i} p_i$$

Care-need level specific deterioration rates are defined as

Care — need level specific deterioration rates

 $= \frac{\textit{Number of care level deteriorated residents for care level i}}{\textit{Number of residents in care level i in 2012}}$

$$=\frac{d_i}{pi}=m_i$$

Algebraically, the adjusted rate is a weighted average of the CLSDRs. To compute the care-need level adjusted deterioration rate, the reference facility's care-need level distribution is used to determine a set of weights. Let

 W_i

= proportion of residents with i care-need level among total residents in October 2012

Average number of residents in total facilities

Then, the care-need level adjusted deterioration rate is given by

Care – need level adjusted deterioration rate =
$$\sum_{i} w_{si} * m_{i}$$

The same calculation method was applied for calculating the improvement rate and sustainment rate.

Practical use of care-need level adjusted care-need level change rate

Firstly, the average care-need level change rate among all facilities was calculated. This average could be used as a cutoff-point for good and bad facilities in terms of care-need level change rate.

Secondly, considering the monitoring and detection of problematic facilities, deterioration rates are expected to be a more straightforward way for understanding flagged episodes, rather than using improvement rates or sustainment rates. Internationally, adverse outcome such as falls, becoming more depressed or anxious and late loss of ADL are used more often as QIs.⁹ Thus, this study focused more on deterioration rate and described distribution of care-need level adjusted deterioration rate among all facilities to clarify the status of quality of care.

2.1.3 Results

Characteristics of study facilities in October 2012

Table 5 shows the basic characteristics among study facilities in October 2012. Data were documented in 2935 LTCWFs. The median number of residents was 61, who were living in facilities for one year from October 2012 to October 2013. The majority of the residents are females, with a median female proportion of 82.2% per facility (range 57.0-97.4). The average age is 86.2 years per facility. The distribution of residents by care-need level group per facility is presented in table 5.

Table 5. Basic characteristics of study facilities in October 2012 (n=2,935).

| Characteristics | Median number of residents per facility (Range) | M (SD) or Median per facility | Median of % per facility | Range |
|---------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|
| Sex | | | | |
| Male | 11(1-157) | | 17.8% | (2.6%-44.3%) |
| Female | 49 (17-669) | | 82.2% | (57.0%-97.4%) |
| Age | | 86.2 (1.3) | | |
| Care-need level | | | | |
| Care-need level 1 | 3 (1-38) | | 3.5% | (0.3%-30.3%) |
| Care-need level 2 | 6(1-81) | | 9.1% | (0.8%-33.3%) |
| Care-need level 3 | 13(1-187) | | 21.5% | (2.1%-50.0%) |
| Care-need level 4 | 20(1-318) | | 32.5% | (3.3%-65.4%) |
| Care-need level 5 | 19(1-307) | | 32.3% | (3.2%-88.5%) |
| Number of residents | | 61 | | (25-809) |

Distribution of care-need level change in one year

Table 6 shows the results of care-need level change by care-need level group and sex in one year. Care-need level changes are shown as the care-need level group represented by deterioration rate, sustainment rate, and improvement rate. The deterioration rates by care-need level 1 are fractions derived from a numerator (number of deteriorated residents classified in care-need level 1) and a denominator (number of residents who are classified in care-need level 1 at baseline).

As noted earlier, we used the mean value of the care-need level adjusted deterioration rate, sustainment rate and improvement rate to represent the care-need level adjusted care-need level change in the total facilities.

There was a difference in deterioration between care-need level groups. The higher the care-need level, the less deterioration. Female residents showed more deterioration than males in every care-need level group. By contrast, the higher the care-need level, the higher the improvement rate and sustainment rate. After adjustment by care-need level, the deterioration rate for the total facilities was 15.9% on average. Additionally, 75.4% of residents experienced a sustained status, and 7.1% of the residents improved.

Table 6. Care-need level-change at individual level and adjusted care need level change at facility level

| | | Total residents | | | | | Male residents | | | | | Female residents | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--------|-----------------|--------|---------|-------|--------|----------------|--------------------------------|---------|--------|--------|------------------|--------|-------|----------------------------------|---------|--------|--------|-------|--------|------|
| | | deterio | ration | sustair | nment | improv | ement | | deterio | ration | sustai | nment | improv | ement | | deterio | ration | sustai | nment | improv | emer |
| Care-need level in October 2012 | N | N | % | N | % | N | % | Total number of male residents | N | % | N | % | N | % | Total number of female residents | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| Individual Level | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| care-need level 1 | 8278 | 2899 | 35.0 | 5379 | 65.0 | | | 1718 | 567 | 33.0 | 1151 | 67.0 | | | 6560 | 2332 | 35.6 | 4228 | 64.5 | | |
| care-need level 2 | 23156 | 7099 | 30.7 | 14616 | 63.1 | 1441 | 6.2 | 4866 | 1377 | 28.3 | 3176 | 65.3 | 313 | 6.4 | 18290 | 5722 | 31.3 | 11440 | 62.6 | 1128 | 6.2 |
| care-need level 3 | 53079 | 14456 | 27.2 | 35171 | 66.3 | 3452 | 6.5 | 11108 | 2623 | 23.6 | 7695 | 69.3 | 790 | 7.1 | 41971 | 11833 | 28.2 | 27476 | 65.5 | 2662 | 6.3 |
| care-need level 4 | 80573 | 14844 | 18.4 | 59845 | 74.3 | 5884 | 7.3 | 14518 | 2383 | 16.4 | 10842 | 74.7 | 1293 | 8.9 | 66055 | 12461 | 18.9 | 49003 | 74.2 | 4591 | 7.0 |
| care-need level 5 | 80499 | | | 74113 | 92.1 | 6386 | 7.9 | 11849 | | | 10656 | 89.9 | 1193 | 10.1 | 68650 | | | 63457 | 92.4 | 5193 | 7.6 |
| Facility Level | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Care-need level adjusted rate per facility | 245585 | | 15.9 | | 75.4 | | 7.1 | 44059 | | 12.3 | | 71.3 | | 7.7 | 201526 | | 16.1 | | 75.0 | | 6.8 |

Sub-analysis of care-need level adjusted deterioration rate by sex

Figure 4 shows the distribution of care-need level adjusted deterioration rates by sex. To avoid a small sample size to compensate for a possible bias, we selected facilities with 10 or more male and female residents. Finally, 1723 facilities remained and a significantly higher deterioration in female residents was observed compared to male residents (p<0.001).

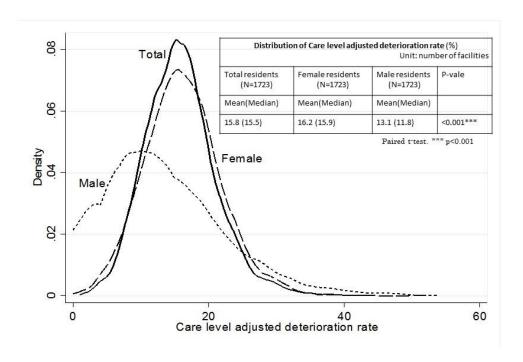


Figure 4. Care-need level deterioration rate by sex (N=1732)

2.1.4 Discussion

This study was conducted to describe the status regarding quality of care, by applying an outcome indicator of care-need level. There are three outcome indicators to consider regarding change in care-need level: (i) care-need level adjusted deterioration rate, (ii) care-need level adjusted sustainment rate, and (iii) care-need level adjusted improvement rate.

Most of the residents in LTCWFs are female (82.2% per facility), and nearly 85% of the residents are care-need levels 3 to 5. This study found that the lower the care-need level, the more deterioration occurred. More than one third of patients in care-need level 1 deteriorated. By contrast, the higher the care-need level, the higher the improvement rate. This result differs with a previous study, which reported that the most severe deterioration occurred within the care-need level 2 group. The previous study was focused on the elderly who use home care services; however, the current study analyzed facility residents. These differences, such as subjects or services (home service & facility service) they receive, may be related to different changes in care-need levels. Further studies should explore this.

After adjusted by care-need level, the deterioration rate for the total of facilities was 15.9% on average, with 75.4% of residents experiencing sustainment and 7.1% of residents improving. The deterioration rate of facility varied from 0% to 58.3%. This broad distribution range of care-need level adjusted deterioration rates among all facilities could have practical uses for evaluating quality of care. The highest value of 58.3% indicates the highest level of deterioration that took place and might be indicative of a problematic facility. The average rate of 15.9% could be cutoff point of possibly less problematic facilities (15.9% or lower) and possibly more problematic facilities (higher than 15.9%). In Japan, there are several outcome assessments that take place in the long-term care reimbursement system. For example, additional reimbursement to facilities that have a high success of discharge of residents to their homes.⁶⁹ However, it is available only for long-term care health facilities which already aim to help users to return home and the case mix of facility residents was not considered. Thus, a care-need adjusted deterioration rate is conceptually superior to the

aforementioned outcome assessments, because it could be applied to all types of long-term care facilities and adjusted by the residents' status. In the USA, facility level QIs were used to determine high or low quality of care⁹ and QIs such as incidence of ADL decline were already disclosed to the public and could be accessed through government websites.⁸¹ Thus, there is the possibility to apply care-need level adjusted deterioration rates as a QI. Thus, further research on developing QIs is needed, considering validity and reliability. Furthermore, investigating resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration might elucidate the reasons for the variation in deterioration rates among facilities.

This study found a significantly higher deterioration rate in female residents compared to males. For sex difference, a previous study reported the same trend that female residents are more likely to deteriorate when comparing the care-need level change between two sex groups, but no significant difference was reported after controlling for demographic factors and service types.^{73, 75} Therefore, further studies should examine the sex difference using multivariable analysis.

This study has several limitations. First, a few municipalities (6.5%) in Japan are not included in the national long-term care insurance claim data, and because there is no information about the location of these municipalities, the prefecture level comparison may be biased. Second, residents who left facilities during one year was excluded in this study, however, more than 90 percentage of the residents left facility because of death or hospitalized.⁸² This may affect the quality of care when calculating deterioration rate and should be taken into consideration in the future study.

This study has several strengths. First, the newly developed indicators avoid the impact of mixed effects across facilities by selecting residents who lived for an entire year in a same special nursing home. Moreover, the change of care-need level may serve as a powerful tool for assessing quality of care. Second, using the risk-adjusted care-need level change rates, this study can compare each facility's quality of care. Finally, this is the first study to use a population-based national representative data from LTCI claims to compare all LTCWFs in Japan and compare the outcomes in all prefectures. Knowing the status of facilities using outcome indicators may encourage

LTCWFs to improve their quality of care.

Ethical consideration

This study was approved by the ethical committee of the University of Tsukuba (NO. 1431-2).

2.2 Overview of literature on associated factors with functional decline in long-term care facilities

2.2.1 Factors associated with care-need level deterioration in long-term care

To date, studies have attempted to investigate the factors that are related to deterioration in the care-need level focusing long-term care services users.^{72, 74-76, 83, 84}However, the existing research were all only focused on individual level factors such as general information, clinical outcome and long-term care services they used. In general, only factor of with dementia users^{76, 83} were consistently more likely to experience care-need level deterioration. Other factors such as sex, age, and care-need level at baseline were showed mix results.^{73-76, 83, 84} Among those previous studies, two were focused on LTCI users^{76, 83} and the others were focused on home care services^{72, 73, 75, 84} or community care services.⁷⁴ One study have shown that facility service users were more likely to experience a deterioration in the care-need level than community-based service and home care service users.⁷⁶ Nevertheless, less documentation were focused on facility services and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration.

2.2.2 Factors associated with functional decline in long-term care facilities

Since care-need level assessment was based on functional status,⁵⁴ in this thesis, overseas review were guided by associated factors with functional decline in long-term care facilities. Recently, one systematic review summarized 27 studies that investigated associated factors with residents' functional decline in long-term care facilities.⁸⁵ They reported that half of the studies (13/27) considered facility level factors. This thesis summarized aforementioned 13 studies to clarify what resident and facility level characteristics were have effect on functional decline.(table 7) According to the previous review, this study found that both resident and facility level characteristics affect functional decline.⁸⁵⁻⁹⁴, however, some studies failed to find facility-level related variables.⁹⁵ This result implies that there may be other facility characteristics that affect functional status. At resident level, there are consistently associated variables of age and

cognitive impairment. However this study failed to find consistently associated facility level characteristics with functional decline. It may because the difference in assessment of ADL and follow-up period and fundamental function of facilities^{85-94, 96, 97} that have difficultly to compare the results.

To sum up, the empirical studies provide proves of relationship between facility characteristics with functional decline. Furthermore, multi-level framework of quality of care posit that both resident and facility level should be examined and the relation of residents nested within facilities should be considered.^{17, 95, 98} Less documentation regarding research on the effect of the facility regarding functional decline were found in Japan. Future studies should take into consideration both resident and facility characteristics when examine associated factors with functional decline.

Table 7. Positively associated resident and facility characteristics with functional decline

| Authors | Year of the | Resident-level characteristics | Facility-level characteristics | | | |
|--|--------------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|
| 11011015 | data | resident level endructeristies | (main or significant variables) | | | |
| Li et al ⁸⁶ | 2004 | | Low-volume NH (30-50 residents/facility) | | | |
| Phillips et al ⁹⁹ | 2002 | More cognitively impaired More mortality risk Women Black, not Hispanic Living alone before admission Admitted from hospital Admitted from other NH | Nursing home as fixed effect | | | |
| Phillips et al ⁹⁷ | 1993-1994 | | Traditional units & Special care units (No difference) | | | |
| Sloane et al ⁹⁶ | 1997-1998 | | No difference between RC & AL | | | |
| Wang et al ⁹⁵ | 2004 | Bowel and bladder incontinence, along with balance dysfunction | 8 facility variable (profit status, location, facility size, hospital affiliation, licensed staffing levels, unlicensed staffing levels, nursing home community discharge rate and percentage of Medicare days) were not significant. Significant nursing home effect were found. | | | |
| Wang et al ⁸⁷ | 2004 | Bladder incontinence Female | Facility profit status, location, facility size, hospital affiliation, licensed staffing levels, unlicensed staffing levels. NH community discharge rate and percentage of Medicare days NH random effects were much stronger for residents with a higher level of cognitive function | | | |
| Frytak et al ⁸⁸ | 1995-1996 | | No differences in outcome trajectories for ADLs between AL & NH | | | |
| Stark et al ⁸⁹ | 1988-1989 | Older Age, low baseline ADL, Informal help, Not admitted form hospital | Different associated variables in different settings (Adult Foster care & Nursing home care) | | | |
| Porell et al ⁹⁰ | 1991-1994 | Older Åge, female, African American. Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease | Lower operating revenue, Lower net revenue (But weakness attributes to outcome were found) | | | |
| Slaughter et al ⁹¹ Slaughter et al ⁹² Rudman et al ⁹³ | 2006-2007 2006-2007 1992 | Dementia, comorbidities, Dementia | less supportive environments less supportive environments smaller size, slower resident turnover rate, smaller proportion of residents with nonorganic psychoses, lower ratio of short-stay to long-stay residents, lower ratio of independent to dependent long-stay residents. | | | |
| Walk et al ⁹⁴ | 1986-1995 | Women, short stay, | Lower quality of care | | | |

RC=residential care facilities; AL=assisted living facilities; NH=nursing homes

2.3 Resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration in long-term care welfare facilities in Japan (Study 2)

2.3.1 Aim

To determine the resident and facility characteristics associated with residents' care-need level deterioration in LTCWFs in Japan.

2.3.2 Methods

Data source

This study combined resident-level national LTCI claims data from October 2012 to October 2013 and facility-level data from a survey of institutions and establishments of long-term care in 2012. The LTCI claims data contain information regarding user sex, age, care-need level, and types of service received. The long-term care facility characteristics were obtained from the facility survey, which is conducted by MHLW every year.

Participants

Inclusion criteria require that residents are aged 65 years or older and have been discharged multiple times from a facility during the follow-up period. Approximately 24.4% of all residents were loss to follow-up because they left the facilities. According to MHLW, the main reasons for leaving a facility were death, which accounted for 63.7%, and hospitalization, which accounted for 28.9%. For residents who hospitalized for several weeks including those who have died in hospitals, LTCWFs register them as residents. Therefore, this study first analyzed all residents and defined loss to follow-up residents as the "deterioration group" because of the consideration that 92.6% of the residents might be hospitalized or dead. Then, an analysis was conducted after excluding the loss to follow-up group. The residents who were care-need level 5 at baseline could not deteriorate further; thus, these residents were excluded to prevent a ceiling effect (Figure 5).

(Resident-level data) 387985 residents lived in the long-term care welfare facility in October 2012 Younger than 65 years old: 4473 residents Survey of Institutions and Discharged multiple times during follow-Establishments for long term care up period: 9121 residents (Facility-level data) 374391 residents 3853 facilities Not matched: Resident-level data: 15505 residents Facility-level data: 79 facilities All residents model: 358886 residents from 3774 facilities residents who left facility during follow up period: 87653 (24.44% of all residents) residents who were care-need level 5 in October 2012: 87575 (24.40% of all residents) Residents excluding loss to follow-up model:

Long-term care claim data

Figure 5. Participant flow chart diagram (Study 2)

183658 residents from 3721 facilities

Dependent variable

The care-need level deterioration is the dependent variable in this study. First, this study calculated the change in the care-need level by subtracting the care-need level in October 2012 from the care-need level in October 2013. If the residents' care-need level changes were equal to or less than 0, they were defined as "not deteriorated". If the residents' care-need level changes were greater than 0, they were defined as "deteriorated".

Independent variables

Resident-level characteristics

The age (65-74, 75-84, 85-94, greater than 95 years) at baseline and sex were collected. 99, 100 This study used the care-need level at baseline to adjust the residents' health status. 72, 74-76

Facility-level characteristics

The selection of independent variable is guided from SPO systems model of nursing care quality in nursing homes¹⁶ and theoretically used when investigating facility effect on quality of care. To explore facility characteristics, the information of structural factors that the data set have were all investigated. This study included years in business,^{101, 102} facility size^{91, 101, 103} (less than 100 beds, 100 beds or more than 100 beds), location (metropolitan, nonmetropolitan)¹⁷, the availability of 24-hour nursing staff⁶⁶ and the number of staff in different specialties allocated per 100 users^{66, 102}, the proportion of register nurses (RN) among nurses⁹¹ and the proportion of registered dietitians among all dietitians. This study also included an independent variable that indicated the types of care facility provide in terms of traditional, unit, or mixed. Traditional care are mainly provided in the facility with shared room setting. In contrast, unit care refers to person-centered care and care for a small number of residents (less than 10) as one living unit, and provided care mainly in all private room setting facilities. Mixed care are those with both the unit care and the traditional care exist.¹⁰⁴

Statistical analysis

The descriptive analysis was conducted first to review the distribution of the dependent variable and the independent variables. Then, a univariate logistic regression was carried out to identify the variables that are significantly associated with the outcome

for inclusion in the multivariate model. A Pearson correlation coefficient analysis was conducted between all independent variables, and variables that were highly correlated (>0.7) were excluded to avoid multicollinearity.

Multilevel logistic regression was used because of the nested nature of data set (residents nested within facilities). Additionally, the multilevel model accounts for the hierarchical structure to produce better inferences. The STATA procedure "melogit" was used to fit this multi-level model. A sub-analysis was performed only in traditional type facility to clarify the effect from resident level variable of private room use.

2.3.3 Results

Descriptive analysis and unadjusted logistic regression

Table 8 presents the descriptive analysis of the final study participants. The deterioration rate is the proportion of cases that experienced a deterioration in the care-need level among all cases within a specific subgroup in one year. Based on the descriptive analysis, univariate logistic regression was conducted to identify the variables that were significantly associated with the care-need level deterioration. (Table 9)

Adjusted multilevel logistic regression

Table 10 presents the results of the multivariate models predicting care-need level deteriorations. At the resident level, residents who were in the higher age group, male and at a lower care-need level at baseline were significantly more deteriorated in the care-need level in the all residents model. However, after excluding the loss to follow-up group, females were more likely to experience care-need level deterioration.

Several facility variables were consistently associated with care-need level deterioration regardless of whether the loss to follow-up group was excluded. Compared to facility with traditional care, facility that provides unit care and mixed care were less likely to experience care-need level deterioration. In addition, facilities that were located in metropolitan areas were less likely to experience a deterioration in the care-need level.

The results showed that a lower proportion of registered nurses among all nurses were associated with care-need level deterioration only in the all resident model. After excluding those who were loss to follow-up, a re-analysis of the data showed that a lower proportion of registered dietitians among all dietitians and facilities with longer years in business were associated with care-need level deterioration.

Sub-analysis of association between private room use and care-need level deterioration in traditional type facility

Table 11 presents the results of facility and resident characteristics associated with the care-need level deterioration only in traditional type facilities. Consequently, a significantly negative relationship between a private room service and care-need level deterioration was found in both models: an "all-residents-model" and "residents (excluding those lost to follow-up) model" (table 11).

Table 8. Descriptive analysis of the resident and facility characteristics at baseline and the care-need level deterioration in the one year follow-up.

| | All res | sidents | Residents loss to fo | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|--|
| | % or M±SD | Deterioration rate (%) | % or M±SD | Deterioratio n rate (%) | |
| Dependent variables | | | | | |
| | n=35 | 88886 | n=183658 | | |
| Care-need level deterioration | 36.58 | 36.58 | 23.75 | 23.75 | |
| Independent variables | | | | | |
| Resident level | n=35 | 88886 | n=18 | 3658 | |
| Age | 86.66±7.44 | | 86.22±7.36 | | |
| Age group | | | | | |
| 65-74 | 6.43 | 26.63 | 7 | 19.29 | |
| 75-84 | 29.65 | 31.55 | 31.06 | 22.6 | |
| 85-94 | 49.52 | 37.95 | 49.44 | 24.44 | |
| >=95 | 14.4 | 46.71 | 12.49 | 26.32 | |
| Sex | | | | | |
| Male | 19.71 | 42.33 | 19.42 | 21.69 | |
| Female | 80.29 | 35.16 | 80.58 | 24.24 | |
| Care-need level | | | | | |
| Care-need level 1 | 2.95 | 43.13 | 5.08 | 35.39 | |
| Care-need level 2 | 8.41 | 40.43 | 14.08 | 30.53 | |
| Care-need level 3 | 20.17 | 40.13 | 32.4 | 27.15 | |
| Care-need level 4 | 32.82 | 38.28 | 48.44 | 18.27 | |
| Care-need level 5 | 35.65 | 31.55 | - | - | |
| Facility level | n=3 | 3774 | n=3 | 721 | |
| Care type | | | | | |
| Traditional | 65.13 | 36.84 | 65.14 | 24.07 | |
| Mixed (traditional + unit) | 5.67 | 35.7 | 5.72 | 23.07 | |
| Unit | 29.2 | 36.09 | 29.13 | 23.02 | |
| Facility size | | | | | |
| Less than 100 beds | 58.16 | 36.62 | 57.86 | 23.91 | |
| More than 100 beds | 41.84 | 36.55 | 42.14 | 23.66 | |
| Years in business | 18.42±12.55 | | 18.46±12.56 | | |
| Location | | | | | |

| Nonmetropolitan | 82.25 | 36.77 | 82.75 | 24.01 |
|--|-----------------|-------|-----------------|-------|
| Metropolitan | 17.75 | 35.67 | 17.25 | 22.57 |
| Staffing level | | | | |
| Doctors per 100 users | 0.32 ± 0.37 | | 0.32 ± 0.36 | |
| Dentists per 100 users | 0.02 ± 0.15 | | 0.02 ± 0.15 | |
| RNs per 100 users | 3.15±5.01 | | 3.16 ± 4.97 | |
| LPNs per 100 users | 2.94±2.39 | | 2.95 ± 2.43 | |
| RN/Nurse | 0.51 ± 0.25 | | 0.52 ± 0.26 | |
| Care workers per 100 users | 47.80±54.51 | | 47.71±53.97 | |
| Registered dietitians per 100 users | 1.33 ± 1.48 | | 1.33±1.47 | |
| Non- registered dietitians per 100 users | 0.45 ± 0.84 | | 0.45 ± 0.84 | |
| Registered dietitians/dietitians | 0.79 ± 0.33 | | 0.79 ± 0.33 | |
| PTs per 100 users | 0.14 ± 0.66 | | 0.14 ± 0.65 | |
| OTs per 100 users | 0.09 ± 0.31 | | 0.10 ± 0.32 | |
| STs per 100 users | 0.01 ± 0.10 | | 0.01 ± 0.11 | |
| Care managers per 100 users | 1.85 ± 1.72 | | 1.85 ± 1.72 | |
| 24 hours nursing care | | | | |
| Yes | 2.41 | 36.81 | 2.5 | 24.5 |
| No | 97.59 | 36.58 | 97.5 | 23.73 |

OR=odds ratio; RN=Register Nurse; LPN=Licensed Practical Nurse; PT=Physical therapist; OT=Occupational therapist; ST=Speech therapist; ref.=reference; Residents excluding the loss to follow-up group=Residents who stayed at the facility, excluding the cases loss to follow-up due to death or hospitalization in the majority;

Table 9. Unadjusted logistic regression of the care-need level deterioration for the resident and facility characteristics

| | | All residents | S | | esidents exclu loss to follow | _ | |
|---|------------|------------------------|---------|------------|----------------------------------|---------|--|
| | | (n=358886) | | (n=183658) | | | |
| Independent variables | OR | 95% CI | p value | OR | 95% CI | p value | |
| Resident Level | | | | | | | |
| Age group (reference: younger than 75) | | | | | | | |
| 75-84 | 1.27 | 1.23-1.31 | < 0.001 | 1.22 | 1.16-1.28 | < 0.001 | |
| 85-94 | 1.68 | 1.63-1.74 | < 0.001 | 1.35 | 1.29-1.42 | < 0.001 | |
| >=95 | 2.41 | 2.33-2.50 | < 0.001 | 1.49 | 1.42-1.58 | < 0.001 | |
| Female | 0.74 | 0.73-0.75 | < 0.001 | 1.16 | 1.12-1.19 | < 0.001 | |
| Care-need level (ref.: care-need level 1) | | | | | | | |
| care-need level 2 | 0.89 | 0.86-0.94 | < 0.001 | 0.80 | 0.76-0.84 | < 0.001 | |
| care-need level 3 | 0.88 | 0.85-0.92 | < 0.001 | 0.68 | 0.65-0.71 | < 0.001 | |
| care-need level 4 | 0.82 | 0.79-0.85 | < 0.001 | 0.41 | 0.39-0.43 | < 0.001 | |
| care-need level 5 | 0.61 | 0.58-0.63 | < 0.001 | | | | |
| Facility Level | | | | | | | |
| Care type (ref.: Traditional) | | | | | | | |
| Mixed (Traditional+ Unit) | 0.95 | 0.93-0.97 | < 0.001 | 0.95 | 0.91-0.98 | < 0.001 | |
| Unit | 0.97 | 0.95-0.99 | < 0.001 | 0.94 | 0.92-0.97 | < 0.001 | |
| Years in business | 1.00^{a} | 1.00-1.00 ^b | < 0.001 | 1.00^{c} | 1.00-1.00 ^d | < 0.001 | |
| Bed size (ref.: more than 100 beds) | 1.00 | 0.98-1.01 | 0.715 | 0.99 | 0.96-1.01 | 0.24 | |
| Metropolitan (ref.: nonmetropolitan) | 0.95 | 0.94-0.97 | < 0.001 | 0.92 | 0.90-0.95 | < 0.001 | |
| Staffing level | | | | | | | |
| Doctors per 100 users | 1.01 | 0.99-1.04 | 0.237 | 1.03 | 0.99-1.06 | 0.12 | |
| Dentists per 100 users | 1.00 | 0.95-1.06 | 0.866 | 0.97 | 0.89-1.08 | 0.67 | |
| RNs per 100 users | 1.00 | 1.00-1.00 | 0.119 | 1.00 | 1.00-1.00 | 0.82 | |
| LPNs per 100 users | 1.01 | 1.00-1.01 | < 0.001 | 1.01 | 1.00-1.01 | 0.03 | |
| RNs/(RNs+LPNs) | 0.90 | 0.87-0.93 | < 0.001 | 0.92 | 0.87-0.96 | < 0.001 | |
| Care workers per 100 users | 1.00 | 1.00-1.00 | 0.658 | 1.00 | 1.00-1.00 | 0.98 | |
| Registered dietitians per 100 users | 1.00 | 0.99-1.00 | 0.436 | 1.00 | 0.99-1.01 | 0.77 | |
| Non-registered dietitians per 100 users | 1.01 | 1.00-1.02 | 0.05 | 1.02 | 1.01-1.04 | < 0.001 | |
| Registered dietitians/ dietitians | 0.96 | 0.93-0.98 | < 0.001 | 0.92 | 0.88-0.95 | < 0.001 | |
| PTs per 100 users | 0.99 | 0.98-1.01 | 0.376 | 0.98 | 0.96-1.00 | 0.13 | |
| OTs per 100 users | 0.97 | 0.95-1.00 | 0.034 | 0.99 | 0.95-1.02 | 0.45 | |
| STs per 100 users | 1.06 | 0.98-1.14 | 0.146 | 1.03 | 0.92-1.16 | 0.63 | |
| Care managers per 100 users | 1.00 | 1.00-1.01 | 0.715 | 1.00 | 1.00-1.01 | 0.34 | |
| 24 hours nursing care | 0.99 | 0.94-1.04 | 0.671 | 0.96 | 0.89-1.03 | 0.26 | |

OR=odds ratio; RN=Register Nurse; LPN=Licensed Practical Nurse; PT=Physical therapist; OT=Occupational therapist; ST=Speech therapist; ref.=reference; Residents excluding the loss to-follow-up group=Residents who stayed at the facility, excluding the cases loss to follow-up due to death or hospitalization in the majority; a 1.001; b 1.001-1.002; c 1.002; d 1.002-1.003

Table 10. Facility and resident characteristics associated with the care-need level deterioration: results of the multilevel logistic regression analysis

| | | All residents (n=358886) | | Residents excluding loss to follow-up (n=183658) | | | |
|--|------------|-----------------------------|---------|--|------------------------|---------|--|
| _ | OR | 95% CI | p value | OR | 95% CI | p value | |
| Resident Level | | | | | | | |
| Age group (ref.<75) | | | | | | | |
| 75-84 | 1.39 | 1.35-1.44 | < 0.001 | 1.21 | 1.15-1.27 | < 0.001 | |
| 85-94 | 1.99 | 1.93-2.06 | < 0.001 | 1.33 | 1.27-1.40 | < 0.001 | |
| >=95 | 2.99 | 2.88-3.95 | < 0.001 | 1.50 | 1.42-1.58 | < 0.001 | |
| Sex (Male) | 0.64 | 0.63-0.65 | < 0.001 | 1.12 | 1.09-1.16 | < 0.001 | |
| Care-need level (ref.: care-need level 1 | .) | | | | | | |
| care-need level 2 | 0.88 | 0.84-0.92 | < 0.001 | 0.79 | 0.75-0.83 | < 0.001 | |
| care-need level 3 | 0.85 | 0.82-0.89 | < 0.001 | 0.66 | 0.63-0.69 | < 0.001 | |
| care-need level 4 | 0.78 | 0.75-0.81 | < 0.001 | 0.39 | 0.37-0.41 | < 0.001 | |
| care-need level 5 | 0.59 | 0.58-0.62 | < 0.001 | _ | - | _ | |
| Facility Level | | | | | | | |
| Care type (ref.: Traditional) | | | | | | | |
| Mixed (Traditional+ Unit) | 0.94 | 0.90-0.97 | 0.001 | 0.93 | 0.88-0.98 | 0.01 | |
| Unit | 0.97 | 0.94-0.99 | 0.042 | 0.95 | 0.91-0.99 | 0.024 | |
| Metropolitan (ref.: nonmetropolitan) | 0.97 | 0.94-0.99 | 0.011 | 0.92 | 0.89-0.96 | < 0.001 | |
| Years in business | 1.00^{a} | 1.00-1.00 ^b | 0.051 | 1.00^{c} | 1.00-1.00 ^d | 0.016 | |
| RNs/(RNs+LPNs) | 0.93 | 0.89-0.97 | 0.001 | 0.98 | 0.92-1.05 | 0.581 | |
| Registered dietitians/ dietitians | 0.99 | 0.95-1.02 | 0.376 | 0.94 | 0.90-0.99 | 0.02 | |

OR=odds ratio; RN=Register Nurse; LPN=Licensed Practical Nurse; ref.=reference; Residents excluding loss to follow-up group=Residents who stayed at facility, excluding the cases loss to follow-up due to death or hospitalization in the majority; ^a 1.001; ^b 0.999-1.002; ^c 1.002; ^d 1.000-1.003.

Table 11. Facility and resident characteristics associated with the care-need level deterioration in traditional type facilities: results of the multilevel logistic regression analysis

| | | All resident (n=232448) | ~ | Residents excluding loss to follow-up (n=115138) | | | |
|--|------|----------------------------|---------|--|------------|---------|--|
| • | OR | 95% CI | p value | OR | 95% CI | p value | |
| Resident Level | | | - | | | | |
| Age group (ref.<75) | | | | | | | |
| 75-84 | 1.38 | 1.33-1.44 | < 0.001 | 1.20 | 1.13-1.27 | < 0.001 | |
| 85-94 | 2.01 | 1.92-2.09 | < 0.001 | 1.34 | 1.26-1.42 | < 0.001 | |
| >=95 | 3.02 | 2.89-3.15 | < 0.001 | 1.52 | 1.42-1.63 | < 0.001 | |
| Sex (Male) | 0.63 | 0.61-0.64 | < 0.001 | 1.12 | 1.08-1.16 | < 0.001 | |
| Care-need level (ref.: care-need level | 11) | | | | | | |
| care-need level 2 | 0.93 | 0.88-0.99 | 0.015 | 0.85 | 0.780-0.91 | < 0.001 | |
| care-need level 3 | 0.89 | 0.84-0.94 | < 0.001 | 0.70 | 0.66-0.75 | < 0.001 | |
| care-need level 4 | 0.81 | 0.77-0.85 | < 0.001 | 0.40 | 0.38-0.43 | < 0.001 | |
| care-need level 5 | 0.61 | 0.58-0.65 | < 0.001 | - | - | - | |
| Private room users | 0.95 | 0.92-0.98 | 0.001 | 0.87 | 0.83-0.91 | < 0.001 | |
| Facility Level | | | | | | | |
| Metropolitan | | | | | | | |
| (ref.: nonmetropolitan) | 0.99 | 0.95-1.03 | 0.555 | 0.96 | 0.91-1.01 | 0.104 | |
| Years in business | 1.00 | 1.00-1.00 | 0.119 | 1.00 | 1.00-1000 | 0.762 | |
| RNs/(RNs+LPNs) | 0.94 | 0.89-0.99 | 0.020 | 0.95 | 0.87-1.03 | 0.192 | |
| Registered dietitians/ dietitians | 0.97 | 0.93-1.01 | 0.109 | 0.92 | 0.87-0.97 | 0.008 | |

OR=odds ratio; RN=Register Nurse; LPN=Licensed Practical Nurse; ref.=reference; Residents excluding loss to follow-up group=Residents who stayed at facility, excluding the cases loss to follow-up due to death or hospitalization in the majority

2.3.4 Discussion

This study is the first to analyze nationally representative data to identify the characteristics that are associated with care-need level deterioration in LTCWF in Japan. The results demonstrated that at the resident level, age, the care-need level at baseline, and sex were significant predictors of deterioration. At the facility level, the types of care, location, years in business, the proportion of RNs, and the proportion of registered dietitians among all dietitians were significant predictors of care-need level deterioration.

At the resident level, older age and a lower care-need level at baseline were significantly associated with care-need level deterioration as documented in earlier studies. ^{66, 76, 99}

However, this study found contradictory associations with sex in terms of care-need level deterioration when including and excluding those residents who were loss to follow-up. The results show that male residents contribute more to hospitalization or death than female residents. In contrast, women have a higher risk of care-need level deterioration only when excluding the loss to follow-up group. Previous studies have shown that women have a higher risk of surviving with deteriorating trajectories in health limitations. ¹⁰⁷

The most important objective of this work was to investigate the facility characteristics that are related to care-need level deterioration. First, this study found two variables that are consistently associated with outcomes.

Facilities that provide unit care and mixed care were less likely to be deteriorated in care-need level than traditional care providing facilities. To date, although many facilities that provide unit care have been established, doubts regarding their quality of care remain. This study was the first to investigate whether there are different effects on the care-need level deterioration based on the types of care facility provides. One reason for this difference could be the personal background of the users in private rooms because unit care are provided only in private room that require additional payments. Because there was lack of socioeconomic status information, private room was used as surrogate of higher socioeconomic status. Results of sub-analysis showed a significant negative association of private room use and care-need level deterioration. This result

may be caused by the residents' income level, which may be a possible confounder because a higher socioeconomic status is well known to be correlated with better health outcomes.¹⁰⁸ Future studies need to be conducted to clarify the reason for this difference.

Second, facilities located in metropolitan areas performed better. A previous study argued that rural facilities were less likely to provide mental health services and lacked accreditations or special care programmes.¹⁷

Fewer years in business contributed to a reduced care-need deterioration only in the model of residents excluding loss to follow-up. However, a non-significant relationship between ADL change and facility age was shown in a previous study.^{77, 102} In Japan, the proportion of unit facilities increased from 1.5% to 31.7% between 2003 and 2014.¹⁰⁹ The increase in new facilities with the unit care may have influenced the effect of the business year variable on the outcome.

In addition to the three facility variables, two staffing level variables were associated with present study outcomes. A lower proportion of RNs on the nursing staff was significantly associated with care-need level deterioration only in the all residents model. Earlier studies have demonstrated that RNs serve as leaders and role models in the supervision of LPNs ¹¹⁰ and may improve resident outcomes. ¹¹¹

This research study also provided new information in the analysis by excluding the loss to follow-up group. A higher proportion of registered dietitians among all dietitians were negatively associated with care-need level deterioration. In Japan, registered dietitians are required to have a high level of professional knowledge and technique to address the residents' physical and nutritional conditions and food service management. In contrast, non-registered dietitians are nutrition experts that mainly engage in nutrition education. A higher proportion of registered dietitians among all dietitians may affect the physical status of residents because registered dietitians play an important role in providing appropriate instructions according to the health condition.

This study had some limitations. First, even though this study included a wide range of variables related to the facility, possible confounding variables were still could not control, such as staffing turnover and the policies of the facilities ¹⁰² that may affect the care-need level deterioration. In addition, at the resident level, the clinical diagnosis and cognitive functioning ^{16, 95} were not considered due to the limited information in

dataset. Second, findings of this study was based on 5 functional status levels, and the very limited information may be different from previous studies, such as that performed by Phillips and colleagues (2007), who based their study on ADL measures. ⁹⁹ Additionally, some research ^{75, 76, 84, 112} including the present study used care-need level as an outcome because the evaluation process of care-need level is strictly done by government and strong correlation between care-need level and ADL was found in previous study. However the validation of the care-need level measurement was yet investigated. Third, this study defined the loss to follow-up residents as the deterioration group because most of these residents may be hospitalized or dead. However, among those loss to follow-up, 7.4% may have been lost due to other reasons, such as returning home or discharge to other types of facilities. Fourth, the cross-sectional approach for the independent variables indicates correlations but not causation.

Despite these limitations, this study has several strengths. First, Japan is a unique country with national-level claims data due to its national health insurance system and well established payment computer system. This advantage will likely result in good generalizability of the results. Second, this study used multilevel models to account for resident and facility predictors and overcome the weaknesses of previous studies. Additionally, this study controlled for several facility variables that may affect the resident outcomes.

Ethical consideration

This study was approved by the ethical committee of the University of Tsukuba (NO. 1431-2).

2.4 Resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration in long-term care health facilities for the elderly in Japan (Study 3)

2.4.1 Aim

To clarify the resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration in LTCHFs in Japan

2.4.2 Methods

Data source and ethical considerations

Nationally representative LTCICD were linked to the survey of institutions and establishments for long-term care in 2012. Longitudinal LTCICD resident information records were obtained for data on sex, age, and care-need level of every month for the period of October 2012 to Marth 2014. Facility characteristics were obtained from the survey of institutions and establishments for long-term care

Participants

In this study, an admission cohort¹⁰⁰ was used because the residents were free of any facility providers at admission time. All admissions to the LTCHFs during October 2012 to October 2013 were included. The inclusion criteria also required that the residents were 65 years or older at admission, had lived in the same facility for more than 6 months after admission, and had a care-need level of 1 to 4 at baseline. Figure 6 shows the participant selection process. A total of 61,575 residents were lost to follow-up because they had lived in the facility for less than 6 months. Compared to final study residents, more male residents (35.60% vs 28.27%, p<0.001) and those more likely to have a lower care-need level of 1 and 2 (39.84% vs 38.58%, p<0.001) were lost to follow-up. Finally, 86,273 residents from 1493 facilities were analyzed.

Dependent variable

The outcome of this study was a binary variable of care-need level deterioration (deteriorated vs not deteriorated). After 6 months of follow-up, if the residents' care-need level was higher than at baseline, they were defined as "deteriorated"; if their level was the same or lower, they were defined as "not deteriorated".

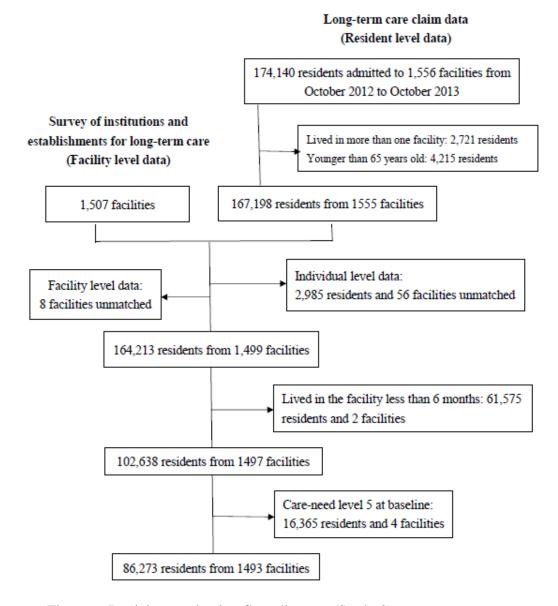


Figure 6. Participant selection flow diagram (Study 3)

Independent variables

At the resident level, age (65-74, 75-84, and older than 85 years) at baseline, sex and care-need level at baseline were selected, which have been identified as possible predictors in previous studies regarding functional decline 73-76, 98, 99, 113.

According to SPO systems model of nursing care quality in nursing homes,¹⁶ structural factors are related to outcome. This study is guided by SPO model and theoretically used when investigating quality of care, expectances of the dataset not allowed. Facility structural characteristics of years of business existence^{66, 102}; facility size measured by the number of beds¹⁰² (small: 150 beds or less; large: more than 150 beds); location (metropolitan, non-metropolitan); availability of 24-hour nurse staffing⁶⁶ and number of staff in different specialties allocated per 100 users^{66, 102}; and proportion of registered nurses (RNs) amongst total nurses⁹¹ were analyzed.

Statistical analysis

A descriptive analysis was used to describe the distribution of independent variables and the characteristics of residents and facilities. A univariate analysis was performed with the possible resident and facility characteristics associated with functional decline. Any variable with a P-value less than 0.1 from the univariate analysis and theoretically significant variables were included in the multi-level logistic regression. We used a multi-level logistic regression with a nested dataset (residents in one facility could be more homogeneous than those across facilities) because the assumption of independence is violated in a single logistic regression. A multi-level logistic regression accounts for this nested correlation to produce better inferences. ¹⁰⁶ A sub-analysis was performed after stratifying all residents by private room users and shared room users. All statistical analyses were performed using STATA software version 14.0, and P<0.05 was considered significant.

2.4.3 Results

Baseline characteristics of the residents and facilities

Table 12 shows the distribution of dependent and independent variables at baseline. In total, 12.81% of the residents experienced care-need level deterioration after 6 months of follow-up. The residents tended to be females who were in their 80s and had a higher care-need level at admission. Regarding the facility characteristics, on average, 37.5% of the rooms were private, and more than 86% of the facilities were located in nonmetropolitan areas. The deterioration rate is the proportion of cases that experienced a deterioration in the care-need level amongst all cases within a specific subgroup in 6 months.

Univariate analysis

Table 13 displays the results from the univariate analysis between independent variables and care-need level deterioration. At the resident level, the male gender, older age and a lower care-need level at baseline were significantly associated with care-need level deterioration. At the facility level, a large facility, a higher percentage of private rooms, and being located in a metropolitan area were less associated with deterioration in care-need level. Having more doctors, licensed practical nurses (LPNs) and dietitians per 100 users was associated with less care-need level deterioration. By contrast, facilities with more physical therapists and occupational therapists were less likely show deterioration in care-need level.

Resident and facility characteristics predicting care-need level deterioration

Table 14 provides the results from the multi-level logistic regression. At the resident level, older age, male gender, and a lower care-need level at baseline had a higher risk of subsequent care-need level deterioration. At the facility level, facilities with a higher percentage of private rooms and a metropolitan location were less likely to experience deterioration in care-need level. Facilities with more doctors and LPNs per 100 users were more likely to experience care-need level deterioration.

Sub-analysis of resident and facility characteristics predicting care-need level deterioration by private room users and shared room users

When the data were analyzed separately by private room users and shared room users, the variables that were significant in overall residents remained significant only in shared room users. However, in private room users, none of the facility characteristics significantly predicted care-need level deterioration. (Table 15)

Table 12. Descriptive analysis of the dependent and independent variables from Oct. 2012

| | % or M | SD | Deterioration rate (%) |
|-------------------------------------|--------|-------|------------------------|
| Dependent variables | | n=8 | 66,273 |
| Care-need level deterioration | 12.81 | | 12.81 |
| Independent variables | | | |
| Resident level | | n=8 | 36,273 |
| Age | 84.81 | 7.14 | |
| Age group | | | |
| 65-74 | 8.8 | | 9.28 |
| 75-84 | 35.92 | | 12.44 |
| ≥85 | 55.28 | | 13.6 |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | 28.27 | | 12.5 |
| Female | 71.73 | | 12.92 |
| Care-need level | | | |
| Care-need level 1 | 14.41 | | 26.28 |
| Care-need level 2 | 24.17 | | 17.97 |
| Care-need level 3 | 29.51 | | 11.24 |
| Care-need level 4 | 31.92 | | 4.25 |
| Using private room service | 81.08 | | 12.96 |
| | 18.92 | | 12.13 |
| Facility level | | n= | 1493 |
| Facility size | | | |
| Small (<150 beds) | 45.28 | | 13.62 |
| Large (≥150 beds) | 54.72 | | 12.59 |
| % of private rooms | 37.51 | 23.84 | |
| % of dementia rooms | 13.30 | 15.56 | |
| Years of business existence | 16.22 | 6.08 | |
| Location | | | |
| Nonmetropolitan | 86.74 | | 13.22 |
| Metropolitan | 13.26 | | 11.13 |
| Staffing level | | | |
| Doctors per 100 users | 1.35 | 0.50 | |
| Dentists per 100 users | 0.01 | 0.06 | |
| RNs per 100 users | 5.83 | 3.47 | |
| LPNs per 100 users | 6.99 | 3.26 | |
| RN/Nurse | 0.45 | 0.20 | |
| Care workers per 100 users | 36.59 | 7.90 | |
| Registered dietitians per 100 users | 1.27 | 0.63 | |

| Non-registered dietitians per 100 users | 0.37 | 0.74 | | |
|---|-------|------|-------|--|
| PTs per 100 users | 1.92 | 1.29 | | |
| OTs per 100 users | 1.60 | 1.21 | | |
| STs per 100 users | 0.25 | 0.40 | | |
| Care managers per 100 users | 2.01 | 1.34 | | |
| 24-hour nursing care | | | | |
| Yes | 77.83 | 1.34 | 12.75 | |
| No | 22.17 | | 12.93 | |

RN=Register Nurse; LPN=Licensed Practical Nurse; PT=Physical therapist; OT=Occupational therapist; ST=Speech therapist.

Table 13. Unadjusted logistic regression of care-need level deterioration for resident and facility characteristics.

| Independent variables | OR | 95% CI | p-value |
|--|------|-----------|---------|
| Resident Level | | n=86,273 | |
| Age group (ref.: younger than 75) | | | |
| 75-84 | 1.39 | 1.28-1.51 | < 0.001 |
| >=85 | 1.54 | 1.42-1.67 | < 0.001 |
| Female | 1.04 | 0.99-1.09 | 0.091 |
| Care-need level (ref.: care-need level 1) | | | |
| care-need level 2 | 0.61 | 0.58-0.65 | < 0.001 |
| care-need level 3 | 0.36 | 0.34-0.38 | < 0.001 |
| care-need level 4 | 0.12 | 0.12-0.13 | < 0.001 |
| care-need level 5 | | | |
| Private room users (ref.: shared room user | | | |
| s) | 0.93 | 0.88-0.98 | 0.004 |
| Facility Level | | n=1493 | |
| Years of business existence | 1.00 | 1.00-1.01 | 0.063 |
| Facility size (ref.: small) | 0.91 | 0.87-0.96 | < 0.001 |
| Private room (%) | 0.79 | 0.72-0.87 | < 0.001 |
| Metropolitan (ref.: nonmetropolitan) | 0.82 | 0.78-0.87 | < 0.001 |
| Staffing level | | | |
| Doctors per 100 users | 1.14 | 1.08-1.20 | < 0.001 |
| Dentists per 100 users | 1.16 | 0.80-1.68 | 0.440 |
| RNs per 100 users | 0.99 | 0.99-1.00 | 0.114 |
| LPNs per 100 users | 1.03 | 1.02-1.04 | < 0.001 |
| RN/(RN+LPN) | 0.72 | 0.65-0.81 | < 0.001 |
| Care workers per 100 users | 1.00 | 1.00-1.00 | 0.323 |
| Non- registered dietitians per 100 users | 1.08 | 1.04-1.12 | < 0.001 |
| Dietitians per 100 users | 1.02 | 0.99-1.06 | 0.179 |
| PTs per 100 users | 0.98 | 0.96-1.00 | 0.032 |
| OTs per 100 users | 1.02 | 1.00-1.04 | 0.061 |
| STs per 100 users | 0.92 | 0.86-0.97 | 0.005 |
| Care managers per 100 users | 1.00 | 0.98-1.02 | 0.979 |
| 24-hour nursing care | 1.02 | 0.97-1.06 | 0.452 |

 $OR=odds \ \ ratio; \ CI=Confidence \ \ interval; \ \ ref.=reference; \ \ RN=Register \ \ Nurse; \ \ LPN=Licensed \ \ Practical \ Nurse; \ PT=Physical \ therapist; \ OT=Occupational \ therapist; \ ST=Speech \ therapist.$

Table 14. Facility and resident characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration

| Independent variables | OR | 95% CI | P-value |
|--|------|-----------|---------|
| Individual level | | n=86,273 | |
| Age group (ref.: younger than 75) | | | |
| 75-84 | 1.35 | 1.23-1.47 | < 0.001 |
| ≥85 | 1.45 | 1.33-1.58 | < 0.001 |
| Female | 0.92 | 0.88-0.96 | < 0.001 |
| Care-need level (ref.: care-need level 1) | | | |
| care-need level 2 | 0.61 | 0.58-0.64 | < 0.001 |
| care-need level 3 | 0.35 | 0.33-0.37 | < 0.001 |
| care-need level 4 | 0.12 | 0.11-0.13 | < 0.001 |
| Private room user (ref.: shared room user) | 0.89 | 0.84-0.94 | 0.027 |
| Facility level | | n=1493 | |
| Private room (%) | 0.85 | 0.74-0.97 | 0.014 |
| Facility size (ref.: small) | 1.00 | 0.94-1.06 | 0.985 |
| Metropolitan (ref.: nonmetropolitan) | 0.83 | 0.77-0.90 | < 0.001 |
| Staffing Level | | | |
| Doctors per 100 users | 1.11 | 1.03-1.20 | 0.004 |
| LPNs per 100 users | 1.01 | 1.00-1.02 | 0.017 |
| STs per 100 users | 0.98 | 0.91-1.06 | 0.586 |
| PTs per 100 users | 1.00 | 0.97-1.02 | 0.848 |
| Dietitians per 100 users | 1.04 | 0.99-1.10 | 0.159 |

OR=odds ratio; CI=Confidence interval; ref.=reference; RN=Register Nurse; LPN=Licensed Practical Nurse; PT=Physical therapist; ST=Speech therapist.

Table 15. Facility and resident characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration by private room users and shared room users

| | P | rivate room u | sers | S | hared room | users |
|--|------|---------------|---------|------|------------|---------|
| Independent variables | OR | 95% CI | P-value | OR | 95% CI | P-value |
| Individual level | | n=16,327 | | | n=69,646 | j |
| Age group (ref.: younger than 75) | | | | | | |
| 75-84 | 1.29 | 1.02-1.62 | 0.034 | 1.35 | 1.23-1.48 | < 0.001 |
| ≥85 | 1.30 | 1.04-1.63 | 0.023 | 1.47 | 1.34-1.61 | < 0.001 |
| Female | 0.86 | 0.78-0.96 | 0.006 | 0.93 | 0.88-0.98 | 0.010 |
| Care-need level (ref.: care-need level | 1) | | | | | |
| care-need level 2 | 0.60 | 0.53-0.68 | < 0.001 | 0.61 | 0.57-0.65 | < 0.001 |
| care-need level 3 | 0.33 | 0.29-0.38 | < 0.001 | 0.35 | 0.33-0.37 | < 0.001 |
| care-need level 4 | 0.11 | 0.09-0.13 | < 0.001 | 0.12 | 0.11-0.13 | < 0.001 |
| Facility level | | n=1200 | | | n=1433 | |
| Private room (%) | 0.81 | 0.64-1.03 | 0.093 | 0.84 | 0.72-0.99 | 0.032 |
| Facility size (ref.: small) | 0.89 | 0.79-1.02 | 0.093 | 1.02 | 0.96-1.09 | 0.539 |
| Metropolitan (ref.: nonmetropolitan) | 0.88 | 0.76-1.02 | 0.092 | 0.83 | 0.76-0.90 | < 0.001 |
| Doctors per 100 users | 1.13 | 0.99-1.29 | 0.063 | 1.11 | 1.02-1.20 | 0.016 |
| LPNs per 100 users | 1.00 | 0.98-1.02 | 0.820 | 1.02 | 1.00-1.03 | 0.008 |
| STs per 100 users | 0.95 | 0.81-1.10 | 0.472 | 0.98 | 0.90-1.06 | 0.641 |
| PTs per 100 users | 0.96 | 0.92-1.00 | 0.056 | 1.01 | 0.99-1.04 | 0.318 |
| Dietitians per 100 users | 1.02 | 0.92-1.14 | 0.678 | 1.04 | 0.98-1.11 | 0.168 |

OR=odds ratio; CI=Confidence interval; ref.=reference; RN=Register Nurse; LPN=Licensed Practical Nurse; PT=Physical therapist; ST=Speech therapist.

2.4.4 Discussion

This study investigated resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration based on an admission cohort design using nationally representative data. The findings showed that at the resident level, age, sex, and the care-need level at baseline were significant predictors of care-need level deterioration. At the facility level, location, percentage of private rooms, the number of doctors per 100 users and the number of LPNs per 100 users were significantly associated with care-need level deterioration.

Overall, at the resident level, residents who were older and males were more likely to experience deterioration in their care-need level in nursing homes. This positive association was consistent with previous studies regarding care-need level deterioration when using LTCI services.^{73, 75, 76} The result that a lower care-need level at baseline contributed to care-need level deterioration was also supported by a previous study.⁷⁶

Private room users were less likely to experience deterioration in care-need level. Personal background characteristics of social economic status (SES) may affect this correlation because private room service is much more expensive than shared room service. In addition, high SES is correlated with better health outcomes.¹⁰⁸

At the facility level, a higher percentage of private rooms was negatively associated with care-need level deterioration. One explanation could be that more private rooms may lower the risks of infections such as influenza or pneumonia. Another explanation may be the organization factor, such as the difficulty of managing. Shared rooms are more difficult to manage compared to private rooms, particularly when creating compatible situations for all roommates. Only Zimmerman et al has considered the percentage of private rooms variable in a model and found a non-significant association with ADL decline.

However, another possibility is that a higher percentage of private rooms may indicate more high SES residents who have better health outcomes. To control for the SES status of residents, a sub-analysis was performed after stratifying the residents by private room users and shared room users. In this sub-analysis, private room users was the substitute variable for higher SES, and shared room users was the substitute variable

for lower SES. The results showed that a higher percentage of private rooms was significantly associated with care-need level only in the shared room users. This indicates that a facility setting with a higher percentage of private rooms reduces the odds of care-need level deterioration for shared room users. Conversely, for private room users, the possibility of a higher SES itself rather than the facility characteristics affect the reduction of care-need level deterioration.

Facilities in metropolitan areas had a smaller odds of deterioration in care-need level. This result is generally consistent with the findings of earlier studies. Previous research suggests that rural facilities are less likely to provide mental health services such as Alzheimer's units; moreover, rural facilities have a lower nursing staff ratio compared to urban facilities, which is associated with a lower quality of care. One study suggested that rural residents are more likely to reside in facilities without special care programs that target residents' special needs, which might increase the odds of receiving a poorer quality of care.

More doctors per 100 users was significantly negatively associated with deterioration in care-need level. By contrast, no previous studies have reported an association between the number of doctors and functional decline. We considered this variable because LTCHF is an intermediate facility between medical facilities and welfare facilities, and more than one full-time doctor per 100 users is a requirement for operating LTCHFs. It is possible that more doctors per 100 users indicates higher care needs or medicalized facilities. It is also possible that a lack of clinical or severity control caused the negative association between the number of doctors per 100 users and care-need level deterioration.

A higher number of LPNs per 100 users was positively associated with care-need level deterioration. One study indicated that LPNs should be employed as complements of RN staff. However, some nursing homes fill most licensed nurse positions with LPNs to save on labour costs and hire only the minimum number of RNs required by regulations. If this phenomenon persists, LPN staffing may contribute to decreased quality of care. Another study indicated that LPN hours were negatively associated with resident's mood and quality of life. They argued that more LPN hours possibly indicate a higher need or more medicalized facilities. Several studies found a non-significant association between LPN and QIs. Several studies found a

Several limitations should be considered in this study. First, approximately 37.5% of the residents were lost to follow-up from having left the facility. However, there are several reasons for leaving LTCHFs, such as returning home, being hospitalized, dying, and being transferred to other facilities. Because there was no information provided regarding the reason for leaving a facility, it is difficult to assume the direction of bias caused by the loss to follow-up. Second, this study's follow-up period was 6 months; however, in general, the care-need level was available for one year. Only residents who have more care-needs or functional changes will renew their certificate of care-need regardless of the term of validity. This may underestimate the prevalence of care-need level deterioration. Third, 14.8% of the residents in admission cohort had stayed in nursing homes during the 3 years previous to admission in the follow-up period; thus, their functional states were also affected by quality of care in their previous nursing home institutionalization. This study developed model after excluding the readmitted residents and found that the main results were the same with all residents, but the number of LPNs per 100 users became nonsignificant (P-value was 0.06). Fourth, due to limited resident information, this study failed to consider the clinical diagnosis, which may affect the outcome. 76, 113 Additionally, rehabilitation was omitted; however, the amount of rehabilitation services that a resident received may affect care-need level deterioration.

Despite these limitations, this study has several strengths. This study focused on LTCHF population, which may lead to good generalizability. In addition, this study investigated both resident and facility characteristics that address the correlates of residents in the same facility.

Policy Implications

Results indicate the following potential implications for the LTCI system. First, the results showed that approximately 12.8% of residents experienced care-need level deterioration in 6 months. Further, residents with a lower care-need level at baseline experienced a greater care-need deterioration. Additionally, previous studies have shown that a greater care-need deterioration occurs in facility service users than in home care service users. Therefore, this study suggests that care-need level deterioration should be prevented in the early stage of lower care-need level. Second, in Japan, all

service prices are determined according to the care-need level, and a higher care-need level warrants a greater amount of benefits regardless of efforts to prevent deterioration. Currently, this payment system provides disincentives to protect the residents from care-need level deterioration. An incentive system that considered care-need level deterioration would prevent this phenomenon. Third, this study also suggest making reimbursement dependent on deterioration of care-need level. In addition, this reimbursement information could be disclosed to allow prospective users to use this information as a reference when choosing a facility. Additionally, enhancing the competitiveness in the market amongst providers may improve the quality of care by the intensive system.

Ethical consideration

This study was approved by the ethical committee of the University of Tsukuba (NO.1165).

2.5 Discussion of facility effect on residents care-need level deterioration

Facility characteristics are important to study because they are the most controllable, are likely to vary from facility to facility, ¹¹⁷ and may differ as a result of influence from operation environment even in the same setting. Study 2 and 3 provided evidence that there were inconsistent effect of facility characteristics in different settings. Table 15 summarized the negatively associated factors with care-need level deterioration in different long-term care settings. Incontinent predictors in different setting were highlighted with Italic front in table 16.

Unit type facility

Unit type was investigated only in LTCWF because the proportion of the unite type facility in LTCHF is merely 5%, which was 29.2% in LTCWFs. The percentage of private room might do same effect in both facility settings, because individual level of private room user were less tend to experience care-need level deterioration. However except all private room setting, unit type facility provides person-centered care which may contributes to quality of care. A previous study reported that person-centered care were significantly associated with high quality of life for dementia residents.¹¹⁸

Registered dietitian

A higher proportion of registered dietitian among all dietitians was only had effect in LTCWFs. One Japanese study present that more than 60% of elderly with care needs were at risk or already suffer from malnutrition. They also reported that subjects with higher care needs were associated with poorer nutritional status. Thus, most of residents in LTCWF are higher care-need level residents (88.64% were care-need level 3 to 5) compare to LTCHF (67.6% of residents were care-need level 3 to 5) could be a reason of different effect of registered dietitian. Further, one current report that 87.2% of total administrators and registered dietitian thought their nutrition management have effect on residents' improvement in care-need level after conducting survey in 1082 LTCWFs. However, none of the previous empirical study was found which have discussion of different effects from dietitian in different long-term care facility setting.

Less number of doctors per 100 users

Unlike LTCWF, full time doctor is required in LTCHF because it functions as intermediate of medical and care. A higher number of doctors per 100 users might indicate higher care needs or medicalized facilities in LTCHF.

There are many difference in resident and facility characteristics in different facility setting. Resident characteristics such as clinical outcome, service they use are usually different because the function of facility is different. With the difference of service they use, different staffing should be followed. However, this study were failed to obtain the detail data of those characteristics.

Table 16. Resident and facility characteristics associated with care-need level deterioration: results from study 2 and 3.

| | LTCWFs | LTCHFs |
|-----------------------------|---|---|
| Resident | Younger age | Younger age |
| characteristics | Female (excluding loss to follow-up model) Higher care-need level at baseline Private room user | Female Higher care-need level at baseline Private room user |
| Facility characteristics | Organization factors | |
| | Located at metropolitan area Fewer years in business Unit care type facility | Located at metropolitan area Higher % of private room |
| | Staffing factors | |
| | A higher proportion of registered nurse among nurse A higher proportion of registered | Less number of LPNs per 100 users Less number of doctors per |
| | dietitian among all dietitians | 100 users |

Chapter 3: Quality of care measurement from consumer's perspectives

3.1 Literature review of resident satisfaction instruments

Aim

The aims of the review were to: 1) describe the content of instruments measuring resident satisfaction in long-term care facilities; 2) describe Psychometric properties; 3) evaluate their applicability and feasibility for use in practice.

Search method

To identify resident satisfaction studies, the following electronic databases were searched: PubMed, Google Scholar and CINAHL. Searches were restricted to English language papers published since 1990. PubMed was used to screen the combination of the keywords: "satisfaction, customer satisfaction, resident satisfaction" limiting the search to "long-term care facilities, nursing home, assisted living facilities and aged care" within the title and abstract. Google Scholar and CINAHL were used with the same keywords but limited only being within the article title. As a result, 93 publications were selected from PubMed and 47 were extracted from Google Scholar and 99 from CINAHL. Because this study focused on developing the instrument of resident satisfaction survey, only articles including discussion or use of satisfaction instrument were include through examine abstracts. Ultimately, 14 articles met the inclusion criteria.

Analysis

Instrument content was described by domains which classified similar questions together.²⁹ To assess psychometric properties, articles were examined to see if validity and reliability test were conducted.^{121, 122} Applicability was determined by the number of participants, facility settings and if the instrument applied by other researchers or by government.¹²²

Content characteristics of resident satisfaction survey

From among the 14 articles, the same two instruments were appeared twice with difference articles by same author.^{44, 123-125} Twelve instruments were found and summarized in table 17. The results demonstrate that there are large variation regarding

content, assessment in psychological property and number of domains and items. The instruments were from USA (n=7), Canada (n=2), Italy (n=1), Australia (n=1) and Netherland (n=1) demonstrating a global interest in measuring resident satisfaction in nursing homes. The number of domain covered ranges from four to eleven. Psychometric test were conducted in seven of twelve studies. Only one study (Straker et al. 2007) performed cognitive screening before conducting the survey. Most of instruments have not often been used outside of their period of development or applied by other researchers. Only one study, Straker et al. 2007, conducted the survey repeatedly which was ever two years at the statewide level, and regularly checking and modify the resident satisfaction survey. In 2013, the instrument of ODA-RSS which was modified by Stracker et al. in 2009 was applied in Canada. They found that several domains are also applicable in Canada.

In summary, the instrument developed by Ohio department rigorously examined psychometric properties and is one of the most comprehensive instrument regarding settings and applicability.

Table 17. General information of instruments included in the literature review

| Instrument and reference (Name of the instrument) | Country | Setting | No. of items | No. of Subjects | No. of domains | Domains | Validity | Reliability | Cognitive screening |
|--|-----------|---------|--------------|--------------------|----------------|--|---------------------------------|-------------|---------------------|
| Ryden et al. 2000 Satisfaction with nursing home instrument(SNHI) ⁴² | USA | NH | 44 | 110 | 7 | Respect for resident's values and preference, information, physical care, Psychological care, Involvement of family, care providers, environment | Relation with other scale | No | No |
| Mostyn et al. 2000 ¹²⁶ | - | NH | - | 9053 | 4 | Comfort and cleanliness, nursing, food, facility care and services | Yes | Yes | No |
| Gesell 2001 ⁴⁰ | USA | AL | 45 | 475 | 6 | Activities, personnel, dining, apartment, facility, management | EFA | Yes | No |
| Chou et al. 2001 Resident satisfaction questionnaire (RSQ) ⁴⁴ | Australia | RAC | 24 | 1146 | 6 | Room, Home, Involvement Meals Service, Staff Care, Social Interaction, | EFA+CFA | Yes | No |
| Joanne et al. 2004 ¹²⁷ | USA | NH | - | - | 6 | activities, care and services, caregivers, environment, meals, well-being | No | No | No |
| Sikorska-Simmons 2006 Resident satisfaction index (RSI) ¹²⁴ | USA | AL | 27 | 156 | 5 | Resident perceptions of health care, housekeeping service, physical environment, relationships with staff, social life/activities | EFA | Yes | No |
| Edelman et al.2006 Assisted living resident satisfaction scale (ALRSS) ¹²⁸ | USA | AL | 18 | 204 | 9 | Safety/Peace of mind, Personal attention, staff, knowledge, autonomy, Aides, socialization with family, privacy, activities | CFA | Yes | No |

| Straker et al. 2007 Ohio nursing home resident satisfaction survey (ONHRSS) ²⁸ | USA | NH | 48 | 18560 | 8 | Quality of care and nurse aides, Direct care, choice, Negative Laundry and safety, activities, | EFA+CFA | Yes | Yes |
|--|------------------|----|----|-------|----|---|---------|-----|-----|
| Van Nie et al.2010 Internet report card ³⁰ | Netherland | NH | 9 | 278 | 9 | Administration, Meals and dining Care treatment/plan, communication and information, physical well-being, domestic and living conditions, participation, safety of care, mental well-being, safe living/residence, sufficient and competent staff | No | No | No |
| Satisfaction with Massachusetts nursing home care Li et al. ¹²⁹ | USA | NH | - | 16488 | 6 | Rated administrative and direct care staff, physical environment, activities available, personal care, food and meals, residents' personal rights | No | No | No |
| Cook et al. 2013 Ohio department of aging-resident satisfaction survey(ODA-RSS) ⁴⁵ | Canada | AL | 42 | 9739 | 11 | Activities, choice, care and services, employee relations, communication, employee responsiveness, meals and dining, Laundry, facility environment, residence environment | CFA | Yes | No |
| Barsanti et al. 2017 ¹³⁰ | Canada& Italy | NH | 14 | 1797 | 4 | Security, comfort, autonomy, services and facilities | No | No | No |

| Poey et al. 2017 ¹³¹ | USA | NH | 10 | 6214 | None | Meeting my needs and concerns, appeal of NH as a home, safety, security, cleanliness, taste of food,, food variety, food quality, enjoyable dining, Laundry services. | No | No | No |
|---------------------------------|-----|----|----|------|------|---|----|----|----|
|---------------------------------|-----|----|----|------|------|---|----|----|----|

Note: NH=nursing home; AL= assisted nursing home; RAC=residential aged care; EFA= exploratory factor analysis; CFA=confirmatory factor analysis.

3.2 Development of a satisfaction survey in Long term care health facilities in Japan: Based on the Ohio Department of Aging-Resident Satisfaction Survey (Study 4)

3.2.1 Aims

The aim of this study is to develop resident satisfaction survey in LTCHFs in Japan based on the Ohio Department of Aging-Resident Satisfaction Survey.

3.2.2 Method

Survey design procedure

In initial stage, ODA-RSS was translated into Japanese by me, LTCHFs administrators and experts in gerontology after obtaining the permission of the ODA-RSS via email. An initial literature review using PubMed and JAMAS returned no results regarding resident satisfaction survey being used at LTCHFs. Subsequently, a search using the Electronic database of "Yahoo! JAPAN" was used to identify possible satisfaction surveys being used at LTCHFs. The query was built using the keywords "satisfaction in LTCHFs". As a result, 23 resident satisfaction survey were found and the contents were investigated in figure 7. One of the results of this letter query, based on satisfaction survey in LTCHFs, was used to investigate the consistency topic of ODA-RSS in Japan. None of the 23 surveys had conducted psychometrical test. Nevertheless, most of the items belonging to ODA-RSS domains appeared except the laundry domain. In addition, items regarding rehabilitation appeared in 18 LTCHFs among total of 23 LTCHFs. Approximately, 70% of the facilities had items regarding bathing. Based on an overview of Japanese survey, we added 2 items concerning rehabilitation, 3 items related to bathing, 1 item related to the 'choice' domain. Also, 2 items related to laundry were excluded. Response categories and score were the same with ODA-RSS: 'Yes, definitely'=1, 'Yes, Maybe'=2, 'No, I don't think so'=3, 'No, definitely'=4, 'I don't know' was not scored.

Cognitive interviews were conducted with 12 LTCHFs' residents using 47 items. This was done to determine the item wording and the appropriate number of items. Cognitive interviews lasted from 20-40 minutes per resident and almost all of the residents claimed heavy burden in completing the survey. Additionally, some items seemed to be

not applicable and less important. On the basis of the cognitive interviews and review of surveys in LTCHFs, I and experts in gerontology re-considered the items which are less relevant in Japan and reduced the number of items to 33. (Appendix 1)

| | NO of | No. of | | | | Employee | Employee | <u> </u> | | Facility | Resident | Overall |
|-----------------------------|-------|--------|------------|--------|----------------|----------|----------|---------------|-------|----------|----------|---------|
| Facility name | | | Activities | Choice | Rehabilitation | | | Communication | Meals | | | |
| 1.介護保健施設 青寿会 | 31 | 6 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2.介護老人保健施設 まいえ | 48 | 9 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3.医療法人 光慈会 介護老人保 健施設 かりや | 23 | 5 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4.介護老人保健施設 ふれあいの 渚 | 18 | 8 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5.仙台南病院附属介護老人 保健 施設 | 34 | 6 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6.介護老人保健施設ソルヴィラー ジュ | 29 | 4 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7.介護老人保健施設 富士中央ケ アセンター | 32 | 10 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8.医療法人幸信会 介護保健施設 | 19 | 3 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9.介護老人保健施設 リハリゾー ト青葉 | 28 | 8 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10.社会福祉法人三篠会 ふれあ いライフ原 | 20 | 8 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11.介護老人保健施設 しびのさと | 14 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 12.滝野川病院附属介護老人保健 施設 | 15 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 13.老人保健施設 かみつが | 11 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 14.介護老人保健施設 恵の杜 | 13 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 15.介護老人保健施設 一心館 | 26 | 7 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16.社会福祉法人栄和会 | 56 | 4 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 17.介護老人保健施設 都筑シニ アセンター | 8 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18.ヨナハ介護保健施設 | 9 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 19.ウエルハウス西宮だより 介 護保健施設 | 4 | 4 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20.南海医療センター附属介護老 人保健施設 | 49 | 7 | | | | | | | | | | |

| 21.介護老人保健施設 あげお愛 友の里 | 25 | 8 | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|----|---|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|----|
| 22.介護老人保健施設(しらさぎ 苑) | 25 | 7 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 23.介護保健老人施設 グリーン ビレッジ朝霞台 | 12 | 4 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | | | 20 | 5 | 18 | 20 | 14 | 14 | 19 | 16 | 18 | 8 | 12 |

Note: Blue bank means at least one the items including OHIO domain appeared in LTCHFs.

Bathing and rehabilitation domains were added because most of facility were used.

Figure 7. Descriptive of contents of resident satisfaction survey in long-term care health facilities in Japan. (N=23)

Data collection

Data was collected from 106 residents who admitted to 9 LTCHFs during July to October 2017 through a mailed questionnaire. Only residents who could answer the survey by themselves and without cognitive problem (Hasegawa dementia score<20)¹³² were included. All residents were required to answer the questions by themselves. Among them, 3 respondents who had more than 4 items with missing responses were excluded. 10 respondents were excluded due to having more than 4 responses of "I don't know". 93 residents remained in the sample for the analysis.

Validity and reliability

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)¹³³ was used to verify construct validity of the satisfaction survey of residents in LTCHFs. In this study CFA is used 1) to assess if the theoretically determined scales maintain validity after being translated 2) with assumption that measure a single construct can have a meaningful dimensional structure, and that assessing its separate dimensions would lead to a better understanding of the overall construct¹³⁴ – in this case, resident satisfaction in LTCHFs.

To assess the adequacy of factor structure, several model fit indices were used including the chi-square / degree of freedom ratio (normed chi-square, NC), comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (IFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA).

Internal consistency reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha for each factor and for the full measure. Obtaining a Cronbach's alpha value larger than 0.6 was considered sufficient to indicate acceptable reliably. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed using IBM SPSS AMOS.

Ethical consideration

This study was approved by the ethical committee of the University of Tsukuba (NO. 1164). Before completing the questionnaire, a letter with clear explanation of this study was given to participants and those who answered the questionnaire were regarded as providing consent.

3.2.3 Results

Characteristics of participants

Table 18 represents characteristics of participants. The mean age of participants were 84.3 years old, female accounted for 75.3% of the total participants and 83.9% had a care-need level 1 to 3 (higher care-need levels indicates more disability). Approximately 82% of the total participants were shared room residents.

Table 18. Characteristics of participants (N=93)

| | Mean(SD) | |
|-----------------------------|------------|--|
| Age | 84.3(8.0) | |
| | n (%) | |
| Sex | | |
| Male | 23 (24.7) | |
| Female | 710 (75.3) | |
| Care-need level | | |
| Care-need level 1 | 21 (22.6) | |
| Care-need level 2 | 28 (30.1) | |
| Care-need level 3 | 29 (31.2) | |
| Care-need level 4 | 8 (8.6) | |
| Care-need level 5 | 3 (3.2) | |
| Missing | 4 (4.3) | |
| length of stay | | |
| Shorter than 6 months | 41 (44.1) | |
| Same or longer than 6 month | 51 (54.8) | |
| Missing | 1 (1.1) | |
| Room type | | |
| Private room | 17 (18.3) | |
| Shared room | 76 (81.7) | |

Construct validity and internal consistency reliability

Before CFA analysis, one item related to facility environment ("Are outside walkways and grounds well taken care of?") was excluded due to 29% of participants replied "missing-don't know". This might because in LTCHFs, residents commonly are not able to go outside of the facility alone, and commonly go outside together with staff. Therefore, lots of residents remain inside the facility and don't know the condition of outside grounds.

Table 19 presents validity of different CFA structure models. Model 1 was analyzed to investigate the theoretically determined model of ODA-RSS which includes all items. Model 2 and 3 was done to find a meaningful dimensional structure, and assess its separate domains to better understand the overall construct. Model 1 showed poor model fit (x^2 [df = 360]=636.1, p<0.001, CFI=0.718, RMSEA=0.091). Three domains of "Choice", "Bathing" and "Facility environment" indicated poor reliability in model 1. Based on model 1, items in the domains with low reliability were excluded and model 2 was tested. This provided a better model fit and smaller chi-square / d.f. ratio, however it still didn't fit data well. Therefore, items that with factor loading lower than 0.5 were excluded and tested in model 3. Significant improvement with most of the fit indices showed sufficient fit between data and structural model. Good reliability was found for the separate domains and overall value of Cronbach's α was 0.85.

Relationship of domains with overall satisfaction

Table 20 presents the relationship of the domains and overall satisfaction in order of importance. Overall satisfaction is calculated by means of two overall satisfaction items: "overall, do you like living here" and "would you recommend this place to a family member or friend". (Cronbach $\alpha = 0.706$) As a result, employee relations domain was most associated with overall satisfaction.

Table 19. Confirmatory factor analysis model fit statistics for satisfaction survey

| | Factor loading | | | | |
|--|-----------------|---------|-----------------|--|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | | |
| Activities | $\alpha = 0.71$ | | $\alpha = 0.71$ | | |
| 1. Do you get enough information about the activities offered here? | 0.58 | 0.60 | 0.59 | | |
| 2. Do you have enough to do here? | 0.69 | 0.70 | 0.70 | | |
| 3. Are you satisfied with the activities offered here? | 0.84 | 0.82 | 0.83 | | |
| Employee relations | $\alpha = 0.74$ | | $\alpha = 0.74$ | | |
| 4. Are the people who work here friendly? | 0.74 | 0.74 | 0.75 | | |
| 5. Are the employees courteous to you? | 0.70 | 0.70 | 0.70 | | |
| 6. Can you depend on the employees? | 0.66 | 0.65 | 0.65 | | |
| Communication | $\alpha = 0.81$ | | $\alpha = 0.81$ | | |
| 7. Would you feel comfortable speaking up when you have a problem? | 0.77 | 0.76 | 0.76 | | |
| 8. Are the staff available to talk with you when you have problem? | 0.79 | 0.77 | 0.78 | | |
| 9. Do the staff take care of your problem promptly? | 0.76 | 0.79 | 0.77 | | |
| Choice | $\alpha = 0.46$ | | | | |
| 10. Can you choose the clothes that you wear? | 0.17 | - | _ | | |
| 11. Are you free to come and go as you please? | 0.63 | - | _ | | |
| 12. Are the staff available to take care of you when you go outside? | 0.56 | - | - | | |
| Rehabilitation | $\alpha = 0.63$ | | $\alpha = 0.63$ | | |
| 13. Do the therapist take enough time with you when having rehabilitation? | 0.52 | 0.54 | 0.53 | | |
| 14. Do you feel the therapy is effective? | 0.83 | 0.83 | 0.84 | | |
| Meals | $\alpha = 0.73$ | | $\alpha = 0.76$ | | |
| 15. Do you get enough to eat? | 0.49 | 0.44 | | | |
| 16. Can you get the foods you like? | 0.56 | 0.54 | 0.55 | | |
| 17. Is the food here tasty? | 0.65 | 0.75 | 0.81 | | |
| 18. Do you enjoy your meal? | 0.80 | 0.79 | 0.76 | | |
| Employee responsiveness | $\alpha = 0.67$ | | $\alpha = 0.64$ | | |
| 19. During the weekdays, is a staff person available to help you if you need it? | 0.80 | 0.78 | 0.78 | | |
| 20. During the weekends, is a staff person available to help you if you need it? | 0.48 | 0.67 | 0.65 | | |
| 21. Is a staff person available when you are in an emergency? | 0.63 | 0.50 | - | | |
| Bathing | $\alpha = 0.46$ | | | | |
| 22. Do you get enough times to have a bath? | 0.25 | _ | _ | | |
| 23. Do the staff provide bathing assistance in appropriate way? | 0.48 | _ | _ | | |
| 24. Do the staff take care of your privacy when having bathing service? | 0.59 | - | - | | |
| Facility environment | $\alpha = 0.55$ | | | | |
| 25. Is this place clean enough for you? | 0.58 | - | - | | |
| 26. Do you feel safe here? | 0.51 | - | - | | |
| 27. Is this place quiet when it should be? | 0.53 | - | - | | |
| Resident environment | $\alpha = 0.62$ | | $\alpha = 0.64$ | | |
| 28. Do you feel safe to put your private things in your room? | 0.51 | 0.35 | - | | |
| 29. Are the satisfied with your room? | 0.71 | 0.72 | 0.70 | | |
| 30. Do you think this is a pleasant place for people to visit? | 0.53 | 0.67 | 0.72 | | |
| Fit indices for the alternative factor models | | | | | |
| χ^2/df . | 1.77 | 1.68 | 1.40 | | |
| p-value | < 0.001 | < 0.001 | 0.03 | | |
| RMSEA | 0.001 | 0.086 | 0.066 | | |
| CFI | 0.718 | 0.833 | 0.921 | | |
| IFI | 0.745 | 0.833 | 0.921 | | |
| | 0.743 | 0.04/ | 0.720 | | |

The commonly used cut-points for each fit indices were: $(x^2/d.f. < 2 \text{ or } 3; \text{RMSEA} < 0.08; \text{CFI} > 0.90; \text{IFI} > 0.90, \alpha = \text{Cronbach's } \alpha; d.f. = \text{degree of freedom; RMSEA} = \text{root mean square error of approximation; CFI} = \text{comparative fit index, IFI} = \text{incremental fit index}$

Table 20. Correlation of scales with overall satisfaction

| Domains in resident satisfaction survey | Correlation |
|---|-------------|
| 1. Employee relations | 6.27 |
| 2. Communication | 5.93 |
| 3. Rehabilitation | 4.77 |
| 4. Activities | 4.67 |
| 5. Residence environment | 4.52 |
| 6. Meals | 4.38 |
| 7. Employee responsiveness | 3.65 |

Note: All correlations are significant at the <.001 level. (N: 68~75)

3.2.4 Discussion

This study is first to develop a resident satisfaction survey in LTCHFs by examining psychometric properties. The final model reduced a starting pool of 30 items in 10 domains to 18 items in 7 domains: activities, employee relations, communication, rehabilitation, meals, employee responsiveness, resident environment. Evidence of overall fit of the model 3 showed sufficient construct validity and consistency reliability.

Content validity of ODA-RSS is supported by literature review of existing satisfaction instrument.²⁸ 60 topic areas were selected from summarized 90 topic areas according to a rank of importance. Then, cognitive interviews were conducted to ask residents to identify additional topics important to satisfaction survey to develop a more comprehensive survey.²⁸ Based on the ODA-RSS, this study examined contents of existing LTCHFs resident satisfaction survey. Moreover, residents' opinions of inapplicable questions based on cognitive interview were investigated by me and three experts in gerontology to develop more applicable and comprehensive survey.

Good construct validity was shown after excluding three domains with low reliability (Cronbach's alpha <0.6) and two items with smaller than 0.5 factor loading. Domains from final model showed significant correlation with overall satisfaction score.

Same domains of ODA-RSS and resident satisfaction survey in LTCHFs

Six of eight domains of ODA-RSS remained in the resident satisfaction survey in LTCHFs. The domains of employee relations, communication, employee relations and responsiveness include topics such as regarding friendly, dependable staff and problem solving. These items were reported as indicative of quality of life issue, ⁴⁵ and also identified as useful items for Canada assisted living facility. Cook et al. 2012 argued that quality of care may provide an important starting point for assessing satisfaction regardless of setting. ⁴⁵ One Japanese study indicated that items such as listening residents problems, friendly are identified as important items included in scale of resident satisfaction survey in home care service. ⁶⁷

Items from meal and residence environment domain were also showed to be suitable for LTCHFs. Several previous studies supported including meal domains in resident satisfaction measures both in assisted living and nursing home settings.^{28, 40, 44, 45, 126, 131} This means regardless of setting, meal service and residence environment are important.

Excluded domains in resident satisfaction survey in LTCHFs

Domains of facility environment and choice were excluded due to low reliability (Cronbach's alpha < 0.6). Items in facility environment domain were topics such as safety, cleanliness and comfortableness. These items failed to capture the same concept of facility environment. When summarizing the content of existing 23 facilities satisfaction survey, items related to facility environment or physical environment appeared in most of facilities (18/23). This means facility environment is an important domain for satisfaction in LTCHFs. Further study should be modify the contents of items in facility environment domain.

The choice domain included items covering topics such as clothes and being able to move around freely inside and outside the facility. These items were not captured in the same concept of choice. Since a domain of 'choice' appeared only in the ODA-RSS⁴⁵ and only five of twenty-three facilities used the items in Japan, first step of further modification should be to consider if choice is useful or important in LTCHFs. This study add new domain of bathing, however items were failed to indicate same concept. Items in the bathing domain were topics such as privacy, aids and amount of service. Since most of Japanese facilities (16/23) have items regarding bathing, it might be an important domain of satisfaction.

There are several limitations which may be of concern. First, although is has been reported that 39% of studies had sample sizes less than $100^{135,\,136}$ in psychology studies which use explanatory factor analysis, the small sample size of this study might be problematic for generalizability. A current review reported that an effective sample size increase by the number of factors and lower factor loading in CFA model. A four factor, three items model requires more than 200 participants at a factor loading of 0.65. Thus, larger sample size is important to develop national satisfaction survey instrument. Second, one should mention is, compared to the interview survey of ODA-RSS, this study used a written questionnaire survey. The higher burden that residents feel with a questionnaire survey than interview might have an effect on response rates. Third, the

subjects of this study were composed of healthier residents who could answer questionnaire by themselves. It implies that satisfaction of residents with function and cognitive impairment were not reflected. Fourth, this study used satisfaction surveys from 23 Japanese facilities, publicly disclosed in a website with the purpose of assessing consistency between the OHIO survey and the Japanese survey. However, there is no doubt that interviews with residents should also be conducted to summarize important topics of resident satisfaction in Japan. The author plans to continue improving the satisfaction survey in the near future.

To sum-up, this is the first study to develop resident satisfaction survey in LTCHFs in Japan. Among 10 domains of ODA-RSS, 7 domains were shown to demonstrate good reliability and validity. Further modification of choice, facility environment and bathing should be conducted.

Chapter 4: Overall discussion and conclusion

4.1 Overall discussion

In this chapter, a general discussion will be presented based on results of each studies and discussed implementations for practice and future directions. This thesis focused on quality of care measurement form both clinical outcomes and consumer's perspectives. Figure 8 presents risk factors based on findings of studies by combining with SPO system model. According to the findings, all the components of contextual, structure, process and resident characteristics had effect on quality of care.

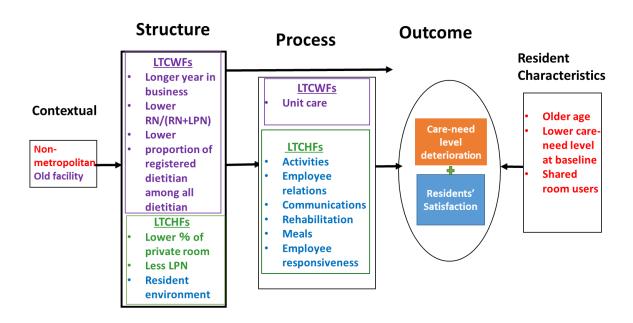


Figure 8. Results of studies combining with SPO system model ¹⁶

<u>Description of quality of care using care-need level outcome indicator among all facilities.</u>

Study 1 was conducted to describe the status of quality of care in national level, by applying an outcome indicator, in terms of care-need level change. As a result, the deterioration rate among facilities on average was 15.9% and varied from 0 to 58.3%. The distribution of care-need level adjusted deterioration rate among all facilities could have practical use for evaluation of quality of care. For example, the facility with the

highest deterioration rate of 58.3% could be a problematic facility. Care-need adjusted deterioration rate is superior to existing outcome assessment in long-term care compensation such as additional charge for high home rate⁶⁹ because it could apply to all types of long-term care facilities and adjusted by resident's health status. In USA, facility level QIs was used to determine high or low quality of care⁹ and QIs such as incidence of ADL decline were already disclosed in public and could be confirm in the government website.⁸¹ Thus, there is possibility to apply car-need level adjusted deterioration rate as QI.

However, there are some limitations when applying care-need level adjusted deterioration as quality indicator. First, government assesses care-need level strictly according to a national standardized computer-aided system that created based on time study for caring.⁵⁴ Thus, care needs level might reflect care needs a little broader than ADL, and reported to have strongly correlation with ADL⁷¹ which is mainly used in other countries as QI. Although, care-need level were used as outcome indicator in previous researches. 75, 76, 84, 112 However, the validation of the care-need level measurement itself has yet to be investigated. This should be investigated in near future. Second, this study excluded care-need level 5 when calculating deterioration rates. This is to prevent ceiling effect. However, approximately 32.7% of the total residents are care-need level 5. Future study should investigate relationship between mortality of care-need level 5 residents and deterioration rate to clarify a possible bias due to exclusion. To prevent floor effect, care-need level 1 was excluded when calculation improvement rate. Though only 3.37% of the total of residents were excluded, the bias due to exclusion should also be investigated. Third, the care-need level certificate is available for a maximum of two years (one year in principle). LTCI users are allowed to re-apply for the care-need level certificate whenever they experienced functional changes even in a short period, such as one month. However residents who did not apply for reassessment in one year were regarded as sustainment and bias due to such situation should be a concern.

Quality of care improvement and risk factors associated with care-need level deterioration

Care-need level deterioration brought more burden for caregivers and higher health expenditure for individuals and government.¹³⁸ Care-need level could be a possible QI because it is strongly associates with ADL.⁷¹ Previous studies have provided evidence of both resident and facility characteristics associated with functional decline⁸⁵, however, no relevant studies was found for Japan.

Studies 2 and 3 attempted to investigate resident and facility characteristics associated in care-need level deterioration. Study 2 focused on LTCWFs and study 3 focused on LTCHFs.

Staffing level

Higher proportion of RN and less LPN per 100 users

This thesis suggests the importance of nurse staffing skill mix. A lower proportion of RN and more LPN per 100 users were risk factors. Previous studies have found nursing staff level (i.e., proportion of RN, LPN, RN.) to be an important factor in quality. According to previous studies, Registered Nurses, with their higher education levels, may have better knowledge and skills to assess and monitor changes in patient condition and develop proper interventions in time, and also have better leadership and supervisory skills. 110, 111, 141 One previous study has reported existing phenomenon of filling most RN position with LPN, which could be contribute to poor care quality. Thus, cost-effectiveness studies and simulation studies are necessary to inform nursing homes of different options of nurse staffing mix and level and their financial impacts. 141

Dietitians

A higher proportion of registered dietitian among all dietitian were significantly less deteriorated in care-need level. A higher proportion of registered dietitians among all dietitians may affect the physical status of residents because registered dietitians may play an important role in providing appropriate instructions according to the health condition. Based on these findings, the percentage of registered dietitian among all dietitians may need to be considered in developing requirements for the appropriate staffing of LTCWFs.

Private room at resident level and facility level

At resident level

Private room users were less likely to deteriorate than shared room users. Additionally, no facility effect was found for private room users. This study argues that care recipients' economic status act as confounder. Thus, high SES as a protective factor, could protect residents from care-need level deterioration even if the overall facility quality of care is not high. There are several advantages to residing in a private room. Previous studies have reported that there are lower risk of nosocomial infections such as pneumonia¹¹⁴ and higher satisfaction. For providers and managers, shared room increased time and efforts for residents admission and managing conflict and trasfers. This may indirectly lead to higher quality of care for private room users than shared room users. *At facility level*

Facility with higher percentage of private room was significantly associated with less deterioration for shared room users. However, none of the previous studies have reported that percentage of private room as having an effect on shared room users. This study indicates that facility with higher percentage of private room may less suffer from infection because private room have less infection risk than shared room.¹¹⁴

Rurality

Non-metropolitan facilities were more likely to have patient deterioration than metropolitan facilities. According to previous studies, rural facility were less likely to provide staff training program, special care program and mental health services.¹⁷ Additionally, higher competition in urban care markets may be related to higher quality¹⁶ and have an effect on quality of care. One Japanese study have reported that the supply of long-term care facilities has exceed the demand in urban areas, however rural areas suffer from a lack of long-term care facilities.¹⁴⁴ Future study is need to clarify the reason of association between care-need level deterioration and rurality.

Satisfaction survey in LTCHFs

Consumer satisfaction represents a valuable subjective measure of quality of care^{12, 45} and it is one of the core outcome measures in health care.¹⁴⁵ DiPalo has stated that "the impact of health care cannot be fully understood without considering the satisfaction of patient".¹⁴⁵ Study 4 was conducted to develop resident satisfaction survey for LTCHFs. As a result, 18 items converted to 7 domains were showed adequate reliability and validity.

In the USA, the state of Ohio has conducted resident satisfaction survey every two years since 2002 and all the results were disclosed on a government website. 146 The results have helped consumers select long-term care facilities that best meet their meets their needs and preferences. Survey results are also made available to facility operators to help them identify areas for continuous quality improvement. 147 Likewise in Japan, by conducting satisfaction survey using validated and unified one, providers can compare themselves with other facilities and check fr problematic aspects of their services. However there are several barriers in practical application. First, the survey developed for this study was not perfect to cover most of important domains of satisfaction survey. Thus this study recommended further refinement and test is needed. Second, most residents suffer from dementia. The participants in study 4 only covered 10% of total residents. Thus, an available quality measure for dementia resident such as observational research is recommended. Third, this study focused on LTCHFs which only accommodate residents who are in care-need level of 1 to 5. Other types of long-term care facility, such as private residential homes, might have better response rates because there are no limitations on entering private residential homes for the elderly who are older than 65.

4.2 Conclusion

This thesis concludes that quality of care should be measured from both, a clinical outcome and a consumer's perspective to improve quality of care comprehensively. Distribution of care-need level deterioration among all facilities varied widely (0 to 58.3%). This distribution could be a useful tool to find out possibly problematic facilities. However, the limitations regarding the assessment of care-need level certificates and the ceiling effect and floor effect should be considered. Multi-level of both resident and facility effect were found in this thesis and those associated risk factors could be a documentation of quality improve program. Additionally, most of facility characteristics used in this thesis were structural characteristics; further studies should consider process characteristics broadly. Satisfaction survey was developed with psychometric test. This survey could be a useful tool to provide information for consumers to select their preference facility. However, satisfaction survey of this thesis remains to be modified for future national level use. Despite of these limitation, this thesis is the first to measure quality of care in long-term care facilities in national level, and first to develop resident satisfaction survey with psychometric properties in Japan.

4.3 Author contributions

This dissertation is based on four collaborative researches, and the author played a key role all of them and made the most substantial contribution in overall findings contained in this dissertation. Only the author conducted data management, all statistical analysis and writing.

Detail contributions to the studies in this thesis are as follows:

Conceptualization: The broad concept of the studies were discussed with Nanako Tamiya, Boyoung Jeon, Okochi Jiro and Yoko Moriyama, but the detailed hypotheses for each study were formulated by the author.

Data curation: Application of secondary data from Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare which was used in study 1, 2, 3 were contributed by Nanako Tamiya, Akira Kawamura, Hideto Takahashi, and Haruko Noguchi. Data collection of study 4 was carried out by the author. For all studies, the management of data for initial use and statistical analysis was conducted by the author.

Formal Analysis: All the statistical analysis were conducted by the author.

Method: The method of study 1 was discussed with supervisor Tamiya Nanako and the author conducted the detailed creation of models for study 1,2,3,4.

Software: The author handled almost all of the statistical programming.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor, Prof. Nanako Tamiya, who supported me greatly not only in the scientific area but also maintain my morale in the period of the doctor program. She also encouraged me a lot and gave me motivation to stick to the end when I have troubles or upset. She gave a lot of chance to participate domestic and international academic conferences. Thanks to her, I had chance to get prize in academic conferences under her indispensable comments and professional view. I also learned a lot also from her attitude towards life, and hope I can be as positive, enthusiastic and energetic as her.

I would like to thank my reviewer Prof. Masahide Kondo, Prof. Nobuaki Morita and Dr. Noriko Okamoto for their insightful comments and encouragements. Special mention goes to my enthusiastic principle reviewer Prof. Masahide Kondo, thanks for his time, brilliant comments and suggestions. I would like to express my special appreciation to my external reviewer Prof. Tatsuro Ishizaki who is an expert in the field regarding with my studies in this thesis. His constructive suggestions in the final stages of my degree was invaluable.

I would like to thank Boyoung Jeon who always listening to my pain and gave me a lot valuable advice. I also would like to thank staffs and members in health services research department in University of Tsukuba. Especially Hiroaki Ueshima and Felipe Sandoval gave me lots of support and encouragements during PhD life.

I would like to thank all my PhD colleagues, Chaochen Ma and Yansong Wang, with whom I have shared moments of deep anxiety but also of big excitement.

A special thanks to my mother and father who always provides me emotional support whenever I need.

This thesis was supported by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (H27-seisaku-senryaku-012 and H28- cardiovascular disease-general -009). This thesis was also one part of developing quality indicator to assess quality of care project supported by Japan Medical Data Center (CGE 27171K).

References

- [1] OECD (2015), Health at a Glance 2015: OECD Indicators, OECD Publishing, Paris. Available form URL: http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/documents/s22177en/s22177en.pdf.
- [2] Sanford AM, Orrell M, Tolson D, et al. An international definition for "nursing home". *J Am Med Dir Assoc* 2015; **16**: 181-4.
- [3] Wan He DG, Paul Kowal. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. An Aging World: 2015. Available from the URL: https://census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2016/demo/p95-16-1.pdf 2016
- [4] Scanlon WJ. A perspective on long-term care for the elderly. *Health care financing review* 1988; **1988**: 7-15.
- [5] Wiener JM, Anderson WL, Brown D. Centres for Medicare and Medicaid Services. Why Are Nursing Home Utilization Rates Declining?, 2009.
- [6] Stancanelli E. IZA World of Labor. Institutional long-term care and government regulation. 2015.
- [7] Janiszewski Goodin H. The nursing shortage in the United States of America: an integrative review of the literature. *Journal of advanced nursing* 2003; **43**: 335-43.
- [8] Foreign Lessons: Is There Value Added? *Health Affairs* 2001; **20**: 6-7.
- [9] Nakrem S, Vinsnes AG, Harkless GE, Paulsen B, Seim A. Nursing sensitive quality indicators for nursing home care: International review of literature, policy and practice. *International Journal of Nursing Studies* 2009; **46**: 848-57.
- [10] Donabedian A. The definition of quality and approaches to its assessment. *Health Administration Press* 1980.
- [11] IOM. Medicare: A Strategy for Quality Assurance. *National Academy Press* 1996; **1**.
- [12] Harris-Kojetin LD, Stone RI. The role of consumer satisfaction in ensuring quality long-term care: opportunities and challenges. *Journal of aging & social policy* 2007; **19**: 43-61.
- [13] Donabedian A. The quality of care. How can it be assessed? *Jama* 1988; **260**: 1743-8.
- [14] Kim H, Kovner C, Harrington C, Greene W, Mezey M. A Panel Data Analysis of the Relationships of Nursing Home Staffing Levels and Standards to Regulatory Deficiencies. *The journals of gerontology Series B, Psychological sciences and social sciences* 2009; **64b**: 269-78.
- [15] Castle NG, Ferguson JC. What Is Nursing Home Quality and How Is It Measured? *The Gerontologist* 2010; **50**: 426-42.
- [16] Unruh L, Wan TT. A systems framework for evaluating nursing care quality in nursing homes. *Journal of medical systems* 2004; **28**: 197-214.
- [17] Kang Y, Meng H, Miller NA. Rurality and nursing home quality: evidence from the 2004 National Nursing Home Survey. *The Gerontologist* 2011; **51**: 761-73.
- [18] Shippee TP, Henning-Smith C, Kane RL, Lewis T. Resident-and facility-level predictors of quality of life in long-term care. *The Gerontologist* 2013; **55**: 643-55.
- [19] Fatemeh G, Nahid Jahani S, Farzaneh J, Habibollah E. Application of Donabedian quality-of-care framework to assess the outcomes of preconception care in urban health centers, Mashhad, Iran in 2012. *Journal of Midwifery & Reproductive Health* 2013; **2**: 50-59.
- [20] Glass AP. Nursing home quality: a framework for analysis. *Journal of applied gerontology: the official journal of the Southern Gerontological Society* 1991; **10**: 5-18.
- [21] Rockville. Types of Quality Measures. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, 2011.
- [22] Linn MW, Gurel L, Linn BS. Patient outcome as a measure of quality of nursing home care. *American journal of public health* 1977; **67**: 337-44.
- [23] Bellows NM, Halpin HA. MDS-based state Medicaid reimbursement and the ADL-decline quality indicator. *The Gerontologist* 2008; **48**: 324-9.
- [24] Yamada YaNI. Evaluating quality using MDS-QI(Minimum data set- Quality indicators): Testing in long-term care insurance facilities. *Hospital administration* 2004;

- 41(4): 277-87.
- [25] Rantz MJ, Flesner MK, Zwygart-Stauffacher M. Improving Care in Nursing Homes Using Quality Measures/Indicators and Complexity Science. *Journal of nursing care quality* 2010; **25**: 5-12.
- [26] Porell F, Caro FG. Facility-level outcome performance measures for nursing homes. *The Gerontologist* 1998; **38**: 665-83.
- [27] Zimmerman DR, Karon SL, Arling G, et al. Development and Testing of Nursing Home Quality Indicators. *Health care financing review* 1995; **16**: 107-27.
- [28] Straker JK, Ejaz FK, McCarthy C, Jones JA. Developing and testing a satisfaction survey for nursing home residents: the Ohio Experience. *Journal of aging & social policy* 2007; **19**: 83-105.
- [29] Castle NG. A review of satisfaction instruments used in long-term care settings. Journal of aging & social policy 2007; **19**: 9-41.
- [30] Van Nie NC, Hollands LJ, Hamers JP. Reporting quality of nursing home care by an internet report card. *Patient education and counseling* 2010; **78**: 337-43.
- [31] Joint Commision on Accreditation of Healthcare Organization (2007). Attributes of Core Performance Measures and Associated Evaluation Criteria. Available from URL: https://www.jointcommission.org/attributes_of_core_performance_measures_and_associated_evaluation_criteria/. 2007.
- [32] Institute of Medicine (1986). Improving the quality of care in nursing homes. National Academy Press, 1986.
- [33] United States (1961). Nursing home standards guide; recommendations relating to standards for establishing, maintaining, and operating nursing homes. Washington, 1961.
- [34] Hutchinson AM, Milke DL, Maisey S, et al. The Resident Assessment Instrument-Minimum Data Set 2.0 quality indicators: a systematic review. *BMC health services research* 2010; **10**: 166.
- [35] Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (2016). Long-Term Care Facility Resident Assessment Instrument 3.0 User's Manual. Available from the URL: https://downloads.cms.gov/files/MDS-30-RAI-Manual-V114-October-2016.pdf 2016.
- [36] Jones RN, Hirdes JP, Poss JW, et al. Adjustment of nursing home quality indicators. *BMC health services research* 2010; **10**: 96.
- [37] MOR V, FINNE-SOVERI H, HIRDES JP, GILGEN R, DUPASQUIER J-N. using the interRAI common clinical assessment language. *Performance measurement for health system improvement: Experiences, challenges and prospects* 2009: 472.
- [38] Knaus VL, Felten S, Burton S, Fobes P, Davis K. The Use of Nurse Practitioners in the Acute Care Setting. *Journal of Nursing Administration* 1997; **27**: 20-27.
- [39] Moran L, White E, Eales J, Fast J, Keating N. Evaluating consumer satisfaction in residential continuing care settings. *Journal of aging & social policy* 2002; **14**: 85-109.
- [40] Gesell SB. A measure of satisfaction for the assisted-living industry. *Journal for healthcare quality : official publication of the National Association for Healthcare Quality* 2001; **23**: 16-25.
- [41] Lowe TJ, Lucas JA, Castle NG, Robinson JP, Crystal S. Consumer satisfaction in long-term care: state initiatives in nursing homes and assisted living facilities. *The Gerontologist* 2003; **43**: 883-96.
- [42] Ryden MB, Gross CR, Savik K, et al. Development of a measure of resident satisfaction with the nursing home. *Res Nurs Health* 2000; **23**: 237-45.
- [43] Castle NG, Lowe TJ, Lucas JA, Robinson JP, Crystal S. Use of Resident Satisfaction Surveys in New Jersey Nursing Homes and Assisted Living Facilities. *Journal of Applied Gerontology* 2004; **23**: 156-71.
- [44] Chou SC, Boldy DP, Lee AH. Measuring resident satisfaction in residential aged care. *The Gerontologist* 2001; **41**: 623-31.
- [45] Cooke HA, Yamashita T, Brown JS, Straker JK, Baiton Wilkinson S. An international comparison of the Ohio department of aging-resident satisfaction survey: applicability in a U.S. and Canadian sample. *The Gerontologist* 2013; **53**: 1032-45.

- [46] Sangl J, Buchanan J, Cosenza C, et al. The development of a CAHPS instrument for Nursing Home Residents (NHCAHPS). *Journal of aging & social policy* 2007; **19**: 63-82.
- [47] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. The Long-term care Insurance System. 2002. Available from the URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/english/topics/elderly/care/2.html.
- [48] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. The circumstances surrounding LTCI. 2014. Availale from the URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/file/05-Shingikai-12601000-Seisakutoukatsukan-Sanjikanshitsu_Shakaihoshoutantou/0000044899.pdf
- [49] Ito M, Kondo K. The challenge and review of quality of care measurement: Focusing on the evaluation in long-term care welfare facilities. *journal of social security research* 2012; **19**: 83-105.
- [50] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Securing human resources for long-term care (In Japanese). 2013. Available from the URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/file/05-Shingikai-12201000-Shakaiengokyokushougaihokenfukushib u-Kikakuka/0000047617.pdf
- [51] Kondo K. Beyond the times of Medical cost control: revolustion of English medical and welfare: IGAKU-SHOIN, 2004.
- [52] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Change in Long-Term Care Benefit Expenses. 2013. Available from the URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/seisakunitsuite/bunya/hukushi_kaigo/kaigo_koureisha/chiiki-houkat_su/dl/link1-2.pdf
- [53] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Long-Term Care Insurance System of Japan. 2016. Available from the URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/english/policy/care-welfare/care-welfare-elderly/dl/ltcisj e.pdf
- [54] Tsutsui T, Muramatsu N. Care-Needs Certification in the Long-Term Care Insurance System of Japan. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2005; **53**.
- [55] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Laws and ordinances on care-need level authorization (In Japanese) 2000. Available from the URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/topics/kaigo/nintei/gaiyo4.html.
- [56] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Long-term care Medical facility.(In Jananese) 2017. Available from URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/file/05-Shingikai-12601000-Seisakutoukatsukan-Sanjikanshitsu_Shakaihoshoutantou/0000174013.pdf
- [57] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Long-term Care Insurance in Japan. 2002. Available from the URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/english/topics/elderly/care/index.html
- [58] Facilities JAoGHS. Geriatric Health Services Facility in Japan., 2014.
- [59] Japanese Nursing Association: Nursing for the older people in Japan. Available from URL: https://www.nurse.or.jp/jna/english/pdf/info-02.pdf
- [60] Yamatoko I. Agenda and Development of Policy regarding quality assurance of welfare service *The reference* 2005; **55**: 4-26.
- [61] Japan National Council of Social Welfare. Implementation status of Third Party Evaluation of welfare service. (In Japanese). 2017. Available from URL: http://shakyo-hyouka.net/evaluation/. 2017.
- [62] Welfare and medical service network system. Available from the URL: http://www.wam.go.jp/content/wamnet/pcpub/top/whatwamnet/PC OPEN whatWamnet Top.html 2017.
- [63] Welfare and medical service network system. WAM NET user survey. (In Japanese)

 Available from URL:

 http://www.wam.go.in/content/wamnot/penuh/ton/whatwamnot/PC_OPEN_whatWamnot_To
- $\frac{http://www.wam.go.jp/content/wamnet/pcpub/top/whatwamnet/PC\ OPEN\ whatWamnet\ To\ p.html\ 2009.$
- [64] Berg K, Mor V, Morris J, Murphy KM, Moore T, Harris Y. Identification and evaluation of existing nursing homes quality indicators. *Health care financing review* 2002; **23**: 19-36.
- [65] Frijters DHM, van der Roest HG, Carpenter IGI, et al. The calculation of quality

- indicators for long term care facilities in 8 countries (SHELTER project). *BMC health* services research 2013; **13**: 138.
- [66] Sandoval Garrido FA, Tamiya N, Kashiwagi M, et al. Relationship between structural characteristics and outcome quality indicators at health care facilities for the elderly requiring long-term care in Japan from a nationwide survey. *Geriatrics & gerontology international* 2014; **14**: 301-8.
- [67] Suga Y. Examination on cross-validity and related factors of a proposed scale for user satisfaction with home help services. *Japanese journal of social welfare* 2007; **48**: 92-103.
- [68] Chie Takami ST, Manabu Mizuko. Validity and reliability of the scale of usrs' satisfaction with service received uder the long-term care insuracne system. *Kawasaki Medical Welfare Society* 2007; **17**: 343-51.
- [69] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Implemention of assing quality of service in Long-term care payment system. 2015. Available from URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/file/05-Shingikai-12601000-Seisakutoukatsukan-Sanjikanshitsu Shakaihoshoutantou/0000089752.pdf.
- [70] Ishibashi T, Harumi K. The Quarity of Care and Resident Satisfaction in Nursing Home and Assisted Living in the U.S. *Administration* 2006; **13**: 1-45.
- [71] Hannda S, Imai Y. Relationship between nursing care-need levels and ADL, BPSD as well as independence degree in daily living for elderly with dementia (In Japanese). *Japanese journal of geriatric* 2016; **27**: 667-74
- [72] Koike S, Furui Y. Long-term care-service use and increases in care-need level among home-based elderly people in a Japanese urban area. *Health policy (Amsterdam, Netherlands)* 2013; **110**: 94-100.
- [73] Kim JN. The Effect of Utilization of In-home Services and the Changes in Levels of. 2012; **7**: 6-14.
- [74] Olivares-Tirado P, Tamiya N, Kashiwagi M. Effect of in-home and community-based services on the functional status of elderly in the long-term care insurance system in Japan. *BMC health services research* 2012; **12**: 239.
- [75] Kato G, Tamiya N, Kashiwagi M, Sato M, Takahashi H. Relationship between home care service use and changes in the care needs level of Japanese elderly. *BMC Geriatr* 2009; **9**: 58.
- [76] Lin HR, Otsubo T, Imanaka Y. The effects of dementia and long-term care services on the deterioration of care-needs levels of the elderly in Japan. *Medicine* 2015; **94**: e525.
- [77] Zimmerman DR. Improving nursing home quality of care through outcomes data: the MDS quality indicators. *International journal of geriatric psychiatry* 2003; **18**: 250-7.
- [78] Nicholl J, Jacques RM, Campbell MJ. Direct risk standardisation: a new method for comparing casemix adjusted event rates using complex models. *BMC medical research methodology* 2013; **13**: 133.
- [79] Curtin LR, Klein RJ. Direct standardization (age-adjusted death rates). *Healthy People 2000 statistical notes* 1995: 1-10.
- [80] Gordis L. *Epidemiology (Fourth edition.)*: Elsevier Saunders 2008.
- [81] Nursing Home Compare, The oficilal U.S. Government site for Medicare. Availabel from the URL:https://www.medicare.gov/nursinghomecompare/search.html.
- [82] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Long-term care facility services. 2012. Available from the URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/file.jsp?id=146267&name=2r98520.
- [83] Takeda S. Two-year survival and changes in the level of care for the elderly patients recognized as in need of long-term care in the public nursing-care insurance scheme. *Japanese journal of public health* 2004; **51**: 157-67.
- [84] Takeshi O, Tsutomu A. Change of long-term care levels and related factors in hom-visit rehabilitation users. *The Journal of Japanese Physical Therapy Association* 2016; **43**: 501-07.
- [85] Palese A, Menegazzi G, Tullio A, Zigotti Fuso M, Hayter M, Watson R. Functional Decline in Residents Living in Nursing Homes: A Systematic Review of the Literature. *J Am*

- Med Dir Assoc 2016; 17: 694-705.
- [86] Li Y, Cai X, Mukamel DB, Glance LG. The Volume-Outcome Relationship in Nursing Home Care: An Examination of Functional Decline Among Long-term Care Residents. *Medical care* 2010; **48**: 52-57.
- [87] Wang J, Chang L-H, Eberly LE, Virnig BA, Kane RL. Cognition Moderates the Relationship Between Facility Characteristics, Personal Impairments, and Nursing Home Residents' Activities of Daily Living. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society* 2010; **58**: 2275-83.
- [88] Frytak JR, Kane RA, Finch MD, Kane RL, Maude-Griffin R. Outcome trajectories for assisted living and nursing facility residents in Oregon. *Health services research* 2001; **36**: 91-111.
- [89] Stark AJ, Kane RL, Kane RA, Finch M. Effect on physical functioning of care in adult foster homes and nursing homes. *The Gerontologist* 1995; **35**: 648-55.
- [90] Porell F, Caro FG, Silva A, Monane M. A longitudinal analysis of nursing home outcomes. *Health services research* 1998; **33**: 835-65.
- [91] Slaughter SE, Eliasziw M, Morgan D, Drummond N. Incidence and predictors of eating disability among nursing home residents with middle-stage dementia. *Clinical nutrition (Edinburgh, Scotland)* 2011; **30**: 172-7.
- [92] Slaughter SE, Eliasziw M, Morgan D, Drummond N. Incidence and predictors of excess disability in walking among nursing home residents with middle-stage dementia: a prospective cohort study. *International psychogeriatrics* 2011; **23**: 54-64.
- [93] Rudman D, Bross D, Mattson DE. Clinical indicators derived from the patient assessment instrument in the long-stay residents of 69 VA nursing homes. *Journal of general internal medicine* 1994; **9**: 261-7.
- [94] Walk D, Fleishman R, Mandelson J. Functional improvement of elderly residents of institutions. *The Gerontologist* 1999; **39**: 720-8.
- [95] Wang J, Kane RL, Eberly LE, Virnig BA, Chang LH. The effects of resident and nursing home characteristics on activities of daily living. *The journals of gerontology Series A, Biological sciences and medical sciences* 2009; **64**: 473-80.
- [96] Sloane PD, Zimmerman S, Gruber-Baldini AL, Hebel JR, Magaziner J, Konrad TR. Health and functional outcomes and health care utilization of persons with dementia in residential care and assisted living facilities: comparison with nursing homes. *The Gerontologist* 2005; **45 Spec No** 1: 124-32.
- [97] Phillips CD, Sloane PD, Hawes C, et al. Effects of residence in Alzheimer disease special care units on functional outcomes. *Jama* 1997; **278**: 1340-4.
- [98] Arling G, Kane RL, Mueller C, Bershadsky J, Degenholtz HB. Nursing effort and quality of care for nursing home residents. *The Gerontologist* 2007; **47**: 672-82.
- [99] Phillips CD, Shen R, Chen M, Sherman M. Evaluating nursing home performance indicators: an illustration exploring the impact of facilities on ADL change. *The Gerontologist* 2007; **47**: 683-9.
- [100] Phillips CD, Chen M, Sherman M. To what degree does provider performance affect a quality indicator? The case of nursing homes and ADL change. *The Gerontologist* 2008; **48**: 330-7.
- [101] Zimmerman S, Gruber-Baldini AL, Sloane PD, et al. Assisted living and nursing homes: apples and oranges? *The Gerontologist* 2003; **43 Spec No 2**: 107-17.
- [102] Zimmerman S, Sloane PD, Eckert JK, et al. How good is assisted living? Findings and implications from an outcomes study. *The journals of gerontology Series B*, *Psychological sciences and social sciences* 2005; **60**: S195-204.
- [103] Allen PD, Klein WC, Gruman C. Correlates of Complaints Made to the Connecticut Long-Term Care Ombudsman Program: The Role of Organizational and Structural Factors. *Research on Aging* 2003; **25**: 631-54.
- [104] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. About unit care (In Japanese) 2015. Available from URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/topics/kaigo/kentou/15kourei/3b.html
- [105] Raudenbush SW BA. Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis

- methods: Sage, 2002.
- [106] Liu X. Applied Ordinal Logistic Regression Using Stata: Sage, 2016.
- [107] Doblhammer G, Hoffmann R. Gender differences in trajectories of health limitations and subsequent mortality. A study based on the German Socioeconomic Panel 1995-2001 with a mortality follow-up 2002-2005. The journals of gerontology Series B, Psychological sciences and social sciences 2010; 65: 482-91.
- [108] Glymour MM, Avendano M, Kawachi I. Socioeconomic status and health. *Social epidemiology* 2014; **2**: 17-63.
- [109] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Survey of institutions and establishments for long-term care. (In Japanese) 2014. Available from URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/toukei/saikin/hw/kaigo/service14/index.html
- [110] Weech-Maldonado R, Meret-Hanke L, Neff MC, Mor V. Nurse staffing patterns and quality of care in nursing homes. *Health care management review* 2004; **29**: 107-16.
- [111] Linn MW, Gurel L, Linn BS. Patient outcome as a measure of quality of nursing home care. *American journal of public health* 1977; **67**: 337-44.
- [112] Olivares-Tirado P, N. Tamiya. Trends and Factors in Japan's Long-Term Care Insurance System: Japan's 10-year experience. *Springer* 2014.
- [113] Burge E, von Gunten A, Berchtold A. Factors favoring a degradation or an improvement in activities of daily living (ADL) performance among nursing home (NH) residents: a survival analysis. *Archives of gerontology and geriatrics* 2013; **56**: 250-7.
- [114] Calkins M, Cassella C. Exploring the cost and value of private versus shared bedrooms in nursing homes. *The Gerontologist* 2007; **47**: 169-83.
- [115] Phillips CD, Holan S, Sherman M, Williams ML, Hawes C. Rurality and nursing home quality: results from a national sample of nursing home admissions. *American journal of public health* 2004; **94**: 1717-22.
- [116] Shippee TP, Henning-Smith C, Kane RL, Lewis T. Resident- and Facility-Level Predictors of Quality of Life in Long-Term Care. *The Gerontologist* 2015; **55**: 643-55.
- [117] Zhang TTHWG-MBNJ. *Improving the Quality of Care in Nursing Homes: An Evidence-Based Approach*: Johns Hopkins University Press; 1 edition August 24, 2010.
- [118] Terada S, Oshima E, Yokota O, et al. Person-centered care and quality of life of patients with dementia in long-term care facilities. *Psychiatry Research* 2013; **205**: 103-08.
- [119] Izawa S, Kuzuya M, Okada K, et al. The nutritional status of frail elderly with care needs according to the mini-nutritional assessment. *Clinical nutrition (Edinburgh, Scotland)* 2006; **25**: 962-7.
- [120] The Japan dietitic association. 2016. Report on present state of registered dietitian in long-term care welfare facilites.(In Jananese) 2015. Available from the URL: https://www.dietitian.or.jp/data/report/h26-1.pdf
- [121] Leung L. Validity, reliability, and generalizability in qualitative research. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care* 2015; **4**: 324-7.
- [122] Noble H, Smith J. Issues of validity and reliability in qualitative research. *Evidence-based nursing* 2015; **18**: 34-5.
- [123] Chou S-C, Boldy DP, Lee AH. Resident Satisfaction and Its Components in Residential Aged Care. *The Gerontologist* 2002; **42**: 188-98.
- [124] Sikorska-Simmons E. Linking Resident Satisfaction to Staff Perceptions of the Work Environment in Assisted Living: A Multilevel Analysis. *The Gerontologist* 2006; **46**: 590-98.
- [125] Sikorska-Simmons E. Development of an Instrument to Measure Resident Satisfaction with Assisted Living. *Journal of Applied Gerontology* 2001; **20**: 57-73.
- [126] Mostyn MM, Race KE, Seibert JH, Johnson M. Quality assessment in nursing home facilities: measuring customer satisfaction. *American journal of medical quality: the official journal of the American College of Medical Quality* 2000; **15**: 54-61.
- [127] Joanne PR, Judith AL, Nicholas GC, Timothy JL, Stephen C. Consumer Satisfaction in Nursing Homes: Current Practices and Resident Priorities. *Research on Aging* 2004; **26**: 454-80.

- [128] Edelman P, Guihan M, Bryant FB, Munroe DJ. Measuring resident and family member determinants of satisfaction with assisted living. *The Gerontologist* 2006; **46**: 599-608.
- [129] Li Y, Cai X, Ye Z, Glance LG, Harrington C, Mukamel DB. Satisfaction With Massachusetts Nursing Home Care Was Generally High during 2005-09, With Some Variability Across Facilities. *Health affairs (Project Hope)* 2013; **32**: 1416-25.
- [130] Barsanti S, Walker K, Seghieri C, Rosa A, Wodchis WP. Consistency of priorities for quality improvement for nursing homes in Italy and Canada: A comparison of optimization models of resident satisfaction. *Health policy (Amsterdam, Netherlands)* 2017; **121**: 862-69.
- [131] Poey JL, Hermer L, Cornelison L, et al. Does Person-Centered Care Improve Residents' Satisfaction With Nursing Home Quality? *JAm Med Dir Assoc* 2017; **18**: 974-79.
- [132] Kato S. Developing a Modified Hasegawa's Dementia Scale(HDS-R). *Japanese journal of geriatric psychiatry* 1991; **2**: 1339-47.
- [133] Brown TA. Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research: Guilford Publications, 2014.
- [134] Sadak T, Korpak A, Borson S. Measuring caregiver activation for health care: Validation of PBH-LCI:D. *Geriatric nursing (New York, NY)* 2015; **36**: 284-92.
- [135] Daniel WR. In Search of Underlying Dimensions: The Use (and Abuse) of Factor Analysis in Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 2002; **28**: 1629-46.
- [136] McNeish D. Exploratory Factor Analysis With Small Samples and Missing Data. *Journal of personality assessment* 2017; **99**: 637-52.
- [137] Wolf EJ, Harrington KM, Clark SL, Miller MW. Sample Size Requirements for Structural Equation Models: An Evaluation of Power, Bias, and Solution Propriety. *Educational and psychological measurement* 2013; **76**: 913-34.
- [138] Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. Health and Welfare Services for the Elderly. 2015. Available from URL: http://www.mhlw.go.jp/english/wp/wp-hw9/dl/10e.pdf
- [139] Wan TT, Zhang NJ, Unruh L. Predictors of resident outcome improvement in nursing homes. Western journal of nursing research 2006; **28**: 974-93.
- [140] Staggs VS, Olds DM, Cramer E, Shorr RI. Nursing Skill Mix, Nurse Staffing Level, and Physical Restraint Use in US Hospitals: a Longitudinal Study. *Journal of general internal medicine* 2017; **32**: 35-41.
- [141] Kim H, Harrington C, Greene WH. Registered nurse staffing mix and quality of care in nursing homes: a longitudinal analysis. *The Gerontologist* 2009; **49**: 81-90.
- [142] The Japan Dietitic Association. Information regarding Registered Dietitians and Dietitians in Japan. Available from the URL: https://www.dietitian.or.jp/english/dietitians/
- [143] Pinquart.M., Burmedi.D. Correlates of residential satisfaction in adulthood and old age: A meta-analysis. *Annual review of gerontology & geriatrics* 2004.
- [144] Oguro Kazumasa, Y. H. Discussions about long-term care facilities' placement under supper aging and population decline society by applying GIS. *Financial Review* 2017; **131**: 49-56.
- [145] Di Palo MT. Rating satisfaction research: is it poor, fair, good, very good, or excellent? Arthritis care and research: the official journal of the Arthritis Health Professions Association 1997; 10: 422-30.
- [146] The Ohio Department of Aging. Long-Term Care Consumer Guide website
- [147] LeadingAge Ohio, Resident Satisfaction Survey Results Released. Available from URL:
- http://leadingageohio.org/aws/LAO/pt/sd/news_article/118885/_BLANK/ebulletin_layout_newsletter_details/false.

Appendix

Appendix 1. Resident satisfaction survey in long-term care health facilities

老人保健施設における利用者満足度調査

アンケートご協力のお願い

ご利用者様のご健勝のこととお慶び申し上げます。

このアンケート調査は、ご利用様の評価やご要望を聞かせていただき、今後の施設の サービス向上に活かしていくため、満足度アンケート調査を実施するものです。

日本では、今まで施設自由的で行われていますが、内容もそれぞれで体系化してないのが現状です。本調査は、利用者満足度の内容を全国的に統一することと調査票の効率利用を目指しています。

調査対象は認知症の重い(長谷川点数20点以下)を除いた介護保健施設の利用者です。調査への参加は利用者の方の自由意思です。また、回答中に答えたくないものには答えないことや、途中でやめることも可能です。参加頂かないことや、調査後に参加を取り下げる場合でも、施設入所生活において不利な扱いを受けたり、不利益を被ったりすることはございません。

アンケート調査の集計に際しては、プライバシーの保護に配慮して匿名化をし、分析においては調査票から個人が特定されることはできないようします。

データは筑波大学へルスサービスリサーチ研究室に保管し、研究期間は倫理委員会承認後~平成30年3月末までです。研究期間終了後、取得された情報は適切な手段で廃棄します。

頂戴いたしました貴重なご意見・ご要望を参考とさせていただき、一層ご満足いただけますよう、サービスの向上に努めてまいりたいと考えております。

アンケート調査への協力に際して、ご意見ご質問などございましたら、気軽に実施責任者(田宮菜奈子)または実施分担者(金雪瑩)にお尋ねください。

本調査に関する説明事項を理解し、調査・研究をご理解いただき、アンケートにご協力くださいますようお願いいたします。

__なお、アンケートの答えをもって、ご理解ご同意いただきたものとみなさせていただきます。

末筆ながら、皆さまのますますのご健勝とご多幸をお祈り申し上げます。

[問い合わせ先]

筑波大学 ヘルスサービスリサーチ研究室

責任者:田宮菜奈子 教授

実施分担者: 金雪瑩

電話:029-853-8849

1. 記入の方法

ご記入いただく筆記用具は、鉛筆またはボールペンなど、どのようなものでもかまいません。

2. 回答は、特に説明のない限り、当てはまる選択肢の番号を○にチェックしてください。また、数字や文字を記入する設問については、具体的に数字や文字をご記入ください

正しい例: 🛇

申し間違いがあったとき:

性別: ○ 男性 ○ 女性

(上に二重線を引いてくだ

さい)

3. 回収について

ご記入が終わりました方は、2枚目から担当の方まで提出してくだ

| 年齢: | | | |
|-------|--|------------|-----|
| 要介護度: | 要介護度 1要介護度 2要介護度 3要介護度 4要介護度 5 | | |
| 利用期間: | ○ 1ヶ月未満○ 1ヶ月~6ヶ月未満○ 6ヶ月以上 | | |
| 利用室: | ○ 個室 | \bigcirc | 多床室 |

| 提供している活動(レクリエーション)について | | | | | |
|--|-----------|----------|------------|-----------|-----------|
| | はいいつも | はい 時々 | いいえ いつも | いいえ 時々 | 分から ない |
| 施設で提供している活動内容について知ることができますか? (例えば:娯楽、運動クラス、工芸、ピクニックなど) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2. 自分がやりたい活動を十分にできますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3. 施設があなたに提供している活動や余暇の内容については満足していますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 施設の職員との関係について | | | | | |
| | はい いつも | はい 時々 | いいえ いつも | いいえ 時々 | 分から ない |
| 4. 施設の職員は親切ですか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5. 施設の職員の言葉使いや礼儀は正しく接していますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6. あなたは施設の職員を信頼できますか? (例:職員は話した通りに行動しますか?) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| コミュニケーションについて | | | | | |
| | はいいつも | はい時々 | いいえいつも | いいえ 時々 | 分から ない |
| 困ったことがあったら、職員に気楽に話せますか? 例えば、あなたのケアをしている人) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8. 困ったことに対して話したい時、職員は聞いてくれますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9. 困ったことについて、すぐ対応してくれますか? (例えば、施設はあなたの問題を扱っていますか?) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 選択について | | | | | |
| | はい いつも | はい 時々 | いいえ いつも | いいえ 時々 | 分から ない |
| 10. 自分の好きな服を選べますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 11. 施設内自由に行ったり来たりできますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12. 施設外に行きたい時に、対応してくれますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| リハビリについて | | | | | |

| 13. リハビリテーションの時間は十分ですか? | いつも | 時々 | いつも | 時々 | ない |
|--|-----------|----------|------------|----------------|-----------|
| 14. 受けているリハビリの効果的ですか? (例:身体状況が良くなった、或は家に帰るようになった) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| (b) - 2) FF MANA & CO STEC SHOWN - All DOC STEED STEED | | | | | |
| 食事について | はい | はい | いいえ | いいえ | 分から |
| | いつも | 時々 | いつも | 時々 | ない |
| 15. 食事の量は十分ですか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 16. 好きな食べ物を食べることはできますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 17. 食事はおいしいですか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 18. 食事時間は楽しいですか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| スタッフの対応について | | | | | * * * * |
| | はい いつも | はい 時々 | いいえいつも | いいえ 時々 | 分から ない |
| 19. 平日の日中に、あなたが必要な時に施設の職員は対応してくれますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20. それ以外の時間帯(夜間あるいは休祝日)に、あなたが必要な時に施設の職員は対応してくれますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 21. 緊急時(熱が出た時・転んだ時など)の職員は必要な対応をして くれますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 入浴について | | | | | |
| | はい いつも | はい 時々 | いいえ いつも | いいえ 時々 | 分から ない |
| 22. 入浴の回数は適切ですか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 23. 入浴の介助方法は適切ですか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Ο |
| 24. 入浴時にプライバシーに配慮されていますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Ο |
| 施設の環境について | | | | | |
| | はい いつも | はい 時々 | いいえいつも | - いいえ 時々 | 分から ない |
| 25. 施設の外の歩道や地面は安全ですか? | 0 | | 0 | O NAT | 0 |
| 26. 施設は清潔感がありますか? (例えば施設、部屋、トイレ) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| 27. 施設内では安心感がありますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|----------------------------------|-----------|----------|--------|-----------|---------------|
| 28. 静かであるべきところは静かですか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 居室の環境について | 1-b1 s | 1-1-1 | 1.1.5 | 1.11.2 | <i>// 4.5</i> |
| | はい いつも | はい 時々 | いいえいつも | いいえ 時々 | 分から ない |
| 29. あなたの個人的なものは部屋に置いても安全だと思いますか? | 0 | O | 0 | O | 0 |
| | | | | | |
| 30. ここは訪問者にとって快適な場所だと思いますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 31. あなたは自分の部屋に対して満足していますか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| AN A STATE | | | | | |
| 総合評価 | はい | はい | いいえ | いいえ | 分から |
| | いつも | 時々 | いつも | 時々 | ない |
| 32. 総合的に、この施設が好きですか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 33. 今いる施設を友達や家族に薦めたいですか? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | | | |

以上でアンケート調査すべて修了です。 お忙しいところ、調査にご協力いただきましてありがとうございました。