

1 Bodily pain, social support, depression symptoms and stroke history are independently
2 associated with sleep disturbance among the elderly: a cross-sectional analysis of the
3 Fujiwara-kyo study

4

5 Yuko Kishimoto, Nozomi Okamoto, Keigo Saeki, Kimiko Tomioka, Kenji Obayashi, Masayo
6 Komatsu, and Norio Kurumatani

7

8 Department of Community Health and Epidemiology,

9 Nara Medical University School of Medicine,

10 840 Shijo-cho, Nara, Kashihara 634-8521, Japan

11 e-mail: knorio@naramed-u.ac.jp

12

13

14

15

16 Keywords: bodily pain, elderly people, PSQI, sleep disturbance, social support

17

18

Abstract

19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40

Objective: To investigate independent effects of various factors associated with sleep disturbance among community-dwelling elderly individuals.

Methods: We analyzed data obtained from 3,732 individuals aged ≥ 65 years who responded to a self-administered questionnaire and participated in a structured interview which assessed the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI), subjective bodily pain, the Jichi Medical School Social Support Scale, the Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15), health status, and demographic characteristics. Sleep disturbance was defined as a global PSQI score > 5.5 , which was used as a dependent variable in multiple logistic regression analysis to determine adjusted odds ratios (ORs) and 95% Confidence Intervals (CIs) of related factors.

Results: We identified a significant increase in the adjusted ORs for female (OR 1.56, 95% CI: 1.34-1.83), age ≥ 80 years (1.31, 1.01-1.69), history of stroke (1.44, 1.08-1.92), and a GDS-15 score ≥ 6 as compared to 0-2 (2.29, 1.86-2.81), with regard to sleep disturbance. Participants with severe or very severe bodily pain had the highest adjusted OR (3.00, 2.15-4.19), and those with very mild bodily pain also had a relatively high OR (1.30, 1.06-1.60), relative to those without subjective bodily pain. In addition, compared with participants with strong social support from spouse or family, those with weak social support had significantly increased adjusted ORs (1.21, 1.01-1.44, 1.44, 1.23-1.70, respectively).

Conclusions: The present study indicates that sleeping disturbances among the elderly are closely associated with social support from a spouse and family. They are also associated with pain, even at stages in which subjective bodily pain is very mild.

1. Introduction

Among community-dwelling elderly people aged 65 years and older, roughly one-fourth to one-third complain of some form of sleep disturbance [1, 2]. According to a meta-analysis [3], both total sleep time and sleep efficiency decrease with age, whereas awake time and wake after sleep onset increase. Sleep disturbance affects physical health, and has also been shown to correlate with mental health [4].

Many epidemiological studies have found a variety of factors to be associated with sleep disturbances, including chronic conditions such as diabetes [5], hypertension [6], stroke [7], myocardial infarction [6], chronic kidney disease [8], depression [9], cognitive impairments [10], pain [11], lifestyle habits such as drinking [12], smoking [13], and certain physical activities [14]. However, these studies have mostly focused on youth and adult populations [6, 8, 12, 13, 15]. Reports on elderly individuals are scarce, and tend to focus only on a limited number of related factors [5, 13]. Old age is characterized by a high prevalence of chronic diseases. In addition, after retirement from their professional roles, elderly individuals tend to experience a reduction in the size of social networks [16], a decrease in interpersonal ties [16], and consequently, diminished social support. Diminished social support can affect one's state of mind and contribute to sleep disturbances [17].

In the context described above, the present study aimed to determine independent effects of various factors (including these characteristics of old age) associated with sleep disturbance among community-dwelling elderly individuals. To assess sleep disturbance, more than a few studies have used original questionnaires consisting of several items regarding whether there are insomnia symptoms or not [2, 18]. In the present study, we used the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI), which is a standardized questionnaire widely used in sleep-related epidemiological studies [19]. The validity of its Japanese version has been confirmed previously [9].

67

68

METHODS

69 **Subjects**

70 Subjects of this study were participants of the Fujiwara-kyo study, a prospective
71 cohort study on successful aging in Japanese community-dwelling people aged ≥ 65 years [20].
72 The entry criteria included participants living in their own homes, were able to walk without
73 assistance, and provided written informed consent. Potential participants were recruited with
74 the cooperation of local resident associations and elderly clubs in the cities of Nara, Kashihara,
75 Yamato-Koriyama, and Kashiba in the northwestern part of Nara prefecture. Nara prefecture
76 is where the first capital of Japan, called Fujiwara-kyo, was established. A total of 4,427
77 (2,174 men and 2,253 women) participants completed a self-administered questionnaire
78 survey and were interviewed by trained staff members before undergoing blood tests and
79 blood pressure, height, and weight measurements. All participants underwent baseline
80 examinations between June 2007 and October 2008.

81 This study was approved by the ethics committee of Nara Medical University, and
82 written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

83

84 **Self-reported measure of sleep quality**

85 We used the PSQI self-reported questionnaire to evaluate participants' subjective
86 sleep quality over the previous month. The PSQI consists of 19 self-rated questions which are
87 grouped into seven dimensions: subjective sleep quality, sleep latency, sleep duration, habitual
88 sleep efficiency, sleep disturbances, use of sleeping medications, and daytime dysfunction.
89 Each of the seven dimensions is rated on a scale of 0-3, and then all ratings are summed to
90 yield a global PSQI score, which ranges from 0-21; the higher the global score, the worse the
91 sleep quality. This global score has been used in many epidemiological studies [21, 22]. The
92 Japanese version [23] of the PSQI has been confirmed for its reliability and validity among

93 people clinically diagnosed with sleep disturbance, as defined by a global score cutoff of 5.5.
94 The sensitivity and specificity of the Japanese version of the PSQI have been reported to be
95 85.7% and 86.6%, respectively [9], similar to those obtained in other countries [24].

96

97 **Other self-administered questionnaire surveys and interview**

98 We mailed to each participant a booklet containing the self-administered
99 questionnaire over 50 pages long, prior to baseline interviews performed by trained medical
100 staff. The questionnaire items covered many aspects of health conditions, lifestyle habits, and
101 social support, in addition to demographic characteristics such as sex and age.

102 Participants were asked about past and present histories of five commonly occurring
103 diseases among the elderly: stroke with clinical symptoms, acute myocardial infarction (AMI),
104 cancer of any kind, hypertension, and diabetes. The degree of subjective pain, as described in
105 the MOS 36-item short-form health survey (SF-36), was assessed on a six-point scale (none,
106 very mild, mild, moderate, severe, and very severe) in response to the following question:
107 “How much bodily pain have you had during the past 4 weeks?” [25]. The question was not
108 created as part of the pain scale and has not been not validated, but the answer options were
109 presented as graded scales which are commonly used for assessing pain [26]. The Japanese
110 version of the SF36 has been established [27]. Depressive symptoms were evaluated using a
111 shorter, 15-item version of the Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) [28]. In previous
112 validation studies, a score of ≥ 6 suggested probable clinical depression in older Japanese
113 individuals [29]. Cognitive function was examined using the Mini-Mental State Examination
114 (MMSE), with a score of < 24 defined as cognitive impairment [30, 31]. Social support was
115 evaluated using the Jichi Medical School Social Support Scale (JMS-SSS) [32], a 28-item
116 questionnaire (eight items for support from spouse and 10 items each for support from family
117 and friends) developed for measuring the availability of social support for community
118 residents.

119 Information regarding self-reported physical activities (PAs) was obtained through
120 the Japanese version of the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (the usual 7-day,
121 short, self-administered version). According to the official IPAQ guidelines [33], PAs were
122 estimated using responses to three different intensities of activities (i.e., vigorous intensity,
123 moderate intensity, and walking) and the total amount of time spent engaged in each type of
124 activity per week. Total weekly PAs (MET-min/week) was estimated by adding the products
125 of reported time for each item by a MET value that is specific to each category of PA with
126 some modifications for elderly people [34]. Average daily amount of ethanol intake (g/day)
127 was estimated according to the type, frequency, and amount of alcohol participants consumed
128 per week in the past six months. Smoking status was categorized as non-smoker, ex-smoker,
129 and current smoker.

130

131 **Blood tests**

132 Venous blood samples were collected after overnight fasting. Glycated hemoglobin
133 (HbA1c: National Glycohemoglobin Standardization Program value), plasma glucose, and
134 serum creatinine were measured at a commercial laboratory (SRL Co. Inc., Tokyo, Japan)
135 using a standard clinical chemistry analyzer. In this study, diabetes was defined as physician-
136 diagnosed diabetes with medical treatment, or an HbA1c of 6.5% or higher at baseline
137 without physician-diagnosed diabetes. The estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) was
138 calculated with serum creatinine using a formula from the Japanese Society of Nephrology-
139 Chronic Kidney Disease Practice Guide [35]. Renal dysfunction was defined as eGFR <60
140 mL/min/1.73m².

141

142 **Statistical analysis**

143 Multiple comparisons of median global scores across 5-year age groups were
144 performed using the Kruskal-Wallis test because of skewed data. Means and medians between

145 PSQI >5.5 (sleep disturbance) and PSQI ≤5.5 groups were compared using the unpaired t-test
146 and Mann-Whitney U test, respectively. The Chi-square test was used for comparisons of
147 categorical data.

148 Factors associated with sleep disturbance were examined using logistic regression
149 analysis. Sleep disturbance status was set as a dependent variable, with independent variables
150 listed in Table 2. As linearity with sleep disturbance status was not assured, continuous
151 variables were categorized according to age (65-69, 70-74, 75-79, ≥80), MET value (MET-
152 min/week: <60, <300, ≥300), alcohol consumption (g/day: 0, ≥0.01, ≥20, ≥40) and eGFR
153 (mL/min/1.73m²: <60, ≥60, <90, ≥90). Participants with a GDS score <6 were subdivided into
154 normal (0-2) and slightly depressive (3-5) [36]. With regard to the JMS-SSS, participants
155 were categorized into two groups (weak and strong) based on the mean score of each of the
156 three subscales (spouse, family, and friends) as a cutoff point. First, in a sex- and five-year
157 age-adjusted logistic regression model, independent variables associated with sleep
158 disturbance were evaluated using prevalence odds ratio (OR), also employing the 95%
159 confidence interval (CI) and P value. Second, all independent variables with a P value ≤0.2 in
160 the first step were included in the multiple logistic model and mutually adjusted using the
161 forced entry method. The Hosmer-Lemeshow statistic was used for examining fitness of the
162 model to the actual data.

163 All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS version 21.0 for Windows (IBM
164 SPSS Inc., IL, USA). A two-sided P value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

165

166

RESULTS

167 A total of 3,732 participants (1,882 men and 1,850 women) were subject to analysis,
168 after excluding 153 whose responses to the questionnaire were incomplete, 298 with
169 undetermined global PSQI scores due to missing data, 155 who did not provide any index of
170 subjective pain on the SF36, and 89 who omitted answers to other necessary questions for the

171 logistic regression model.

172 Table 1 shows summary statistics of global PSQI scores by sex and 5-year age
173 groups. In both sexes, higher age groups had a higher mean score, with women scoring higher
174 than men. Sleep disturbance was prevalent in 30.8% (579) of men and 41.5% (767) of women,
175 with a global PSQI score of >5.5. In men, the prevalence of sleep disturbance increased from
176 28.1% to 36.3% with increasing age. In women, the prevalence also increased from 37.9% to
177 50.3% with increasing age; the values were much higher in women than in men in all 5-year
178 age groups.

179 Table 2 compares selected characteristics of potential sleep-affecting factors
180 between two groups according to global PSQI score. Among 1,346 participants with a global
181 PSQI score >5.5 (sleep disturbance group), significantly more participants were women and
182 had a GDS ≥ 6 , severer subjective pain, history of cerebrovascular disease (stroke), weak
183 social support from spouse, family, and friends, a MMSE <24, and an eGFR <60 compared
184 with those with a global PSQI score ≤ 5.5 (no-disturbance group). Moreover, alcohol
185 consumption and prevalence of smoking habit were significantly lower in the sleep
186 disturbance group. No significant association was found for medical histories of cancer of any
187 kind, hypertension, and diabetes between the two groups.

188 In the sex- and 5-year age-adjusted logistic regression model (see Table 3),
189 participants with severe or very severe subjective pain, compared to those with no subjective
190 pain, had the highest OR (3.85, 95% CI, 2.79-5.30) for sleep disturbance. Higher GDS, lower
191 MMSE score, weak social support from spouse, family, or friends, and the presence of a
192 medical history of stroke also showed significant associations, with ORs higher than the null
193 value for sleep disturbance. However, other variables including eGFR (P=0.07), medical
194 histories of acute myocardial infarction (P=0.09), cancer of any kind (P=0.16), diabetes
195 (P>0.2), and hypertension (P>0.2), PA (P>0.2), alcohol consumption (P>0.2), and smoking
196 habit (P>0.2) showed no significant association with sleep disturbance.

197 Figure 1 illustrates independent variables showing statistically higher ORs after
198 mutual adjustment for sleep disturbance. The variables entered into the multivariate
199 regression model were all independent variables that showed an association with sleep
200 disturbance ($P < 0.2$) (Table 3). Severe or very severe subjective pain, as compared with no
201 pain, showed the highest OR (3.00, 95% CI: 2.15-4.19), albeit lower than that in the model
202 adjusted for only sex and 5-year age group. Furthermore, ORs of subjective pain increased in
203 a dose-dependent manner, and even the OR of very mild subjective pain showed a significant
204 increase. Participants with a GDS ≥ 6 and those with GDS 2-5 had a 2.29-fold (95% CI: 1.86-
205 2.81) and 1.36-fold (95%: 1.16-1.59) higher OR, respectively, than that of the referent group.
206 Social support from spouse and family, but not from friends, showed an increased OR, which
207 was greater than the null values of 1.21 (95%CI:1.01-1.44) and 1.44 (95%CI:1.20-1.70),
208 respectively. The presence of a history of stroke had a statistically significant association with
209 sleep disturbance. Neither the history of myocardial infarction nor cancer of any kind showed
210 an increased OR. Cognitive impairment evaluated by MMSE < 24 was not a significant
211 independent variable. Renal dysfunction evaluated by eGFR was not statistically significant
212 either. Women showed a 1.56-fold (95% CI: 1.34-1.83) higher OR than men, and only those
213 aged ≥ 80 years had an increased OR (1.31, 95%CI: 1.01-1.69) for sleep disturbance when
214 compared with those aged between 65 and 69. No serious multicollinearity was observed
215 (variance inflation factors < 10) in the multivariate model, and the Hosmer-Lemeshow statistic
216 clarified the fit of the data.

217

218

Discussion

219 In this study, mean global PSQI scores by age groups ranged from 4.37 to 5.04 for
220 male participants, and 5.26 to 5.82 for female participants, which were similar to the results
221 obtained from the general Japanese adult population consisting of the same age groups [21].
222 Older age groups had higher global PSQI scores, with women scoring higher than men,

223 consistent with previous reports [21, 22]. Furthermore, 36.1% of our participants (30.8% of
224 males and 41.5% of females) had a global PSQI score ≥ 5.5 (i.e., definition of sleep
225 disturbance), which is in line with a previous study [37] reporting a total percentage of 37.3%
226 for male and female community-dwelling elderly individuals aged ≥ 65 years.

227 In the present study, we performed multiple logistic regression analysis in which
228 known factors that were reportedly associated with sleep disturbance were mutually adjusted.
229 As a result, in addition to sex and age, bodily pain, depression, spousal support, familial
230 support, and stroke were determined to be independent factors significantly associated with
231 sleep disturbance.

232 In this study, 68% of participants complained of bodily pain. Among these, those with
233 the highest self-rated subjective pain (severe or very severe) had a significantly higher OR for
234 sleep disturbance, compared with the no-pain group (3.00, 95% CI: 2.15-4.19). People with
235 bodily pain, compared to those without, reportedly have a longer sleep latency, more frequent
236 awakening during sleep, poorer sleep efficiency, and hence, significantly poorer sleep [11].
237 Consistent with our present study results, one study reported an OR of 1.88-2.68 for insomnia
238 symptoms such as difficulty initiating sleep and difficulty maintaining sleep among those with
239 bodily pain [7]. We did not determine the site or cause of pain in this study. Ten to 88% of
240 elderly people have chronic pain in their neck, back, joints, legs, or feet [38, 39], and in many
241 cases, the complaint of pain is not confined to a single area, but concerns multiple sites [40].
242 Osteoarthritis (e.g., knee joints), osteoporosis, lumbar spinal canal stenosis, compression
243 fracture, osteoarthritis of the hip, and postherpetic neuralgia are among the assumed causes of
244 pain [39]. In the present study, a higher OR was obtained in groups with increasing severity of
245 subjective bodily pain, which is consistent with a previous study reporting that sleep
246 disturbance increases with increasing frequency of pain and a higher number of pain sites
247 [41]. Notably, even those with very mild bodily pain showed a significantly higher OR (1.30,
248 95% CI: 1.06-1.60) for sleep disturbance.

249 Next to bodily pain, the group with a GDS score ≥ 6 had a significantly higher OR
250 (2.29, 95% CI: 1.86-2.81) compared to the group with a GDS score of 0-2. GDS score ≥ 6 is
251 the cut off value for probable clinical depression among the Japanese elderly [29]. The group
252 with a GDS score 3-5 also showed a significantly higher OR. These results are consistent with
253 a previous study [36], in which a graded association was found between depressive symptoms
254 and sleep disturbance (assessed by the PSQI) with an OR of 2.06 for GDS score 3-5 and 3.68
255 for GDS score ≥ 6 , as compared with GDS score 0-2. Since the present study was a cross-
256 sectional study, the temporal relationship between depressive symptoms and sleep disturbance
257 is unclear. A cohort study on elderly subjects [42] reported that individuals with difficulty
258 initiating sleep, compared to those without, developed depression at a significantly higher
259 rate. On the other hand, another cohort study [4] reported that the depressive group developed
260 sleep disturbance significantly more frequently relative to the control group.

261 We assessed social support using the JMS-SSS, a self-administered questionnaire
262 developed for Japanese subjects in order to evaluate the association between social support
263 and health in epidemiological studies. This perceived social support scale is based on both
264 structural aspects of social relationships and the availability of functional support [32].
265 Specifically, responses to 8-10 questions are scored to assess functional support from the
266 spouse or other family members (i.e., social embeddedness), and that from friends (i.e., social
267 network). The JMS-SSS has been used to demonstrate that men with strong support from
268 spouse or family tend to refrain from drinking and smoking [43]. Our results of sex- and age-
269 adjusted analyses showed a significant association between support from friends and sleep
270 disturbance, but after adjusting for other factors in the multivariate analysis, only spousal and
271 familial support remained statistically significant. To the best of our knowledge, this study is
272 the first to obtain these findings regarding sleep disturbance and social support using the
273 questionnaires with confirmed validity, i.e., the PSQI and JMS-SSS. In a study that used an
274 arbitrary questionnaire regarding a “person to consult”, those who indicated no one or

275 someone other than their spouse or family had an adjusted OR of 2.3 (95% CI: 1.3-5.0) for
276 self-reported sleep problems, compared to those who indicated their spouse or partner as the
277 person for consultation [44]. Moreover, in old age, a reduction in the size of social networks
278 as well as a decrease in the frequency of contact with network members [16] lead to social
279 isolation, which reportedly affects sleep conditions among the elderly [17]. These results,
280 including our own, indicate that individuals receiving poor support from people closer to them
281 have a higher likelihood of suffering from sleep disturbance. The reasons for this include a
282 significant positive correlation between anxiety symptoms, as assessed by the Geriatric
283 Anxiety Inventory, and global PSQI scores [45]. Individuals with anxiety symptoms tend to
284 wake up during sleep latency, have difficulty maintaining sleep, report early morning
285 awakening [46], and show decreased sleep efficiency [47]. As such, individuals with low
286 support from spouse and family may have difficulty controlling their feelings of anxiety and
287 isolation, which likely causes sleep disturbance.

288 The history of stroke with clinical symptoms also showed a significant association
289 with sleep disturbance. Post-stroke patients are prone to develop sleep disturbance [48], and
290 may suffer a relapse of sleep disturbance several years after onset of stroke [49]. It is possible
291 that stroke sequelae, such as breathing disorders during sleep [50] and central post-stroke pain
292 that often accompanies strong pain [49], are related to this. It is also likely that sleep
293 disturbance is caused by depressive mood as a reaction to poor physical conditions [51].

294 Cognitive function decline as assessed by the MMSE showed a significant association
295 with sleep disturbance in sex- and age-adjusted analyses, but not in the multivariate analysis
296 including other factors. The presence/absence of renal dysfunction or diabetes was also not
297 associated with sleep disturbance. Moreover, no association was found with average physical
298 activity during the past one week as assessed by the IPAQ, alcohol consumption, smoking
299 habit, and the history of myocardial infarction, hypertension, or cancer. Contrary to our
300 findings, previous studies have found a significant association with sleep disturbance in those

301 with cognitive function decline [10], renal dysfunction [8], diabetes [5], and moderate
302 exercise [14]. This discrepancy may be due to different factors used for simultaneous
303 adjustment, as well as study methods, subject age, and disease severity.

304 This study has several limitations. First, due to the cross-sectional design, temporal
305 associations could not be determined. Follow-up studies are necessary to verify the present
306 findings. Second, the responses analyzed in the present study were obtained from applicants
307 who likely had a high interest in health. Care should be taken in generalizing the results,
308 although participants of the Fujiwara-kyo study have a similar age distribution to that of the
309 national population [20], and our participants were not selected on the basis of sleep
310 disturbance, absence or presence of subjective pain, or other related medical conditions.
311 Third, we did not obtain information on other factors such as cataracts, light exposure
312 profiles, nocturia, restless leg syndrome, medications, or other conditions potentially
313 associated with sleep disturbance [52]. Finally, sleep disturbance was judged based on
314 responses to a self-administered questionnaire. However, we used the PSQI, which is widely
315 used in large-scale epidemiological studies, with confirmed validity regarding its Japanese
316 version [21].

317 Despite the above limitations, this was a large-scale study with a particular focus on
318 the elderly based on a comprehensive set of measurements, which allowed us to mutually
319 adjust for many factors and independently assess the OR magnitude for each factor. In
320 addition to sex and age, significant factors included bodily pain, social support from spouse or
321 family, depressive symptoms, and history of stroke. Other than age and sex, these factors are
322 all preventable. However, further studies are needed to confirm the time sequence of these
323 factors and sleep disturbance among the elderly.

324

325

Conflict of interest

326

327

All authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

328

329

330
331
332
333
334
335
336
337
338
339
340
341
342
343
344
345
346
347
348
349
350
351
352
353
354
355

References

1. Foley DJ, Monjan AA, Brown SL, Simonsick EM, Wallace RB, Blazer DG. Sleep complaints among elderly persons: an epidemiologic study of three communities. *Sleep*. 1995;18(6):425-432.
2. Kim K, Uchiyama M, Okawa M, Liu X, Ogihara R. An epidemiological study of insomnia among the Japanese general population. *Sleep*. 2000; 23(1):41-47.
3. Ohayon MM, Carskadon MA, Guilleminault C, Vitiello MV. Meta-analysis of quantitative sleep parameters from childhood to old age in healthy individuals: developing normative sleep values across the human lifespan. *Sleep*. 2004;27(7):1255-1273.
4. Fok M, Stewart R, Besset A, Ritchie K, Prince M. Incidence and persistence of sleep complaints in a community older population. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2010;25(1):37-45.
5. Nilsson PM, Rööst M, Engström G, Hedblad B, Berglund G. Incidence of diabetes in middle-aged men is related to sleep disturbances. *Diabetes Care*.2004;27(10): 2464-2469.
6. Sepahvand E, Jalali R, Mirzaei M, Kargar Jahromi M. Association between short sleep and body mass index, hypertension among acute coronary syndrome patients in coronary care unit. *Glob J Health Sci*.2014;7(3):134-139.
7. Foley D,Ancoli-Israel S, Britz P, Walsh J. Sleep disturbances and chronic disease in older adults: results of the 2003 national sleep foundation sleep in America survey. *J Psychosom Res*. 2004;56(5):497-502.
8. Plantinga L, Lee K, Inker LA, Saran R, Yee J, Gillespie B, et al. Association of sleep-related problems with CKD in the United States,2005-2008. *Am J Kidney Dis*. 2011;58(4):554-564.
9. Doi Y, Minowa M, Uchiyama M,Okawa M, Kim K, Shibui K, et al. Psychometric assessment of subjective sleep quality using the Japanese version of the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI-J) in psychiatric disordered and control subjects. *Psychiatry Res*. 2000;97(2-3):165-172.

- 356 10. Yaffe K, Nettiksimmons J, Yesavage J, Byers A. Sleep quality and risk of dementia among
357 older male veterans. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2015;23(6):651-654.
- 358 11. Blågestad T, Pallesen S, Lunde LH, Sivertsen B, Nordhus IH, Grønli J. Sleep in older
359 chronic pain patients: a comparative polysomnographic study. *Clin J Pain*. 2012;28(4):277-
360 283.
- 361 12. Kaneita Y, Uchiyama M, Takemura S, Yokoyama E, Miyake T, Harano S, et al. Use of
362 alcohol and hypnotic medication as aids to sleep among the Japanese general population.
363 *Sleep Med*. 2007;8(7-8):723-732.
- 364 13. Asghari A, Kamrava SK, Hemami MR, Jalessi M, Yazdanifard P, Farhadi M, et al.
365 Cigarette smoking habit and subjective quality of sleep. *Scimetr*.
366 2015;3(1):e18454.
- 367 14. King AC, Pruitt LA, Woo S, Castro CM, Ahn DK, Vitiello MV, et al. Effects of moderate-
368 intensity exercise on polysomnographic and subjective sleep quality in older adults with mild
369 to moderate sleep complaints. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci*. 2008;63(9):997-1004.
- 370 15. Kaneita Y, Yokoyama E, Harano S, Tamaki T, Suzuki H, Munezawa T, et al. Associations
371 between sleep disturbance and mental health status: A longitudinal study of Japanese junior
372 high school students. *Sleep Med*. 2009;10(7):780-786.
- 373 16. Cornwell B, Laumann EO, Schumm LP. The social connectedness of older adults: a
374 national profile. *Am Sociol Rev*. 2008;73(2):185-203.
- 375 17. Kent RG, Uchino BN, Cribbet MR, Bowen K, Smith TW. Social relationships and sleep
376 quality. *Ann Behav Med*. 2015;doi:10.1007/s12160-015-9711-6.
- 377 18. Schubert CR, Cruickshanks KJ, Dalton DS, Klein BEK, Klein R, Nondahl DM.
378 Prevalence of sleep problems and quality of life in an older population. *Sleep*. 2002;25(8):889-
379 893.
- 380 19. Buysse DJ, Reynolds III CF, Monk TH, Berman SR, Kupfer DJ.
381 The Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index: a new instrument for psychiatric practice and research.

382 Psychiatry Res. 1989;28(2):193-213.

383 20. Okamoto N, Morikawa M, Okamoto K, Habu N, Hazaki K, Harao A, et al. Tooth loss is
384 associated with mild memory impairment in the elderly: the Fujiwara –kyo study. Brain Res.
385 2010;1349:68-75.

386 21. Doi Y, Minowa M, Uchiyama M, Okawa M. Subjective sleep quality and sleep problems
387 in the general Japanese adult population. Psychiatry Clin Neurosci. 2001;55(3):213-215.

388 22. Asghari A, Farhadi M, Kamrava SK, Ghalehbaghi B, Nojomi M. Subjective sleep quality
389 in urban population. Arch Iran Med. 2012;15(2):95-98.

390 23. Doi Y, Minowa M, Uchiyama M, Okawa M. Development of the Japanese version of the
391 Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI-J). Jpn J Psychiat Treat. 1998;13(6):755-763.

392 24. Backhaus J, Junghanns K, Broocks A, Riemann D, Hohagen F. Test-retest reliability and
393 validity of the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index in primary insomnia. J Psychosom Res.
394 2002;53(3):737-740.

395 25. Ware JE Jr , Sherbourne CD. The MOS 36-item short-form health survey(SF-36)
396 I. Conceptual framework and item selection. Med Care. 1992;30(6):473-483.

397 26. Huskisson EC. Measurement of pain. The Lancet.1974;304(7889):1127-1131.

398 27. Fukuhara S, Ware JE Jr, Kosinski M, Wada S, Gandek B. Psychometric and clinical tests
399 of validity of the Japanese SF-36 health survey. J Clin Epidemiol. 1998;51(11):1045-1053.

400 28. Sheikh JI, Yesavage JA. Geriatric Depression Scale(GDS); recent evidence and
401 development of a shorter version. Clin Gerontol. 1986;5(1): 165-173.

402 29. Niino N. A Japanese translation of depression scale.Clin Gerontol. 1991;10(3):85-87.

403 30. Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. “Mini-Mental State” a practical method for
404 grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. J psychiat Res.1975;12(3):189-198.

405 31. Maki N, Ikeda M, Hokoishi K, Nebu A, Komori K, Hirono N, et al. The validity of
406 MMSE and SMQ as screening tests for dementia in the elderly general population—a study of
407 one rural community in Japan. Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord.2000;11(4):193-196.

- 408 32. Tsutsumi A, Kayaba K, Ishikawa S, Kario K, Matsuo H, Takuma S. Jichi Medical School
409 social support scale(JMS-SSS) revision and tests for validity and reliability. *Jpn J Public*
410 *Health*. 2000;47(10):866-878.
- 411 33. Guidelines for data processing and analysis of the international physical activity
412 questionnaire(IPAQ)-short form.version2.0. <http://www.ipaq.ki.se/>,2005.
- 413 34. Kouda K, Iki M, Fujita Y, Tamaki J, Yura A, Kadowaki E, et al. Alcohol intake and bone
414 status in elderly Japanese men: baseline data from the Fujiwara-kyo osteoporosis risk in
415 men(FORMEN) study. *Boon*. 2011;49(2):275-280.
- 416 35. Clinical practice guidebook for diagnosis and treatment chronic kidney disease 2009.
417 Edited by: Japanese Society of Nephrology. Published by Tokyo-Igakusha.
- 418 36. Paudel ML, Taylor BC, Diem SJ, Stone KL, Ancoli-Israel S, Redline S, et al. Association
419 between depressive symptoms and sleep disturbances in community-dwelling older man. *J*
420 *Am Geriatr Soc*. 2008;56(7):1228-1235.
- 421 37. Sukegawa T, Itoga M, Seno H, Miura S, Inagaki T, Saito W, et al. Sleep disturbances and
422 depression in the elderly in Japan. *Psychiatry Clin Neurosci*. 2003;57(3):265-270.
- 423 38. Nakamura M, Nishiwaki Y, Ushida T, Toyama Y. Prevalence and characteristics chronic
424 musculoskeletal pain in Japan. *J Orthop Sci*.2011;16(4):424-432.
- 425 39. Helme RD, Gibson SJ. The epidemiology of pain in elderly people. *Clin Geriatr Med*.
426 2001;17(3):417-431.
- 427 40. Herr KA, Mobily PR, Wallace RB, Chung Y. Leg pain in the rural Iowa 65+ population.
428 Prevalence, related factors, and association with functional status. *The Clin J Pain*.
429 1991;7(2):114-121.
- 430 41. Zarit SH, Griffiths PC, Berg S. Pain perceptions of the oldest old: a longitudinal study.
431 *Gerontologist*. 2004;44(4):459-468.
- 432 42. Yokoyama E, Kaneita Y, Saito Y, Uchiyama M, Matsuzaki Y, Tamaki T, et al. Association
433 between depression and insomnia subtypes: a longitudinal study on the elderly in Japan. *Sleep*.

434 2010;33(12): 1693-1702.

435 43. Tsutsumi A, Tsutsumi K, Kayaba K, Igarashi M. Health-related behaviors, social support,
436 and community morale. *Int J Behav Med*. 1998;5(2):166-182.

437 44. Nomura K, Yamaoka K, Nakao M, Yano E. Social determinants of self-reported sleep
438 problems in South Korea and Taiwan. *J Psychosom Res*. 2010;69(5):435-440.

439 45. Yu J, Rawtaer I, Fam J, Jiang MJ, Feng L, Kua EH, et al. Sleep correlates of depression
440 and anxiety in an elderly Asian population. *Psychogeriatrics*. 2015;doi10.1111/psyg.12138.

441 46. Leblanc MF, Desjardins S, Desgagne A. Sleep problems in anxious and depressive older
442 adults. *Psychol Res Behav Manag*. 2015;8:161-169.

443 47. Spira AP, Stone K, Beaudreau SA, Ancoli-Israel S, Yaffe K. Anxiety symptoms and
444 objectively measured sleep quality in older women. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2009;17(2):136-
445 143.

446 48. Palomäki H, Berg A, Meririnne E, Kaste M, Lönnqvist R, Lehtihalmes M, et al.
447 Complaints of poststroke insomnia and its treatment with mianserin. *Cerebrovasc Dis*.
448 2003;15(1-2):56-62.

449 49. Jönsson AC, Lindgren I, Hallström B, Norrving B, Lindgren A. Prevalence and intensity of
450 pain after stroke: a population based study focusing on patients' perspectives. *J Neurol*
451 *Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2006;77(5):590-595.

452 50. Mohsenin V. Sleep-related breathing disorders and risk of stroke. *Stroke*.
453 2001;32(6):1271-1278.

454 51. Salter K, Mehta S, Bhogal S, Teasell R, Foley N, Speechley M. Post stroke depression.
455 2013;18:1-104.

456 52. Kamel NS, Gammack JK. Insomnia in the elderly: Cause, Approach, and Treatment. *Am J*
457 *Med*. 2006;119(6):463-469.