A Global Report on Falls Prevention

Epidemiology of Falls

Sachiyo Yoshida – Intern

Ageing and Life Course Family and Community Health World Health Organization

Table of contents

1.	DEFINITION	4
2.	INCIDENCE	5
2.1	. FREQUENCY OF FALLS	5
2.2	2. FALL-RELATED INJURIES: THE CANADIAN SURVEY	6
2.3	3. DISTRIBUTION	6
	Time	6
	Location	7
	Location of fall by age and sex group	7
	Location of fall-related fractures	8
3.	SEX	9
4.	SECULAR TRENDS	10
4.1	. SECULAR TREND IN FALL-RELATED FATALITY RATE: EVIDENCE FROM U.S	10
4.2	2. SECULAR TREND IN HIP FRACTURE	12
4.3	8. SECULAR TREND IN HOSPITALIZATION RATES: BRITISH COLUMBIA, CANADA	13
5.	GEOGRAPHICAL VARIATION	15
5.1	. FREQUENCY OF FALLS WORLDWIDE	15
5.2	2. GEOGRAPHICAL DISPARITY IN MORTALITY RATE	15
6.	RISK FACTORS	17
6.1	. Demographic factors	17
	Race	17
	Socioeconomic status	17
6.2	2. BIOLOGICAL FACTORS	19
	Age	
	Sex	19
	Medical conditions	19
	Physical conditions	21
6.3	B. BEHAVIORAL FACTORS	24
	Sedentary behavior	24
	Medication intake	24
	Alcohol misuse	26

A Global Report on Falls Prevention

In	Inappropriate shoes		
7.	CONSEQUENCES		
7.1.	HOSPITAL ADMISSION		
7.2.	IMMOBILITY		
7.3.	Mortality		
7.4.	CONCLUSION		
8.	REFERENCES		

1. Definition

A *fall* is one of the external causes of unintentional injury. It is coded as E880-E888 in International Classification of Disease-9 (ICD-9), and as W00-W19 in ICD-10. These codes include a wide range of falls including falls on the same level, upper level, and other unspecified fall. A *fall* is often defined as "inadvertently coming to rest on the ground, floor or other lower level, excluding intentional change in position to rest in furniture, wall or other objects"

It is important to note that there is no universal consensus on the definition of a fall. A recent Cochrane review reported that most studies fail to specify the operational definition of falls, leaving the interpretation to study participants. This leaves room for many different interpretations of a *fall*, and consequently brings into question the validity of the studies. Older people tend to describe a fall as a loss of balance whereas health care professionals generally refer to the consequence of falling, including injury and reduced quality of life [1]. Even a small change in definition may have significant consequences on the results of a study [2]. Thus providing an operational definition of a *fall*, with explicit inclusion and exclusion criteria, is recommended when conducting research [1].

2. Incidence

2.1. Frequency of falls

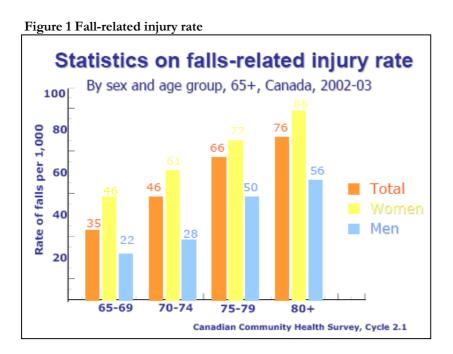
Table 1 presents a summary of six falls studies and their study designs. Most used a retrospective design and focused on older people living in the community. Findings show that, among community-dwelling older people over 64 years of age, 28-35% fall each year. Of those who are 70 years and older, approximately 32%-42% fall each year. The frequency of falls increases with age and frailty level. Older people who are living in nursing homes fall more often than those who are living in the community. Approximately 30-50% of people living in long term care institutions fall each year, and 40% of them experienced recurrent falls [3].

Study	Country	Target group	Study design	Percentage
Prudham, D (1981) [4]	UK	N=2793 65+	Retrospective study (1 year)	28%
Campbell, AJ (1981) [5]	New Zealand	N=553 65+	Retrospective study (1 year)	33%
Tinetti, ME (1988) [6]	USA	N=326 70+	Telephone interview	32%
Blake, AJ (1988) [7]	UK	N=1042 65+	Retrospective study (1 year)	35%
Downton,JH (1991) [8]	UK	N=203 75+	Retrospective study (1 year)	42%
Stalenhoef, PA (2002) [9]	The Netherlands	N=311 70+	Telephone interview (1 year)	33%

Table 1 Percentage of falls among participants in six studies

2.2. Fall-related injuries: The Canadian survey

Figure 1 shows the incidence rate of fall injuries for men and women by 5-year age group. The injury rate increases with age from 35 per 1000 population for people age 65-69 to 76 per 1000 population for people age 80 and over. For ages 65 and older, the rate of fall injuries (serious enough to limit normal activities) was 47.7 per 1000 population [10]. Rates among women exceed those of men for all age groups. These gender differences are statistically significant except for ages 75-79. The authors suggest that these gender differences may be related to women's lower income and greater social isolation.



Source: [10]

2.3. Distribution

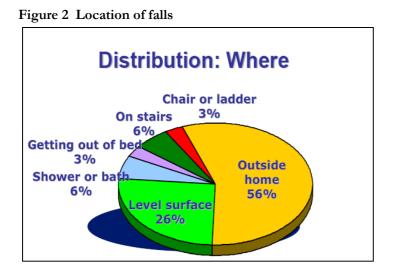
Time

Most falls occur during the day; only 20% of falls occur at night [11]. Of those at night, most occur between 9 pm and 7 am, perhaps when older people wake up to use the bathroom. In countries that experience pronounced changes in seasonal temperatures, colder temperatures during the winter appear to increase the risk of falls especially among older women [12]. This may be due to a mild hypothermia triggered by cold temperatures, which slows reaction time,

as well as to icy or slippery conditions. Moreover, colder weather may increase the time spent in bed or of sedentary behavior, which can cause deconditioning and increase the risk of falling [13]. In a nursing home setting, older people are more likely to fall on the first day after moving into a new room or new ward.

Location

Figure 2 shows the major location of falls. Fifty-six percent of falls occur outside the home such as in the yard, on the street, or in a public place. Falls that occur inside the home happen most frequently in bedrooms, kitchens and dining rooms. Relatively few falls occur in the bathroom, on the stairs, or from ladders and step stools [11].



Adopted from [14].

Location of fall by age and sex group

The location of falls differs by age, sex, race, and level of frailty. Outdoor falls are more likely to occur among people younger than 75 years, which suggests that they are more active and mobile, whereas indoor falls occur more frequently among those who are more frail, generally those age 75 years and older [15]. Men are more likely to be more active and to fall

outdoors while women tend to fall inside the home. One study reported that Caucasian women were more likely than African American women to fall outside [16]. For nursing home residents, moving to a new environment increases the occurrence of falls by 50% [17].

Location of fall-related fractures

Approximately 10-20% of falls result in fractures [18]. Most fractures occur at home (85%) although only 25% of fractures are caused by environmental hazards in the home [19]. Falls that occur indoors are likely to result in hip fracture, whereas those that occur outdoors are likely to result in distal forearm fracture [20].

3. Sex

Women are more likely than men to experience nonfatal falls [21]. Contributing risk factors include age-related frailty, restricted mobility, more frequent use of multiple medications, and being a widow [13].

Men are more likely than women to experience fatal falls [21]. Figure 3 shows fatal falls by 5year age group and sex. Fatal fall rates increase exponentially with age for both sexes. Fatality rates for men exceed that for women for all age groups. It may be that men are more physically active or more likely to engage in risky behaviors.

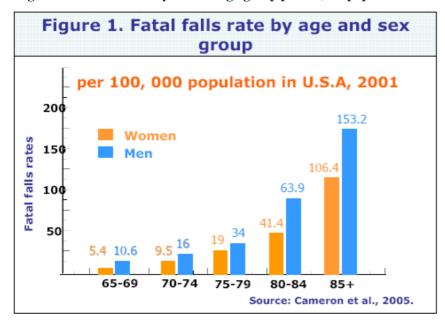


Figure 3. Fatal fall rates by sex and age group per 100,000 population

Source: [22]

4. Secular trends

4.1. Secular trend in fall-related fatality rate: Evidence from U.S

Figure 4 shows age adjusted fall-related fatality rates for people age 65 and older in the U.S.A [23]. Rates for both men and women had an upward trend between 1993 and 2003. Men's rate increased 45% from 31.8 to 46.2 per 100,000 and women's rate increased 59% from 19.5 to 31.1 per 100,000. This increasing trend also has been reported for Finland [24].

As outlined in section 2.2, men are more likely to die from a fall, possibly because they suffer from more comorbid conditions than women of the same age.[23]. A similar gender difference has been reported for mortality following hip fracture. The incidence of hip fracture is greater among women while hip fracture mortality is higher among men [25]. One study found that men reported poorer health and a greater number of underlying conditions than women, which substantially increased the impact of hip fracture and consequently increased the risk of mortality (26).

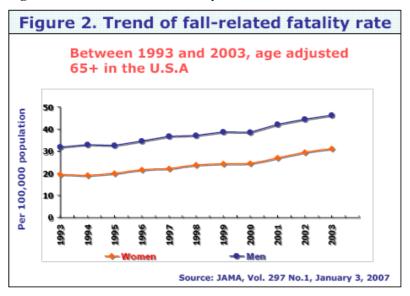
Sex	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Women	19.5	19.1	20	21.6	22.1	23.7	24.2	24.5	26.9	29.5	31.1
Men	31.8	32.9	32.6	34.6	36.7	37.1	38.7	38.5	42.1	44.4	46.2

Table 2. Falls-related fatality rate by sex per 100, 000 population.

Source:[23]

A Global Report on Falls Prevention

Figure 4 Trend of fall-related fatality rates



4.2. Secular trend in hip fracture

Hip fractures predominantly occur among people over age 65 and are becoming a major health burden worldwide. An upward trend in hip fracture rates was reported in studies from Spain (27) and South Korea (28). The crude rate of hip fracture increased approximately 50% during last 14 years in the Northern Spanish region of Cantabria [26]. In Gwangju city and Chonnam province in South Korea, from 1991 to 2001, the number of hip fractures increased from 247 to 1152, while the rate increased from 3.3 per 10,000 to 13.3 per 10,000. One study suggests that the increase in the number of hip fractures may be attributed to an increase in osteoporosis (28). The total number of patients with osteoporosis increased 20% from 1991 to 2001.

Figure 5 shows the secular trend of hip fracture admission rates in the U.S.A from 1993 to 2003 [23]. Overall, the rate decreased 15.5%, from 917.6 to 775.7 per 100,000. Notably, the rate among women declined significantly while the rate among men remained unchanged. The author postulates that public health measures including wider osteoporosis screening and effective treatments for women may explain the decrease [23].

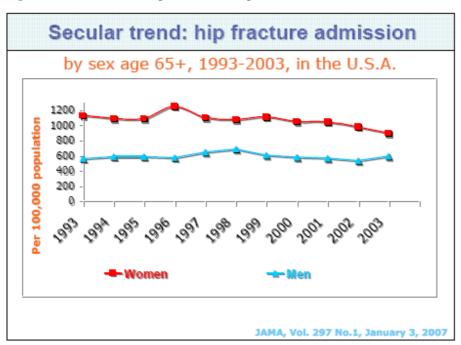
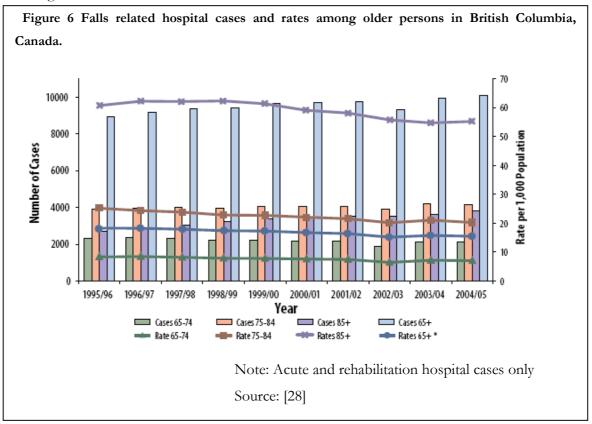


Figure 5 secular trend: Hip Fracture hospitalization rates

Source: modified from [27]

4.3. Secular trend in hospitalization rates: British Columbia, Canada

Figure 6 shows the number of fall-related hospital cases and hospitalization rates for three 10-year age groups in British Columbia (BC). In contrast to the report from U.S.A, the B.C report shows a small but statistically significant decline in rates over the past decade from 18.3 per 1000 population in 1997 to 15.5 per 1000 population in 2003. This decline is statistically significant for all three age groups. It is unclear whether this decline is due to fewer fall-related injuries or indicates a change in hospital management, such as an increased tendency to treat older adults in emergency departments and to release and support them at home. However, these changes also may reflect the effect of improved fall prevention strategies in B.C.



A Global Report on Falls Prevention

Epidemiology of Falls

5. Geographical variation

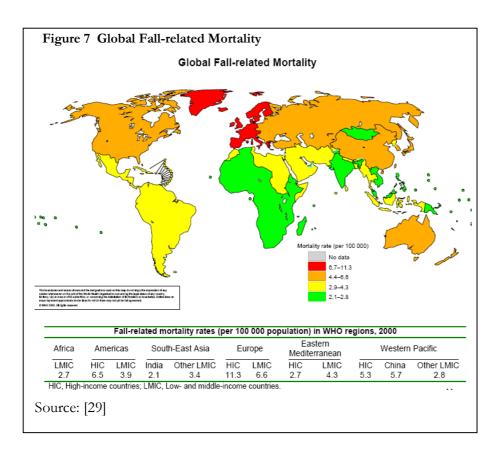
5.1. Frequency of falls worldwide

While approximately one in three older people falls each year, this proportion varies depending on the country and the target population studied. For instance, a study of the South East Asia region found that in China, 6%-31% and in Japan 20% of older adults fell each year. A study of Latin America found the proportion of older adult who fell each year was 34% in Santiago, 29% in Sao Paulo, and 24% in Havana.

In the developing world, however, there is a lack of data for many regions. For instance, there is no epidemiological data available for Africa, South Asia and the WHO Eastern Mediterranean region.

5.2. Geographical disparity in mortality rate

Figure 7 shows the world map and illustrates the geographical variation in fall mortality rates. Worldwide, an estimated 391000 people of all ages died of injuries related to falls in 2002. High income counties account for 25% of the total number of fatal falls worldwide. The mortality rate is highest in European regions, accounting for 6.6-11.3 deaths per 100,000 population. Males in the low and middle income countries of Europe have the highest fall-related mortality rates worldwide [29]. If the total number of fatal falls in Europe and in Western Pacific is combined, it accounts for 60% of the fall-related deaths worldwide.



6. Risk factors

Falls occur as a result of complex interactions among demographic, physical and behavioral risk factors. Throughout the past two decades, risk factors have been identified and categorized as intrinsic or extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors include demographic and biological factors, while extrinsic factors encompass environmental and behavioral factors. This report illuminates some of the demographic, biological, and physiological risk factors that increase fall risk.

6.1. Demographic factors

Race

There are clear racial differences in fatal fall rates. Although the rates increase with age for both genders and among different races, in the U.S.A, white men have highest fatal fall rates followed by white women, black men, and black women [22]. Several studies suggest that the risk of falling is 33%-60% higher among Caucasians in the U.S.A. [30-33].

Racial differences in fall circumstances have been identified in some studies [6, 30] and not in others [31-33]. Caucasian women are 1.6 times more likely to fall outdoors than African American women, and twice as likely to land on surfaces such as ice, snow, or dirt. They are 3.8 times more likely to fall straight down, twice as likely to fall laterally or posteriorly compared to falling forward, but 40% less likely to land on a hand or wrist.

Socioeconomic status

Limited accessibility to health and social services, low income, little education and poor housing environments are associated with higher risk of chronic disease which may be associated with an increased risk of falling. A limited body of research suggests that older women with limited social connections are at high risk of falling after adjusting for several confounding factors [34, 35]. Women who live alone have an increased risk of falling compared to their married counterparts. These studies found that social interaction is inversely associated with falls among older women. Table 3 shows a summary of demographic risk factors presented above.

Demographic risk factors			
Race	White men have higher fatal fall rates, followed by white women black men, and black women		
	In the U.S.A., Caucasians are 33%-60% higher risk of falls than African Americans. Caucasian women are more likely to fall outdoors than African Americans.		
Socioeconomic Status	Older women with limited social connections are at a high risk of falls, after adjusting several confounding factors		

6.2. Biological factors

Age

As is discussed in section 2.1 and 2.2, fall-related mortality rates increase exponentially with age, with the greatest increase after age 80. This is because most falls are associated with age-related conditions such as physical frailty, immobility and reduced functional capacity.

Sex

As is discussed in section 3, women are more likely than men to fall [36-38] and suffer nonfatal injuries [39]. A study in the U.S examined the gender differences in non-fatal falls. The study reported that women have an injury rate 40-60% higher than men of similar age. Women are 1.8-2.3 times more likely to be hospitalized for a fall injury than are men [10, 21]. Furthermore, women are 2.2 times more likely to sustain fractures [21]. A biological factor contributing to women's increased fracture risk is that their bone mass declines faster than that of men, especially in the five years following menopause. Women are known to be at higher risk for injuries related to falls due to their higher rates of osteoporosis, which makes them more likely to sustain a serious fracture from a fall [40].

Medical conditions

Diabetes

Women with diabetes have an increased risk of falling. Cross-sectional data from the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey indicate that among people age 60 years and older, women with diabetes are 1.6 times more likely to have fallen in the previous year and twice as likely to have fall-related injuries than women without diabetes [41]. A survey of African Americans found a 2.5 -fold increased risk of falls and falls with injuries among those with diabetes compared to individuals without diabetes [42]. People with diabetes are also more likely to have other risk factors for falls. One study of women with low BMI suggests that type II diabetes may be a protective factor by counteracting the risk of osteoporosis [43].

Parkinson's disease (PD)

Approximately 38-68% of PD patients experience falls as a serious complication of gait disturbances. One study showed that advanced patients are more likely to fall [44]. The increased risk of falling among patients with PD was attributed to impaired stride-to-stride variability in PD patients with a history of recurrent falls [45]. Compared to age- and sex-matched non-PD community subjects, PD patients had a 2.2-fold increased risk of fractures and a 3.2-fold greater risk of hip fracture. Adjusting for age, the significant risk factors for fracture included being female (OR=1.6) and having dementia (OR=1.6); chronic depression was associated with reduced fracture risk (OR=0.4) [45].

Depression

Depression is associated with increased risk of falls. Older people with a symptom of depression have an approximately 2.2-fold increased risk of falls [43]. However, depression could be the result of a fall rather than a causal or risk factor. For example, depression could result from fear of falling or from self-imposed functional limitations.

Incontinence

Incontinence is a serious problem in the older population and is frequently reported by those who fall [46, 47]. A recent study found that mixed incontinence, defined as leakage associated with urgency and also with exertion, effort, sneezing or coughing, is associated with an increased risk of falling [51[48]. Women with mixed incontinence are three times more likely to fall than those who do not have this condition, and are likely to fall on the way to the bathroom [49].

Alzheimer Disease

People with Alzheimer disease have twice the risk of falling as those of the same age without this disease [50]. Contributing factors may include defects in attention and visual-spatial abilities. A recent Japanese study reported that neuroperiventricular white matter lesions and the use of neuroleptic drugs disturb postural balance and lead to an increased risk of falls [51].

Physical conditions

Table 4 presents some of the physical risk factors identified in 17 controlled trials [52]. These physical disabilities are linked to aging.

Risk factor	Significance/ Total ¹ A/B	Risk/Odd Ratio (RR-OR)	Range
Muscle weakness	12/12	4.9 (8)	1.9-10.3
Impaired balance	10/10	3.2 (5)	1.6-5.4
Gait deficit	8/9	3.0 (5)	1.7-4.8
Visual deficit	5/9	2.8 (9)	1.1-7.4
Limited mobility	9/9	2.5 (8)	1.0-5.3
Cognitive impairment	4/8	2.4 (5)	2.0-4.7
Impaired ADL	5/6	2.0 (4)	1.0-3.1
Postural hypotension	2/7	1.9 (5)	1.0-3.4

Table 3 Risk factor for falls identified in 17 controlled trials

Source: [53]

Muscle weakness

A decline in muscle strength is frequently reported among older people [54] and can interfere with balance. Table 4 shows that people with muscle weakness are almost five times more likely to fall. Furthermore persons with lower extremity weakness, usually measured by knee extension, ankle dorsiflexion, and chair stands, have a 1.8-fold increased risk of falling and three-fold risk for recurrent falls [55].

Visual impairment

A decrease in visual acuity has been shown in some [56, 57] but not all studies [58, 59] to increase the risk of multiple falls. Older people with impaired depth perception have a 3-fold

¹ A/B A: number of papers showing statistically significant differences, B: total number of papers reviewed

increased risk of multiple falls. Slower reaction time and increased body sway on a compliant surface were significantly and independently associated with falls [60]. However, it is not clear which aspect of visual function is most closely associated with increased risk of falling. Further studies with systematic and validated measurements of eye disease and visual function are needed.

Cognitive impairment

Cognitive impairment and confusion, even at relatively modest levels, can increase the risk of falling. Studies have found that five or more errors on a short mental status questionnaire [58], a score <26 [61] or a score <24 [62] on the Mini-Mental State Examination is associated with increased risk [62]. One study in the Netherlands showed short-term memory to be an independent risk factor for falls in those over age 75 years [63]. In the USA, one study found an increased risk of 1.8 for persons with cognitive impairment; other studies have reported increased risks ranging from 2.0 to 4.7 [46].

Foot problems

Foot problems are reported by approximately 30% of older people living in the community [64-67] and are a risk factor for falls [64, 68-70]. One prospective study reported that older people with severe bunion, toe deformity, ulcer and deformed nails have a two-fold increased risk of falling [6]. Another study found that ankle flexibility was an independent predictor of difficulties with postural sway, leaning balance, alternate stepping tests, sit to stand tests, and walking speed [71, 72]. Moreover, hallux valgus deformity [72, 73], impaired tactile sensitivity [72], decreased toe strength [72], and foot pain [72, 74] all impair balance and increase the risk of falls.

BMI

A low body mass index is associated with increased risk of falls [61]. Low body weight and unintentional weight loss due to malnutrition are a particular problem for older people, especially older women. Weight loss and low body mass index are associated with low bone mineral density and increased risk of fall-related fractures [75-78]. One study found that voluntary weight loss among obese older women increases the risk of bone loss at the hip and is associated with an approximately two-fold increased risk of subsequent hip fracture. [79].

Biological risk factors			
Age	Fall-related mortality rates increase exponentially with age, with the greatest		
rige	increase after age 85.		
C.	Women have an injury rate 40-60% higher than men of similar age.		
Sex	Women are 2.2 times more likely to suffer fractures as a consequence of falls.		
	Diabetic women are 1.6 times more likely to fall and twice as likely to suffer		
	fall-related injuries than women without diabetes.		
	Approximately 38-68% of Parkinson's disease patients experience falls due to		
	gait disturbances.		
Medical	Depression is associated with a 2.2 fold increased risk of falling but the		
conditions	direction of causality is unknown.		
	Women with mixed incontinence are three times more likely to fall as women		
	who do not have this condition		
	Persons with Alzheimer's disease are twice as likely to fall as people of the		
	same age without this disease.		
	Muscle weakness is associated with an almost five times greater risk of falling.		
	Visual impairment is associated with slowed reaction time, increased body		
	sway, and a 2.3 times increased risk of multiple falls.		
Physical	Cognitive impairment from dementia and delirium is associated with		
conditions	increased risks ranging from 2.0 to 4.7.		
conditions	Foot problems, such as severe bunion, toe deformity, ulcer and deformed		
	nails, are associated with a two-fold increased risk of falling.		
	Low BMI and weight loss are associated with low bone mineral density and		
	an increased risk of fall-related fractures.		
L			

6.3. Behavioral factors

Fear of falling is common among older people. It occurs among approximately 30% of those who have never fallen and 60% for those who have fallen previously [6, 80]. Fear of falling is significantly associated with changes in balance [81, 82], mobility [82, 83], and muscle weakness. It is also associated with increased spontaneous sway, decreased one-leg stance time [81], and reduced gait speed [83, 84]. A recent study of women ages 75 and older with low bone mass found that fear of falling, as measured by falls self-efficacy, was independently associated with balance and mobility after adjusting for age, physical activity level, and performance in a number of physiological domains [82]. Furthermore, the study suggests this association was stronger in older adults with a history of injurious falls. Women with greater physical dependency are more likely to report fear of falling [85]. As a consequence, 34% of older women who are physically dependent also become house-bound, socially isolated, and at increased risk of falling.

Sedentary behavior

Muscle function is strongly associated with physical activity. Those who fall tend to be less active which causes muscle atrophy [86]. Those who are inactive fall more often than those who are moderately active or very active [87].

Medication intake

Table 6 presents a summary of medication classes and the mechanisms by which they increase the risk of falls. Some studies have found that taking more than four medications, irrespective of type, increases the risk of falling [59, 88, 89]. Using four or more medications is associated with fear of falling [90] and a nine-fold increased risk of cognitive impairment [90-92]. The most common drugs associated with falls are those that act on the central nervous system, such as sedatives, tranquilizers, and benzodiazepines. The risk comes from adverse effects resulting from physiologic changes associated with aging. These changes, such as decreased lean body mass, increased body fat, decline of kidney and liver function, affect the absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination of medications.

Table 5 Medications and their mechanisms that increase risk of falls and fractures

A Global Report on Falls Prevention

Medication class	Mechanism
Benzodiazepines	Sedation, dizziness, decrease in neuromuscular function,
-long and short acting	cognitive impairment
Antidepressants	Postural hypotension, sedation, blurred vision, confusion,
	ataxia.
Antipsychotic	Postural hypotension, dizziness, blurred vision, sedation
Antihypertensive	
Centrally acting	Postural hypotension, sedation
hypertensive	
Beta Blockers	Postural hypotension, sedation
ACE Inhibitors	Postural hypotension
Thiazide Diuretics	Postural hypotension, lethargy
Loop Diuretics	Postural hypotension, decreased alertness, fatigue
Cardiac medications	
Cardiac Glycosides	Lethargy, confusion
Antiarrhythmics	Hypotension, arrhythmias
Calcium Channel	Postural hypotension
Blockers	
Nitrates	Postural hypotension, syncope
Analgesics	
Non-steroidal	Sedation, dizziness, cognitive dysfunction
anti-inflammatory	
agents (NSAIDs)	
Opioid Analgesics	Sedation, confusion, ataxia, blurred vision.
Anticonvulsants	Ataxia, cognitive impairment, sedation
Antihistamines	Hypotension, sedation, confusion
Gastro-intestinal-	Confusion, ataxia. Cimetidine, decreases the clearance of
Histamine Antagonists	many drugs including diazepam, propranolol and tricycle
	antidepressants.
	annucpressants.

Source: [22]

Alcohol misuse

Research has demonstrated a correlation between alcohol consumption and falls. Alcohol consumption is related to postural hypotension [93] which is consequently associated with falls. In some studies, heavy drinking results in recurrent falls [58] but not in other studies [59, 94]. Alcohol-related mortality varies by age, gender and geographical area. Higher rates of accidental mortality caused by alcohol have been found in Northern Europe [95]. When compared with abstainers, persons with a monthly ethanol intake of more than 1000g have a three-fold increased risk of injurious falls that can lead to hospitalization or death [96]. A recent study found that 14 or more alcoholic drinks a week elevates the risk of falling. However, this study did not specify the type or quantity of alcohol [97]. Long-term alcohol use, combined with age-related decline in the portion of the brain that controls posture and balance, can increase age-related postural instability and increase the likelihood of falling. In addition, alcohol use can accelerate the loss of postural control.

Alcohol consumption increases the risk of hip fracture. This may be due to the increased risk of falling while intoxicated, combined with a decrease in bone density associated with alcoholism.

Inappropriate shoes

Foot wear is a potentially modifiable factor that is thought to play a contributing role in some falls [98]. Some studies [99-102], but not others [99], suggest that athletic shoes may be associated with an increased risk of falling because the relatively thick, soft midsoles interfere with positional sense. One study found that high heeled shoes impair balance and are associated with an increased risk of falling [103].

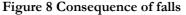
One study found that more than 25% of older people do not wear shoes indoors [104]. Walking barefoot or wearing only socks increases the risk of falling at home [105] Table 7 shows a summary of the behavioral risk factors described above.

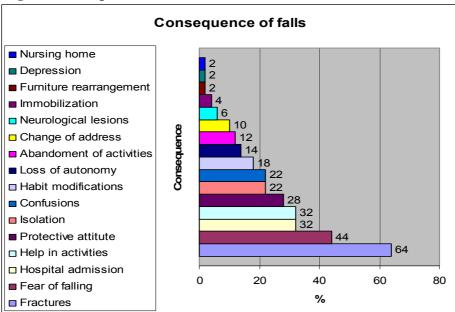
Table 6 Summary of behavioral risk factors

Behavioral risk factors			
Sedentary behavior	Sedentary behavior causes muscle atrophy and declines		
	muscle strength. Those who are inactive fall more often than		
	those who are moderately active or very active. Fear of falling		
	triggers inactive behaviors. Fear of falling occurs in 30% of		
	people age 65 and older, and is significantly associated with		
	changes in balance and mobility, muscle weakness, and an		
	increase in fall risk.		
Medication intake	Use of four or more medications is associated with fear of		
	falling and a 9-fold increased risk of cognitive impairment,		
Alcohol misuse	Alcohol misuse affects biological decline in the part of brain		
	that controls posture and balance. Ethanol intake of more than		
	1000g a month, or intake of 14 or more drinks per week		
	increases the risk of injurious falls that can lead to		
	hospitalization or death.		
Inappropriate shoes	Athletic shoes may be associated with fall risk because the		
	relatively thick soft midsoles interfere with positional sense.		
	High-heeled shoes may impair older women's balance and		
	increase their risk of falls.		
	In one study, going barefoot or wearing only socks was		
	associated with an increased risk of falling.		

7. Consequences

Figure 8 shows consequences of falls. Falls can result in fractures (64%), fear of falling (44%) and hospital admissions (32%), and reduced quality of life. Falls can also result in a "post fall syndrome" that includes dependence (32%), loss of autonomy (14%), confusion (22%), and immobilization (4%), depression (2%), and restrictions in daily activities [106]. Falls are often considered a contributing reason for admission to a nursing home [107, 108].





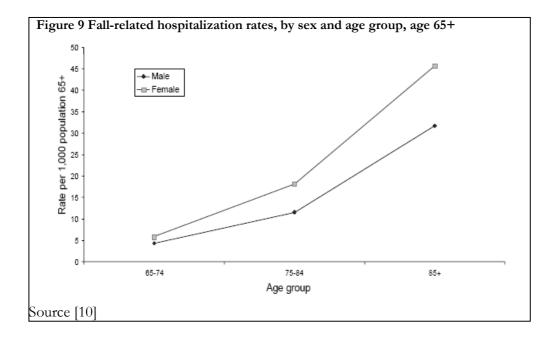
Adopted from [109]

7.1. Hospital admission

Falls are common cause of hospital admissions for traumatic injuries, accounting for 40% of hospitalization. A Canadian survey analyzed fall related hospitalization data between 1998/99 through 2002/03 found that approximately 85,000 Canadians age 65 and older had been admitted to a hospital due to injuries related to falls. The average length of stay was approximately 15-20 days for those 65-74 years of age, 13-15 days for those 75-84 years, and 12-14 days for those 85 years and over. The length of stay for a fall injury was consistently

longer than the average length of stay for all causes combined for seniors age 65 and older. Over the 1998/99 to 2002/03 period, the average length of a hospital stay for fall related injuries among people age 65 and older declined.

Rates of fall-related hospitalizations increased with age for both men and women [28]. The hospitalization rate among women increased from 6 per 1000 population in the 65-74 age group to 46 per 1000 population among those age 85 and older. The rate for men increased from 4 per 1000 in the 65-74 age group to 32 per 1000 in the 85 and older age group (see Figure 9).



7.2. Immobility

Falls are a major cause of severe non-fatal injuries and are the second leading cause of spinal cord and brain injury among older adults. Approximately 30-50% of falls result in minor soft tissue injuries. Overall, 20-30% of those who fall sustain moderate to severe injuries that limit mobility and independence and may result in death. Nearly 30% of older people experiences injuries to the hip, thigh, knee, lower leg, ankle, or foot; 17% experience injuries

to the wrist and hand, and 14% to the back and spine [10]. Approximately 50% of hip fractures lead to immobility [110].

Falls are the largest single cause of restricted activity among older adults, accounting for 18% of restricted activity days [111], increasing the probability of nursing home admission [112]. Falls also account for 12% of people bed-bound for life among those who fall and are age 65 years and over.

Falls can cause fear of falling and reduce independence and quality of life. Even falls that do not result in physical injuries can result in a "post-fall syndrome" that is associated with a loss of confidence and immobility.

7.3. Mortality

Falls account for 40% of all injury deaths. [111]. Men have a higher mortality rate than women [21]. A Canadian survey found the mortality rate increased from 8.1 per 10,000 population during 1997-99 to 9.4 per 10,000 populations during 2000-02. Falls can be an indirect cause of death if a person is unable to get up from the floor and cannot call for a help. Lying on the floor for more than 12 hours is associated with pressure sores, dehydration, hypothermia, pneumonia, and ultimately with higher mortality [80]. Approximately 20% of hip fractures lead to death within 6 months. The increasing fall death rate during the past decade is, in part, a reflection of the increasing average age of the over-65 population.

7.4. Conclusion

Fall and fall related injuries are major public health challenges that call for global attention. This problem will increase in magnitude as the numbers of older adults increase in many nations throughout the world. This report describes some commonly reported fall risk factors from international studies. These include demographic, biological and behavioral factors that both alone and in interaction with each other, increase the risk of falls. Epidemiological data show gender differences in the rates of fall-related mortality and hip fracture, with considerably higher death rates among men. Depending on the injury, falls can lead to hospital admission, disability and functional limitations that significantly decrease the A Global Report on Falls Prevention

quality of life for older people. Preventive measure must be taken to reduce the burden of falls on the individual, family and society. Additionally, there is a lack of epidemiological data for many regions in the developing world. Research is needed to identify prevention strategies that will be effective in different cultural contexts.

8. References

- Zecevic, A.A., et al., Defining a fall and reasons for falling: comparisons among the views of seniors, health care providers, and the research literature. Gerontologist, 2006. 46(3): p. 367-76.
- Wolf, S.L., et al., Reducing frailty and falls in older persons: an investigation of Tai Chi and computerized balance training. Atlanta FICSIT Group. Frailty and Injuries: Cooperative Studies of Intervention Techniques. J Am Geriatr Soc, 1996. 44(5): p. 489-97.
- 3. Tinetti, M.E., Factors associated with serious injury during falls by ambulatory nursing home residents. J Am Geriatr Soc, 1987. **35**(7): p. 644-8.
- 4. Prudham, D. and J. Evans, *Factors associted with falls in the elderly: a community study.* Age Ageing, 1981. **10**(3): p. 141-6.
- Campbell, A.J., et al., *Falls in old age: a study of frequency and related clinical factors*. Age Ageing, 1981. 10(4): p. 264-70.
- 6. Tinetti, M., M. Speechley, and S. Cinter, *Risk factorso for falls among elderly persons living in the community*. New England Journal of Medicine, 1988. **319**: p. **1701-7**.
- Blake, A., et al., Falls by elderly people at home: prevalence and associated factors. Age Ageing, 1988. 17(6): p. 365-72.
- 8. Downton, J. and K. Andrews, *Prevalence, characteristics and factors associated with falls among the elderly living at home.* Aging (Milano), 1991. **3**(3): p. 219-28.
- Stalenhoef, P.A., et al., A risk model for the prediction of recurrent falls in community-dwelling elderly: A prospective cohort study. Journal of Clinical Epidemiology, 2002. 55(11): p. 1088-1094.
- Division of Aging and Seniors and P.H.A.o. Canada, *Report on senior's fall in Canada*.
 2005, Devision of Aging and Seniors. Public Health Agency of Canada.: Ontario.
- 11. Campbell, A.J., et al., *Circumstances and consequences of falls experienced by a community population 70 years and over during a prospective study.* Age Ageing, 1990. **19**(2): p. 136-41.
- 12. Campbell, A., et al., Falls, elderly women and the cold. Gerontology, 1988. 34: p. 205-8.
- 13. Kalache, A. and S. Ebrahim, *Epidemiology in Old Age*. 1996: Blackwell BMJ Books.

- Lord, S., et al., *Physiological factors associated with falls in older community-dwelling women*. Australian Journal of Public Health, 1993. **17**(3): p. 240-5.
- 15. Bath, P.A. and K. Morgan, *Differential risk factor profiles for indoor and outdoor falls in older people living at home in Nottingham, UK.* Eur J Epidemiol, 1999. **15**(1): p. 65-73.
- 16. Faulkner, K.A., et al., *Ethnic Differences in the Frequency and Circumstances of Falling in Older Community-Dwelling Women*
- *doi:10.1111/j.1532-5415.2005.53514.x.* Journal of the American Geriatrics Society, 2005. **53**(10): p. 1774-1779.
- 17. Friedman, S.M., et al., *Increased fall rates in nursing home residents after relocation to a new facility*. J Am Geriatr Soc, 1995. **43**(11): p. 1237-42.
- 18. Alexander, B.H., F.P. Rivara, and M.E. Wolf, *The cost and frequency of hospitalization for fall-related injuries in older adults*. Am J Public Health, 1992. **82**(7): p. 1020-3.
- 19. Campbell, A.J., et al., *Randomised controlled trial of a general practice programme of home based* exercise to prevent falls in elderly women. Bmj, 1997. **315**(7115): p. 1065-9.
- 20. Nordell, E., et al., Accidental falls and related fractures in 65-74 year olds: a retrospective study of 332 patients. Acta Orthop Scand, 2000. **71**(2): p. 175-9.
- 21. Stevens, J.A. and E.D. Sogolow, *Gender differences for non-fatal unintentional fall related injuries among older adults.* Inj Prev, 2005. **11**(2): p. 115-9.
- 22. Cameron, K., et al., *Falls Free: promoting a national falls prevention action plan, research review papers.* March, 2005: National council on the aging.
- 23. Fatalities and Injuries From Falls Among Older Adults--United States, 1993-2003 and 2001-2005
- 10.1001/jama.297.1.32. JAMA, 2007. 297(1): p. 32-33.
- Kannus, P., et al., Secular trends in rates of unintentional injury deaths among adult Finns. Injury, 2005. 36(11): p. 1273-6.
- 25. Fransen, M., et al., *Excess mortality or institutionalization after hip fracture: men are at greater risk than women.* J Am Geriatr Soc, 2002. **50**(4): p. 685-90.
- 26. Hernandez, J.L., et al., *Trend in hip fracture epidemiology over a 14-year period in a Spanish population*. Osteoporos Int, 2006. **17**(3): p. 464-70.

- Rowe, S.M., et al., Rising incidence of hip fracture in Gwangju City and Chonnam Province, Korea. J Korean Med Sci, 2005. 20(4): p. 655-8.
- 28. Herman, M., E. Gallagher, and V. Scott, *The evolution of seniors' falls prevention in British Columbia.* March 2006, British Columbia: Ministry of Health.
- WHO, D.o.I.a.V.P., Noncommunicable Disease and Mental Health Cluster, *The Injury Chart Book*. Fall-related injuries. 2002, Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.
- 30. Nevitt, M.C., et al., *Risk factors for recurrent nonsyncopal falls. A prospective study.* Jama, 1989. **261**(18): p. 2663-8.
- Hanlon, J.T., et al., Falls in African American and white community-dwelling elderly residents. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci, 2002. 57(7): p. M473-8.
- 32. Studenski, S., et al., *Predicting falls: the role of mobility and nonphysical factors*. J Am Geriatr Soc, 1994. **42**(3): p. 297-302.
- 33. Means, K.M., P.S. O'Sullivan, and D.E. Rodell, *Balance, mobility, and falls among elderly African American women.* Am J Phys Med Rehabil, 2000. **79**(1): p. 30-9.
- Horsten, M., et al., Social relations and the metabolic syndrome in middle-aged Swedish women. J Cardiovasc Risk, 1999. 6(6): p. 391-7.
- 35. Faulkner, K.A., et al., *Is social integration associated with the risk of falling in older communitydwelling women?* J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci, 2003. **58**(10): p. M954-9.
- 36. Grisso, J.A., et al., *Injuries among inner-city minority women: a population-based longitudinal study.* Am J Public Health, 1996. **86**(1): p. 67-70.
- Rozycki, G.S. and K.I. Maull, *Injuries sustained by falls*. Arch Emerg Med, 1991. 8(4): p. 245-52.
- Campbell, A.J., G.F. Spears, and M.J. Borrie, Examination by logistic regression modelling of the variables which increase the relative risk of elderly women falling compared to elderly men. J Clin Epidemiol, 1990. 43(12): p. 1415-20.
- O'Neill, T.W., et al., *Age and sex influences on fall characteristics*. Ann Rheum Dis, 1994.
 53(11): p. 773-5.
- 40. Osteoporosis., S.A.B.a., *Clinical practice guidelines for the diagnosis and management of osteoporosis.* Canadian medical association journal, 1996. **155**(8): p. 1113-26.

- 41. Gregg, E.W., et al., *Diabetes and physical disability among older U.S. adults*. Diabetes Care, 2000. **23**(9): p. 1272-7.
- 42. Miller, D., et al., Reported and measure physical functioning in older inner-city diabetic African-Americans. Journal of Gerontology, 1999. **54A**: p. **230-236**.
- 43. Korpelainen, R., et al., Lifelong risk factors for osteoporosis and fractures in elderly women with low body mass index--A population-based study. Bone, 2006. **39**(2): p. 385-391.
- 44. Balash, Y., et al., *Falls in outpatients with Parkinson's disease: frequency, impact and identifying factors.* J Neurol, 2005. **252**(11): p. 1310-5.
- 45. Schaafsma, J.D., et al., *Gait dynamics in Parkinson's disease: relationship to Parkinsonian features, falls and response to levodopa.* J Neurol Sci, 2003. **212**(1-2): p. 47-53.
- 46. Guideline for the prevention of falls in older persons. American Geriatrics Society, British Geriatrics Society, and American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons Panel on Falls Prevention. J Am Geriatr Soc, 2001. 49(5): p. 664-72.
- 47. Tinetti, M.E., *Clinical practice. Preventing falls in elderly persons.* N Engl J Med, 2003.
 348(1): p. 42-9.
- Abrams, P., et al., The standardisation of terminology of lower urinary tract function: report from the Standardisation Sub-committee of the International Continence Society. Neurourol Urodyn, 2002. 21(2): p. 167-78.
- 49. Takazawa, K. and K. Arisawa, *Relationship between the type of urinary incontinence and falls among frail elderly women in Japan.* The Journal of Medical Investigation, 2005. **52**(3,4): p. 165-171.
- 50. Morris, J.C., et al., Senile dementia of the Alzheimer's type: an important risk factor for serious falls. J Gerontol, 1987. **42**(4): p. 412-7.
- 51. Arai, H., Importance of vascular aspects in Alzheimer's disease. Nippon Ronen Igakkai Zasshi, 2006. **43**(4): p. 449-52.
- 52. Rubenstein, L.Z. and K. Josephson, *Falls*, in *Syncope in the Older Patient*, R. Kenny, Editor. 1996, Chapman and Hall: London.
- Rubenstein, L., Falls, in In Ambulatory geriatric care, C. Yoshikawa TT., EL., Brummel-Smith, K., Editor. 1993: Mosby, St. Louis. p. 296-304.

- 54. Grimby, G., *Muscle performance and structure in the elderly as studied cross-sectionally and longitudinally*. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci, 1995. **50** Spec No: p. 17-22.
- 55. Moreland, J.D., et al., *Muscle weakness and falls in older adults: a systematic review and metaanalysis.* J Am Geriatr Soc, 2004. **52**(7): p. 1121-9.
- Felson, D.T., et al., Impaired vision and hip fracture. The Framingham Study. J Am Geriatr Soc, 1989. 37(6): p. 495-500.
- 57. Dargent-Molina, P., et al., *Fall-related factors and risk of hip fracture: the EPIDOS prospective study.* Lancet, 1996. **348**(9021): p. 145-9.
- 58. Tinetti, M.E., M. Speechley, and S.F. Ginter, *Risk factors for falls among elderly persons living in the community*. N Engl J Med, 1988. **319**(26): p. 1701-7.
- 59. Campbell, A.J., M.J. Borrie, and G.F. Spears, *Risk factors for falls in a community-based prospective study of people 70 years and older.* J Gerontol, 1989. **44**(4): p. M112-7.
- 60. Lord, S.R. and J. Dayhew, Visual Risk Factors for Falls in Older People
- *doi:10.1046/j.1532-5415.2001.49107.x.* Journal of the American Geriatrics Society, 2001. **49**(5): p. 508-515.
- 61. Tinetti, M.E., Risk factors for serious injury falls by older persons in the community. Journal of the American Geriac, 1996. **43**: p. 1214-1221.
- 62. Graafmans, W.C., et al., *Falls in the elderly: a prospective study of risk factors and risk profiles.* Am J Epidemiol, 1996. **143**(11): p. 1129-36.
- van Schoor, N.M., et al., Different cognitive functions in relation to falls among older persons. Immediate memory as an independent risk factor for falls. J Clin Epidemiol, 2002. 55(9): p. 855-62.
- 64. Barr, E.L., et al., Foot and leg problems are important determinants of functional status in community dwelling older people. Disabil Rehabil, 2005. **27**(16): p. 917-23.
- 65. Benvenuti, F., et al., *Foot pain and disability in older persons: an epidemiologic survey.* J Am Geriatr Soc, 1995. **43**(5): p. 479-84.
- 66. Gorter, K.J., M.M. Kuyvenhoven, and R.A. de Melker, Nontraumatic foot complaints in older people. A population-based survey of risk factors, mobility, and well-being. J Am Podiatr Med Assoc, 2000. 90(8): p. 397-402.

- 67. Dunn, J.E., et al., *Prevalence of foot and ankle conditions in a multiethnic community sample of older adults.* Am J Epidemiol, 2004. **159**(5): p. 491-8.
- 68. Bumin, G., et al., *An investigation of risk factors for fails in elderly people in a Turkish rest home: a pilot study.* Aging Clin Exp Res, 2002. **14**(3): p. 192-6.
- 69. Blake, A.J., Falls in the elderly. Br J Hosp Med, 1992. 47(4): p. 268-72.
- Wild, D., U. Nayak, and B. Isaacs, *Characteristics of old people who fell at home*. J Clin Exp Gerontol, 1980. 2: p. 271-87.
- Gehlsen, G.M. and M.H. Whaley, *Falls in the elderly: Part II, Balance, strength, and flexibility*. Arch Phys Med Rehabil, 1990. **71**(10): p. 739-41.
- 72. Menz, H.B., M.E. Morris, and S.R. Lord, *Foot and ankle risk factors for falls in older people: a prospective study.* J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci, 2006. **61**(8): p. 866-70.
- Menz, H.B., M.E. Morris, and S.R. Lord, *Foot and ankle characteristics associated with impaired balance and functional ability in older people.* J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci, 2005.
 60(12): p. 1546-52.
- 74. Leveille, S.G., et al., *Musculoskeletal pain and risk for falls in older disabled women living in the community.* J Am Geriatr Soc, 2002. **50**(4): p. 671-8.
- 75. Farahmand, B.Y., et al., *Mortality amongst participants in V asaloppet: a classical long-distance ski race in Sweden*. J Intern Med, 2003. **253**(3): p. 276-83.
- 76. Dargent-Molina, P., F. Poitiers, and G. Breart, *In elderly women weight is the best predictor of a very low bone mineral density: evidence from the EPIDOS study.* Osteoporos Int, 2000. 11(10): p. 881-8.
- 77. van der Voort, D.J., P.P. Geusens, and G.J. Dinant, *Risk factors for osteoporosis related to their outcome: fractures.* Osteoporos Int, 2001. **12**(8): p. 630-8.
- Cummings, S.R., et al., Risk factors for hip fracture in white women. Study of Osteoporotic Fractures Research Group. N Engl J Med, 1995. 332(12): p. 767-73.
- 79. Ensrud, K.E., et al., Intentional and Unintentional Weight Loss Increase Bone Loss and Hip Fracture Risk in Older Women
- *doi:10.1046/j.1532-5415.2003.51558.x.* Journal of the American Geriatrics Society, 2003. **51**(12): p. 1740-1747.

- 80. Tinetti, M.E., et al., *Fear of falling and fall-related efficacy in relationship to functioning among community-living elders.* J Gerontol, 1994. **49**(3): p. M140-7.
- 81. Maki, B.E., P.J. Holliday, and A.K. Topper, *Fear of falling and postural performance in the elderly*. J Gerontol, 1991. **46**(4): p. M123-31.
- Liu-Ambrose, T., et al., Falls-related self-efficacy is independently associated with balance and mobility in older women with low bone mass. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci, 2006. 61(8): p. 832-8.
- 83. Myers, A.M., et al., *Psychological indicators of balance confidence: relationship to actual and perceived abilities.* J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci, 1996. **51**(1): p. M37-43.
- Miller, W.C., A.B. Deathe, and M. Speechley, *Psychometric properties of the Activities-specific Balance Confidence Scale among individuals with a lower-limb amputation*. Arch Phys Med Rehabil, 2003. 84(5): p. 656-61.
- 85. Suzuki, T., *Risk factor of falling among the lderly for prevention of fractures*. Journal of Joint Surgery, 2006. **25**(7): p. 713-718.
- Skelton, D.A., *Effects of physical activity on postural stability*. Age Ageing, 2001. **30** Suppl 4: p. 33-9.
- 87. Gregg, E.W., M.A. Pereira, and C.J. Caspersen, *Physical activity, falls, and fractures among older adults: a review of the epidemiologic evidence.* J Am Geriatr Soc, 2000. **48**(8): p. 883-93.
- Robbins, A.S., et al., Predictors of falls among elderly people. Results of two population-based studies. Arch Intern Med, 1989. 149(7): p. 1628-33.
- Feder, G., et al., Guidelines for the prevention of falls in people over 65. The Guidelines' Development Group. Bmj, 2000. 321(7267): p. 1007-11.
- 90. Friedman, S.M., et al., Falls and fear of falling: which comes first? A longitudinal prediction model suggests strategies for primary and secondary prevention. J Am Geriatr Soc, 2002. 50(8): p. 1329-35.
- 91. Koski, K., et al., *Physiological factors and medications as predictors of injurious falls by elderly people: a prospective population-based study.* Age Ageing, 1996. **25**(1): p. 29-38.
- 92. Koski, K., et al., Risk factors for major injurious falls among the home-dwelling elderly by functional abilities. A prospective population-based study. Gerontology, 1998. 44(4): p. 232-8.

- 93. Burke, V., et al., *Postural fall in blood pressure in the elderly in relation to drug treatment and other lifestyle factors.* Q J Med, 1992. **84**(304): p. 583-91.
- 94. Nelson, D.E., et al., *Alcohol as a risk factor for fall injury events among elderly persons living in the community.* J Am Geriatr Soc, 1992. **40**(7): p. 658-61.
- Skog, O.J., Alcohol consumption and overall accident mortality in 14 European countries. Addiction, 2001. 96 Suppl 1: p. S35-47.
- 96. Malmivaara, A., et al., Risk factors for injurious falls leading to hospitalization or death in a cohort of 19,500 adults. Am J Epidemiol, 1993. **138**(6): p. 384-94.
- 97. Mukamal, K.J., et al., Self-reported alcohol consumption and falls in older adults: cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses of the cardiovascular health study. J Am Geriatr Soc, 2004. **52**(7): p. 1174-9.
- Frey, C. and M. Kubasak, *Faulty footwear contributes to why senior citizens fall*. Biomechanics, 1998. 5: p. 45-48.
- Robbins, S., G.J. Gouw, and J. McClaran, Shoe sole thickness and hardness influence balance in older men. J Am Geriatr Soc, 1992. 40(11): p. 1089-94.
- 100. Robbins, S., et al., Foot position awareness in younger and older men: the influence of footwear sole properties. J Am Geriatr Soc, 1997. **45**(1): p. 61-6.
- Robbins, S.E. and G.J. Gouw, *Athletic footwear: unsafe due to perceptual illusions*. Med Sci Sports Exerc, 1991. 23(2): p. 217-24.
- 102. Robbins, S., et al., *Athletic footwear affects balance in men.* Br J Sports Med, 1994. **28**(2): p. 117-22.
- 103. Lord, S.R., et al., *Effects of shoe collar height and sole hardness on balance in older women*. J Am Geriatr Soc, 1999. **47**(6): p. 681-4.
- 104. Munro, B.J. and J.R. Steele, *Household-shoe wearing and purchasing habits. A survey of people aged 65 years and older.* J Am Podiatr Med Assoc, 1999. **89**(10): p. 506-14.
- Menz, H.B. and M.E. Morris, Footwear characteristics and foot problems in older people. Gerontology, 2005. 51(5): p. 346-51.
- 106. Seematter-Bagnoud, L., et al., *Healthcare Utilization of Elderly Persons Hospitalized After a* Noninjurious Fall in a Swiss Academic Medical Center

doi:10.1111/j.1532-5415.2006.00743.x. Journal of the American Geriatrics Society, 2006. **54**(6): p. 891-897.

- 107. Tinetti, M.E., W.L. Liu, and E.B. Claus, *Predictors and prognosis of inability to get up after falls among elderly persons.* Jama, 1993. **269**(1): p. 65-70.
- Lord, S.R., Predictors of nursing home placement and mortality of residents in intermediate care. Age Ageing, 1994. 23(6): p. 499-504.
- 109. Fabrício Suzele Cristina Coelho, R.R.A.P., Costa Junior Moacyr Lobo da., Falls among older adults seen at a São Paulo State public hospital: causes and consequences. Rev. Saúde Pública., 2004 Feb. 38(1): p. 93-99.
- 110. Freeman, C., et al., *Quality improvement for patients with hip fracture: experience from a multisite audit.* Qual Saf Health Care, 2002. **11**(3): p. 239-45.
- Rubenstein, L.Z., Falls in older people: epidemiology, risk factors and strategies for prevention.
 Age Ageing, 2006. 35 Suppl 2: p. ii37-ii41.
- 112. Seematter-Bagnoud, L., et al., *Healthcare utilization of elderly persons hospitalized after a* noninjurious fall in a Swiss academic medical center. J Am Geriatr Soc, 2006. **54**(6): p. 891-7.