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Delirium, Dementia, and Depression in Older Adults: Assessment and Care



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Delirium, Dementia, and Depression in Older Adults: Assessment and Care

Greetings from Doris Grinspun,

Chief Executive Officer, Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario



The Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario (RNAO) is delighted to present the clinical best practice guideline *Delirium, Dementia and Depression in Older Adults: Assessment and Care*. Evidence-based practice supports the excellence in service that health professionals are committed to delivering every day. RNAO is delighted to provide this key resource.

We offer our heartfelt thanks to the many stakeholders who are making our vision for best practice guidelines a reality, starting with the Government of Ontario, for recognizing RNAO's ability to lead the program and for providing multi-year funding. For their invaluable expertise and leadership, I wish to thank Dr. Irmajean Bajnok, Director of the RNAO International Affairs and Best Practice Guidelines

Centre, and Michelle Rey, the Associate Director. I also want to thank the co-chairs of the expert panel, Michelle Acorn (Nurse Practitioner, Lakeridge Health and PHC NP Coordinator, University of Toronto) and Lori Schindel Martin (Associate Professor and Associate Director—Scholarly, Research and Creative Activities, Ryerson University, Daphne Cockwell School of Nursing) for their exquisite expertise and stewardship of this guideline. Thanks also to RNAO staff Susan McNeill, Verity White, Diana An, Laura Legere, and the rest of the RNAO Best Practice Guidelines Program Team for their intense work in the production of this new Guideline. Special thanks to the members of the expert panel for generously providing time and expertise to deliver a rigorous and robust clinical resource. We couldn't have done it without you!

Successful uptake of best practice guidelines requires a concerted effort from educators, clinicians, employers, policy-makers, and researchers. The nursing and health-care community, with their unwavering commitment and passion for excellence in patient care, have provided the expertise and countless hours of volunteer work essential to the development and revision of each best practice guideline. Employers have responded enthusiastically by nominating best practice champions, implementing guidelines, and evaluating their impact on patients and organizations. Governments at home and abroad have joined in this journey. Together, we are building a culture of evidence-based practice.

We invite you to share this Guideline with your colleagues from other professions and with the patient advisors who are partnering within organizations, because we have so much to learn from one another. Together, we must ensure that the public receives the best possible care every time they come in contact with us—making them the real winners in this important effort!

A handwritten signature in dark ink that reads "Doris Grinspun". The signature is fluid and cursive, with a long horizontal flourish extending from the end.

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How to Use this Document

This nursing Best Practice Guideline (BPG)^{G*} is a comprehensive document that provides resources for evidence^G-based nursing practice. It is not intended to be a manual or “how to” guide, but rather a tool to guide best practices and enhance decision-making for nurses^G and other health-care providers^G working with older adults^G who have delirium, dementia, and/or depression. The Guideline should be reviewed and applied in accordance with both the needs of individual organizations or practice settings and the needs and preferences of persons and their families^G accessing the health system for care and services. In addition, the Guideline offers an overview of appropriate structures and supports for providing the best possible evidence-based care.

Nurses, other health-care providers, and administrators who lead and facilitate practice changes will find this document invaluable for developing policies, procedures, protocols, educational programs and assessments, interventions, and documentation tools. Nurses and other health-care providers in direct care will benefit from reviewing the recommendations and the evidence that supports them. We particularly recommend that practice settings adapt these guidelines in formats that are user-friendly for daily use.

If your organization is adopting this Guideline, we recommend you follow these steps:

1. Assess your nursing and health-care practices using the recommendations in this Guideline,
2. Identify which recommendations will address needs or gaps in services, and
3. Develop a plan for implementing the recommendations.

Implementation resources, including the RNAO *Toolkit: Implementation of Best Practice Guidelines* (2012b), are available at www.RNAO.ca. We are interested in hearing how you have implemented this Guideline. Please contact us to share your story.

* Throughout this document, terms marked with a superscript G (^G) can be found in the Glossary of Terms ([Appendix A](#)).



Purpose and Scope

Best practice guidelines are systematically developed statements designed to assist nurses working in partnership with persons and their families to make decisions about health care and services (Field & Lohr, 1990). This nursing Best Practice Guideline (BPG) is intended to replace the RNAO BPGs *Screening for Delirium, Dementia and Depression in Older Adults* (2010b) and *Caregiving Strategies for Older Adults with Delirium, Dementia and Depression* (2010a). It is to be used by nurses and other members of the interprofessional health-care team^G to enhance the quality^G of their practice pertaining to delirium, dementia, and depression in older adults^G, ultimately optimizing clinical outcomes through the use of evidence-based practices.

In March 2015, RNAO convened an expert panel consisting of a group of individuals with expertise in delirium, dementia, and/or depression across a variety of health-care settings. The RNAO expert panel was interprofessional in composition, comprising individuals holding clinical, administrative, and academic positions in a range of health-care organizations, practice areas, and sectors. These experts work with older adults receiving care and services in different types of health-care settings (acute care, long-term care^G, home health care, mental health, and in the community in primary care and family health teams), as well as in other types of organizations such as associations and teaching institutions.

To determine the scope and organization of the Guideline, the RNAO development team took the following steps:

- reviewed the RNAO BPGs *Screening for Delirium, Dementia and Depression in Older Adults* (2010b) and *Caregiving Strategies For Older Adults with Delirium, Dementia and Depression* (2010a);
- conducted a scoping review^G of the literature to assess whether or not a strong enough connection exists between delirium, dementia, and depression to warrant combining them in a single Guideline; and
- conducted three focus groups with experts in the field, including those who actively implement the Guidelines.

Upon analysis of the results of these activities, the RNAO development team decided to publish a single Guideline encompassing screening and caregiving for all three conditions; this new Guideline therefore outlines recommendations for the assessment and care of delirium and/or dementia and/or depression in older adults. The focus is on the provision of effective, compassionate, and dignified care, and on the management of presenting signs, symptoms, and behaviours. The recommendations apply to the foundational clinical care provided by nurses and other health-care providers in a range of community and health-care settings.

Recommendations are provided at the following three levels:

- Practice recommendations^G are directed primarily toward nurses who provide direct clinical care to older adults across the spectrum of care, including (but not limited to): primary care, acute care, home-care settings, alternative level of care/complex continuing care, and long-term care. The secondary audience of the practice recommendations includes other members of the interprofessional team who collaborate with nurses to provide comprehensive care. All of the recommendations are applicable to the scope of practice of registered nurses and nurse practitioners (general and extended class); however, many are also applicable to other members of the interprofessional team.
- Education recommendations^G are directed at those who are responsible for the education of health-care providers, such as educators, quality improvement teams, managers, administrators, and academic and professional institutions. These recommendations outline core content and training strategies required for entry-level health-care programs, ongoing education, and professional development. The primary focus is nurses, and the secondary focus is interprofessional team members.

- Organization and policy recommendations^G apply to managers, administrators, and policy-makers who are responsible for developing policy or securing the supports required within health-care organizations that enable the implementation of best practices.

For optimal effectiveness, recommendations in these three areas should be implemented together.

The following conditions and topics are *not* covered within the scope of this Guideline: delirium caused by alcohol withdrawal, delirium in the last days of life, early onset dementia (dementia occurring in middle age), and prevention of dementia or depression. As well, the Guideline does not specifically address mild cognitive impairment^G. For guidance on topics outside the scope of this Guideline or for detailed clinical information on delirium, dementia, or depression that is not captured in this Guideline (e.g., diagnostic processes or specific pharmacological treatment options), please refer to the clinical guidelines listed in [Appendix C](#), Process for Systematic Review and Search Strategy.

It should be noted that the evidence to support the recommendations in this Guideline is uneven across health-care settings; for example, for delirium, considerable evidence exists for acute-care settings but very little exists for home care. The discussions of evidence clarify, whenever possible, whether or not the evidence is specific to a particular setting; in some cases, the expert panel provides guidance to health-care settings for which evidence is lacking. In adopting and implementing this BPG, organizations are encouraged to determine whether or not individual recommendations are applicable to their particular setting. Refer to Research Gaps and Future Implications for additional information.

For more information about this Guideline, including the Guideline development process and the systematic review^G and search strategy, refer to [Appendices B](#) and [C](#).

Use of the Term “BPSD” in This Guideline

Terminology in the field of dementia care continues to evolve. The expert panel has chosen to use the term *behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia* (BPSD) to describe the way a person with dementia expresses his/her needs and exhibits symptoms of dementia—for example, through changes in mood, delusions, apathy, agitation, wandering, calling out, repetitive questioning, and sexual disinhibition (Moniz Cook et al., 2012). Other terms used to describe these symptoms include “neuropsychiatric symptoms,” “behavioural and emotional symptoms,” and “needs-driven behaviour.” However, the expert panel has chosen the term BPSD because of its widespread use, and the general acceptance of its comprehensive definition within the clinical field, the literature, and clinical guidelines.

The expert panel acknowledges that the term BPSD has been criticized as being too medicalized or focused too heavily on how behaviours challenge care providers. However, the intent of the term was to provide an alternative to the negative labels associated with some of the other terms used to describe symptoms (e.g., “aggression”). Newer definitions or descriptions of symptoms, including “BPSD,” highlight the fact that these symptoms stem from a person’s unmet needs, or describe them as an expression of the person’s experiences, feelings, or emotions, or as a method of communicating needs.

Use of the Term “Older Adult” in This Guideline

For the purpose of the systematic review database searches for this Guideline, RNAO applied the limiting term “adults age 65 years and older.” When the term *older adult* is used within the Guideline, however, it may refer to people younger than 65 who have aged prematurely or who have a shortened life expectancy due to factors such as the social determinants of health or chronic disease. Therefore, this Guideline may also apply to some individuals younger than 65 years of age.

Use of the Term “Burden/Caregiver Burden” in This Guideline

The term *burden/caregiver burden* is used in this Guideline to align with terminology used in particular studies and guidelines. It is important to note that, although caregiving can be stressful and challenging, some family caregivers/care partners dislike the use of the word “burden” to describe their experiences. Alternative words may include “caregiver stress,” “distress,” or “challenges.”



Interpretation of Evidence

Levels of evidence are assigned to study designs to rank how well particular designs are able to eliminate alternate explanations of the phenomena under study. The higher the level of evidence, the greater the likelihood that the relationships presented between the variables are true. Levels of evidence do not reflect the merit or quality of individual studies.

For the recommendations in this Guideline, the highest level of evidence that aligns most closely with the recommendation statement is assigned. In cases where there are multiple studies of various design with similar findings, the studies with the highest level of evidence are assigned (and cited) in support of the recommendation.

In some cases, recommendations are assigned more than one level of evidence. This reflects the varied study designs that support the multiple components of a recommendation. For transparency, the level of evidence for each component of the recommendation statement is identified in the discussion of evidence.

LEVEL	SOURCE OF EVIDENCE
Ia	Evidence obtained from meta-analysis ^G or systematic reviews of randomized controlled trials ^G , and/or synthesis of multiple studies primarily of <i>quantitative</i> research.
Ib	Evidence obtained from at least one randomized controlled trial.
IIa	Evidence obtained from at least one well-designed controlled study ^G without randomization.
IIb	Evidence obtained from at least one other type of well-designed quasi-experimental study ^G , without randomization.
III	Synthesis of multiple studies primarily of qualitative research ^G .
IV	Evidence obtained from well-designed non-experimental observational studies, such as analytical studies ^G or descriptive studies ^G , and/or qualitative studies.
V	Evidence obtained from expert opinion or committee reports, and/or clinical experiences of respected authorities.

Adapted from the Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network (Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network [SIGN], 2011) and Pati (2011).

For information on the systematic review process and how studies are appraised for quality, see [Appendix C](#).

Summary of Recommendations

This Guideline replaces the RNAO BPGs *Screening for Delirium, Dementia and Depression in Older Adults* (2010b) and *Caregiving Strategies for Older Adults with Delirium, Dementia and Depression* (2010a).

A summary of how the recommendations in this Guideline compare to the recommendations in the previous Guidelines is available at www.RNAO.ca/bpg/Delirium-Dementia-Depression

PRACTICE RECOMMENDATIONS		LEVEL OF EVIDENCE
OVERARCHING RECOMMENDATIONS RELATED TO DELIRIUM, DEMENTIA, AND DEPRESSION		
1.0 General Recommendations	Recommendation 1.1: Establish therapeutic relationships and provide culturally sensitive person- and family-centred care when caring for and providing education to people with delirium, dementia, and depression and their families and care partners.	Ia & V
	Recommendation 1.2: Identify and differentiate among signs and symptoms of delirium, dementia, and/or depression during assessments, observations, and interactions with older persons, paying close attention to concerns about changes expressed by the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.	V
	Recommendation 1.3: Refer older adults suspected of delirium, dementia, and/or depression to the appropriate clinicians, teams, or services for further assessment, diagnosis, and/or follow-up care.	Ia
	Recommendation 1.4a: Assess the person's ability to understand and appreciate information relevant to making decisions and, if concerns arise regarding the person's mental capacity, collaborate with other members of the health-care team as necessary.	V
	Recommendation 1.4b: Support the older person's ability to make decisions in full or in part. If the older person is incapable of making certain decisions, engage the appropriate substitute decision-maker in decision-making, consent, and care planning.	V

PRACTICE RECOMMENDATIONS		LEVEL OF EVIDENCE
	<p>Recommendation 1.5:</p> <p>Exercise caution in prescribing and administering medication to older adults (within the health-care provider's scope of practice), and diligently monitor and document medication use and effects, paying particular attention to medications with increased risk for older adults and polypharmacy.</p>	Ia
	<p>Recommendation 1.6:</p> <p>Use principles of least restraint/restraint as a last resort when caring for older adults.</p>	V
RECOMMENDATIONS RELATED TO DELIRIUM		
2.0 Assessment	<p>Recommendation 2.1:</p> <p>Assess older adults for delirium risk factors on initial contact and if there is a change in the person's condition.</p>	Ia & V
3.0 Planning	<p>Recommendation 3.1:</p> <p>Develop a tailored, non-pharmacological, multi-component delirium prevention plan for persons at risk for delirium in collaboration with the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.</p>	Ia
4.0 Implementation	<p>Recommendation 4.1:</p> <p>Implement the delirium prevention plan in collaboration with the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.</p>	Ia
	<p>Recommendation 4.2:</p> <p>Use clinical assessments and validated tools to assess older adults at risk for delirium at least daily (where appropriate) and whenever changes in the person's cognitive function, perception, physical function, or social behaviour are observed or reported.</p>	Ia & V
	<p>Recommendation 4.3:</p> <p>Continue to employ prevention strategies when caring for older adults at risk for delirium who have not been identified as having delirium.</p>	Ia & V

PRACTICE RECOMMENDATIONS		LEVEL OF EVIDENCE
4.0 Implementation	<p>Recommendation 4.4:</p> <p>For older adults whose assessments indicate delirium, identify the underlying causes and contributing factors using clinical assessments and collaboration with the interprofessional team.</p>	Ia
	<p>Recommendation 4.5:</p> <p>Implement tailored, multi-component interventions to actively manage the person's delirium in collaboration with the person, the person's family/care partners, and the interprofessional team (level of evidence = Ia).</p> <p>These interventions should include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ treatment of the underlying causes (level of evidence = Ia), ■ non-pharmacological interventions (level of evidence = V), and ■ appropriate use of medications to alleviate the symptoms of delirium and/or manage pain (level of evidence = Ia). 	Ia & V
	<p>Recommendation 4.6:</p> <p>Educate persons who are at risk for or are experiencing delirium and their families/care partners about delirium prevention and care.</p>	V
5.0 Evaluation	<p>Recommendation 5.1:</p> <p>Monitor older adults who are experiencing delirium for changes in symptoms at least daily using clinical assessments/observations and validated tools, and document the effectiveness of interventions.</p>	V

PRACTICE RECOMMENDATIONS		LEVEL OF EVIDENCE
RECOMMENDATIONS RELATED TO DEMENTIA		
6.0 Assessment	<p>Recommendation 6.1a:</p> <p>Assess older adults for possible dementia when changes in cognition, behaviour, mood, or function are observed or reported. Use validated, context-specific screening or assessment tools, and collaborate with the person, his/her family/ care partners, and the interprofessional team for a comprehensive assessment.</p>	Ia & V
	<p>Recommendation 6.1b:</p> <p>Refer the person for further assessment/diagnosis if dementia is suspected.</p>	Ia
	<p>Recommendation 6.2:</p> <p>Assess the physical, functional, and psychological status of older adults with dementia or suspected dementia, and determine its impact on the person and his/her family/care partners using comprehensive assessments and/or standardized tools.</p>	V
	<p>Recommendation 6.3:</p> <p>Systematically explore the underlying causes of any behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia that are present, including identifying the person's unmet needs and potential "triggers." Use an appropriate tool and collaborate with the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.</p>	Ia
	<p>Recommendation: 6.4:</p> <p>Assess older adults with dementia for pain using a population-specific pain assessment tool.</p>	Ia
7.0 Planning	<p>Recommendation 7.1:</p> <p>Develop an individualized plan of care that addresses the behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia (BPSD) and/or the person's personal care needs. Incorporate a range of non-pharmacological approaches, selected according to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ the person's preferences, ■ the assessment of the BPSD, ■ the stage of dementia, ■ the person's needs during personal care and bathing, ■ consultations with the person's family/care partners and the interprofessional team, and ■ ongoing observations of the person. 	Ia

PRACTICE RECOMMENDATIONS		LEVEL OF EVIDENCE
8.0 Implementation	Recommendation 8.1: Implement the plan of care in collaboration with the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.	V
	Recommendation 8.2: Monitor older adults with dementia for pain, and implement pain-reduction measures to help manage behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia.	Ia & V
	Recommendation 8.3: Employ communication strategies and techniques that demonstrate compassion, validate emotions, support dignity, and promote comprehension when caring for people with dementia.	Ia
	Recommendation 8.4: Promote strategies for people living with dementia that will preserve their abilities and optimize their quality of life, including but not limited to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ exercise (level of evidence = Ia), ■ interventions that support cognitive function (level of evidence = Ia), ■ advanced care planning (level of evidence = Ia), and ■ other strategies to support living well with dementia (level of evidence = V). 	Ia & V
	Recommendation 8.5a: Provide education and psychosocial support to family members and care partners of people with dementia that align with the person's unique needs and the stage of dementia. Recommendation 8.5b: Refer family members and care partners who are experiencing distress or depression to an appropriate health-care provider.	Ia V
9.0 Evaluation	Recommendation 9.1: Evaluate the plan of care in collaboration with the person with dementia (as appropriate), his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team, and revise accordingly.	V

PRACTICE RECOMMENDATIONS		LEVEL OF EVIDENCE
RECOMMENDATIONS RELATED TO DEPRESSION		
10.0 Assessment	Recommendation 10.1: Assess for depression during assessments and ongoing observations when risk factors or signs and symptoms of depression are present. Use validated, context-specific screening or assessment tools, and collaborate with the older adult, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.	Ia & V
	Recommendation 10.2: Assess for risk of suicide when depression is suspected or present.	V
	Recommendation 10.3: Refer older adults suspected of depression for an in-depth assessment by a qualified health-care professional. Seek urgent medical attention for those at risk for suicide and ensure their immediate safety.	V
11.0 Planning	Recommendation 11.1: Develop an individualized plan of care for older adults with depression using a collaborative approach. Where applicable, consider the impact of co-morbid dementia.	Ia & V
12.0 Implementation	Recommendation 12.1: Administer evidence-based pharmacological and/or non-pharmacological therapeutic interventions for depression that are tailored to the person's clinical profile and preferences.	Ia & V
	Recommendation 12.2: Educate older adults with depression (and their families/care partners, if appropriate) about depression, self-management, therapeutic interventions, safety, and follow-up care.	V
13.0 Evaluation	Recommendation 13.1: Monitor older adults who are experiencing depression for changes in symptoms and response to treatment using a collaborative approach. Document the effectiveness of interventions and changes in suicidal risk.	V

EDUCATION RECOMMENDATIONS		LEVEL OF EVIDENCE
14.0 Education	<p>Recommendation 14.1:</p> <p>All entry-level health-care programs include content and practice education opportunities that are specific to caring for older adults who have or are suspected of having delirium, dementia, and/or depression, and that are tailored to the discipline's scope of practice.</p>	V
	<p>Recommendation 14.2:</p> <p>Organizations provide opportunities for nurses and other health-care providers to enhance their competency in caring for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression. Pertinent educational content should be provided during the orientation of new staff and students, and continuously through refresher courses and professional development opportunities.</p>	Ia & V
	<p>Recommendation 14.3:</p> <p>Design dynamic, evidence-based educational programs on delirium, dementia, and depression that support the transfer of knowledge and skills to the practice setting. Such programs should be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ interactive and multimodal (level of evidence = Ia), ■ interprofessional (level of evidence = Ia), ■ tailored to address learners' needs (level of evidence = V), ■ reinforced at the point of care by strategies and tools (level of evidence = Ia), and ■ supported by trained champions or clinical experts (level of evidence = Ia). 	Ia & V
	<p>Recommendation 14.4:</p> <p>Evaluate educational programs on delirium, dementia, and depression to determine whether they meet desired outcomes, such as practice changes and improved health outcomes. Refine programs as required.</p>	V

ORGANIZATION AND POLICY		LEVEL OF EVIDENCE
15.0 Organization and Policy	<p>Recommendation 15.1:</p> <p>Organizations demonstrate leadership and maintain a commitment to foundational principles that support care for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ person- and family-centred care (level of evidence = Ia), ■ collaborative, interprofessional care (level of evidence = Ia), and ■ healthy work environments (level of evidence = V). 	Ia & V
	<p>Recommendation 15.2:</p> <p>Organizations select validated screening and assessment tools for delirium, dementia, and depression that are appropriate to the population and health-care setting, and provide training and infrastructure to support their application.</p>	V
	<p>Recommendation 15.3:</p> <p>Organizations implement comprehensive, multi-component programs, delivered by collaborative teams within organizations, to address delirium, dementia, and depression (level of evidence = Ia).</p> <p>These should be supported by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ comprehensive educational programs (level of evidence = V), ■ clinical experts and champions (level of evidence = Ia), and ■ organizational processes that align with best practices (level of evidence = V). 	Ia & V
	<p>Recommendation 15.4:</p> <p>Establish processes within organizations to ensure that relevant information and care planning for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression is communicated and coordinated over the course of treatment and during care transitions.</p>	Ia & V

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Declarations of interest that might be construed as constituting an actual, potential, or apparent conflict were made by all members of the Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario expert panel, and members were asked to update their disclosures throughout the guideline development process. Information was requested about financial, intellectual, personal, and other interests and documented for future reference. No limiting conflicts were identified.

Further details are available from the Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario.



Stakeholder Acknowledgment

As a component of the guideline development process, RNAO is committed to obtaining feedback from nurses from a wide range of practice settings and roles, knowledgeable administrators and funders of health-care services, and stakeholder^G associations. Stakeholders representing diverse perspectives were solicited* for their feedback, and RNAO wishes to acknowledge the following individuals for their contribution in reviewing this Guideline.

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Stakeholder reviewers for RNAO BPGs are identified in two ways. First, stakeholders are recruited through a public call issued on the RNAO website (www.RNAO.ca/bpg/get-involved/stakeholder). Second, individuals and organizations with expertise in the Guideline topic area are identified by the RNAO Guideline development team and expert panel, and are directly invited to participate in the review.

Reviewers are asked to read a full draft of the Guideline and participate in the review prior to its publication. Stakeholder feedback is submitted online by completing a survey questionnaire. The stakeholders are asked the following questions about each recommendation:

- Is this recommendation clear?
- Do you agree with this recommendation?
- Is the discussion of evidence thorough and does the evidence support the recommendation?

The survey also provides an opportunity to include comments and feedback for each section of the Guideline.

Survey submissions are compiled and feedback is summarized by the RNAO Guideline development team. The RNAO development team and expert panel review and consider all feedback and, if necessary, modify the Guideline content and recommendations prior to publication to address the feedback received.

Stakeholder reviewers have given consent to the publication of their names and relevant information in this Guideline.



Background Context

Relationship Between Delirium, Dementia, and Depression

Delirium, dementia, and depression in the context of older adults are often discussed and researched independently of one another. However, these three conditions are related in several important ways, and it is essential for health-care providers to be aware of these relationships, particularly when providing care to older adults.

Coexistence and Overlapping Symptoms

Delirium, dementia, and/or depression can coexist (Regan & Varanelli, 2013); for example, a person who has delirium may also have underlying dementia and depression, or a person with dementia may also be depressed with an underlying delirium. Depression is a common neuropsychiatric symptom^G of dementia (Brodaty & Arasaratnam, 2012; Enmarker, Olsen, & Hellzen, 2011; Ueda, Suzukamo, Sato, & Izumi, 2013). In addition to the potential for coexistence, delirium, dementia, and depression share common features with overlapping symptoms, which makes it a challenge to determine the correct diagnosis (Development Group of the Clinical Practice Guideline on the Comprehensive Care of People with Alzheimer's Disease and Other Dementias [Development Group], 2010; RNAO, 2010b). For example, due to their similarity, the following can occur:

- hypoactive delirium can be mistaken for depression,
- hyperactive delirium can be mistaken for behavioural disturbance in dementia,
- dementia can be mistaken for depression, and
- depression can be mistaken for dementia.

For a comparison of the clinical features of delirium, dementia, and depression, see [Appendix D](#).

Risk Factors and Exacerbation of Existing Conditions

Having delirium, dementia, or depression can increase a person's risk of developing one of the other conditions, can exacerbate an existing condition, or can be a consequence of one of the other conditions. For example, studies have found the following:

- People with cognitive impairment and depression have a higher risk of developing delirium (Flaherty, Gonzales, & Dong, 2011; Inouye, Westendorp, & Saczynski, 2014; Khan et al., 2012).
- Delirium may increase a person's risk of developing dementia (Hsieh et al., 2015; Khan et al., 2012; National Institute for Health and Care Excellence [NICE], 2010) or may worsen the progression of dementia (Clegg, Siddiqi, Heaven, Young, & Holt, 2014).
- People with a diagnosis of dementia have a high prevalence of depressive symptoms (American Medical Directors Association [AMDA], 2011; Orgeta, Qazi, Spector, & Orrell, 2014; Potter, Ellard, Rees, & Thorogood, 2011).
- Experiencing a major episode of depression in later life may increase a person's risk of Alzheimer's dementia (Trangle et al., 2016).
- Depression interacts with and may exacerbate cognitive impairment (Kiosses, Leon, & Arian, 2011).
- Depression may contribute to behavioural symptoms (e.g., aggression) in persons with dementia (Enmarker et al., 2011).

Delirium

Delirium is a complex neuropsychiatric syndrome marked by an acute onset, fluctuating course, altered level of consciousness, inattention, and disorganized thinking (Inouye, 2006, as cited in Marcantonio, 2011; Martinez, Tobar, & Hill, 2015). It is described as an acute condition, usually lasting for one to seven days (Flaherty et al., 2011), although it can persist for days or weeks (AMDA, 2008). Delirium can be thought of as acute brain failure, and may in fact indicate that the person's brain is vulnerable and has diminishing capacity (Inouye et al., 2014). Delirium can signal a medical emergency, and its consequences may include permanent neurological effects (Inouye et al., 2014), the development or worsening of dementia (Clegg et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2012; NICE, 2010), transfer to a long-term care facility (Brooks, 2012; Khan et al., 2012; NICE, 2010), falls, functional decline (Hsieh et al., 2015), and increased risk of death (Brooks, 2012; Khan et al., 2012; NICE, 2010).

Delirium is not uncommon in older adults. It is reported to affect up to 50 percent of hospitalized older adults (Inouye et al., 2014), with higher incidences seen in intensive care units; among people with hip fractures; and among those undergoing surgical procedures, such as cardiac surgery (Holroyd-Leduc, Khandwala, & Sink, 2010; Martinez et al., 2015). Delirium is common in long-term-care settings (AMDA, 2008) and often leads to hospital admission (Clegg et al., 2014). In home-care settings, the incidence of delirium is unclear; however, it is seen frequently among people receiving palliative care. For detailed information regarding delirium at the end of life, see the Canadian Coalition for Seniors Mental Health's (CCSMH) (2010) *Guideline on the Assessment and Treatment of Delirium in Older Adults at the End of Life*.

Causation of delirium is multifactorial. Delirium develops as a result of a combination of predisposing factors (e.g., older age, frailty, cognitive impairment) that create vulnerability, and a variety of precipitating factors (e.g., illness, surgery, immobility, noisy environment) (Clegg et al., 2014; Holroyd-Leduc et al., 2010; Inouye et al., 2014). An older person with multiple morbidities and dementia is at high risk for developing delirium. In this case, even small changes in the person's environment or medical condition may trigger the onset of delirium, whereas a healthy older adult may only develop delirium after being exposed to several precipitating risk factors (Marcantonio, 2011).

There are three main types of delirium:

1. **Hyperactive delirium** is characterized by heightened arousal, restlessness, agitation, delusions, and/or aggressive behaviour.
2. **Hypoactive delirium** is characterized by sleepiness, quieting of symptoms, and/or disinterested behaviour.
3. **Mixed delirium** is characterized by alternating hyperactive and hypoactive states (NICE, 2010).

According to Khurana, Gambhir, & Kishore (2011), hypoactive delirium is the most common type of delirium in older adults, accounting for approximately 65 percent of delirium cases. However, despite its prevalence, it is often overlooked and can be mistaken for dementia or depression (AMDA, 2008; NICE, 2010).

In addition to the three main types of delirium listed above, the literature describes subsyndromal delirium, in which the person presents with some but not all features of delirium (Marcantonio, 2011), and persistent delirium, which describes delirium that lasts to discharge and beyond (Cole, Ciampi, Belzile, & Zhong, 2009). Persistent delirium has been associated with poor outcomes, such as significant increases in cognitive impairment, functional disability, prolonged hospital stay, institutionalization, and fatality (Cole et al., 2009).

In many cases, delirium can be prevented. Multi-component interventions to prevent delirium can reduce incidence rates by approximately 30 percent (Martinez et al., 2015), and organized prevention programs have been found to improve the identification and treatment of delirium (Hsieh et al., 2015; Inouye et al., 2014; Marcantonio, 2011) (see [Recommendation 15.3](#)).

Dementia

The Alzheimer Society of Ontario (2012, p. 3) defines dementia as “a brain disorder characterized by impaired cognitive functioning that can affect learning and memory, mood and behaviour, as well as the ability to conduct daily activities and high level functions such as management of other chronic conditions.” Dementia develops gradually and is progressive, but its manifestation and course can vary considerably, depending on the disease (Development Group, 2010).

“Dementia” can be thought of as an umbrella term for a variety of diseases that create irreversible changes in the brain, including the following: Alzheimer’s disease (associated with protein plaques and tangles); vascular dementia (associated with strokes); mixed dementias (any combination of dementias, most commonly Alzheimer’s and vascular); dementia with Lewy body disease; frontotemporal dementia; and dementias associated with Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, Parkinson’s disease, and Huntington’s disease (Alzheimer Society of Canada, 2015b). In the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (5th ed.; DSM–5; American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013), these various diseases are classified as major neurocognitive disorders and have specific diagnostic criteria. For a summary of the main types of dementia, see [Appendix E](#).

Risk factors depend on the type of dementia, and may include progressive aging (over age 65), vascular risk factors (e.g., hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and diabetes), family history in first-degree relatives, and depression (Development Group, 2010).

In 2011, the Alzheimer Society of Canada reported that 747,000 older Canadians (almost 15 percent) were living with dementia; by 2031, this number is projected to reach 1.4 million (Alzheimer Society of Canada, 2015a). The World Health Organization (WHO) reports that the prevalence of dementia increases with age, and appears to double every five years after age 65 (WHO, 2012). This is of great concern, given that the number of Ontarians aged 65 years and older is expected to double within the next 20 years, and the majority of these older adults will have at least one chronic disease or condition (Ontario Ministry of Health and Long-Term Care, 2012), some of which are associated with dementia (Development Group, 2010).

While dementia can have a devastating impact on the lives of those who are affected and their families, people with dementia can be active members of society, especially during the earlier stages^G of the disease. As dementia progresses, health-care providers can collaborate with families to support the person’s quality of life and dignity.

Behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia^G (BPSD) are estimated to occur in about 80 percent of people with dementia, particularly among people with moderate and advanced stages of the disease (Development Group, 2010; Spector, Orrell, & Gwyder, 2013). BPSD is a term used to describe the way a person expresses his/her needs and exhibits symptoms of dementia, including through changes in mood, delusions, apathy, agitation, wandering, calling out, repetitive questioning, and sexual disinhibition^G (Moniz Cook et al., 2012). It is important to note that these symptoms have been described and defined in numerous ways (see [Appendix A](#)). Furthermore, the discourse and the philosophical underpinnings around terminology and approaches to care are evolving. Regardless of the terms used, effective management and response to these symptoms is an essential skill for health-care providers (see [Recommendations 6.3](#) and [7.1](#), and [Appendix A](#) for more information).

When supporting people with dementia, it is also important to provide support and education to the person’s family and caregivers^G. Family members are often central partners in care, and while family caregiving can be rewarding, it can also affect the physical and emotional health of caregivers; in some cases, this may be associated with abuse or neglect of the older adult (for more information, see RNAO’s [2014a] *BPG Addressing and Preventing Abuse and Neglect of Older Adults: Person-Centred, Collaborative, System-Wide Approaches*). The WHO (2012) reports that between half and three-

quarters of all caregivers of people with dementia experience symptoms of depression or anxiety. Providing support and education for caregivers can not only affect the quality of care and quality of life for persons with dementia, but these strategies can also alleviate psychosocial outcomes in caregivers themselves (e.g., caregiver distress, stress, depression, etc.) (Corbett et al., 2012). (See [Recommendations 1.1](#) and [8.5](#)).

Depression

The American Medical Directors Association (2011, p. i) has defined depression as “a spectrum of mood disorders characterized by a sustained disturbance in emotional, cognitive, behavioural, and/or somatic regulation that is associated with both significant functional impairment in daily living and often loss of one’s capacity for pleasure and enjoyment (anhedonia).” Depression can be chronic, persistent, or recurrent (Krishna et al., 2011), or it can be a reaction to events that are common in the lives of older adults, such as developing an illness, experiencing cognitive decline, losing a loved one, or being admitted to hospital or long-term care (O’Connor, Whitlock, Gaynes, & Beil, 2009). The *DSM-5* outlines diagnostic criteria for the various types of depressive disorders (APA, 2013).

Although depression is common in older adults, it should not be considered a normal part of aging (Trangle et al., 2016). Depression is estimated to affect approximately 35 percent of people in long-term care facilities (AMDA, 2011), and 15 percent of older adults living in the community (Canadian Psychological Association, 2015; Dreizler, Koppitz, Probst, & Mahrer-Imhof, 2014).

Depression can be disabling, and has a tremendous impact on individuals’ quality of life and family relationships (Kiosses et al., 2011; Krishna et al., 2011). It can complicate co-morbidities and the management of chronic diseases (Chang-Quan et al., 2009; Samad, Brealey, & Gilbody, 2011). In extreme cases, depression can result in death by suicide (O’Connor et al., 2009; Samad et al., 2011), especially among men over the age of 85 (Butler-Jones, 2010).

Effective treatments for depression are available, and recovery is more likely when depression is identified, is managed effectively, and when the person receives adequate support. Unfortunately, depression is associated with stigma and discrimination (NICE, 2009), and often goes unrecognized by health-care providers (O’Connor et al., 2009). For these reasons, it is important that health-care providers possess the skills, knowledge, attitudes, and abilities to effectively assess for and provide care to older adults with depression.

Guiding Principles and Assumptions

The following general principles inform the recommendations in this Guideline:

- Each older adult is a distinctly unique human being with his/her own life experiences, strengths, preferences, cultural practices, values, and beliefs.
- All older adults deserve equal access to high-quality care that is based on the best available evidence and is provided by knowledgeable, skilled, and compassionate health-care providers.
- Older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression deserve to be treated with dignity by health-care providers and to take part in caring human interactions.
- The health-care provider’s attitudes, behaviours, and communication style during interactions with older adults, and the language used to describe symptoms or behaviours related to delirium, dementia, and/or depression, are powerful; as such, ongoing education and reflective practice^G in relation to these topics is important.
- Person- and family-centred care^G is essential to the care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression.
- A recovery perspective^G—and an approach to care that promotes well-being, the reduction of symptoms, and/or the accommodation of behaviours—is beneficial to older adults, especially those with long-term conditions.

- Quality of life for older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression is best optimized according to what the individual person values. Quality of life is subjective, as expressed by the person: the person determines what quality of life means for him/her.

The following assumptions underlie the recommendations in this Guideline and their application in practice:

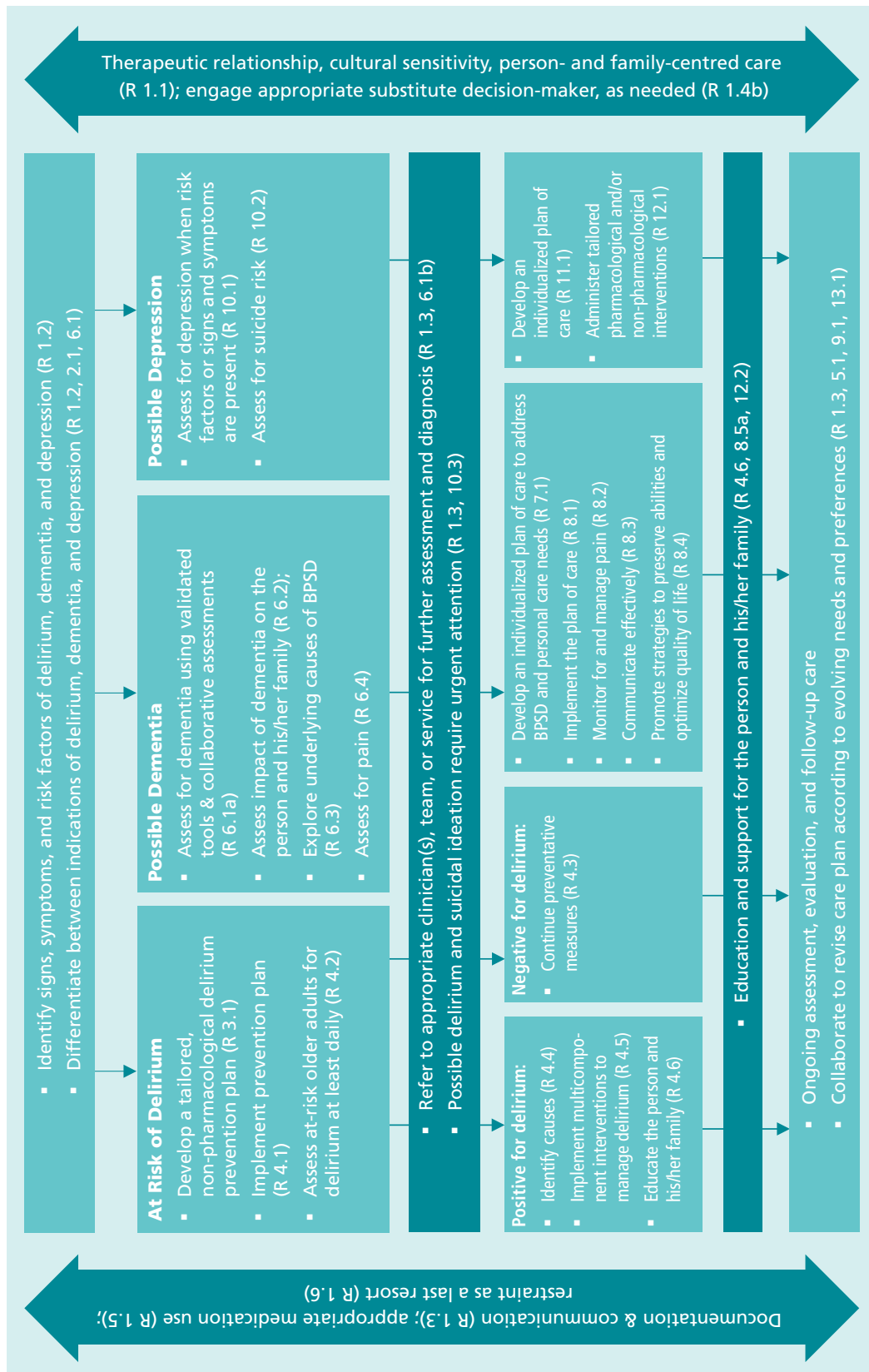
- “Family” is whomever the person considers to be family. Family members are often central to the lives of older adults and may be active partners in care.
- Health-care providers value and engage family, recognizing that some people do not have family, that others may not want or need their family to be involved, and that family members are not always willing or able to help.
- Health-care providers communicate assessments, care plans, interventions, and evaluations of care to other members of the health-care team, to families/care partners, and across care settings (as appropriate) through verbal communication and formal documentation processes.
- Health-care providers practice within their scope of knowledge and abilities, and adhere to legal and ethical principles.

Flow Charts

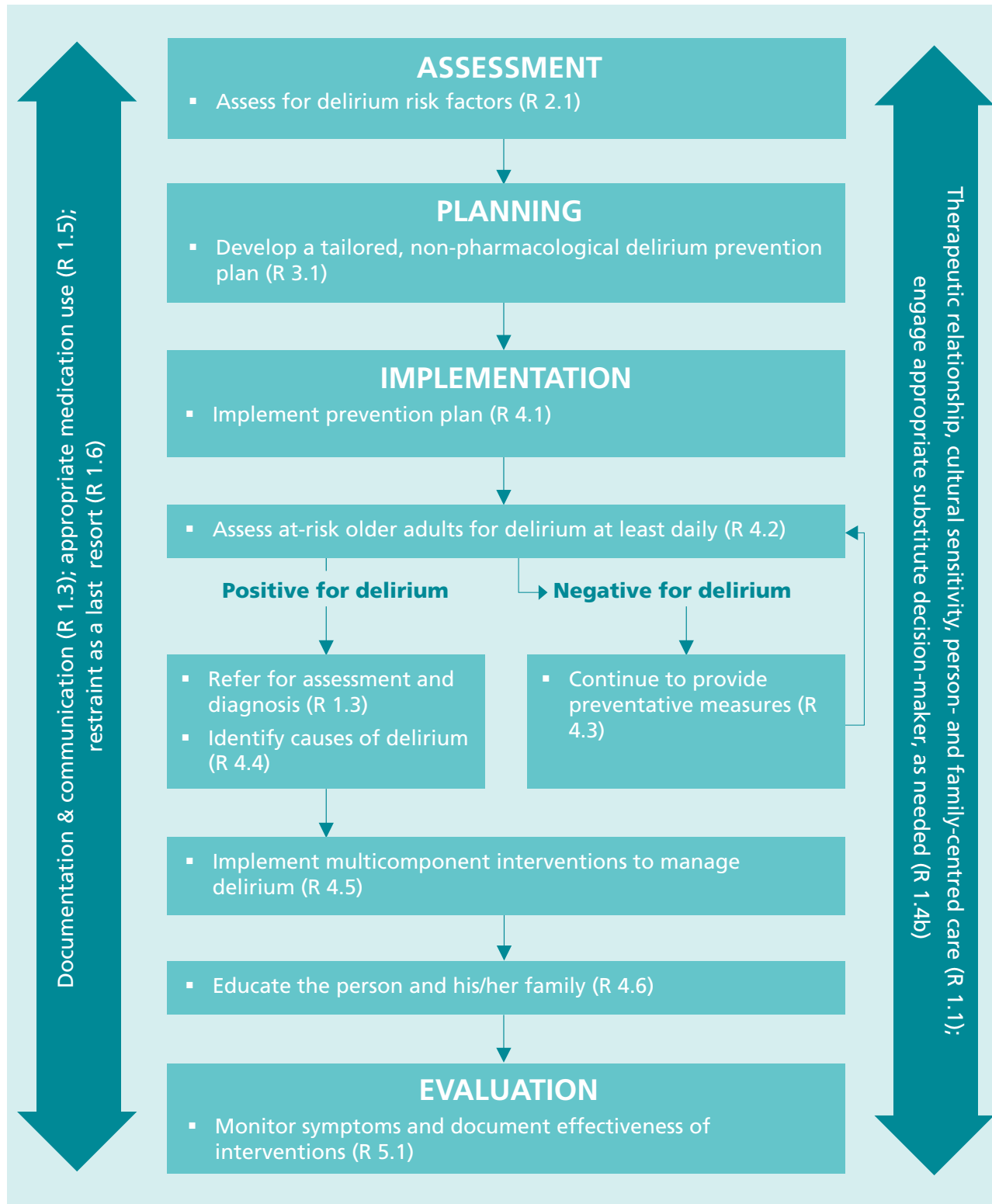
The following flow charts summarize the steps, context, and considerations involved in the assessment and care of persons with delirium, dementia, and/or depression. References to recommendations in this Guideline are included in parentheses.



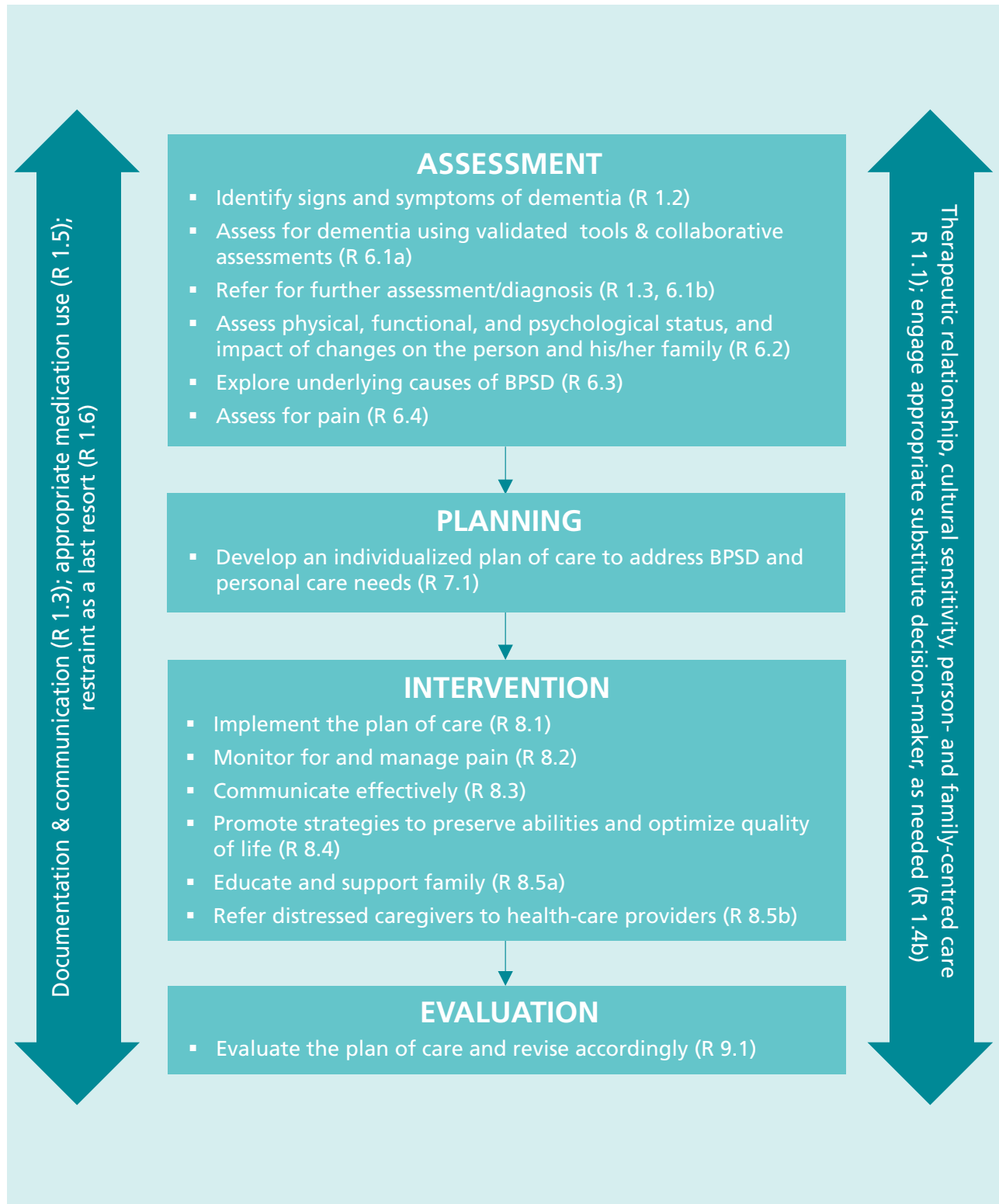
Flow Chart For Delirium, Dementia, and Depression



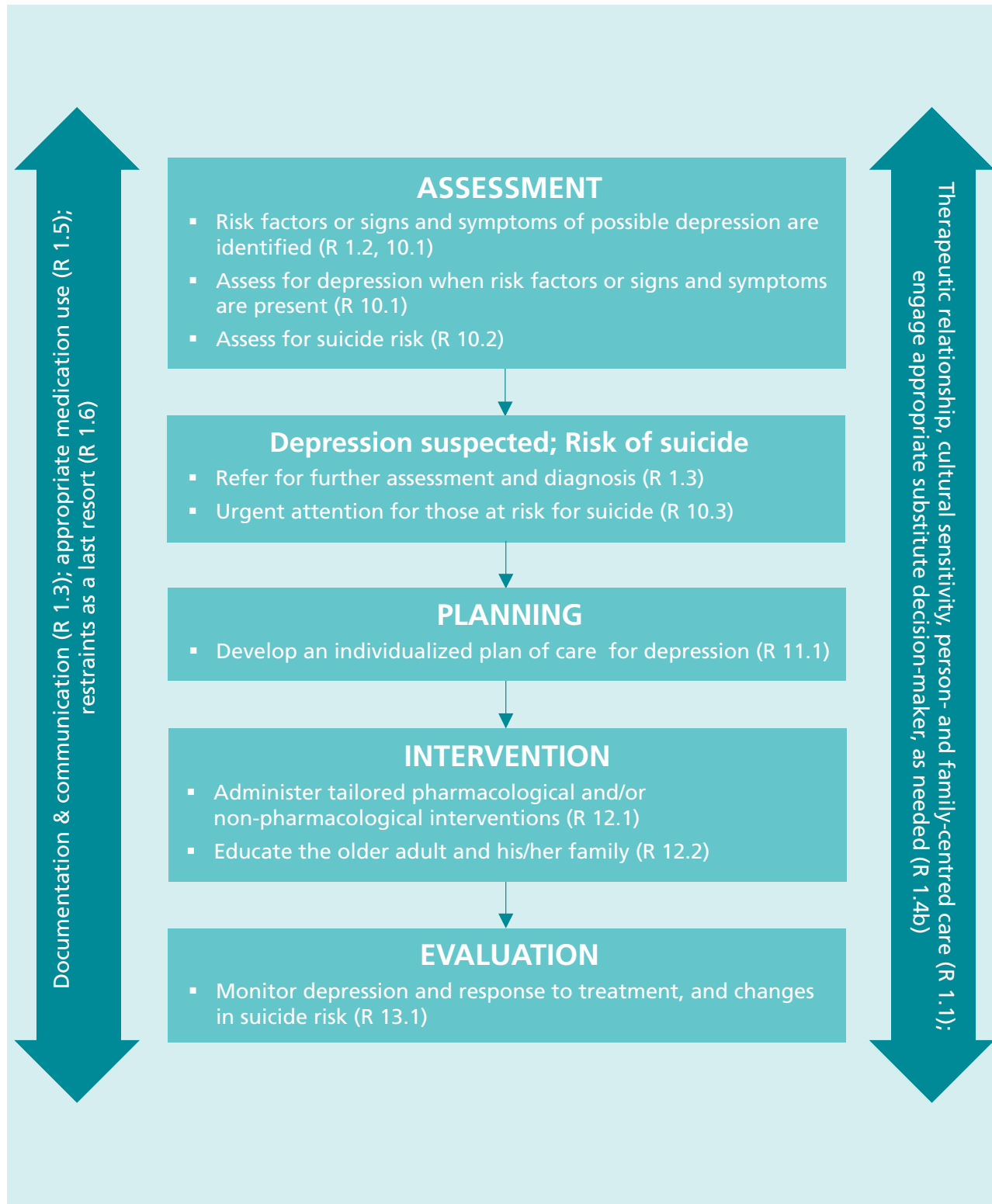
Flow Chart For Delirium



Flow Chart For Dementia



Flow Chart For Depression



Practice Recommendations

OVERARCHING RECOMMENDATIONS RELATED TO DELIRIUM, DEMENTIA, AND DEPRESSION

1.0 GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

RECOMMENDATION 1.1:

Establish therapeutic relationships and provide culturally sensitive person- and family-centred care when caring for and providing education to people with delirium, dementia, and depression and their families and care partners.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

Discussion of Evidence:

The expert panel emphasizes that health-care providers must demonstrate behaviours and skills that support care for people with delirium, dementia, and depression and their families. This includes establishing and maintaining therapeutic relationships^G, and demonstrating cultural sensitivity^G and person- and family-centred-care attitudes and behaviours^G. The expert panel points out that these skills are essential, not only in order to provide quality care, but because of the sensitive nature of these conditions and the possibility of stigma associated with a diagnosis (especially dementia and depression). Note: some health-care providers may refer to a similar and complementary concept, relational practice^G (e.g., listening, empathy, reflection), to describe some of these behaviours and skills.

The College of Nurses of Ontario (CNO) (2013) and RNAO (2006a) highlight the importance of therapeutic relationships as a foundational nursing skill. Therapeutic relationships involve establishing trust and rapport, and using effective communication skills (CNO, 2013). They require self-awareness, self-knowledge, and empathy on the part of nurses and other health-care providers (RNAO, 2006a).

Evidence from systematic reviews and clinical guidelines on this topic suggests that person- and family-centred care must be a central element of care for people with delirium, dementia, and depression (Cabrera et al., 2015; Enmarker et al., 2011; Konno, Stern, & Gibb, 2013; Lawrence, Fossey, Ballard, Moniz-Cook, & Murray, 2012; Livingston et al., 2014; NICE, 2009, 2010; Spenceley, Sedgwick, & Keenan, 2015). Person- and family-centred behaviours and skills involve knowing the person holistically, honouring autonomy and decision-making, sharing power, and communicating verbally and non-verbally in ways that show respect and caring (RNAO, 2015b).

It is also important to take a person- and family-centred approach when providing education to people and their families/care partners. Education should be provided in a way that is understandable and culturally appropriate, that promotes dialogue, and that is tailored to the needs and abilities of older adults and their families (American Geriatrics Society [AGS], 2014; CCSMH, 2010; Elvish, Lever, Johnstone, Cawley, & Keady, 2013; NICE, 2010; Topo, 2009). In some cases, interpreters or cultural mediators may be necessary to facilitate learning. As well, supplementary resources, such as handouts, videos, and Internet links, can be offered to support learning (Development Group, 2010).

For additional information to support this recommendation, refer to the following resources:

■ **CNO:**

□ **Culturally Sensitive Care**

http://www.cno.org/globalassets/docs/prac/41040_culturallysens.pdf

□ **Therapeutic Nurse–Client Relationship**

http://www.cno.org/Global/docs/prac/41033_Therapeutic.pdf

■ **RNAO:**

□ **Embracing Cultural Diversity in Health Care: Developing Cultural Competence**

<http://RNAO.ca/bpg/guidelines/embracing-cultural-diversity-health-care-developing-cultural-competence>

□ **Establishing Therapeutic Relationships**

<http://RNAO.ca/bpg/guidelines/establishing-therapeutic-relationships>

□ **Person- and Family-Centred Care**

<http://RNAO.ca/bpg/guidelines/person-and-family-centred-care>

RECOMMENDATION 1.2:

Identify and differentiate among signs and symptoms of delirium, dementia, and/or depression during assessments, observations, and interactions with older persons, paying close attention to concerns about changes expressed by the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

The expert panel recommends that health-care providers be alert for signs and symptoms of delirium, dementia, and depression so that these conditions are identified and treated as soon as possible. This is important, given the prevalence of these conditions among older adults (see the discussion under Background Context) and the fact that symptoms are often overlooked or misinterpreted (NICE, 2009). Furthermore, early recognition can lead to timely structured assessments, diagnosis, treatment, and care (AMDA, 2012; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014).

Health-care providers may identify or observe signs and symptoms of delirium, dementia, and/or depression during assessments, ongoing observations, conversations, and encounters with older adults. Family members are often familiar with a person's baseline cognition, function, mood, and behaviour, and will raise concerns about changes (Inouye et al., 2014). These changes, noted by the family or by the person himself/herself, require careful consideration and follow-up assessment. Family members may also be in a position to corroborate assessments (NICE, 2009), especially if there are concerns about capacity or lack of insight.

Health-care providers must be able to differentiate among signs and symptoms of delirium, dementia, and depression, because these conditions may co-exist and have overlapping clinical features (Regan & Varanelli, 2013). **Appendix D**, which highlights the clinical features of each, can be used to help distinguish unique indicators. It should be noted that the

presence of other co-morbid conditions may also make assessment and diagnosis a challenge (Development Group, 2010). For example, depression in older adults complicates or is masked by certain co-morbid conditions, such as hypothyroidism, as demonstrated in a systematic review rated moderate for methodological quality (Chang-Quan et al., 2009). (For more information on methodological quality ratings, see [Appendix C.](#))

RECOMMENDATION 1.3:

Refer older adults suspected of delirium, dementia, and/or depression to the appropriate clinicians, teams, or services for further assessment, diagnosis, and/or follow-up care.

Level of Evidence = Ia

Discussion of Evidence:

Whenever delirium, dementia, or depression is suspected, health-care providers should make referrals to the most appropriate clinician(s), team, or service in their area for a comprehensive assessment and diagnosis, as supported by a moderately rated literature review and a clinical guideline (Inouye et al., 2014; NICE, 2010).

The diagnostic process may require additional cognitive assessments to rule out differential diagnosis (i.e., alternative diagnoses) (Inouye et al., 2014). In some cases, co-morbid conditions may need to be managed or treated before an accurate diagnosis can be made. Clinical assessments and diagnostic tests may be required to support a diagnosis (see the study by Inouye et al., 2014 for examples of common tests to evaluate the causes of delirium). Depending on the situation, referrals can be made to primary care providers^G, specialized geriatric services, specialized geriatric psychiatry services, neurologists, and/or members of the interprofessional team (RNAO, 2010b).

Health-care providers should keep in mind the following recommendations, which are supported by clinical guidelines and expert panel opinion, when referring or communicating their findings to other members of the health-care team (the list is not exhaustive):

- If delirium or risk of suicide is suspected, health-care providers should **take immediate action** to refer individuals to the appropriate services (see [Recommendation 10.3](#)).
- When it is difficult to differentiate between a diagnosis of delirium, dementia, or delirium superimposed on dementia, delirium should be treated first.
- Hypoactive delirium can be misinterpreted as depression and requires careful assessment.
- Often, depression must be treated before a diagnosis of dementia can occur (AMDA, 2008; Development Group, 2010; NICE, 2010).

RECOMMENDATION 1.4a:

Assess the person's ability to understand and appreciate information relevant to making decisions and, if concerns arise regarding the person's mental capacity, collaborate with other members of the health-care team as necessary.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

A person's mental capacity^G, or his or her ability to understand information relevant to making a decision and appreciate the consequences of a decision or lack of a decision (*Health Care Consent Act, 1996*), may be compromised if he or she has delirium, dementia, or depression. In their day-to-day interactions and conversations, health-care providers can use their clinical judgment to assess whether or not a person can understand and appreciate information, and make decisions. However, making such determinations can be complicated. The expert panel points out the following:

- A person's ability to understand and appreciate information may vary—for example, it can fluctuate throughout the day or over the course of an illness (e.g., acute delirium and sundowning^G). Therefore, assessments in this area may need to be ongoing.
- A person may be able to make decisions in some areas but not others.
- A diagnosis of dementia does not automatically mean that a person lacks mental capacity.

If concerns about a person's mental capacity arise, health-care providers should collaborate with other members of the health-care team to determine the best course of action. In some instances, a formal capacity assessment will be conducted to determine a person's legal mental capacity, and a substitute decision-maker^G will be appointed. For example, in Ontario, a power of attorney (for personal care or property) may be predetermined. See [Recommendation 1.4b](#) and [Appendix J, Resources](#), for additional information and resources.

RECOMMENDATION 1.4b:

Support the older person's ability to make decisions in full or in part. If the older person is incapable of making certain decisions, engage the appropriate substitute decision-maker in decision-making, consent, and care planning.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

In keeping with principles of person-centred care, the expert panel recommends that nurses and other health-care providers support individuals to direct and participate in their care to the best of their abilities, promote informed consent^G, and respect individuals' choices.

The expert panel points out that many people may wish to have assistance to make decisions in full or in part, depending on their abilities. Nurses and other health-care providers can engage in dialogue with the older adult to determine the level of support desired in decision-making.

When a person is unable to make certain decisions for themselves, an appropriate substitute decision-maker should be involved. As stated in RNAO's (2010a) BPG *Caregiving Strategies for Older Adults with Delirium, Dementia and Depression*, the health-care provider must identify the appropriate substitute decision-maker and engage them in decision-making, consent, and care planning.

For more detailed information about consent, capacity, and substitute decision-making (e.g., powers of attorney) in Ontario, see [Appendix J](#). For information on advanced care planning, see [Recommendation 8.4](#).

RECOMMENDATION 1.5:

Exercise caution in prescribing and administering medication to older adults (within the health-care provider's scope of practice), and diligently monitor and document medication use and effects, paying particular attention to medications with increased risk for older adults and polypharmacy.

Level of Evidence = Ia

Discussion of Evidence:

Prudent use of medications in older adults is important, given the risk of serious side effects and the impact that potentially inappropriate medications and polypharmacy^G may have on delirium, dementia, and depression (Brooks, 2012; Clegg et al., 2014; Conn, Gibson, & McCabe, 2014; Holroyd-Leduc et al., 2010; Inouye et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2012; NICE, 2011; Trangle et al., 2016). Cautious use of psychotropic medications^G is particularly important in settings that have had high rates of use—namely, hospital and long-term care settings (Conn et al., 2014).

The risks associated with medication use in older adults have been highlighted in moderate and strongly rated reviews and clinical guidelines, and include the following:

- Medications (e.g., psychoactive medications and sedative-hypnotics) and polypharmacy contribute to an increased risk of delirium (Brooks, 2012; Holroyd-Leduc et al., 2010; Inouye et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2012); they may also prolong delirium or cause excessive sedation (Inouye et al., 2014). An increased risk exists when the medications are used with frail, older adults (Clegg et al., 2014).
- Some medications (e.g., steroids) may be associated with major depression (Trangle et al., 2016).
- Among people with depression who are at risk for suicide, potential drug interactions and toxicity in overdose of antidepressants and/or other medications should be considered, and the amount of drugs available limited (as required) (NICE, 2011).
- In general, antipsychotic medications^G may increase the risk of adverse effects—for example, cerebrovascular events and death (Conn et al., 2014) (see [Recommendation 7.1](#)).

Despite these risks, pharmacological interventions in people with delirium, dementia, and depression are sometimes appropriate and may be an important aspect of care. Benefits and uses of pharmacological interventions cited in clinical guidelines and one moderately rated systematic review include the following:

- Analgesics for pain management are important, because pain can contribute to delirium (AGS, 2014; CCSMH, 2010; Conn et al., 2014; NICE, 2010) and can precipitate behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia (Pieper et al., 2013).

- Cautious short-term antipsychotic use may be appropriate for some cases of delirium (see [Recommendation 4.5](#)).
- Acetylcholinesterase inhibitors and other medications (e.g., memantine) may be appropriate for specific and symptomatic treatment/management of some forms of dementia (Development Group, 2010).
- Pharmacological management of behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia in specific circumstances may be required to ensure safety (Development Group, 2010; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014).
- Antidepressant therapy may be an important aspect of treatment, especially for people with severe or persistent depression (Conn et al., 2014; NICE, 2009, 2012b) (see [Recommendation 12.1](#)).

The expert panel recommends that health-care providers collaborate to reduce the potential harms associated with polypharmacy and potentially inappropriate medications, such as those outlined in Beers Criteria and STOPP/START criteria. For more information, see [Appendix F](#), Resources for Optimal Medication Use in Older Adults.

To support appropriate prescribing, administration, monitoring, and documentation of medication in older adults, the expert panel recommends that nurses and other health-care providers consider the following actions. The asterisk (*) indicates content provided by the RNAO expert panel.

- Carefully review all medications, including over-the-counter and “as needed” medications, especially during care transitions (e.g., discharge home from the hospital or admission to a long-term care facility).*
- Participate in medication reconciliation whenever possible. A pharmacist may be needed to support medication review/reconciliation, especially in cases of polypharmacy.*
- Implement non-pharmacological interventions as the first line of care for management of delirium, dementia, and milder forms of depression (Conn et al., 2014; Inouye et al., 2014; Moniz Cook et al., 2012).
- Carefully weigh the potential benefits of pharmacological intervention versus the potential for harm (Conn et al., 2014).
- Consider the metabolism of the drug and how it is affected by other medications, health conditions, and physiological changes (Trangle et al., 2016).
- To help prevent delirium, reduce the number or type of medications used for sedation and for analgesia (Inouye et al., 2014).
- Pharmacological management of BPSD should be used only for severe symptoms (e.g., marked risk/safety, severe agitation, disability, or suffering) (Conn et al., 2014; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014) and should not be used as a chemical restraint for behaviours such as wandering.*
- Start with the least intrusive and most effective intervention (NICE, 2009, 2012b); aim for the lowest possible effective dosage and optimize a single agent.*
- Document the rationale for pharmacological interventions to manage delirium or BPSD, closely monitor for adverse reactions, and document the effects of medications on target symptoms.*
- Advocate for re-evaluation, change in medication, titration to higher or lower doses, and discontinuation/de-prescribing if pharmacological interventions are ineffective or adverse effects are identified.*

To support uptake of this recommendation and for more detailed information for practitioners who are prescribing medication for older adults, refer to [Appendix F](#).

RECOMMENDATION 1.6:

Use principles of least restraint/restraint as a last resort when caring for older adults.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

The expert panel recommends that health-care providers utilize principles of least restraint and use restraint as a last resort when caring for older adults. Restraints^G include physical, chemical, or environmental measures to control physical or behavioural activity (CNO, 2009b) (see [Appendix A](#) for more information). This recommendation is in keeping with recommendations in the previous RNAO BPG on the topic of delirium, dementia, and depression (RNAO, 2010a) and RNAO best practices for minimizing restraint use (RNAO, 2012a).

Physical restraints may be required for people with delirium in certain cases (e.g., risk of extubation); however, restraints are associated with an increased risk of delirium (Brooks, 2012; Inouye et al., 2014) and should be avoided as much as possible. See [Recommendations 1.6](#) and [4.5](#) for further discussion regarding pharmacological interventions for people with delirium.

It is also recommended that restraints be used as a last resort for people with dementia. One clinical guideline points out that restraints may be necessary for pronounced and potentially harmful agitation when alternative approaches have been ineffective (Development Group, 2010).

If restraints are deemed necessary, the least restraint (i.e., the least restrictive form of restraint) should be applied (CNO, 2009b). Furthermore, the health-care provider should maintain appropriate documentation (e.g., justification of restraint), actively monitor and reevaluate restraint use, and provide education and reassurance to the person and his/her family.

Health-care providers should also be aware of legislation or policies regarding restraint use that are applicable to their setting and scope of practice.

Refer to RNAO's (2012a) BPG *Promoting Safety: Alternative Approaches to the Use of Restraints* for more detailed information and resources (e.g., de-escalation techniques, ABC Charting, etc.).

RECOMMENDATIONS RELATED TO DELIRIUM

2.0 ASSESSMENT

RECOMMENDATION 2.1:

Assess older adults for delirium risk factors on initial contact and if there is a change in the person's condition.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

Discussion of Evidence:

Older adults at risk for delirium must be identified so that health-care providers can monitor them closely and implement preventative interventions (Inouye et al., 2014). This is important not only because delirium has serious consequences—including an increased risk of dementia and death (NICE, 2012a)—but also because delirium often goes unrecognized by health-care providers (Inouye et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2012; LaMantia, Messina, Hobgood, & Miller, 2014) and is potentially preventable (Martinez et al., 2015).

Delirium is a complex phenomenon. It is rarely caused by a single risk factor, but rather by (1) a combination of multiple predisposing factors that create vulnerability, and (2) various precipitating factors (Clegg et al., 2014; Holroyd-Leduc et al., 2010; Inouye et al., 2014). In the hospital setting, the highest incidence of delirium occurs within acute care and intensive care units and among people with hip fracture, as well as those undergoing cardiac surgery (Martinez et al., 2015). People living in long-term care facilities with moderate to severe cognitive impairment are at particularly high risk for delirium, which may be triggered by a relatively minor occurrence such as a new medication, minor infection, or a change in environment (Clegg et al., 2014).

Health-care providers can use a list of delirium risk factors to assess older adults. Many risk factors have been validated in the literature. These include a variety of *predisposing factors*, such as advanced age, cognitive impairment, and depression, and *precipitating factors*, such as multiple medications, acute illness and associated abnormal blood values, and the use of physical restraints (Brooks, 2012; Inouye et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2012). The expert panel stresses the importance of paying attention to factors in the environment and care delivery that profoundly compound risk—for example, immobility, sleep deprivation, the use of high-risk medications, and poorly controlled pain (AGS, 2014; Brooks, 2012; CCSMH, 2010; Gage & Hogan, 2014; Inouye et al., 2014; NICE, 2010). For a list of common risk factors and interventions, see [Appendix G](#).

The National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (2010) guideline *Delirium: Diagnosis, Prevention and Management* recommends that health-care providers assess people for delirium risk factors upon first presentation to a hospital or long-term care facility and remain vigilant for the emergence of risk factors thereafter. Furthermore, because of the severe consequences of delirium, health-care providers must always “think delirium” (NICE, 2010). In other words, they should suspect and be vigilant for delirium among people at risk, especially those at high risk (e.g., advanced age, hip fracture, cognitive impairment, severe illness, and extensive surgery) (AGS, 2014; NICE, 2010).

Literature from the systematic review did not identify recommendations regarding how to assess for delirium in settings outside of hospital or long-term-care facilities. However, the expert panel recommends that health-care providers in community settings, such as home-care and primary care, also “think delirium,” and identify and communicate delirium risk factors to other health-care team members, and to older adults and their families.

3.0 PLANNING

RECOMMENDATION 3.1:

Develop a tailored, non-pharmacological, multi-component delirium prevention plan for the person at risk for delirium in collaboration with the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.

Level of Evidence = Ia

Discussion of Evidence:

A comprehensive literature review, rated moderate for methodological quality, found that health-care providers must develop a delirium prevention plan for people at risk for delirium that is tailored to the person's particular risk factors (Inouye et al., 2014). This recommendation is also supported by NICE's (2010) *Delirium: Diagnosis, Prevention and Management* guideline.

The expert panel recommends that prevention efforts be focused on people most at risk for delirium. While there are a range of ways to determine risk, delirium experts on the panel suggest that the following high-risk category, established by Inouye et al. (1999), can be used: **adults 70 years and older with one or more risk factors** (see [Appendix G](#)).

When developing a prevention plan for a person at risk for delirium, the health-care provider must identify and document why the person is at risk (i.e., which risk factors pertain to the individual). Once the risk factors are identified, a prevention plan that is feasible for the clinical setting, including a range of non-pharmacological measures, can be developed to target the person's risk factors (NICE, 2010; RNAO, 2010a). The prevention plan should be developed collaboratively, because a range of preventative measures involve the person's family and members of the interprofessional team (CCSMH, 2010; Khan et al., 2012; NICE, 2010).

For a list of multi-component interventions to prevent delirium that align with particular risk factors, see [Appendix G](#).

4.0 IMPLEMENTATION

RECOMMENDATION 4.1:

Implement the delirium prevention plan in collaboration with the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.

Level of Evidence = Ia

Discussion of Evidence:

Multi-component, non-pharmacological interventions are recommended for the prevention of delirium among at-risk older adults (Holroyd-Leduc et al., 2010; Hshieh et al., 2015; Inouye et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2012; Martinez et al., 2015). A meta-analysis, rated strong in methodological quality, reported that multi-component interventions to prevent delirium caused a relative reduction of 30 percent in incident delirium (i.e., delirium that develops while a person is hospitalized); this finding was applicable across a variety of hospital settings and among people with cognitive decline (Martinez et al., 2015). In addition to preventing delirium, multi-component, non-pharmacological interventions have been found to prevent falls (Hshieh et al., 2015; Martinez et al., 2015), to potentially help reduce the length of stay for those in acute care, and may help avoid institutionalization (Hshieh et al., 2015). For a list of multi-component interventions to prevent delirium that align with particular risk factors, see [Appendix G](#).

Non-pharmacological interventions are also recommended because there is insufficient evidence to support the use of pharmacological interventions to prevent delirium (Gage & Hogan, 2014; Holroyd-Leduc et al., 2010). Furthermore, some medications (e.g., psychoactive medications and sedative-hypnotics) and polypharmacy contribute to delirium risk (Brooks, 2012; Holroyd-Leduc et al., 2010; Inouye et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2012). An important part of delirium prevention involves reducing the number and type of certain medications used for sedation and analgesia (e.g., anticholinergic medications) (Inouye et al., 2014).

Less research exists concerning delirium prevention in the long-term care setting (see Research Gaps and Future Recommendations). A Cochrane review regarding the prevention of delirium in long-term care, rated strong for methodological quality, found few prevention studies, although a pharmacist-led medication review program involving software (single intervention) was found to be effective (Clegg et al., 2014). No intervention studies for delirium prevention in the home-care sector were found in the systematic review for this Guideline. Despite this gap, the expert panel points out that many of the preventative interventions (e.g., encouraging mobilization, orientation strategies, promoting optimal bowel function, promoting quality sleep, and ensuring pain control) are a standard of care for all settings.

The implementation of delirium prevention interventions is a collaborative effort. It requires the involvement of various members of the interprofessional team, and may involve family members/care partners—for example, to stay with the person and reduce isolation (AMDA, 2008; CCSMH, 2010; NICE, 2010). For examples of preventative interventions, see [Appendix G](#). For information about comprehensive programs to address delirium, see [Recommendation 15.3](#).

RECOMMENDATION 4.2:

Use clinical assessments and validated tools to assess older adults at risk for delirium at least daily (where appropriate) and whenever changes in the person's cognitive function, perception, physical function, or social behaviour are observed or reported.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

Discussion of Evidence:

A moderately rated systematic review found that health-care providers should use a structured approach to identify delirium (Khan et al., 2012). This is important because, among other consequences, delirium can signal a medical emergency that may lead to permanent neurological effects (Inouye et al., 2014), and early recognition enables prompt treatment.

Assessing Older Adults at Risk

As noted in the discussion of evidence for Recommendation 4.1, numerous factors have been identified that put an older adult at risk for delirium (see [Appendix G](#)). The expert panel recommends that health-care providers focus their efforts on assessing those individuals at risk for delirium. As stated in Recommendation 3.1, the expert panel suggests that this should include adults **70 years and older with one or more risk factors**.

Health-care providers must be able to recognize signs of delirium among older adults (see [Recommendation 14.2](#)). Table 1 provides an overview of common changes indicative of delirium found in NICE's (2010) guideline *Delirium: Diagnosis, Prevention and Management*, with examples added by the RNAO expert panel.



Table 1: Changes That May Indicate Delirium

TYPE OF CHANGE	EXAMPLES
Cognitive function	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ <i>decreased concentration</i>■ <i>slow responses</i>■ memory impairment■ disorganized thinking■ disorientation■ reduced level of consciousness■ shifting attention
Perception	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ visual or auditory hallucinations
Physical function	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ <i>reduced mobility</i>■ <i>reduced movement*</i>■ motor restlessness■ agitation■ <i>changes in appetite*</i>■ sleep disturbance
Social behaviour	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ lack of cooperation with reasonable requests■ <i>withdrawal</i>■ alterations in communication, mood, and/or attitude

Note: Changes indicative of hypoactive delirium are italicized. Hypoactive delirium is particularly important because it is common but often overlooked (NICE, 2010). Examples added by the expert panel are indicated with an asterisk (*).

Source: Adapted from NICE, 2010, p. 11.

Frequency of Assessment

The frequency of delirium assessment is not specifically outlined in the literature. NICE's (2010) guideline *Delirium: Diagnosis, Prevention and Management* recommends that health-care providers working in hospital or long-term care settings observe people **at least daily** for recent (e.g., within hours or days) changes or fluctuations in behaviour. The expert panel agrees that assessment in most settings should occur at least daily, but may need to be more frequent (e.g., every shift) in situations or acute settings with known high incidences of delirium (e.g., older adults post-surgery, ICU) or when, based on clinical judgment, the person requires close monitoring. In home-care settings, daily assessments may not be feasible except among those receiving daily home visits or end-of-life care. For detailed guidance on the care of people with delirium at the end of life, see CCSMH's (2010) *Guideline on the Assessment and Treatment of Delirium in Older Adults at the End of Life*.

Overall, it is important to identify and treat delirium early, but the frequency of screening depends on the population and setting. Organizational policies should outline parameters for delirium screening, including which screening tool is appropriate and feasible, based on the population served. See [Recommendation 15.2](#) for more information.

Choice of Assessment/Screening Tools

Several tools have been developed to assist health-care providers to identify delirium. Most frequently cited and supported in the literature is the Confusion Assessment Method (CAM) tool (Brooks, 2012; Holroyd-Leduc et al., 2010; Inouye et al., 2014; LaMantia et al., 2014; Wong, Holroyd-Leduc, Simel, & Straus, 2010), which examines key features of delirium such as acute change in mental status, inattention, disorganized thinking, and level of consciousness, and the CAM-ICU tool for critical care or recovery room screening (Brooks, 2012; NICE, 2010). The CAM was often found to be an effective tool for use in a variety of clinical settings, although no research was found to support its use within home-care settings or the community (Brooks, 2012; LaMantia et al., 2014; Wong et al., 2010).

In a systematic review by Khan et al. (2012) that was rated moderate for methodological quality, it was suggested that alternative screening tools are needed because the CAM takes time and may be ineffective if used by untrained providers. New tools are emerging (NICE, 2012a), but appropriate tools are lacking for some settings, such as the emergency department (LaMantia et al., 2014; Parke, Beaith, Slater, & Clarke, 2011). The expert panel points out that various other screening tools have been developed. See [Appendix H](#) for a list of these tools.

Changes Reported by Family

In addition to using a screening tool to identify signs of delirium, Inouye et al., (2014) found that health-care providers must pay attention to observed or reported changes from a person's baseline behaviour, especially when changes are noticed by family or others who know the person well. They emphasized that statements such as "she's just not herself" warrant close attention. Not only are family members familiar with the person's baseline mental status, they often provide important insight into the history and the series of events leading up to the onset of delirium symptoms.

RECOMMENDATION 4.3:

Continue to employ prevention strategies when caring for older adults at risk for delirium who have not been identified as having delirium.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

Discussion of Evidence:

Health-care providers should maintain prevention efforts for older adults at risk for delirium, even if daily assessments do not indicate that they have delirium. See [Recommendations 2.1, 3.1, and 4.1](#) for supporting evidence.

RECOMMENDATION 4.4:

For older adults whose assessments indicate delirium, identify the underlying causes and contributing factors using clinical assessments and collaboration with the interprofessional team.

Level of Evidence = Ia

Discussion of Evidence:

Evidence from a moderately rated meta-analysis encompassing 14 interventional studies highlights the importance of identifying the underlying causal factors of delirium so that interventions can target these causes and the delirium can be actively managed (Hsieh et al., 2015). Delirium is often precipitated by multiple factors and events (Inouye et al., 2014). Health-care providers must investigate which factors are contributing to delirium. These may include factors such as constipation or pain, coupled with disturbed sleep and immobility. See [Appendix G](#).

Investigation into the causes and contributing factors of delirium may involve a history-taking with corroboration from family or staff, medication review, pain assessment, physical or neurological examination, and specific laboratory tests or imaging (Inouye et al., 2014). Referrals to primary care providers and to specialists may also be required.

RECOMMENDATION 4.5:

Implement tailored, multi-component interventions to actively manage the person's delirium in collaboration with the person, the person's family/care partners, and the interprofessional team (level of evidence = Ia).

These interventions should include:

- treatment of the underlying causes (level of evidence = Ia),
- non-pharmacological interventions (level of evidence = V), and
- appropriate use of medications to alleviate the symptoms of delirium and/or manage pain (level of evidence = Ia).

Discussion of Evidence:

Delirium must be treated urgently and should be managed actively (AGS, 2014). The following discussion outlines appropriate multi-component interventions that should be tailored to the person.

Treatment of the Underlying Causes

Management of delirium includes addressing the underlying causes and implementing interventions to mitigate or reverse these causes and/or their effects (see [Appendix G](#)). As with delirium prevention, delirium management strategies should be tailored to address the multiple factors contributing to the delirium, because a single intervention is unlikely to resolve delirium (Inouye et al., 2014).

Non-pharmacological Interventions

There is some discrepancy in the literature about the value of continuing with the implementation of multiple non-pharmacological interventions once delirium is present. Inouye et al. (2014) emphasize that non-pharmacological interventions should be the first-line management strategies for delirium. On the other hand, Martinez et al. (2015) suggest that preventative interventions may not be very effective once delirium is present. This is because multi-component interventions to manage delirium do not appear to decrease mortality or length of hospital stay (Holroyd-Leduc et al., 2010; Martinez et al., 2015), and may not reduce the duration of delirium (Martinez et al., 2015).

The expert panel notes that although little research has been done with respect to how to modify non-pharmacological interventions once delirium is present, many of the non-pharmacological measures (e.g., promoting sleep and mobilization) are a part of basic care. Furthermore, these measures may help reduce the severity or duration of delirium. Therefore, the expert panel recommends continuing with the implementation of multiple non-pharmacological interventions as long as they are still suitable for the individual. In addition, various non-pharmacological approaches and modifications to the environment can help keep the person calm and safe (see [Appendix G](#) and RNAO's [2012a] *BPG Promoting Safety: Alternative Approaches to the Use of Restraints* for more information).

Appropriate Use of Medications

There is mixed evidence on the use of antipsychotic and sedating medications to manage delirium. In a systematic review rated moderate for methodological quality by Flaherty et al. (2011), it was found that there is insufficient evidence to support the use of antipsychotics to treat delirium in medical and surgical patients. Inouye et al. (2014) found that although antipsychotic and sedating medications may reduce agitation and behavioural symptoms, it is possible that the use of these medications may prolong delirium or convert hyperactive delirium into hypoactive delirium.

Pharmacological management may be appropriate in some people with severe agitation and psychosis, especially if it these symptoms are interfering with care or treatments, such as a person extubating himself/himself (Inouye et al., 2014). If used cautiously, low doses of typical and atypical antipsychotic medications may decrease the duration and severity of delirium in some people (Gage & Hogan, 2014; Inouye et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2012; NICE, 2012a). Analgesics for pain management may also be necessary, because pain can contribute to delirium (AGS, 2014; CCSMH, 2010; Gage & Hogan, 2014; NICE, 2010). For more detailed information, see [Recommendation 1.6](#) and [Appendix F](#), Resources for Optimal Medication Use in Older Adults.

Family Involvement

The presence of a family member or a companion/“sitter” (i.e., a person who stays at the person’s bedside to offer reassurance and meaningful activity, and maintain safety) is another strategy that may be used to support the safety of people experiencing delirium. Family members (companions/sitters) can help with reorientation and prevention of self-harm⁶, and can be reassuring to the person with delirium (CCSMH, 2010; Inouye et al., 2014). If family members elect to be involved and it is safe/appropriate for them to do so, it is important to provide them with reassurance, support, and education. See the discussion of evidence for [Recommendation 4.6](#).

RECOMMENDATION 4.6:

Educate persons who are at risk for or are experiencing delirium and their families/care partners about delirium prevention and care.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

The expert panel recommends that people who are at risk for or experiencing delirium and their families should be provided with information about delirium that will alleviate fear, improve comprehension, and, for family who are present during a delirium episode, improve their ability to cope with an episode of delirium. This is important because delirium can be a distressing event (CCSMH, 2010; NICE, 2010).

The RNAO expert panel—in accordance with the CCSMH’s (2010) *Guideline on the Assessment and Treatment of Delirium in Older Adults at the End of Life* and the NICE (2010) guideline *Delirium: Diagnosis, Prevention and Management*—recommends the following content for educating older adults and their families about delirium:

- what delirium is, and why the person is at risk for delirium,
- strategies to prevent delirium that are appropriate for the person,
- what it is like for a person to experience delirium,
- signs of delirium and the importance of communicating with the health-care team if there are sudden changes or fluctuations in behaviour,
- ways to communicate and reorient the person with delirium (e.g., using a clear, calm voice, short statements, reminding them where they are), and
- the role and benefits of family presence and/or a companion/sitter.

5.0 EVALUATION

RECOMMENDATION 5.1:

Monitor older adults who are experiencing delirium for changes in symptoms at least daily using clinical assessments/observations and validated tools, and document the effectiveness of interventions.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

The expert panel recommends that nurses and other health-care providers monitor delirium closely to determine the effectiveness of interventions and to assess whether or not the delirium is resolving. In hospital and long-term-care settings, this should occur at least daily. When delirium is acute or is clinically indicated, monitoring may need to occur at least once per shift.

Health-care providers can monitor delirium using validated tools (see [Appendix H](#), Screening and Assessment Tools) and document specific findings, including any observed or reported changes in the person's cognitive function, perception, physical function, and/or social behaviour. Health-care providers should also assess and document the status of any underlying causes or contributing factors to the delirium. Ongoing collaboration with members of the health-care team and family remains important.

It is important to note that people may be discharged from the hospital before their delirium has resolved. Because persistent delirium can be associated with or may indicate unrecognized cognitive impairment (see the discussion under Background Context), the expert panel suggests that follow-up with specialized geriatric services may be required.



RECOMMENDATIONS RELATED TO DEMENTIA

6.0 ASSESSMENT

RECOMMENDATION 6.1a:

Assess older adults for possible dementia when changes in cognition, behaviour, mood, or function are observed or reported. Use validated, context-specific screening or assessment tools, and collaborate with the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team for a comprehensive assessment.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

RECOMMENDATION 6.1b:

Refer the person for further assessment/diagnosis if dementia is suspected.

Level of Evidence = Ia

Discussion of Evidence:

To date, there is insufficient evidence to support dementia screening among people who do not exhibit signs of dementia (Development Group, 2010; Jackson, Naqvi, & Sheehan, 2013; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014). Early detection of dementia is important, however, because of the potential benefits for people and for their families, as demonstrated by a moderately rated systematic review (Mukadam, Cooper, Kherani, & Livingston, 2015). These include accessing appropriate treatment, possibly delaying the disease process, managing symptoms (Lischka, Mendelsohn, Overend, & Forbes, 2012), and offering multifaceted supports to reduce burden^G for caregivers (Spenceley et al., 2015). The expert panel adds that early detection of dementia is also important so that individuals with dementia and their families can make plans to live well with dementia and begin advanced care planning^G. (See also [Recommendation 8.4.](#))

Unfortunately, dementia is often overlooked and under-diagnosed, and concerns are often passed off as a normal part of ageing (NICE, 2010). Although health-care providers may be more likely to suspect dementia among people with multiple risk factors (e.g., family history or vascular risk factors) or in settings where dementia is more prevalent (e.g., long-term care settings), it is recommended that health-care providers be alert for the possibility of dementia in *all* older adults.

Assessing for Changes

In keeping with RNAO's (2010a) BPG *Caregiving Strategies for Older Adults with Delirium, Dementia and Depression*, the expert panel recommends that health-care providers assess for possible dementia whenever cognitive, behavioural, and/or functional changes are observed or reported. Changes can include memory complaints, behaviour changes, and/or difficulty carrying out activities of daily living^G or instrumental activities of daily living^G (Development Group, 2010). The expert panel adds that changes in mood are another common sign of dementia, and should be taken into consideration during the assessment.

Signs of dementia will vary from person to person, depending on the type of dementia and the stage^G of the disease (see [Appendix E](#), Types of Dementia). Changes in cognition, behaviour, mood, and function may be observed or suspected by the older adult, his/her family, or members of the health-care team (RNAO, 2010a) (see [Appendix I](#), Early Warning Signs of Cognitive Change). Family members may be the first to recognize these changes and, whenever a person or his/her family members voice concerns, these should be taken seriously and followed up by appropriate assessments (RNAO, 2010a). Furthermore, family members can provide insight into the person's history and his/her baseline cognition, behaviour, etc.

Screening and Assessment Tools

Health-care providers should use validated^G screening and assessment tools to support a comprehensive assessment for dementia (Jackson et al., 2013; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014). A wide variety of tools for screening for possible dementia are available; however, a meta-analysis and systematic review, rated moderate for methodological quality, found limited evidence on the effectiveness of many of these tools in an acute-care setting (Jackson et al., 2013). To date, no screening tool exists that captures all needs and criteria necessary to be considered a gold standard of care (Lischka et al., 2012). For more information on tools, see [Recommendations 14.2](#) and [15.2](#), and [Appendix H](#).

Comprehensive Assessment, Referrals, and Diagnosis

The use of screening and assessment tools is only one small part of a comprehensive assessment, and a positive screen for dementia is not, in itself, conclusive diagnosis of the condition. When dementia is suspected, the person will require a comprehensive assessment, and collaboration and/or referrals to other members of the health-care team will support a diagnosis. Clinical assessments for dementia may require a series of diagnostic tests, additional formal cognitive assessments with validated instruments, and referrals to specialists to rule out differential diagnoses (Clevenger, Chu, Yang, & Hepburn, 2012; Development Group, 2010), such as delirium and depression (see [Appendix D](#)).

The assessment and diagnosis process for dementia can be lengthy and complex (Jackson et al., 2013; Mukadam et al., 2015). For example, one systematic review, rated moderate for methodological quality, reported that the diagnostic process required six home visits over 30 months, and that memory clinics can support a timely diagnostic process (Mukadam et al., 2015).

For examples of possible tests used to support a dementia diagnosis, see the *Clinical Practice Guideline on the Comprehensive Care of People with Alzheimer's Disease and Other Dementias* (Development Group, 2010). The *DSM-5* criteria are commonly used to diagnose dementia (Development Group, 2010; RNAO, 2010b). The *DSM-5* provides detailed diagnostic criteria for different types of dementia. It no longer uses the classification "dementia," but instead includes different types of dementia under the category "major neurocognitive disorder" (APA, 2013).

If a person is acutely ill or is experiencing delirium, it is recommended that health-care providers postpone in-depth assessments and a diagnosis until the person is stable and reversible causes are addressed (Jackson et al., 2013).

Furthermore, clinical guidelines suggest that depression be treated before a dementia diagnosis is made (AMDA, 2008; Development Group, 2010; NICE, 2010).

RECOMMENDATION 6.2:

Assess the physical, functional, and psychological status of older adults with dementia or suspected dementia, and determine its impact on the person and his/her family/care partners using comprehensive assessments and/or standardized tools.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

An important part of an assessment for dementia or suspected dementia includes assessing how the condition is affecting the person and his/her family members or care partners. Information gained through interactions, conversations, and assessments will inform a diagnosis and helps to determine the most appropriate ways to support the person and his/her family (Development Group, 2010).

Health-care providers should assess the physical, functional, and psychological status of the older adult with dementia (or suspected dementia) (AMDA, 2012). It is important to assess the impact of dementia on activities of daily living and instrumental activities of daily living (Development Group, 2010; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014). Various tools have been developed to assess these abilities (see [Appendix H](#)), and some comprehensive assessments conducted by nurses or other health-care providers will capture physical, functional, and psychological abilities.

The expert panel recommends that health-care providers maintain a strengths-based approach during assessments and *avoid focusing only on the person's deficits*. Health-care providers must identify and emphasize a person's retained abilities and capabilities while identifying the needs, priorities, and/or goals of the person with dementia (see also [Recommendation 8.4](#)).

Health-care providers should also assess the impact of dementia (or suspected dementia) on the person's family (Development Group, 2010). Family members are often essential partners in care and, as such, health-care providers should assess their level of stress and ability to cope, and identify needs. Health-care providers should also keep in mind that the social determinants of health^G (e.g., housing, income, education) may add additional challenges for families coping with the impact of dementia. See [Appendix H](#), Screening and Assessment Tools, and [Recommendation 8.5a](#) for a discussion of support and education for individuals' families.

RECOMMENDATION 6.3:

Systematically explore the underlying causes of any behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia that are present, including identifying the person's unmet needs and potential "triggers." Use an appropriate tool and collaborate with the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.

Level of Evidence = Ia

Discussion of Evidence:

In order for appropriate care planning to take place, health-care providers must understand the reasons for or the underlying causes of behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia (BPSD) (Development Group, 2010; Livingston et al., 2014; Moniz Cook et al., 2012; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014). Examples of behavioural and psychological symptoms include changes in mood, delusions, apathy, agitation, wandering, calling out, repetitive questioning, and disinhibition (including sexual disinhibition) (Moniz Cook et al., 2012). For further information and discussion of evolving terminology of BPSD, see the discussion under Background Context, including “Guiding Principles and Assumptions.”

Effective management of and response to BPSD is important because these symptoms are common and distressing, can lead to care and family breakdown (Livingston et al., 2014; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014), and are a frequent cause of need for urgent hospital care and admission to long-term care (Konno et al., 2013; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014). Furthermore, ineffective management of/response to BPSD can affect the person’s quality of life and can lead to isolation, reduced quality of care, overmedication (Livingston et al., 2014), and distress for caregivers (Moniz Cook et al., 2012).

Assessing BPSD

Functional analysis and dementia care mapping are two approaches described in the literature for assessing BPSD. *Functional analysis* involves exploring the meaning behind the person’s behaviour with the intention of intervening to reduce distress and behaviours (Moniz Cook et al., 2012). It is seen as a first-line alternative to traditional pharmacological management for agitation and aggression, but may require assistance from people with specialized training (Moniz Cook et al., 2012). Dementia care mapping involves observing and noting which factors promote well-being and which environmental factors trigger behaviours (Livingston et al., 2014). In one systematic review, rated moderate for methodological quality, dementia care mapping had both immediate and longer-term benefits for reducing severe agitation in long-term care (Livingston et al., 2014). The AMDA’s (2012) guideline *Dementia in the Long-Term Care Setting* points out that a careful evaluation of the causes of BPSD is particularly important when a person is newly admitted, has recently been hospitalized, or has undergone a significant change in condition.

The expert panel suggests that health-care providers collaborate to identify unmet needs and triggers for BPSD, because people who know the person well or who are participating in his/her care or daily activities can provide valuable insight. Tools have been developed to assist health-care providers to assess and monitor BPSD, and to observe and document trends (see [Appendix H](#), Screening and Assessment Tools). Furthermore, programs centred around understanding and effectively addressing BPSD (e.g., Gentle Persuasive Approaches [GPA], P.I.E.C.E.S, U-First, and behavioural support programs) are widely used in practice. See [Appendix J](#), Resources, for a list of programs and resources.

RECOMMENDATION 6.4:

Assess older adults with dementia for pain using a population-specific pain assessment tool.

Level of Evidence = Ia

Discussion of Evidence:

Health-care providers must be skilled in assessing for pain in older adults with dementia so that their pain can be managed effectively (Pieper et al., 2013; RNAO, 2010a). This is important because pain in people with dementia is highly prevalent (estimated to be over 50 percent in community and 80 percent in long-term-care settings), but unfortunately it is often overlooked or not identified (Pieper et al., 2013). Furthermore, untreated pain may contribute to BPSD or distress, can affect quality of life (Pieper et al., 2013), and can contribute to an episode of delirium (Inouye, et al., 2014).

Pain assessment is especially important because some people with dementia are unable to communicate pain through words, and expressions of pain might be misinterpreted as “just part of the dementia” (Pieper et al., 2013). Symptoms/expressions of pain in people with dementia might be mistaken for depression, agitation, anxiety, or aggression (Pieper et al., 2013), as suggested in a moderately rated systematic review. Scales are available to support pain assessment in people with dementia who are unable to communicate pain verbally. See [Appendix H](#), Screening and Assessment Tools, and the RNAO (2013) guideline *Assessment and Management of Pain* (3rd ed.) for more information. For information on monitoring pain, see [Recommendation 8.2](#).



7.0 PLANNING

RECOMMENDATION 7.1:

Develop an individualized plan of care that addresses the behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia (BPSD) and/or the person's personal care needs. Incorporate a range of non-pharmacological approaches, selected according to:

- the person's preferences,
- the assessment of the BPSD,
- the stage of dementia,
- the person's needs during personal care and bathing,
- consultations with the person's family/care partners and the interprofessional team, and
- ongoing observations of the person.

Level of Evidence = Ia

Discussion of Evidence:

A range of non-pharmacological approaches to care have been found to be effective at managing BPSD (Livingston et al., 2014) and are favoured in the literature. Non-pharmacological approaches are an important alternative to the use of antipsychotic medications, which historically have been overused as a first-line strategy for managing BPSD (Conn et al., 2014; Livingston et al., 2014). Furthermore, psychotropic medications can be ineffective and harmful, and may lead to increased cognitive decline, among numerous other deleterious effects (Livingston et al., 2014) (see [Recommendation 1.6](#)). In light of this evidence, health-care providers should consider non-pharmacological interventions wherever possible as a first-line approach to the management of BPSD.

The most well-studied and effective non-pharmacological approaches include listening to music/music therapy (Blackburn & Bradshaw, 2014; Hulme, Wright, Crocker, Oluboyede, & House, 2010; Olazaran et al., 2010; Ueda et al., 2013; Wall & Duffy, 2010), effective communication and person-centred approaches (Konno et al., 2013; Livingston et al., 2014), massage, and other sensory stimulation (Moyle, Murfield, O'Dwyer, & Van Wyk, 2013). Light therapy (i.e., bright lights) does not appear to be effective (Forbes et al., 2009; Livingston et al., 2014), and evidence in support of the benefits of aromatherapy is either limited or conflicting (Forrester et al., 2014; Kverno, Black, Nolan, & Rabins, 2009; Livingston et al., 2014).

Several benefits of non-pharmacological approaches are cited in the literature, including reduced agitation (Livingston et al., 2014) and pain (Konno et al., 2013; Pieper et al., 2013), along with more successful completion of activities of daily living (Konno et al., 2013). Effective management of BPSD through these approaches may also help to decrease stress for caregivers and enhance the work environment for staff (Olazaran et al., 2010). Table 2 outlines non-pharmacological approaches that might be used to support a person with dementia (note that the list is not exhaustive).

Developing an Individualized Plan of Care

Not all non-pharmacological approaches are effective or appropriate for everyone, and the selection of approaches must be person-centred (Cabrera et al., 2015; Enmarker et al., 2011; Konno et al., 2013). In other words, care plans should be based on knowledge of the person's preferences and interests, an understanding of the meaning behind the person's behavioural and psychological symptoms, and an understanding of the person's needs and abilities based on the stage of the dementia.

For people with BPSD, approaches must address the underlying causes, or unmet needs and triggers of BPSD (Livingston et al., 2014), and these should be tailored to the individual's arousal patterns (e.g., calming approaches for agitation or stimulating activities for apathy) (Kverno et al., 2009). The selection of approaches may also depend on the type of dementia and the stage of dementia. For example, in a literature review rated moderate for methodological quality by Kverno et al. (2009), it was suggested that some emotion-oriented approaches (e.g., simulated presence of family members via videotaped or audiotaped recordings of conversations, stories, etc.) may be more effective for people who are still able to communicate verbally.

Personal Care and Bathing

Health-care providers should develop individualized care plans for people with dementia that are specific to daily personal care routines and bathing. This is important because bathing, dressing, and toileting (and the approach taken, or circumstances surrounding these activities) can trigger behaviours such as kicking, scratching, grabbing, screaming, and cursing (Konno et al., 2013). Konno et al. (2013) suggest that these behaviours can be exacerbated when staff are rushed or focused only on the task rather than on the person. These physical and emotional responses to personal care are distressing, and may involve risk to the person with dementia and the person providing care.

Examples of effective approaches outlined in the literature include playing preferred music during bathing, providing a private and safe environment, offering alternative bathing approaches (such as a towel bath), and communicating effectively (Konno et al., 2013). For more specific strategies to assist with personal care and bathing, see [Appendix J](#).

Consultation and Ongoing Observation

Selecting the right non-pharmacological approaches is a complex task. It requires thorough assessments (see [Recommendation 6.3](#)); consultation; and collaboration with the person (as appropriate), his/her family/care partners, and members of the health-care team. Developing an individualized care plan also requires flexibility and creativity (Konno et al., 2013). In other words, care plans are not set in stone, but need to be adapted based on the person's reaction to different approaches and modified as the person's needs change or the disease progresses.

Table 2: Non-pharmacological Approaches to Management of the Behavioural and Psychological Symptoms of Dementia (BPSD)

APPROACH	EVIDENCE
Music therapy Note: Music therapy includes a single music-related experience or a combination of music-related experiences that can be provided individually or in groups. Examples include actively singing or playing a musical instrument, or listening to recorded or live music (Blackburn & Bradshaw, 2014; Ueda et al., 2013).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Potential benefits include: reduced BPSD (agitation), improved mood (decreased anxiety or depression), reduced pain, and improved socialization and quality of life (Konno et al., 2013; Livingston et al., 2014; Pieper et al., 2013; Ueda et al., 2013). ■ Playing music during bathing may reduce agitated behaviours (Konno et al., 2013). ■ Evidence suggests that music therapy is more effective if structured and led by a trained therapist; there is little evidence to indicate effectiveness outside of a care-home setting (Livingston et al., 2014).
Effective communication strategies and person-centred approaches to care	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Approaches are effective in reducing agitated behaviours in people with dementia (Konno et al., 2013; Livingston et al., 2014). ■ Health-care providers must be properly trained and supervised to be effective (Livingston et al., 2014). ■ Supportive evidence most relevant to long-term-care or supported-living settings (Livingston et al., 2014). ■ See Appendix K (Attitudes, Skills, and Knowledge That Are Beneficial for Communication in Dementia Care) for information about communication skills. See Appendix A, the Glossary of Terms, for a definition of person-centred approaches.
Sensory Interventions Note: Sensory interventions include massage, gentle touch or therapeutic touch, and stimulation of the senses (visual, auditory, touch) (Hulme et al., 2010; Kverno et al., 2009; Livingston et al., 2014; Moyle et al., 2013).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sensory interventions may reduce agitation (Livingston et al., 2014; Moyle et al., 2013) ■ Such interventions appear to be effective for people with severe cognitive impairments (Kverno et al., 2009).
Group Activities in Care Homes Note: Group activities include any activities offered to residents (e.g., animal-assisted therapy, dance, cooking, etc.).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Reduces agitation, but not necessarily for those who are severely agitated (Livingston et al., 2014).
Art Therapies Note: Examples include visual arts, drama/movement, songwriting, poetry, etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ One review, rated weak for methodological quality, reports potential benefits for behavioural or emotional symptoms (Cowl & Gaugler, 2014).

8.0 IMPLEMENTATION

RECOMMENDATION 8.1:

Implement the plan of care in collaboration with the person, his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

After developing a plan of care for people with dementia (see [Recommendation 7.1](#)), the plan must be implemented in collaboration with the person, his/her family/care partners, and members of the interprofessional team.

Refer to [Appendix J](#), Resources, for a list of programs and resources to support people with dementia. Some of these programs suggest interventions, actions, and approaches to support that are specific to behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia.

RECOMMENDATION 8.2:

Monitor older adults with dementia for pain, and implement pain-reduction measures to help manage behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

Discussion of Evidence:

Effective pain management is important, not only for the reduction of suffering, but also as a way to reduce BPSD associated with pain and to make care routines (such as bathing) less challenging (Konno et al., 2013). Pain-reducing interventions may include pharmacological and non-pharmacological measures. See [Recommendations 1.6](#) and [Appendix F](#) for more information on appropriate use of medications.

The expert panel recommends that health-care providers monitor for both verbal and non-verbal signs of pain. This includes observing for and documenting changes in any symptoms related to pain, in order to determine whether pain reduction measures are effective. Refer to the pain assessment tools in [Appendix H](#), [Recommendation 6.4](#), and RNAO's (2013a) *BPG Assessment and Management of Pain* (3rd ed.) for more information.

RECOMMENDATION 8.3:

Employ communication strategies and techniques that demonstrate compassion, validate emotions, support dignity, and promote comprehension when caring for people with dementia.

Level of Evidence = Ia

Discussion of Evidence:

Effective communication with people who have dementia has many benefits. A systematic review of quantitative studies rated moderate for methodological quality found that effective communication enhanced positive behaviour, promoted more satisfying interactions, and improved overall quality of life for the person with dementia (Eggenberger, Heimerl, & Bennett, 2013).

Effective communication has also been shown to reduce agitation and responsive behaviours^G in persons with dementia (Livingston et al., 2014), and promote the person's dignity and sense of control (Konno et al., 2013). Examples of communication strategies (from a systematic review on mostly qualitative studies, rated moderate for methodological quality) include apologizing, using appropriate humour, distraction, allowing the person to take time to respond to the care provider, and providing reminders of what will happen next (Konno et al., 2013). [Appendix K](#) outlines communication strategies that are beneficial for dementia care, and the skills, attitudes, and knowledge required to apply these skills.

The expert panel adds that positive communication requires certain knowledge, skills, and competencies. Health-care providers must understand how dementia affects the brain and, by extension, the person's ability to receive, process, and produce language. In addition, they must also have empathy, compassion, and respect for the person; demonstrate cultural competence^G; and be able to establish a trusting and therapeutic relationship with the person. Other specific techniques include the ability to adjust language (e.g., one-step instructions) to match the person's comprehension abilities, while avoiding yelling or speaking to them in a condescending manner. Furthermore, health-care providers must validate the person's emotions, and recognize and accept their thoughts, feelings, sensations, and behaviours as understandable; this does not necessarily mean agreeing with or endorsing the person's behaviour. See [Recommendation 1.1](#) for additional information.

RECOMMENDATION 8.4:

Promote strategies for people living with dementia that will preserve their abilities and optimize their quality of life including, but not limited to:

- exercise (level of evidence = Ia),
- interventions that support cognitive function (level of evidence = Ia),
- advanced care planning (level of evidence = Ia), and
- other strategies to support living well with dementia (level of evidence = V).

Discussion of Evidence:

Health-care providers should promote strategies for living well, preserving abilities, and maximizing quality of life for people with dementia. While the literature highlights the benefits of exercise, suggests potential benefits of advanced care planning for people with dementia in long-term care, and indicates various interventions to support cognition, the expert panel notes that there are many other strategies that may benefit people with dementia, especially in the earlier stages of the disease.

Exercise

One strongly and one moderately rated review show that exercise can potentially improve the ability of people with dementia to carry out activities of daily living (Forbes, Thiessen, Blake, Forbes, & Forbes, 2013) and reduce decline in their ability to do so (Littbrand, Stenvall, & Rosendahl, 2011). Exercise may also improve cognition (Farina, Rusted, & Tabet, 2014; Forbes et al., 2013; Fox, Hodgkinson, & Parker, 2014), although this has not been consistently proven (Fox et al., 2014; Ohman, Savikko, Strandberg, & Pitkala, 2014), with only one review showing definitive improvement in quality of life for people with depression and dementia (Tavares, Moraes, & Laks, 2014). Other reviews, which rated weak for methodological quality, have shown general positive effects of exercise (Balsamo et al., 2013; McLaren, Lamantia, & Callahan, 2013; Pitkälä, Savikko, Poysti, Strandberg, & Laakkonen, 2013; Thune-Boyle, Iliffe, Cerga-Pashoja, Lowery, & Warner, 2012).

Interventions that Support Cognition

Cognitive interventions can be described as activities that teach new ways of carrying out cognitive tasks, and strategies to improve functioning or restore abilities in specific domains (Development Group, 2010). A moderately rated systematic review (Zabalegui et al., 2014) found potential benefits of cognitive interventions for people in the early stages of dementia, such as improved activities of daily living and increased satisfaction. The Development Group of the Clinical Practice Guideline on the Comprehensive Care of People with Alzheimer's Disease and Other Dementias (2010) reviewed a wide range of cognitive interventions (e.g., reality counselling techniques, reminiscence^G, memory training, sensory stimulation, and activities of daily living training), and recommends implementing individualized interventions for people with Alzheimer's dementia that are focused on stabilizing cognitive function and functionality; these interventions, they state, must be adapted to the person's cognitive abilities in order to avoid distress and adverse emotional reaction (e.g., anger and frustration).

In addition to these cognitive interventions, the expert panel notes that medications are sometimes prescribed for a limited time to enhance cognition or to treat/manage other symptoms of dementia. For more information on medications, see [Recommendation 1.6](#), [Appendix F](#), and the Development Group's (2010) *Clinical Practice Guideline on the Comprehensive Care of People with Alzheimer's Disease and Other Dementias*, which provides guidance on specific medications for specific types of dementia.

Advanced Care Planning

Advanced care planning can be described as “a multistage process whereby a patient [person] and their carers achieve a shared understanding of their goals and preferences for future care” (Robinson et al., 2012, p. 263). One systematic review, rated moderate for methodological quality, captured findings from four studies about advanced care planning in long-term care. Benefits of advanced care planning in the long-term-care setting include having documentation of a person's preferences for care, reduction in rates of hospitalization, and increased use of hospice services (Robinson et al., 2012). The authors point out, however, that the long-term-care setting may be too late for some people to discuss advanced care planning if their capacity to discuss issues is inhibited by the disease process (Robinson et al., 2012).

The expert panel recommends that health-care providers promote advanced care planning while a person with dementia is still able to make choices and articulate their individual needs and preferences. The Alzheimer Society of Canada provides guidance on advanced care planning and related topics, including developing a health-care plan, selecting a substitute decision-maker, planning work/volunteer adaptations and living arrangements, planning legal and financial matters, and making end-of-life decisions. For details, refer to the Alzheimer Society of Canada website at www.alzheimer.ca/en

Other Strategies to Support Living Well with Dementia

The expert panel recommends that health-care providers promote other aspects to living well with dementia, such as the following:

- promoting engagement in meaningful and purposeful activities/recreation that align with the person's particular interests;
- promoting social engagement;
- modifying the home/environment to support independent activities of daily living and promote safety;
- addressing issues of safety, such as wandering and driving;
- maintaining a healthy lifestyle (e.g., supporting nutrition, sleep, and regular visits to health-care providers);
- providing routines, reminders, and other strategies to support cognitive challenges;
- providing education about dementia and information about community resources (see also Table 3).

The Alzheimer Society of Canada provides comprehensive information, support, and resources, including guidance for day-to-day living with dementia, and strategies that address specific needs and concerns of people with dementia and their families/care partners. Information is provided for different stages of dementia (not just Alzheimer's), including early, middle, late, and end-of-life. For detailed information, visit the Alzheimer Society of Canada at www.alzheimer.ca/en. See also **Appendix J**.

RECOMMENDATION 8.5a:

Provide education and psychosocial support to family members and care partners of people with dementia that align with the person's unique needs and the stage of dementia.

Level of Evidence = Ia

RECOMMENDATION 8.5b:

Refer family members and care partners who are experiencing distress or depression to an appropriate health-care provider.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

Health-care providers should offer effective interventions to those caring for people with dementia, because stress from caregiving can be detrimental to caregivers' physical and psychological well-being (Godwin, Mills, Anderson, & Kunik, 2013; Jensen, Agbata, Canavan, & McCarthy, 2015; McKechnie, Barker, & Stott, 2014). Interventions for caregivers (family caregivers/care partners) must be tailored to the individual needs of those involved (Elvish et al., 2013; Nehen & Hermann, 2015; Topo, 2009). This is important because dementia progresses at different rates, symptoms vary, and the perceived burden of caregiving is interpreted in various ways (Jensen et al., 2015).

A range of interventions to support caregivers have been studied in the literature, including approaches to build skills, increase knowledge about dementia and BPSD, enhance support for caregivers, manage emotions and promote self-care, activity planning, and altering the environment (Brodaty & Arasaratnam, 2012; Corbett et al., 2012; Elvish et al., 2013; Gallagher-Thompson et al., 2012; Laver, Clemson, Bennett, Lannin, & Brodaty, 2014; Marim, Silva, Taminato, & Barbosa, 2013; Nehen & Hermann, 2015; Schoenmakers, Buntinx, & DeLepeleire, 2010). These interventions can be offered directly by health-care providers, over the phone, in group settings, through computer programs, and online.

Benefits of Programs Offering Psychological Support and Education

Although most of the evidence is methodologically weak, one strong systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials found that educational interventions for caregivers in the community decreased caregiver burden and depression (Jensen et al., 2015). Other potential benefits may include reduced caregiver depression, reduced caregiver burden, enhanced caregiver well-being (Chien et al., 2011; Elvish et al., 2013; Moon & Adams, 2013; Schoenmakers et al., 2010), improved quality of life (Corbett et al., 2012; Elvish et al., 2013), improved knowledge, improved coping skills or the ability to manage symptoms of dementia, and enhanced interactions with the person with dementia (Corbett et al., 2012; Moon & Adams, 2013). The expert panel suggests that supporting caregivers may be the best way to improve outcomes for people with dementia.

The evidence suggests that caregiver programs may be more effective if they are multifaceted (Corbett et al., 2012; Elvish et al., 2013; Laver et al., 2014)—for example, programs that offer education, support, and skill-building for caregivers (Laver et al., 2014). In a systematic review and meta-analysis by Brodaty & Arasaratnam (2012), it is suggested that programs for caregivers are more successful when they are delivered over a period of time with adequate follow-up.

Referring Family Members and Care Partners with Distress or Depression

Health-care providers can provide psychological support and education directly to caregivers who are caring for people with dementia (Development Group, 2010; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014; WHO, 2012/2015). For those caregivers experiencing distress or depression, health-care providers should refer them to (or recommend that they see) a primary care provider or mental health specialist (Development Group, 2010). Additional supports or referrals may also be required if caregivers are challenged by other issues associated with the social determinants of health (e.g., inadequate housing, low income, etc.).

It should be noted that although respite care is generally believed to support caregivers and is frequently recommended by health-care providers, one study, rated weak for methodological quality, concluded that it may be associated with an increased feeling of burden (Schoenmakers et al., 2010).

For additional information on supporting caregivers, refer to RNAO's (2006b) *BPG Supporting and Strengthening Families Through Expected and Unexpected Life Events*.

Technology-Based Programs

Health-care providers can consider recommending technology-based programs that offer education and psychosocial support for caregivers (McKechnie et al., 2014). Various technology-based programs are available, including educational videos and connecting with peers or professionals online. Studies about these interventions report favourable outcomes overall, but further research is recommended to confirm benefits (Godwin et al., 2013; Topo, 2009). Stronger studies suggest that computer-mediated programs may reduce caregiver burden, stress, depression, and anxiety, and possibly increase caregivers' self-efficacy (McKechnie et al., 2014).

Educational Content

Table 3 outlines suggested content for educating caregivers about dementia. References are provided as available. Health-care providers may find that some of this education is also important for the person with dementia. See also **Recommendation 8.4**.

Table 3: Content for Educating Caregivers About Dementia

Dementia <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The type of dementia, stage, associated losses, evolution of dementia, clinical manifestations, and possible complications of dementia (Development Group, 2010). ■ Strategies for living well with dementia, and ways to support the independence of the person with dementia and help preserve his/her abilities (see Recommendation 8.4).
Behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia (BPSD) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Common BPSD (Development Group, 2010). ■ Non-pharmacological approaches (Development Group, 2010). ■ Understanding the causes/triggers for BPSD, the relationship between brain and behaviour, and strategies to prevent or manage BPSD.* ■ If pharmacological interventions or restraints are deemed necessary to manage targeted BPSD, education about the rationale for treatment and plans for reduction/removal* (see Recommendation 1.6).
Medication <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The purpose, risks and benefits, and side effects of medications used to enhance cognition.
Communication <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Effective communication skills. ■ Benefits of effective communication (i.e., helps caregivers gain insight into the viewpoint of the person with dementia, promotes more positive behaviour and leads to more satisfying interactions) (Eggenberger et al., 2013).
Anticipatory guidance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ For example, regarding the possibility of delirium or depression, and areas of concern that might require urgent attention (e.g., delirium, risk of suicide).*

Table continued on next page.

Advanced care planning

- Information to enable the person living with dementia and his/her family to plan for the future, determine substitute decision-makers, etc. (see **Recommendation 8.4**).*

Self-care

- The importance of self-care for caregivers.
- When to see a primary care provider or mental health specialist.
- Information about the health and social resources available to support caregivers (interprofessional team).
- Caregiver programs: psychological support and psychoeducational programs (to reduce caregiver distress and improve the quality of life).
- Counselling, cognitive–behavioural support (Development Group, 2010).
- Grief counselling.*

Other resources

- Information regarding resources and local programs that can offer information and formal or informal support (Development Group, 2010)
 - Example: Alzheimer Society
 - See **Appendix J**, Resources.

Note: Content added by the expert panel is indicated with an asterisk (*).

9.0 EVALUATION

RECOMMENDATION 9.1:

Evaluate the plan of care in collaboration with the person with dementia (as appropriate), his/her family/care partners, and the interprofessional team, and revise accordingly.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

The expert panel recommends ongoing monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of the plan of care for the person with dementia. Evaluation over time is also important as the disease progresses, as behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia (BPSD) evolve, and as the needs of the person and of his/her family/care partners change. Therefore, interventions, including education and support, will need to be adjusted over the course of the disease. Collaboration and communication with the person (as appropriate), family and care partners, and members of the interprofessional team is required. The frequency of monitoring and evaluating the plan of care will vary according to the setting and organizational policy.



RECOMMENDATIONS RELATED TO DEPRESSION

10.0 ASSESSMENT

RECOMMENDATION 10.1:

Assess for depression during assessments and ongoing observations when risk factors or signs and symptoms of depression are present. Use validated, context-specific screening or assessment tools, and collaborate with the older adult, his/her family/care partners and the interprofessional team.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

Discussion of Evidence:

Health-care providers must **be vigilant for depression among older adults, and assess for depression whenever risk factors or signs and symptoms are present** (NICE, 2011, 2013; Trangle et al., 2016). Unfortunately, health-care providers often do not recognize depression; it is under-diagnosed and often goes untreated (O'Connor et al., 2009; Trangle et al., 2016). Furthermore, few older adults actively seek treatment or see a mental health specialist to manage their depression (Chang-Quan et al., 2009).

Lack of recognition and treatment is a great concern because of the impact of depression on morbidity and mortality, on the person's quality of life and social functioning, and on his/her ability to manage health conditions (Chang-Quan et al., 2009; Kiosses et al., 2011; Krishna et al., 2011; O'Connor et al., 2009; Samad et al., 2011). Because lack of treatment can lead to significant suffering, early recognition of depression is important (Krishna et al., 2011).

Identifying Risk Factors, Signs, and Symptoms of Depression

Health-care providers must be knowledgeable about signs, symptoms, risk factors, and stressor events that may lead to depression (see Table 4). Identifying depression can be challenging in older adults for a variety of reasons. Medical conditions or medications can cause depressive symptoms (O'Connor et al., 2009), and depression can be masked by co-morbidities (Chang-Quan et al., 2009; O'Connor et al., 2009). Furthermore, older adults might not present with a depressed mood or use the word "depression," but instead may have an atypical presentation (O'Connor et al., 2009), such as insomnia, appetite disturbances, lack of energy, fatigue, chronic pain, constipation, and/or musculoskeletal disorders (Trangle et al., 2016). A person's cultural, ethnic, and religious background can also affect the way he or she expresses and understands depression (NICE, 2009). Examples of terms or phrases that people may use instead of "depressed" include "nerves," "feeling blue," and "low spirits."

Table 4 lists predisposing and precipitating factors for depression, and possible signs and symptoms (the list is not exhaustive). Clinicians commonly use the mnemonic SIGECAPS to remember the signs and symptoms of depression in older adults (Trangle et al., 2016). Finally, diagnosing practitioners routinely apply the criteria outlined in the *DSM-5* to diagnose depression (Trangle et al., 2016; NICE, 2009).

Table 4: Risk Factors and Signs of Depression

PREDISPOSING AND PRECIPITATING RISK FACTORS	SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Cognitive decline or dementia ■ Social isolation ■ Medical diagnosis or diagnoses associated with a high risk of depression (e.g., neurodegenerative disease, cerebrovascular disease) ■ Chronic physical health problem with associated functional impairment ■ Personal or family history of depression or mood disorder ■ History of attempted suicide or psychiatric hospitalization ■ Current use of a medication associated with a high risk of depression ■ Alcohol or substance misuse (may include chronic benzodiazepine use*) ■ Institutional placement (admission to long-term care or in-patient setting) ■ New stressful losses, including loss of autonomy, loss of privacy, loss of functional status, loss of body part ■ Financial difficulties* ■ Bereavement ■ Domestic abuse or violence 	<p>SIGECAPS:</p> <p>Sleep Disorder (increased or decreased)</p> <p>Interest deficit (anhedonia)</p> <p>Guilt (worthlessness, hopelessness, regret)</p> <p>Energy deficit</p> <p>Concentration deficit</p> <p>Appetite disorder (increased or decreased)</p> <p>Psychomotor retardation or agitation</p> <p>Suicidality</p> <p>Additional symptoms: chronic pain, constipation and musculoskeletal disorders</p>

Sources: AMDA, 2011; NICE, 2011; O'Connor et al., 2009; Trangle et al., 2016. Sources: Jenike, 1989, as cited in RNAO, 2010b; Trangle et al., 2016.

Note: Content added by the expert panel is indicated with an asterisk (*).

Assessing for Depression

A detailed assessment for depression should occur when risk factors are present or when depression is suspected (Conn et al., 2014; NICE, 2009; Trangle et al., 2016). Health-care providers should use standardized tools that are appropriate to the setting (NICE, 2009; RNAO, 2010a; Trangle et al., 2016) and to the abilities of the older adult (e.g., taking into account cognitive impairment) (Conn et al., 2014). A variety of tools and approaches have been validated for depression screening and assessment in older adults—for example, depression scales for older adults, scales for self-report and proxy report, tools for assessing depression in people with dementia, tools for those with significant language or communication difficulties, and tools for assessing suicide. For a list of tools, see [Appendix H](#), Screening and Assessment Tools.

Other aspects of an assessment may include a history and physical exam, diagnostic testing, an assessment of contributing factors, tests to rule out alternative diagnoses (Conn et al., 2014), and an assessment of functional impairment (NICE, 2009). To conduct assessments, nurses and other health-care providers must exercise clinical judgment, and apply knowledge about depression and other conditions that may coexist, complicate, or exacerbate depression. See **Recommendation 14.2**.

The expert panel emphasizes that a therapeutic relationship is essential when assessing an older adult for depression, and that certain specific skills are required. An essential element is building trust and rapport, because people may not disclose symptoms or feelings of depression in the absence of a strong relationship with the health-care provider who is conducting an assessment. Furthermore, many people may be hesitant to talk about depression because of the associated stigma or as a result of cultural beliefs. Therefore, health-care providers must conduct such assessments with a great deal of sensitivity, and be non-judgmental and culturally sensitive. See **Recommendation 1.1**.

Should Health-Care Providers Routinely Screen for Depression?

Routine screening is not recommended consistently in the literature, and whether or not it is recommended depends on the setting. Three clinical guidelines suggest that organizations *consider* screening processes (AMDA, 2011; NICE, 2009; Trangle et al., 2016), and one recommends screening upon admission to long-term care and at regular intervals or after significant changes (Conn et al., 2014). Furthermore, one moderately rated systematic review examined the benefits and harms of screening older adults for depression (in primary care), and found that screening *without* additional resources for depression care and case management is unlikely to have a positive outcome (O'Connor et al., 2009).

In light of the inconclusive evidence, the RNAO expert panel does not recommend routine screening for depression, but instead recommends that health-care providers assess for depression *when risk factors or signs and symptoms of depression are present*. Due to the high prevalence of depression and the fact that it is often under-diagnosed, health-care providers should remain vigilant for risk factors, signs, and symptoms of depression. In light of the findings by O'Connor et al. (2009), health-care providers should also ensure that follow-up support and resources are available for older adults who are identified as having depression.

RECOMMENDATION 10.2:

Assess for risk of suicide when depression is suspected or present.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

Whenever depression is suspected, health-care providers must ask people directly about suicidal ideation and intent (NICE, 2009, 2011). This is important because thoughts of suicide can occur even with milder forms of depression (RNAO, 2010b), and the risk of suicide is high among older adults (O'Connor et al., 2009).

The expert panel points out that in some instances, using the word “suicide” may not be appropriate; alternative wording may include “harming yourself,” “wishing away life,” “wishing you weren’t living,” “ending your life,” or “hastening death.” For such conversations, therapeutic communication skills are essential, and a quiet, private space is recommended for such discussions.

For additional information on suicide, including self-harm, see the RNAO (2009) BPG *Assessment and Care of Adults at Risk for Suicidal Ideation and Behaviour*. For a list of resources to support people at risk for suicide, see [Appendix J](#), Resources.

RECOMMENDATION 10.3:

Refer older adults suspected of depression for an in-depth assessment by a qualified health-care professional. Seek urgent medical attention for those at risk for suicide and ensure their immediate safety.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

Older adults suspected of having depression should be assessed by a qualified health-care professional for diagnosis and treatment (NICE, 2009). The expert panel suggests that qualified health-care professionals may include a primary care practitioner, psychiatrist, or a psychogeriatric/geriatric mental health specialist. Other referrals to members of the health-care team may be necessary, especially to rule out or assess for co-morbid conditions that may mimic depression. Coordinated, interprofessional care may also be required, especially for complex depression and when depression has implications for the management of chronic physical health problems (NICE, 2009).

If there is active suicidal ideation/risk of a person killing himself/herself, or if a person with depression presents a considerable immediate threat or harm to others, it is important to seek urgent attention from a qualified professional (NICE, 2009; RNAO, 2010a). In such cases, the expert panel recommends the following immediate actions:

- Call a crisis line, crisis team, or local emergency phone number, or take the person to the emergency department.
- Determine whether the person has access to a means or has the ability to end his/her life.
- Maintain safety: do not leave the person alone, and consider warning others who may be at risk.

The expert panel recommends the following actions to support a person who is at risk for suicide:

- Assess whether the person has adequate social support.
- Provide the person with information regarding sources of help/support.
- Consider a referral to specialized mental health services.
- Increase the level of support (e.g., more frequent phone contact).
- Assess the potential toxicity in overdose if an antidepressant is prescribed or the person is taking other medication that could be used to end one's life, and, in collaboration with the person and his/her prescribing practitioner, explore the possibility of limiting the dose (NICE, 2009).

For additional information on suicide and self-harm, see the RNAO (2009) BPG *Assessment and Care of Adults at Risk for Suicidal Ideation and Behaviour*. See [Appendix J](#), Resources, for resources to support people at risk for suicide.

11.0 PLANNING

RECOMMENDATION 11.1:

Develop an individualized plan of care for older adults with depression using a collaborative approach. Where applicable, consider the impact of co-morbid dementia.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

Discussion of Evidence:

Clinical guidelines state that health-care providers need to develop an individualized plan of care for the management of depression that aligns with the person's preferences and clinical profile (NICE, 2009, 2011; Trangle et al., 2016). In order to do so, the health-care provider must understand the person's preferences and support informed decision-making (NICE, 2011). Evidence from one review, rated weak for methodological quality, suggests that health-care providers identify and address any factors that could affect adherence to the depression treatment plan, and arrange for follow-up care (Dreizler et al., 2014).

Collaboration among members of the health-care team supports effective depression management (Chang-Quan et al., 2009; Cody & Drysdale, 2013; Dreizler et al., 2014; NICE, 2012; O'Connor et al., 2009; Trangle et al., 2016). The plan of care should be documented and communicated to those who are involved in the care. See [Recommendation 1.3](#).

Effective care planning requires that health-care providers are knowledgeable about the range of evidence-based options available to manage depression (see the Education Recommendations). The expert panel recommends that health-care providers consider the full range of therapies that are available and that might benefit a person, and not allow their personal opinions or beliefs about particular interventions to influence decision-making regarding particular therapies.

Depression in People with Dementia

Due to the high prevalence of depression in people with dementia (see the discussion under Background Context and [Recommendation 10.1](#)), health-care providers may need to consider the impact that co-morbid dementia has on individuals with depression (Conn et al., 2014). When these conditions co-exist, NICE (2009) suggests that health-care providers can offer many of the same interventions as they would for a person who only has depression, making any necessary adjustments to the approach and duration of the interventions. A strongly rated systematic review by Orgeta et al. (2014) found that the addition of psychological interventions (e.g., cognitive behavioural therapy^G [CBT], counselling, and interpersonal psychodynamic therapy) to care plan of people with dementia can reduce anxiety and symptoms of depression.

12.0 IMPLEMENTATION

RECOMMENDATION 12.1:

Administer evidence-based pharmacological and/or non-pharmacological therapeutic interventions for depression that are tailored to the person's clinical profile and preferences.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

Discussion of Evidence:

Health-care providers should provide evidence-based therapeutic interventions according to the person's plan of care. A variety of pharmacological and non-pharmacological therapies with varying degrees of efficacy are discussed in clinical guidelines (Conn et al., 2014; SIGN, 2010). When selecting interventions, health-care providers should start with the least invasive and most effective intervention (NICE, 2009, 2011, 2012b).

Pharmacological Interventions

Antidepressant therapies are an important part of treatment for older adults with severe or persistent depression (Conn et al., 2014; NICE, 2009, 2012b). However, because of the potential risks and unclear efficacy in older adults with *mild depression*, antidepressants should not be used routinely (Conn et al., 2014; NICE, 2009). Instead, Conn et al. (2014) suggest starting with psychosocial interventions. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) are generally the antidepressant of choice for older adults with depression (Conn et al., 2014; NICE, 2009, 2012b). One clinical guideline and a systematic review, rated moderate for methodological quality, recommend that antidepressants should be used in combination with other approaches, such as psychotherapy (NICE, 2011; O'Connor et al., 2009).

For people with dementia, the efficacy of antidepressants is unclear. This is supported by one systematic review and meta-analysis, rated weak in methodological quality (Nelson & Devanand, 2011), one clinical guideline (AMDA, 2011), and expert panel opinion.

It is beyond the scope of this Guideline to discuss specific medications or appropriate considerations for prescribing and monitoring medications. For more detailed information, refer to NICE's guidelines *Depression in Adults: The Treatment and Management of Depression in Adults* (2009) and *Common Mental Health Disorders: Identification and Pathways to Care* (2011); the update to CCSMH's *The Assessment and Treatment of Mental Health Issues in Long Term Care Homes* (Conn et al., 2014), and **Appendix F**, Resources for Optimal Medication Use in Older Adults.

Non-pharmacological Interventions

A number of non-pharmacological therapies have been shown to be effective to varying degrees in older adults with depression. Several types of psychological therapies, such as behavioural therapy (Samad et al., 2011) and group cognitive behavioural therapy (Krishna et al., 2011), have shown potential benefits within two moderately rated systematic reviews.

In addition, several reviews have noted that exercise may minimize depressive symptoms in older adults (Bridle, Spanjers, Patel, Atherton, & Lamb, 2012; Chi, Jordan-Marsh, Guo, Xie, & Bai, 2013; Forbes et al., 2013; Mura & Carta, 2013; Park, Han, & Kang, 2014; Tavares et al., 2014). While exercise may improve quality of life for people with dementia and depression (Park et al., 2014), the evidence is limited (Forbes et al., 2013; Potter et al., 2011). The type of exercise recommended should be selected and tailored according to the person's abilities (Bridle et al., 2012), and should align with the person's interests.

Other non-pharmacological therapies for depression that have been discussed in the literature and in guidelines include reminiscence, mindfulness^G, behavioural activation^G, and music therapy. See Table 5 for a list of interventions (the list is not an exhaustive; rather, the table contains examples of interventions and key findings about each particular intervention from the literature). Organizations may need to consider resource implications, because some therapies require specialized staff and collaboration between staff, and some require significant staff time (Housden, 2009). It is important to note that although some therapies may be outside the scope of practice for nurses (e.g., music therapy), nurses can reinforce the benefits of, advocate for, and support the use of such therapies.

Table 5: Interventions for Depression

NON-PHARMACOLOGICAL INTERVENTIONS
PSYCHOTHERAPY
General <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Psychotherapy is recommended together with antidepressants in primary care (O'Connor et al., 2009).■ Psychotherapy may be beneficial for people with depression in long-term care (Cody & Drysdale, 2013).■ Psychological interventions with antidepressants can be used for moderate or severe depression (NICE, 2011).■ Psychological interventions added to usual care can reduce symptoms of depression and anxiety for people with dementia (Orgeta et al., 2014).
Behavioural therapy^G <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Behavioural therapy appears to have comparable effectiveness with alternative psychotherapies (Samad et al., 2011).
Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ CBT showed positive findings (e.g., improved mood) (Gould, Coulson, & Howard, 2012; Kiosses et al., 2011; Krishna et al., 2011; Regan & Varanelli, 2013; Simon, Cordas, & Bottino, 2015).■ CBT is recommended for individuals (SIGN, 2010) and groups (Krishna et al., 2011).■ Computerized CBT, delivered via computer- or web-based programs, may be appropriate for treating mild to moderate depression (NICE, 2009; NICE, 2011).
Interpersonal therapy^G <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Interpersonal therapy is recommended for treating mild or moderate depression (NICE, 2011).
Problem-solving therapy^G <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Problem-solving therapy showed positive findings in two studies (Kiosses et al., 2011; Regan & Varanelli, 2013).■ Problem-solving therapy should be delivered by highly qualified or experienced therapists (NICE, 2012b).

Table continued on next page.

NON-PHARMACOLOGICAL INTERVENTIONS CONT...**EXERCISE****Exercise**

- Exercise may reduce the severity of depression (Bridle et al., 2012).
- Tai Chi reduced self-reported depression (Chi et al., 2013).
- Benefits of exercise programs/exercise therapy may include decreased symptoms, improved quality of life, and improved self-esteem (Park et al., 2014).
- Structured group physical activity is appropriate for people with mild to moderate depression (NICE, 2011).
- Exercise should be tailored to an individual's abilities (Bridle et al., 2012).

PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL INTERVENTIONS**Reminiscence**

- Reminiscence may have therapeutic benefits in long-term care settings (socialization), but should be facilitated by a trained practitioner (Housden, 2009).

Behavioural activation

- Behavioural activation was recommended in two clinical guidelines (SIGN, 2010; Trangle et al., 2016).

Mindfulness

- Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy, when practiced in a group setting, may help reduce relapse in people with recurrent depression (SIGN, 2010).

Peer support or self-help

- Peer support or self-help may be appropriate for mild to moderate depression (NICE, 2012b) and those with a chronic physical health problem (NICE, 2011).

Music therapy

- Music therapy may reduce anxiety and depression, but must be individualized (Ueda et al., 2013; Wall & Duffy, 2010).

Animal therapy

- There is insufficient evidence to recommend animal therapy, but it may have beneficial effects on the severity of depressive symptoms in older adults living in long-term-care or psychiatric institutions (SIGN, 2010).

ELECTROCONVULSIVE THERAPY (ECT)**ECT**

- ECT may be considered for treatment of severe, life-threatening depression, or when other treatments have failed (NICE, 2009).

PHARMACOLOGICAL INTERVENTIONS**Antidepressants**

- Antidepressants are important for the treatment of severe major depression (Conn et al., 2014).
- SSRIs are usually the preferred antidepressants (NICE, 2012b), including for people in long-term care (Conn et al., 2014).
- Antidepressants are recommended together with non-pharmacological treatments (NICE, 2011; O'Connor et al., 2009).
- The evidence supporting the use of antidepressants for people with depression and dementia is unclear (Nelson & Devanand, 2011).

RECOMMENDATION 12.2:

Educate older adults with depression (and their families/care partners, if appropriate) about depression, self-management, therapeutic interventions, safety, and follow-up care.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

Education is an important aspect of care for people with depression. Depending on the person’s wishes, it may also involve the person’s family/care partners. Health-care providers should provide education within their scope of practice, and in collaboration with prescribing practitioner, as appropriate. Table 6 outlines educational content for older adults with depression and their families/care partners.

Table 6: Recommended Educational Content for Older Adults with Depression

TOPIC	KEY POINTS
Depression	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Depression is a medical illness, not a character defect■ Treatment is effective for most people■ The aim of treatment is remission (i.e., being mostly free of symptoms)■ The cause, symptoms, and course of depression■ A wide range of treatment options are available and recovery is possible*
Self-management of depression; lifestyle modification	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The importance of basic wellness, such as sleep hygiene (regular sleep and wake times; avoiding eating, smoking, and alcohol before sleep; creating the proper environment for sleep; exercising regularly)■ The benefits of exercise
Therapeutic interventions	<p>Medications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The effectiveness, side effects, and precautions (e.g., do not discontinue medications suddenly)■ Information specific to the use of medication (e.g., how to take it), and common misconceptions (e.g., medication is not addictive) <p>Non-pharmacological approaches</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Clarify and reinforce the benefits of non-pharmacological approaches <p>Community resources and supports</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ For example, therapists or counsellors; issue-specific support groups
Safety	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The early warning signs of relapse or recurrence■ When to contact a practitioner (e.g., development of marked and/or prolonged agitation, mood changes, negativity and hopelessness, and suicidal ideation*)■ Where and how to seek help■ Crisis line phone numbers; contact information for urgent care
Follow-up care	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Plans for monitoring and a follow-up plan■ Relapse prevention

Note: Content added by the expert panel is indicated with an asterisk (*). Sources: ; NICE, 2009, Trangle et al, 2016.

13.0 EVALUATION

RECOMMENDATION 13.1:

Monitor older adults who are experiencing depression for changes in symptoms and response to treatment using a collaborative approach. Document the effectiveness of interventions and changes in suicidal risk.

Level of Evidence =V

Discussion of Evidence:

The expert panel recommends that nurses and other health-care providers monitor the signs and symptoms of depression and evaluate the person's response to treatment. This is important in order to determine the effectiveness of interventions and to promote recovery. One integrative review found that nurses play an essential role with regard to supporting ongoing maintenance of therapies, addressing barriers to adherence, and monitoring for changes in suicidal risk (Dreizler et al., 2014). For people taking antidepressants, it is also important to monitor for side effects (NICE, 2009).

The expert panel points out that health-care providers should monitor and document risk for suicide. Sometimes, when antidepressants begin to take effect and the person has increased energy, a person with suicidal intent may have increased ability to carry out a suicide plan.

If revisions are required to the plan of care, this should be done in collaboration with the older adult, his/her family/care partners (as appropriate), and the interprofessional team. Ongoing documentation and timely, effective communication remains important. See [Recommendation 1.3](#).



Education Recommendations

14.0 EDUCATION

RECOMMENDATION 14.1:

All entry-level health-care programs include content and practice education opportunities that are specific to caring for older adults who have or are suspected of having delirium, dementia, and/or depression, and that are tailored to the discipline's scope of practice.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

The expert panel recommends that entry-level educational programs for health-care providers contain specialized content related to delirium, dementia, and depression, and caring for older adults who have or may have these conditions. This recommendation aligns with RNAO's (2010) BPGs *Caregiving Strategies for Older Adults with Delirium, Dementia and Depression* and *Screening for Delirium, Dementia and Depression in the Older Adult*; the Development Group's *Clinical Practice Guideline on the Comprehensive Care of People with Alzheimer's Disease and Other Dementias* (2010); and the recommendations in CCSMH's *Guideline on the Assessment and Treatment of Delirium in Older Adults at the End of Life* (Conn et al., 2014). Entry-level education on these topics provides an important first exposure to the content, and establishes foundational knowledge and skills that can be reinforced and augmented in clinical/care settings.

Curriculum content focused on the care of older adults is particularly important, given the increasing proportion of older adults who are cared for across all health-care settings. The expert panel points out that content related to the care of older adults in general—and content on delirium, dementia, and depression specifically—receives minimal emphasis in many health-care training programs.

Educational content must be tailored to the scope of practice of the health-care provider, but should include, at minimum, content about the following:

- the normal changes associated with aging, versus the signs and symptoms that indicate illness or disease;
- delirium, dementia, and depression;
- person- and family-centred care;
- collaboration with the interprofessional team;
- communication strategies;
- assessments; and
- evidence-based pharmacological and non-pharmacological interventions for older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression.

In addition, practice education opportunities should allow for meaningful and direct care of older adults. Depending on the scope of practice of the health-care provider, the expert panel suggests that students have opportunities to practice person- and family-centred care—for example, by tailoring interventions to meet the needs of older people and their families. Refer to RNAO's (2016) BPG *Practice Education in Nursing* for information regarding how to structure appropriate practice education experiences.

RECOMMENDATION 14.2:

Organizations provide opportunities for nurses and other health-care providers to enhance their competency in caring for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression. Pertinent educational content should be provided during the orientation of new staff and students, and continuously through refresher courses and professional development opportunities.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

Discussion of Evidence:

Health-care providers require ongoing education to build and maintain their clinical knowledge and skills, and to foster the attitudes necessary for caring for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression effectively (AGS, 2014; CCSMH, 2010; Development Group, 2010). This is important because delirium, dementia, and depression are complex conditions. For example, health-care providers struggle to distinguish between delirium and dementia, and to manage some of the mood and behavioural symptoms of dementia (Brody & Galvin, 2013; Yanamadala, Wieland, & Heflin, 2013). To address these complex issues, refresher or booster sessions are recommended (AGS, 2014, 2015; Eggenberger et al., 2013). In other words, one-time training programs are unlikely to be effective.

To develop competencies, education must build on (or, in some cases, compensate for a lack of) training provided in college and university programs, and learning needs to be reinforced over time. Therefore, the expert panel recommends that education on delirium, dementia, and depression should be provided during the orientation of new staff and students on clinical placements, and continuously through refresher courses and professional development opportunities to improve skills and promote confidence in providing care.

A range of content is recommended with respect to health-care-provider training. The following is a summary of the key content areas highlighted in reviews specific to health-care-provider training and expert panel recommendations. Table 7 outlines educational content identified from the literature and clinical guidelines.

Resources to support this recommendation include competency frameworks applicable to the region and scope of practice (e.g., the Canadian Gerontological Nursing Association's *Gerontological Nursing Competencies and Standards of Practice*), and RNAO's (2016) BPG *Practice Education in Nursing*.

Educational Content Recommended by the Literature

The literature supports education focused on communication skills, BPSD, and person-centred care. Findings from a moderately rated systematic review indicate that educating those who work with people with dementia (in a range of institutional and home-care settings) in effective communication skills improves the quality of life and well-being of people with dementia and increases positive interactions. Communication skills training also has a positive influence on

health-care-provider knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Eggenberger et al., 2013). Training on the topic of BPSD has, in general, shown positive results in two systematic reviews (Reis, Dalpai, & Camozzato, 2013; Spector et al., 2013), and person-centred training has been found to reduce agitation and the need for antipsychotic medications for people with dementia (Fossey et al., 2014).

The literature indicates that education should focus not only on increasing content knowledge, but should also foster attitudes and practices conducive to the care of people with delirium, dementia, and depression. For example, a moderately rated systematic review and meta-synthesis indicates that education should help health-care providers value and appreciate psychosocial and non-pharmacological interventions, understand the benefits of these interventions, and address fears that learners may have (Lawrence et al., 2012). Education should also promote the value of person-centred care practices that respect and honour the person, and provide opportunities for self-expression (Lawrence et al., 2012). Furthermore, Elliott, Scott, Stirling, Martin, & Robinson (2012) indicated that education should address healthy-work-environment issues, such as stress management and psychological well-being for health-care providers.

Educational Content Recommended by the Expert Panel

Screening and Assessment Tools

The expert panel recommends that health-care providers receive adequate training on the accurate use of screening and assessment tools. Training should emphasize that these tools are only one aspect of care and are to be used as an adjunct to clinical judgment, and that screening occurs within the context of additional follow-up and intervention. Furthermore, health-care providers must learn how to conduct screenings and assessments with sensitivity to the possible effects of stigma, cultural beliefs, or fears the person may have in relation to delirium, dementia, or depression. The expert panel suggests that health-care providers be taught that, before engaging in screening and assessment processes, they should explain what they are doing and why, obtain consent from the person, and proceed in a manner that promotes the person's understanding and dignity.

Self-Care and Safety of the Health-Care Provider

The expert panel recommends that educational programs acknowledge the importance of self-care for health-care providers, given the challenges that caring for people with delirium, dementia, and/or depression may entail (e.g., issues such as work stress and burnout). It is also important to acknowledge the potential safety concerns for health-care providers who are providing care for people whose physical behaviours may put the health-care provider at risk of injury. For more information, see RNAO's Healthy Work Place Environment BPGs (available at www.RNAO.ca/bpg/guidelines/hwe-guidelines) and the de-escalation tips in RNAO's (2012a) BPG *Promoting Safety: Alternative Approaches to the Use of Restraints*.

Table 7: Suggested Topics for Educational Programs for Nurses and Other Health-Care Providers

GENERAL RECOMMENDED CONTENT	REFERENCES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Normal aging ■ Diseases of old age ■ How to conduct a comprehensive assessment with the older adult and family* ■ Foundational content/guiding principles, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ person- and family centred care □ acknowledging and building on strengths □ engaging families □ care transitions⁶ (including coordination of care across health-care settings)* □ therapeutic relationships and relational practice* □ communication strategies □ interprofessional collaboration ■ Self-care and safety for health-care providers* ■ Reflective practice⁶ for health-care providers* 	Elliott et al., 2012; Fossey et al., 2014; Lawrence et al., 2012; RNAO, 2010a, 2010b
CONTENT APPLICABLE TO DELIRIUM, DEMENTIA, AND DEPRESSION	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Background information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ epidemiology □ pathophysiology □ types of delirium, dementia, and depression □ impact of delirium, dementia, and depression on older adults and their families ■ Signs and symptoms of delirium, dementia, and depression, and overlapping clinical features of the three conditions ■ Accurate use of tools for screening and assessment ■ Conducting screening and assessment with critical clinical judgment and with sensitivity to the person's individual needs and preferences* ■ Atypical presentation in older adults (e.g.,- somatic signs of depression)* ■ Common diagnostic tests or procedures ■ Documentation and referral processes ■ Management strategies: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ types and benefits of non-pharmacological approaches and psychosocial interventions □ pharmacological interventions: benefits, harms, and precautions of medications ■ Alternatives to the use of restraints* ■ Resources, supports, and local services ■ Addressing personal attitudes and stigma, and building cultural competence* ■ Educational and supportive interventions for family and caregivers 	CCSMH, 2010; Development Group, 2010; Giebel et al., 2015; Lawrence et al., 2012; RNAO, 2010a, 2010b

Table continued on next page.

ADDITIONAL CONTENT—DELIRIUM	REFERENCES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Predisposing and precipitating factors for delirium ■ Urgency (delirium is a medical emergency) ■ Strategies to prevent delirium* 	CCSMH, 2010
ADDITIONAL CONTENT—DEMENTIA	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Knowledge and understanding of BPSD, and possible reasons for behaviours ■ Strategies for managing/responding to BPSD ■ Ethical and legal aspects related to dementia (e.g., elder abuse, advanced care planning, mental capacity) ■ Assessment and management of pain (nonverbal) ■ Strategies to preserve abilities and delay decline ■ Communication strategies for people with dementia 	Development Group, 2010; Eggenberger et al., 2013; Enmarker et al., 2011; Konno et al., 2013; Livingston et al., 2014; Pieper et al., 2013; RNAO, 2010a
ADDITIONAL CONTENT—DEPRESSION	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Signs and symptoms of depression unique to older adults ■ Importance of screening for suicide risk <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ early recognition □ immediate referral □ how to ask about suicide* ■ Recovery from depression is possible* 	Dreizler et al., 2014; O'Connor et al., 2009; RNAO, 2010a

Note: Content added by the expert panel is indicated with an asterisk (*).

RECOMMENDATION 14.3:

Design dynamic, evidence-based educational programs on delirium, dementia, and depression that support the transfer of knowledge and skills to the practice setting. Such programs should be:

- interactive and multimodal (level of evidence = Ia),
- interprofessional (level of evidence = Ia),
- tailored to address learners' needs (level of evidence = V),
- reinforced at the point of care by strategies and tools (level of evidence = Ia), and
- supported by trained champions or clinical experts (level of evidence = Ia).

Discussion of Evidence:

The systematic review conducted for this Guideline found a limited number of strong studies outlining which educational interventions best support the acquisition of knowledge and skills needed to care effectively for older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression (Beeber, Zimmerman, Fletcher, Mitchell, & Gould, 2010; Elliott et al., 2012; Rampatige, Dunt, Doyle, Day, & van Dort, 2009). Many reviews show some increase in knowledge or confidence, but the link between these improvements and practice changes leading to improved clinical outcomes or longer-term outcomes is unclear (Beeber et al., 2010; Brody & Galvin, 2013; Sockalingam et al., 2014; Yanamadala et al., 2013).

One moderately rated systematic review found that only 2 percent of training manuals for care of people with dementia were based on evidence (Fossey et al., 2014). Although this study was focused only on dementia care training, it raises the importance of ensuring that educational programs align with evidence-based best practices.

Below is a discussion of evidence that supports the value of educational programs that are interactive and multimodal, interprofessional, tailored to learners' needs, reinforced at the point of care, and supported by clinical experts or trained champions^G.

Interactive and Multimodal Approaches

Educational programs that are interactive and multimodal appear to enhance learning (Perry et al., 2011; Rampatige et al., 2009; Yanamadala et al., 2013). Education should be based on the principles of adult learning (CCSMH, 2010) and should actively engage the learner (Perry et al., 2011). Examples of interactive and multimodal approaches noted in the literature include case-based discussion, practice-based workshops, role plays, vignettes, videos, and small group discussion (AGS, 2014; Chien et al., 2011; Lawrence et al., 2012; Yanamadala et al., 2013). Educators on the expert panel suggest that games and simulation activities may also help support application of knowledge.

Interprofessional Education

Overall, interprofessional education as a strategy for delirium, dementia, and depression knowledge advancement is supported in the literature (Blackburn & Bradshaw, 2014; Brody & Galvin, 2013; Sockalingam et al., 2014). Interprofessional educational programs can be defined as programs that “foster interactive learning between individuals and groups in two or more professions with the goal of improving collaboration and the quality of care” (Sockalingam et al., 2014, p. 34). A systematic review of randomized controlled trials points out, however, that interprofessional education alone is not sufficient; it must be paired with interprofessional clinical activities and an organizational commitment to interprofessional approaches (Sockalingam et al., 2014) (see [Recommendation 15.1](#)). Comprehensive training and interprofessional collaboration practices within an organization have the potential to improve team performance and collaboration, enhance quality of care, and reduce rates of delirium (Sockalingam et al., 2014). Blackburn & Bradshaw (2014) found interprofessional teams to be the *gold standard of care* for dementia.

Tailored to Address Learners' Needs

Education sessions should also be tailored to address learners' needs (AGS, 2014; CCSMH, 2010; Eggenberger et al., 2013). The expert panel suggests that content be developed to account for variability in expertise, and be adjusted to baseline knowledge, level of education, skill set, and scope of practice of the learner. Furthermore, education sessions should be flexible, taking into account the reality of the workplace, and held at locations convenient to the learner. One-on-one follow-up learning sessions are also helpful because feedback can be tailored for the individual, thereby enhancing learning (Eggenberger et al., 2013).

Reinforcing Learning with Tools, Resources, and Trained Champions or Clinical Experts

Educational programs are more effective when they are combined with strategies that reinforce and support learning (Eggenberger et al., 2013). These include the use of clinical pathways, assessment tools, pocket cards, and tip sheets (AGS, 2014; Yanamadala et al., 2013). Feedback at the point of care—for example, bedside teaching and coaching sessions to identify hypoactive delirium—supports learning (AGS, 2014; Eggenberger et al., 2013). Champions and clinical experts help health-care providers maintain new skills and reinforce best practices (AGS, 2014; Eggenberger et al., 2013; Yanamadala et al., 2013).

Although findings from the systematic review do not cover educational needs for all health-care providers—or for delirium, dementia, and depression in all clinical settings—the expert panel suggests that the delivery of tailored, interactive, and multimodal educational programs to interprofessional groups, reinforced by tools and knowledgeable staff, are sound educational approaches that have been found to be effective in practice. Therefore, the expert panel recommends that these principles be applied across health-care settings and for all three conditions. In settings where formal mentors (e.g., designated clinical educators) do not exist, the organization can train and empower informal champions to act as a peer-to-peer mentors to reinforce ongoing learning at the point of care.

In summary, the expert panel suggests that educational programs be designed so that they effectively build knowledge and skills that can be converted to practice change. Simply attending a lecture or requiring all health-care providers to complete an online course is insufficient to build capacity and the ability to care effectively for persons with complex conditions such as delirium, dementia, and depression. Health-care providers must learn skills over time, and have opportunities to apply those skills in practice within the context of interprofessional care and with support from people with advanced knowledge.

See RNAO's (2016) BPG *Practice Education in Nursing* for additional information and resources on the provision of quality practice education.

RECOMMENDATION 14.4:

Evaluate educational programs on delirium, dementia, and depression to determine whether they meet desired outcomes, such as practice changes and improved health outcomes. Refine programs as required.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

Educational programs for delirium, dementia and depression need to be evaluated to determine if they meet desired outcomes. To date, few evaluation studies report on outcomes of educational programs (Beeber et al., 2010; Brody & Galvin, 2013; Sockalingam et al., 2014; Yanamadala et al., 2013). The expert panel points out that although participant satisfaction and staff knowledge are important, educational programs should aim to affect higher-level learning outcomes and examine the extent to which education produces changes in health-care-provider behaviour and health outcomes. Furthermore, educational programs should be revised or redesigned, as needed, to ensure that programs build competency and sustainable practice change.

Resources to support this recommendation include the section on Evaluating and Monitoring This Guideline, which provides structure, process, and outcome indicators; and RNAO's (2012b) *Toolkit: Implementation of Best Practice Guidelines*.



Organization and Policy Recommendations

15.0 ORGANIZATION AND POLICY

RECOMMENDATION 15.1:

Organizations demonstrate leadership and maintain a commitment to foundational principles that support care for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression, including:

- person- and family-centred care (level of evidence = Ia),
- collaborative, interprofessional care (level of evidence = Ia), and
- healthy work environments (level of evidence = V).

Discussion of Evidence:

Consistent evidence supports the recommendation that caring for people with delirium, dementia, and depression requires person- and family-centred principles and collaborative, interprofessional care. Following is a discussion of evidence to support each concept.

Person- and Family-Centred Care

Person- and family-centred care is highlighted across the literature for delirium, dementia, and depression as an important and effective strategy for supporting people with these conditions (Cabrera et al., 2015; Enmarker et al., 2011; Konno et al., 2013; Lawrence et al., 2012; Livingston et al., 2014; NICE, 2009, 2010; Spenceley et al., 2015). For example, these approaches are important when engaging families in the assessment processes (Inouye et al., 2014; NICE, 2009) and when developing individualized plans of care.

Person- and family-centred care is a broad concept that encompasses various principles, attitudes, behaviours, and approaches to care (RNAO, 2015b). The overarching themes outlined in RNAO's (2015b) BPG *Person- and Family-Centred Care* are consistent with the delirium, dementia, and depression literature. These include:

1. establishing a therapeutic relationship for true partnership, continuity of care, and shared decision-making;
2. care is organized around, and respectful of, the person;
3. knowing the whole person (holistic care); and
4. communication, collaboration, and engagement.

See [Appendix A](#) for the definition of person- and family-centred care, and see RNAO's (2015b) BPG, *Person- and Family-Centred Care* for a more extensive discussion and recommendations.

Adopting person- and family-centred approaches to care takes time to plan and coordinate, especially for people with dementia (Konno et al., 2013; Lawrence et al., 2012). Furthermore, adopting a person- and family-centred approach requires training, adequate staffing, supervision, and organizational support (Beeber et al., 2010; Eggenberger et al., 2013; Fossey et al., 2014; Lawrence et al., 2012; Livingston et al., 2014; Seitz et al., 2012; Spector et al., 2013). While the need for organizational support for person- and family-centred care is highlighted primarily in the dementia literature, the expert panel emphasizes that this is a foundational principle for delirium and depression as well, and is applicable for all types of health-care organizations.

Collaborative, Interprofessional Care

Collaborative, interprofessional care is also consistently recommended for the care of people with delirium, dementia, and depression (Brody & Galvin, 2013; Chang-Quan et al., 2009; Cody & Drysdale, 2013; Dreizler et al., 2014; Nguyen & Vu, 2013; NICE, 2009, 2012b; O'Connor et al., 2009; Sockalingam et al., 2014; Spenceley et al., 2015; Thyrian, Wubbelier, & Hoffmann, 2013; Trangle et al., 2016). For example, interprofessional collaboration can reduce rates of delirium, as found in a moderately rated systematic review (Sockalingam et al., 2014). It has also been found to promote quality care for people with dementia (Brody & Galvin, 2013; Dreizler et al., 2014), and improve the effectiveness of depression treatment (Chang-Quan et al., 2009), particularly among people with complex depression and chronic health conditions (NICE, 2009).

Healthy Work Environments

It is well established that work stress and burnout negatively impact care (Elliott et al., 2012). The expert panel recommends that organizations demonstrate leadership and a commitment to promoting healthy work environments^G. This includes addressing the well-being of staff, and ensuring appropriate workloads and staffing levels.

Promoting healthy work environments was recommended in RNAO's (2010a) *BPG Caregiving Strategies for Older Adults with Delirium, Dementia and Depression*. The Guideline suggested that organizations recognize that health-care providers' well-being is vital to the care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression (RNAO, 2010a). Furthermore, to support the complex needs of people with delirium, dementia, and depression, workload and staffing decisions should consider the level of complexity of the needs of the population, and the expertise required (Conn et al., 2014; RNAO, 2010a). For in-depth information and guidelines on healthy work environments, see RNAO's Healthy Work Place Environment Guidelines at <http://RNAO.ca/bpg/guidelines/hwe-guidelines>.

Demonstrating Principles Through Leadership and Commitment

Organizations can demonstrate leadership and a commitment to person- and family-centred care, interprofessional collaborative care, and healthy work environments in various ways. For example, organizations can ensure that principles of person- and family-centred care are embedded in their mission and vision, dedicate resources for education and skill building, and measure and monitor outcomes (RNAO, 2015b). Further information can be found in RNAO's (2012b) *Toolkit: Implementation of Best Practice Guidelines* and among the indicators for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of this Guideline (see the section on Evaluating and Monitoring This Guideline).

RECOMMENDATION 15.2:

Organizations select validated screening and assessment tools for delirium, dementia, and depression that are appropriate to the population and health-care setting, and provide training and infrastructure to support their application.

Level of Evidence = V

Discussion of Evidence:

The expert panel recommends that organizations determine which screening and assessment tools should be used in their clinical setting(s). This is important because, while a variety of tools are available, many are not universally appropriate (Clevenger et al., 2012; Jackson et al., 2013; Lischka et al., 2012). It is important to use tools that demonstrate reliability^G and validity for the population and clinical setting (Trangle et al., 2016). For example, organizations should determine which tools should be used if an older adult is unable to participate fully in the assessment process (Conn et al., 2015; RNAO, 2010a).

Culturally appropriate versions of tools should be used whenever possible. If language barriers exist, the expert panel recommends the use of professional translators. Other considerations for tool selection include the context of the clinical setting, the time and resources available, and the clinical skills of staff (Conn et al., 2015; Development Group, 2010; NICE, 2009; RNAO, 2010a; Trangle et al., 2016; U.S. Preventative Services Task Force, 2014).

To optimize implementation of screening and assessment tools, organizations should ensure staff are appropriately trained (see [Recommendations 14.2](#) and [14.3](#)), and that supporting infrastructure (e.g., documentation and monitoring systems) is in place. For further information, see RNAO's (2012b) *Toolkit: Implementation of Best Practice Guidelines*. See [Appendix H](#) for a list of screening tools.

RECOMMENDATION 15.3:

Organizations implement comprehensive, multi-component programs, delivered by collaborative teams within organizations, to address delirium, dementia, and depression (level of evidence = Ia).

These should be supported by:

- comprehensive educational programs (level of evidence = V),
- clinical experts and champions (level of evidence = Ia), and
- organizational processes that align with best practices (level of evidence = V).

Discussion of Evidence:

Comprehensive, multi-component programs have been recommended in the literature and clinical guidelines as a way to effectively address delirium, dementia, and depression. For people at risk for delirium, this includes the delivery of prevention strategies by an interprofessional team throughout the course of hospitalization (AGS, 2014; Khan et al., 2012; Martinez et al., 2015). For example, the Hospital Elder Life Program (HELP), highlighted by a meta-analysis and literature review, is a comprehensive program that uses an interprofessional team and trained volunteers to implement multi-component interventions to prevent delirium and functional decline (Hsieh et al., 2015; Inouye et al., 2014).

For care of people with dementia, the literature highlights the importance of identifying needs and developing individualized plans of care that include a wide range of non-pharmacological interventions to address behavioural and psychological symptoms (see [Recommendation 7.1](#)).

For the primary-care sector, comprehensive programs for depression management include treatment protocols, patient education, training of all office staff, and arranging referrals and post-visit follow-up care (O'Connor et al., 2009).

The successful delivery of comprehensive multi-component programs for delirium, dementia, and depression can be enabled by various factors. First, health-care providers need to be adequately trained in how to implement the programs, and their training must be reinforced over time with the support of experts and champions (see [Recommendations 14.2](#) and [14.3](#)). Second, some aspects of programs may need to be delivered by people with specialized training (e.g., music therapy, reminiscence, and depression therapies) (Housden, 2009; Livingston et al., 2014; NICE, 2012b).

Leadership and commitment at the organizational level is important in order to support the implementation of these programs (see [Recommendation 15.1](#)), and having specific procedures, processes, and resources in place may facilitate consistent implementation. Examples include the availability of manuals for managers and staff that outline best practices (Livingston et al., 2014), screening processes that are embedded in electronic documentation processes (RNAO, 2010a), and care pathways and order sets.

RECOMMENDATION 15.4:

Establish processes within organizations to ensure that relevant information and care planning for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression is communicated and coordinated over the course of treatment and during care transitions.

Level of Evidence = Ia & V

Discussion of Evidence:

The expert panel recommends that organizations establish processes to communicate and coordinate care for people with delirium, dementia, and depression within and across care settings. This includes “appropriate processes to transfer information (e.g., appropriate referrals, communication, documentation, policies that support formal methods of information transfer, and networking between healthcare providers)” (RNAO, 2010a, p. 13).

Communication and coordination of care is necessary because care is provided across different settings, throughout the course or progression of illness, and between care providers within individual health-care settings. Communication and coordination are particularly important in order to maintain consistency with personalized, tailored interventions (Lawrence et al., 2012), and for safety (Kuske et al., 2014). RNAO’s (2014b) BPG *Care Transitions* outlines various strategies for maintaining safe, effective, coordinated care.

Case management^G and case conferencing are two strategies identified in the literature for communicating and coordinating care for people with dementia. For the care of people with dementia, case management can help address both health and social changes, can offer comprehensive support, and can enhance the delivery of multi-component interventions (Zabalegui et al., 2014). Other potential benefits include decreased caregiver burden and reduced institutionalization (Reilly et al., 2015; Zabalegui et al., 2014). Systematic review evidence suggests that case management may be more successful if the caseload is reasonable, if roles are clearly articulated within the interprofessional team, if it is reserved for people with prominent symptoms of dementia (Khanassov, Vedel, & Pluye, 2014), and if there is integration between health and social professionals (Somme et al., 2012).

Two reviews discussed case conferencing, in which health-care providers and care partners meet to discuss and develop a person-centred plan of care (Phillips, West, Davidson, & Agar, 2013). Reuther et al. (2012) found that evidence on the outcomes of case conferencing was not well proven. However, Phillips et al. (2013) outlined several potential benefits for people with advanced dementia living in long-term care. These included enhanced communication, coordination and care planning, and family and health-care-team engagement; and prevention of unnecessary hospitalization or enhanced care transitions if hospitalization was required. The expert panel suggests that case conferencing may be useful in other settings as well.

Research Gaps and Future Implications

The RNAO Best Practice Guideline Program Team and expert panel, in reviewing the evidence for this Guideline, identified the priority areas for research set out in Table 9. They are broadly categorized into practice, outcome, and health-system research.

Table 9: Priority Practice, Outcome, and Health-System Research Areas

CATEGORY	PRIORITY RESEARCH AREA
Practice Research	Effective strategies for assessing and caring for persons with delirium in home-care settings
	The effectiveness of non-pharmacological interventions for active delirium
	Effective strategies for the assessment and management of delirium in emergency settings
	Effective management of and appropriate responses to sexualized or sexually disinhibited behaviours in persons with dementia
	Comparison studies examining whether or not to routinely screen people for depression, and in which health-care settings depression screening should take place
	Evidence-based core competencies for delirium, dementia, and depression training
Outcome Research	Effectiveness of educational programs for delirium, dementia, and depression that lead to improved practice changes
	Feasibility of educational programs or continuing education addressing delirium, dementia, and depression in older adults for nurses and health-care providers
	Outcomes of strategies used to support health-care organizations to implement multi-component programs to address delirium, dementia, and depression
	Outcomes of educational institutions' implementation of content regarding delirium, dementia and depression in older adults
Health-System Research	Evaluation studies on particular intervention programs delivered within health-care organizations to address delirium, dementia, and depression
	Comparison studies on effective implementation strategies for organizational policies that promote leadership in delirium, dementia, and depression

The above table, though not exhaustive, is an attempt to identify and prioritize the research needed with respect to delirium, dementia, and depression in older adults. Many of the recommendations in this Guideline are based on quantitative and qualitative research evidence; others are based on the other clinical guidelines or RNAO expert panel opinion. Further substantive research is required to validate some of these recommendations. Increasing the research evidence will lead to improved care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression.

Implementation Strategies

Implementing guidelines at the point of care is multi-faceted and challenging; it takes more than awareness and distribution of guidelines for practice to change. Guidelines must be adapted for each practice setting in a systematic and participatory way, to ensure recommendations fit the local context (Harrison, Graham, Fervers, & Hoek, 2013). The RNAO (2012b) *Toolkit: Implementation of Best Practice Guidelines* provides an evidence-informed process for doing this (see [Appendix L](#)).

The *Toolkit* is based on emerging evidence that successful uptake of best practice in health care is more likely when:

- Leaders at all levels are committed to supporting guideline implementation;
- Guidelines are selected for implementation through a systematic, participatory process;
- Stakeholders for whom the guidelines are relevant are identified and engaged in the implementation;
- Environmental readiness for implementing guidelines is assessed;
- The guideline is tailored to the local context;
- Barriers and facilitators to using the guideline are assessed and addressed;
- Interventions to promote use of the guideline are selected;
- Use of the guideline is systematically monitored and sustained;
- Evaluation of the guideline's impact is embedded in the process; and
- There are adequate resources to complete all aspects of the implementation.

The *Toolkit* uses the “Knowledge-to-Action” framework (Straus, Tetroe, Graham, Zwarenstein, & Bhattacharyya, 2009) to demonstrate the process steps required for knowledge inquiry and synthesis. It also guides the adaptation of the new knowledge to the local context and implementation. This framework suggests identifying and using knowledge tools, such as guidelines, to identify gaps and to begin the process of tailoring the new knowledge to local settings.

RNAO is committed to widespread deployment and implementation of our Best Practice Guidelines (BPGs). We use a coordinated approach to dissemination, incorporating a variety of strategies, including:

1. the Nursing Best Practice Champion Network[®], which develops the capacity of individual nurses to foster awareness, engagement, and adoption of BPGs;
2. nursing order sets[®], which provide clear, concise, actionable intervention statements derived from the BPGs' practice recommendations that can be readily embedded within electronic medical records, but may also be used in paper-based or hybrid environments; and
3. the Best Practice Spotlight Organization[®] (BPSO[®]) designation, which supports implementation at the organization and system levels. BPSOs[®] focus on developing evidence-based cultures with the specific mandate to implement, evaluate, and sustain multiple RNAO BPGs.

In addition, we offer annual capacity-building learning institutes on specific BPGs and their implementation.

Information about our implementation strategies can be found at:

- RNAO Best Practice Champions Network[®] : www.RNAO.ca/bpg/get-involved/champions
- RNAO Nursing Order Sets: www.RNAO.ca/bpg/initiatives/nursing-order-sets
- RNAO Best Practice Spotlight Organizations[®] : www.RNAO.ca/bpg/bpsos
- RNAO capacity-building learning institutes and other professional development opportunities: www.RNAO.ca/events

Evaluating and Monitoring This Guideline

As you implement the recommendations in this Guideline, we ask you to consider how you will monitor and evaluate its implementation and impact.

Table 10 is based on a framework outlined in RNAO’s (2012b) *Toolkit: Implementation of Best Practice Guidelines* and illustrates some specific indicators for monitoring and evaluating implementation of this Guideline.

Table 10: Structure, Process, and Outcome Indicators

TYPE OF INDICATOR		
STRUCTURE	PROCESS	OUTCOME
These indicators refer to the supports and resources required by a health system, health service organization, or academic institution to enable the successful implementation of the <i>Guideline Delirium, Dementia, and Depression in Older Adults: Assessment and Care</i> .	These indicators evaluate whether best practices directed at the education, training, and practice of health-care professionals to improve the assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression have been implemented.	These indicators evaluate the impact of implementing the Guideline recommendations on health-care organizations, health-care professionals, and client outcomes.
	Health-care-provider education- and training-specific process indicators	Health-care-provider-specific outcome indicators
Establishment of a system-level committee to review best practices related to the assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression.	Percentage of students who receive training on delirium, dementia, and depression in entry-level health-care programs.	Percentage of new graduates (nurses and/or other health-care providers) who report satisfaction with education and training received on assessing and caring for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression.
System-wide integration of policies consistent with best practices and Guideline recommendations for supporting older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression.	Percentage of students who participate in clinical/practical opportunities related to care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression.	Percentage of new graduates (nurses and/or other health-care providers) who demonstrate novice-level knowledge and skills for the assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression using a person and family-centred care approach.
Organizations establish the assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression as a strategic clinical priority.	Percentage of nurses and other health-care providers who attend orientation, continuing education, or training sessions related to the care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression.	Percentage of nurses and/or other health-care providers who report increased confidence in effectively assessing and caring for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression as a result of organizational education programs.
Availability of adequate financial resources to support and implement Guideline recommendations.	Percentage of nurses or other health-care providers who complete an annual performance review that includes an assessment of competencies for delirium, dementia, and depression.	
Organizations adopt and implement evidence-based policies and procedures that support assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression.		

TYPE OF INDICATOR		
STRUCTURE	PROCESS	OUTCOME
<p>Organizational programs that care for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression integrate principles of person- and family-centred care, collaborative interprofessional care, and healthy work environments.</p> <p>Organizational availability of educational resources for nurses and other health-care providers related to the assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression prior to, during, and after Guideline implementation.</p> <p>Organizations provide professional development activities related to the assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression (e.g., in-services, clinical training/orientation, development of policies and procedures, development of documentation forms).</p> <p>Organizations adopt and provide appropriate documentation protocols/standards/tools that support assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression, including: screening and assessment processes, interventions, referrals, care planning, and evaluation/follow-up.</p> <p>Organizations establish processes to communicate and coordinate care for older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression.</p> <p>Units, programs, services, or teams implement appropriate tools to screen and/or assess older adults for delirium, dementia, and depression.</p> <p>Units, programs, services, or teams provide training programs on delirium, dementia, and depression for nurses and other health-care providers.</p>		

TYPE OF INDICATOR		
STRUCTURE	PROCESS	OUTCOME
<p>Performance reviews for nurses and other health-care providers are conducted annually. These emphasize the importance of reflective practice and ongoing professional development with regard to the assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression.</p> <p>Availability of educational resources for undergraduate nursing and other health-care-provider programs that are consistent with best practices for the assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression.</p> <p>Incorporation of clinical/practical opportunities related to the assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression into basic and interprofessional curricula for nurses and other health-care providers.</p> <p>Availability of champions and clinical experts to assist nurses and other health-care providers to adopt best practices in the assessment and care of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression.</p> <p>Availability of skilled educators to develop/strengthen and evaluate educational programs for nurses and other health-care providers on delirium, dementia, and depression so that these align with best practices.</p>		

TYPE OF INDICATOR		
	PERSON-SPECIFIC PROCESS INDICATORS	PERSON-SPECIFIC OUTCOME INDICATORS
	<p>Percentage of older adults referred for assessment, diagnosis, and follow-up when assessments indicate possible delirium, dementia, and/or depression.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults who are suspected of delirium, dementia, and/or depression with documentation of a comprehensive assessment or a referral for a comprehensive assessment.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults (and/or families/care partners, as appropriate) who are provided education about delirium, dementia, and/or depression.</p> <p>Delirium:</p> <p>Percentage of older adults assessed for delirium risk factors upon first contact (e.g., admission or initiation of care).</p> <p>Percentage of older adults at risk for delirium with an established delirium prevention plan.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults at risk for delirium who are assessed for the presence of delirium using an appropriate tool.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults with a documented assessment of the underlying causes of delirium.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults with an individualized plan of care to manage delirium.</p>	<p>Percentage of older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression (and/or their families, as appropriate) who have participated in developing an individualized plan of care.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression (and/or their families, as appropriate) reporting that plans of care for delirium, dementia, and/or depression are person- and family-centred and individualized.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression (and/or their families, as appropriate) who report that nurses and/or other health-care providers communicate effectively (e.g., use therapeutic communication and apply communication strategies effective for people with impaired cognition).</p> <p>Delirium:</p> <p>Percentage of older adults whose screening/assessments are positive for delirium.</p> <p>Incidence of delirium in older adults (over the course of the admission).</p> <p>Prevalence of delirium in older adults.</p> <p>Average length of stay in hospital for older adults with delirium.</p>

TYPE OF INDICATOR		
	PERSON-SPECIFIC PROCESS INDICATORS	PERSON-SPECIFIC OUTCOME INDICATORS
	<p>Dementia:</p> <p>Percentage of older adults with a documented assessment of the underlying causes/unmet needs contributing to behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults with dementia who have been assessed for pain.</p> <p>Depression:</p> <p>Percentage of older adults who have been assessed for depression when risk factors or signs and symptoms of depression are documented.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults at risk for depression who have been assessed for suicide risk.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults at risk for suicide who receive urgent medical attention.</p>	<p>Dementia:</p> <p>Prevalence of dementia in older adults.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults with non-pharmacological interventions established to manage behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults with dementia who are prescribed psychotropic medication.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults with behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia who are physically restrained.</p> <p>Depression:</p> <p>Prevalence of depression in older adults.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults identified as at risk for depression with suicidal ideation on admission or initiation of care.</p> <p>Percentage of older adults at risk for suicide (either with suspected or confirmed diagnosis of depression).</p>

Other RNAO resources for the evaluation and monitoring of Best Practice Guidelines:

- Nursing Quality Indicators for Reporting and Evaluation[®] (NQuIRE[®]) were designed for RNAO’s Best Practice Spotlight Organizations[®] (BPSO[®]) to systematically monitor the progress and evaluate the outcomes of implementing RNAO best practice guidelines in their organizations. NQuIRE is the first international quality improvement initiative of its kind consisting of a database of quality indicators derived from recommendations of selected RNAO clinical Best Practice Guidelines. Please visit www.RNAO.ca/bpg/initiatives/nquire for more information.
- Nursing order sets embedded within electronic medical records provide a mechanism for electronic data capture of process indicators. The ability to link structure and process indicators with specific client outcome indicators aids in determining the impact of BPG implementation on specific client health outcomes. Please visit www.RNAO.ca/ehealth/nursingordersets for more information.

Process for Update and Review of the Guideline

The Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario commits to updating its Best Practice Guidelines (BPGs) as follows:

1. Each nursing BPG will be reviewed by a team of specialists in the topic area every five years following publication of the previous edition.
2. RNAO International Affairs and Best Practice Guideline (IABPG) Centre staff regularly monitor for new systematic reviews, randomized controlled trials, and other relevant literature in the field.
3. Based on that monitoring, staff may recommend an earlier revision period for a particular BPG. Appropriate consultation with members of the original expert panel and other specialists and experts in the field will help inform the decision to review and revise the BPG earlier than planned.
4. Three months prior to the review milestone, the staff commences planning of the review by:
 - a) Inviting specialists in the field to participate on the expert panel. The panel will be comprised of members from the original panel as well as other recommended specialists and experts.
 - b) Compiling feedback received and questions encountered during the implementation, including comments and experiences of Best Practice Spotlight Organizations[®] and other implementation sites regarding their experiences.
 - c) Compiling a list of new clinical practice guidelines in the field and refining the purpose and scope.
 - d) Developing a detailed work plan with target dates and deliverables for developing a new edition of the BPG.
5. New editions of BPGs will be disseminated based on established structures and processes.

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Appendix A: Glossary of Terms

Activities of daily living: “Activities usually performed in the course of a normal day, including ambulation, eating, dressing, bathing, brushing the teeth, and grooming” (Ross-Kerr, Wood, Astle, & Duggleby, 2014, p. 189).

Advanced care planning: “A multistage process whereby a patient and their carers achieve a shared understanding of their goals and preferences for future care” (Robinson et al., 2012, p. 262).

Analytical studies: Analytical studies test hypotheses about exposure–outcome relationships. The investigators do not assign an intervention, exposure, or treatment, but do measure the association between exposure and outcome over time using a comparison group (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2013). Analytical study designs include case-control studies and cohort studies.

Case-control study: A study that compares people with a specific disease or outcome of interest (cases) to people from the same population without that disease or outcome (controls) (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2005).

Cohort study: An observational study in which a defined group of people (the cohort) is followed over time either prospectively or retrospectively (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2005).

Antipsychotic medications: “Antipsychotic medicines are used primarily to manage psychosis. The word “psychosis” is used to describe conditions that affect the mind, and in which there has been some loss of contact with reality, often including delusions (false, fixed beliefs) or hallucinations (hearing or seeing things that are not really there). It can be a symptom of a physical condition, such as drug abuse, or a mental disorder, such as schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, or very severe depression (also known as “psychotic depression”)” (National Institute for Mental Health, 2016).

Behavioural activation: “A structured, goal-focused, therapeutic approach that encourages engagement in rewarding activities rather than withdrawal and inactivity. Behavioural activation aims to increase the levels of positive reinforcement experienced by the client” (SIGN, 2010, p. 27).

Behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia (BPSD): A term used to describe the way a person expresses his/her needs and exhibits symptoms of dementia, including through changes in mood, delusions, apathy, agitation, wandering, calling out, repetitive questioning, and sexual disinhibition (Moniz Cook et al., 2012). Other terms used to describe BPSD include “neuropsychiatric symptoms,” “behavioural and emotional symptoms,” “needs-driven behaviour,” “responsive behaviours,” “personal expressions,” and “expressive behaviours.” See the discussion under Purpose and Scope.

Behavioural therapy: “Behavioural therapy addresses the negative cognitions and emotions associated with depression in an indirect way. It has been described as being different from traditional cognitive approaches in that it seeks to help patients modify their environment, not their thinking” (Samad et al., 2011, p. 1212).

Best practice guidelines: Systematically developed statements to assist practitioner and client decisions about appropriate health care for specific clinical (practice) circumstances (Field & Lohr, 1990); also called clinical practice guidelines.

Burden (caregiver burden): A term used to describe the challenges associated with caring for a person with an illness/disorder. See the discussion under Purpose and Scope.

Care transitions: “A set of actions designed to ensure the safe and effective coordination and continuity of care as individuals experience a change in health status, care needs, health-care providers, or location (within, between, or across settings)” (Coleman & Boulton, 2003, as cited in RNAO, 2014b, p. 66).

Caregiver (care partners, family caregivers): In this Guideline, the term caregiver refers to family members, friends, or others who provide care and support for another person. This term is used interchangeably with “care partners” and “family caregivers.”

Champion: RNAO defines BPG champions as “nurses and other health-care professionals who are educated and trained to better understand evidence-based practice, BPGs and the process of introducing evidence-based practice into clinical settings” (RNAO, 2012b, p. 9). Roles may include mentorship, education, and the facilitation of changes in policy and practice.

Consensus: A process for making policy decisions, not a scientific method for creating new knowledge. Consensus development makes the best use of available information, be that scientific data or the collective wisdom of the participants (Black et al., 1999).

Controlled study: A clinical trial in which the investigator assigns an intervention, exposure, or treatment to participants who are not randomly allocated to the experimental and comparison or control group (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2005).

Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT): “A structured and collaborative therapeutic approach requiring appropriate training and ongoing supervision. CBT aims to make explicit connections between thinking, emotions, physiology and behaviour, primarily through behavioural experiments and guided discovery, in order to achieve systematic change in underlying beliefs and behavioural patterns, which are thought to cause and maintain psychological problems” (SIGN, 2010, p. 27).

Culture: “Culture refers to the shared and learned values, beliefs, norms, and ways of life of an individual or group. It influences thinking, decisions, and actions” (RNAO, 2015a p. 71). “An individual’s culture is influenced by many factors, such as race, gender, religion, ethnicity, socio-economic status, sexual orientation and life experience. The extent to which particular factors influence a person will vary” (CNO, 2009a, p. 3).

Cultural competence: “Cultural competence is the application of knowledge, skills, attitudes or personal attributes required by nurses to maximize respectful relationships with diverse populations of clients and co-workers.” Clients may be individuals, families, groups, or populations. (Canadian Nurses Association, 2010, p. 1).

Cultural sensitivity: “Awareness, understanding, and attitudes toward culture and place the focus on self-awareness and insight” (RNAO, 2007, p. 71).

Descriptive studies: Studies that generate hypotheses and describe characteristics of a sample of individuals at one point in time. The investigators do not assign an intervention, exposure, or treatment to test a hypothesis, but merely describe the who, where, or when in relation to an outcome (CDC, 2013; The Cochrane Collaboration, 2005). Descriptive study designs include cross-sectional studies.

Cross-sectional study: A study measuring the distribution of some characteristic(s) in a population at a particular point in time (also called a survey) (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2005).

Education recommendations: Statements of educational requirements and educational approaches/strategies for the introduction, implementation, and sustainability of the BPG.

Evidence: Information that comes closest to the facts of a matter. The form it takes depends on context. The findings of high-quality, methodologically appropriate research provide the most accurate evidence. Because research is often incomplete and sometimes contradictory or unavailable, other kinds of information are necessary supplements to, or stand-ins for, research. The evidence base for a decision is the multiple forms of evidence combined to balance rigour with expedience while privileging the former over the latter (Canadian Health Services Research Foundation, 2005).

Family: “A term used to refer to individuals who are related (biologically, emotionally, or legally) to and/or have close bonds (friendships, commitments, shared households and child rearing responsibilities, and romantic attachments) with the person receiving health care. A person’s family may include all those whom the person identifies as significant in his or her life (e.g., parents, caregivers, friends, substitute decision-makers, groups, communities, and populations). The person receiving care determines the importance and level of involvement of any of these individuals in their care based on his or her capacity” (Saskatchewan Ministry of Health, 2011, as cited in RNAO, 2015b, p. 72).

Health-care provider: “In this guideline, the term refers to regulated health-care providers or professionals and, in some cases, to unregulated health-care providers who provide care and services to persons and their families in any setting (acute, long-term care, home health care, primary care, and community)” (RNAO, 2015b, p. 72).

Regulated health-care provider: In Ontario, the Regulated Health Professions Act, 1991 (RHPA) provides a framework for regulating 23 health professions, outlining the scope of practice and the profession-specific controlled or authorized acts that each regulated professional is authorized to perform when providing health care and services (CNO, 2014a, as cited in RNAO, 2015b, p. 72).

Unregulated health-care provider: Unregulated health-care providers (UCPs) fulfill a variety of roles in areas that are not subject to the RHPA. They are accountable to their employers but not to an external regulating professional body (e.g., College of Nurses of Ontario). UCPs fulfill a variety of roles and perform tasks that are determined by their employer and employment setting. UCPs only have the authority to perform a controlled act as set out in the RHPA if the procedure falls under one of the exemptions set out in the Act (CNO, 2013c, as cited in RNAO, 2015b, p. 72).

Healthy work environment: “A practice setting that maximizes the health and well-being of nurses (and other health-care providers), quality patient outcomes, and organizational performance” (RNAO, 2013b, p. 64).

Informed consent: “In Ontario, under s. 11 of the *Health Care Consent Act, 1996*, consent for care and treatment is informed if, before providing consent, the person receives information about treatment that a reasonable person under the same circumstances would require to make a decision and receives responses to his/her requests for additional information about the treatment. Information must be provided regarding the nature of treatment; material risks and side effects of the treatment; alternative course of action; and likely consequences of not having the treatment. In addition, consent must relate to the treatment, be informed, be voluntary, and must not be obtained through misrepresentation or fraud. A nurse (or other health-care provider) should not provide treatment if in doubt regarding whether the person understands and is able to consent” (CNO, 2013a, as cited in RNAO, 2015b, p. 73).

Instrumental activities of daily living: “These are activities that allow people to adapt to their environment and maintain independence in the community...They include activities such as: telephoning, shopping, cooking, looking after the house, using transport, managing medication, handling money, etc.” (Development Group, 2010, p. 436).

Interpersonal therapy (IPT): “A time-limited intervention that aims to reduce a person’s symptoms by working on improving the quality of his/her interpersonal relationships. IPT focuses on specific interpersonal problem areas such as grief, role transitions, and interpersonal disputes. A positive therapeutic alliance is encouraged, and a range of therapeutic strategies are employed to encourage the open expression of affect and problem resolution. Patient literacy is not required” (SIGN, 2010, p. 27).

Interprofessional health-care team: “A team comprised of multiple health-care providers (regulated and unregulated) who work collaboratively to deliver comprehensive and quality health care and services to people within, between, and across health-care settings” (RNAO, 2015b, p. 73).

Long-term care: This Guideline uses the term long-term care (LTC) generically. The term is used to refer to “any congregate living residence, created for older adults and others with chronic illnesses, disabilities, and/or deficits in activities of daily living (ADL) or instrumental activities of daily living (IADL) that necessitate skilled nursing care on a daily basis. This would include, for example, facilities known as nursing homes and complex care facilities.” (CCSMH, 2006, p. 8).

Mental capacity: Mental capacity generally refers to a person’s ability to make decisions, but definitions of mental capacity vary between jurisdictions. Under Ontario’s *Health Care Consent Act, 1996*, the legal definition of mental capacity involves the ability to understand information relevant to making a decision and to appreciate the consequences of a decision or lack of a decision.

Meta-analysis: A systematic review of randomized controlled trials that uses statistical methods to analyze and summarize the results of the included studies (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2005).

Mild cognitive impairment: “Mild cognitive impairment (MCI) causes a slight but noticeable and measurable decline in cognitive abilities, including memory and thinking skills. ... [T]he changes are not severe enough to interfere with daily life or independent function” (Alzheimer’s Association, 2016a, para. 1). People with MCI are at increased risk of developing dementia, and MCI in many cases indicates early stages of dementia. (Alzheimer’s Association, 2016a).

Mindfulness: “Mindfulness has been defined as paying attention in a particular way: on purpose, in the present moment, and non-judgmentally (in contrast to being absorbed in ruminative thinking)” (SIGN, 2010, p. 27).

Neuropsychiatric symptoms: “Neuropsychiatric symptoms are common in dementia and the majority of individuals with advanced dementia have one or more, the most common of which are agitation or aggressive behaviour, depression, apathy or withdrawal, psychosis, and aberrant motor behaviour” (Kverno et al., 2008; Zuidema et al., 2007, as cited in Kverno et al., 2009, p. 825).

Nurse: “Refers to registered nurses, licensed practical nurses (referred to as registered practical nurses in Ontario), registered psychiatric nurses, and nurses in advanced practice roles such as nurse practitioners and clinical nurse specialists” (RNAO, 2013b, p. 64).

Nursing order set: A group of evidence-based interventions specific to the domain of nursing. Nursing order sets are ordered independently by nurses (i.e., without a physician’s signature) to standardize the care provided for a specific clinical condition or situation.

Older adult: In this Guideline, the term refers to adults age 65 years and older. It may also refer to people younger than 65 who have aged prematurely or who have a shortened life expectancy due to factors such as the social determinants of health or chronic disease.

Organization and policy recommendations: Statements of conditions required for a practice setting that enable the successful implementation of the BPG. The conditions for success are largely the responsibility of the organization, although they may have implications for policy at a broader government or societal level.

Person (and family)-centred-care attitudes and behaviours: “*Person-centred-care attitudes* reflect the health-care provider’s belief in the importance of coming to know the whole person (biopsychosocial and spiritual) when assessing the person’s condition. They also include a belief in the person’s ability to make a decision; the health-care provider therefore promotes autonomy and the sharing of power.

Person-centred-care behaviours are the observed characteristics of health-care providers corresponding to person-centred-care attitudes, including verbal behaviours (e.g., asking questions in a way that shows respect, caring, and interest in what the person is saying) and non-verbal behaviours (e.g., sitting down and facing the person when speaking to them so the person feels like they are in a collegial partnership). Attitudes and behaviours are both important components of patient-centred care” (Duggan et al., 2006, as cited in RNAO, 2015b, p. 74).

Person- and family-centred care: “A person- and family-centred approach to care demonstrates certain practices that put the person and their family members at the centre of health care and services. Person- and family-centred care respects and empowers individuals to be genuine partners with health-care providers for their health. The approach includes the following common themes and attributes:

- Fostering relationships and trust;
- Empowering the person to be actively involved in making decisions regarding their health care (independence and autonomy, right to self-determination);
- Sharing of evidence-based options for care, education, and information that is unbiased, clear, and comprehensive to support the person in making decisions;
- Respecting the person and personalizing care by promoting the person’s strengths, self-knowledge, preferences, and goals for care based on their beliefs, values, culture, and their experience of health;
- Providing physical comfort within an environment that is conducive to healing;
- Offering emotional support and sympathetic presence;
- Ensuring continuity of care during transitions;
- Ensuring the person’s ability to access care and services when needed;
- Partnering with the person and their family in health system reform to improve the quality, delivery, and design of health care and services at all levels (micro, meso, and macro);
- Communicating effectively within a therapeutic relationship to promote true health-care partnerships; and
- Caring for individuals, their families, and communities by addressing determinants of health (health promotion and disease prevention)” (RNAO, 2015b, p. 75).

Polypharmacy: “The term polypharmacy refers to the group of medications one person may be taking ... It is generally used when that one person is taking too many medications, or when the drugs have been prescribed by many doctors, and may not have been coordinated well” (Rambhade, Chakarborty, Shrivastava, Patil, & Rambhade, 2012, p. 69).

Definitions for polypharmacy vary; often, it is simply referred to as the total number of different medications a person takes concurrently (excluding topical medications and herbal).

Practice recommendation: Statements of best practice directed at health-care providers that enable the successful implementation of the BPG; ideally, they are based on evidence.

Primary care provider: In this Guideline, the term primary care provider refers to a nurse practitioner or physician.

Problem-solving therapy: “A brief, focused, psychological intervention that is delivered by an individual trained in problem solving approaches. These are often highly individualized and have a pragmatic focus, in which the professional and individual work through a series of defined steps to clarify the person’s problems and desired goals, generate potential solutions, and help implement the chosen solution” (SIGN, 2010, p. 27).

Psychotropic medications: Psychotropic medications fall into several categories, such as antidepressants, antianxiety drugs, antimanic agents (mood stabilizers), antipsychotics, and stimulants (Stanford School of Medicine, 2016).

Qualitative research: Research that uses an interactive and subjective approach to investigate and describe phenomena (e.g., lived experience) and to give them meaning. The nature of this type of research is exploratory and open-ended. Analysis involves the organization and interpretation of non-numerical data (e.g., Phenomenology, Ethnography, Grounded Theory, Case Study, etc.) (Speziale & Carpenter, 2007).

Quality: “The degree to which health-care services for individuals and populations increase the likelihood of desired health outcomes and are consistent with current professional knowledge” (WHO, 2009).

Quasi-experimental study: A study that lacks randomization and a control group and therefore is not considered a “true” experimental design (e.g., a randomized controlled trial). The investigator controls the assignment to the intervention, exposure, or treatment by using some criterion other than random assignment (e.g., pre-post design) (Polit, Beck, & Hungler, 2001).

Randomized controlled trial (RCT): An experiment in which the investigator assigns an intervention, exposure, or treatment to participants who are randomly allocated to either the experimental group (receives intervention) and the comparison (conventional treatment) or control group (no intervention or placebo) (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2005). The participants are followed and assessed to determine the efficacy of the intervention. Includes double-blind, single-blind, and non-blind trials.

Recovery perspective: “Recovery is a paradigm that is conceptualized and understood as a process that is unique to each individual. It is not defined as an endpoint, but rather as a journey that is rooted in the cornerstones of dignity, hope, empowerment, and resilience” (Forchuck, 2003; Jacobson & Curtis, 2000, as cited in in RNAO, 2015a, p. 28).

Reflective practice: Reflective practice (sometimes referred to as *self-awareness*) is an important component of a therapeutic relationship and can be defined as “the ability to reflect on one’s practice, thoughts, feelings, needs, fears, strengths, and weaknesses, and to understand how these might affect one’s actions and the nurse–client relationship” (RNAO, 2006a, p. 13).

Relational practice: “An inquiry that is guided by conscious participation with clients using a number of relational skills, including listening, questioning, empathy, mutuality, reciprocity, self-observation, reflection, and a sensitivity to emotional contexts. Relational practice encompasses therapeutic nurse–client relationships and relationships among health-care providers” (Doane & Varcoc, 2007, as cited in CNO, 2014, p. 13).

Reminiscence: “A structured groupwork or individual approach to stimulating and talking about personal memories” (Housden, 2009, p. 30).

Responsive behaviours: The Ministry of Health and Long-Term Care defines responsive behaviours as “behaviours that often indicate: (a) An unmet need in a person, whether cognitive, physical, emotional, social, environmental or other, or (b) a response to circumstances within the social or physical environment that may be frustrating, frightening or confusing to a person” (Ministry of Health and Long-Term Care, 2007, as cited in RNAO, 2012, p. 86).

Reliability: “The degree of consistency or accuracy with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure” (Polit et al., 2001, p. 469).

Restraints: “Physical, chemical or environmental measures used to control the physical or behavioural activity of a person or a portion of his/her body. Physical restraints limit a client’s movement. Physical restraints include a table fixed to a chair or a bed rail that cannot be opened by the client. Environmental restraints control a client’s mobility. Examples include a secure unit or garden, seclusion or a time-out room. Chemical restraints are any form of psychoactive medication used not to treat illness, but to intentionally inhibit a particular behaviour or movement. Least restraint means all possible alternative interventions are exhausted before deciding to use a restraint and the least restrictive form of restraint to meet the client’s needs should be used” (CNO, 2009c, as cited in RNAO, 2012a, p. 86).

Scoping review: “Scoping reviews have been described as a process of mapping the existing literature or evidence base. ... Scoping reviews can be used in a number of ways, for example identifying research gaps and summarizing findings of research. They can also be used to inform systematic reviews” (Armstrong, Hall, Doyle, & Waters, 2011, p. 147).

Self-harm/deliberate self-harm: “The willful self-infliction of painful, destructive, or injurious acts without the intent to end one’s life” (APA, 2003, p. 9).

Sexual disinhibition: Sexualized or sexually disinhibited behaviours include behaviours that include intimacy-seeking, sexual comments, and exhibitionism (Tucker, 2010).

Social determinants of health: The social determinants of health are “the conditions in which people are born, grow, live, work and age. These circumstances are shaped by the distribution of money, power and resources at the global, national and local levels. The social determinants of health are mostly responsible for health inequities—the unfair and avoidable differences in health status seen within and between countries.” (WHO, 2016, para. 1)

Stage (of dementia): In this Guideline, the term stage is used to be consistent with the terminology currently used in the literature. However, the expert panel points out that terminology is shifting and practitioners may instead refer to the *degree of impairment* or *degree of cognitive* decline associated with dementia.

Alzheimer’s disease can also be described as mild Alzheimer’s (early-stage), moderate Alzheimer’s (middle-stage), or severe Alzheimer’s (late-stage) (Alzheimer’s Association, 2016c).

Stakeholder: An individual, group, or organization that has a vested interest in the decisions and actions of organizations, and may attempt to influence decisions and actions (Baker et al., 1999). Stakeholders include all of the individuals and groups who will be directly or indirectly affected by the change or solution to the problem.

Substitute decision-maker: A substitute decision-maker is a person who makes decisions for another who is not mentally capable. This may include making certain decisions about the person's property or personal care (Wahl, 2009).

Sundowning: Term used to refer to the experience of people with Alzheimer's and dementia of "problems sleeping or increases in behavioral problems that begin at dusk and last into the night" (Alzheimer's Association, 2016b, para. 1).

Systematic review: A review that "attempts to collate all empirical evidence that fits pre-specified eligibility criteria in order to answer a specific research question" (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2011). A systematic review uses systematic, explicit, and reproducible methods to identify, select, and critically appraise relevant research, and to collect and analyze data from the studies that are included in the review (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2005, 2011).

Therapeutic relationship: "A purposeful, goal-directed relationship between the health-care provider and the person accessing the health system for care and treatment that is grounded in an interpersonal process directed at advancing the best interest and outcome of the person" (CNO, 2013b; RNAO, 2006a, as cited in RNAO, 2015b, p. 78).

Validated (valid): In this Guideline, the term *valid* or *validated tool* is used to be consistent with current terminology in the literature and clinical guidelines. Validity is defined as "the degree to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure" (Polit et al., 2001, p. 473). The expert panel recognizes that *reliability* is another important factor that should be considered when using tools.

Appendix B: Guideline Development Process

The Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario (RNAO) has made a commitment to ensure that every BPG is based on the best available evidence. To meet this commitment, a monitoring and revision process has been established for each Guideline every five years.

For this Guideline, RNAO assembled a panel of experts who represent a range of sectors and practice areas (see the RNAO Expert Panel section at the beginning of this Guideline). A systematic review of the evidence was based on the purpose and scope, and was supported by the four research questions listed below. The systematic review captured relevant peer-reviewed literature and guidelines published between January 2009 and March 2015. The following research questions were established to guide the systematic review:

1. What are the most effective ways for nurses to screen or assess older adults for delirium, dementia, and depression?
2. What are the most effective approaches for management of older adults with delirium, dementia, and depression?
3. What education and training strategies (taught in basic curricula, advanced practice education or ongoing professional development programs) do nurses need to be effective during the assessment and management of older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression?
4. What organizational policies and structures are required to enable nurses to assess and manage older adults with delirium, dementia, and/or depression?

This Guideline is the result of the RNAO Guideline development team and expert panel's work to integrate the most current and best evidence, and ensure the validity, appropriateness, and safety of the Guideline recommendations with supporting evidence and/or expert panel consensus^G.

Appendix C: Process for Systematic Review and Search Strategy

Guideline Review

The RNAO Guideline development team's project coordinator searched an established list of websites for guidelines and other relevant content published between January 2009 and March 2015. The resulting list was compiled based on knowledge of evidence-based practice websites and recommendations from the literature. Furthermore, expert panel members were asked to suggest additional guidelines. (See the **Guidelines Review Process Flow Diagram** on page 125). Detailed information about the search strategy for existing guidelines, including the list of websites searched and inclusion criteria, is available at www.RNAO.ca

The BPG program manager and nursing research associates appraised 21 international guidelines using the *Appraisal of Guidelines for Research and Evaluation Instrument II* (Brouwers et al., 2010). Guidelines with an overall score of three or below were considered weak and were excluded. Guidelines with a score of four or five were considered moderate, and guidelines with a score of six or seven were considered strong. The following 17 guidelines (rated moderate or strong) were selected to inform the recommendations and discussions of evidence:

American Geriatrics Society Expert Panel on Postoperative Delirium in Older Adults. (2014). *American Geriatrics Society Clinical Practice Guideline for Postoperative Delirium in Older Adults*. New York, NY: American Geriatrics Society.

American Geriatrics Society Expert Panel on Postoperative Delirium in Older Adults. (2015). Postoperative delirium in older adults: Best practice statement from the American Geriatrics Society. *Journal of the American College of Surgeons*, 220(2), 136–148.

American Medical Directors Association. (2008). *Delirium and acute problematic behavior in the long-term care setting*. Columbia, MD: Author. [Note: The AMDA reaffirmed the currency of this guideline in 2013.]

American Medical Directors Association. (2011). *Depression in the long-term care setting*. Columbia, MD: Author.

American Medical Directors Association. (2012). *Dementia in the long-term care setting*. Columbia, MD: Author.

Canadian Coalition for Seniors' Mental Health. (2010). *Guideline on the assessment and treatment of delirium in older adults at the end of life*. Toronto, ON: Author.

Development Group of the Clinical Practice Guideline on the Comprehensive Care of People with Alzheimer's Disease and Other Dementias. (2010). *Clinical Practice Guideline on the comprehensive care of people with Alzheimer's disease and other dementias*. Retrieved from http://www.guiasalud.es/GPC/GPC_484_Alzheimer_AIAQS_comp_eng.pdf

Gage, L., & Hogan, D. B. (2014). *2014 CCSMH guideline update: The assessment and treatment of delirium*. Toronto, ON: Canadian Coalition for Seniors' Mental Health. Retrieved from <http://ccsmh.ca/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/2014-ccsmh-Guideline-Update-Delirium.pdf>

National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. (2009). *Depression in adults: The treatment and management of depression in adults*. London, UK: Author.

National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. (2010). *Delirium: Diagnosis, prevention and management*. London, UK: Author.

National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. (2011). *Common mental health disorders: Identification and pathways to care*. London, UK: Author.

National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. (2012). *Delirium: Evidence update April 2012*. London, UK: Author.

National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. (2012). *Depression: Evidence update April 2012*. London, UK: Author.

National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. (2013). *Common mental health disorders: Evidence update March 2013*. London, UK: Author.

Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network (SIGN). (2010). *Non-pharmaceutical management of depression in adults*. Edinburgh, UK: Author.

Trangle, M., Gursky, J., Haight, R., Hardwig, J., Hinnenkamp, T., Kessler, D. ... Myszkowski, M. (2016). *Adult depression in primary care*. Retrieved from Institute for Clinical Systems Improvements website: https://www.icsi.org/_asset/fnhdm3/Depr.pdf

U.S. Preventative Services Task Force. (2014). *Cognitive impairment in older adults: Screening*. Retrieved from <http://www.uspreventiveservicestaskforce.org/Page/Document/UpdateSummaryFinal/cognitive-impairment-in-older-adults-screening>

World Health Organization. (2012/2015). *Evidence-based recommendations for management of dementia in non-specialized health settings*. Retrieved from http://www.who.int/mental_health/mhgap/evidence/dementia/en/

World Health Organization. (2012/2015). *Evidence-based recommendations for management of depression in non-specialized health settings*. Retrieved from http://www.who.int/mental_health/mhgap/evidence/depression/en/

Systematic Review

A comprehensive search strategy was developed by RNAO's research team and a health sciences librarian, based on inclusion and exclusion criteria created with the RNAO expert panel. A search for relevant articles published in English between October 2009 and April 2015 was applied to the following databases: Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health (CINAHL), MEDLINE, MEDLINE In Process, Cochrane Library (Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews and Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials), EMBASE, and PsychINFO; Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) was used for question three only. In addition to this systematic search, panel members were asked to review personal libraries for key articles not found through the above search strategies.

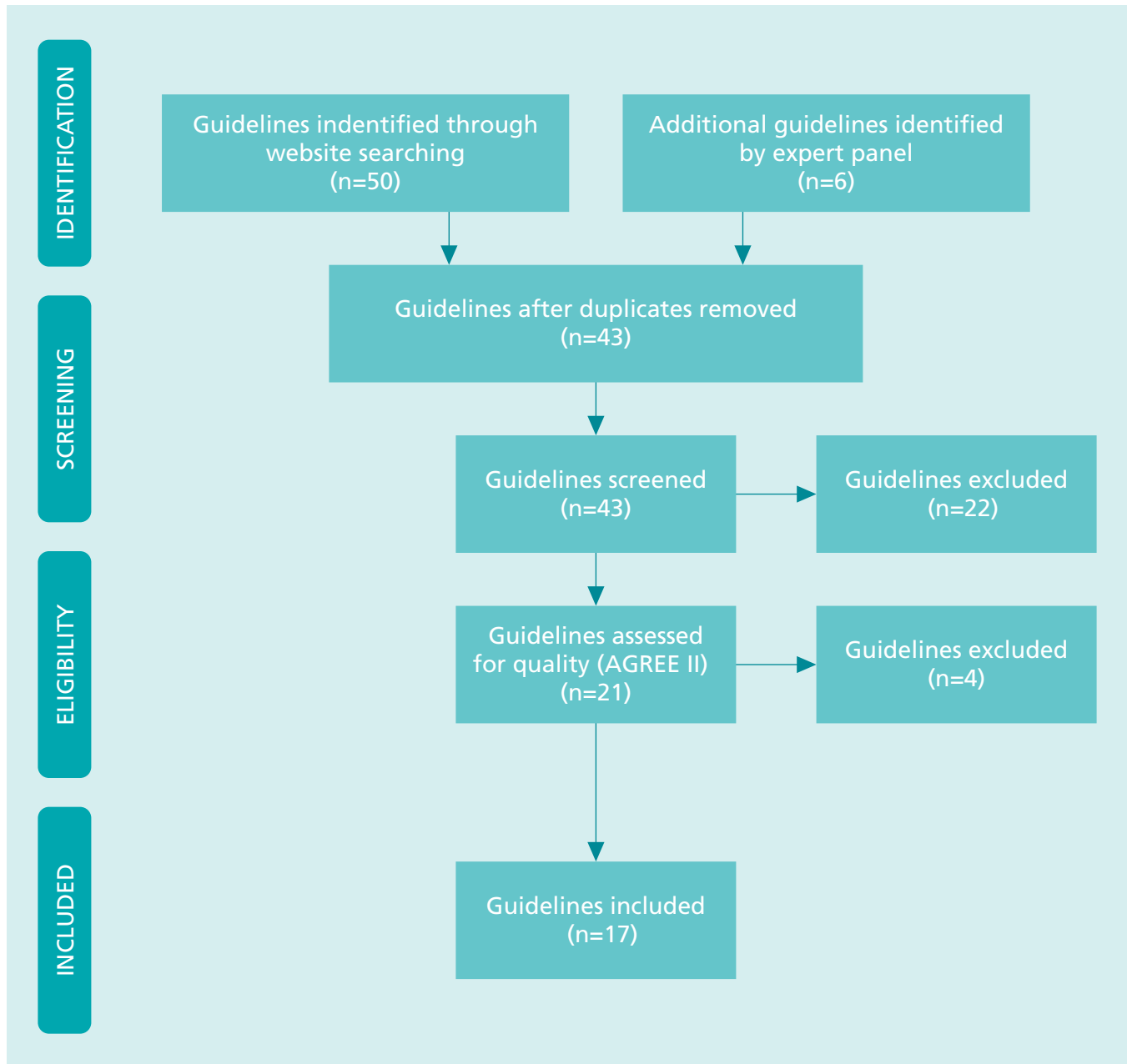
Detailed information about the search strategy for the systematic review, including the inclusion and exclusion criteria as well as search terms, is available at www.RNAO.ca/bpg/Delirium-Dementia-Depression

Once articles were retrieved, two RNAO nursing research associates (nurses holding master's degrees) independently assessed the eligibility of the studies according to established inclusion/exclusion criteria. Any disagreements at this stage were resolved through tie-breaking by the project manager.

Quality appraisal scores for 24 articles (a random sample of approximately 20 percent of the total articles eligible for data extraction and quality appraisal) were independently assessed by RNAO nursing research associates. Quality appraisal was assessed using AMSTAR (A Measurement Tool to Assess Systematic Reviews; see <http://amstar.ca/index.php>) and RNAO's scoring system that rates reviews as weak, moderate, or strong, depending on their quality scores. The nursing research Associates reached acceptable inter-rater agreement (kappa statistic, $K=0.81$), which justified proceeding with quality appraisal and data extraction for the remaining studies. The remaining studies were divided equally between the two research associates for quality appraisal and data extraction (Fleiss, Levin, & Paik, 2003). A final narrative summary of literature findings was completed. The comprehensive data tables and narrative summary were provided to all expert panel members for review and discussion.

A complete bibliography of all full text articles screened for inclusion is available at www.RNAO.ca/bpg/Delirium-Dementia-Depression

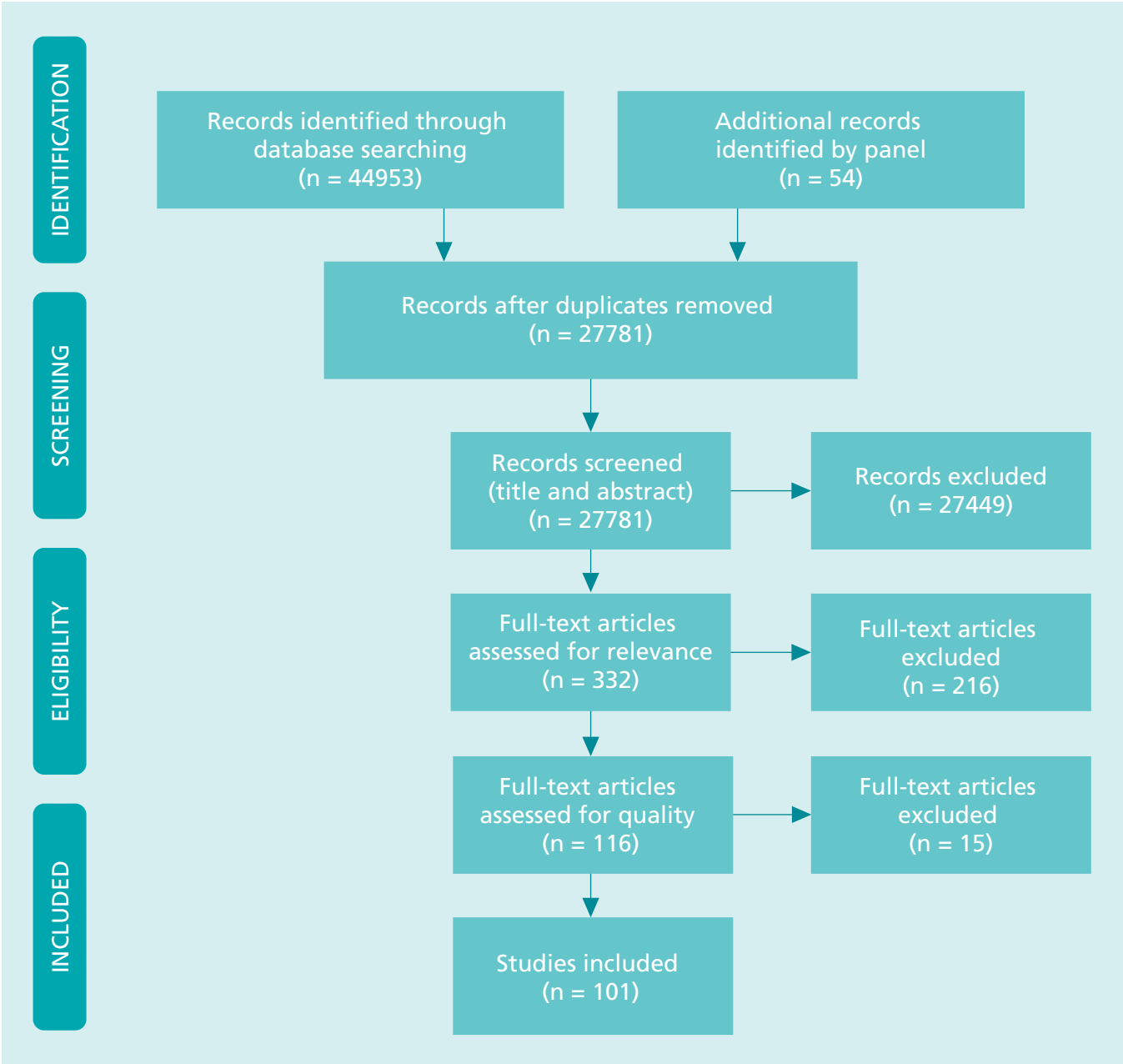
Guidelines Review Process Flow Diagram



Included guidelines had an overall AGREE II score of four or more (out of seven).

Flow diagram adapted from D. Moher, A. Liberati, J. Tetzlaff, D. G. Altman, and The PRISMA Group (2009). Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement. *BMJ* 339, b2535, doi: 10.1136/bmj.b2535

Article Review Process Flow Diagram



Flow diagram adapted from D. Moher, A. Liberati, J. Tetzlaff, D. G. Altman, and The PRISMA Group (2009). Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement. *BMJ* 339, b2535, doi: 10.1136/bmj.b2535

Appendix D: Comparison of the Clinical Features of Delirium, Dementia, and Depression

FEATURE	DELIRIUM	DEMENTIA	DEPRESSION
Onset	Acute	Chronic, progressive decline	Variable; may appear abruptly and coincide with life changes
Course	Short, fluctuating, and often worse at night	Long, progressive, stable loss over time	Diurnal effects; typically worse in the morning
Duration	Typically, short (hours to less than 1 month) Can be persistent	Chronic (months to years)	Signs and symptoms present for at least 2 weeks, but may persist
Alertness	Lethargic or hyper-alert Fluctuates	Normal until late stage	Normal
Attention	Inattention Unfocussed Distracted Fluctuates	Generally normal May decline with disease progression	Minimal impairment Distractible Poor concentration
Orientation	May be impaired Fluctuates in severity	Increasing impairment over time	Selectively intact Answers “I don’t know”
Memory	Recent memory impaired	Recent memory impaired Remote memory is increasingly impaired with progression of disease	Selective or patchy impairment, “islands” of intact memory
Thinking	Disorganized Disconnected Tangential Rambling Incoherent	Difficulty with abstract thinking Poor judgment	Intact; themes of hopelessness, helplessness, and guilt; rumination
Perception	Acute onset hallucinations, delusions, or illusions common	May be longstanding (e.g., dementia with Lewy bodies) or may occur at late stage of illness (e.g. Alzheimer’s dementia)	Rarely impaired; hallucinations absent except in severe cases (psychosis)

Source: Created by Dianne Rossy and Laura Wilding. The Ottawa Hospital. Reprinted with permission.

Appendix E: Types of Dementia

Dementia describes the symptoms that occur when the brain is affected by certain diseases or conditions. This table outlines some of the most common types of dementia. It is important to remember that the symptoms and progression of dementia can vary greatly among individuals.

TYPE OF DEMENTIA	DESCRIPTION
Alzheimer's disease	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Alzheimer's disease (or Alzheimer's dementia*) is the most common cause of dementia ■ Caused by "plaques" and "tangles" formed by buildup of proteins in the brain ■ Slowest progression, on average (symptoms are generally mild in the beginning and worsen over time) ■ Generally progresses through three stages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Early (mild) stage □ Middle (moderate) stage □ Late (severe) stage ■ Early-stage symptoms: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Short-term memory lapses (e.g., difficulty recalling recent events and learning new information) □ Difficulties with thinking, problem-solving, orientation, and/or language □ Changes in mood (e.g., apathy, depression, irritability) ■ Middle-stage symptoms: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Increased severity of memory loss, communication difficulties, reasoning problems, and orientation problems □ Decreased awareness of surroundings (may get lost*) □ Increased confusion □ Delusions and/or hallucinations may occur □ Agitation (e.g., restlessness or pacing), calling out, repetition of the same question, and/or disturbed sleep patterns may occur ■ Late-stage symptoms: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Loss of memory can be very evident (including longer-term memory problems*) □ Increased physical weakness (increased risk of falls*) □ Language deterioration* and loss of speech □ Paranoia may occur* □ Restlessness and agitation may occur ■ Risk factors: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Age (over 65) □ Gender (female) □ Genetic inheritance (first-degree relatives*) □ Health and lifestyle (e.g., diabetes, stroke, heart problems, high blood pressure, high cholesterol and obesity in mid-life, late-life-onset* depression) ■ On average, people with Alzheimer's disease live for eight to ten years after the first symptoms ■ Often, diagnosis is delayed; may take 2–3 years*

TYPE OF DEMENTIA	DESCRIPTION
Vascular dementia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Caused by death of brain cells due to lack of oxygen ■ Two types: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Subcortical vascular dementia: related to diseases of small blood vessels deep in the brain <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ usually develops gradually and progresses slowly (similar to Alzheimer’s dementia) □ Stroke-related dementia: related to/following a stroke (or several small strokes) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ can follow a “stepped” progression (particularly as multiple strokes cause further damage to the brain) ■ Symptoms of vascular dementia are similar to those of Alzheimer’s disease, particularly in the later stages ■ Early signs include the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Difficulties planning, organizing, or following steps □ Slowed thinking □ Problems concentrating □ Short periods of confusion □ Apathy, mood swings, and more emotional than usual □ Anxiety and depression □ Disinhibition and impulsivity* ■ On average, people with vascular dementia live approximately 5 years after symptoms begin
Mixed dementia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ More than one type of dementia at the same time ■ Most common combination is vascular dementia with Alzheimer’s dementia ■ Symptoms can include those from all types of dementia that are present
Dementia with Lewy bodies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Caused by protein deposits in the brain (presence of Lewy bodies*), which cause damage and death to nerve cells ■ Memory problems develop slowly and progress gradually (similar to Alzheimer’s disease); however, mobility problems usually progress quickly* ■ Symptoms: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Varied attention and alertness (from day-to-day or at different times of day; fluctuations may mimic delirium*) □ Recurrent* visual hallucinations, misperceptions, and/or auditory hallucinations □ Movement problems (similar to those in Parkinson’s disease, which is also caused by Lewy bodies) □ Problems with depth perception and balance; syncope and increased risk of falling □ Severe neuroleptic sensitivities with atypical antipsychotics* ■ On average, people with dementia with Lewy bodies live for 6 to 12 years

TYPE OF DEMENTIA	DESCRIPTION
Frontotemporal dementia (e.g., Pick's disease)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Caused by severe shrinkage of brain tissue and death of nerve cells in the frontal and/or temporal lobes, which is linked abnormal proteins (e.g., Pick bodies) inside the cells ■ Serotonin deficits* ■ Diagnosed at higher frequency in younger people than other types of dementia ■ Three types: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Behavioural variant (more common) □ Language variants: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Progressive, non-fluent aphasia ○ Semantic dementia ■ Behavioural variant symptoms: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Loss of inhibitions (e.g., socially inappropriate behaviour, pica may occur) □ Decreased interest and motivation □ Severe depression, apathy, withdrawal* □ Loss of empathy, self-focused behaviour □ Repetitive behaviours, compulsivity ■ Language variant symptoms: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Difficulties with language (slow progression) □ Aphasia: difficulty speaking, grammatical errors (e.g., leaving out link words such as 'the'), difficulty understanding sentences (but no difficulty understanding words) □ Semantic dementia: loss of vocabulary and word meaning, difficulty recognizing people or objects □ Memory remains relatively intact in early frontotemporal dementia, as language changes typically occur first* ■ Later stage symptoms: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ As frontotemporal dementia progresses, people with the different types develop symptoms of the other type (i.e., people with behavioural variant symptoms develop language problems, and people with language variants develop behavioural problems) □ Other symptoms similar to those of the later stages of Alzheimer's disease ■ People with frontotemporal dementia sometimes have motor disorders (stiff muscles, awkward movements, spasticity*) ■ May be inherited ■ Life expectancy is estimated to be approximately eight years after the onset of symptoms

Note: Content added by the expert panel is indicated with an asterisk (*).

Source: Adapted from Alzheimer's Society, 2016.

Appendix F: Resources for Optimal Medication Use in Older Adults

The following is not an exhaustive list of resources, but rather a selection of resources identified within the systematic review, AGREE II-appraised guidelines, and by the expert panel or external stakeholder feedback. Inclusion in this list does not constitute an endorsement by RNAO.

RESOURCE	DESCRIPTION OF RESOURCE	WEBSITE ACCESS
Beers Criteria	<p>Outlines medication classes that should be avoided or used with caution among older adults.</p> <p>Pocket cards may be purchased through the American Geriatrics Society website.</p> <p>For a description of the nurse's role with regard to using Beers Criteria, see Fick, D. M., & Resnick, B. (2012). 2012 Beers Criteria update: How should practicing nurses use the criteria? <i>Journal of Gerontological Nursing</i>, 38(6), 3–5.</p>	See the <i>American Geriatrics Society Updated Beers Criteria for Potentially Inappropriate Medication Use in Older Adults</i> at https://www.guideline.gov/content.aspx?id=49933
Canadian Coalition for Seniors' Mental Health (CCSMH)	CCSMH provides clinical guidelines, tools, and resources specific to delirium, depression, and suicide, including pharmacological information, in its <i>2014 CCSMH Guideline Update for the Assessment and Treatment of Mental Health Issues in Long Term Care Homes: Focus on Mood and Behaviour Symptoms</i> (Conn, D, Gibson, M, & McCabe, D., 2014).	http://www.ccsmh.ca/
Canadian Deprescribing Network (CaDeN)	CaDeN is a group of individuals who are committed to improving the health of Canadians by reducing the use of potentially inappropriate medicines and enhancing access to non-drug alternatives.	http://deprescribing.org/caden/
Canadian Patient Safety Institute	Provides a Getting Started Kit on medication reconciliation for home care, acute care, and long-term care, with the goal of preventing adverse drug events by implementing a medication reconciliation process upon admission, transfer, and discharge.	http://www.patientsafetyinstitute.ca/en/toolsResources/Pages/Med-Rec-resources-getting-started-kit.aspx

RESOURCE	DESCRIPTION OF RESOURCE	WEBSITE ACCESS
Centre for Effective Practice (CEC)	The CEC provides a tool designed to help providers understand, assess, and manage residents in long-term-care homes with behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia, with a focus on antipsychotic medications. See “Antipsychotics and Dementia” under Tools.	http://effectivepractice.org/
Geriatrics Interprofessional Interorganizational Collaboration (GIIC)	Provides information and pocket tools on medication use in older adults—for example, a list of medications that can contribute to delirium, and information about polypharmacy.	http://giic.rgps.on.ca/
The Institute for Safe Medication Practices (ISMP) Canada	ISMP Canada is an independent, national, not-for-profit organization committed to the advancement of medication safety in all health-care settings.	https://www.ismp-canada.org/
National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE)	NICE offers clinical guidelines on delirium, dementia, and depression; clinical pathways; quality standards (e.g., on antipsychotic medications for people who are distressed); and other tools and resources for health-care providers.	www.nice.org.uk/
RX Files	RxFiles is an academic detailing program providing objective, comparative drug information to clinicians. Detailed information and tools are available to help front-line providers optimize drug therapy (e.g., the Reference List of Drugs with Anticholinergic Effects).	http://www.rxfiles.ca/rxfiles/Home.aspx
STOPP & START Criteria	These criteria address potentially inappropriate prescribing in older adults, including a screening tool of older persons’ prescriptions (STOPP) and a screening tool to alert to right treatment (START).	See O’Mahony, D., Gallagher, P., Ryan, C., Byrne, S., Hamilton, H., Barry, P., ... Kennedy, J. (2010). STOPP & START criteria: A new approach to detecting potentially inappropriate prescribing in old age. <i>European Geriatric Medicine</i> , 1(1), 45–51.

Appendix G : Delirium Risk Factors and Interventions

The literature and clinical guidelines list various predisposing and precipitating risk factors for delirium.

Bolded text indicates factors of particularly high risk. Health-care providers can apply a variety of preventative interventions tailored to the specific precipitating risk factors. In the second table, examples of specific interventions outlined in the literature are listed alongside the related risk factors. This list is not exhaustive, but includes the risk factors and interventions most frequently cited in the literature. Some risk factors and interventions are more relevant to certain health-care sectors than others.

RISK FACTORS	
Note: see below for risk factors with associated interventions	
Advanced age (older than 65 or 70)	
Alcohol use/abuse	
Depression	
Extensive surgery that causes greater-than-usual physiological stress (e.g., more extensive blood loss, length of operation, or extent of dissection) (e.g., cardiac surgery)	
Hip Fracture	
Previous delirium	
Severe illness or co-morbidity burden	

RISK FACTORS AND INTERVENTIONS	
<i>Risk Factor</i>	<i>Sample Intervention</i>
Cognitive impairment, dementia, disorientation	Cognitive orientation/re-orientation
	Environmental aids: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ adequate lighting ■ clear signage ■ clock ■ calendar
	Avoid unnecessary room changes
	Use clear communication
Sensory deprivation, isolation	Therapeutic or cognitively stimulating activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ personally valued activities and familiar background stimulation ■ reminiscence^G ■ family/friend visits Note: avoid unnecessary isolation, sensory deprivation, and sensory overload
Sensory impairment (e.g., hearing or vision impairment)	Optimize sensory function by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ ensuring hearing and visual aids are available and working ■ ensuring adequate lighting ■ resolving reversible causes of impairment (e.g., impacted ear wax)
Infection, fever	Look for and treat infection

Table continues on next page.

RISK FACTORS AND INTERVENTIONS	
<i>Risk Factor</i>	<i>Sample Intervention</i>
Presence of urinary catheter	Avoid unnecessary catheterization Screen for and treat urinary tract infection Remove indwelling catheters as soon as possible Consider in-and-out catheterization over indwelling catheter
Dehydration and/or constipation	Monitor nutrition, hydration, and bladder/bowel function
Electrolyte abnormalities (hyper- or hyponatremia)	Prevent electrolyte disturbance/dehydration by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ ensuring adequate fluid intake ■ considering offering subcutaneous or intravenous fluids, if necessary ■ restoring serum sodium, potassium, and glucose levels to normal limits
Sodium and/or potassium and/or calcium abnormalities	Pay attention to those who are at increased risk for dehydration (i.e., taking diuretics, diarrhea, pneumonia, UTI, etc.)
Poor nutrition	Follow nutrition support advice Maintain adequate intake of nutrients and glucose Ensure proper fit of dentures Take time to open food packaging/set up meal tray Encourage families to be present at meal times to assist with feeding
Anemia	Identify and manage treatable causes of anemia
Hypoxia	Optimize oxygenation and monitor oxygen saturation levels
Inadequately controlled pain	Assess, monitor, and control pain
Sleep deprivation or disturbance	Promote high-quality sleep Use non-pharmacological sleep enhancement methods Avoid nursing or medical procedures during sleeping hours, and schedule medication rounds to avoid disturbing sleep if possible Reduce noise and light to a minimum during sleeping hours
Immobilization or limited mobility: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Use of restraints ■ Prolonged bed rest or sedation, immobility after surgery 	Avoid use of restraints Minimize use of medical devices (e.g., intravenous lines, catheters) that may restrict mobility or function Encourage mobilization, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ walking (if possible) ■ getting out of bed ■ range-of-motion exercises ■ self-care activities
Poor functional status/functional impairment	Provide appropriate walking aids, if needed Encourage mobilization soon after surgery Physiotherapy and occupational therapy as needed (after surgery)
Polypharmacy and use of high-risk medications (e.g., psychoactive medications, sedative-hypnotics, benzodiazepines, anticholinergics, antihistamines, meperidine)	Carry out medication reviews for people taking multiple drugs, and modify dosage or discontinue drugs that increase the risk of delirium when possible

Sources: AGS, 2014; AMDA, 2008; Brooks, 2012; CCSMH, 2010; Clegg et al., 2014; Gage & Hogan, 2014; Holroyd-Leduc et al., 2010; Inouye et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2012; NICE, 2010.

Appendix H: Screening and Assessment Tools

The following is not an exhaustive list of screening and assessment tools but rather suggestions of tools identified within the systematic review, AGREE II appraised guidelines, by the expert panel or external stakeholder feedback.

Note: Inclusion of a tool in this list does not constitute an endorsement by RNAO. Please refer to [Recommendation 15.2](#) and the related discussion of evidence for considerations when selecting and using tools. It is important to select a tool that is appropriate for use in the setting in which you practice and suitable for your scope of practice.

Some tools may be validated only in specific settings. In the far right column, a check mark is provided where validation studies could be located.

TOOL	DESCRIPTION	SOURCE/WEBSITE	VALIDATION STUDIES LOCATED
TOOLS APPLICABLE TO DELIRIUM, DEMENTIA, AND/OR DEPRESSION			
<i>Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5)</i> , by the American Psychiatric Association	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A classification and diagnostic tool for mental disorders Cost associated with use 	www.dsm5.org http://www.psychiatry.org/psychiatrists/practice/dsm/dsm-5	see www.dsm5.org for details on the development process
Extensive Nursing Assessment/Mental Status Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sample questions to be used for nurse–client interviews 	Fortinash, K. M. & Holoday-Worret, P. A. (1999). <i>Psychiatric nursing care plans (3rd ed.)</i> . St. Louis: Mosby.	
Mini-Cog	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used to assess a person's registration, recall, and executive function Can be performed quickly Appropriate for use with older adults at various language and literacy levels, and from different culturesG 	Borson, S., Scanlan, J., Brush, M., Vitaliano, P., & Dokmak, A. (2000). The Mini-Cog: a cognitive 'vital signs' measure for dementia screening in multi-lingual elderly. <i>International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry</i> , 15(11), 1021–1027.	
Mini Mental Status Examination (MMSE) Note: MMSE is proprietary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Measures a person's memory, orientation, language, attention, visuospatial, and constructional skills Cost associated with use 	Folstein, M. F., Folstein, S. E., & McHugh, P. R. (1975). "Mini-mental state": A practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. <i>Journal of Psychiatric Research</i> , 12(3), 189–198. http://www4.parinc.com/Products/Product.aspx?ProductID=MMSE	✓
Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A cognitive screening test designed to assist health professionals in the detection of mild cognitive impairment Preferred for assessment of executive dysfunction 	http://www.mocatest.org/	✓

TOOL	DESCRIPTION	SOURCE/WEBSITE	VALIDATION STUDIES LOCATED
NEECHAM confusion scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Measures levels of confusion in processing, behaviour, and physiologic control 	Miller, J., Neelon, V., Champagne, M., Bailey, D., Ng'andu, N., Belyea, M., ... Williams, A. (1997). The assessment of acute confusion as part of nursing care. <i>Applied Nursing Research</i> , 10(3), 143–151.	✓
Resident Assessment Instrument (RAI) Minimum Data Set (MDS) from interRAI™	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Electronic data collection tools Assist with development of a care plan MDS aids in monitoring effectiveness of a care plan 	http://www.interrai.org/	✓
DELIRIUM TOOLS			
4AT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rapid assessment test for delirium and cognitive impairment Can be used to test people who are “untestable” (e.g., drowsy) Does not require training 	http://www.the4at.com/	✓
Confusion Assessment Method Instrument (CAM)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Helps identify individuals who may be suffering from delirium or an acute confusional state Useful for distinguishing between delirium and dementia 	Inouye, S. K., Van Dyck, C. H., Alessi, C. A., Balkin, S., Siegel, A. P., & Horwitz, R. I. (1990). Clarifying confusion: The confusion assessment method—A new method for detection of delirium. <i>Annals of Internal Medicine</i> , 113(12), 941–948. http://www.hospitalelderlifeprogram.org/delirium-instruments/short-cam/	✓
3D CAM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A brief assessment tool that can be used to test for delirium Takes approximately three minutes to complete 	http://www.hospitalelderlifeprogram.org/delirium-instruments/3dcam/	✓
CAM-ICU	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Helps identify individuals who may be suffering from delirium or an acute confusional state Useful for distinguishing between delirium and dementia For use in intensive care unit populations 	Ely, E. W., Margolin, R., Francis, J., May, L., Truman, B., Dittus, R., ... Inouye, S. K. (2001). Evaluation of delirium in critically ill patients: Validation of the Confusion Assessment Method for the Intensive Care Unit (CAM-ICU). <i>Critical Care Medicine</i> , 29(7), 1370–1379.	✓
Delirium Observation Scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 13-item tool Fast to administer Captures early symptoms of delirium that can be observed over the course of care Does not necessarily require specialized training in geriatric care 	Schuermans, M. J., Shortridge-Baggett, L. M., and Luursma, S. A. (2003). The Delirium Observation Screening Scale: A screening instrument for delirium. <i>Research and Theory for Nursing Practice</i> , 17(1), 31–50.	✓

TOOL	DESCRIPTION	SOURCE/WEBSITE	VALIDATION STUDIES LOCATED
Delirium Rating Scale—Revised 98 (DRS-R 98)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 16-item scale with 13 severity items and 3 diagnostic items Includes severity scale for repeated measurement Can be used for monitoring patients over a period of time 	Trzepacz, P. T., Mittal, D., Torres, R., Kanary, K., Norton, J., & Jimerson, N. (2001). Validation of the Delirium Rating Scale-revised-98. <i>The Journal of Neuropsychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences</i> , 13(2), 229–242.	✓
Delirium Symptom Interview (DSI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interview questions that align with DSM–III criteria for delirium Designed to be administered (on a daily basis) to hospitalized older people by non-clinicians 	Albert, M. S., Levkoff, S. E., Reilly, C., Liptzin, B., Pilgrim, D., Cleary, P. D., ... Rowe, J. W. (1992). The delirium symptom interview: An interview for the detection of delirium symptoms in hospitalized patients. <i>Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry and Neurology</i> , 5(1), 14–21.	✓
I WATCH DEATH	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The I-WATCH-DEATH mnemonic is widely used in clinical practice to help health-care providers remember common causes of delirium, and helps support bedside assessments 	Wise, M. G. (1986). Delirium. In R. E. Hales & S. C. Yudofsky (Eds.), <i>American Psychiatric Press Textbook of Neuropsychiatry</i> (pp. 89–103). Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Press Inc.	
Intensive Care Delirium Screening Checklist (ICDSC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Observational eight-item checklist of delirium symptoms Evaluated over an 8–24-hour period 	Bergeron, N., Dubois, M. J., Dumont, M., Dial, S., & Skrobik, Y. (2001). Intensive Care Delirium Screening Checklist: Evaluation of a new screening tool. <i>Intensive Care Medicine</i> , 27(5), 859–864.	✓
Memorial Delirium Assessment Scale (MDAS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A scale designed to measure the severity of delirium symptoms Can help measure changes in delirium symptoms 	Breitbart, W., Rosenfeld, B., Roth, A., Smith, M. J., Cohen, K., & Passik, S. (1997). The memorial delirium assessment scale. <i>Journal of Pain and Symptom Management</i> , 13(3), 128–137.	✓ validated among hospitalized patients with advanced cancer and AIDS
Nursing Delirium Screening Scale (Nu DESC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Observational five-item scale Can be completed quickly Continuous (observations over a 24-hour period) 	Gaudreau, J. D., Gagnon, P., Harel, F., Tremblay, A., & Roy, M. A. (2005). Fast, systematic, and continuous delirium assessment in hospitalized patients: The nursing delirium screening scale. <i>Journal of Pain and Symptom Management</i> , 29(4), 368–375.	✓ hospital setting
PRE-DELIRIC (PREdiction of DELIRium in ICU patients)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 10-item tool Uses routinely available data collected within the first 24 hours of admission to intensive care units (ICU) Assesses the risk of delirium developing in patients in critical care 	Van den Boogaard, M., Pickkers, P., Slooter, A. J. C., Kuiper, M. A., Spronk, P. E., Van Der Voort, P. H. J., ... Schoonhoven, L. (2012). Development and validation of PRE-DELIRIC (PREdiction of DELIRium in ICU patients) delirium prediction model for intensive care patients: Observational multicentre study. <i>British Medical Journal</i> , 344, e420.	✓

TOOL	DESCRIPTION	SOURCE/WEBSITE	VALIDATION STUDIES LOCATED
<p>Recognizing Active Delirium As part of your Routine (RADAR)</p> <p>*Note: this tool was created by one of the expert panel members. Please see the conflict of interest statement at the beginning of this Guideline.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ A three-step process to identify delirium among older persons ■ Observation of three signs of altered level of consciousness and inattention every time medication is given 	http://radar.fsi.ulaval.ca/?page_id=54	✓
DEMENTIA TOOLS			
Abbreviated Mental Test Score (AMTS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 10-question test ■ Assesses for confusion and other cognitive impairment 	Hodkinson, H. M. (1972). Evaluation of a mental test score for assessment of mental impairment in the elderly. <i>Age and Ageing</i> , 1(4), 233–238.	✓ mainly evaluated with older adults
Addenbrooke's Cognitive Examination (ACE)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 100-point test ■ Evaluation of six cognitive domains (orientation, attention, memory, verbal fluency, language, and visuospatial ability) ■ Can help with differentiating the subtypes of dementia 	Mathuranath, P. S., Nestor, P. J., Berrios, G. E., Rakowicz, W., & Hodges, J. R. (2000). A brief cognitive test battery to differentiate <i>Alzheimer's disease</i> and <i>frontotemporal dementia</i> . <i>Neurology</i> , 55(11), 1613–1620.	✓
Clock Drawing Test	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ May assist in supporting a diagnosis of dementia or in indicating areas of difficulty experienced by a client ■ Complements other tests that focus on memory/language 	<p>Cockrell, R. & Folstein, M. (1988). Mini-mental state examination. <i>Journal of Psychiatry Research</i>, 24(4), 689–692.</p> <p>Folstein, M. F., Folstein, S. E., & McHugh, P. R. (1975). "Mini-mental state": A practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. <i>Journal of Psychiatric Research</i>, 12(3), 189–198.</p>	
Cornell Scale for Depression in Dementia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 9-item, clinician-administered instrument ■ Provides a quantitative rating of depression in individuals with or without dementia ■ Uses information from the caregiver as well as the client 	Alexopoulos, G. S., Abrams, R. C., Young, R. C., & Shamoian, C. A. (1988). Cornell scale for depression in dementia. <i>Biological Psychiatry</i> , 23(3), 271–284.	✓
Frontal Assessment Battery (FAB)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ A bedside battery to assess the presence and severity of a dysexecutive syndrome affecting both cognition and motor behaviour ■ Provides a measure to distinguish frontotemporal dementia from Alzheimer's disease in mildly demented patients (diagnostic test) 	<p>Dubois, B., & Litvan, I. (2000). The FAB: A frontal assessment battery at bedside. <i>Neurology</i>, 55(11), 1621–1626.</p> <p>Slachevsky, A., & Dubois, B. (2004). Frontal Assessment Battery and differential diagnosis of frontotemporal dementia and Alzheimer disease. <i>Archives of Neurology</i>, 61(7), 1104–1107.</p>	✓

TOOL	DESCRIPTION	SOURCE/WEBSITE	VALIDATION STUDIES LOCATED
Functional Assessment Staging of Alzheimer's Disease (FAST)®	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Helps evaluate changes in functional performance and activities of daily living skills throughout the course of Alzheimer's disease 	Sclan, S. G., & Reisberg, B. (1992). Functional assessment staging (FAST) in Alzheimers' disease: Reliability, validity, and ordinality. <i>International Psychogeriatrics</i> , 4(3), 55–69.	✓
Lawton Brody Instrumental Activities of Daily Living (IADL) Scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used to assess a person's current functional abilities with regard to IADLs, such as using the telephone, shopping, and food preparation 	Lawton, M. P., & Brody, E. M. (1969). Assessment of older people: Self-maintaining and instrumental activities of daily living. <i>Gerontologist</i> , 9(3), 179–186.	✓ suitability may vary for gender and setting
Rowland Universal Dementia Assessment Scale (RUDAS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 6-item scale assesses multiple cognitive domains, including memory, praxis, language, judgment, drawing, and body orientation 	Storey, J. E., Rowland, J. T., Conforti, D. A., & Dickson, H. G. (2004). The Rowland Universal Dementia Assessment Scale (RUDAS): A multicultural cognitive assessment scale. <i>International Psychogeriatrics</i> , 16(1), 13–31.	✓
DEMENTIA BEHAVIOUR			
Antecedent-Behaviour-Consequence (ABC) Mapping	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "Antecedent-Behaviour-Consequence," or an ABC chart to record behaviour A = Antecedent. What specific activity or event occurred before the challenging behaviour? B = Behaviour. What, specifically, did the person do or say? C = Consequence. What happened after or as a result of the challenging behaviour? 	https://mconnect.milwaukee.k12.wi.us/MPS-English/CAO/Documents/PBIS/fba-bip-ABC-Behaviour-chart.pdf https://www.health.qld.gov.au/abios/behaviour/professional/abc_behaviour_pro.pdf	
Cohen-Mansfield Agitation Inventory (CMAI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Caregivers' rating questionnaire consisting of 29 agitated behaviours, each rated on a 7-point scale of frequency Assesses the frequency of agitated behaviours in elderly persons Developed for use in nursing homes 	Cohen-Mansfield, J., Marx, M. S., & Rosenthal, A. S. (1989). A description of agitation in a nursing home. <i>Journal of Gerontology</i> , 44(3), M77–M84.	✓ institutional settings
Dementia Observational System (DOS) Tool	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assess a person's behaviour over a 24-hour cycle for up to 7 days Can be used to establish a baseline behavioural profile, make observations after behavioural changes are observed, and review the effectiveness of interventions 	Putting the P.I.E.C.E.S. Together. (n.d.). <i>Dementia Observation System (DOS)</i> . http://pieceslearning.com/	

TOOL	DESCRIPTION	SOURCE/WEBSITE	VALIDATION STUDIES LOCATED
Kingston Standardized Behavioural Assessment (community and long-term-care versions)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Complements cognitive assessment tools by providing an indication of the number of behavioural symptoms associated with dementia that are currently affecting an individual 	http://www.kingstonscales.org/behaviour-assessment.html	
Neuropsychiatric Inventory (NPI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 12 items to evaluate the frequency and severity of the following symptoms: delusion, hallucinations, agitation, depression/dysphoria, anxiety, euphoria/jubilant, and apathy/indifference, disinhibition, irritability/lability, motor behaviour without a purpose, sleep alteration, and eating disorder Used to assess behavioural and psychological symptoms in patients with dementia 	Cummings, J. L., Mega, M., Gray, K., Rosenberg-Thompson, S., Carusi, D.A., & Gornbein, J. (1994). The Neuropsychiatric Inventory: Comprehensive assessment of psychopathology in dementia. <i>Neurology</i> , 44(12). 2308–2314.	✓ institutional settings
PAIN			
Abbey Pain Scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Measures pain in people with dementia who cannot verbalize Six questions to record observations in the following categories: vocalization, facial expression, change in body language, behavioural change, physiological change, and physical change 	Abbey, J., Piller, N., De Bellis, A., Esterman, A., Parker, D., Giles, L., & Lowcay, B. (2004). The Abbey pain scale: A 1-minute numerical indicator for people with end-stage dementia. <i>International Journal of Palliative Nursing</i> , 10(1), 6–13.	
Checklist of Nonverbal Pain Indicators (CNPI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Designed to measure pain in cognitively impaired older adults through behavioural observation Considers pain during movement and at rest 	Feldt, K. S. (n.d.). <i>Geriatric assessment tools: Pain</i> . Iowa City, IA: Iowa Geriatric Education Center. Retrieved from http://www.healthcare.uiowa.edu/igec/tools/categoryMenu.asp?categoryID=7	
Doloplus 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pain scale that can be used for people with mild or moderate cognitive impairment, and with proxy rating when a person is unable to self-report 	http://www.assessmentscales.com/scales/doloplus	
Mobilization-Observation-Behaviour-Intensity-Dementia Pain Scale (MOBID)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nurse-administered instrument to observe pain behaviours Signs of pain are observed during guided movements 	Husebo, B. S., Strand, L. I., Moe-Nilssen, R., Husebo, S. B., Snow, A. L., & Ljunggren, A. E. (2007). Mobilization-Observation-Behaviour-Intensity-Dementia Pain Scale (MOBID): Development and validation of a nurse-administered pain assessment tool for use in dementia. <i>Journal of Pain and Symptom Management</i> , 34(1), 67–80.	✓ nursing home

TOOL	DESCRIPTION	SOURCE/WEBSITE	VALIDATION STUDIES LOCATED
Pain Assessment Checklist for Seniors with Limited Ability to Communicate (PACSLAC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used to screen for pain in older adults who have dementia or other cognitive impairment and a limited ability to communicate 60-item tool assessing four categories: facial expressions, activity/body movements, social and personality changes, and other (appetite or sleeping changes) Can be administered quickly 	Fuchs-Lacelle, S., & Hadjistavropoulos, T. (2004). Development and preliminary validation of the Pain Assessment Checklist for Seniors with Limited Ability to Communicate (PACSLAC). <i>Pain Management Nursing</i> , 5(1), 37–49.	✓
Pain Assessment in Advanced Dementia (PAINAD) Scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Observational behavioural tool measuring five items: breathing, facial expression, body language, negative vocalizations, and consolability Can be administered quickly For use with people with advanced dementia 	Warden, V., Hurley, A. C., & Volicer, L. (2003). Development and psychometric evaluation of the Pain Assessment in Advanced Dementia (PAINAD) scale. <i>Journal of the American Medical Directors Association</i> , 4(1), 9–15.	✓
CARE PROVIDERS & CAREGIVERS			
Calgary Family Assessment Model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Model to assess families in three main categories: structural, developmental, and functional levels 	Wright, L. M., & Leahey, M. (2012). <i>Nurses and families: A guide to family assessment and intervention</i> . FA Davis	
Family Confusion Assessment Method (FAM-CAM)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Based on the Confusion Assessment Method (CAM) May help with early detection of delirium by family caregivers 	http://www.hospitalelderlifeprogram.org/delirium-instruments/fam-cam/	
Sense of Competence in Dementia Care Staff (SCIDS) Scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 17-item scale Means of measuring sense of competence in care staff 	Schepers, A. K., Orrell, M., Shanahan, N., & Spector, A. (2012). Sense of Competence in Dementia Care Staff (SCIDS) scale: Development, reliability, and validity. <i>International Psychogeriatrics</i> , 24(7), 1153–1162.	✓
Zarit Burden Interview	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 22-item questionnaire measures caregiver burden Self-report measure 	Zarit, S. H., Reever, K. E., & Bach-Peterson, J. (1980). Relatives of the impaired elderly: Correlates of feelings of burden. <i>The Gerontologist</i> , 20(6), 649–655.	✓
DEPRESSION TOOLS			
Cornell Scale for Depression in Dementia	See above in the Dementia section of this table		

TOOL	DESCRIPTION	SOURCE/WEBSITE	VALIDATION STUDIES LOCATED
Distress Thermometer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Simple, self-report measure ■ Consists of a line with a 0–10 scale (zero point is “No distress” and ten is “Extreme distress”) ■ Can be used to assess those with significant language or communication difficulties 		✓
Geriatric Depression Scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Available in long and short form ■ Questionnaire consisting of 30 or 15 yes/no questions for the patient to answer ■ Screening tool to facilitate the assessment of depression in older adults ■ Provides a quantitative rating of depression ■ Does not assess for risk of suicide 	Yesavage, J. A., Brink, T. L., Rose, T. L., Lum, O., Huang, V., Adey, M., & Leirer, V. O. (1983). Development and validation of a geriatric depression screening scale: A preliminary report. <i>Journal of Psychiatric Research</i> , 17(1), 37–49.	✓
Patient Health Questionnaire-9 item interview (PHQ-9)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Depression screening tool ■ Staff interview instrument to be used for individuals who cannot self-report ■ Adapted version for Staff Assessment of Resident Mood (PHQ-9-OV) suitable for long-term care 		✓
SIGECAPS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Mnemonic used to recall the most frequent symptoms of depression 	Jenike, M. A. (1989). <i>Geriatric psychiatry and psychopharmacology: A clinical approach</i> . Chicago, IL: Yearbook Medical Publishing.	

Source: Adapted from RNAO, 2010b.

Appendix I: Early Warning Signs of Cognitive Change

The following table outlines some of the early warning signs of cognitive challenges that caregivers and health professionals can detect. The signs can be used to identify individuals who should be assessed for dementia.

Table 8: Early Warning Signs Suggesting Cognitive Challenges

SIGNS CAREGIVERS CAN DETECT	SIGNS HEALTH PROFESSIONALS CAN DETECT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Difficulty performing familiar tasks ■ Problems with language <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Confusion with regard to time and place ■ Poor and decreased judgment ■ Problems with abstract thinking ■ Misplacing things ■ Changes in mood and behaviour ■ Changes in personality ■ Loss of initiative ■ Memory loss affecting day-to-day function 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Frequent phone calls/appointments—missing/wrong day ■ Poor historian, vague, seems “off,” repetitive questions or stories ■ Poor compliance meds/instructions ■ Appearance/mood/personality/behaviour ■ Word-finding/decrease social interaction ■ Subacute change in function without clear explanation/frequent visits to ER ■ Confusion—surgery/illness/meds ■ Weight loss/dwindles/“failure to thrive” ■ Driving—accidents/problems/tickets/family concerns ■ Head turning sign (turning to caregiver for answer)

Source: Reprinted from “Dementia and Screening Assessment,” by Regional Geriatric Program of Eastern Ontario, n.d. Retrieved from <http://giic.rgps.on.ca/sites/default/files/1b%20Dementia%20screening%20overview.pdf> Reprinted with permission.

Seven A's of Dementia

Some health-care providers also use the Seven A's of dementia to identify common signs. The A's are: anosognosia, agnosia, aphasia, apraxia, altered perception, amnesia, and apathy. For more information, visit the Alzheimer Society of Canada website at: <http://www.alzheimer.ca/en/york/About-dementia/What-is-dementia/Seven-A-s-of-dementia>

Appendix J: Resources

The following table, compiled by the RNAO Best Practice Guideline Program Team and members of the expert panel, and with input from external stakeholder reviewers, lists some of the main organizations that provide information or resources on delirium, dementia, and depression. Other resources may be available at a local level. Clinicians are also encouraged to research local supports to which they can refer people.

Links to websites are provided for information purposes only; RNAO is not responsible for the quality, accuracy, reliability, or currency of the information provided through these sources. Further, RNAO has not determined the extent to which these resources have been evaluated. Questions regarding these resources should be directed to the source.

ORGANIZATION, PROGRAM, OR RESOURCE	DESCRIPTION	LINK
GENERAL		
Behavioural Supports Ontario	An initiative for older adults in Ontario with complex and responsive behaviours associated with dementia, mental health, substance use, and/or other neurological conditions. The initiative also provides enhanced family caregiver support in the community, in long-term care, or wherever the patient and/or caregiver(s) reside.	www.behaviouralsupportsontario.ca
Canadian Coalition for Seniors' Mental Health (CCSMH)	CCSMH facilitates initiatives to enhance and promote seniors' mental health. The website offers information, tools, resources, and more. Look for resources specific to delirium, depression and suicide.	www.ccsmh.ca
Canadian Gerontological Nursing Association's Competencies and Standards of Practice	The practice standards describe therapeutic interventions and activities that facilitate client health behaviour directed toward promotion, prevention, maintenance, rehabilitation, or palliation	www.cgna.net/Standards_of_Practice.html
ConsultGeri from the Hartford Institute for Geriatric Nursing	ConsultGeri.org is the evidence-based geriatric clinical nursing website of The Hartford Institute for Geriatric Nursing, at the NYU College of Nursing. The website includes geriatric protocols for common geriatric syndromes, and conditions, education, tools and more.	www.consultgeri.org/
Geriatrics, Interprofessional Practice and Interorganizational Collaboration (GiiC) Toolkits	The toolkits include modules on topics related to the care of the elderly, including topic overviews, quick facts, assessment tools and algorithms, patient handouts, and teaching materials.	http://giic.rgps.on.ca/toolkit-libraries
Health Quality Ontario	Health Quality Ontario aims to transform Ontario's health-care system to improve care experiences and patient outcomes. The website offers quality improvement plans and other resources; for example, see the "Responsive Behaviours—Clinical and Organizational Change Concepts and Ideas" poster.	www.hqontario.ca/

ORGANIZATION, PROGRAM, OR RESOURCE	DESCRIPTION	LINK
International Psychogeriatric Association (IPA)	IPA facilitates collaboration and interaction between professionals to work on research, care practices, and improving mental health for older people globally. The website includes various resources, some specific to the Behavioural and Psychological Symptoms of Dementia (BPSD).	www.ipa-online.org/wordpress/
National Initiative for the Care of the Elderly (NICE)	NICE is an international network of researchers, practitioners, and students dedicated to improving the care of older adults in Canada and abroad. The website includes various resources, some specific to dementia care and caregiving.	http://www.nicenet.ca/
National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE)	NICE offers clinical guidelines, tools and resources, and information for the public, as well as clinical pathways. Look for resources related to delirium, dementia, and depression, as well as the document about using quality standards to improve practice in care homes for older people.	https://www.nice.org.uk/
Older People in Hospital	This resource, provided by the Victoria State Government, provides clinicians with evidence-based information and simple strategies for minimizing the risk of functional decline for older people in hospitals. It is informed by the principles of person-centred practice.	www.health.vic.gov.au/hospitals-and-health-services/patient-care/older-people
Regional Geriatric Program of Ontario	Regional Geriatric Programs (RGPs) provide a comprehensive network of specialized geriatric services that assess and treat the functional, medical, and psychosocial aspects of illness and disability in older adults who have multiple and complex needs.	http://rgps.on.ca/
Senior Friendly Hospitals	The Senior Friendly Hospital framework provides an evidence-based blueprint to guide hospital-wide improvements in services for frail seniors. Look for the SFH Toolkit, which has resources related to delirium, dementia, and depression.	http://seniorfriendlyhospitals.ca/
DELIRIUM		
American Delirium Society	The goals of the American Delirium Society are to foster research, education, quality improvement, advocacy, and the implementation of scientific evidence to minimize the impact of delirium on short- and long-term health and well-being, and the effects of delirium on the health-care system as a whole.	www.americandeliriumsociety.org
European Delirium Association	A professional association providing a platform for practitioners, researchers, policy-makers, and others interested in networking for the benefit of patients.	http://www.europeandeliriumassociation.com/
Hospital Elder Life Program (HELP)	HELP is an innovative program for hospitals designed to prevent delirium by keeping hospitalized older adults oriented to their surroundings; meeting their needs for orienting activities, nutrition, fluids, and sleep; and keeping them mobile within the limitations of their physical conditions.	http://www.hospitalelderlifeprogram.org/about/

ORGANIZATION, PROGRAM, OR RESOURCE	DESCRIPTION	LINK
DEMENTIA		
Advanced Gerontological Education: Gentle Persuasive Approaches	Advanced Gerontological Education offers training to become a Gentle Persuasive Approaches (GPA)-certified coach. The overall goal of the GPA curriculum is to educate staff to use a person-centred, gentle, persuasive approach, and to respond appropriately to challenging behaviours associated with dementia.	https://www.ageinc.ca/ *cost associated
Alzheimer Society	The Alzheimer Society is the leading not-for-profit health organization working nationwide to improve the quality of life for Canadians affected by Alzheimer's disease and other dementias, and advance the search for the cause and cure. The website contains information about dementia, as well as resources, brochures, and other publications.	www.alzheimer.ca/en First Link Program (referral program for newly diagnosed people): http://www.alzheimer.ca/en/We-can-help/Resources/For-health-care-professionals/first-link All About Me (resource to tell health-care providers about the person with dementia's needs, likes, dislikes, interests, etc.): http://www.alzheimer.ca/en/Living-with-dementia/I-have-dementia/All-about-me
brainXchange	The brainXchange is a network of people dedicated to improving quality of life and supports for persons with or at risk of having brain-health needs related to dementia, mental health, and neurological conditions related to aging, or persons who have experienced brain-health changes earlier in life that have become more complex with aging.	www.brainxchange.ca
Centre for Effective Practice <i>Use of Antipsychotics in Behavioural and Psychological Symptoms of Dementia (BPSD) Discussion Guide</i>	The Discussion Guide is designed to help health-care providers understand, assess, and manage residents in long-term-care homes with behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia, with a focus on antipsychotic medications.	www.effectivepractice.org/
Dementia-Friendly Communities	Dementia-Friendly Communities helps create inviting and supportive communities where those who are living with dementia in the community can feel comfortable and safe.	http://www.alzheimer.ca/en/bc/About-dementia/Dementia-friendly%20communities
DementiAbility & Montessori Education	An educational program that teaches Montessori methods for people with dementia.	http://www.dementiability.com/ *cost associated http://www.montessoriteacherscollege.com/montessori-methods-for-dementia/about-montessori-methods-for-dementia/

ORGANIZATION, PROGRAM, OR RESOURCE	DESCRIPTION	LINK
Gentle Persuasive Approach (GPA)	The Gentle Persuasive Approaches is an educational program that trains staff to respond respectfully, effectively, and with compassion to people with responsive behaviours associated with dementia.	Locations vary *cost may be associated
International Psychogeriatric Association (IPA) Complete Guides to Behavioural and Psychological Symptoms of Dementia (BPSD)	The Guides are designed to serve as a reference tool and training resource.	http://www.ipa-online.org/publications/guides-to-bpsd/ *only available to IPA members
Living With Dementia: Resources for Living Well	Information and resources for persons with dementia and their partners in care.	https://uwaterloo.ca/murray-alzheimer-research-and-education-program/education-and-knowledge-translation/web-based-resources/living-dementia-resources-living-well
Memory Clinics	Memory clinics are available in some areas. Services include diagnosis, treatment, and support for people with memory loss. Clinics may provide interprofessional care to the person and their family, and promote cognitive health and quality of life.	Example of a program available in Ontario: http://www.the-ria.ca/products-resources/memory-clinic/
Murray Alzheimer Research and Education Program (MAREP)	The Murray Alzheimer Research and Education Program is an innovative program that adopts a partnership approach and integrates research and educational activities in an effort to improve dementia care practices in Canada and around the world. Look for resources such as Living with Dementia: Resources for Living Well, and products and education tools.	https://uwaterloo.ca/murray-alzheimer-research-and-education-program/ *cost associated for some items
Partnerships in Dementia Care (PiDC) Alliance	PiDC is focused on enhancing dementia care by changing the culture within long-term and community care to better reflect a relationship-centered, partnership approach to care.	https://uwaterloo.ca/partnerships-in-dementia-care/
Social Care Institute for Excellence: Dementia Gateway	Social Care Institute for Excellence is an improvement support agency in the UK that aims to improve health-care quality and support services. Look for dementia resources and the eLearning program.	http://www.scie.org.uk/dementia/ e-Learning course: http://www.scie.org.uk/dementia/open-dementia-e-learning-programme/index.asp *requires registration
U-First (training program) and PIECES (Alzheimer's Society of Ontario)	The U-First training is designed for people working in community care, acute care, and long-term care, and aims to build confidence in working with people with dementia. P.I.E.C.E.S.™ is a best-practice learning and development initiative designed for regulated health-care providers that provides an approach to understanding and enhancing care for individuals with complex physical and cognitive/mental health needs and behavioural changes. The model helps practitioners focus on understanding the whole person.	www.u-first.ca/ *cost associated

ORGANIZATION, PROGRAM, OR RESOURCE	DESCRIPTION	LINK
DEPRESSION		
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention—Healthy Aging	<p>CDC's Healthy Aging program is dedicated to monitoring the mental health status of the older adult population and connecting public health and aging services professionals with resources they can use to improve the health and quality of life of older Americans.</p> <p>Look for the fact sheet titled <i>Depression is Not a Normal Part of Growing Older</i>.</p>	http://www.cdc.gov/aging/mentalhealth/depression.htm
Geriatric Psychiatric Programs	Many communities or hospitals offer psychiatric programs specifically for older adults. Services may include assessment, treatment, and referrals; some services focus on working with the older adult and his/her family to support recovery and enhance quality of life.	<p>Examples of programs available in Ontario:</p> <p><i>Baycrest—Geriatric Psychiatry Community Service</i></p> <p>http://www.baycrest.org/care/care-programs/community-programs/in-home-and-outreach-services/geriatric-psychiatry-community-service/</p> <p><i>Mount Sinai Hospital—Geriatric Psychiatry</i></p> <p>https://www.mountsinai.on.ca/care/psych/patient-programs/geriatric-psychiatry</p> <p><i>The Royal—Geriatric Psychiatry Program</i></p> <p>http://www.theroyal.ca/mental-health-centre/mental-health-programs/areas-of-care/seniors/</p>
Other Local Services	Other mental-health services can provide support for depression, including (but not limited to) hospitals, community agencies that provide mental health services, and community health centres.	Health-care providers should research and compile their own list of local resources.
SUICIDE		
Centre for Suicide Prevention	A large collection of suicide prevention, intervention, and postvention resources.	http://www.suicideinfo.ca/
Crisis lines (local)	Most regions in Canada have a local crisis line that people can call to access counseling. Your Life Counts has a directory to help find local crisis lines.	http://www.yourlifecounts.org/need-help/crisis-lines
Canadian Coalition for Seniors Mental Health (CCSMH)	Resources for the assessment and prevention of suicide in late life, including the <i>Late Life Suicide Prevention Toolkit: Life Saving Tools for Health Care Providers</i> and a guide for family members.	www.ccsmh.ca

ORGANIZATION, PROGRAM, OR RESOURCE	DESCRIPTION	LINK
Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario: <i>Assessment and Care of Adults at Risk for Suicidal Ideation and Behaviour</i>	Guideline focused on adults at risk for suicide, including any adult who may exhibit risk factors, with or without expressed suicidal intent.	http://RNAO.ca/bpg/guidelines/assessment-and-care-adults-risk-suicidal-ideation-and-behaviour

Mental Capacity (Ontario-Based Resources)

*This information is included as an example. Practitioners in other jurisdictions should refer to relevant organizations and legislation.

TITLE	LINK
Advocacy Centre for the Elderly	http://www.advocacycentreelderly.org/
College of Nurses of Ontario Practice Guideline— <i>Consent</i>	http://www.cno.org/globalassets/docs/policy/41020_consent.pdf
Consent and Capacity Board	www.ccboard.on.ca
<i>Health Care Consent Act, 1996</i>	http://www.e-laws.gov.on.ca/html/statutes/english/elaws_statutes_96h02_e.htm
<i>Mental Health Act</i>	http://www.e-laws.gov.on.ca/html/statutes/english/elaws_statutes_90m07_e.htm
Office of the Public Guardian and Trustee (OPGT)	https://www.attorneygeneral.jus.gov.on.ca/english/family/pgt/
Ontario Seniors' Secretariat's <i>A Guide to Advance Care Planning</i>	http://www.seniors.gov.on.ca/en/advancedcare/
<i>Substitute Decisions Act, 1992</i>	http://www.e-laws.gov.on.ca/html/statutes/english/elaws_statutes_92s30_e.htm

Sample Videos

There are many videos on the topics of delirium, dementia, and depression. This is a list of videos suggested by the expert panel. This list is not exhaustive.

Note: cost may be associated with some resources.

TOPIC	RESOURCE TITLE	ORGANIZATION	DESCRIPTION	LINK
Delirium	<i>This Is Not My Mom</i>	Capital District Health Authority (CDHA) in Halifax, Nova Scotia	Daughter recognizes her mother's unusual behaviour.	http://thisisnotmymom.ca/
Dementia (personal care)	<i>Bathing Without a Battle</i>	University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	Person-centered techniques with simple, practical approaches to make showering, tub bathing, in-room bathing, and hair washing safe and comfortable for the persons giving and receiving care.	http://bathingwithoutabattle.unc.edu/
Dementia	<i>Darkness in the Afternoon</i>	University of Stirling, Dementia Services Development Centre	Dementia-related symptoms and explanation for some key behaviours associated with dementia.	http://www.dementiashop.co.uk/node/128
Dementia (sexual expressions)	<i>Freedom of Sexual Expression—Sexuality and Dementia</i>	Hebrew Home for the Aged, Research Division	Provides effective strategies for dealing with inappropriate sexual behaviours; encourages family members to understand and respect their loved one's continued need for intimacy; provides sample policies and procedures on residents' rights regarding sexual expression and physical protection.	http://www.fanlight.com/catalog/films/570_fse.php
Dementia	Various videos, including <i>Dementia 101</i> , <i>Brain Changes</i> , <i>Challenging Behaviours</i> , <i>Music</i> , <i>Meaningful Activities</i>	Teepa Snow	Videos on various topics by a dementia-care education specialist.	http://teepasnow.com/resources/teepa-tips-videos/
Dementia	<i>No Thanks, We're Fine: Supporting Families Living With Dementia</i>	Champlain Community Access Centre, Alzheimer Society of Ottawa and Renfrew County, Champlain Dementia Network	Caregivers speak movingly based on their own experiences directly to others like them on the importance of finding information, obtaining home care and other types of in-house assistance, joining support groups, and accessing respite through day programs and overnight guest houses.	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1SPEWhue4Do

TOPIC	RESOURCE TITLE	ORGANIZATION	DESCRIPTION	LINK
Dementia	<i>Small Changes Help Make a Dementia Friendly Community</i>	Alzheimer's Society	This video depicts the story of Mary, who has dementia, as she faces challenges in her community. It demonstrates how a little bit of time and consideration can make all the difference to the daily lives of people with dementia.	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Fz8ACEu7Lho&feature=youtu.be
Dementia	<i>Living Well with Dementia</i>	Partnerships in Dementia Care (PiDC) Alliance	Living Well with Dementia speaks to what it means for persons with dementia and their care partners to live well with dementia.	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HQLNHJB1OjU



Appendix K: Attitudes, Skills, and Knowledge That Are Beneficial for Communication in Dementia Care

Table 9 lists suggested content of communication skills training in dementia care.

Table 9: Content of Communication Skills Training in Dementia Care

SKILLS, ATTITUDES, AND KNOWLEDGE		
Verbal skills	Before physical care	Announce single activities Use one-step instructions, no usage of multiple instructions Delay physical assistance after verbal prompt
	At an early stage of illness trajectory	Avoid arguing, accept different perceptions of time and reality Use of yes/no and choice questions versus open-ended questions Suggest words when person is struggling for a specific word
	At a moderate to late stage of illness trajectory	Use names and nouns Use the person’s name Use simple sentences Repeat and rephrase sentences
	General skills	Use positive and biographical statements Identify personal communication styles and preferences Identify and do not use elder speak (diminutives, pronoun substitutions) Slow down
Non-verbal and emotional skills	Recognize unusual communicative attempts	Recognize micro-behavioral changes (eye movement, lifting the corner of the mouth, tears, etc.) as attempts to communicate View behavior that challenges as an attempt to communicate unmet needs
	Reflect your own non-verbal behavior	Make eye contact Give enough time Avoid high-pitch voice Listen actively
	Recognize and answer to emotions	Notice and validate person with dementia’s effects Use emotional tone Show empathy

SKILLS, ATTITUDES, AND KNOWLEDGE		
Attitudes towards people with dementia	Change perspectives	Take a resident's perspective on communication
	Think about activities	Try to increase pleasant events
	Reflect on your perceptions	Identify impacts on your communication (self-concept, depression, isolation, dependency)
	General attitudes	Use a calm approach Avoid over-nurturing, i.e. infantilizing or patronizing speech
Behavioral management skills	General behavioral skills	Respond to behavioral disturbances Use distraction techniques when aggressive behavior occurs Avoid confrontation Be practical Set realistic goals Clarify emotions
Usage of tools		Create and use memory books Create and use memory aids Create memory charts Use a behavior diary
Self-experiences	Reflect your communication style	Collect and reflect your successful and ineffective personal communication strategies Work out what works individually
	Give and receive feedback	Share experiences with others
Theoretical knowledge	General and basic knowledge	Know about dementia and symptoms; recognize the difference between normal forgetting, mild cognitive impairment, and Alzheimer's; know nature of behavioral symptoms, person, and environment Develop appropriate expectations of Alzheimer patients

Source: Reprinted from "Communication skills training in dementia care: A systematic review of effectiveness, training content, and didactic methods in different care settings," by E. Eggenberger, K. Heimerl, & M. I. Bennett, 2013, *International Psychogeriatrics*, 25(3), 345–358. Reprinted with permission.

Appendix L: Description of the Toolkit

Best practice guidelines can only be successfully implemented if planning, resources, organizational, and administrative supports are adequate and there is appropriate facilitation. To encourage successful implementation, an RNAO expert panel of nurses, researchers, and administrators has developed the *Toolkit: Implementation of Best Practice Guidelines* (2012b). The *Toolkit* is based on available evidence, theoretical perspectives, and consensus. We recommend the *Toolkit* for guiding the implementation of any clinical practice guideline in a health-care organization.

The *Toolkit* provides step-by-step directions for the individuals and groups involved in planning, coordinating, and facilitating the guideline implementation. These steps reflect a process that is dynamic and iterative rather than linear. Therefore, at each phase, preparation for the next phases and reflection on the previous phase is essential. Specifically, the *Toolkit* addresses the following key steps, as illustrated in the “Knowledge-to-Action” framework (Straus et al., 2009):

1. Identify the problem: Identify, review, and select knowledge (best practice guideline).
2. Adapt knowledge to the local context:
 - Assess barriers and facilitators to knowledge use, and
 - Identify resources.
3. Select, tailor, and implement interventions.
4. Monitor knowledge use.
5. Evaluate outcomes.
6. Sustain knowledge use.

Implementing guidelines to effect successful practice changes and positive clinical impact is a complex undertaking. The *Toolkit* is one key resource for managing this process. It can be downloaded at www.RNAO.ca/bpg/resources/toolkit-implementation-best-practice-guidelines-second-edition

Notes

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Notes

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INTERNATIONAL
AFFAIRS & BEST PRACTICE
GUIDELINES

TRANSFORMING
NURSING THROUGH
KNOWLEDGE

Clinical Best
Practice Guidelines

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