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1 **AN EVIDENCE-BASED PROGRAM TO IMPROVE ANALGESIC PRACTICE AND**  
2 **PAIN OUTCOMES IN RESIDENTIAL AGED CARE FACILITIES**

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21

22 Running head:

23 Effect of a Pain Management Program in RACFs

24

25 **ABSTRACT**

26 Pain is common in those living in residential aged care facilities (RACFs) and a number of  
27 obstacles have been identified as recurring barriers of adequate pain management. To address  
28 this, the Australian Pain Society developed 27 recommendations for comprehensive good  
29 practice in the identification, assessment and management of pain. This study reviewed pre-  
30 existing pain management practice at five Australian RACFs and identified changes needed  
31 to implement the recommendations, and then implemented an evidence based program that  
32 aimed to facilitate improved pain management. The program involved staff training and  
33 education, and revised in-house pain-management procedures. Reviews occurred pre- and  
34 post-program, and included the assessment of 282 residents for analgesic utilisation and pain  
35 status. Results showed that analgesic use improved post-program ( $p < .001$ ), with a decrease  
36 in residents receiving no analgesics (from 15% to 6%) and an increase in residents receiving  
37 Around-The-Clock plus Pro Re Nata (ATC+PRN) analgesics (from 24% to 43%). There were  
38 improvements in pain relief for residents with scores indicative of pain, with ABBEY  
39 ( $p = .005$ ), PAINAD ( $p = .001$ ), and NOPPAIN ( $p < .001$ ) scores all improving. Although  
40 physical function declined as expected, SF-36 bodily pain scores ( $p = .001$ ) also showed  
41 improvement. The results demonstrate that improved evidence based practice and outcomes  
42 in RACFs can be achieved with appropriate training and education. Investing resources in the  
43 aged care workforce via this program has improved analgesic practice and pain relief in  
44 participating sites. Further attention to the continued targeted pain management training of  
45 aged care staff is likely to improve pain-focused care for residents.

46 **KEY WORDS:** pain, pain management, residential aged care, training, program

47

48 **INTRODUCTION**

49 Those in Australia aged over 65 years with care needs that include 24 hour nursing care are  
50 eligible to receive ‘high level’ care in Residential Aged Care facilities (RACFs). For some  
51 residents in RACFs, ‘low level’ care of 24 hours personal care and intermittent nursing care  
52 is sufficient. Overall, residents’ care needs are substantial - over 40% of residents have  
53 circulatory system and/or musculoskeletal and connective tissue related diseases listed as  
54 their first medical condition (excluding mental and behavioural disorders). Also 50% of  
55 residents have dementia and 26% have a mental illness without dementia<sup>1</sup>. Pain is common in  
56 these settings, affecting up to 80% of residents, although international research findings  
57 demonstrate that the absolute prevalence of pain can vary substantially between facilities<sup>2,3</sup>.  
58 Obstacles have been recognised as potential barriers to adequate pain management in aged  
59 care. Under-prescription of opioids for pain relief in residential aged care is a problem, with  
60 some practitioners fearful of patients becoming addicted to prescription opioids or  
61 experiencing adverse side effects<sup>4</sup>. This practice is changing as research findings show that  
62 the risk of opioid dependency is low when these medications are used for medical reasons<sup>5,6</sup>,  
63 and as new drug formulations are introduced with fewer side effects<sup>7</sup>. However, other factors  
64 remain that are detrimental to good pain management in residential aged care<sup>8</sup> - including  
65 non-standardised approaches to pain assessment<sup>9</sup>, insufficient pain management knowledge  
66 base for staff<sup>9</sup>, inconsistent care due to high staff turnover or staff shortage<sup>4</sup>, and poor  
67 multidisciplinary pain management structures<sup>8</sup>.

68 A number of international studies have implemented programs to improve pain management  
69 practice in residential aged care. These programs have involved strategies to improve the  
70 staff’s education in pain assessment and management<sup>10,11,12</sup>, typically administered to all  
71 levels of nursing staff and sometimes combined with changing pain management practice at  
72 an institutional level<sup>12,13,14</sup>. Results invariably show improvement on some aspect of pain

73 management practice, though pain relief outcomes may be mixed. Stevenson et al 2006<sup>15</sup>  
74 showed improvements in some areas relating to pain management in long term care facilities,  
75 as well as reduced self-reported pain of any severity and of at least moderate pain. Baier et al  
76 2004<sup>16</sup> implemented a pain management program in nursing homes that showed  
77 improvements in pain assessment but not analgesic use or prevalence of pain. A similar  
78 program implemented by Horner et al 2005<sup>14</sup> showed improvements in pain assessment but  
79 failed to show a difference in pain treatment of residents with at least moderate daily pain. A  
80 program implemented in long term care facilities by Kaasalainen et al 2012<sup>12</sup> showed  
81 comparatively more increased pain in a control group compared to an pain protocol  
82 intervention group, though both groups had increased pain scores over the intervention  
83 period.

84 To address the complexity of pain management in residential aged care, the Australian Pain  
85 Society (APS) developed a framework comprising 27 key recommendations<sup>17,18</sup>. Based on  
86 best available evidence, these recommendations outlined best practice in the identification,  
87 assessment and management of pain in RACFs. These recommendations were also supported  
88 with a toolkit provided to all Australian RACFs by the Australian Government<sup>17,18</sup> that could  
89 be used as the basis of an evidence based training and education program to be deployed in  
90 RACFs. However, prior to this study, no implementation and evaluation program had been  
91 developed to embed the toolkit and recommendations into routine care. Also, although there  
92 are a number of pain management programs that have been developed and tested  
93 internationally, the authors were (and remain) unaware of any pain management program  
94 specifically designed for Australian RACFs that utilises a comprehensive framework such as  
95 the APS key recommendations. This project aimed to address implementation of the 27  
96 recommendations and evaluate outcomes.

97

98 **METHODS**

99 Conducted in 2008-9, this study used a pre-test / post-test design. Five facilities in three  
100 Australian states (QLD, VIC, WA) were selected to partner in this study, representing a  
101 spectrum of RACFs (high, low or dementia-specific care, large or small bed capacity,  
102 culturally diverse, and in metropolitan or regional settings). A pre-test (baseline) review of  
103 pre-existing pain management practices and outcomes in these RACFs identified gaps in  
104 training and organisational changes needed to implement the recommendations. A  
105 comprehensive program (including staff education and training, pain assessment procedures,  
106 broadening staff roles, and pain management resources) was then conducted to address gaps  
107 in pain management practice. A post-implementation (post-program) review evaluated the  
108 success of the program in practice and outcomes.

109 Ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Alfred Hospital Ethics Committee  
110 (VIC), Curtin University Ethics Committee (WA), Edith Cowan University Ethics Committee  
111 (WA), and Queensland University of Technology Ethics Committee (QLD).

112 **Subjects**

113 An exhaustive sample of all residents participated in the reviews, with a minority of residents  
114 refusing to participate. Next of kin consented on behalf of residents without the capacity to  
115 consent themselves (unless there was no provision for proxy consent, in which case the  
116 relevant ethics committee granted waiver of consent).

117 **Assessment tools**

118 Residents were individually assessed using a comprehensive battery of pain and  
119 psychometric tools. The Resident's Verbal Brief Pain Inventory (RVBPI)<sup>20</sup>, ABBEY pain  
120 scale<sup>21</sup>, Pain Assessment in Advanced Dementia Scale (PAINAD)<sup>22</sup>, Non-communicative

121 Patient's Pain Assessment Instrument scale (NOPPAIN)<sup>23</sup> and Short Form 36 Health  
122 Survey<sup>24</sup> were used to assess pain. The RVBPI was adapted from the Brief Pain Inventory<sup>25</sup>  
123 and is an abbreviated self-report verbal pain scale. It consists of a number of questions,  
124 including 'pain today', 'worst pain', 'average pain, 'least pain', and 'pain now'. ABBEY (0  
125 to 18 scale), PAINAD (0 to 10 scale), and NOPPAIN (0 to 30 scale) are pain scales designed  
126 to be used in patients that cannot self-report or with cognitive impairment. These three scales  
127 differ slightly in the items they endorse as indicative of pain. The Short Form 36 Health  
128 Survey [SF-36] is a general health self-report questionnaire with subscales including physical  
129 (0 to 100 scale) and bodily pain assessment (0 to 100 scale). Resident prescription medication  
130 charts were also reviewed to determine analgesic utilisation and to complete the Medication  
131 Quantification Scale (MQS)<sup>26</sup>. Only analgesics prescribed and signed as given were included.  
132 Residents were also assessed on a number of well-established psychometric tools – the  
133 Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS)<sup>27</sup>, Cohen-Mansfield Agitation Inventory (CMAI)<sup>28</sup>, and  
134 Barthel Index<sup>29</sup>.

### 135 **Procedure**

136 All eligible residents were assessed at baseline and post-program. The observational tools  
137 were used for every resident and tools requiring self-report were administered when  
138 achievable. The baseline review also included:

- 139 • expert assessment of current practice after observation undertaken over a four week  
140 period (including the evaluation of existing structured pain identification and  
141 assessment procedures, pain management policies and quality improvement  
142 processes, and the integration of multidisciplinary collaborations and treatment  
143 protocols)

- 144 • the compilation of summaries of pharmacological and non-pharmacological  
145 interventions,
- 146 • focus groups with residents, family and staff to describe existing practice and  
147 outcomes (including administration of a Pain Management Staff Survey)

148 In this way, the baseline review identified any evidence based practice gaps. These gaps were  
149 prioritised and the implementation program tailored at each individual facility to ensure that  
150 all key areas were covered but also to implement strategies that addressed prioritised areas.  
151 Program delivery was also adapted to the learning needs at each facility (variable due to  
152 differences in staff cultural background, English language proficiency, etc).

153 Each RACF then underwent the implementation program designed to address identified  
154 practice deficits. This program aimed to improve pain management in accordance with the 27  
155 APS recommendations and encompassed four main categories of activities: staff education  
156 and training (eg training in verbal / non-verbal pain tools and the use of mobilisation  
157 protocols; importance of around the clock analgesics), the establishment of a regular  
158 evidence-based pain assessment procedure (eg regularly asking about pain and regular re-  
159 assessment; structured procedures to identify the causes of pain; structures to identify pain in  
160 those unable to report it), the appointment of pain champions / pain team (eg systems to  
161 improve multidisciplinary collaboration between physician, staff and allied health; referral to  
162 pain clinics for those that fail to respond to treatment; demonstration of a pain vigilant  
163 culture), and the co-ordination of available resources for pain management (eg structured  
164 staff procedures to document pain-related behaviour; availability of both pharmacological  
165 and non-pharmacological pain treatment therapies; pain management quality improvement  
166 processes).



167 Staff attended lectures, workshops (four x three-hour sessions) and one-on-one ‘on the job’  
168 training (two x half-day sessions), though this varied depending on nursing staff capacity.  
169 Training was also tailored in response to staff roles at each RACF. Nursing staff received  
170 additional training on analgesics and behaviour assessment, support staff received additional  
171 training on noticing and reporting resident behaviours, and managerial staff received  
172 additional training on systems such as linking pain assessment with government funding  
173 structures. Educational content included an overview of pain and ageing and dementia,  
174 current evidence and APS guidelines, usage of pain assessment tools and their practical  
175 application, pain management practice and treatment options, and a summary of changes to  
176 pain management practice and staff roles. The RVBPI (and either ABBEY or PAINAD for  
177 non-verbal residents) were recommended to facility staff as appropriate tools in pain  
178 assessment and were encouraged to be completed at least every three months, or more  
179 regularly when appropriate. Facilities changed policy and procedures to reflect these new  
180 practices.

181 Pain Champions were also appointed at each facility and most established ‘pain teams’,  
182 staffed by a combination of clinical managers, pain champions, nurse unit managers, and  
183 allied health staff. Co-ordination of available pain management resources included collating  
184 resources, developing external pain management contacts, commissioning pain specialists for  
185 some residents with intractable pain, and making available a multidisciplinary pain clinic for  
186 individual treatments.

187 The post-program review was conducted approximately one year after the initial one.

188 Assessments were done blind to any treatment changes between reviews.

## 189 **Data Analysis**

190 Residents were classified with cognitive impairment when scoring < 24 on the Mini-Mental  
191 State Examination (MMSE)<sup>30</sup> or 4+ on the Psychogeriatric Assessment Scales - Cognitive  
192 Impairment Scale (PAS-Cog)<sup>31</sup>. Analgesic use was defined as the protocol of drug  
193 administration [None (NIL), Pro-Re-Nata (PRN), Around-The-Clock (ATC), Around the  
194 Clock plus Pro-Re-Nata (ATC+PRN)]. The impact of the program on analgesic use at the  
195 RACFs was assessed using chi-square analysis.

196 Separate MANOVA repeated measures multivariate tests were used on non-verbal pain  
197 measures (ABBEY, PAINAD, NOPPAIN), RVBPI measures (worst pain, least pain, average  
198 pain, pain now), and physical components of the SF-36 (Physical Function, Role-physical,  
199 bodily pain, General Health) to determine between-subject cognitive status effects, within-  
200 subject program effects, and cognitive status x program interaction effects. For non-verbal  
201 pain assessment tests, only residents with baseline scores indicative of likely pain were  
202 included (cut-offs of ABBEY > 3.5, PAINAD > 3.5, NOPPAIN > 4.5<sup>32</sup>). Though cut-offs  
203 here were higher than recommended for 'daily practice', they correspond reasonably well  
204 with those recommendations, and were based on ROC curve cut-off points from previous  
205 work<sup>32</sup>. For RVBPI tests, only residents that answered 'Yes' to the item 'Do you feel pain  
206 today?' were included. Wilk's Lambda was used for all multivariate tests. Univariate analysis  
207 used Greenhouse-Geiser with Bonferroni correction. All analyses were conducted using  
208 SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 17.0 (Chicago: SPSS Inc).

209

## 210 **RESULTS**

### 211 **Participation Rates**

212 The project achieved a very high 92% recruitment rate with 365 residents assessed at  
213 baseline, and 330 residents assessed post-program. A sub-sample of 282 residents was used  
214 for analysis in this paper, restricted to residents assessed at both reviews. Table 1 shows the  
215 demographic and clinical characteristics of the sample at baseline. The sample was primarily  
216 female (77%), average age 85 years, and with 29% of residents with a PAS-Cog or MMSE  
217 indicating no cognitive impairment, 25% with mild cognitive impairment, and 46% with  
218 moderate or severe cognitive impairment.

219

220 [Table 1 around here]

221

## 222 **Non-Pharmacological Pain Management**

223 The use of non-pharmacological pain management treatments at baseline and post-program  
224 were compared. For residents reporting pain on the day of testing (n=83), 34% (n=28)  
225 reported using any form of non-pharmacological treatment at baseline review compared with  
226 42% (n=35) at post-review ( $n=83$ ,  $\chi^2 = 0.928$ ).

227

## 228 **Analgesic Utilisation Practice**

229 The impact of the program on current analgesic use was assessed by comparing the  
230 prevalence of analgesic prescription type (NIL, PRN, ATC, or ATC+PRN) at baseline and  
231 post-program. Though the program could also be assessed in relation to changes in dosage or  
232 analgesic class, the timing of analgesic use (NIL, PRN, etc) is also an important benchmark,  
233 especially useful for evaluating pain management systems. The results showed significant

234 changes in analgesic utilisation practice after the program. This was evident for all residents  
235 (Fig 1), those cognitively intact (Fig 2A), those with any level of cognitive impairment (Fig  
236 2B), and residents identified with at least moderate to severe cognitive impairment (results  
237 not shown).

238 Figure 1 shows the effect of the program on all participating residents. Analgesic prescription  
239 rates at baseline were 15% (NIL), 17% (PRN), 44% (ATC), and 24% (ATC+PRN). Post-  
240 program rates were 6% (NIL), 21% (PRN), 30% (ATC), and 43% (ATC+PRN). Chi-square  
241 analysis confirmed changes in analgesic practice ( $\chi^2 = 116.43$ ,  $df = 9$ ,  $p < .001$ ). 75% ( $n = 30$ )  
242 of residents without analgesics were prescribed at least PRN post-program, with 53% ( $n =$   
243 16) of those prescribed at least ATC. Though 62% ( $n = 28$ ) on PRN analgesics at baseline  
244 remained on PRN, 33% ( $n = 15$ ) were on analgesics with an ATC component post-program.  
245 ATC prescription rates also shifted, with 48% ( $n = 56$ ) previously on ATC prescribed an  
246 additional PRN analgesic post-program. It should be noted that a supplementary analysis of  
247 all participating residents (including those not assessed at both time points) yielded a similar  
248 pattern of analgesic use (results not shown).

249

250 [Figure 1 about here]

251

252 Figure 2 shows the effect of the program on analgesic use for the cognitively intact (A) and  
253 the cognitively impaired (B). For the cognitively intact at baseline (Figure 2A), rates were  
254 25% (NIL), 16% (PRN), 32% (ATC), and 27% (ATC+PRN). Post-program rates were 6%  
255 (NIL), 25% (PRN), 32% (ATC), and 37% (ATC+PRN). Chi square analysis showed  
256 differences in analgesic use for the cognitively intact ( $\chi^2 = 34.33$ ,  $df = 9$ ,  $p < .001$ ), with 44%

257 prescribed PRN from previously none, and 35% prescribed ATC+PRN from previously ATC  
258 only. Figure 2B shows the effect of the program on residents with any level of cognitive  
259 impairment. Baseline rates were 10% (NIL), 17% (PRN), 47% (ATC) and 26% (ATC+PRN).  
260 Post-program rates were 5% (NIL), 16% (PRN), 36% (ATC) and 44% (ATC+PRN). Chi-  
261 square analysis confirmed changes in analgesic use ( $\chi^2 = 63.17$ ,  $df = 9$ ,  $p < .001$ ). 67%  
262 without analgesics at baseline were prescribed at least PRN post-program. 44% on ATC at  
263 baseline were changed to ATC+PRN post-program. When stratifying the group by only those  
264 with moderate to severe cognitive impairment, the pattern of analgesic practice was also  
265 similar (results not shown).

266

267 [Figure 2 about here]

268

### 269 **Pain Measurement Scores**

270 Multivariate repeated measures MANOVA (see Table 2) were performed on non-verbal pain  
271 assessments (ABBEY, PAINAD, NOPPAIN), RVBPI subscales (Worst pain, Least pain,  
272 Average pain, pain Now), and the physical domain of the SF-36 (Physical Function, Role  
273 physical, Bodily Pain, General Health). Sample sizes were smaller for non-verbal measures  
274 and RVBPI subscales due to fewer residents meeting the pain cut-off criteria or indicating  
275 pain on the day of assessment, respectively. For non-verbal pain measures, there were  
276 significant within-subject program effects [ $F(3,121) = 7.06$ ,  $p < .001$ ], with significant  
277 univariate effects for ABBEY ( $p = .005$ ), PAINAD ( $p = .001$ ), and NOPPAIN ( $p < .001$ ). For  
278 RVBPI measures, there were no significant within-subject program effects [ $F(4,81) = 2.08$ ,  $p$   
279  $= .091$ ], though the univariate effect for Least pain was significant ( $p = .046$ ). For the

280 physical components of the SF-36, there were significant within-subject program effects [F(4,  
281 202) = 6.22,  $p < .001$ ], with univariate effects significant for physical function ( $p = .001$ ) and  
282 bodily pain ( $p = .001$ ).

283

284 [Table 2 about here]

285

286 Table 3 shows the change in pain score (for ABBEY, PAINAD, NOPPAIN) from baseline to  
287 post-program, for residents meeting the non-verbal pain score cut-offs. Pain score worsened  
288 in 29% of residents. Pain score was unchanged for 11% to 21% of residents. Pain score  
289 improved in 50% to 60% of residents.

290

291 [Table 3 about here]

292

## 293 **DISCUSSION**

294 Pain management in residential aged care can be difficult due to obstacles such as non-  
295 standardised approaches to pain, insufficient staff knowledge and support, high staff turn-  
296 over, and poor multidisciplinary pain management integration. The APS key  
297 recommendations and associated toolkit endeavour to address these barriers, and this project  
298 aimed to improve pain management in a number of Australian RACFs by implementing and  
299 evaluating a comprehensive program that incorporated such guidelines.

300 The results suggest that a program aiming to incorporate a best available evidence approach  
301 to pain management in RACFs can improve both practice and pain-related outcomes. After

302 the program, analgesic use had shown considerable improvement. The number of residents  
303 with no analgesic prescription diminished post-program, particularly in the cognitively intact  
304 group. Likewise, the number of residents prescribed ATC + PRN increased post-program,  
305 with the largest gains seen in the cognitively impaired.

306 As well as significant improvements in adherence to APS guidelines in analgesic practice,  
307 there were improvements in pain scores after the program. For residents with pain scores  
308 exceeding the cut-offs, non-verbal pain measures (ABBEY, PAINAD, NOPPAIN) were all  
309 lower after the program. As previous work has shown that non-verbal pain assessments are  
310 sensitive to pain severity in people with dementia<sup>32</sup>, it supports the notion that this  
311 intervention program was successful in improving pain relief. The distribution of change in  
312 pain score during the study showed that approximately 30% of residents had pain scores that  
313 had worsened post-program, whilst 10% to 20% had unchanged pain scores. However, the  
314 majority (50% to 60%) had pain scores that improved at least 1 point, with up to 20% of  
315 those improving by considerably more (4+ points on the ABBEY / PAINAD, or 7+ on the  
316 NOPPAIN). An improvement of this magnitude would potentially have a significant impact  
317 on a resident experiencing pain.

318 There were also changes in the physical component of the SF-36, with the bodily pain  
319 subscale from the Short Form-36 health survey improving post-program. This suggests that  
320 reports of recent bodily pain and interference with activity due to that pain were less severe  
321 after the program. The post-program bodily pain scores ( $69.85 \pm 25.28$ ) were consistent with  
322 normative scores of the general population over 75 years old ( $69.3 \pm 23.84$ ) whilst the  
323 baseline scores ( $63.99 \pm 25.68$ ) were consistent with scores of the general population of any  
324 age and with arthritis or osteoporosis conditions<sup>33</sup>. The results suggest an implementation  
325 program can be particularly successful at relieving bodily pain conditions and improving  
326 related function.

327 The results from our study showed that pain scores improved in residents in pain at baseline,  
328 and together with evidence showing improved compliance with APS pain management  
329 guidelines and improved staff self-efficacy (reported in a second paper by the same  
330 authors<sup>34</sup>), suggests that the program was successful in embedding evidence-based pain  
331 management recommendations into routine care. However, though overall pain scores after  
332 the program improved for residents with likely pain, still 40% to 50% either had unchanged  
333 or worsened pain scores. It is unclear whether these residents had difficult to treat or  
334 intractable pain, whether acute pain between baseline and post-program had inflated pain  
335 scores, whether disease had progressed with accompanying increases in pain, or that the  
336 program was insufficiently targeted to improve certain painful conditions. Likewise, other  
337 factors could instead be responsible for the improvements seen in analgesic use and pain  
338 scores. Unrelated management policies or turnover in aged care staff may have inadvertently  
339 impacted pain management. It is however reasonable to assume that any improvements seen  
340 post-program were due to the implementation program.

341 Comparisons with other international research on the efficacy of programs to improve pain  
342 management practice in aged care have shown mixed outcomes. Stevenson et al 2006<sup>15</sup>  
343 outlined a large scale program implemented in a variety of health care organisations. Though  
344 not specifically tailored to long-term care, the program demonstrated significant reductions in  
345 the average prevalence of pain in the past 24 hours for residents that could self-report in 26  
346 long-term care facilities, when measured using a one-minute verbal pain questionnaire.  
347 Unlike our study, only a small sample (ten residents) at each facility was assessed pre and  
348 post-program. Nonetheless they showed that the number of residents receiving analgesics  
349 improved post-program. Our study showed a similar finding with an increase in the  
350 prevalence of analgesic use for residents without cognitive impairment post-implementation  
351 program. A program designed for long-term nursing homes by Horner et al 2005<sup>14</sup> showed



352 improvements in pain assessment but no difference in pain treatment of residents with  
353 moderate or excruciating pain. Unlike our study, they did show an increase in the use of non-  
354 pharmacological pain treatments post-program. A pain management program for long-term  
355 care by Kaasalainen et al 2012 <sup>12</sup> showed that after a one year period, the control group had  
356 higher non-verbal pain scores than the intervention group. However the intervention group  
357 was still shown to have higher non-verbal pain scores post-intervention program. This  
358 compares to our study also showing that pain worsened for 29% of residents that met non-  
359 verbal pain score cut-offs. Overall however, all non-verbal pain measures were lower after  
360 our implementation program. A recent study by Tse et al 2013 showed that an integrated pain  
361 management program can improve a number of outcomes for the elderly in nursing homes<sup>35</sup>.  
362 This short program (eight weeks) was implemented only for cognitive residents in a nursing  
363 home. Not only did pain scores improve, but also measures of happiness, geriatric depression,  
364 and life satisfaction.

365 There are a number of limitations with this study. The inclusion of a control group would  
366 have strengthened the design of the study and allowed for more direct comparisons of the  
367 effectiveness of the implementation program at each facility. A second limitation is that this  
368 study does not report on the impact of the side effects of analgesic medications, an important  
369 issue in pain management. Although nursing staff was educated on the potential side effects  
370 of analgesic medication, adverse events associated with its use (such as constipation with  
371 opioids) were not documented for study purposes. As such, the implementation program  
372 could not be assessed in this regard.

373

374 **CONCLUSION**

375 This study demonstrates that for the RACFs that participated in the program, best evidence  
376 based practice can be achieved with additional training and education, and appropriate  
377 changes to institutional pain management practice. The results show that the implementation  
378 program can demonstrate improvements in pain-related outcomes, such as better analgesic  
379 utilisation and improved pain relief. Investing directed resources in the aged care workforce  
380 may therefore improve care for residents.

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 392 Freemason’s Homes of Victoria, Colbran Lodge (Vic).

393 **Conflict of Interest:**

Elements of Financial/Personal Conflicts	S Savvas		C Toye		E Beattie		S Gibson	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Employment or Affiliation		X		X		X		X
Grants/Funds		X		X		X		X
Honoraria		X		X		X	X	
Speaker Forum		X		X		X		X
Consultant		X		X		X		X
Stocks		X		X		X		X
Royalties		X		X		X		X
Expert Testimony		X		X		X		X
Board Member		X		X		X		X
Patents		X		X		X		X
Personal Relationship		X		X		X		X

394 \*Authors can be listed by abbreviations of their names.  
395 For all “Yes” responses, provide a brief explanation here:

396 S.Gibson is on the advisory board of Pfizer and CSL pharmaceutical companies, but these  
397 activities have no connection to the content or conduct of studies relating to the current  
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399

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402 acquisition of subjects; Elizabeth Beattie – State Project Manager, acquisition of subjects;  
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## GRAPHICS

**Table 1:** Clinical Characteristics of the Sample (n=282) at Baseline.

	Total n (%)	Mean $\pm$ SD
Age (years)	282	85.3 $\pm$ 7.7
Sex: Total	282 (100%)	
Male	66 (23%)	
Female	216 (77%)	
MMSE Score	51	19.1 $\pm$ 12.1
PAS-Cog Score	183	9.7 $\pm$ 6.9
Cog Impairment: Total	230 (100%)	
No impairment	67 (29%)	
Mild impairment	58 (25%)	
Moderate or Severe	105 (46%)	
SF-36 Total Score	222	61.5 $\pm$ 19.5
Abbreviated GDS	217	3.8 $\pm$ 3.1
MQS	282	13.6 $\pm$ 9.4
CMAI	281	34.9 $\pm$ 11.8
Barthel Index	280	53.9 $\pm$ 31.8

SD, Standard Deviation; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination (range 0-30); PAS-Cog, Psychogeriatric Assessment Scale - Cognitive Impairment Scale (range 0-21); SF-36, Short Form (36) Health Survey (range 0-100), GDS, Geriatric Depression Scale; MQS, Medication Quantitative Scale, CMAI, Cohen-Mansfield Agitation Inventory.



**Table 2:** *Change in Pain Score.* Mean pain scores at baseline and one year post-program.

	N	Baseline	Post-program	Pairwise comparisons			
		Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	df	MeanSq	F	p
<i>Non-Verbal Pain Assessments</i>							
ABBEY	124 <sup>a</sup>	5.97 (2.63)	5.08 (3.19)	1	48.79	7.99	.005**
PAINAD	124 <sup>a</sup>	3.90 (1.80)	3.19 (1.79)	1	31.23	12.48	.001**
NOPPAIN	124 <sup>a</sup>	9.33 (4.87)	7.13 (4.74)	1	300.52	17.77	<.001**
<i>Resident Verbal Brief Pain Inventory Subscales</i>							
RVBPI worst pain	84 <sup>b</sup>	2.39 (0.83)	2.35 (0.88)	1	0.05	0.09	.760
RVBPI least pain	84 <sup>b</sup>	0.78 (0.68)	0.99 (0.99)	1	1.91	4.10	.046*
RVBPI average pain	84 <sup>b</sup>	1.61 (0.62)	1.76 (0.73)	1	0.99	3.41	.068
RVBPI pain now	84 <sup>b</sup>	1.15 (0.89)	1.14 (0.93)	1	0.01	0.01	.924
<i>Physical domain of the SF-36</i>							
SF-36 Physical Function	206	30.73 (27.07)	26.97 (25.49)	1	1457.83	10.53	.001**
SF-36 Role physical	206	60.07 (41.82)	63.64 (41.95)	1	1307.66	1.06	.304
SF-36 Bodily Pain	206	63.99 (25.68)	69.85 (25.28)	1	3541.90	12.06	.001**
SF-36 General Health	206	59.87 (20.48)	60.79 (23.72)	1	86.70	0.46	.498

\* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; SD, Standard Deviation; RVBPI, Resident Verbal Brief Pain Inventory; SF-36, Short Form 36 Health Survey.

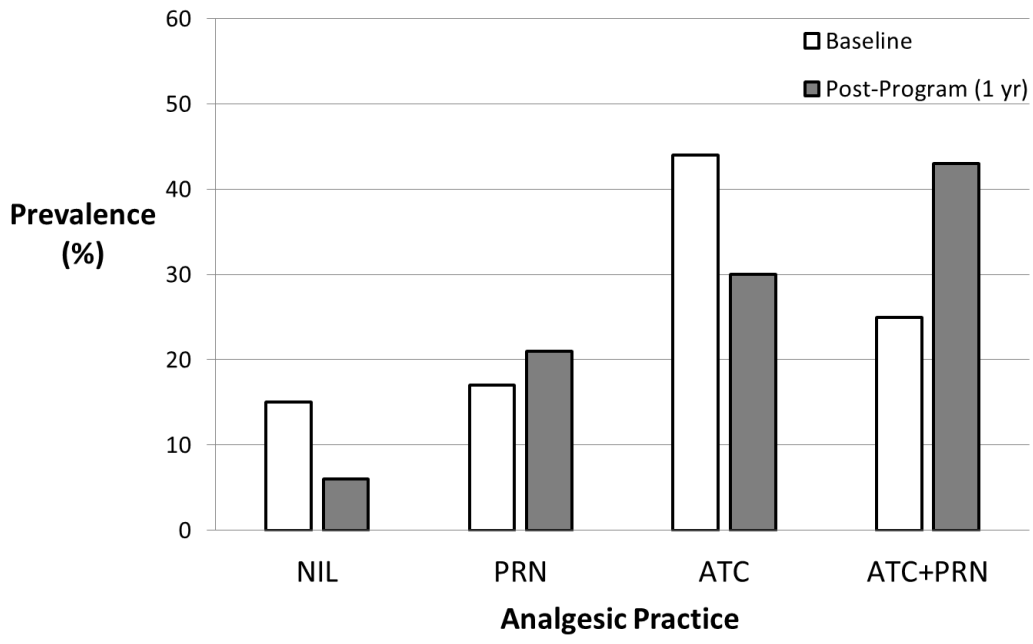
<sup>a</sup>Residents with baseline scores meeting pain cut-off scores.

<sup>b</sup>Residents that answered 'Yes' to 'Do you feel pain today?'.

**Table 3: Percentage of Residents Showing Improvement in Pain Score**

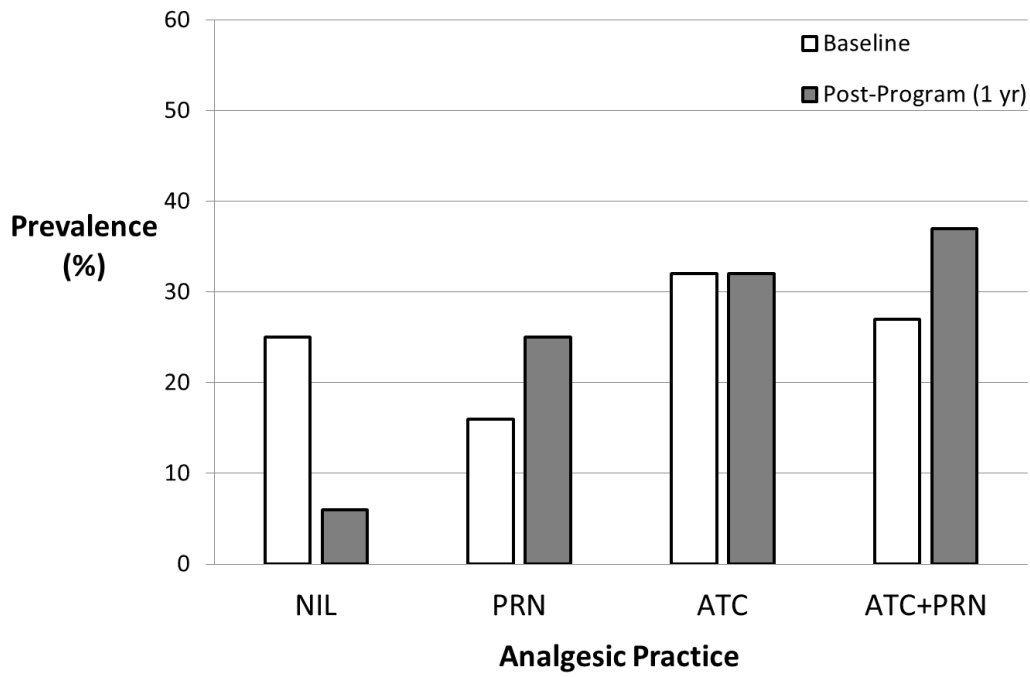
	n	(%)
<b>ABBEY</b>		
Score worsened	36	29%
Score unchanged	20	16%
Score improved 1 to 3 points	45	36%
Score improved 4+ points	23	19%
<b>PAINAD</b>		
Score worsened	36	29%
Score unchanged	26	21%
Score improved 1 to 3 points	46	37%
Score improved 4+ points	16	13%
<b>NOPPAIN</b>		
Score worsened	36	29%
Score unchanged	14	11%
Score improved 1 to 6 points	49	39%
Score improved 7+ points	27	21%

*Figure 1: Analgesic Use for All Residents.* The figure shows the prevalence of analgesic use for all residents, at baseline and one year post-program. Note the significant changes in residents with no analgesic prescription (NIL) and Around-The-Clock and Pro-Re-Nata (ATC+PRN) prescription.



*Figure 2: Analgesic Use in the Cognitively Intact and Impaired.* The figures show the prevalence of analgesic use for residents with / without cognitive impairment, at baseline and one year post-program. A: Analgesic use in the cognitively intact. B: Analgesic use in the cognitively impaired.

## A: Cognitively Intact



## B: Cognitively Impaired

