

Prevalence of Multidimensional Frailty and Related Factors Among Community-Dwelling Older Adults in Shahroud, Northeastern Iran: A Cross-Sectional Study

Maryam Imani¹, Mahboobeh Khajeh², Ahmad Khosravi³, Hossein Ebrahimi^{4*}

- ¹ MSc, Student Research Committee, School of Nursing & Midwifery, Shahroud University of Medical Sciences, Shahroud, Iran.
- ² PhD, School of Nursing & Midwifery, Shahroud University of Medical Sciences, Shahroud, Iran.
- ³ PhD, Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Shahroud University of Medical Sciences, Shahroud, Iran.
- ⁴ PhD, Center for Health Related Social and Behavioral Sciences Research, Shahroud University of Medical Sciences, Shahroud, Iran.

Received: 13 April 2025 Accepted: 17 August 2025

Abstract

Background: Most frailty studies focus on physical aspects, with limited data on other dimensions, particularly environmental. This study estimated frailty prevalence and related risk factors across five dimensions (physical, psychological, cognitive, social, and environmental) among Iranian community-dwelling older adults.

Methods: This cross-sectional study was performed on 413 older adults referred to health centers in Shahroud, northeastern Iran. Participants were selected via cluster random sampling. Persianspeaking adults aged ≥60 years, able to communicate and provide informed consent, were included in the study; those with severe mental or cognitive disorders diagnosed by physicians or severe physical disorders were excluded. Multidimensional frailty was assessed using the Comprehensive Frailty Assessment Instrument Plus (CFAI-Plus). Multinomial logistic regression identified risk factors associated with frailty.

Results: In physical, psychological, cognitive, social, and environmental dimensions, the prevalence of mild to high frailty was 9.2%, 13.6%, 59.6%, 26.4%, and 28.3%, respectively. Advanced age was the only variable associated with frailty in all dimensions (physical, psychological, and cognitive dimensions: P-value<0.001; environmental: P-value=0.023, and social: P-value=0.013). Also, female gender, low education, dependence on Instrumental Activities of Daily Living (IADL), current smoking, joint disease, hypertension, insufficient income, physical inactivity, living alone, having less than two children, depressive symptoms, poor cognition, comorbidity, and poor self-reported health were each differentially associated with one of the frailty dimensions.

Conclusions: A multidimensional approach to frailty highlights distinct risk factors across physical, psychological, cognitive, social, and environmental domains, supporting health professionals and policymakers in developing targeted interventions to prevent or delay frailty in older adults.

Keywords: Multidimensional frailty, Older adults, Prevalence, Risk factors.

*Corresponding to: H Ebrahimi, Email: ebrahimi@shmu.ac.ir

Please cite this paper as: Imani M, Khajeh M, Khosravi A, Ebrahimi H. Prevalence of Multidimensional Frailty and Related Factors Among Community-Dwelling Older Adults in Shahroud, Northeastern Iran: A Cross-Sectional Study. Shahroud Journal of Medical Sciences 2025;11(3):32-42.

Introduction

With the increase in life expectancy and the growing population of older adults in recent years, greater attention has been directed toward addressing the health problems and care needs of this population, particularly those experiencing

frailty¹. Frailty is a common geriatric syndrome characterized by a reduced ability to adapt to stressors, resulting from impairments across multiple physiological systems^{2,3}. In recent years, frailty has been reconceptualized as a multidimensional phenomenon, and many scholars have emphasized the need for operational definitions that extend beyond the physical domain to include other key dimensions of functioning⁴. Consequently, the reported prevalence of frailty varies substantially depending on the assessment tool employed^{3,5,6}. A systematic review estimated the global prevalence of physical frailty at 9.9% and multidimensional frailty at 13.6% among community-dwelling older adults7. Physical frailty is typically defined by the presence of features such as unintentional weight loss, slow gait speed, self-reported fatigue, low physical activity, and muscular weakness8. A unidimensional focus on physical frailty alone may result in fragmented or inadequate care. In contrast, the multidimensional approach provides a holistic understanding of frailty by addressing the person as a whole⁴. Multidimensional frailty encompasses a dynamic interaction among physical, psychological, social, cognitive, and environmental components9. In the Middle East countries, combined prevalence of unidimensional multidimensional frailty and pre-frailty has been reported to be 35% and 39%, respectively¹⁰. In Iran, according to several previous studies, the prevalence of multidimensional frailty was 33-47%^{11,12}. However, these studies did not assess the individual domains of frailty separately. The present study seeks to address this gap by examining each domain of frailty independently. Such domain-specific analysis facilitates the identification of areas in which an individual may be frail and supports the development of targeted interventions to reduce frailty and improve health outcomes within those specific domains¹³.

Older adults who are frail experience more adverse outcomes such as falls, disability, hospitalization, admission to care homes, death, and higher care costs ^{8,14-16}. Additionally, frailty is considered a pre-disability condition and overlaps with aging, disability, and comorbidity¹; however, unlike these conditions, it is a dynamic state that can be prevented or mitigated through appropriate interventions such as exercise, proper nutrition, and health education ^{2,16}. Therefore, identifying frailty and the factors associated with it allows for effective planning to reduce its negative impacts ¹⁷.



Previous studies conducted in both developed and developing countries have identified several factors that contribute to the progression of frailty syndrome. The prevalence of frailty increases with age, and among individuals over 85 years old, it has been reported to range from 25% to as high as 80% in some studies^{16,18,19}. According to previous studies, frailty is more prevalent among women, individuals with lower levels of education and income, single persons, and those living alone 20-22. Other determinants of frailty include the presence of multiple chronic conditions, polypharmacy, poor self-rated health, and unhealthy lifestyles such as poor nutrition, smoking, alcohol consumption, and physical inactivity²²⁻²⁴. In addition, several common geriatric syndromes are also associated with frailty, including depression, cognitive impairment, and functional disability 18,19,25. In general, factors related to frailty can be categorized into sociodemographic, health-related, and lifestyle-related factors²¹. Evaluation the factors that influence the development of frailty is essential for identifying high-risk groups⁶. So far, very few studies have investigated the prevalence of multidimensional frailty and its associated factors in each dimension separately, both in Iran and around the world. Therefore, the current study was conducted with the aim of determining the prevalence of frailty across five domains: physical, psychological, cognitive, social, and environmental. In addition, the associations between demographic characteristics, clinical factors, health-related variables, and lifestyle-related factors were examined separately for each domain of frailty among communitydwelling older adults.

Materials and Methods

This cross-sectional study, conducted from January to October 2021, assessed the prevalence of multidimensional frailty and associated risk factors among community-dwelling older adults aged ≥60 years in Shahroud, northeastern Iran. The sample size was calculated as 385 individuals based on an estimated frailty prevalence of 50% in previous studies¹¹, with a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error. Considering a potential 10% non-response rate, the final target sample size was set at 425 participants. A multi-stage random sampling method was used. In the first stage, out of 11 healthcare centers in the city, five centers were randomly selected and the records of the older adults covered by these five centers were extracted based on household numbers. In the second stage, 5% of the population covered by each center was selected as a systematic random sampling with an interval of 20 (K=20). In this way, the older adults files of each center are numbered in order, a random number among 1 and 20 was selected and then the next people were selected with a distance of 20 from the previous one. The purpose of the study and the method of conducting it were explained to each of the participants. Individuals aged 60 years or older who were able to understand and speak the Persian language and who provided informed consent were included in the study. Exclusion criteria included severe mental or cognitive disorders diagnosed by a physician or severe physical disability. Out of the 425 participants, four were excluded from the study due to cognitive impairment, one due to psychotic disorder, and six due to extensive missing data, leaving 413 participants for the final analysis. The study was approved by the Ethics Council of Shahroud University of Medical Sciences, with the code IR.SHMU.REC.1398.163, and written informed consent was obtained from the participants.



Data were collected through face-to-face interviews by trained health professionals in health centers using structured questionnaires. These measures were implemented to ensure consistency across interviews and minimize potential sources of interviewer or measurement bias. Variables included sociodemographic characteristics (age, sex, marital status, living arrangement (alone vs. with others), years of education, monthly income adequacy (self-reported as sufficient or insufficient), housing situation (own vs. rented), occupation (employed vs. unemployed), number of children (<2 vs. ≥ 2), retirement insurance (yes vs. no), history of falls in the past 12 months, and Body Mass Index (BMI)), lifestyle factors (smoking status (non-smoker, ex-smoker, current smoker), regular physical activity), and health-related (comorbidity, polypharmacy, self-perceived health (poor, moderate, good), functional status, cognitive and mental status, self-reported medical diagnoses (such as hypertension, diabetes, respiratory disease, kidney disease, liver disease, cancer, stroke, Parkinson, arthrosis/arthritis, osteoporosis, hyperlipidemia, heart disease, and thyroid Comorbidity was defined as having two chronic diseases or more. Polypharmacy was defined as the use of five or more drugs during the day. Regular physical activity was defined by the world health organization as having at least 150 minutes of moderate activity or 75 minutes of vigorous activity per week²⁶. BMI was calculated as weight (kg) divided by height squared (m2).

Functional status was assessed using the Persian version of the Activities of Daily Living (ADL) and Instrumental Activities of Daily Living (IADL). Katz et al. (1963) developed and validated the ADL scale in different versions of 8, 7 and 6 items. Each activity is scored dichotomously (1 point for independent performance, 0 points for dependence), with higher total scores indicating greater functional independence²⁷. The IADL scale was developed by Lawton and Brody (1970) and consists of eight items assessing more complex daily activities, using the same scoring method²⁸. The Persian version of these tools was validated by Taheri Tanjani et al. (2016). The ADL scale demonstrated sensitivity of 0.75 and specificity of 0.96, while the IADL scale showed sensitivity of 0.71 and specificity of 0.77. Both scales exhibited significant discriminative validity across age and cognitive function groups (P-value<0.01). Internal consistency was good for both measures (ADL: Cronbach's α=0.80; IADL: Cronbach's α =0.75)²⁹. In the current study, the 8-item ADL version (total score range: 0-16) uses a cutoff score >11 to indicate independence, and the 7-item IADL version (total score range: 0-14) uses a cutoff score >10 to indicate independence.

The cognitive status was assessed by the Persian version of the Mini-Cog. This instrument, developed by Borson et al. (2000), consists of two components: a three-word recall test and a clock-drawing test. The participants are asked to listen carefully to three unrelated words spoken by the examiner and recall them later. They were then asked to draw a clock showing 11:10. The word recall section is scored out of 3 points, while the clock-drawing test is scored out of 2 points, yielding a total possible score of 5 (cut-off point ≤3). The Mini-Cog demonstrates high sensitivity (99%) and specificity (93%) compared to the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) and Cognitive Abilities Screening Instrument

(CASI)³⁰. Its Persian version was validated by Rezaei et al. (2018), showing good reliability (Cronbach's α =0.83, interrater reliability=0.76, test-retest reliability=0.86) and acceptable criterion and known-group validity. The sensitivity and specificity were 0.88 and 0.63, respectively, and the cut-off point was 2^{31} .

Depression was assessed by the Persian version of the Geriatric Depression Scale-4 Item (GDS-4). the GDS is a selfreport questionnaire originally developed as a 30-item questionnaire, and Subsequent validation studies produced shorter versions, including 15, 10, and 4-item scales³². The GDS-4 demonstrates 91% agreement with the GDS-15, with Cronbach's α=0.55, sensitivity of 89%, and specificity of 65% at the 0/1 cutoff point. The GDS-4 comprises four yes/no questions: Are you basically satisfied with your life? Do you feel that your life is empty? Are you afraid something bad will happen to you? Do you feel happy most of the time? The total score is four. Norouzi et al. (2013) validated the Persian versions of the GDS in 30, 15, 10, 5, and 4-item formats, reporting agreement rates of 75% (GDS-30), 79% (GDS-15), and 82% (GDS-5) with the GDS-4. At a cutoff score of 2, the GDS-4 showed sensitivity of 0.43 and specificity of 0.92. The scale showed a correlation 0.31 with DSM-IV depression criteria and achieved Cronbach's α=0.8933.

Multidimensional frailty was assessed by the Persian version of the Comprehensive Frailty Assessment Instrument Plus (CFAI-Plus). This tool includes five dimensions (physical, psychological, cognitive, social and environmental). The physical frailty includes four items about daily performance capacity, whose answers are on a 3-point Likert scale from 0-2 points. The scores of the psychological frailty are obtained from the sum of the scores of the two factors of mood and emotion. The mood factor includes five items about depression and anxiety disorders with a 4-point Likert response from 0-3 points, and the emotion factor includes three items about feelings of loneliness and rejection by others with a 5-point Likert response from 0-4 points. The responses of the cognitive frailty with four items about memory and learning disorders and the environmental frailty with five items about housing and neighborhood are also on a 5-point Likert scale as above. The social frailty includes two factors: social isolation (three items with a 5-point Likert response) and social support (10 items with yes /no response). The total score of each dimension is calculated separately, and higher scores indicate greater frailty. According to the obtained score, people are divided into three categories; "No to Low", "Low to Mild", and "Mild to High" frailty. The initial version of this tool was developed and validated by De Witte et al. (2013)³⁴, and then De Roeck et al. (2018) added a cognitive dimension to it⁹. Imani et al. (2021) translated and validated the Persian version of the CFAI-Plus. The internal consistency of the entire tool was adequate, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.79, while individual factors showed Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.47 to 0.88. The total extracted variance was 62.89%, and test-retest reliability was acceptable, with intra-class correlation coefficients ranging from 0.76 to 0.92. In confirmatory factor analysis, the model fit indices were acceptable (RMSEA=0.045, CFI=0.93, $TLI=0.92)^{35}$.

Baseline characteristics and multidimensional frailty prevalence were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Associations between frailty levels in each of the dimensions and categorical variables were examined using χ^2 tests or Fisher's exact tests, as appropriate. Continuous variables were analyzed using one-way ANOVA for each frailty dimension. Variables demonstrating significant associations (P-value<0.05) in univariate analyses were entered into backward elimination multinomial logistic regression models to identify independent predictors for each frailty dimension. All analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 26.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Results are presented as adjusted odds ratios (aOR) with 95% confidence intervals, with statistical significance set at α =0.05.

Results

The mean age of study population (N=413) was 69.4±6.6 years and most of them (n=229, 55.4%) were men. The education level of 190 participants (46%) was less than five years. Most of the participants were married (n=299, 72.4%), most of them did not have regular physical activity (n=254, 61.5%), less often lived alone (n=60, 14.6%), most of them believed that they did not have enough monthly income (n=246, 59.9%), most of them lived in their own house (n=362, 88.1%) and only 89 people were employed (21.5%). In 46 (11.2%) older adults, there was a history of falling in the last year, and most of them did not have a history of smoking (n=297, 72.3%). Hypertension (n=205, 49.6%) and diabetes (n=120, 29.1%) were the most common chronic conditions. Other details of the participants are presented in Table 1.

Participants with older age, lower education, comorbidity, IADL dependence, and depressive symptoms showed significantly higher frailty across all dimensions (P-value<0.05 for all dimensions). No significant associations were found between any frailty dimension and lack of retirement or complementary insurance and conditions such as diabetes, hyperlipidemia, liver disease, thyroid problems, cancer, and poor vision (P-value>0.05 for all dimensions). Other variables were each associated with one or more specific dimensions of frailty. Gender (P-value=0.683), physical activity (Pvalue=0.079), and occupational status (P-value=0.961) were unrelated to environmental frailty, while housing situation (Pvalue=0.047) and BMI (P-value=0.047) were only associated with environmental frailty. The number of children was uniquely associated with social frailty (P-value=0.009). However, cognitive status (P-value=0.053) and self-reported health (P-value=0.080) were significantly associated with all dimensions except social frailty. Smoking (P-value=0.045), kidney disease (P-value=0.021), stroke (P-value=0.007) and osteoporosis (P-value<0.001) were exclusively associated with physical frailty. Results of the univariate analyses, showing associations between frailty dimensions and demographic characteristics or health-related factors, are presented in Table 1. Associations with self-reported medical conditions are presented in Table 2.



Table 1. Baseline characteristics of the participants according to frailty levels in all of dimension (N=413)

| Baseline characteristics | Total N (%) | Physical frailty P-value | Psychological frailty P-value | Cognitive frailty P-value | Environmental frailty P-value | Social frailty P-value |
|--------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Age †† (y), Mean (SD) | 69.4 (6.6) | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 |
| Gender † Female | 184 (44.6) | 0.003 | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.683 | <0.001 |
| Education †† (y), Mean (SD) | 7.1 (5.0) | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.004 | 0.027 |
| Marital status †, Single | 114 (27.6) | <0.001 | 0.002 | 0.001 | 0.574 | 0.428 |
| Living arrangement †, Alone | 60 (14.6) | 0.006 | 0.001 | 0.026 | 0.322 | 0.376 |
| Number of children †. <2 | 30 (7.3) | 0.335 | 0.074 | 0.772 | 0.095 | 0.009 |
| Source of income, Others † | 58 (14.1) | 0.027 | 0.021 | 0.272 | 0.042 | 0.049 |
| Housing situation, Rent † | 49 (11.9) | 0.286 | 0.531 | 0.087 | 0.047 | 0.082 |
| Retirement insurance, No † | 31 (7.5) | 0.149 | 0.294 | 0.335 | 0.915 | 0.261 |
| Occupation, Unemployed † | 324 (78.5) | <0.001 | 0.002 | 0.003 | 0.961 | <0.001 |
| Income, Inadequacy † | 246 (59.9) | 0.545 | <0.001 | 0.002 | <0.001 | 0.003 |
| BMI ++ (kg/m2), Mean (SD) | 26.1 (3.9) | 0.071 | 0.668 | 0.527 | 0.047 | 0.632 |
| Falls in last 12 months, Yes † | 46 (11.2) | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.188 | 0.786 | 0.170 |
| Physical inactivity † | 254 (61.5) | 0.022 | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.079 | < 0.001 |
| Smoking †† | | | | | | |
| Non-smoker | 297 (72.3) | | | | | |
| Ex-smoker | 46 (11.2) | 0.045 | 0.073 | 0.872 | 0.200 | 0.110 |
| Current-smoker | 68 (16.5) | | | | | |
| ADL, Dependent † | 36 (8.8) | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.002 | 0.022 | 0.139 |
| IADL, Dependent † | 116 (28.1) | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.002 |
| Mini-Cog score, Mean (SD) †† | 3.1 (1.4) | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.053 |
| Depressive disorder † | 117 (28.4) | 0.001 | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.012 | < 0.001 |
| Comorbidity† | 214 (51.8) | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.002 | 0.001 | 0.009 |
| Polypharmacy † | 65 (15.7) | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.006 | 0.062 | 0.073 |

Note: SD=Standard Deviation; BMI: Body Mass Index

Table 2. Self-reported disease of the participants according to frailty levels in all of dimension (N=413)

| | Tatal | Physical frailty | Psychological frailty | Cognitive frailty | Environmental frailty | Social frailty | |
|----------------------------------|------------|------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|----------------|--|
| Self-reported medical conditions | Total | P-value | P-value | P-value | P-value | P-value | |
| Hypertension † | 205 (49.6) | 0.100 | <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.106 | 0.241 | |
| Diabetes † | 120 (29.1) | 0.540 | 0.149 | 0.391 | 0.741 | 0.082 | |
| Heart disease † | 89 (21.5) | 0.030 | 0.002 | 0.451 | 0.197 | 0.282 | |
| Dyslipidemia † | 90 (21.8) | 0.060 | 0.604 | 0.856 | 0.187 | 0.773 | |
| Arthrosis/Arthritis † | 103 (24.9) | <0.001 | 0.003 | 0.328 | 0.211 | 0.719 | |
| Thyroid disease † | 20 (4.8) | 0.608 | 0.084 | 0.418 | 0.746 | 0.673 | |
| Cancer ‡ | 6 (1.5) | 0.143 | 0.181 | 0.613 | 0.741 | 0.838 | |
| kidney disease †† | 16 (3.9) | 0.021 | 0.360 | 0.624 | 0.940 | 0.678 | |
| Parkinson, Stroke ‡ | 4 (1) | <0.001 | 0.109 | 0.360 | 1.000 | 0.743 | |
| Respiratory disease† | 42 (10.2) | 0.075 | 0.002 | 0.627 | 0.349 | 0.118 | |
| Liver disease †† | 15 (3.6) | 0.822 | 0.067 | 0.336 | 0.939 | 0.530 | |
| Osteoporosis † | 38 (9.2) | <0.001 | 0.097 | 0.141 | 0.787 | 0.997 | |
| Hearing loss † | 112 (27.3) | 0.043 | 0.370 | 0.029 | 0.947 | 0.305 | |
| Poor vision † | 204 (49.5) | 0.149 | 0.184 | 0.059 | 0.804 | 0.179 | |
| Self-perceived health† | | | | | | | |
| Poor | 66 (16.0) | | | | | | |
| Moderate | 105 (25.5) | 0.019 | <0.001 | 0.030 | 0.014 | 0.080 | |
| Good | 241(58.5) | | | | | | |

P-values<0.05 indicated in bold.

The prevalence of "Mild to High" frailty across dimensions was as follows: physical 9.2% (n=16, 95%CI: 6.3-12.3),

psychological 13.6% (n=56, 95%CI: 10.2-16.9), cognitive 59.6% (n=246, 95%CI: 54.7-64.4), social 26.4% (n=109,



^{††}The P-values were calculated based on the ANOVA test; P-values<0.05 indicated in bold.

[†] The P-values were calculated based on the Chi-square test; P-values<0.05 indicated in bold.

[†] The P-values were calculated based on the Chi-square test; ‡ The P-values were calculated based on Fisher's Exact test; †† The P-values were calculated for the physical domain based on the Chi-square test and for the psychological domain based on the Fisher's Exact test.

95%CI: 22-30.5), and environmental 28.3% (n=117, 95%CI: 24.2-32.7). Details of the results for other levels of frailty are shown in Table 3. Overall, 29% of participants (n=120, 95%CI:

24.9-33.4) exhibited degrees of frailty across all dimensions. Figure 1 displays the distribution of frailty within and across domains.

| Dimensions of frailty | Frailty levels | N | % | (95% CI) |
|------------------------------|----------------|-----|------|-----------|
| | No to low | 216 | 52.3 | 47.5-57.1 |
| Physical frailty | Low to mild | 159 | 38.5 | 33.9-43.1 |
| | Mild to high | 16 | 9.2 | 6.3-12.3 |
| | No to low | 118 | 28.6 | 24.2-33.2 |
| Psychological frailty | Low to mild | 239 | 57.9 | 53.3-62.7 |
| | Mild to high | 56 | 13.6 | 10.2-16.9 |
| | No to low | 63 | 15.3 | 11.6-19.1 |
| Cognitive frailty | Low to mild | 104 | 25.2 | 21.3-29.3 |
| | Mild to high | 246 | 59.6 | 54.7-64.4 |
| | No to low | 78 | 18.9 | 15-22.5 |
| Environmental frailty | Low to mild | 218 | 52.8 | 47.9-57.6 |
| | Mild to high | 117 | 28.3 | 24.2-32.7 |
| | No to low | 45 | 10.9 | 8-14 |
| Social frailty | Low to mild | 259 | 62.7 | 58.1-67.3 |
| | Mild to high | 109 | 26.4 | 22-30.5 |

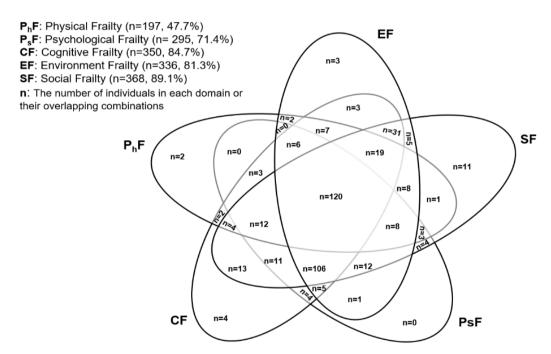


Figure 1. Venn diagram showing the prevalence of frailty in each domain and the degree of overlap between different domains of frailty. In total, only 3 older adults (0.7%) did not have any level of frailty in any of the domains and 120 people (29%) had degrees of frailty in all domains.

Following significant univariate associations, backward stepwise multinomial logistic regression was conducted separately for each frailty dimension assessed by the CFAI-Plus. Individuals were classified into three levels based on their scores: "No to Low", "Low to Mild", and "Mild to High". The "No to Low" level was defined as the reference level in the regression analysis for all dimensions and comparisons.

For the physical frailty, the odds of being in the "Low to Mild" level compared to the "No to Low" level were Shahroud Journal of Medical Sciences 2025;11(3) | 36

significantly higher with each additional year of age (OR=1.05, P-value=0.018), dependence in IADL (OR=3.58, P-value<0.001), current smoking (OR=2.51, P-value=0.006), and joint disease (OR=1.88, P-value=0.039), but significantly lower with each additional year of education (OR=0.90, P-value<0.001). Similarly, being older (OR=1.23, P-value<0.001), female (OR=4.46, P-value=0.003), dependent in IADL (OR=4.09, P-value=0.005), a current smoker (OR=3.79, P-value=0.032), and having joint disease (OR=4.27, P-value=0.032).



value=0.003) were associated with significantly higher odds of being in the "Mild to High" level compared to the "No to Low" level. This likelihood decreased significantly with each additional year of education (OR=0.79, P-value<0.001).

For the psychological frailty, the odds of being in the "Low to Mild" level compared to the "No to Low" level were significantly higher for female sex (OR=2.40, P-value=0.002), hypertension (OR=1.76, P-value=0.031), insufficient income (OR=1.82, P-value=0.020), but significantly lower with each unit increase in Mini-Cog scores (OR=0.60, P-value<0.001). The odds of being in the "Mild to High" level compared to the reference level (No to Low level) were significantly higher with each additional year of age (OR=1.14, P-value<0.001), female sex (OR=2.88, P-value=0.011), living alone (OR=4.21, P-value=0.012), poor self-perceived health (OR=4.85, P-value=0.004), and insufficient income (OR=3.70, P-value=0.002).

In the cognitive frailty, with each additional year of age, the odds of being in the "Low to Mild" level compared to the "No to Low" level were significantly higher (OR=1.12, P-value<0.001). Similarly, the odds of being in the "Mild to High" level compared to the "No to Low" level were significantly higher with each additional year of age (OR=1.13, P-value<0.001), dependence in IADL (OR=3.60, P-value=0.025), depression (OR=3.90, P-value=0.006), physical inactivity (OR=2.43, P-value=0.010), and hypertension (OR=2.36, P-value=0.011). However, the odds of being in the "Mild to High" level decreased with each additional year of education (OR=0.89, P-value=0.003).

In the social frailty, the odds of being in the "Low to Mild" level compared to the "No to Low" level were significantly higher for female sex (OR=4.71, P-value=0.001), physical inactivity (OR=2.43, P-value=0.017), insufficient income (OR=2.67, P-value=0.005), and comorbidity (OR=2.13, P-value=0.040). The odds of being in the "Mild to High" level compared to the reference level were significantly higher with each additional year of age (OR=1.08, P-value=0.013), depression (OR=3.90, P-value=0.013), and physical inactivity (OR=2.84, P-value=0.011).

In the environmental frailty, the odds of being in the "Low to Mild" level compared to the "No to Low" level were significantly higher with each additional year of age (OR=1.06, P-value=0.023), rental housing (OR=3.94, P-value=0.033), and each unit increase in BMI (OR=1.10, P-value=0.011). The odds of being in the "Mild to High" level compared to the reference level were significantly higher with insufficient income (OR=3.35, P-value<0.001) and dependence in IADL (OR=3.76, P-value=0.003), but significantly lower with each unit increase in Mini-Cog scores (OR=0.72, P-value=0.015). Detailed results are presented in Table 4.



Table 4. Multinomial logistic regression analysis of factors associated with frailty domains among older adults

| | Psychological frailty | | | Social frailty | | | | Environment frailty | | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|--------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|-------|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-------|----------------------|--------|
| Characteristics | Low to mild frailty | | Mild to high frailty | | Low to mild frailty | | Mild to high frailty | | Low to mild frailty | | Mild to high frailty | |
| | OR (95% CL) | Р | OR (95% CL) | Р | OR (95% CL) | Р | OR (95% CL) | Р | OR (95% CL) | Р | OR (95% CL) | Р |
| Age (y) | 1.02 (0.98-1.07) | 0.242 | 1.14 (1.07-1.22) | <0.001 | 1.00 (0.94-1.06) | 0.845 | 1.08 (1.01-1.15) | 0.013 | 1.06 (1.00-1.12) | 0.023 | 1.06 (0.99-1.12) | 0.053 |
| Gender (Female) | 2.40 (1.39-4.13) | 0.002 | 2.88 (1.27-6.53) | 0.011 | 4.71 (1.84-12.0) | 0.001 | 2.23 (0.81-6.16) | 0.120 | - | - | - | - |
| IADL (Dependent) | 1.09 (0.55-2.18) | 0.786 | 2.37 (0.97-5.78) | 0.056 | - | - | - | - | 1.82 (0.79-4.20) | 0.157 | 3.76 (1.56-9.06) | 0.003 |
| Hypertension | 1.76 (1.05-2.96) | 0.031 | 1.82 (0.83-4.00) | 0.131 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Live alone | 1.79 (0.73-4.39) | 0.200 | 4.21 (1.37-12.8) | 0.012 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Self-reported health | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Moderate | 1.04 (0.47-2.29) | 0.909 | 4.85 (1.67-14.0) | 0.004 | | | | | | | | |
| Severe | 1.51 (0.77-2.96) | 0.222 | 4.57 (1.76-11.9) | 0.002 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Inadequacy income | 1.82 (1.09-3.04) | 0.020 | 3.70 (1.59-8.58) | 0.002 | 2.67 (1.33-5.36) | 0.005 | 1.89 (0.87-4.09) | 0.103 | 1.53 (0.87-2.69) | 0.137 | 3.35 (1.71-6.54) | <0.001 |
| Mini-Cog score | 0.60 (0.48-0.76) | <0.001 | 0.80 (0.58-1.11) | 0.196 | - | - | - | | 0.82 (0.65-1.04) | 0.111 | 0.72 (0.55-0.94) | 0.015 |
| Comorbidity | - | - | - | - | 2.13 (1.03-4.38) | 0.040 | 1.17 (0.52-2.26) | 0.697 | - | - | - | - |
| Children<2 | - | - | - | - | 1.32 (0.26-6.63) | 0.729 | 5.11(1.01-25.8) | 0.048 | - | - | - | - |
| Depression | - | - | - | - | 1.31 (0.46-3.72) | 0.606 | 3.90 (1.34-11.3) | 0.013 | - | - | - | - |
| Physical inactivity | - | - | - | - | 2.43 (1.17-5.05) | 0.017 | 2.84 (1.27-6.36) | 0.011 | - | - | - | - |
| Housing (Rental) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 3.94 (1.11-13.8) | 0.033 | 3.65 (0.96-13.8) | 0.057 |
| BMI (Continuous) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.10(1.02-1.19) | 0.011 | 1.08 (0.99-1.18) | 0.055 |
| Nagelkerke R2 | | 0. | 376 | | | 0.263 | | | | | 0.191 | |

| | | Ph | nysical frailty | | Cognitive frailty | | | | |
|---------------------|------------------|---------|----------------------|--------|-------------------|---------|------------------|--------------|--|
| Characteristics | Low to mild f | frailty | Mild to high frailty | | Low to mild | frailty | Mild to | high frailty | |
| | OR (95% CL) | Р | OR (95% CL) | Р | OR (95% CL) | Р | OR (95% CL) | Р | |
| Age (y) | 1.05 (1.00-1.10) | 0.018 | 1.23 (1.13-1.33) | <0.001 | 1.12 (1.04-1.20) | <0.001 | 1.13 (1.05-1.21) | <0.001 | |
| Gender (Female) | 1.61 (0.96-2.68) | 0.066 | 4.46 (1.65-12.0) | 0.003 | 0.87 (0.41-1.83) | 0.719 | 1.75 (0.86-3.53) | 0.119 | |
| Education (y) | 0.90 (0.86-0.95) | <0.001 | 0.79 (0.70-0.89) | <0.001 | 0.97 (0.91-1.05) | 0.532 | 0.89 (0.83-0.96) | 0.003 | |
| IADL (Dependent) | 3.58 (1.95-6.58) | <0.001 | 4.09 (1.51-11.0) | 0.005 | 1.87 (0.57-6.08) | 0.296 | 3.60 (1.17-11.0) | 0.025 | |
| Current smoker | 2.51 (1.29-4.88) | 0.006 | 3.79 (1.12-12.8) | 0.032 | | | | | |
| Arthrosis/Arthritis | 1.88 (1.03-3.43) | 0.039 | 4.27 (1.61-11.3) | 0.003 | | | | | |
| Depression | | | | | 2.08 (0.75-5.17) | 0.155 | 3.90 (1.49-10.2) | 0.006 | |
| Physical inactivity | | | | | 1.51 (0.75-3.03) | 0.241 | 2.43 (1.23-4.79) | 0.010 | |
| Hypertension | - | - | - | - | 1.33 (0.67-2.63) | 0.411 | 2.36 (1.21-4.57) | 0.011 | |
| Nagelkerke R2 | | | 0.424 | | 0.324 | | | | |

Note: OR: Odds Ratio; CI: Confidence Interval; IADL: Instrumental Activities of Daily Living; BMI: Body Mass Index

P-values<0.05 indicated in bold; No to low frailty is reference group



Discussion

Due to the limited global studies on multidimensional frailty, especially environmental frailty, this study examined frailty and related factors in five different dimensions in northeastern Iran. Based on previous studies conducted in Iran and other countries, it was found that the prevalence of this syndrome can vary depending on the tools used^{4,7,15}. In the study of Vander Elst et al. (2020), the prevalence of multidimensional frailty and pre-frailty was 55.6% and the prevalence of physical frailty was 76.3%⁵. In a review study in 2021, the prevalence of multidimensional frailty and pre-frailty was 26.8% and 36.4%, respectively³⁶. However, the results of these studies are not comparable with the present study due to the lack of calculation of total frailty.

The prevalence obtained for high physical frailty in the present study is consistent with the global average prevalence of frailty (9.9%)⁷, and the prevalence obtained in China $(9.1\%)^{16}$, Indonesia $(8.1\%)^{21}$, Korea $(7.9\%)^{20}$, and Italy $(7.6\%)^{37}$. The prevalence of "Mild to High" physical frailty is consistent with a study in Singapore (48.3%) and Mexico (49%)^{15,25}. However, the prevalence of physical frailty and prefrailty in other studies is different from the present study. Of course, it should not be ignored that the present study was conducted in a country with a low to medium income, which is faced with a large percentage of older adults and has less healthcare facilities than developed countries. The prevalence of psychological frailty was 4 to 35% in a review study³⁸, 23% in Mexico²⁵, and 3.5% in Japan²³, which is lower than the present study. The definition of psychological frailty in the above studies as the simultaneous occurrence of physical frailty with a depressive disorder can be the reason for this difference. The CFAI-Plus examines most of the subjective cognitive complaints (SCC) in the cognitive dimension. The prevalence of SCC in older adults varies from 6 to 53%³⁹. The prevalence of "Low to Mild" and "Mild to High" cognitive frailty in the study of Dury et al. (2019) was 54% and 24%, which is almost consistent with the present study¹³. Unlike the present study, the prevalence of social frailty was 18% in Japan¹⁴, 20.5% in Korea¹⁹, 18.3% in Singapore¹⁵. In the winter season, the difficulty in heating the house will be accompanied by the exacerbation of pulmonary and muscular physical diseases⁴⁰. Unsuitable housing for the life of older adults, which has small rooms, many floors and stairs, and unsafe and deprived neighborhood, slippery sidewalks, lack of sports facilities and transportation are associated with increasing frailty. Because they are associated with the risk of falling, reducing healthrelated behaviors and limiting people's access to health services and resources and social support^{41,42}. Older people tend to stay in their home and neighborhood as much as possible. This is largely dependent on whether the conditions of their place of residence are suitable or not²⁷. Therefore, it is important to include environmental conditions in the assessment of frailty in older adults. Data on the prevalence of environmental frailty are very limited. In only two studies that were found in this case; The prevalence of "Mild to High" environmental frailty was 17.5% in Belgium and Brussels¹³, and 18.2% in China⁴³. While in our study, the prevalence of "Mild to High" frailty in environmental dimension is higher. This difference may be due to the use of different tools, cultural and geographical differences, the difference in demographic characteristics, better socioeconomic status, and the necessary arrangements in those countries for aging in place. However, the prevalence of frailty in older people is significant and requires careful planning to find in a timely manner and supportive measures.

Consistent with other studies in regression analysis, this study also found that physical frailty was positively associated with female gender, older age, lower education, and dependence in IADL^{21,37}. Higher frailty at older adults is due to physiological changes and reduced function of body systems in old age1. Higher frailty in women can be due to a steady decline in performance, followed by an increase in comorbidity and the incidence of disability in them, while men are more likely to experience sudden death⁴⁴. Less education restricts access to health information and, as a result, leads to a lack of appropriate measures to manage or prevent frailty^{17,21}. In the present study, as in other studies, smoking intensified physical frailty in regression analysis^{24,45}. But such a connection was not found in studies conducted in Indonesia and Korean^{20,21}. The reason for the association between smoking and frailty in our study could be the higher percentage of men. In Iranian culture, smoking is not common for women and it is considered ugly. Also, women tend to have a healthy lifestyle more than men. Arthrosis/Arthritis in this study was associated with a higher risk of physical frailty, which is consistent with the results of multivariate analysis in the study Thinuan et al. (2020) 17, and univariate analysis in the study Jung et al. (2020) and Liotta et al. (2017)^{20,37}. In the present study, the prevalence of physical frailty in people with osteoporosis and kidney and heart problems was higher, which is consistent with the study of Jung et al. (2020)²⁰. The above findings are important for health care providers. Because, with better management and control of the disease, the functional limitations caused by these diseases are reduced.

Psychological frailty in this study, as in previous studies, was associated with older age, lower education, physical inactivity, female gender, poor economic and cognitive status, and illness^{15,46,47}. People with poor cognitive function have less physical activity and social contact, and this social isolation leads to depression^{18,38}. In studies in Italy and five European countries, living alone was associated with a higher risk of frailty, which is consistent with the results of the present study in the psychological dimension^{37,44}. People who live alone may experience more stress and psychological problems due to financial instability and lack of a source of support such as a spouse or loved ones¹⁸. Similar to the results of this study for the psychological dimension, in a study by Thinuan et al. (2020) poor self-perceived health was associated with higher frailty¹⁷. People who are dissatisfied with their health may not be diligent in performing health-related activities such as exercise or proper diet, so the likelihood of frailty increases²¹. In the present study, the risk of cognitive frailty increased with age, physical inactivity, dependence in IADL, hypertension, and depressive symptoms. These results are consistent with Rivan et al. (2020) and Ghanbarnia et al. (2024) studies^{48,49}. The exacerbation of cognitive frailty with hypertension is consistent with previous studies^{50,51}. With high blood pressure, blood flow to different parts of the brain is disrupted and changes are made in the white matter that affects cognitive function. Like the results of the present study for mild psychological frailty, hypertension is also associated with depression⁵⁰. Depression can lead to reduced social support, physical activity, and self-care, all of which can contribute to

physical and cognitive frailty. On the other hand, physical and cognitive frailty can exacerbate depression through the same mechanism⁵². Depression and cognitive impairment play an important role in creating adverse outcomes such as reduced quality of life, reduced physical function, and disability⁴⁸.

In this study, as in other studies, female gender, lower income, comorbidity, physical inactivity, and depression increase the risk of social frailty^{44,46,47}. Also, the risk of social frailty in people without children or with one child was higher, which is in line with the previous study⁵³. In Iran, due to insufficient government support for older adults, the level of family support for older adults is higher than non-family support, and this support is much higher among first-degree family members²⁸. On the other hand, traditional Iranian values emphasize having a large family and strong family support and consider having more children as a sign of higher social and economic prestige. Therefore, older adults with fewer children receive less support and care in their old age, which can cause them to feel lonely and social frailty. In the current study, consistent with previous studies^{14,25,37,20}, The prevalence of frailty in univariate analysis was significantly higher in all dimensions in people with comorbidities.

Studies on factors associated with environmental frailty are limited. In the present study, poor cognitive status and disability were associated with an inappropriate living environment, which is consistent with a previous study⁴⁷. Also, rented housing and insufficient income were associated with environmental frailty. Rented houses may not have adequate sanitary facilities, natural light and proper ventilation. Tenants often cannot make the necessary changes and improvements to their living environment to promote aging in place, and rent costs can put a lot of financial pressure on them. Also, People with low income may live in cheap and rented houses that do not have proper sanitary and physical conditions and have inadequate ventilation and lack of space.

In contrast to previous studies that reported an association between polypharmacy and frailty^{17,20}, this study consistent with a Brazilian study¹⁸, found no association between polypharmacy and any frailty dimension (physical, psychological, cognitive, social, or environmental). This discrepancy may be explained by the possibility that polypharmacy, often observed in individuals with multiple chronic conditions or severe diseases, facilitates better disease management, potentially mitigating frailty risk in some populations.

Based on studies examining the prevalence and factors associated with frailty, variability in findings arises from multiple factors, including socio-cultural differences, diverse frailty assessment tools, and varying health policies across countries. Underlying factors such as the type and number of chronic conditions, demographic characteristics, and living environments also significantly influence frailty across its dimensions (physical, psychological, cognitive, social, and environmental). Understanding the prevalence determinants of frailty in these dimensions can inform the design of targeted health interventions and preventive strategies tailored to each dimension. Such knowledge enables health professionals and policymakers to better address the needs of older adults, support aging in place through improved community infrastructure, and allocate resources for health, Shahroud Journal of Medical Sciences 2025;11(3)

education, and support programs more effectively. Furthermore, it enhances public awareness of the importance of frailty prevention and management in older age. Examining the prevalence and factors associated with frailty in Iranian older adults contributes to global knowledge in this field and underscores the need for international efforts to address frailty and its prevention.

The strength of this study lies in its comprehensive assessment of frailty across all dimensions (physical, psychosocial, cognitive, social, and environmental) using the CFAI-Plus, with a novel focus on the less-studied Environmental and Cognitive dimensions, addressing a gap in the literature where multidimensional frailty studies are scarce. However, several limitations must be acknowledged. First, the cross-sectional design precludes establishing causality between frailty and associated factors, limiting the ability to determine whether risk factors precede or result from frailty. Second, the study was conducted in a small urban population in Shahroud, which restricts generalizability to rural, culturally diverse, or institutionalized populations. Third, the CFAI-Plus is a selfreported tool assessing frailty dimensions, such as depressive symptoms, social engagement, and difficulties in recalling new information or managing finances. While self-reported tools are standard for capturing subjective experiences in frailty research, they may be subject to recall bias, or social desirability bias for sensitive topics like mental health or social isolation, potentially affecting the accuracy of prevalence estimates. Fourth, the collection of demographic data on chronic conditions (e.g., hypertension, joint disease) relied solely on participants' self-reports without clinical verification, which may introduce inaccuracies if participants misreported their health status. Finally, despite examining various demographic, health-related, and lifestyle variables in the present study, some other confounding factors that were not measured may have influenced the observed associations, indicating the need for further research.

This study, using a multidimensional assessment tool (CFAI-Plus), emphasized the importance of evaluating frailty not as a single unified condition but as a complex phenomenon encompassing physical, psychological, cognitive, social, and environmental domains. By identifying distinct risk profiles for each domain through multinomial regression analysis, the study highlights that frailty should be approached in a domain-specific manner rather than relying on aggregate indices alone. These findings provide valuable insights for health service providers and policymakers, underscoring the need for early detection strategies and tailored interventions that address the specific vulnerabilities in each domain. Such targeted approaches can contribute to more efficient resource allocation, delay the progression of frailty, and ultimately improve the quality of life in older adults.

Ethical Considerations

The study was approved by the Ethics Council of Shahroud University of Medical Sciences, with the code IR.SHMU.REC.1398.163. All participants were informed about the aims and procedures of the study and were assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of their responses. Participation was voluntary, and written informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to data collection.



Acknowledgment

This study is extracted from the master's thesis in nursing conducted at Shahroud University of Medical Sciences. This research has been approved by this university with the code 9895. The authors thank the participating older adults for their help and cooperation in the study.

Conflict of Interest

None.

Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

References

- 1. Lekan DA, Collins SK, Hayajneh AA. Definitions of Frailty in Qualitative Research: A Qualitative Systematic Review. Journal of aging research. 2021;2021. doi: 10.1155/2021/6285058
- 2. Mulla E, Montgomery U. Frailty: an overview. InnovAiT. 2020;13(2):71-9. doi: 10.1177/1755738019890891
- 3. Sinclair A, Bellary S, Dhatariya KK. Diabetes in older adults-time to include frailty as a care indicator. Diabetic medicine. 2021;38(5). doi: 10.1111/dme.14560
- 4. Van der Vorst A. Towards a strenghts-based approach in multidimensional frailty. Conceptualisation and screening of frailty, and contributors to daily functioning in old age: Maastricht University; 2018.
- 5. Van der Elst MC, Schoenmakers B, het Veld LPO, De Roeck EE, Van der Vorst A, Kempen GI, et al. Concordances and differences between a unidimensional and multidimensional assessment of frailty: a cross-sectional study. BMC geriatrics. 2019;19(1):1-8. doi: 10.1186/s12877-019-1369-7
- 6. To T-L, Doan T-N, Ho W-C, Liao W-C, editors. Prevalence of Frailty among Community-Dwelling Older Adults in Asian Countries: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Healthcare; 2022: Multidisciplinary Digital Publishing Institute. doi: 10.3390/healthcare10050895
- 7. Collard RM, Boter H, Schoevers RA, Oude Voshaar RC. Prevalence of frailty in community-dwelling older persons: a systematic review. Journal of the American Geriatrics Society. 2012;60(8):1487-92. doi: 10.1111/j.1532-5415.2012.04054.x
- Fried LP, Tangen CM, Walston J, Newman AB, Hirsch C, Gottdiener J, et al. Frailty in older adults: evidence for a phenotype. The Journals of Gerontology Series A: Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences. 2001;56(3):M146-M57. doi: 10.1093/gerona/56.3.M146
- 9. De Roeck EE, Dury S, De Witte N, De Donder L, Bjerke M, De Deyn PP, et al. CFAI-Plus: Adding cognitive frailty as a new domain to the comprehensive frailty assessment instrument. International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry. 2018;33(7):941-7. doi: 10.1002/gps.4875
- 10. Alqahtani BA, Alshehri MM, Elnaggar RK, Alsaad SM, Alsayer AA, Almadani N, et al., editors. Prevalence of Frailty in the Middle East: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Healthcare; 2022: Multidisciplinary Digital Publishing Institute. doi: 10.3390/healthcare10010108
- 11. Mousavisisi M, Shamshirgaran SM, Rezaeipandari H, Matlabi H. Multidimensional approach to frailty among rural older people: Applying the tilburg frailty indicator. Elderly Health Journal. 2019;5(2):92-101 [Persian]. doi: 10.18502/ehj.v5i2.2155
- 12. Boura FT, Hosseini SR, Mouodi S, Ghadimi R, Bijani A. Frailty syndrome in older adults and related sociodemographic factors in the north of Iran: a population-based study. Iranian Red Crescent Medical Journal. 2021 Jan 3;23(1). doi: 10.32592/ircmj.2021.23.1.249
- 13. Dury S, Dierckx E, Van Der Vorst A, Van der Elst M, Fret B, Duppen D, et al. Detecting frail, older adults and identifying their strengths: results of a mixed-methods study. BMC Public Health. 2018;18(1):1-13. doi: 10.1186/s12889-018-5088-3
- 14. Yamada M, Arai H. Social frailty predicts incident disability and mortality among community-dwelling Japanese older adults. Journal of the American Medical Directors Association. 2018;19(12):1099-103. doi: 10.1016/j.jamda.2018.09.013



- 15. Teo N, Yeo PS, Gao Q, Nyunt MSZ, Foo JJ, Wee SL, et al. A bio-psychosocial approach for frailty amongst Singaporean Chinese community-dwelling older adults-evidence from the Singapore longitudinal aging study. BMC geriatrics. 2019;19(1):1-14. doi: 10.1186/s12877-019-1367-9
- 16. Zheng Z, Guan S, Ding H, Wang Z, Zhang J, Zhao J, et al. Prevalence and incidence of frailty in community-dwelling older people: Beijing Longitudinal Study of Aging II. Journal of the american geriatrics society. 2016;64(6):1281-6. doi: 10.1111/jgs.14135
- 17. Thinuan P, Siviroj P, Lerttrakarnnon P, Lorga T. Prevalence and potential predictors of frailty among community-dwelling older persons in Northern Thailand: a cross-sectional study. International journal of environmental research and public health. 2020;17(11):4077. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17114077
- 18. Neves ÁdQ, Silva AMCd, Cabral JF, Mattos IE, Santiago LM. Prevalence of and factors associated with frailty in elderly users of the Family Health Strategy. Revista Brasileira de Geriatria e Gerontologia. 2018;21:680-90. doi: 10.1590/1981-22562018021.180043
- 19. Park H, Jang I-Y, Jung H-W, Lee E, Kim DH. Screening value of social frailty and its association with physical frailty and disability in community-dwelling older Koreans: aging study of PyeongChang rural area. International journal of environmental research and public health. 2019;16(16):2809. doi: 10.3390/ijerph16162809
- 20. Jung H, Kim M, Lee Y, Won CW. Prevalence of physical frailty and its multidimensional risk factors in Korean community-dwelling older adults: Findings from Korean frailty and aging cohort study. International journal of environmental research and public health. 2020;17(21):7883. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17217883
- 21. Pengpid S, Peltzer K. Prevalence and associated factors of frailty in community-dwelling older adults in Indonesia, 2014-2015. International journal of environmental research and public health. 2020;17(1):10. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17010010
- 22. Gobbens RJ, Andreasen J. Multidimensional frailty and its determinants among acutely admitted older people: a cross-sectional study using the Tilburg Frailty Indicator. European geriatric medicine. 2021;12:151-60. doi: 10.1007/s41999-020-00388-x
- 23. Shimada H, Lee S, Bae S, Tsutsumimoto K, Arai H. Prevalence of psychological frailty in Japan: NCGG-SGS as a Japanese national cohort study. Journal of clinical medicine. 2019;8(10):1554. doi: 10.3390/jcm8101554
- 24. DeClercq V, Duhamel TA, Theou O, Kehler S. Association between lifestyle behaviors and frailty in Atlantic Canadian males and females. Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics. 2020;91:104207. doi: 10.1016/j.archger.2020.104207
- 25. Sánchez-García S, Sánchez-Arenas R, García-Peña C, Rosas-Carrasco O, Ávila-Funes JA, Ruiz-Arregui L, et al. Frailty among community-dwelling elderly M exican people: Prevalence and association with sociodemographic characteristics, health state and the use of health services. Geriatrics & gerontology international. 2014;14(2):395-402. doi: 10.1111/ggi.12114
- 26. Bull FC, Al-Ansari SS, Biddle S, Borodulin K, Buman MP, Cardon G, et al. World Health Organization 2020 guidelines on physical activity and sedentary behaviour. British journal of sports medicine. 2020;54(24):1451-62. doi: 10.1136/bisports-2020-102955
- 27. Katz S, Ford A, Moskowitz R, Jackson B, Jaffe M. Studies of Illness in the Aged. The Index of ADL: A Standardized Measure of Biological and Psychosocial Function. JAMA. 1963; 185 (12): 914-9. 1963. doi: 10.1001/jama.1963.03060120024016
- 28. Lawton M, BRODY EM. Assessment of older people: self-maintaining and instrumental activities of daily living. Nursing Research. 1970;19(3):278. doi: 10.1097/00006199-197005000-00029
- 29. Taheri Tanjani P, Azadbakht M. Psychometric properties of the Persian version of the activities of daily living scale and instrumental activities of daily living scale in elderly. Journal of Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences. 2016;25(132):103-12 [Persian].
- 30. Borson S, Scanlan J, Brush M, Vitaliano P, Dokmak A. The mini-cog: a cognitive 'vital signs' measure for dementia screening in multi-lingual elderly. International journal of geriatric psychiatry. 2000;15(11):1021-7. doi: 10.1002/1099-1166(200011)15:11<1021::AID-GPS234>3.0.CO;2-6
- 31. Rezaei M, Rashedi V, Lotfi G, Shirinbayan P, Foroughan M. Psychometric properties of the Persian adaptation of mini-cog test in Iranian older adults. The International Journal of Aging and Human Development. 2018;86(3):266-80. doi: 10.1177/0091415017724547
- 32. D'ath p, Katona P, Mullan E, Evans S, Katona C. Screening, detection and management of depression in elderly primary care attenders. I: The acceptability and performance of the 15 item Geriatric Depression Scale

- (GDS15) and the development of short versions. Family practice. 1994:11(3):260-6. doi: 10.1093/fampra/11.3.260
- 33. Norouzi A. Psychometric Properties of Geriatric Depression Questionnaire and Its Shortened Form for Elderlies referred to a medical center in Tehran in 2010 University of Rehabilitation Sciences and Social Welfare, Tehran, Iran. 2013 [Persian].
- 34. De Witte N, Gobbens R, De Donder L, Dury S, Buffel T, Schols J, et al. The comprehensive frailty assessment instrument: development, validity and reliability. Geriatric Nursing. 2013;34(4):274-81. doi: 10.1016/j.gerinurse.2013.03.002
- 35. Imani M, Khajeh M, Khosravi A, Ebrahimi H. Validation of the Persian version of the comprehensive frailty assessment instrument plus in community-dwelling older adults. Geriatric Nursing. 2021;42(6):1287-93. doi: 10.1016/j.gerinurse.2021.09.001
- 36. Veronese N, Custodero C, Cella A, Demurtas J, Zora S, Maggi S, et al. Prevalence of multidimensional frailty and pre-frailty in older people in different settings: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Ageing Research Reviews, 2021;101498. doi: 10.1016/j.arr.2021.101498
- 37. Liotta G, O'Caoimh R, Gilardi F, Proietti MG, Rocco G, Alvaro R, et al. Assessment of frailty in community-dwelling older adults residents in the Lazio region (Italy): A model to plan regional community-based services. Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics. 2017;68:1-7. doi: 10.1016/j.archger.2016.08.004
- 38. Buigues C, Padilla-Sánchez C, Garrido JF, Navarro-Martínez R, Ruiz-Ros V, Cauli O. The relationship between depression and frailty syndrome: a systematic review. Aging & mental health. 2015;19(9):762-72. doi: 10.1080/13607863.2014.967174
- 39. Röhr S, Pabst A, Riedel-Heller SG, Jessen F, Turana Y, Handajani YS, et al. Estimating prevalence of subjective cognitive decline in and across international cohort studies of aging: a COSMIC study. Alzheimer's research & therapy. 2020;12(1):1-14. doi: 10.1186/s13195-020-00734-y
- 40. Webb E, Blane D, de Vries R. Housing and respiratory health at older ages. J Epidemiol Community Health. 2013;67(3):280-5. doi: 10.1136/jech-2012-201458
- 41. Chen S, Wang T, Bao Z, Lou V. A path analysis of the effect of neighborhood built environment on public health of older adults: a Hong Kong study. Frontiers in public health. 2022;10:861836. doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2022.861836
- 42. Moncayo-Hernández BA, Dueñas-Suarez EP, Reyes-Ortiz CA. Relationship between Social Participation, Children's Support, and Social Frailty with Falls among Older Adults in Colombia. Annals of geriatric medicine and research. 2024;28(3):342. doi: 10.4235/agmr.24.0059

- 43. Yu X, Shi Z, Wang D, Niu Y, Xu C, Ma Y, et al. Prevalence and associated factors of frailty among community dwelling older adults in Northwest China: a cross-sectional study. BMJ open. 2022;12(8):e060089. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2021-060089
- 44. Ye L, Elstgeest LE, Zhang X, Alhambra-Borrás T, Tan SS, Raat H. Factors associated with physical, psychological and social frailty among community-dwelling older persons in Europe: a cross-sectional study of Urban Health Centres Europe (UHCE). BMC geriatrics. 2021;21(1):1-11. doi: 10.1186/s12877-021-02364-x
- 45. Kojima G, Iliffe S, Walters K. Smoking as a predictor of frailty: a systematic review. Age and ageing. 2016;45(Suppl 1):i18. doi: 10.1093/ageing/afw033.05
- 46. van Oostrom SH, Rietman ML, Picavet HSJ, Lette M, Verschuren WM, de Bruin SR, et al. A four-domain approach of frailty explored in the Doetinchem Cohort Study. BMC geriatrics. 2017;17(1):1-11. doi: 10.1186/s12877-017-0595-0
- 47. Gobbens RJ. Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations of environmental factors with frailty and disability in older people. Archives of gerontology and geriatrics. 2019;85:103901. doi: 10.1016/j.archger.2019.103901
- 48. Rivan NFM, Shahar S, Rajab NF, Singh DKA, Che Din N, Mahadzir H, et al. Incidence and predictors of cognitive frailty among older adults: a community-based longitudinal study. International journal of environmental research and public health. 2020;17(5):1547. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17051547
- 49. Ghanbarnia MJ, Hosseini SR, Ahangar AA, Ghadimi R, Bijani A. Prevalence of cognitive frailty and its associated factors in a population of Iranian older adults. Aging Clinical and Experimental Research. 2024;36(1):134. doi: 10.1007/s40520-024-02790-y
- 50. Forte G, De Pascalis V, Favieri F, Casagrande M. Effects of blood pressure on cognitive performance: A systematic review. Journal of clinical medicine. 2020;9(1):34. doi: 10.3390/jcm9010034
- 51. Inoue T, Matsuoka M, Shinjo T, Tamashiro M, Oba K, Kakazu M, et al. Blood pressure, frailty status, and all-cause mortality in elderly hypertensives; The Nambu Cohort Study. Hypertension Research. 2022;45(1):146-54. doi: 10.1038/s41440-021-00769-0
- 52. Lee JK, Won MH, Son Y-J. Combined influence of depression and physical frailty on cognitive impairment in patients with heart failure. International journal of environmental research and public health. 2019;16(1):66. doi: 10.3390/ijerph16010066
- 53. Bachrach CA. Childlessness and social isolation among the elderly. Journal of Marriage and the Family. 1980:627-37. doi: 10.2307/351906

