

1 **Social isolation and loneliness as risk factors for grip strength decline among older**
2 **women and men in China**

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1 **Brief summary:** Our results indicate that higher levels of loneliness rather than social isolation
2 were independently associated with decreased grip strength after 4-year follow-up for women,
3 while only social isolation was positively associated with decreased grip strength for men.

4

1 **Abstract**

2 **Objective:** The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships of social isolation and
3 loneliness, both individually and simultaneously, on changes in grip strength among Chinese
4 older adults and whether these relations vary by gender.

5 **Design:** A 4-year prospective observational study.

6 **Setting and Participants:** This study used data from the China Health and Retirement
7 Longitudinal Study (CHARLS). Analyses were conducted with data from two waves (2011 and
8 2015) and were restricted to those respondents aged 50 and older [n = 7,025, mean age (SD) =
9 61.46 (7.59); male, 48.4%].

10 **Methods:** Social isolation, loneliness and grip strength were measured at baseline. Follow-up
11 measures of grip strength were obtained 4 years later. Multiple linear regression was used to
12 evaluate the associations between baseline isolation, loneliness, and decline of grip strength
13 between two waves after adjustment for age, gender, education, BMI, chronic diseases,
14 smoking and drinking status, ADL and IADL disabilities and depressive symptoms.

15 **Results:** For women, baseline loneliness ($\beta = .04, p = .035$) rather than isolation ($\beta = .03, p$
16 $= .110$) significantly predicted grip strength decline after 4 years when other confounding
17 variables were taken into account. For men, baseline isolation ($\beta = .05, p = .005$) rather than
18 loneliness ($\beta = .01, p = .570$) significantly predicted grip strength decline. No synergistic effect
19 of isolation and loneliness on grip strength was found for either women or men.

20 **Conclusions and Implications:** In this prospective study, gender differences were found for
21 the associations of social isolation and loneliness with grip strength decline. Our results suggest
22 that older women and men may benefit from different social enhancement strategies for
23 prevention of physical function decline.

24 **Keywords:** social isolation, loneliness, grip strength, older adults, gender differences.

25

1 **Introduction**

2 Grip strength is a non-invasive and reliable indicator of muscular strength.¹ An extensive
3 research literature indicates that low grip strength is a strong predictor of poor health outcomes
4 in elderly people, including cardiovascular disease (CVD) and all-cause mortality.¹⁻³
5 Identifying factors that may help maintain muscular strength and physical capability may
6 provide insight into strategies for enhancing healthy aging.

7 Social isolation and loneliness are reflections of the objective and subjective characteristics
8 of weak social relationships. Social isolation is a state of estrangement, in which social
9 connections are limited or absent.⁴ Loneliness, on the other hand, refers to a subjective feeling
10 of distress, arising when there is a discrepancy between desired and actual social relationships.⁵
11 Accumulated evidence has shown that both social isolation and loneliness are associated with
12 poorer objective or subjective assessments of physical functions.⁶⁻⁹ However, in most of these
13 studies, grip strength has been either not included^{6,8} or included as only one of the deficits for
14 constructing a broader physical function index.^{7,9} Therefore, the specific association between
15 social relationship factors and grip strength in older adults is not yet well understood. Contrary
16 to subjective measures, grip strength is an objective measure that does not suffer the biases
17 inherent to self-reports.¹⁰ Grip strength has been proposed to be a simple but powerful predictor
18 of future health outcomes.² Therefore, more knowledge about the causes of grip strength
19 decline is important for the development of strategies for prevention of mortality and morbidity
20 among older adults. Additionally, little research has been carried out in China, where traditional
21 family structures and cultural valuation of the elderly are stronger than those in the West.¹¹

22 Gender differences are of particular interest in this study. Women tend to be lonelier and
23 slightly more socially isolated than men.^{12,13} Women have also been found to be more sensitive
24 to the interpersonal context and prefer greater interpersonal connectedness, which may make
25 them more sensitive than men to the negative health effects of poor social connections.¹⁴

1 Several previous studies have indicated possible gender differences in the association between
2 social relationship factors and physical functions,^{15, 16} we therefore stratified the analyses by
3 gender in this study.

4 To examine the associations of social isolation and loneliness, both individually and
5 simultaneously, with grip strength decline among older adults, we used the China Health and
6 Retirement Longitudinal Study (CHARLS), a national, population-based study of Chinese
7 older adults. Our secondary objective was to investigate whether gender differences exist in
8 these associations.

9 **Methods**

10 *Participants*

11 Data are from CHARLS, a nationally representative longitudinal survey sampled residents
12 from 150 counties across 28 provinces in China, with a response rate of 80.5%.¹⁷ In the present
13 study, we used data from two waves of the CHARLS collected in 2011 and 2015. The baseline
14 sample included 17,708 respondents. Our analytic sample was restricted to those respondents
15 aged 50 and older (n = 13,649). Participants with missing values on grip strength at baseline (n
16 = 1,464) or follow-up (n = 4,571) were excluded. Participants who have missing values for any
17 of the confounding variables at baseline were also excluded (n = 637). A total of 7,025
18 respondents (mean age = 61.46, SD = 7.59) were therefore included in the final analysis. Ethical
19 approval for collecting data on human subjects was received at *** by their institutional review
20 board (IRB).

21 *Measures*

22 **Grip Strength**

23 At both baseline and follow-up, grip strength (kg) was measured using a hydraulic handgrip
24 dynamometer (Yuejian TM WL-1000 dynamometer). Two measurements were taken with
25 each hand. The maximum value of four measurements was used in the analysis.^{16, 18} Values

1 of zero or those above 100 kg were considered invalid. Grip strength data was normally
2 distributed across the two waves and was used as continuous variable in subsequent analyses.

3 **Loneliness**

4 In our study, loneliness was measured at baseline with one single item included in the Centre
5 for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CESD): “In the last week, how often did you
6 feel lonely?”. The respondent chose among four ordinal responses scored 1 to 4. This one item
7 measure correlates highly with multi-item loneliness scales and has been used in a number of
8 previous studies.¹⁹⁻²³ Loneliness was dichotomized into 2 categories (0 [not lonely] = those
9 who reported feeling lonely rarely or none of the time, and 1 [lonely] = those who felt lonely
10 sometimes, occasionally or most of the time).²⁴

11 **Social isolation**

12 Four items were combined to create a score for social isolation at baseline.^{25, 26} One point
13 was assigned if participants: being unmarried, not having any children or having less than
14 weekly contact (face-to-face, telephone or e-mail) with children, living in the rural rather
15 than urban areas, and not participating in any social activities over the last month (e.g.,
16 interacted with friends; played chess or cards; went to a sport, social, or other club). Scores
17 ranged from 0 to 4, with higher values indicating greater isolation.

18 **Confounding variables in the baseline survey**

19 Age, education, body mass index (BMI), drinking and smoking status at baseline were
20 viewed as potential confounding variables. Two measures of functional limitation [activities
21 of daily living (ADL) and instrumental activities of daily living (IADL)] were also considered.
22 Both ADL and IADL were treated as binary predictors (1 = functional limitations present; 0
23 = no functional limitations present) due to most respondents (ADL: 83.3%; IADL: 78.3%)
24 reporting no limitations. Chronic diseases (including hypertension, diabetes and heart disease)
25 and depressive symptoms were also adjusted. Depressive symptoms were measured with 10-

1 item CESD. In order to derive a separate depression score, modified CESD scoring was
2 calculated as the sum of the remaining nine questions (range 0–27) by excluding the
3 loneliness question.

4 ***Statistical Analysis***

5 Characteristics of the overall sample at baseline were described using means and standard
6 deviations for continuous data and percentages for categorical data. Chi-square tests or
7 independent sample t-tests were conducted to examine differences for all variables at baseline
8 between women and men. We used multiple linear regression to test the independent, relative,
9 and synergistic effects of isolation and loneliness on grip strength for women and men
10 separately. Three different models were estimated and change of grip strength (grip strength at
11 baseline minus grip strength at follow-up) was used as the dependent variable in all models.
12 Model 1 was constructed to examine the associations between loneliness at baseline and grip
13 strength at follow-up by adjusting for all confounding variables including age, sex, education,
14 BMI, chronic diseases, smoking and drinking status, ADL and IADL disabilities, and CESD-9
15 scores. A similar model was fitted to test the independent associations of isolation with grip
16 strength decline (Model 2). Model 3 added both isolation and loneliness into the fully adjusted
17 model. We also tested the interaction between isolation and loneliness on grip strength decline.
18 For all regression analyses, unstandardized regression coefficients (B) with corresponding
19 standard errors were reported. Standardized regression coefficients (β) were also reported as
20 variables under study were measured on different scales. In the sensitivity analysis, to reduce
21 the risk of reverse causation, we repeated the Model 3 after excluding the participants who
22 have a very low level of grip strength at baseline. All analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS
23 20.0 (IBM, Armonk, NY, USA) and a p -value $< .05$ was considered statistically significant.

24 **Results**

25 In total, 3,625 women (51.6%) and 3,400 men (48.4%) were included in the final analysis. Of

1 all the included participants, the prevalence of hypertension, diabetes and heart diseases is
2 28.0%, 6.6% and 13.3% respectively. The mean grip strength of the included participants (SD)
3 at baseline was 25.74 (6.81) kg for women and 38.25 (8.63) kg for men. **Table 1** shows the
4 characteristics of the included and excluded participants at baseline. Compared with those who
5 were excluded from the original sample ($n = 6,624$), participants included in the final analysis
6 were healthier. They were less likely to have hypertension, diabetes, heart disease, ADL and
7 IADL disabilities (all $p < .05$). In addition, individuals who were included in the analysis were
8 more likely to feel lonely (29.4% vs 26.4%, $p < .001$) and have higher level of isolation (mean
9 score: 1.46 vs 1.35; $p < .001$) than those who were excluded. For the enrolled participants,
10 significant gender differences were observed in all the variables included in the regression
11 models (all $p < .01$). Compared with men, women were more likely to feel lonely (34.2% vs
12 24.3%; $p < .001$) and have a higher score of social isolation (mean score: 1.49 vs 1.43; $p = .001$).

13 After 4 years, the mean scores on grip strength were significantly declined for both men
14 (from 38.25 to 35.33, $t = 22.41$, $p < .001$) and women (from 25.74 to 23.69, $t = 17.71$, $p < .001$).
15 **Table 2** show the results of multiple linear regression on women and men respectively. For
16 women, loneliness ($\beta = .04$, $p = .025$) rather than isolation ($\beta = .26$, $p = .077$) can significantly
17 predicted grip strength decline over 4 years when other confounding variables were taken into
18 account. When isolation and loneliness were entered simultaneously into the model (Model 3),
19 the regression coefficients and significance levels for both loneliness ($\beta = .04$, $p = .035$) and
20 isolation ($\beta = .03$, $p = .110$) were almost unchanged. For men, baseline isolation ($\beta = -.05$, p
21 $= .004$) significantly predicted decreased grip strength. In contrast, loneliness was not
22 associated with grip strength ($\beta = .02$, $p = .399$). When baseline isolation and loneliness were
23 entered simultaneously into the regression model, the coefficient for isolation remained
24 significant ($\beta = -.05$, $p = .005$). Interaction effect between social isolation and loneliness was
25 tested by including interaction term into Model 3. No significant interaction was found for

1 either women ($\beta = .001, p = .881$) or men ($\beta = -.06, p = .113$).

2 We reran Model 3 after excluding the respondents with very low grip strength (bottom
3 10%) at the baseline survey (for women: $\leq 17.00, n = 333$; for men: $\leq 27.11, n = 340$), for the
4 reasons that people with very impaired physical function may find it difficult to engage socially
5 with others. The results were unchanged [for women: isolation (B (SE) = .17 (.14), $\beta = .02, p$
6 = .218); loneliness (B (SE) = .78 (.27), $\beta = .06, p = .004$). for men: isolation (B (SE) = .55
7 (0.16), $\beta = .06, p = .001$); loneliness (B (SE) = .23 (.34), $\beta = .01, p = .510$)].

8 **Discussion**

9 In this longitudinal study, higher levels of loneliness rather than social isolation were found to
10 be independently associated with decreases in grip strength over time for women. However,
11 for men, only social isolation was positively associated with decreased grip strength. As far as
12 we are aware, this is the first longitudinal study to find a gender-dependent impact of isolation
13 and loneliness on an objective index of physical function. No synergistic effects of isolation
14 and loneliness on grip strength was found for either women or men.

15 Studies assessing the association between social relationships and physical functioning in
16 older age usually focus on specific aspect of isolation and produced mixed findings. Having a
17 large number of social ties²⁷ and participation in social activities have been linked with less
18 decline in physical function in some longitudinal studies,^{9, 28} with others reporting limited or
19 no significant associations.^{15, 29} Evidence on whether social isolation increases risk of grip
20 strength decline is sparse. Our findings on social isolation and grip strength decline was
21 consistent with those of Shankar et al.'s study with English older adults. They found that high
22 social isolation was a risk factor for decline in gait speed, even though no gender difference
23 was observed.⁶ However, another study with the same cohort population found that high social
24 isolation was associated with an increased risk of becoming physically frail in men, but not
25 women.³⁰ Similarly, Guralnik et al. found that never married and married men who remained

1 childless had significantly poorer physical function when compared with married men who had
2 children.¹⁶ These associations were not observed among women. The results of our study along
3 with these two studies^{16, 30} indicated that the negative effect of social isolation on physical
4 function might be more salient for men than for women.

5 In contrast to social isolation, loneliness was found to be associated with decreased grip
6 strength over time among women rather than men in our study. Previous prospective findings
7 have shown linking of loneliness with decline in gait speed⁶ or mobility,⁸ and increased
8 difficulties with activities of daily life,⁶ or upper extremity tasks.⁸ Two studies have
9 investigated the association between loneliness and grip strength. A recent analysis of middle-
10 aged Danish adults found no significant association between loneliness and grip strength,
11 which may be due to the cross-sectional design and relatively young age (mean age 54) of the
12 study population.³¹ Another longitudinal study with the oldest old in Netherlands found that
13 lower baseline grip strength did not predict increases of loneliness.³² Neither of these two
14 studies found gender differences.

15 For the association between grip strength decline and detrimental health outcome in the
16 older adults, such as CVD and mortality,¹⁻³ one would expect that interventions aimed at
17 improving social relationships are beneficial for health in general. Those gender differences in
18 our study for the associations of social isolation and loneliness with grip strength decline may
19 be important for several reasons. First, previous studies showed that older women typically
20 report greater loneliness than men,^{33, 34} as was also found in our analysis. Moreover, it is
21 thought that women are more sensitive to the interpersonal context and prefer greater
22 interpersonal connectedness than do men.³⁵ Second, previous research suggests that social
23 relationships for females are characterized by greater amounts of emotional sharing in
24 comparison with males, for whom shared activities are more prominent.³⁶ Therefore, women's
25 health might be influenced more by the emotional aspects of social relationships, while men's

1 health could be affected more by the objective features of social relationships.

2 Strengths of our study include the large sample size and the fact that CHARLS is designed
3 to be nationally representative of the community-dwelling Chinese older adults. Although
4 previous studies have suggested the associations between lower quality of social relationships
5 and poorer physical function,⁶⁻⁹ it should be noted that most findings are based on Western
6 sample and hence a limited cultural context. Westerners tend to be more individualistic and
7 have higher objective social isolation compared with non-Western populations.³⁷ Thus, our
8 study expands knowledge about the health impact of social relationships in a more collectivistic
9 culture.

10 The study has limitations. First, loneliness was assessed with only one direct question
11 regarding the perception of loneliness in the last week. Despite wide use in the literature and
12 strong correlations with several established multiple-item scales, this measure may be less
13 reliable than a composite measure that taps multiple aspects of loneliness.^{19, 38, 39} Second, the
14 proportion of missing data in this study was relatively high, which mainly due to the missing
15 value of grip strength. Multiple imputation was not used in this study because the data were
16 not missing at random.⁴⁰ People excluded from the analysis tended to be unhealthier than those
17 who were included. Our findings may therefore underestimate the true associations between
18 loneliness or social isolation and decline in grip strength.

19 **Conclusions and Implications**

20 In this prospective study, higher level of loneliness rather than social isolation was associated
21 with decreased grip strength for women. By contrast, social isolation rather than loneliness was
22 positively associated with decreased grip strength for men. These results suggest that older
23 women and men in China may benefit from different social enhancement strategies for
24 prevention of their physical function decline. To improve physical function of older men, it
25 may be beneficial to encourage greater social connectedness, whereas older women might

- 1 benefit more from decreasing subjective feelings of loneliness.
- 2 **Conflicts of Interest:** None

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Table 1 Baseline characteristics of the participants (n = 7,025)

Characteristic	Included (n = 7,025)	Excluded (n = 6,624)	<i>p</i> value ^a	Women (n = 3,625)	Men (n = 3,400)	<i>p</i> value ^a
Age, M(SD), y	61.46 (7.59)	63.19 (9.57)	< .001	61.21 (7.66)	61.73 (7.51)	.004
Education level, (Less than lower secondary education, %)	91.5	86.1	< .001	95.4	87.3	< .001
BMI, M (SD), kg/m ²	23.36 (3.94)	23.04 (4.04)	< .001	23.88 (4.21)	22.81 (3.54)	< .001
Hypertension, %	28.0	30.9	< .001	30.6	25.3	< .001
Diabetes, %	6.6	7.5	.015	7.5	5.8	.004
Heart disease, %	13.3	15.0	.001	14.7	11.8	< .001
Smoking, %	31.9	25.0	< .001	6.6	58.9	< .001
Drinking, %	32.5	31.9	.880	11.7	54.7	< .001
ADL disability, %	16.7	21.8	< .001	19.2	14.1	< .001
IADL disability, %	21.7	26.4	< .001	26.3	16.9	< .001
CESD-9, M (SD)	8.07 (5.84)	7.23 (5.95)	0.136	9.04 (6.09)	7.03 (5.37)	< .001
Baseline grip strength, M (SD), kg	31.80 (9.95)	30.37 (10.52)	< .001	25.74 (6.81)	38.25 (8.63)	< .001

Loneliness, %	29.4	26.4	< .001	34.2	24.3	< .001
Social isolation, M (SD)	1.46 (0.85)	1.35 (0.93)	< .001	1.49 (0.85)	1.43 (0.84)	.001
Not married, %	16.4	26.7	< .001	21.3	11.2	< .001
No child or less than monthly contact with children, %	8.5	8.2	.767	8.0	9.1	.112
Live in the rural area, %	67.5	51.9	< .001	33.6	31.3	.042
Not participate in social activities, %	53.8	46.4	.064	53.8	53.7	.942

^a*p* value for Chi-square tests (categorical variables) or independent sample t-tests (continuous variables)

M, mean; SD, standard deviation; ADL, activities of daily living; IADL, instrumental activities of daily living; CESD, Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression scale.

Table 2 Linear regression for the grip strength at follow-up by gender

	Women (n = 3,625)						Men (n = 3,400)					
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B(SE)	β	B(SE)	β	B(SE)	β	B(SE)	β	B(SE)	β	B(SE)	β
Age	.05 (.02) **	.05	.05 (.02) **	.05	.05 (.02) **	.05	.06 (.02) **	.06	.06 (.02) **	.06	.06 (.02) **	.06
Education	.09 (.56)	.00	.26 (.57)	.01	.23 (.57)	.01	.86 (.40) *	.04	1.00 (.40) *	.04	1.00 (.41) *	.04
BMI	.02 (.03)	.01	.03 (.03)	.02	.03 (.03)	.02	.03 (.04)	.01	.04 (.04)	.02	.04 (.04)	.02
Hypertension	.03 (.27)	.00	.04 (.27)	.00	.03 (.27)	.00	-.05 (.32)	.00	-.06 (.32)	-.00	-.06 (.32)	-.19
Diabetes	-.52 (.45)	-.02	-.49 (.45)	-.02	-.47 (.45)	-.02	-.73 (.57)	-.02	-.66 (.57)	-.02	-.66 (.57)	-.02
Heart disease	.10 (.34)	.01	.15 (.34)	.01	.14 (.34)	.01	.41 (.42)	.02	.47 (.42)	.02	.47 (.42)	.02
Smoking	-.44 (.47)	-.02	-.43 (.47)	-.02	-.44 (.47)	-.02	-.23 (.27)	-.01	-.24 (.27)	-.02	-.24 (.27)	-.02
Drinking	.58 (.36)	.03	.60 (.36)	.03	.57 (.36)	.03	.11 (.27)	.01	.13 (.27)	.01	.13 (.27)	.01
ADL disability	-.39 (.33)	-.02	-.41 (.33)	-.02	-.41 (.33)	-.02	-.18 (.41)	-.01	-.20 (.41)	-.01	-.21 (.41)	-.01
IADL disability	.01 (.29)	.00	-.01 (.30)	.00	-.02 (.30)	-.00	.21 (.38)	.01	.19 (.38)	.01	.19 (.38)	.01
CESD-9	-.02 (.02)	-.02	.00 (.02)	.00	-.02 (.02)	-.02	-.05 (.03)	-.03	-.05 (.03)	-.03	-.06 (.03)	-.04
Loneliness	.62 (.27) *	.04	-	-	.58 (.28) *	.04	.28 (.34)	.02	-	-	.19 (.34)	.01
Isolation	-	-	.26 (.14)	.03	.23 (.15)	.03	-	-	.47** (.16)	0.05	.46 (.16) **	.05

***, $p < .001$; **, $p < .01$; *, $p < .05$