

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Brittain, K., Degnen, C., Gibson, G., Dickinson, C. and Robinson, L. (2017), When walking becomes wandering: representing the fear of the fourth age. *Sociology of Health and Illness*, 39: 270–284, which has been published in final form at <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9566.12505> This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance With Wiley Terms and Conditions for self-archiving.



## When does walking become wandering – representing the fear of the fourth age?

Journal:	<i>Sociology of Health and Illness</i>
Manuscript ID	SHI-00221-2015.R1
Manuscript Type:	Original Article
Subject Area:	Ageing < RESEARCH AREAS, Dementia / Alzheimer's < RESEARCH AREAS, Place < RESEARCH AREAS
Abstract:	<p>Dementia is linked to behavioural changes that are perceived as challenging to care practices. One such behavioural change is 'wandering', something that is often deeply feared by carers and by people with dementia themselves. Understanding how behavioural changes like wandering are experienced as 'problematic' is critically important in current discussions about the behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia. In this paper we draw on our secondary analysis of qualitative interviews and focus groups with carers of people with dementia to examine the question 'when does walking become wandering'? Drawing on theoretical perspectives from anthropology, sociology and human geography to explore experiences of carers and of people with dementia, we argue that a conceptual shift occurs in how pedestrian activity is represented as something purposeful, meaningful and healthy (walking) to something threatening and that needs managing (wandering). We demonstrate how this shift is connected to cultural assumptions about the mind/body relationship in both walking and in dementia. We further argue that the narratives of carers about wandering challenge the notion of 'aimless' walking within the fourth age. This is because, evident within these narratives, there are often pronounced links to specific areas and meaningful places where people with dementia walk to.</p>

## When does walking become wandering – representing the fear of the fourth age?

### Abstract

Dementia is linked to behavioural changes that are perceived as challenging to care practices. One such behavioural change is ‘wandering’, something that is often deeply feared by carers and by people with dementia themselves. Understanding how behavioural changes like wandering are experienced as ‘problematic’ is critically important in current discussions about the behavioural and psychological symptoms of dementia. In this paper we draw on our secondary analysis of qualitative interviews and focus groups with carers of people with dementia to examine the question ‘when does walking become wandering?’ Drawing on theoretical perspectives from anthropology, sociology and human geography to explore experiences of carers and of people with dementia, we argue that a conceptual shift occurs in how pedestrian activity is represented as something purposeful, meaningful and healthy (walking) to something threatening and that needs managing (wandering). We demonstrate how this shift is connected to cultural assumptions about the mind/body relationship in both walking and in dementia. We further argue that the narratives of carers about wandering challenge the notion of ‘aimless’ walking within the fourth age. This is because, evident within these narratives, there are often pronounced links to specific areas and meaningful places where people with dementia walk *to*.

Main Body word count 8747

### Keywords

Dementia, Wandering, Fourth Age, Walking, Place attachment, Sense of place, Mind/body, Technology

### Background

*Wandering and dementia*

Dementia, although a contested category (Moreira and Bond 2008), is on the increase (Department of Health 2009). Dementia is an umbrella term encompassing a number of sub-types of cognitive impairment (including vascular, Lewy body and fronto-temporal) that have been linked with a series of specific behavioural changes as the 'disease' progresses. One such behavioural change is 'wandering'. Wandering<sup>1</sup> is a behaviour that occurs frequently (Klein et al 1999, Chan et al 2003); one in five people with dementia are said to wander (Wick and Zanni 2006). It is a behaviour that has often been labelled under the term agitation or agitated behaviour (Cohen-Mansfield 1986) and is viewed within dementia care as the most challenging to manage (Lai and Arthur 2003). It has also been shown to cause considerable carer distress and it can often trigger early institutionalisation (Balestreri et al 2000, Phillips and Diwan 2003).

Whilst wandering is viewed as a behaviour that carries with it significant risk of harm for the person with dementia, the actual level of risk of a significant injury (or death) has been shown to be around 5% (Rowe and Glover 2001). For instance, out of 615 reported incidents of people with dementia in the state of Florida becoming 'lost', four people died (three from hypothermia, one from a train accident) and a further thirty people sustained significant injuries (including skin and head injuries, dehydration and hypothermia) (Rowe and Glover 2001). However, although the percentage of people with dementia harmed from wandering is low, families and carers of people with dementia experience intense anxiety about the risk of the person with dementia becoming lost. Indeed, people with dementia who have talked about their experience of feeling lost have also reported fears of this behaviour (██████████). 'Losing oneself', figuratively and literally, is often evoked in everyday discourse as a marker of when 'real' old age can be said to begin (██████████), the onset of the feared 'fourth

1  
2  
3 age' (Gilleard and Higgs 2011).

4  
5  
6 We propose that understanding how and why some behavioural changes are perceived as  
7  
8 'problematic' or 'challenging' is a crucial issue in the current discussions over what is termed  
9  
10 'behavioural psychological symptoms of dementia', or BPSD. The "voices of those who  
11  
12 have experiential expertise of dementia and wandering" are neglected and are needed to  
13  
14 shape future research and practice (Dewing 2006: 239). Our exploration of when walking  
15  
16 comes to be understood as wandering adds to these discussions in precisely this way,  
17  
18 focusing on experiential and everyday perspectives on these matters.  
19  
20  
21

22 *What does wandering mean?*

23  
24  
25 Wandering has been discussed within the healthcare literature since the 1970s (Halek and  
26  
27 Bartholomeyczik 2012: 406). In earlier years of these debates, wandering was defined as "a  
28  
29 tendency to move about, either in a seemingly aimless or disoriented fashion, or in pursuit of  
30  
31 an indefinable or unobtainable goal" (Snyder et al 1978: 272). This definition and others that  
32  
33 focus on the 'aimlessness' of wandering have however increasingly come under scrutiny  
34  
35 (Halek and Bartholomeyczik 2012, Algase 1997, 1999, Lucero 2002). Indeed, not only is  
36  
37 "the aetiology of wandering poorly understood" but it also "remains an unresolved riddle"  
38  
39 (Cipriani et al 2014: 137). Although wandering is clinically recognised, there is no standard  
40  
41 definition (Cipriani et al 2014), with one review identifying seventy different definitions used  
42  
43 within this research field (Dewing 2006: 241).  
44  
45  
46  
47

48  
49 When attempts are made to define wandering, however, most fall into one of two broad  
50  
51 camps. As highlighted by Halek and Bartholomeyczik (2012) in their review of the state of  
52  
53 the field, these are, firstly, a person centred care approach where wandering is viewed as a  
54  
55 derogatory term; and secondly, an approach that views wandering as a normal human  
56  
57 activity. In the latter case, wandering is argued to be understandable, and to be a  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 “consequence of a search for something familiar, safe and pleasant” (Coltharp et al 1996  
4 cited in Halek and Bartholomeyczik 2012: 406). Attempts to define specifically what  
5 wandering is are further hampered by the complexity of behaviours attributed to it (Lai and  
6 Arthur 2003, White and Montgomery 2014) as well as difficulties in articulating appropriate  
7 theoretical frameworks for analysis. Indeed Algase, a leading figure in debates over  
8 wandering, reports that over half the research published in this area lacks any theoretical  
9 framework altogether (2006).  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17

18  
19 Evident in these ongoing debates is thus the complexity of how to define precisely what  
20 wandering is, the kinds of wandering that occur, the behaviours associated with it, the  
21 usefulness of the term itself, and appropriate theoretical tools to analyse it. There also is no  
22 agreement over the issue of intentionality of the person with dementia, with wandering seen  
23 to be both ‘aimless’ *and* ‘directed’: the “extent [to which] wandering is random and aimless  
24 or goal-oriented and planned cannot be clarified” (Halek and Bartholomeyczik 2012: 407).  
25 Some have sought to differentiate between ‘normal walking’ and wandering by classifying  
26 wandering in four ways: lapping, pacing, random travel and direct travel (Algase et al 1997)  
27 whilst others have argued for the need to reconceptualise wandering as “a natural form of  
28 activity”, positing the possibility of “generating other forms of theoretical descriptions and  
29 explanations” (Dewing 2006: 245) via “the meshing of research with other disciplines such as  
30 human geography, architectural and environmental design” (Dewing 2006: 240). Wandering  
31 is thus a notoriously tricky category to pin down, one that eludes easy categorisation in the  
32 healthcare literature. As such, it may not be surprising that the term wandering itself is  
33 viewed by some as outdated altogether (Maher 2001).  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51

52  
53  
54 *Walking: more than ‘just exercise’*  
55

56  
57 In stark contrast to the negative associations around wandering is ‘walking’. Walking is  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 viewed as an activity that brings with it numerous health benefits, and is included in  
4  
5 recommended guidelines on how beneficial exercise is for older adults (Nelson et al 2007).  
6  
7 But walking is also valorised in a growing social science literature focusing on mobilities.  
8  
9 This literature includes researchers in human geography, anthropology and sociology, with  
10  
11 scholars considering walking from a variety of perspectives<sup>ii</sup>. Important lessons from this  
12  
13 literature include, for example, the importance of walking for producing experience of place  
14  
15 (Middleton 2011) and in turn enhancing a sense of place attachment and facilitating everyday  
16  
17 sociality (Bean et al 2008). This emergent body of literature makes clear that pedestrian  
18  
19 activity should not be dismissed as a banal form of transport from one point to another, nor is  
20  
21 walking simply an issue of health, but instead is linked to people's relationships with each  
22  
23 other and with place.  
24  
25  
26

27  
28 Also revealing are popular understandings of walking in Western<sup>iii</sup> societies, understandings  
29  
30 which have a long history of moralising. On the one hand, walking has been perceived as  
31  
32 "tedious and commonplace, a view that lingers in the residual connotations of the word  
33  
34 'pedestrian'" (Ingold 2004: 321); on the other hand, walking, when done 'properly' (see  
35  
36 Edensor 2000: 87-99), has long been attributed with the power to free the mind to higher  
37  
38 planes of contemplation, permitting the "connections between human mind and sublime  
39  
40 nature" (Michael 2000: 110). Additionally, some kinds of walking are understood as  
41  
42 appropriate and others, not: schoolchildren travelling between school and home, commuters,  
43  
44 and the *flaneur's* "leisurely stroll" all are seen as legitimate, in contrast with "the slow  
45  
46 wanderings of the unemployed and homeless" (Edensor 2010: 69). So, in sum: walking can  
47  
48 be done both 'correctly' and 'incorrectly'. When not done properly, walking is socially  
49  
50 stigmatising, and some incorrect walking becomes wandering.  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 But this still leaves us with the question we set out with: when does walking become  
4 wandering? In partial response, it is worth noting that some wandering – but not all – is seen  
5 as respectable. Correct walking is understood to be mindful, rational, controlled, and  
6 cultured: the epitome of the modern subject. Respectable forms of wandering are also  
7 perceived as ‘cultured’, such as the *flaneur* and the tourist. However, to return to our  
8 question, stigmatised wandering is often signalled in relation to problematic forms of  
9 temporality and problematic forms of embodiment. This stigmatised form of wandering is  
10 perceived as childlike, unthinking, non-rational and closer to a state of nature whereby the  
11 body takes over the mind.  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23

24 Whilst the walking and mobilities literature is burgeoning, accounts of non-normative,  
25 everyday pedestrian activity are still acutely missing from it (Andrews et al 2012; Middleton  
26 2010), including wandering. We posit that wandering is one of these forms of non-normative  
27 walking which requires careful attention. We seek to explore how what is revealed in these  
28 non-normative forms of pedestrian activity are the ways in which “mobility and movement  
29 are entangled with relations of power, identity and embodiment” (Spinney 2010:7, cited in  
30 Middleton 2011) which have too often been ignored in the case of people with dementia and  
31 which demand a fuller accounting. For instance, evident in Western understandings of  
32 pedestrian activity is the notion that walking and thinking are connected. Rhythms of walking  
33 are understood to be bound up with thinking, and different rhythms of walking can generate  
34 different ways of thinking (Middleton 2009 cited in Edensor 2010: 73). That walking is  
35 linked to the thinking, modern self (Edensor 2000: 84) but wandering by the person with  
36 dementia should be associated with a pathological mind/body relationship is not, we suggest,  
37 incidental. This is a point we will return to, below.  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54

### 55 **Aim of paper**

56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 In this paper, we pose the question “when does walking become wandering?” We draw on  
4 qualitative research with carers of people with dementia, investigating a series of interrelated  
5 issues around the fourth age and the social representation of dementia whereby a perceptible  
6 shift occurs. In this context, understandings of walking change from a healthy activity and  
7 something that is aspired to in ‘successful’ ageing to a behaviour that is viewed with fear and  
8 which comes to have deeply negative consequences in terms of care. This shift arguably  
9 further marginalises people with dementia from the ability to participate in the “emancipatory  
10 capacities of city spaces” (Middleton 2011: 93) and the social networks and place attachment  
11 facilitated by walking (Bean et al 2008), characteristics that are linked with an enhanced  
12 sense of wellbeing. As a corrective to these cultural assumptions about pedestrian activity for  
13 people with dementia, we focus on how carers ‘produce’ pedestrian activity as wandering.  
14 Our paper highlights - from the perspective of carers - narratives around wandering and  
15 stories of the person with dementia becoming lost. These narratives, we argue, in actual fact  
16 challenge the notion of aimless, un-thinking or non-purposeful walking within the fourth age  
17 precisely because they highlight ties to specific areas where people with dementia walk *to*.  
18 We attend to the importance of place, as signalled above by Edensor and Bean et al, asking  
19 what happens to the relationship between body and place when the focus shifts from walking  
20 to wandering in carer’s accounts. This permits us to contribute to the evolving debates over  
21 the behaviour of people with dementia: our material problematizes and unsettles the terms  
22 and normative perspectives on such behaviour; calls attention to the broader cultural issues  
23 that underpin and reinforce assumptions about wandering; and opens up space to consider  
24 other perspectives on the question of when is a behaviour a ‘challenging’ or ‘problematic’  
25 one.  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53

## 54 55 **Methods** 56 57 58 59 60

1  
2  
3 This paper is based on qualitative data derived from two studies that explored the experience  
4 of carers of people with dementia and the use of assistive technology, within and outside of  
5 the home. The interviews touched on their views of accessing outside spaces and whether or  
6 not they used technology to support the person with dementia to carry on with activities in  
7 and outside of the home. Results from these individual studies have been published  
8 previously [REDACTED] but here we draw on as of yet unpublished  
9 narratives of carers. This paper specifically focuses on the carers' experiences of managing  
10 getting out and about with the person with dementia. Although not specifically about  
11 'wandering' or 'place attachment', both of these concepts repeatedly appeared in the carers'  
12 narratives. As such, they offer valuable insights into both the experiences of carers and  
13 people with dementia that help unpack and critically examine the cultural ideas at work  
14 around understandings of the perceived transformation from walking to wandering.  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29

30 An inductive approach to data collection was adopted in both studies, using the constant  
31 comparative method (Glaser 1965) and deviant case analysis. In total there were three focus  
32 groups with 11 carers and 26 one-to-one interviews with carers. Both the focus group  
33 discussions and interviews lasted approximately one hour, and all were digitally recorded,  
34 transcribed verbatim and anonymised. The focus groups were held in familiar surroundings to  
35 ensure a sense of continuity and familiarity for the participants. These were facilitated by  
36 [REDACTED], and took place in different settings within the community (church, residential home,  
37 Alzheimer's Society). Participants were recruited from two local branches of the Alzheimer's  
38 Society in two North of England coastal towns. The interviews took place in a room on the  
39 University campus or the person's home, depending on what was most convenient for the  
40 interviewee. All recruitment strategies and interaction with participants have followed strict  
41 ethical guidelines, complying with the British Society of Gerontology's guidelines on ethical  
42 research (BSG 2008). Participation was voluntary and participants were told that they could  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 opt out at any stage of the research process. Ethical approval for both studies was sought and  
4  
5 given through the University Ethics Committee.  
6  
7

8  
9 For this paper, we have explored the question ‘when does walking become wandering’ and  
10  
11 highlight both the tension surrounding the ‘fear’ of the person being cared for becoming ‘lost’  
12  
13 alongside the recognition of outside activities that those being cared for want to participate in.  
14  
15 In answering this question ██████ and ██████ undertook a secondary analysis<sup>iv</sup> of the two  
16  
17 datasets, by revisiting previously coded sections of data that specifically related to  
18  
19 ‘wandering’ or ‘walking’ from the perspective of carers of people with dementia.  
20  
21  
22  
23

## 24 25 **Findings**

### 26 27 *Fear of losing them*

28  
29 Carers were explicit about the sense of responsibility and generalised sense of worry they  
30  
31 often experienced as they became more aware of the potential of losing the person with  
32  
33 dementia. This is something they fear deeply:  
34  
35  
36

37  
38  
39 “I know other people have had to worry about people who have gone missing, but its  
40  
41 when you actually live through it and you think ‘God, what’s happened to him’, and  
42  
43 he had completely forgotten within 5 minutes that he had been missing, but I hadn’t, I  
44  
45 still, even when he is just at his day care, I am on edge the whole time, because I am  
46  
47 thinking, ‘is he going to get out when they don’t notice him?’” (Joan, wife)  
48  
49

50  
51 Even when the person with dementia was not able to leave the site, carers still lived with the  
52  
53 fear that they might disappear in the night:  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 “I mean the way she used to wander through the night, and we were in separate rooms  
4 then, but I have always been a light sleeper, and if she got up, I was up as well, so I  
5 wasn’t getting any rest... ..I was constantly watching her... ..when she was in the  
6 house, the door was always locked, and then it ended up, I got a little dog for her and  
7 that seemed to help her because the dog would bring her back, but she would only go  
8 across the road, and we have got a little green, and she used to sort of, go round the  
9 green, but the dog would drag her back...” (Bill, husband)  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18

19 Indeed, as we have reported previously, sometimes it is the fear of the carers that stops the  
20 person with dementia being independent in accessing the outside spaces that they enjoy  
21 ( [REDACTED] ).  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26

27 Another carer spoke about how the family had to make a decision regarding the care of her  
28 grandma because she was constantly ‘getting out’, and because she did not have any  
29 recollection of her husband, she did not want to go back ‘home’ to him.  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34

35 “she got to the point where she was getting out and she didn’t know who my granddad  
36 was, so she then refused to go back home... ..a couple of times she got out and she  
37 would just flee, basically, and then... ..she’d end up in, like, the neighbours. Who  
38 thankfully knew her, they knew my granddad, and she was just like, ‘I’m not going  
39 back to that house, there’s an old man in that house and I don’t know who he is.’... ..  
40 I think it must have been awful because there would have been that fear of, kind of,  
41 that natural fear to, kind of, flight, ‘cause, like, ‘I’m in a situation, I don’t know where  
42 I’m at, I need to get out.’ But equally it’s kind of like you, you can’t get out because  
43 it’s not safe for you to be wandering around.” (Sarah, granddaughter)  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 The extent and frequency of wandering behaviour is thus often a crucial factor in how carers  
4 evaluate if the person with dementia can be cared for at home, or if they need residential care.  
5  
6  
7 In the case of Sarah's grandmother, the family decided ultimately that for her own safety, to  
8 mitigate the risk of 'her getting out', and for her husband's safety as she had started to be  
9 aggressive towards him, that 'settling' her into a residential home was the best decision for  
10 all.  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17

18 These fears of the person with dementia 'getting out' were profoundly linked with the  
19 perceived safety of the person with dementia:  
20  
21  
22  
23

24  
25 "She used to ask about her dad quite a lot, and she used to talk about her home in a  
26 different place... ...things got bad, I think - bad, whatever that means - when she  
27 started getting stressed, but also when she started doing night time walks. That was  
28 when things got really concerning... ...the Police came round once as well. They'd  
29 found her, one occasion, out, you know, in, in an inappropriate state of dress in very  
30 cold conditions. So that - I think that's when it started getting really worrying, and  
31 when we really felt that we needed to do a lot more. And, and I think that was - those  
32 reports were the beginning of the time when we really started seriously thinking about  
33 residential care." (Kate, granddaughter)  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46

47 Interesting differences are also evident however if we contrast Sarah's experiences with  
48 Kate's. In her narrative above, Kate used the phrase 'night walks' for the instances when her  
49 grandma walked to her house in the night; note that she does not classify this as 'wandering':  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 “Night walks were, yeah. I mean, and I, I imagine I have no idea just how regular they  
4 were... .. but then there would be, often, nights where she'd show up at three o'clock  
5 in the morning, with her [to your house] - yeah, with her nightie on. So she'd always  
6 get in my house - well, I think. She got in my house on a number of occasions... ..  
7 she'd show up with her nightie on at three o'clock in the morning, you know. And - or,  
8 the neighbours might kind of tell us that they'd seen her going out - they'd ring us - so  
9 we'd have to go looking for her.” (Kate, granddaughter)  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19

20 This same woman, once she had moved into the residential home, remained active:  
21  
22  
23

24  
25 “She helped the cleaners... ..she would kind of keep herself busy pottering about the  
26 place... ..she potted about the corridors and they would often kind of be - direct  
27 her back to her bed. But, you know, pottering about your corridors... .. and sleeping  
28 in your chair, you know, the next day, it doesn't really matter. It's wandering about in  
29 a state of undress when it's minus something outside, in the middle of the night, that is  
30 the worry, isn't it? And, and, what happens if you don't manage to get back  
31 somewhere? Corridors, what you gonna do? Where are – you're harmless.” (Kate,  
32 granddaughter)  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44

45 Kate recounts how her grandma ‘potted around the corridors’ and makes a clear distinction  
46 between ‘pottering’ which is ‘harmless’ and ‘wandering’ in thin, ‘inappropriate’ clothes  
47 outside in the cold which is a ‘worry’. The form of pedestrian activity might be the same, but  
48 it is the time, place and conditions under which they occur that make the carer’s interpretation  
49 of this mobility shift from walking to wandering.  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 *The use of technologies to prevent the person with dementia being able to 'wander'*  
4  
5

6 Many of the carers recounted examples of times when they did not know where the person  
7 they cared for was. Sometimes this transformed their behaviour outside of the home or  
8 changed the ways in which they managed within the home, such as ensuring that doors were  
9 locked. There was a common thread in the narratives of how carers used locks, the removal  
10 of keys, and alarms to ensure that the person with dementia did not get out, particularly at  
11 night:  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19

20 "but my Alan... ..in the early stages he used to do some wandering, and I had to get  
21 bolts on both sides of the side trellis doors so that he couldn't get out you know, and it  
22 was long time when I had to lock the doors and hide the keys and everything, but  
23 somehow or other, he used get himself out, and we live right near the seafront at  
24 Rowton' and I used to think 'oh God if he gets onto that main road he would just  
25 cross the road', he wouldn't have any traffic sense at all... ..so that's how I, I had to  
26 lock the doors, I had to stop him getting out... ..[one time when he was in respite  
27 care and escaped] the neighbours realised he must be from the [respite] home and they  
28 brought him back which was very worrying because that was so near a very main  
29 road." (Eileen, wife)  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42

43 "So the, the door alarm is sort of for us, gave us peace of mind that we knew that she  
44 wasn't out wandering, that she wasn't gonna get lost and stuff like that." (Cath,  
45 daughter)  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50

51 Joan talks about her husband Fred 'loving to get out' and how he loved walking but that it got  
52 to the stage where she simply could not keep up:  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3           “... he can’t go anywhere on his own... ..I mean, he’d just be lost, but he wants to  
4  
5 go out the whole time; I mean I get no peace and I have got very bad arthritis so I find  
6  
7 it difficult. So if we have been for one walk, I mean a walk of a mile or two mile,  
8  
9 that’s my limit for that day. But Fred doesn’t think so, I mean he will come in, have a  
10  
11 cup of tea, and then the sun is still shining so he’s putting his coat on, ‘come on then,  
12  
13 are we going for a walk’... ..and the only way I can get him to stay in is to give him  
14  
15 a can of beer, then he will stop in.” (Joan, wife)  
16  
17

18  
19 As Fred increasingly became ‘lost’ from the club that he used to go to, Joan made the  
20  
21 decision to move to a place that she felt was more pleasant to walk around, instead of where  
22  
23 they had lived before which to her was just ‘streets’:  
24  
25

26  
27           “Before Fred reached this stage, before we moved here, he used to go to the club  
28  
29 every day for a pint, and it got to the stage where he forgot the way home and then he  
30  
31 forgot how long he had been out and what not, and that was when I decided it was  
32  
33 time to move to a different location, because that wasn’t conducive to the rest of our  
34  
35 lives to live where there was just streets to walk round, so we come down here where  
36  
37 it is pleasant to walk, but he can’t go anywhere on his own, he has to, that, I mean,  
38  
39 he’d just be lost, but he wants to go out the whole time.” (Joan, wife)  
40  
41  
42

43  
44 A different carer spoke about how, even within the early stages of dementia, her mother  
45  
46 became distressed when she was unable to get home. She was away all day before being  
47  
48 found in a nearby field:  
49  
50

51  
52           “...we looked frantically all over the place; again we weren’t expecting her to get lost,  
53  
54 we thought she is just next door... ..so hours passed and we got the Police and they  
55  
56 got the dogs out and we were frantic, thought you know, because she was so  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 vulnerable and it was getting... .. quite cold and she just, she had, she didn't have a  
4  
5 cardigan on or anything and where she was found... .. on the field just around the,  
6  
7 behind the back garden, in the school field where the long grass [is]... ..and she was  
8  
9 crouched down in the grass when they found her, sort of rocking backwards and  
10  
11 forwards, she was very, very distressed..." (Angela, daughter)  
12  
13  
14  
15

16 Taken together, the examples here give some sense of the complexity of what carers are faced  
17  
18 with. For instance, the respondent immediately above, Angela, highlights later in her  
19  
20 interview the impracticality of existing technologies for finding her mother. Identity cards or  
21  
22 bracelets, she points out, would have been ineffective because of her mother's distressed state  
23  
24 and the way she was crouched down in a field making it difficult for her to be seen. The  
25  
26 lasting impact that this had on this family and the person with dementia was the sharp  
27  
28 curtailment of activities because all (including the mother herself) were 'terrified of (her)  
29  
30 going out'. Cath, on the other hand, gets peace of mind from the door alarm technology in  
31  
32 order to monitor her mother's movements, but Fred's wife's account clearly demonstrates  
33  
34 how locks and keys are not always sufficient technologies for carers to control the urge of the  
35  
36 person with dementia to be on the move. Strategies used include improvising with everyday  
37  
38 household items at hand, in this case beer, and in the section above, the family dog who is  
39  
40 relied upon for help, but also more radical changes such as moving home as in the case of  
41  
42 Joan who, recognising the changes in her husband, sought a 'better' place to be able to walk  
43  
44 in.  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50

51 Families thus rely on a range of strategies to manage, but more explicit forms of technology  
52  
53 have often been viewed as a 'solution' to challenging behaviour such as wandering. In the  
54  
55 example below, the use of a mobile 'tracking' technology became the reason why Liz's  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 husband was prevented from getting out and about. The technology made Liz aware of how  
4 far her husband was travelling and this in turn prompted Liz to replace the 'tracking'  
5 technology with a door alarm to warn her when he was trying to get out. Although the  
6 'tracking' technology proved useful when he wandered locally such as into town, it caused  
7 fear when on one occasion he got himself on to a bus out of the area. Despite knowing where  
8 he was through the tracking device and informing the Police, Liz felt that he was now  
9 wandering too far to be safe. This example highlights that the success of the technology,  
10 making visible the distances her husband travelled, actually led to its failure. This is because  
11 the tracker technology is meant to enable independence, not determine when independence  
12 should be curtailed (as it seemed to be in this case):

13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25 "It was in that sort of in between stage when we first, first time he just missed the  
26 house and disappeared onto the moor. And we found him on the top. Police were very  
27 concerned 'cause one day last year, or the year before, a lad was, died on the moor  
28 with hypothermia. So this last time, the last time I lost him just sort of locally, he just  
29 got out of the house ... ..Found him on the High Street in the end... .. the tracker in  
30 the early stages was a comfort, you know, I did like to know where he was at any  
31 time. But it always the drawback of what do you do when you do find out where he  
32 is? You know, you find he's in the middle of the town moor it's not, it's not easy to  
33 know which bit to start looking. They're not exact enough." (Liz, wife)

34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47 Thus, in a variety of ways, technologies shape carers' behaviour and decision making. The  
48 use of technologies have implications for independent living (which is highly culturally  
49 valorised) in that they can both facilitate it and extend it in the home-space. But this goal of  
50 maintaining independent living is constantly being balanced up by carers against their fears  
51 (both perceived and real) about people with dementia's safety, and also powerful cultural

1  
2  
3 norms of familial responsibility when people with dementia can no longer 'be trusted' with  
4  
5 their own behaviours.  
6  
7

8 *When wandering is linked to place, including 'home'*  
9

10  
11 Carers also spoke about places that are known to the person with dementia, whether these are  
12 places in their earlier lives or places they loved to visit. Joan below talks about why they  
13 moved to the Coast and how her husband Fred loved Rowton, because they always used to go  
14 there for holidays. Fred on one occasion escaped from his respite care and journeyed via  
15 Train to the Coast where Joan lived in a flat, but unfortunately "he had turned the other way  
16 and wandered through" past her street. This had worried Joan because he would have gotten  
17 to the seafront and "goodness knows where he would have gone to from there". As she  
18 elaborates:  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27

28  
29  
30 "The first time my husband was in respite, we lost him and he was missing for four  
31 hours... ..eventually it was my own son who was out in his car looking and he found  
32 him, he had wandered from [town] to Rowton<sup>vi</sup>..." (Joan, wife)  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37

38 Similarly, Jenny, another carer, recounts a time where Richard, her husband, was admitted to  
39 hospital. He tells her when she visits that he's 'been for a walk' but Jenny thought he was  
40 'being silly'; there was no way he could have gone for a walk because he was in hospital.  
41 However, the sister on the ward informed them later that he had been out of the hospital and  
42 was found walking around the car park. Jenny then goes on to speak about the second time  
43 this happened; the ward sister rang her at home when Richard had been discovered missing.  
44 The sister had said Richard had 'gone walkabout' and that the police had been called, but that  
45 she was ringing because "we thought that if he's walking" she said, "he might have walked  
46 home". Jenny recounts that she could not believe this would happen as she lives a substantial  
47 distance from the hospital and that Richard did not have any shoes, only slippers. Despite  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 this, Richard did arrive home, on foot later that day. Jenny, describing how the first thing she  
4  
5 asked him was:

6  
7  
8 ““what are you doing?””, and he said ‘I just wanted to come home’ ... .. his dressing  
9  
10 gown he had on, but he had that on his, over his shoulders, and his eyes were red,  
11  
12 because it was freezing cold, it was a freezing cold day, and when I look down, he had  
13  
14 his slippers on... .. and I thought, they look soaking wet, this whole slipper looked  
15  
16 wet, and so we sort of brought him in and put him on a chair and then I said, ‘take  
17  
18 your slippers off’ then we realised, it wasn’t water, it was blood. All his feet were  
19  
20 just; the skin was hanging off his feet. (Jenny, wife)  
21  
22  
23

24  
25 Richard had navigated the 10 kilometre walk ‘getting home’ by using all of the familiar  
26  
27 places he remembered:

28  
29  
30 “...he’d gone down through Rowton... ..and he said he had walked along and then  
31  
32 he said, ‘up by the ice cream place we’d go for a coffee’, which was the Seafront cafe,  
33  
34 you know, and he had come up that way... ..and then he’d cut through, through  
35  
36 Erston because he knew about the Church and he says, ‘that place where the Church  
37  
38 is’...so he’d used all the back...all the places he’d known...” (Jenny, wife)  
39  
40  
41

42  
43 Both Joan and Jenny’s accounts highlight how ‘walking’ or ‘wandering’ in dementia is not  
44  
45 always aimless or lacking cognitive capacity, but can be linked to memories of familiar  
46  
47 places. Whilst Fred had made a wrong turning when nearly at the flat (and had successfully  
48  
49 negotiated nearly 15 kilometres before getting disorientated, including a trip on the Train),  
50  
51 Richard navigated his way on foot, relying on familiar landmarks to arrive back at the family  
52  
53 home.  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 *Wanting to go home – to a familiar home*  
4  
5

6 Paralleled with the material in the previous section, a number of carers touched on the person  
7 with dementia 'wanting to go home'. This was often linked to home being a familiar place,  
8 even if the 'home' they wanted to go to was one from their past. Joan speaks of how her  
9 husband Fred regularly refers to their home but by this he means where they lived before the  
10 Second World War:  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16

17  
18 "... but then he would get his wallet out and he was looking at his wallet and I said,  
19 'what's the matter, what are you looking for?', he says 'I'm just wondering if I have  
20 got enough to get back', I says 'to get back where Fred?', and he says 'well home',  
21 and I says 'well this is home', 'no, no' he says, 'I mean' he says , and I says 'in any  
22 case Fred, you don't pay on the bus now, it's now all free on the bus', I am trying to  
23 change the conversation and I said 'put your wallet away, you don't need your  
24 money', and he says 'but I have to go, I have to go' and I say 'well look, just go and  
25 have a look and you'll see your bedroom, just along there', 'my bedroom's just along  
26 there?', 'go on, go and have a look at your bedroom, it's just around there', so I'll say  
27 'leave this door open and I'll make sure you go up the right place', so he opens the  
28 door, goes out, comes back and he says 'yes, I have slept in that bed before, I  
29 recognise that' " (Joan, wife).  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44

45  
46 Tracy on the other hand highlights how whilst she herself worried about her father losing his  
47 way, her mother did not share this fear. Instead, she had a confidence that her husband would  
48 make it back home:  
49  
50

51  
52 "when [my dad would walk to the shop] I worried myself silly, "Has he got lost?" She  
53 never did, she was always confident he would find his way home. And he always did,  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 but it worried the heck out of me because I was thinking, ‘Oh my God’, you know...”  
4  
5 (Tracy, daughter).  
6  
7  
8

9  
10 Tracy elaborates that “it took my my mum a long time to sort of understand what he was able  
11 to do and what he wasn’t able to do”, but her mother had a certainty, born out by experience,  
12 that her father could navigate successfully home. Similarly, Cath, below, highlights the  
13 “panic” she felt when her mother went missing, but she also felt that her mother would be  
14 able to get back home because she always managed to, although on this occasion she didn’t  
15 make it home but made it back to the spot she had become detached from her family:  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23

24  
25 “I was absolutely beside myself, because I didn’t know whether she would, she was  
26 also always very good at actually getting home. She was, she knew how to get home.  
27  
28 So we went down to our old home, because she was at my house, so and stuff like  
29 that. But she just wasn’t there, but she managed to get herself back to where she  
30 started. I don’t know how she did it.” (Cath, daughter)  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38

39 ‘Home’ is obviously not a straightforward category: in Fred’s case, for instance, the passage  
40 of time is collapsed and his desire to go home does not map onto his current residence, but  
41 instead onto one from many decades prior. Having said that, all the examples above underline  
42 the strength of attachment to a familiar home, and how many carers’ recognised this  
43 significant relationship as enabling people with dementia to navigate back.  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50

## 51 Discussion

52

53  
54 Firstly, throughout the narratives around the experience of ‘wandering’ or the person with  
55 dementia becoming ‘lost’, the carers demonstrate the importance of a range of intersecting  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 strategies necessary to enable them to manage and care for their family members who exhibit  
4 agitated behaviours associated with dementia. These include assistive technologies such as  
5 door alarms, GPS tracking devices and identity cards. But they also include the wider social  
6 networks the people with dementia are part of whereby some neighbours ‘informally’  
7 monitor their activities and raise alerts. Additionally, there are also the everyday,  
8 improvisational domestic resources such as the family dog who “would drag her back”; and  
9 Fred’s wife’s “can of beer” when she is not physically able to do a second walk in the same  
10 day. As such, what is evident here are the ways in which multiple, intersecting levels of  
11 technology are employed to manage both the behavioural characteristics of the person with  
12 dementia but also the responsibilities and fears of the carers. Having said that, what is also  
13 evident is that these strategies and technologies become part of the process of identifying for  
14 the carers when walking has become wandering, or when wandering has become ‘too  
15 dangerous’ and needs to be curtailed. Unintended consequences can follow from this  
16 whereby technologies meant to extend or facilitate independence end up *limiting*  
17 independence by redefining non-normative walking as dangerous, rather than as a  
18 manageable activity.  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37

38  
39 Secondly, evident in the carers’ narratives about wandering are the specificity of local  
40 landscapes and places. On the one hand, this is a source of consternation and fear. Carers talk  
41 about a number of topographical features in their accounts above: main roads, road crossings,  
42 a school field with long grass, the bus station and the sea front. Many (although not all) of  
43 their fears are linked to aspects of place that might make them particularly threatening. But on  
44 the other hand, places and travelling between them feature importantly in the trajectories and  
45 pedestrian trips the same carers report for the people with dementia. This reoccurring  
46 thematic of place strikes us as particularly pertinent in our attempts to answer when walking  
47 becomes wandering. We return here to Edensor’s (2010) point about rhythms, walking and  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 embodied relations with place above, and ask if there might be some mileage to be gained by  
4  
5 thinking about *wandering* and embodied relationships with place. On the one hand, it seems  
6  
7 to us that carers perceive wandering as threatening due to an apparent lack of rhythm and  
8  
9 intent ('aimless', in the healthcare literature), and that it is this they feel tips walking over  
10  
11 into wandering. But the accounts above push us to ask if the pedestrian activity of some of  
12  
13 these people with dementia also have a rhythm, which is an alternative, non-normative form  
14  
15 of rhythm, a rhythm that is linked to place.  
16  
17

18  
19 Ingold (2004), writing about walking and seeking to escape the Cartesian binary of mind  
20  
21 versus body, helps us make this argument. He encourages us to think about walking as a form  
22  
23 of intelligence that is not simply in the mind. Instead, he posits an intelligence that is  
24  
25 "distributed throughout the entire field of relations comprised by the presence of the human  
26  
27 being in the inhabited world" (2004: 332), or as Bean et al put it, how "walking internalises  
28  
29 the relationship between the body and place" (2008: 2837). In a number of instances above,  
30  
31 individuals are wandering to known places such as their homes or favourite locations. It is  
32  
33 precisely this that attests to the "relational field(s)", the "embodied capacities of movement"  
34  
35 (Ingold 2004: 333) that the person with dementia continues to be enmeshed in, despite  
36  
37 assumptions that the person with dementia is no longer able to engage in such sorts of  
38  
39 relations. It appears then in these cases at least that the person with dementia does indeed  
40  
41 have a walking intelligence, one that "is not located exclusively in the head" but which is  
42  
43 instead part and parcel of the person's relationships with place (Ingold 2004: 332). We must  
44  
45 not, however, sugar coat this – we recognise the very real fears around wandering for carers  
46  
47 and people with dementia themselves, and also some of the distressing consequences. But we  
48  
49 want to call attention to how our data on how place still matters in these examples of  
50  
51 wandering, and how it pushes back against the damning, limited, binary stereotypes about the  
52  
53 disappearance of mind and thus of person.  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3  
4  
5 Thirdly, there is the issue of how both wandering and the person with dementia should be  
6 associated with a pathological mind/body relationship. We said above that it is not  
7 coincidental that walking should be associated with the thinking, modern self and that  
8 wandering by the person with dementia should be associated with a problematic mind/body  
9 relationship. This is inextricably due to Cartesian dualism of mind/body which frames  
10 western understandings of the world. This binary firstly posits the self as residing in the mind  
11 (a *cognitive* model of self) and secondly resists the possibility that self and identity might also  
12 be at least partially embodied (a *corporeal* understanding of the self) (Kontos, 2003, 2005).  
13 Drawing inspiration from the work of Kontos, we contend that recognising “the irreducibly  
14 embodied nature of human subjectivity and agency” (2003: 152) helps reveal the cultural  
15 assumptions at work in the shift of when walking comes to be described as wandering.  
16 Walking is understood to be possible when the mind and body work together correctly, whilst  
17 wandering is perceived as when the mind is ‘lost’ and the body takes over. These  
18 underpinning assumptions of the dualism of mind/body are also evident in the healthcare  
19 literature in the debates we summarise above about behaviour associated with wandering, and  
20 if the movement of the person with dementia is ‘aimless’ or ‘directed’ (Snyder et al 1978,  
21 Algase et al 1997, Halek and Bartholomeyczik 2012). A good example of how these  
22 assumptions are reproduced in everyday life comes from the granddaughter’s account above  
23 where she describes her grandmother’s locomotion as ‘night walking’ and not ‘wandering’,  
24 seemingly because her grandmother’s night walking is intentional and rational as it leads to  
25 her granddaughter’s house due to the relations and memories lodged there. Similarly, the same  
26 granddaughter distinguishes between ‘harmless’ ‘pottering around’ and wandering in that the  
27 former is unthreatening and not destabilising or in need of control.  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 This contrast between walking (with the implicit connotation of a healthy mind/body  
4 relationship) and wandering (with an implied pathological mind/body relationship) becomes  
5 even clearer if one considers other forms of the ‘wrong kind’ of walking, such as shuffling:  
6  
7 “adopting a shuffling gait ... is widely regarded as a mark of impotence, infirmity or  
8 decrepitude” (Ingold 2004: 324). Here, finally, we come to the nub of the matter: the abject  
9 figure of the fourth age, the emergent “event horizon” of “mindlessness and immobility”  
10 (Higgs and Gilleard: 2015: 16-17) in the social imaginings of dementia whereby the mind is,  
11 purportedly, entirely subsumed by the body. This non-normative, ‘decrepit’ figure is  
12 virtually absent from the literature on walking for it is assumed that wandering is in and of  
13 itself *evidence of* the no longer mindful state of someone with dementia. This circular logic  
14 then becomes nearly impossible to disrupt or challenge, and instead becomes self-fulfilling in  
15 the social imaginary.  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31

32 In conclusion, there are clear parallels between the ways in which the mind/body split is  
33 conceptualised when analysing walking and when analysing selfhood in dementia. That is to  
34 say that ideas in the west about walking are clearly complicatedly bound up with Cartesian  
35 dualisms of mind and body. So too are ideas around selfhood in people with dementia and the  
36 idea of mind being overcome by body. Wandering – a wrong kind of walking - is interpreted  
37 as collapsing the division between head and heels<sup>vii</sup>, mind and body. Dementia is understood  
38 as irretrievably collapsing this divide, with ‘body’ coming to completely overtake ‘mind’, and  
39 little possibility in the social imagination for reclaiming meaning or intentionality, as those  
40 are assumed to be simply cognitive matters.  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51

52 Such cultural assumptions are encoded in understandings of the shift when walking becomes  
53 wandering in western cultures. In response, we contend that “confining what is essential  
54 about selfhood to the brain is to overlook how bodily sources of agency, grounded in the pre-  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 reflective level of experience, are fundamental to the constitution and manifestation of  
4  
5 selfhood and Alzheimer's disease" (Kontos 2005: 555) and that significance must also be  
6  
7 granted to the body and embodied agency in a person-centred approach to dementia (Kontos  
8  
9 2005). The data we present here on the importance of place and embodiment is an important  
10  
11 corrective to these assumptions about when walking becomes wandering, and are an  
12  
13 important consideration of a non-normative form of mobility. As our data demonstrates,  
14  
15 wandering is not a term that can easily be dispensed with: it is a concept that carers use in  
16  
17 their everyday lives to try and describe and explain behaviours that are very worrying to  
18  
19 them. But simultaneously, by using this term, all the associations it conjures up of the person  
20  
21 with dementia being 'aimless' and unable to meaningfully travel on foot reinforces the  
22  
23 negative and dehumanising notions we have about dementia and about a supposed  
24  
25 disappearance of mind and self. Our data, based on the experiences of carers, challenges the  
26  
27 simplicity of this equation by highlighting where it is people are wandering *to*.  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35

## 36 References

37  
38 Andrews, G.J., Hall, E., Evans, B. and Colls, R. (2012) Moving Beyond Walkability: On  
39  
40 the Potential of Health Geography. *Social Science and Medicine* 75, 11, 1925-32.  
41  
42

43  
44 Balestreri, L., Grossberg, A. and Grossberg, G.T. (2000) Behavioral and psychological  
45  
46 symptoms of dementia as a risk factor for nursing home placement. *International*  
47  
48 *Psychogeriatrics* 12, 1, 59-62.  
49

50  
51 Bean, C., Kearns, R. and Collins, D. (2008) Exploring social mobilities: narratives of  
52  
53 walking and driving in Auckland, New Zealand. *Urban Studies*, 45, 13, 2829-48.  
54

55  
56 Brittain, K.R., Corner, L., Robinson, A.L., Bond, J. (2010) Ageing in place and  
57  
58 technologies of place: the lived experience of people with dementia in changing social,  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 physical and technological environments. *Sociology of Health and Illness*. 32, 2, 272-87.

4  
5  
6 BSG (2008) British Society of Gerontology Guidelines on ethical research with human  
7  
8 participants.

9  
10  
11 Chan, D.C., Kasper, J.D., Black, B.S. and Rabins, P.V. (2003) Prevalence and correlates  
12  
13 of behavioural and psychiatric symptoms in community-dwelling elders with dementia or  
14  
15 mild cognitive impairment: The Memory and Medical Care study. *International Journal*  
16  
17 *of Geriatric Psychiatry*, 18, 2, 174–82.

18  
19  
20 Cipriani, G., Lucetti, C., Nuti, A. and Danti, S. (2014) Wandering and dementia.  
21  
22 *Psychogeriatrics*, 14(2), pp.135-142.

23  
24  
25 Cohen-Mansfield, J. (1986) Agitated behaviors in the elderly. II. Preliminary results in  
26  
27 the cognitively deteriorated. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society*, 34, 10, 722–27.

28  
29  
30 Degnen, C. (2012) Ageing Selves and Everyday Life in the North of England: Years in  
31  
32 the Making. Manchester: *Manchester University Press*.

33  
34  
35 Department of Health (2009) *Living Well with Dementia: a National Dementia Strategy*.  
36  
37 London: Department of Health.

38  
39  
40 Dewing, J. (2006) Wandering into the future: reconceptualizing wandering ‘A natural and  
41  
42 good thing’. *International journal of older people nursing*, 1(4), pp.239-249.

43  
44  
45 Edensor, T. (2000) Walking in the British Countryside: Reflexivity, Embodied Practices  
46  
47 and Ways to Escape. *Body & Society*. 6, 3-4, 81-106.

48  
49  
50 Edensor, T. (2010) Walking in rhythms: place, regulation, style and the flow of  
51  
52 experience”. *Visual Studies*, 25, 1, 69-79.

53  
54  
55 Gibson, G., Dickinson, C., Brittain, K., & Robinson, L. (2015). The everyday use of  
56  
57 assistive technology by people with dementia and their family carers: a qualitative study.

1  
2  
3 *BMC Geriatrics*, 15, 1, 89.

4  
5 Gilleard, C., and Higgs, P. (2011) Ageing abjection and embodiment in the fourth age.  
6  
7  
8 *Journal of Aging Studies*, 25, 2, 135-42.

9  
10 Glaser, B. (1965) The constant comparison: methods of qualitative analysis. *Social*  
11  
12  
13 *Problems*, 12, 4, 436–45.

14  
15 Halek, M. and Bartholomeyczik, S. (2012) Description of the behaviour of wandering in  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
people with dementia living in nursing homes—a review of the literature. *Scandinavian*  
*journal of caring sciences*, 26(2), pp.404-413.

Higgs, P. and Gilleard, C. (2015) *Rethinking Old Age: Theorising the Fourth Age*.  
London: Palgrave.

Ingold, T. and Vergunst, J. (2008) “Introduction”. In: Ingold, Tim and Vergunst, Jo (eds)  
*Ways of Walking: Ethnography and Practice on Foot*. Farnham, Surrey: Ashgate.

Ingold, T. (2004) Culture on the Ground: The World Perceived Through the Feet. *Journal*  
*of Material Culture*, 9, 3, 315-40.

Klein, D.A., Steinberg, M., Galik, E., Steele, C., Sheppard, J.M., Warren, A., Rosenblatt,  
A., Lyketsos, C.G. (1999) Wandering behaviour in community-residing persons with  
dementia. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry*, 14, 4, 272–79.

Kontos, P. (2003) “The painterly hand”: embodied consciousness and Alzheimer's  
Disease. *Journal of Aging Studies*, 17, 2, 151-70.

Kontos, P. (2005) Embodied selfhood in Alzheimer's Disease: rethinking person-centred  
care, *Dementia*, 4, 4, 553-70.

Lai, C.K., and Arthur, D.G. (2003). Wandering behaviour in people with dementia.  
*Journal of Advanced Nursing*. 44, 2, 173-82.

1  
2  
3 Michael, M. (2000) These Boots are Made for Walking...: Mundane Technology, the  
4 Body and Human-Environment Relations. *Body & Society*, 6, 3-4, 107-26.

5  
6  
7  
8 Middleton, J. (2009) 'Stepping in time': walking, time, and space in the city. *Environment*  
9 *and Planning A*, 41, 1943-61.

10  
11  
12 Middleton, J. (2010) Sense and the city: exploring the embodied geographies of urban  
13 walking. *Social and Cultural Geography*, 11, 6, 575-96.

14  
15  
16  
17 Middleton, J. (2011) Walking in the city: the geographies of everyday pedestrian  
18 practices. *Geography Compass*, 5, 2, 90-105.

19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
Moreira, T. and Bond, J. (2008) Does the prevention of brain ageing constitute anti-  
ageing medicine? Outline of a new space of representation for Alzheimer's Disease.  
*Journal of Aging Studies*, 22, 4, 356-65.

Nelson, M.E., Rejeski, W.J., Blair, S.N., Duncan, P.W., Judge, J.O., King, A.C., Macera,  
C.A., Castaneda-Sceppa, C., (2007). Physical activity and public health in older adults:  
recommendation from the American College of Sports Medicine and the American Heart  
Association. *Circulation*, 116, 9, 1094-105.

Phillips, V.L. and Diwan, S. (2003) The incremental effect of dementia-related problem  
behaviours on the time to nursing home placement in poor, frail, demented older people.  
*Journal of the American Geriatrics Society*, 51, 2, 188-93.

Rowe, M.A. and Glover, J.C. (2001) Cognitively impaired individuals who become lost  
in the community: A descriptive study of safe return discoveries. *Alzheimer's Disease*  
*and Other Dementias*, Nov/Dec, 1 - 9.

Snyder, L.H., Rupprecht, P., Pyrek, J., Brekhus, S. and Moss, T. (1978) Wandering. *The*  
*Gerontologist*, 18(3), pp.272-280.

1  
2  
3 Spinney, J. (2010) Cycling the city: movement, meaning and method. *Geography*  
4  
5 *Compass* 3, 2, 817-35.  
6

7  
8 White, E.B. and Montgomery, P. ( 2014) A Review of “Wandering” Instruments for  
9  
10 People With Dementia Who Get Lost. *Research on Social Work Practice*, 24(4), pp.400-  
11  
12 413.  
13

14  
15 Wick, J. and Zanni, G. (2006) Aimless excursions: wandering in the elderly. *The*  
16  
17 *Consultant Pharmacist*, 21(8), pp.608-618.  
18

19  
20 Van den Berg, H., (2008) Reanalyzing qualitative interviews from different angles: The  
21  
22 risk of decontextualization and other problems of sharing qualitative data. *Historical*  
23  
24 *Social Research/Historische Sozialforschung*, pp.179-192.  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3  
4 <sup>i</sup> As will become apparent, ‘wandering’ is a term and a concept that we seek to examine critically in this paper.  
5 As such, it is a term that we understand here as problematic and so have placed it in scare quotes to indicate our  
6 questioning of the concept. For ease of reading however, we do not continue to use scare quotes after this point  
7 in the text but the reader should be clear that we hold it in question throughout.

8 <sup>ii</sup> See Middleton (2011) and Andrews et al (2012) for valuable summaries of the extent of cross-disciplinary  
9 perspectives on walking.

10 <sup>iii</sup> We recognise that ‘Western’ is a falsely heterogenous category which obscures a great deal of cultural  
11 variation. However, it also provides a useful shorthand for describing some of the shared worldviews shaping  
12 this material and our analysis of it, which is why we use it (with reservations) in this article.

13 <sup>iv</sup> We have termed this a secondary analysis, as the research design and data previously collected (██████████)  
14 was revisited and analysed by two of the authors (██████████). One of the challenges of carrying out  
15 secondary analysis within qualitative research is retaining the original context of the data collected when new  
16 questions are asked of it (see van den Berg 2008 for an in-depth discussion on this). In this instance such a risk  
17 of de-contextualisation was mitigated by ██████████ personal involvement in the research design, data collection  
18 and analysis of the original studies.

19 <sup>v</sup> The name of the coastal town and the café included in this paper have been replaced with pseudonyms, as have  
20 the names of the participants, so as to ensure that participants are not identifiable. However, in doing so we  
21 recognise again the importance of place.

22 <sup>vi</sup> A distance of about 14.5 kilometres.

23 <sup>vii</sup> We are indebted here to Ingold (2004: 315) for this expression of ‘head over heels’ in regards to the  
24 relationship of mind and body in Western thought.  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60