Depression as an etiologic and prognostic factor in coronary heart disease: a meta-analysis of 6362 events amongst 146538 participants in 54 observational studies

Amanda Nicholson	MD, PhD	Clinical Research Fellow (1)	amanda.nicholson@ucl.ac.uk
Hannah Kuper	ScD	Lecturer (2)	hannah.kuper@lshtm.ac.uk
Harry Hemingway	FRCP	Professor of Clinical Epidemiology (1)	h.hemingway@ucl.ac.uk

(1) Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, University College London Medical School, 1-19 Torrington Place, London WC1E 6BT, UK

(2) International Centre for Eye Health, Clinical Research Unit, London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, Keppel Street, London WC1E 7HT

Address correspondence to

Dr Amanda Nicholson at (1)

Telephone: +44 020 7679 1725

Fax: +44 020 7813 0280

e-mail: amanda.nicholson@ucl.ac.uk

AIMS: With negative treatment trials, the role of depression as an etiological or prognostic factor in coronary heart disease (CHD) remains controversial. We quantified the effect of depression on CHD, assessing the extent of confounding by coronary risk factors and disease severity.

METHODS & RESULTS: Meta-analysis of cohort studies measuring depression with follow up for fatal CHD / incident myocardial infarction (etiological) or all cause mortality /fatal CHD (prognostic). We searched MEDLINE and Science Citation Index until December 2003. In 21 *etiological* studies the pooled relative risk of future CHD associated with depression was 1.81 (95 % CI 1.53-2.15). Adjusted results were included for only 11 studies, with adjustment reducing the crude effect marginally from 2.08 (1.69-2.55) to 1.90 (1.49-2.42). In 34 *prognostic* studies the pooled relative risk was 1.80 (1.50-2.15). Results adjusted for left ventricular function were available in only 8 studies; and this attenuated the relative risk from 2.18 to 1.53 (1.11-2.10), a 48% reduction. Both etiological and prognostic studies without adjusted results had lower unadjusted effect sizes than studies from which adjusted results were included. ($p<0.01$).

CONCLUSIONS: Depression has yet to be established as an independent risk factor for CHD because of incomplete and biased availability of adjustment for conventional risk factors and severity of coronary disease.

Key words : meta-analysis; mortality; epidemiology ; depression

Introduction

The global public health implications of a causal association between the two most common morbidities – coronary heart disease (CHD) and depression - are immense[1]. Early positive associations between depression and CHD, reported in observational studies[2,3], led to randomized controlled trials evaluating the effect of alleviating depression on survival after a coronary event [4-6]. Although these trials succeeded in improving depression scores, they did not show a beneficial effect on CHD events. Positive subgroup analyses have been reported from ENRICHD but these findings require confirmation in new studies[7,8]. This prompts the question: Is there an unbiased, unconfounded, causal relationship between depression and CHD? Three key issues are unresolved which this review seeks to address.

First, in light of the recent rapid increase in publications, what is the quantitative assessment of the etiological role of depression in CHD? Previous meta–analyses of etiological studies (healthy participants followed up for occurrence of new CHD) were based on only 12[9] and 10 studies[10] published before the end of 2000, and only one of these[9] has evaluated the contribution of conventional risk factors to the etiological association.

Second, what is the role of reverse causality in prognostic studies? People with severe CHD at baseline, and consequently worse prognosis, may be more likely to report depressive symptoms and this may confound the association between depression and CHD prognosis. Previous meta-analyses have not quantified this effect[11,12].

Third, does the effect of depression assessed at different time-periods following an acute MI, when the patient is acutely unwell, differ from the effect when depression is assessed prior to undergoing CABG or angioplasty.

Objectives

We carried out a meta-analysis, following MOOSE guidelines[13], to quantify the effect of depression on CHD etiology and prognosis, to estimate the contribution of confounding by coronary risk factors and (in prognostic studies) disease severity. We also investigated the role of the timing of depression assessment after a coronary event in the relationship between depression and CHD prognosis.

Methods

Study eligibility

The review included any prospective cohort study in either healthy populations (etiologic) or patient populations with existing CHD (prognostic) which reported the association between depression and an eligible outcome. Depression was defined by self-completed scaled questionnaire, diagnostic interview, physician diagnosis, anti-depressant medication or self-reported diagnosis. Anxiety alone or measures of generalised psychological distress (such as vital exhaustion) were not included. For etiological studies the eligible outcomes were fatal CHD, incident myocardial infarction (fatal and non-fatal). For prognostic studies eligible outcomes were mortality from all causes or from coronary disease. Eligible populations for prognostic studies included patients after MI, angiographic coronary disease and unspecified cardiac patients. Eligible studies were restricted to those where the effect size for the depression measure used dichotomously was reported or could be extracted from the published data.

Searching data sources

Two authors (AN, HK) performed the literature search. AN searched MEDLINE 1966-2003 in May 2004 using medical subject heading terms mood disorder, depression, heart disease, epidemiology, mortality. HK searched the Science Citation Index (www.isiwebofknowledge.com) to identify all papers that cited any of the 55 papers included in

the largest prior review[3] (forward citation) and the papers in the bibliographies of these index papers (backward citation). We limited our search to peer-reviewed articles published in English. Full details of the search strategy have been published [14].

Selecting studies

We (AN, HK) independently reviewed titles, abstracts (if available), and full text against the eligibility criteria, with disagreements resolved by a third author (HH). Science citation index identified more unique titles (2906), abstracts (832) and full text articles (345) than MEDLINE (2501, 794, 254 respectively). 45 new papers were identified in addition to 55 original papers. 54 studies were included in the meta-analysis (see flowchart). When we found multiple publications from one study we selected the paper with the longest follow-up time or largest population. This excluded 12 papers, for example papers by Lane and Frasure-Smith[15-19]. 17 studies were excluded on the basis of ineligible population or outcome or because it was impossible to extract the necessary data on the association between depression and CHD. We excluded 17 studies which presented the effect of depression on a continuous measure, or where it was not clear from the paper what the effect size represented.

Data abstraction

Articles meeting the inclusion criteria were abstracted independently by two authors (AN and HK) detailing: etiological or prognostic study, population size, definition of depression, prevalence of depression at baseline, length of follow-up, number and type of events, adjustment variables included in the final model such as coronary risk factors and (for prognostic studies) measures of CHD severity - previous history, number of affected vessels, dyspnoea, left ventricular function (ejection fraction, Killip class or pulmonary oedema on X-ray). We classified measurement of depression into depressive symptoms (eg CESD, BDI, Zung SDS, and other20-22) or clinical measures (diagnostic interview such as DIS, doctor diagnosis of

depression, or drug treatment). The timing of assessment of depression was classified as more or less than two weeks after MI, according to the maximum time.

Effect estimates within individual studies

We extracted the adjusted and unadjusted effect estimates with standard errors or confidence intervals, using cumulative incidence ratios, incidence rate ratios or hazard ratios as available. In 29 studies, cumulative incidence ratios and confidence intervals were calculated using raw data. Odds ratios were reported in 10 studies, with 6 of these having an event rate of less than 10%. Where multiple effect estimates were reported within a paper, the most adjusted estimate reported for a dichotomous depression measure was selected. Where results for different endpoints were reported, all-cause mortality was used for prognostic studies (to avoid bias in endpoint ascertainment and for consistency with trial endpoints[5]) and fatal CHD endpoint for etiological studies (to reduce bias in endpoint ascertainment). If effect estimates were given for varying levels of depression score or separately for different sex or racial groups these were combined in a two-by-two table or fixed-effect meta-analysis[23-29] to give a single effect estimate for a dichotomous split of the depression measure (usually using the least severe as the cut-point) across the whole population. This was not possible for one study where different cut-points had been used in men and women and so that this study had 2 entries in the meta-analysis[25]. One study included both etiological and prognostic components and was included in both analyses[28], hence there were 21 etiological, 34 prognostic but 54 studies overall.

Null studies

Six studies reported that there was no significant association between depression and outcome (3 unadjusted [30-32] ; 3 adjusted[33-35]) but did not report effect estimates. In order to include these "null" studies the effect estimate was assigned as unity and the variance was estimated from a regression of reported standard errors on the number of events and effect estimate separately

within the etiological, prognostic, unadjusted and adjusted studies. Similarly, where an effect size was reported without standard errors, it was estimated from regression analyses[36]. These adjustments were not possible for two studies where the number of events was not given and these studies were excluded[37,38].

Statistical analyses

The pooled association between depression, analysed as a dichotomous exposure, and outcome was estimated through the inverse- variance weighting method using the meta command in Stata version (Statacorp LP, Texas USA) with the null studies included as a single pooled estimate. Heterogeneity between studies was assessed by the Q statistic (assessed on chi-squared distribution on number of studies-1 degrees of freedom). We assessed the possibility of publication bias using funnel plots (plotting the null studies as separate points), tested statistically using the Begg (rank correlation method) test and Egger (weighted regression) test.

Meta-analyses within subgroups were performed to study the influence of the following factors on the depression –CHD association: degree of adjustment, depression measure, baseline prevalence of depression, length of follow-up, type of endpoint and in prognostic studies: CHD morbidity and timing of depression assessment. The importance of these factors in explaining heterogeneity between studies was assessed by subtracting the total Q statistic from the subgroup models from the Q value in the unstratified model[39]. The effect of prevalence of depression at baseline and length of follow-up period on the effect size of depression was assessed statistically by regressing effect size on prevalence or follow-up period (meta-regression)[40].

Results

Etiological studies

21 etiological studies were identified with a total of 124,509 participants, 4016 events and mean follow-up period of 10.8 years.(Table 1)[24-26,28-30,41-55]. The test of heterogeneity was highly significant (Q 41.3 on 20 degrees of freedom, p=0.003) so the random effects model was used. This yielded a pooled estimate of 1.81 (95 % CI 1.53-2.15) for the association between depression and new CHD events(Figure 1). When we excluded the study reporting a null result[30] the summary estimate was 1.87 (95 % CI 1.57-2.21). There was some evidence of publication bias indicated by asymmetry in the funnel plot with smaller negative studies missing, Egger's regression test p=0.08.

10 studies, from which only unadjusted results were included, yielded an estimate of the association between depression and CHD of 1.52 (95 % CI 1.21-1.90), significantly lower than the unadjusted estimate from the 11 studies which reported both an adjusted and an adjusted result, 2.08 (95 % CI 1.69-2.55, p<.001 for difference) (Table 2). In the 11 studies reporting adjustment for conventional coronary risk factors the effect estimate were reduced by 12% from 2.08 (95 % CI 1.69-2.55) to 1.90 (95 % CI 1.48-2.42). However the results were adjusted for smoking in only 8 and for physical exercise in only 4 of the 11 studies (Table 1).

Lower prevalence of depression at baseline was associated with higher risk of CHD incidence (Table 2). Studies using clinical measures of depression reported a higher risk than those using symptom scales. Studies with longer follow-up periods had a trend towards lower risk estimates. The risk associated with depression was similar for fatal and non-fatal endpoints.

Prognostic studies

34 prognostic studies were identified (Table 3) including 17,842 participants, 1867 deaths with mean follow-up period of 3.2 years [23,27,28,31-36,56-80]. 32 of these studies gave unadjusted results with 2 reporting null results with no estimate. The test for heterogeneity between studies was highly significant (Q= 65.6 on 30 degrees of freedom, p<0.001). The pooled estimate for the association between depression and prognosis of CHD from a random effects model was 1.80 (95 % CI 1.50-2.15). After excluding null studies the pooled estimate rose slightly to 1.84 (95 % CI 1.53-2.21). The funnel plot of prognostic studies was asymmetrical, Egger's test p=0.01, indicating publication bias was present.

Results adjusted for severity of CHD were available in only 11 studies (Table 4). The 20 studies from which an adjusted result was not included had a significantly lower unadjusted estimate for the association between depression and CHD, 1.55(95 % CI 1.23-1.96), than the unadjusted estimate from studies reporting adjusted results (2.16 (95 % CI 1.67-2.80) p < 0.01). Adjustment reduced the effect estimate by 38% to 1.61 (95 % CI 1.25-2.07) (Figure 2). Adjustment for a measure of left ventricular (LV) function reduced the effect size by 45 % compared to 28% after adjustment for other risk factors without LV function.

Studies using a clinical measure of depression yielded weaker associations between depression and CHD than studies assessing symptoms. The prevalence of baseline depression was considerably higher in the prognostic studies (mean = 28%) than in the etiological (mean =13%). There was no trend of stronger effect of depression in studies with a lower prevalence of depression at baseline. The effect of depression was greater after acute MI than in angioplasty or CABG patients, 2.05 (1.60-2.63) compared to 1.63 (1.23-2.16, p <0.01). 7 studies in post MI patients reported adjusted results, with the effect reduced from 2.41 (95 % CI 1.86-3.11) to 1.67 (95 % CI 1.16-2.42), 41% reduction in beta. 4 studies in CABG/angiogram patients also showed a 41% reduction in the effect of depression after adjustment, 1.99 (95 % CI 0.95-4.16) falling to

1.50 (95 % CI 0.73-3.07). Where assessment took place 2 weeks or later after the index MI (4 studies) larger effect estimates for depression were observed than in the 10 studies where assessment was earlier. CVD mortality as an outcome yielded higher effect estimates for depression than for all-cause mortality.

Discussion

This is the first meta-analysis to consider both etiological and prognostic studies in the depression-CHD hypothesis. In 21 etiological studies and 34 prognostic studies, totaling 146,524 participants, we found a 80% increased risk of developing CHD or dying from it. However, incomplete and biased reporting of adjustment for conventional risk factors and the severity of coronary disease mean that these estimates for adjusted risk are likely to be inflated. Depression cannot, yet, be included in the group of established independent coronary risk factors.

Etiological studies

Upward bias in risk estimates

Several biases are likely to lead to an overestimation of the depression-CHD etiology association. We attempted to reduce bias by including null studies and excluding multiple reports from the same study. However, we found some evidence of publication bias, with smaller negative etiological studies missing. Furthermore no adjustment for coronary risk factors could be included for nearly half (10/21) of the etiological studies and in these studies the unadjusted effect was systematically lower (1.52) than the unadjusted effects in studies which also reported adjusted differences (2.08). This suggests that adjustment for coronary risk factors was selectively reported in studies which had stronger effects; and therefore had adjustment been available in all etiological studies, the overall adjusted depression effect would have been weaker.

Inadequate adjustment for confounding

When adjustment was carried out it seldom included all the major coronary risk factors. Many studies omitted adjustments for coronary risk factors known to be associated with depression, such as smoking, exercise, BMI and alcohol. None of studies adjusted for the presence of the metabolic syndrome, which has been proposed as a possible pathway between depression and CHD[81,82]. Time-dependent covariates – to allow for change in health behaviours during follow-

up - were very rarely used[83]. Not surprisingly therefore, this adjustment explained only 12% of the association, in line with a previous report[9]. Inadequate adjustment means that mediation of the effect of depression through these risk factors cannot be discounted. An alternative explanation for this modest reduction in estimate is that depression is not acting primarily through any commonly measured risk factors.

Reverse causality

The healthy population studies tended to remove patients with prevalent CHD myocardial infarction at baseline, but this does not preclude the possibility of reverse causality. Coronary disease commonly presents with chronic angina, or non-specific chest pain (which were seldom explicitly excluded) and this may lead to depression[84] but many studies made limited or no attempt to remove such patients from analyses. Among those without symptoms of chest pain, depression might initiate atherosclerosis de novo[85,86] or accelerate the progression of underlying atherosclerosis. Consistent with the latter possibility, we found that the strongest effect of depression on CHD incidence was found in early periods of follow up. Previous meta-analyses have not considered length of follow-up. Unraveling the depression-CHD association requires studies examining the temporal relations between asymptomatic sub-clinical vascular disease and symptomatic but undiagnosed CHD and depression in population based studies.

Severity of depression

We found a higher risk of future CHD associated with clinically assessed depression rather than with depression defined by symptom scales in etiological studies, confirming previous reports[9]. Studies with clinical assessment are likely to have a higher proportion of more severely depressed patients in their exposed group than studies with detection by symptom scale, suggesting that more severe depression carries a higher risk of CHD. We also found that studies with a lower prevalence of depression at baseline reported a higher risk of CHD associated with depression.

Although true underlying prevalence of depression will vary between study populations, it is plausible that a lower prevalence of depression also denotes more severe depression, supporting the findings on mode of assessment.

Prognostic studies

Several biases are likely to overestimate the depression-CHD prognosis association. We found evidence consistent with publication bias. As in etiological studies, there was a systematic bias in the availability of adjusted results, with studies with stronger unadjusted result being more likely to report an adjusted effect. If all studies had reported adjusted effects, it is likely that the pooled estimate would have been lower.

Reverse causality

Does severe coronary artery disease lead to depression, and thereby explain the depression – prognosis associations? We sought to elucidate this reverse causality question by examining the extent of adjustment. Within the (unrepresentative) sample of studies which reported any adjustments, we found that almost half of the increased risk in patients with depression was accounted for by severity of CHD at baseline, with inclusion of LV function an important factor in the degree of adjustment. This suggests an important role for reverse causality. The potential importance of underlying CHD in the association has been signaled by other authors[87,88]. If depression in prognostic studies is reflecting severity of baseline CHD, a stronger effect immediately after assessment might be predicted, although this was not observed. We found no evidence that more severe depression (as indicated by either lower prevalence of depression or clinical assessment) had stronger associations with prognosis than less severe depression. This is consistent with depression being a consequence of ill-heath rather than an adverse prognostic risk factor. Our results (like those of Frasure – Smith[16]) suggest that the effect may actually be stronger for milder depression.

We found that few prognostic studies had controlled for smoking or other conventional prognostic factors in their final models. One study, using depression as a continuous variable [46,83] concluded that smoking may partly mediate the effect.

Nature and timing of depression assessment

The effect of depression was stronger in patients with acute MI than in those with stable coronary disease when assessment was, with one exception[64], **before** surgery or angiography. This finding supports the reverse causation argument, with depression assessment more sensitive to physical ill-health in the acutely ill patients. After an MI, studies with later assessment (more than 2 weeks after the event) reported stronger effects. This is also consistent with cardiac status affecting depression reporting as the patient's condition stabilizes.

Limitations of the meta-analysis

We identified studies through MEDLINE and Science Citation Index citation tracking, without use of additional search engines such PsychLit, handsearching of journals or contacting authors and we did not include non-English language publications. Although we may have missed eligible papers, our search methods did identify all the papers included in previous reviews[9,10]. Furthermore, positive studies carried out in non-English language countries are plausibly more likely to be published in English than null studies, which would lead to an overestimation of the effect[89,90]. 5 studies were included in the meta-analysis that reported that there was no association between depression and CHD, but did not state an effect estimate. Assigning an effect size of 1 may not have reflected the true cumulative effect across the null studies, but the bias from inclusion of null results was probably smaller than the bias that would have resulted from omitting them.

A variety of measures of depression were included in the meta-analysis although the association between severity of depression and CHD prognosis and etiology may vary. We used random effects models to allow for this variation. Studies reporting continuous associations between depression and CHD could not be included in the meta-analysis but their potential influence has been explored. 7 etiological studies reported the effect of depression scale on a continuous scale in analyses[91-97], of which 3 reported significant unadjusted effects [91,93,96]. 10 prognostic studies using depression as a continuous measure were identified [83,98-106], only 3 of which reported null associations[99,105,106]. These results suggest that the exclusion of continuous associations may have led to an overestimate of the etiological effect and an underestimate of the prognostic effect of depression.

Reporting of adjusted results

The inconsistent reporting of adjusted effects has led to the uncertainty about the independent effect of depression on CHD. One possible explanation for the lack of published adjusted results is that depression was being included only as a confounder. In fact all but 3 of the studies (etiological or prognostic) had considered depression as a main exposure variable. In some reports, adjusted estimates were published but not for the endpoint / depression measure we had used and hence we were unable to include them [50,52,53,78,72,57,63,27,77]. More generally, it is common practice not to report adjusted effects when the unadjusted effect is weak or non-significant. Similarly reported final models may not include all confounders tested. Such reporting practices impair the validity of literature –based meta-analysis for adjusted effects and suggest that individual patient data are required to resolve this question, by systematically adjusting for confounders and extent of underlying disease. Such synthesis might explore differences in men and women and timing of measurement and inform the design of de novo observational studies.

Implications for research and policy

The depression – CHD hypothesis, with an observational literature spanning about a decade, is relatively young when compared to behavioural risk factors considered established such as exercise and smoking. Misleading findings from observational studies have beset the field of cardiovascular epidemiology (for example HRT, anti-oxidant vitamins) so what should be done? Until the biases in the observational studies of depression-CHD have been addressed, should there be a moratorium on setting up new trials? We think not. Not only is demonstration of reversibility in randomized trials a key aspect of the causal argument, but furthermore depression *per se* is worth treating, irrespective of any causal association with CHD.

Conclusion

We found significant associations between depression and CHD, but our meta-analysis casts doubt on the depression-CHD association, because of biased availability of adjustments, incomplete adjustments, and reverse causality.

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Figure legends

Figure 1 : Depression as a risk factor for CHD in etiological studies
Figure 2 : Depression as a risk factor for CHD in prognostic studies

Amendments to figures

Figure 1
Deleon (**1998)**

Figure 2

Denollet et al (1996)	**303(38)**
Lauzon et al (2003)	**550 (28)**

Table 1 : Summary of etiological studies included in meta-analysis (listed in order of statistical size, largest first)

Ref	Author & publication year	Depression measure	Prevalence of depression at baseline (%)	Years of follow-up	End-point	Effect measures	Adjustment variables									
							Demographic				Behavioural		Biological			
41	**Anda 1993**	GWBS	11	12.4	CHD death	HR	A	S	M	E	Sm	Al	Ex	C	B	O
25	**Ferketich 2000**[m]	CESD	10	8.3	CHD death	HR				E	Sm				B	O D
29	**Pratt 1996**	DIS	29	12.6	MI	OR	A	S	M						B	
54	**Whooley 1998** [f]	GDS	6	6	CHD death	CIR/ HR	A				Sm				B	D
43	**Cohen 2000**	Antidepressant	4	3.3	MI	CIR/HR	A	S		E				C	B	D
46	**Ford 1998** [m]	Doctor diagnosis	11	37	MI	HR	A				Sm		Ex	C	B	D
25	**Ferketich 2000**[f]	CESD	10*	8.3	CHD death	HR				E	Sm				B	O D
48	**Luukinen 2003**	SDS	19	8	MI	HR										D
44	**Cohen 2001**	Antidepressant	5	4.9	MI	HR	A	S	M	E	Sm	Al		C	B	O D
47	**Lapane 1995**	Antidepressant	2	6.1	MI	CIR	A	S			Sm	Al	Ex	C	B	O
28	**Penninx 2001**	CESD	14	4.2	CHD death	HR	A	S		E	Sm	Al			B	O D
24	**Chang 2001**	GWBS	14	21	CHD death	OR										
26	**Joukamaa 2001**	GHQ/ PSE	5	17	CHD death	HR										
50	**Mendes deLeon 1998**[f]	CESD	8	10	CHD death & MI	HR										
30	**Hallstrom 1986** [f]	HRS	N/R	12	MI											
49	**Mallon 2002** [m]	Symptom	13	12	CHD death	HR										
52	**Sesso 1998**	MMPI-d	24	7	CHD death & MI	CIR										
53	**W- Smoller 1996**	CESD	5	5	MI	CIR										
45	**Cole 1999**	Doctor diagnosis	3	12	CHD death	HR										
51	**Pentinnen 1996** [m]	Antidepressant	5	12	MI	OR										
42	**Clouse 2003** [f]	DIS	21	10	MI	CIR										
55	**Yasuda 2002**	GHQ	50	7.5	CHD death	HR	A	S					Ex			

Depression measure * = diagnostic interview
CESD – Center for Epidemiological Studies depression scale
DIS - Diagnostic interview schedule *
GHQ - General health questionnaire
GWBS- General Well-Being Schedule
HRS – Hamilton Rating Scale
MMPI - Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory
PSE - Present State Examination *
SDS _ Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale

Endpoints :
MI : myocardial infarct - includes fatal and non –fatal
HF : heart failure - includes fatal and non –fatal
CHD death ; death due to coronary heart disease

Effect measures
OR – odds ratio, HR – hazard ratio, CIR – cumulative incidence ratio

Adjustment variables :
Demographic : A – age, S-sex, M- marital status, E- education / social class
Behavioral : Sm – smoking, Al – alcohol, Ex – physical activity
Biological : C- cholesterol, B – blood pressure, O- obesity / body mass index, D – diabetes

N/R = not reported
* men, N/R for women.
m – men only in study: **f** – women only in study

Table 2 : Factors influencing the etiological effect of depression on CHD.

Etiological	No of studies	Ref number	Unadjusted estimate
All unadjusted studies	21	[24-26,28-30,41-54]	1.81 (1.53-2.15)
Reported adjusted results			
Reported adjusted	11	[25,28,29,41,43,44,47,48,54]	2.08 (1.69-2.55)
No report of adjusted	10	[24,26,30,42,45,49-53]	1.52 (1.21-1.90)
			p<0.01
Endpoint			
Fatal CHD	9	[24-26,28,41,45,49,54]	1.69 (1.34- 2.14)
Nonfatal MI or mixed	12	[29,30,42-44,46-48,50-53]	1.95 (1.51-2.51)
			p=0.16
Depression measure			
Depressive symptom scale	12	[24-26,28,41,48-50,52-54]	1.68 (1.38-2.04)
Clinical	8	[29,42-47,51]	2.32 (1.76-3.06)
			p=0.01
Baseline depression prevalence			
<5%	4	[43-45,47]	2.27 (1.48-3.48)
5-10	6	[25,26,50,51,53,54]	2.11 (1.46-3.04)
11-15%	5	[24,28,41,46,49]	1.52 (1.26-1.82)
≥16%	4	[29,48,52]	1.80 (1.30-2.47)
			p=0.04 Meta regression p=0.18
Length of follow-up (years)			
<6	5	[28,43,44,53,54]	2.12 (1.53-2.94)
64-10	7	[25,42,47,48,50,52]	2.07 (1.45-2.97)
10-12.5	5	[30,41,45,49,51]	1.54 (1.03-2.29)
≥12.5	4	[24,26,29,46]	1.49 (1.26-1.76)
			p=0.01 Meta regression p=0.06

Table 3 : Summary of prognostic studies included in meta-analysis (listed in order of statistical size largest first)

Ref	Author & publication year	Population	Years of follow-up	Depression measure	Prevalence of depression at baseline (%)	End-point (deaths)	Effect measure	Adjustment variables										
								Demographic			Behavioural & biological			Severity of CHD				
23	**Blumenthal** 2003	CABG	5.2	CESD	38	AC	HR	A	S		Sm		D	H	V			L
28	**Penninx** 2001	Cardiac	4.2	CESD	19.7	Cardiac	HR	A	S		Sm	B	D					
80	**Welin** 2000	MI	10	SDS	36.7	AC	HR		S							E		L
34	**Denollet** 1996	MI/CABG/ angioplasty	7.9	Millon	41.9	AC	CIR								V			L
62	**Carney** 2003	MI	2.5	BDI + interview	N/R	AC	HR	A			Sm		D	H				L
35	**Kaufmann** 1999	MI	1	DIS	27.4	AC	OR						D					L
71	**Lauzon** 2003	MI	1	BDI	35	AC	CIR/HR	A	S		Sm	B	D	H				
36	**Bush@** 2001	MI	0.33	BDI / DSM	27.3	AC	OR	A					D					L
69	**Ladwig** 1991	MI	0.5	own	14.5	Cardiac	CIR/OR	A						H		E	Dy	
61	**Burg** [-m] 2003	CABG	2	BDI	28	CV	CIR/OR	A						H				L
33	**Carinci** 1997	MI	0.67	CBA	1.8	AC	HR	A	S					H		E		L
57	**Barefoot** 1996	angiogram	15.2	SDS	11.1	Cardiac	HR											
72	**Lesperance** 2002	MI	5	BDI	32	AC	CIR											
73	**Moir** 1973	cardiac patients	N/R	Amitryptiline	N/R	AC	CIR											
68	**Jenkinson** 1993	MI	3	Own	5.7	AC	CIR											
70	**Lane** 2002	MI	3	BDI	30	AC	OR											
58	**Berkman** 1992	MI	05	CESD	17.1	AC	CIR											
75	**Romanelli** 2002	MI	0.33	BDI/ SCID	23	AC	CIR											
76	**Schleifer** 1989	MI	0.25	SADS	45	AC	CIR	A	S			B	D		V			L
79	**Thomas** 1997	MI + arrhythmia	1.5	SDS	13	AC	CIR											
27	**Lesperance** 2000	unstable angina	1	BDI	41.4	AC	OR											
66	**Denollet** 1995	MI	3.8	Millon	46	AC	CIR											
59	**Borowicz** 2002	CABG	4.9	CESD	32	AC	CIR											
78	**Sullivan** 2003	CHD	5	HRDS/ DIS	31	AC	CIR											

Ref	Author & publication year		Population	Years of follow-up	Depression measure	Prevalence of depression at baseline (%)	End-point (deaths)	Effect measure	Adjustment variables		
									Demographic	Behavioural & biological	Severity of CHD
74	**Peterson**	2002	CABG	3	CESD	18	AC	CIR			
65	**Denollet**	1998	MI	7.9	Millon	50.6	Cardiac	CIR			
77	**Shiotani**	2002	MI	1	SDS	42	AC	CIR			
56	**Baker**	2001	CABG	2	DASS	15.2	AC	OR			
64	**Connerney**	2001	CABG	1	DSM	20.3	Cardiac	CIR			
63	**Carney**	1988	angiogram	1	DIS	17	AC	CIR			
60	**Bosworth**	1999	angiogram	3.5	CESD	N/R	AC	HR	A S	Sm B D	V E L
67	**Irvine**	1999	MI	2	BDI	N/R	Sudden cardiac	HR			H Dy
31	**Lloyd***	1982	MI	1	Interview						
32	**Mayou***	2000	MI	1.5	HADS						

As in Table 1 plus
Depression measure * = diagnostic interview
BDI – Beck Depression Inventory
CBA -cognitive behaviour assessment
DSM - diagnostic interview to Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders *
SCID – structured clinical interview for DSM_III *
GDS – geriatric depression scale
HRDS – Hamilton Rating Depression Scale
HADS – hospital activity depression scale
Millon - Milllon depression scale
SADS – Schedule for Affective disorder
DASS – Depression Anxiety Stress Scales

Endpoints :
AC – all-cause mortality
CV – cardiovascular mortality

Effect measures
OR – odds ratio, HR – hazard ratio, CIR – cumulative incidence ratio

Adjustment variables :
Demographic : A – age, S-sex,
Biological & behavioural : Sm – smoking, B – blood pressure,D – diabetes,
Severity of CHD : H – history of prior MI / CABG/angina, V – no of vessels affected, E – ECG abnormality, Dy– dypnoea
L – left ventricular function / failure,

N/R = not reported
m – men only in study

Table 4: Factors influencing the prognostic effect of depression on CHD.

Prognostic	No of studies	Ref numbers	Unadjusted estimate	Adjusted estimate
All unadjusted studies	31	23,27,28,31-36,56-59,61-63,65,66,68-80	1.80 (1.50-2.15)	
Reported adjusted result				
Reported adjusted	11	23,28,33-36,61,62,69,71,80	2.16 (1.67-2.80)	1.61 (1.25-2.07)
No report of adjusted	20	27,31,32,56-59,63-66,68,70,72-79	1.55 (1.23-1.96)	
			p<0.01	
Adjustment for LV function				
No	3	28,69,71	2.25 (1.26-4.00)	1.86 (1.21-2.86)
Yes	8	23,33-36,61,62,80	2.18 (1.58-2.99)	1.53 (1.11-2.10)
CHD morbidity				
Post MI	18	27,33,35,36,58,62,65,66,68-72,75-77,79,80	2.05 (1.60- 2.63)	
CABG/ angiogram	9	23,34,56,57,59,61,64,74	1.63 (1.23-2.16)	
Unspecified	3	28,73,78	1.30 (0.79-2.16)	
			p<0.01	
Depression assessment				
Timing of assessment after MI (max)				
within 2 weeks	10	27,35,36,68,70-72,75,76,80	1.83 (1.33-2.51)	
after 2 weeks	5	62,65,66,69,77	3.41 (2.19-5.31)	
			p=0.02	
Depression measure				
Depressive symptom scale	26	23,27,28,33,34,36,56-59,61,62,65,66,68-72,74-80	1.92 (1.58-2.32)	
Clinical	4	35,63,64,73	1.36 (0.75-2.46)	
			p=0.02	
Baseline depression prevalence				
<17	7	33,56,57,63,68,69,79	1.86 (1.22-2.86)	
17-27%	7	28,35,64,74,75, 36	2.14 (1.51-3.05)	
28-37%	7	59,61,70-72,78,80	1.87 (1.43-2.45)	
≥38 %	7	23,27,34,65,66,76,77	1.96 (1.16-3.30)	

			p =0.06 Meta regression p = 0.97	
Length of follow-up /years				
<1	6	33,58,69,75,76,107	2.06 (1.09-3.91)	
1 +	7	27,35,63,64,71,77,79	2.12 (1.45-3.11)	
2-4.5	8	28,56,61,62,66,68,70,74	2.08 (1.32-2.30)	
>5	8	23,34,57,59,65,72,78,80	1.73 (1.36-2.20)	
			p=0.31 Meta-regression p=0.51	
Type of endpoint				
All-cause mortality	24	23,27,33-35,36, 56, 58,59,62,63,66,68,70-80 .	1.80 (1.46- 2.22)	
Cardiac / cardiovascular mortality	6	28,57,61,64,65,69	2.29 (1.33- 3.94)	
			p=0.46	

Figure 1

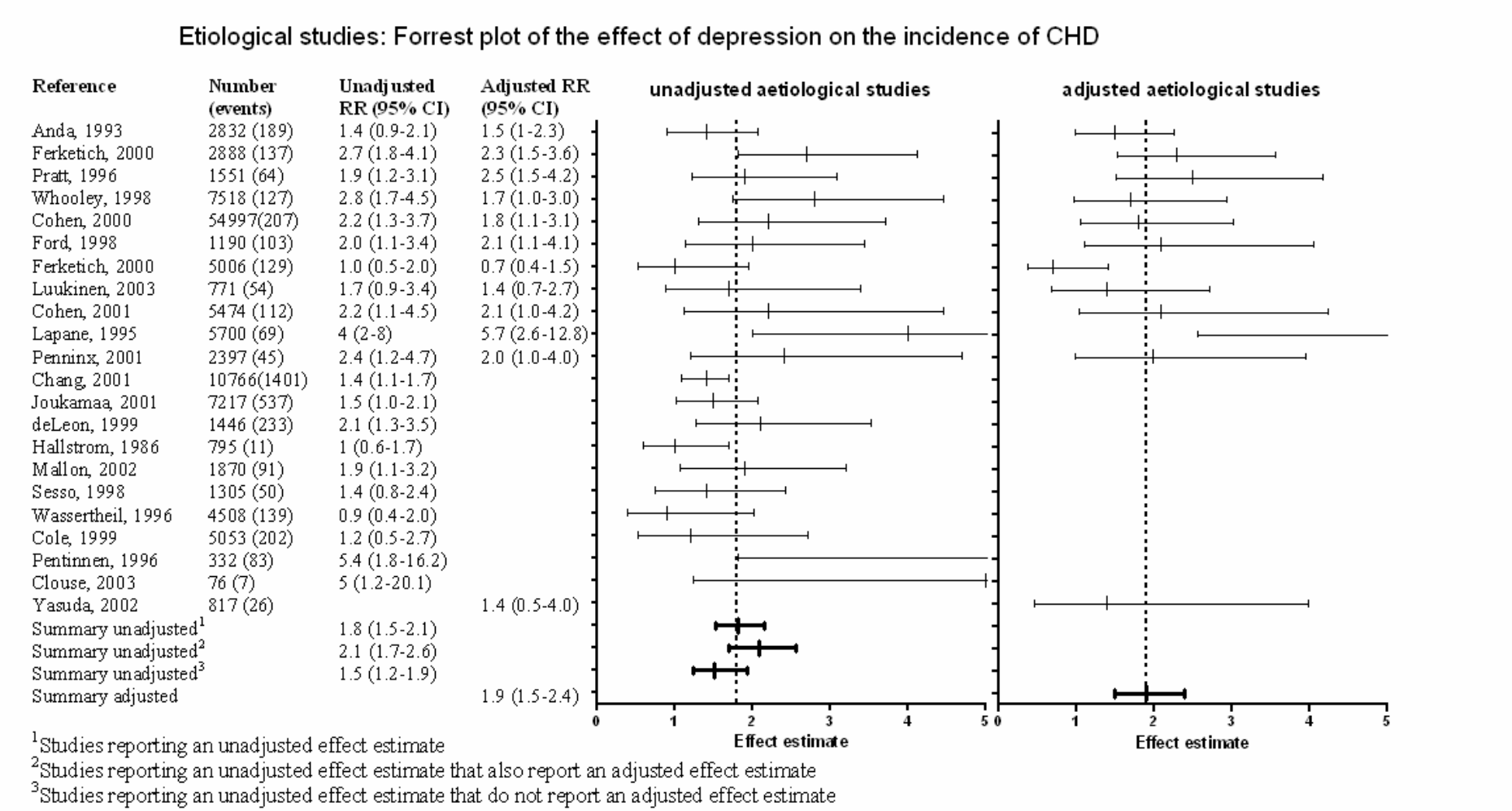
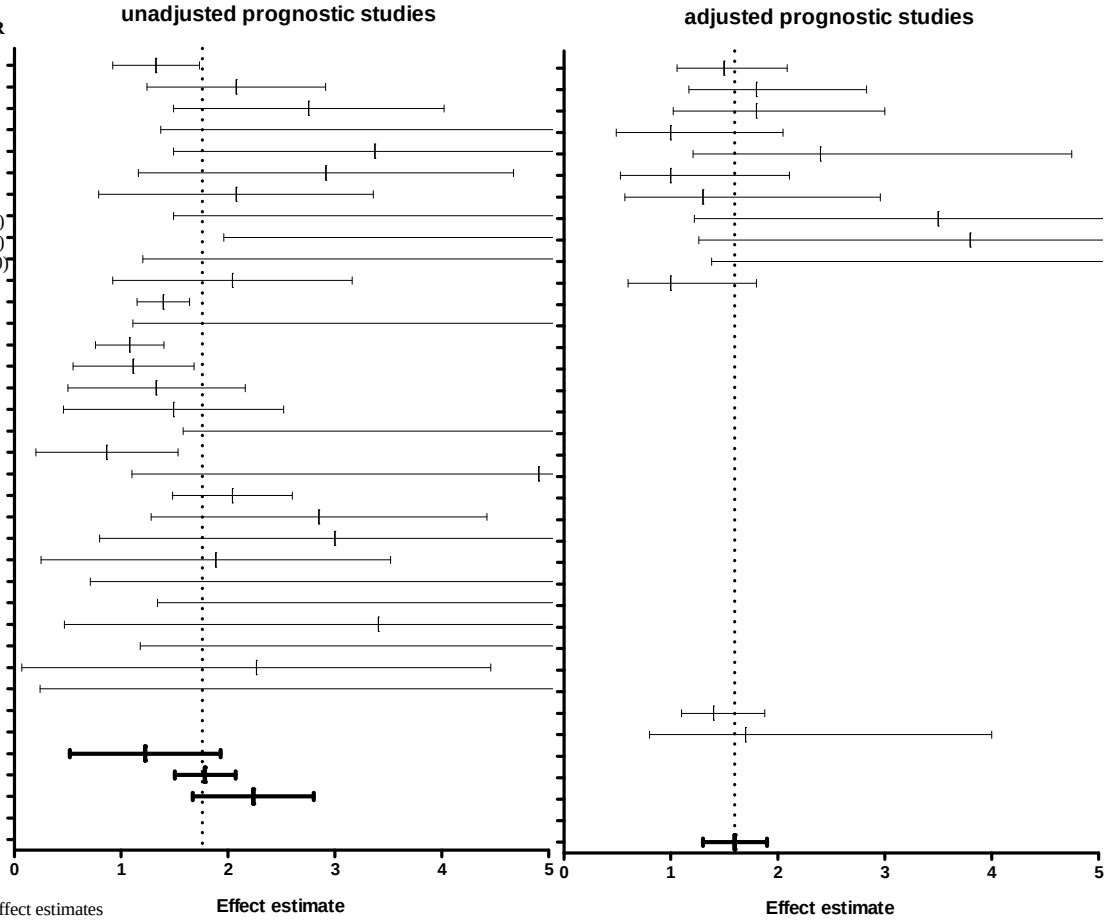

Etiological studies: Forrest plot of the effect of depression on the incidence of CHD
Reference
Number (events)
Unadjusted RR (95% CI)
Adjusted RR (95% CI)
Anda, 1993 2832 (189) 1.4 (0.9-2.1) 1.5 (1-2.3)
Ferketich, 2000 2888 (137) 2.7 (1.8-4.1) 2.3 (1.5-3.6)
Pratt, 1996 1551 (64) 1.9 (1.2-3.1) 2.5 (1.5-4.2)
Whooley, 1998 7518 (127) 2.8 (1.7-4.5) 1.7 (1.0-3.0)
Cohen, 2000 54997(207) 2.2 (1.3-3.7) 1.8 (1.1-3.1)
Ford, 1998 1190 (103) 2.0 (1.1-3.4) 2.1 (1.1-4.1)
Ferketich, 2000 5006 (129) 1.0 (0.5-2.0) 0.7 (0.4-1.5)
Luukinen, 2003 771 (54) 1.7 (0.9-3.4) 1.4 (0.7-2.7)
Cohen, 2001 5474 (112) 2.2 (1.1-4.5) 2.1 (1.0-4.2)
Lapane, 1995 5700 (69) 4 (2-8) 5.7 (2.6-12.8)
Penninx, 2001 2397 (45) 2.4 (1.2-4.7) 2.0 (1.0-4.0)
Chang, 2001 10766(1401) 1.4 (1.1-1.7)
Joukamaa, 2001 7217 (537) 1.5 (1.0-2.1)
deLeon, 1999 1446 (233) 2.1 (1.3-3.5)
Hallstrom, 1986 795 (11) 1 (0.6-1.7)
Mallon, 2002 1870 (91) 1.9 (1.1-3.2)
Sesso, 1998 1305 (50) 1.4 (0.8-2.4)
Wassertheil, 1996 4508 (139) 0.9 (0.4-2.0)
Cole, 1999 5053 (202) 1.2 (0.5-2.7)
Pentinnen, 1996 332 (83) 5.4 (1.8-16.2)
Clouse, 2003 76 (7) 5 (1.2-20.1)
Yasuda, 2002 817 (26) 1.4 (0.5-4.0)
Summary unadjusted[1] 1.8 (1.5-2.1)
Summary unadjusted[2] 2.1 (1.7-2.6)
Summary unadjusted[3] 1.5 (1.2-1.9)
Summary adjusted 1.9 (1.5-2.4)
unadjusted aetiological studies
adjusted aetiological studies
0 1 2 3 4 5
Effect estimate
0 1 2 3 4 5
Effect estimate
[1]Studies reporting an unadjusted effect estimate
[2]Studies reporting an unadjusted effect estimate that also report an adjusted effect estimate
[3]Studies reporting an unadjusted effect estimate that do not report an adjusted effect estimate

Figure 2

Prognostic studies: Forrest plot of the effect of depression on prognosis after CHD

Reference	Number (events)	Unadjusted RR (95% CI)	Adjusted RR (95% CI)
Blumenthal, 2003	817 (122)	1.3 (0.9-1.7)	1.5 (1.1-2.1)
Penninx, 2001	450 (93)	1.9 (1.2-2.9)	1.8 (1.2-2.8)
Welin, 2000	267 (67)	2.5 (1.5-4.0)	1.8 (1.0-3.0)
Denollet, 1996	289 (38)	2.4 (1.3-4.4)	1.0 (0.5-2.1)
Carney, 2003	766 (47)	2.8 (1.5-5.3)	2.4 (1.2-4.8)
Kaufmann, 1999	318 (33)	2.3 (1.2-4.7)	1.0 (0.5-2.1)
Lauzon, 2003	550 (58)	1.6 (0.8-3.4)	1.3 (0.6-3.0)
Bush, 2001	267 (17)	3.8 (1.5-9.6)	3.5 (1.2-10.0)
Ladwig, 1991	553 (12)	5.9 (2.0-17.9)	3.8 (1.2-11.6)
Burg, 2003	89 (5)	10.2 (1.2-87.3)	23.2 (1.4-390)
Carinci, 1997*	2449 (63)	1.7 (0.9-3.2)	1.0 (0.6-1.8)
Barefoot, 1996	929 (488)	1.4 (1.2-1.6)	
Lesperance, 2002	896 (155)	2.0 (1.5-2.6)	
Moir, 1973	201 (91)	1.0 (0.8-1.4)	
Jenkinson, 1993	1177 (189)	1.0 (0.6-1.7)	
Lane, 2002	288 (38)	1.0 (0.5-2.2)	
Berkman, 1992	187 (73)	1.1 (0.5-2.5)	
Romanelli, 2002	153 (17)	3.8 (1.6-9.1)	
Schleifer, 1989	283 (16)	0.6 (0.2-1.5)	
Thomas, 1997	347 (24)	3.1 (1.1-8.7)	
Lesperance, 2000	430 (16)	3.3 (1.1-9.5)	
Denollet, 1995	105 (15)	4.6 (1.4-15.3)	
Borowicz, 2002	117 (15)	2.0 (0.8-5.2)	
Sullivan, 2003	198 (10)	0.9 (0.3-3.5)	
Peterson, 2002	123 (8)	2.8 (0.7-10.7)	
Denollet, 1998	79 (13)	5.6 (1.3-23.8)	
Shiotani, 2002	1042 (9)	1.7 (0.5-6.3)	
Baker, 2001	158 (6)	6.2 (1.2-33.0)	
Connerney, 2001	309 (8)	0.6 (0.1-4.5)	
Carney, 1988	52 (3)	2.4 (0.2-23.7)	
Bosworth, 1999	2885 (NA)		1.4 (1.1-1.9)
Irvine, 1999	318 (NA)		1.7 (0.8-4.0)
Null		1.0 (0.5-1.9)	
Summary unadjusted [1]		1.8 (1.5-2.1)	
Summary unadjusted [2]		2.2 (1.7-2.8)	
Summary unadjusted [3]		1.5 (1.2-2.0)	
Summary adjusted			1.6 (1.3-1.9)



[1]Studies reporting unadjusted effect estimates
[2]Studies reporting unadjusted effect estimates that also report an adjusted effect estimates
[3]Studies reporting unadjusted effect estimates that do not report an adjusted effect estimates

Flow chart for meta analysis