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Title: Depressive Symptoms and Levels of C-reactive Protein: A Population Based Study

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Abstract: Background: Depression and depressive symptoms have been repeatedly linked to elevated levels of C-reactive protein (CRP) but questions remain as to the statistical robustness of the association and particularly whether the association between depression and CRP reflects the presence of a chronic disease.

Methods: A random sample of 6,126 men and women aged 45-69 years was examined in a cross-sectional study in 7 towns in the Czech Republic. Depressive symptoms were assessed by the CESD scale.

Results: CESD score was significantly related to increased levels of CRP in a linear fashion. After controlling for a range of potential confounders, subjects with depressive symptoms (CESD score ≥ 16)

had CRP concentrations 0.43 mg/l (95% CI 0.16 to 0.72) higher than those without symptoms. The association remained significant when study sample was restricted to healthy subjects; among individuals who did not report any chronic disease, the difference between those with and without

depressive symptoms was 0.44 mg/l (95% CI 0.14 to 0.74), and among persons who did not visit a doctor in the last 12 months the difference was 1.20 mg/l (95% CI 0.52 to 1.87).

Conclusions: These results confirm that there is a statistically robust association between depressive symptoms and increased levels of CRP. We did not find evidence that the association is due presence of a chronic condition.

Response to Reviewers: Our response is in a separate attachement.

Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology

Pikhart et al: Depressive Symptoms and Levels of C-reactive Protein: A Population Based Study

Response to reviewer's comments

We would like to thank the reviewer for thoughtful and constructive comments. Below, we list all reviewer's comments and our responses. We also attach the manuscript with changes described below.

Reviewer #1:

1. In the methods section on the subjects I find the numbers to be unclear. Does the response rate of 55% on line 57 refer to 55% from the whole original sample and this is the 8856? They then say that the proportion of subjects with full data is 82% but 82% of 8856 is not the 6126 mentioned as the final sample. A flow chart or extended description here is needed.

We agree with reviewer that the description is unclear. We have changed the sample description into following:

The subjects were first visited at home, to complete a structured questionnaire (N=8856, response rate 55%), and then invited to a clinic for a short examination. For this reason, not all subjects have data on both questionnaire and examination; the proportion of subjects with full data is 82% (N=7264). Only subjects with complete data on the outcome, valid CRP measurements, and all other covariates were used in presented analyses (N=6126).

2. On the next page on lines 37-40 they talk about re-calculating the CESD scores but do not explain how this was done and they should do so.

We have added explanation how this re-calculating was done (page 5):

The depression score was calculated if at least 16 out of 20 questions were answered; if fewer than 20 questions were answered, the score was recalculated to have values between 0 and 60 (average scores were calculated if a minimum of 16 out of 20 questions on depressive symptoms contained valid answers, and then they were multiplied by 20 to give scores between 0 and 60).

3. In their discussion they appropriately make the point that they were not assessing clinical depression but depressive symptoms. They might add that the way in which they have obtained data, that is by first visiting with a questionnaire and then inviting people to clinic, makes it likely that those with more severe clinical depression were not sampled and that perhaps their findings would be slightly stronger if such subjects had been included.

We thank referee for this useful comment. Prompted by the reviewer, we have compared subjects included in the analysis with those who completed the questionnaire but did not come to examination at the clinic. Although we found some differences in smoking prevalence and self rated health, we have not seen important differences in CESD scores and other health measures, such as diabetes or hypertension. This suggests that excluding subjects with missing data did not introduce a major selection bias.

We have added a brief section regarding the non-respondents and clinic non-attendees to the discussion (page 10).

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Depressive Symptoms and Levels of C-reactive Protein: A Population Based Study

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Abstract

Background: Depression and depressive symptoms have been repeatedly linked to elevated levels of C-reactive protein (CRP) but questions remain as to the statistical robustness of the association and particularly whether the association between depression and CRP reflects the presence of a chronic disease.

Methods: A random sample of 6,126 men and women aged 45-69 years was examined in a cross-sectional study in 7 towns in the Czech Republic. Depressive symptoms were assessed by the CESD scale.

Results: CESD score was significantly related to increased levels of CRP in a linear fashion. After controlling for a range of potential confounders, subjects with depressive symptoms (CESD score ≥ 16) had CRP concentrations 0.43 mg/l (95% CI 0.16 to 0.72) higher than those without symptoms. The association remained significant when study sample was restricted to healthy subjects; among individuals who did not report any chronic disease, the difference between those with and without depressive symptoms was 0.44 mg/l (95% CI 0.14 to 0.74), and among persons who did not visit a doctor in the last 12 months the difference was 1.20 mg/l (95% CI 0.52 to 1.87).

Conclusions: These results confirm that there is a statistically robust association between depressive symptoms and increased levels of CRP. We did not find evidence that the association is due presence of a chronic condition.

Key words:

Depressive symptoms, CRP, inflammation

Introduction

Depression and depressive symptoms are common in many different populations [2;18;37], and it has been estimated that depression will be the second major source of disability worldwide by 2030 and the main source of disability in high-income countries [23]. In addition to the burden of depression per se, there is also an extensive literature suggesting that depression and depressive symptoms are associated with cardiovascular morbidity and mortality [14;15;17;25]. An important issue in assessing the causality of this association is identification of the underlying biological mechanisms.

In recent years, several authors hypothesised that psychological stress may lead to chronic activation of inflammatory processes [5;19]. Indeed, over the last decade, several studies reported depression and depressive symptoms to be associated with elevated levels of CRP [10;12;20;35;36]. It has been proposed that such chronic inflammation may lead to atherosclerosis and cardiovascular disease (CVD) [6;7;31]. In such a way inflammatory markers, such as C-reactive protein (CRP), could provide the link between psychological stress, depression and atherosclerosis or CVD. Although a recent meta-analysis of prospective studies [9] and a Mendelian randomisation study [8] suggest that the effect of serum CRP on the risk of coronary heart disease is weaker than previously thought, the possible association between depression and CRP remains of major scientific interest, because of the potential effect of psychosocial and psychological factors on immunological functions. [33;34;40]

There are, however, several problems with assessing whether the association between CRP and depression is genuine and causal. First, most studies addressing this issue were relatively small. Second, virtually all studies were conducted in western countries; in establishing whether an association is genuine, it is important to examine its consistency across populations. Since depression shows a social gradient [21], and since the social patterning of different confounders (for example

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3 smoking , body-mass index and waist-hip ratio) differs between eastern and western Europe, a study in
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5 a non-western population would help to break the socioeconomic confounding. Third, the
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7 independence of the relationship is not clear; it is possible the higher levels of CRP reflect presence of
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9 existing chronic condition, such as heart disease, which could also lead to depression (i.e. confounding
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11 by an existing disease)[1].
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17 In this report, we analysed cross-sectional data from the Czech Republic, with the objective to test the
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19 hypothesis that CRP levels are positively associated with depressive symptoms. The size, scope and
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21 location of the study should allow us to address, at least in part, some of the problems described above,
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23 namely (1) the statistical stability and precision of the association, (2) the socioeconomic confounding,
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25 (3) whether the association is replicated in non-western study populations, and (4) the effect of existing
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27 chronic disease.
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34 **Methods**

35 *Subjects*

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39 The data come from the Czech part of the HAPIEE (Health, Alcohol and Psychosocial factors In
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41 Eastern Europe) study, a baseline survey for a longitudinal study of chronic diseases, conducted in six
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43 towns in the Czech Republic (Havirov/Karvina, Hradec Kralove, Jihlava, Kromeriz, Liberec and Usti
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45 nad Labem) in 2002-2005. The study has been described in detail elsewhere [27]. Briefly, men and
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47 women aged 45-69 years, stratified by gender and 5 year age groups and randomly selected from
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49 population registers, were invited to participate. The subjects were first visited at home, to complete a
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51 structured questionnaire (N=8856, response rate 55%), and then invited to a clinic for a short
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53 examination. For this reason, not all subjects have data on both questionnaire and examination; the
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55 proportion of subjects with full data is 82% (N=7264). Only subjects with complete data on the
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3 outcome, valid CRP measurements, and all other covariates were used in presented analyses (N=6126).
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7 The study received ethical approval from the UCL/UCLH joint research ethics committee and from the
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9 ethical committee in the Czech National Institute of Public Health. All participants gave informed
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11 consent.
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14 15 16 17 *Measurements* 18

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20 The questionnaire covered health (self-rated health status, medical history, health behaviours, life style,
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22 socioeconomic circumstances, psychosocial factors and depressive symptoms). All questions were
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24 translated from English into Czech and back translated into English to check for accuracy.
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29 Depressive symptoms were measured using the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression (CESD)
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31 scale [28]; the scale has previously been used and evaluated in the Czech Republic[26]. This
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33 instrument consists of 20 self-reported items (presence of symptoms in the past week) and scores range
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35 between 0 and 60. The depression score was calculated if at least 16 out of 20 questions were
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37 answered; if fewer than 20 questions were answered, the score was recalculated to have values between
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39 0 and 60 (average scores were calculated if a minimum of 16 out of 20 questions on depressive
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41 symptoms contained valid answers, and then they were multiplied by 20 to give scores between 0 and
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43 60). The subjects with a score of 16 and above (shown to be predictive of major depressive disorder in
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45 a range of populations [3;22;32]) have been classified as having depressive symptoms. Subsequently,
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47 the full scale was used in additional analyses to confirm results based on the binary outcome.
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56 Education was classified into 3 categories: primary or less, secondary or vocational, and university.
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59 Material deprivation was evaluated by three separate questions asking whether it ever happened that
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61 participants did not have enough money for food, for clothes or ever had problems paying household
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3 bills. Each question had five response levels: all the time, often, sometimes, rarely or never. A
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5 cumulative score was constructed using these responses. The following covariates were also included:
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7 smoking (categorized as never smoker, past smoker, current smoker), physical activity (number of
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9 hours per week), alcohol consumption (mean dose of alcohol per drinking occasion and annual intake
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11 of alcohol, both estimated from the graduated frequency questionnaire [16;29;30]), and serum
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13 concentration of total and HDL-cholesterol, and triglycerides. As indicators of obesity, we used
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15 measures of body-mass index (BMI) and waist-hip ratio (WHR). Finally we used measurement of
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17 systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) (blood pressure was measured three
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19 times in sitting position, with a two minute interval between measurements, using an Omron M5-I
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21 digital blood pressure monitor; and we used arithmetic mean of 2nd and 3rd measurement).

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30 The examination included a fasting venous blood sample. Venous blood samples were collected in
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32 EDTA-treated tubes, centrifuged within 2 hours of venepuncture, and plasma samples were stored at -
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34 80 °C. The CRP assay used in the study was designed to measure high sensitive CRP - ultrasensitive
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36 CRP was determined by immunoturbidimetry (Orion Diagnostica, Espoo, Finland, kit no. 68025),
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38 using a Cobas Mira autoanalyzer (Hoffman-LaRoche, USA). The lower detection limit of the assay was
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40 0.25 mg/l. The intra-assay coefficient of variation of the CRP levels was 2.88% at 2 mg/l, while the
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42 inter-assay coefficient of variation was 4.84% at 2 mg/l. All samples were analysed at lipid laboratory
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44 of Institute for Clinical and Experimental Medicine, Prague, Czech Republic.
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51 *Statistical analysis*

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54 Depressive symptoms were initially analysed both as continuous (the CESD score; both original and
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56 logarithmically transformed values) and dichotomous variables (CESD scores of 16 and above).

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59 Because both analyses produced essentially identical results, the results on the dichotomised outcomes
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61 are reported here.
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5 The analytical strategy was as follows. First, summary measures of all variables were cross tabulated
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7 by gender. Second, since there was no statistically significant interaction between depression and
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9 gender ($p=0.88$ for likelihood ratio test comparing models with and without the interaction terms), we
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11 pooled the data for men and women, and we estimated the age-sex-adjusted difference in CRP
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13 concentrations between persons with and without depressive symptoms, using linear regression. Third,
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15 the difference in CRP in persons with and without depressive symptoms was further adjusted for
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17 socioeconomic factors (education and deprivation), obesity, health behaviours, serum lipids and blood
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19 pressure, in order to take into account potential confounding. Finally, we compared the fully adjusted
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21 results in the full sample with results in subsets of people who (1) reported no previous history of MI,
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23 angina, stroke or cancer; reported history of MI, stroke or angina; and those who reported history of
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25 cancer; (2) reported no long-term health problems for which medical treatment has been sought over
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27 last 12 months, and those who reported such problems; (3) reported no visit to a doctor in last 12
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29 months, reported 1-3 visits and those who reported 4 or more visits. All analyses were performed using
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31 STATA version 9 for Windows.
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42 **Results**

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47 The descriptive characteristics of the study sample are presented in table 1. There were 6126
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49 individuals (2829 men and 3297 women) with valid CRP measurements, CESD scores and all other
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51 covariates. Mean levels of CRP were 2.39 mg/l for men and 2.60 mg/l for women. The prevalence of
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53 depressive symptoms (CESD score 16+) was 13.0% in men and 22.8% in women. Men had higher
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55 education than women (18.8% of men and 10.7% of women reported university education) and more
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57 than 70% of population were in the secondary or vocational education category. 29% of men and 23%
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59 of women were current smokers. More than half of the women had never smoked compared to one
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3 third of men. Men and women reported similar physical activity, and the mean body mass index was
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5 high (above 28 kg/m² in both genders). Men reported higher systolic blood pressure than women (144
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7 mmHg vs. 134 mmHg), lower total cholesterol (5.61 mmol/l vs. 5.82 mmol/l), lower HDL and higher
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9 triglycerides. Both systolic blood pressure and total cholesterol levels were high in this population.
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15 There was a strong association between depressive symptoms and CRP in both genders: the age-
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17 adjusted difference between those reporting depressive symptoms and those who did not was 0.57 mg/l
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19 (0.10-1.04) for men and 0.61 (0.27-0.96) mg/l for women. The effect of depressive symptoms was not
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21 statistically significantly modified by gender. Data from men and women were therefore pooled (table
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23 2). The unadjusted mean CRP concentrations were 0.60 mg/l (95% CI 0.32 to 0.87) higher in subjects
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25 with depressive symptoms than in those without symptoms. This association persisted at all levels of
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27 adjustment. The major reduction in the effect was observed after controlling for education, material
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29 deprivation and body mass index but even then the relationship remained statistically significant.
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34 Further adjustment for smoking, alcohol consumption, physical activity, serum lipid levels and systolic
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36 blood pressure did not reduce the association. In the fully adjusted model, subjects with depressive
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38 symptoms had CRP concentrations 0.44 mg/l (95% CI 0.16 to 0.72) higher than those without
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40 symptoms.
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47 Since presence of an existing disease may affect both CRP levels and depression, we compared the
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49 results in the full sample, reported above, with subsets of subjects stratified by health conditions
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51 reported at the baseline (table 3). Both the prevalence of depressive symptoms and mean CRP were
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53 higher in persons who reported history of myocardial infarction, angina, stroke or cancer, who had a
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55 long-term illness, and who visited a doctor 4 or more times in the last year. However, the difference in
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57 CRP between persons with and without depressive symptoms was also present in apparently healthy
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3 participants. If anything, the association between depressive symptoms and CRP tended to be smaller
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5 in persons with long-term health problem and in those who frequently visited a doctor.
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10 As mentioned in Methods, we analysed CESD score as both dichotomised and continuous variables.
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12 Both analyses showed virtually identical pattern. We found an approximately linear association
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14 between CRP concentration and the CESD scale; an increase in CESD score by 1 SD was associated
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16 with an increase in CRP of 0.23 mg/l (95% CI 0.12 to 0.34) in age-sex adjusted analysis and 0.14 mg/l
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18 (95% CI 0.03 to 0.25) in the fully adjusted model. Figure 1 shows mean values of CRP (with 95% CI)
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20 by CESD score categories. Because CESD score was not normally distributed we also used
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22 logarithmically transformed CESD score as a continuous variable. We have found that an increase in
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24 log(CESD score) by 1 SD was associated with an increase in CRP of 0.19 mg/l (95% CI 0.09 to 0.30)
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26 in age-sex adjusted analysis and 0.12 mg/l (95% CI 0.01 to 0.22) in the fully adjusted model.
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34 **Discussion**

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39 To our knowledge, this is one of the largest population-based studies examining the association
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41 between depression and CRP so far, and one of the first CRP studies conducted in Central and Eastern
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43 Europe. We found a strong and statistically robust positive association between presence of depressive
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45 symptoms and CRP. The association was not explained by extensive adjustment for socioeconomic and
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47 behavioural covariates, and it was not attenuated by restricting the sample to subjects free of existing
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49 disease.
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56 When interpreting the results of this study, several limitations need to be considered. Firstly, though
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58 CESD is an internationally recognized, extensively used and validated instrument [13], it is not a
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60 measure of clinical depression. Participants who scored above the threshold of 16 points included
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3 persons with minor distress states and anxiety disorders. The scale may also detect some personality
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5 characteristics, for example high negative affectivity [39]. The CESD measure is therefore not
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7 unambiguously specific to depression. In addition, it is possible that non-respondents had more severe
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9 clinical depression than respondents, and the results may have been slightly stronger if non-respondents
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11 had been included. On the other hand, persons who completed questionnaire during a home visit but
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13 who did not attend examination in a clinic had CESD scores similar to those with full data; this suggest
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15 that non-attendance to a clinic did not introduce a major selection bias.
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22 Secondly, it is not possible to assess temporality using a cross-sectional design. While we assessed the
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24 role of existing conditions on the relationship between depression and CRP indirectly, by restricting the
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26 sample, we could not investigate this relationship prospectively over time. We therefore cannot make
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28 definitive statements about the causality of the association between presence of depressive symptoms
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30 and elevated CRP levels.
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37 Finally, we did not have information on recent infections. It has been previously shown that infections
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39 (which involve immune activation and cytokine release) were associated with psychological distress
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41 [12;24]. However, when we restricted the analyses to only those who had not visited doctor in the last
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43 12 months, the association between depressive symptoms and CRP was even stronger than in the whole
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45 dataset. Assuming that most persons with acute infections would visit a doctor, these results do not
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47 support a major role of acute infections in the observed association between CRP and depression.
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54 The present findings are consistent with previous studies reporting the association between depression
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56 or depressive symptoms and CRP levels[10;12] in confirming the presence of the relationship. But our
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58 results differ in the extent to which other factors partly confound/mediate it. In previous studies,
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60 overweight/obesity either explained most of the association between CRP and depression [11] or the
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3 association was substantially attenuated by adjustment for obesity [12]. In our study, body mass index
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5 and waist hip ratio did reduce the effect of presence of depressive symptoms on CRP levels but the
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7 association remained strong and statistically significant in both genders. We also examined whether the
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9 effect of depressive symptoms on CRP differed by the level of obesity. However, we found no
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11 evidence for an interaction between depressive symptoms and body-mass index. In addition, our data
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13 do not suggest the existence of any threshold. When we used score of depressive symptoms as a
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15 continuous variable, we found a statistically significant linear association between CESD-score and
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17 CRP, indicating a relationship existing even in those not classified as depressed. This dose-response
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19 effect of the depressive symptoms score on CRP is consistent with a genuine relationship, rather than
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21 an artefact. The association between depression and CRP is biologically plausible, as depression may
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23 lead to activation of inflammation system via autonomic nervous system[4;38].
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32 The fact that the study was conducted in Eastern Europe is important. In the West, both depression and
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34 CRP show a socioeconomic gradient, and the relationship between them may therefore be due to social
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36 confounding. As the social patterning of disease and risk factors in Eastern Europe is generally weaker
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38 than in the West, and indicators of material circumstances are only weakly related to health outcomes
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40 in Eastern Europe, our finding of a robust association between depression and CRP minimises the risk
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42 of residual confounding by socioeconomic status.
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49 A crucial question about the relationship between depression and CRP is the possibility that both
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51 depression and CRP are the result of a chronic disease. The size of this study was sufficient to allow us
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53 to stratify the study sample by several markers of a presence of chronic health conditions. As expected,
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55 both depression and CRP were positively associated with such markers. The relationship between
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57 depressive symptoms and CRP, however, was not attenuated in the sample restricted to the apparently
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59 healthy subjects. While the cross-sectional nature of the study does not allow causal inference, these
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results do not support the common cause argument and suggest that the observed association between depression and raised CRP is not due to poor physical health.

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Authors contributions:

HP, AN, AP, RK and NC participated in the design and coordination of the study, and acquisition of the data. RP and JAH coordinated laboratory analysis. HP and MB conducted statistical analyses and drafted the manuscript. All the authors helped to draft and revise the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Table 1. Descriptive characteristics of the study sample

Variable	Category	Men	Women	p-value*
		N=2829	N=3297	
CRP	mg/l - mean (SD)	2.39 (4.30)	2.60 (4.26)	0.08
CESD	16 and more	13.0 %	22.8 %	<0.001
	Mean (SD)	8.8 (7.3)	11.1 (9.1)	<0.001
Age	Years - mean (SD)	58.5 (7.2)	57.7 (7.1)	<0.001
Education	Primary or less	5.3 %	17.3 %	<0.001
	Secondary/vocational	75.9 %	72.1 %	
	University	18.8 %	10.7 %	
Deprivation	Score (0=low depr. 12=high depr.) – mean (SD)	1.4 (2.2)	1.8 (2.4)	<0.001
Smoking	Never	32.2 %	54.4 %	<0.001
	Past	38.5 %	22.6 %	
	Currently	29.3 %	23.0 %	
Alcohol – mean dose per occasion	ml – mean (SD)	35.9 (36.4)	20.3 (22.8)	<0.001
Alcohol – annual intake	Litres, mean (SD)	6.5 (11.3)	1.6 (5.2)	<0.001
Physical activity	Hours per week - mean (SD)	4.5 (5.5)	4.4 (5.3)	0.87
Body-mass index (BMI)	kg/m ² – mean (SD)	28.2 (3.9)	28.1 (5.0)	0.11
Waist-hip ratio (WHR)	Mean (SD)	0.94 (0.06)	0.83 (0.07)	<0.001
Total cholesterol	mmol/l – mean (SD)	5.61 (1.02)	5.82 (1.04)	<0.001
HDL	mmol/l – mean (SD)	1.25 (0.34)	1.52 (0.39)	<0.001
Triglycerides	mmol/l – mean (SD)	2.08 (1.39)	1.70 (0.99)	<0.001
SBP	mmHg – mean (SD)	144.0 (18.5)	134.4 (19.6)	<0.001
DBP	mmHg – mean (SD)	90.8 (10.5)	86.9 (10.8)	<0.001

*p-value for gender difference; unpaired t-test used for continuous variables, chi-square test for categorical variables

Table 2. The difference between those reporting depressive symptoms* and those not reporting depressive symptoms (coefficient and 95% CI) on CRP (mg/l) in different levels of adjustment (N=6126)

Level of adjustment	Difference (95% CI)	p-value
1. Unadjusted	0.60 (0.32-0.87)	<0.001
2. Age adjusted	0.63 (0.35-0.90)	<0.001
3. Age + sex adjusted	0.60 (0.32-0.87)	<0.001
4. (3) + education	0.53 (0.25-0.81)	<0.001
5. (4) + material deprivation	0.47 (0.18-0.75)	0.001
6. (5) + BMI+WHR	0.42 (0.14-0.70)	0.003
7. (6) + smoking	0.43 (0.15-0.71)	0.002
8. (7) + alcohol consumption	0.43 (0.15-0.71)	0.002
9. (8) + physical activity	0.43 (0.15-0.71)	0.002
10. (9) + HDL + total cholesterol + triglycerides	0.44 (0.16-0.72)	0.002
11. (10) + SBP + DBP	0.44 (0.16-0.72)	0.002

* CESD score \geq 16

Table 3. Difference in CRP (mg/l) between persons with and without depressive symptoms in different subsets of subjects, fully adjusted*.

Subset	N	Depressive symptoms (%)	Mean CRP	B (95% CI)	p-value
Full sample	6126	18.9	2.52	0.43 (0.16-0.72)	0.002
Medical history					
No history of MI, angina, stroke or cancer	4946	17.3	2.41	0.44 (0.14-0.74)	0.004
History of MI, angina or stroke	723	22.9	3.08	0.43 (-0.57, 1.43)	0.40
History of cancer	364	28.1	2.63	0.83 (-0.18,1.85)	0.11
Long-term health problems for which medical treatment has been sought over last 12 months					
No	2448	12.2	2.15	0.67 (0.25,1.10)	0.002
Yes	3632	23.3	2.74	0.27 (-0.10,0.64)	0.15
Number of visits to a doctor in the last 12 months					
None	1131	12.2	2.30	1.20 (0.52,1.87)	0.001
1-3	2254	15.7	2.22	0.45 (0.03,0.87)	0.03
4 and more	2557	24.7	2.84	0.20 (-0.26,0.66)	0.40

* = adjusted for age, sex, education, material deprivation, BMI, WHR, smoking, alcohol consumption, physical activity, HDL, total cholesterol, triglycerides, SBP and DBP

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Figure 1. Mean CRP levels and 95% CI by CES-D score (age-sex adjusted)

