BMJ Best Practice **Depression in adults**

Straight to the point of care



Table of Contents

Overview	3
Summary	3
Definition	3
Theory	4
Epidemiology	4
Aetiology	5
Pathophysiology	5
Classification	6
Case history	7
Diagnosis	9
Approach	9
History and exam	11
Risk factors	12
Investigations	15
Differentials	18
Criteria	21
Screening	23
Management	26
Approach	26
Treatment algorithm overview	42
Treatment algorithm	45
Emerging	104
Primary prevention	106
Secondary prevention	107
Patient discussions	107
Follow up	109
Monitoring	109
Complications	111
Prognosis	112
Guidelines	113
Diagnostic guidelines	113
Treatment guidelines	114
Online resources	117
Evidence tables	118
References	124
Disclaimer	173

Summary

Depression can describe both a mood and an illness.

Major depressive disorder is a clinical syndrome involving mood, neurovegetative functions, cognition, and behaviour.

Depressive disorders are very common and are among the leading causes of disability and excess mortality worldwide.

Risk factors include prior depression and a family history of depression. A history of adverse childhood experiences, recent bereavement, stress, or medical illness may contribute.

For screening and diagnosis, self-rating forms are helpful, but clinical diagnosis is essential. Positive screening should trigger full history, mental status examination, treatment, and follow-up.

Most patients respond well to treatment with medication, psychological therapy, or a combination of both. Watchful waiting may be a suitable approach for some people with milder symptoms. Treatment is personalised, and takes into account patient choice, previous treatment history, treatment availability, severity of depressive symptoms, and psychiatric comorbidities.

Suicidal ideation can occur before and peak during treatment, so early and careful follow-up is advised.

Definition

Depressive disorders are typically characterised by persistent low mood, loss of interest and enjoyment, neurovegetative disturbance, and reduced energy, causing varying levels of social and occupational dysfunction. Depressive symptoms include depressed mood, anhedonia, weight changes, libido changes, sleep disturbance, psychomotor problems, low energy, excessive guilt, poor concentration, and suicidal ideation. In some cases the mood is not sad, but anxious or irritable or flat.[1]

Both International Classification of Diseases (ICD)-11 and Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, fifth edition, text revision (DSM-5-TR) define 'mild', 'moderate', and 'severe' depression based on the number and intensity of symptoms, and on the degree of functional impairment.[1] [2] However within clinical practice as well as within clinical trials, there is variability in how different levels of severity of depression are defined.[3] Globally, the most widely used tool for assessing severity of depression in clinical practice is the 9-item version of the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9), which is based on DSM criteria; scores may be used to characterise severity of depression, and to assess treatment response.[4]

There is no subthreshold (minor) depression diagnosis in DSM-5-TR, but the label has sometimes been applied to diagnose a patient with two to four depressive symptoms, including depressed mood or anhedonia, lasting longer than 2 weeks.[5] [6]

Persistent depressive disorder (termed 'dysthymic disorder' within ICD-11) is characterised by at least 2 years of a depressed mood for most of the day, for more days than not, for at least 2 years.[1] [2] See Persistent depressive disorder .

Epidemiology

Depressive disorders are very common and are among the leading causes of disability and excess mortality worldwide.[17] [18] [19] [20] In people aged 15-29 years, depression is the leading cause of disability and premature death globally. [WHO: Global Health Estimates] (https://www.who.int/data/global-health-estimates) In the US, major depression is the second leading cause of disability overall.[21] Beyond the direct impact of depression itself on occupational function and quality of life, depression is associated with poorer health outcomes across several conditions.[22] [23] [24]

It has been estimated that around 4.7% of the world's population will experience an episode of depression in any 12-month time period.[25] One international study carried out in 2019 found that point prevalence was highest in North America (4.4% for women and 2.5% for men), lowest in the Western Pacific (2.3% for women and 1.3% for men) and intermediate in other world areas (2.8% to 3.6% for women, and 1.9% to 2.0% for men). [IHME: Global Burden of Disease (GBD)] (https://www.healthdata.org/research-analysis/gbd) In 2015, the World Health Organization (WHO) found a relatively higher 12-month prevalence than this for people living in Africa compared to in other locations globally (5.8% for women, and 4.8% for men).[17] Other studies suggest more substantial variation in reported prevalence between countries, from 2% to 21%, depending on the particular country.[26] Within Europe, prevalence rates vary substantially between countries; higher rates of prevalence have been identified in Germany, Luxembourg and Iceland, with lower rates identified in Slovakia and the Czech Republic.[27] Methodological differences are believed to account for at least some of this reported variability across populations.

Mean age of onset is 26 years in high-income countries, and 24 in low- and middle-income countries, according to World Mental Health survey data.[28] Prevalence peaks again in later life.[29] Global prevalence in older adults has been estimated at 13.3%.[30] Prevalence may be higher amongst older people who are hospitalised or living in assisted care facilities.[31] About one in five nursing home residents without dementia are diagnosed with depression.[32] One systematic review looking at rates of depression in older adults globally, estimated the pooled prevalence of depression in older adults as being 31.74%, with higher rates of depression in this age group seen within developing countries (40.78%) compared to developed countries (17.05%).[31]

Incidence in women is double the incidence in men.[27] [33]

People with depression experience an almost 20-fold risk of dying by suicide than do the general population.[34] One meta-analysis found that 31% of people in treatment for major depressive disorder had attempted suicide in their lifetime.[35]

Comorbidity with other mental health conditions is common across treatment settings in both primary and secondary care, particularly with anxiety disorders, post-traumatic stress disorder and substance use disorders.[36] [37] Men with depression are twice as likely as women to have a comorbid substance use disorder.[38]

In patients with an affected first-degree relative, the lifetime risk of depression increases two- to threefold. First onset occurs most frequently in patients aged 12-24 years or older than 65 years.[39]

Depression frequently coexists with a large number of chronic physical health disorders, including chronic pain, cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes, chronic respiratory diseases, tuberculosis, and obesity, potentially as a result of shared risk factors and also due to the causal effect of the physical disorder on the development of depression.[40] Dementia, by some measures, can nearly double the risk.[41] It has been

Theory

postulated that depression itself may act as a causal risk factor for the development and worsening of some chronic physical disorders.[42] [43] [44] [45]

The prevalence of major depressive disorder increased rapidly during the COVID-19 pandemic, particularly in younger adults.[46] [47] [48] The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that the COVID-19 pandemic triggered a 25% increase in the prevalence of depression worldwide; the longer-term implications of this are currently unclear.[49]

Aetiology

The aetiology of depression remains poorly understood. Integrative models, taking into account biological and social variables, most effectively reflect the complex aetiology. It is considered likely that there is substantial heterogeneity amongst causative factors across individuals with depression.[28]

There is evidence for familial risk for depression, but specific genetic factors are still under investigation.[50] Genetic risk is thought to be polygenic, resulting from the combined small effects of a large number of common genetic variants.[51] [52] [53] [54]

Gene-environment interaction will probably help explain susceptibility to depression; however, the evidence is mixed. Variants of several genes have been associated with depression in the subset of individuals with depression who have experienced significant life stress.[55] [56] It has been postulated that exposure to adverse life events in early life may lead to epigenetic modifications affecting gene expression, which may predispose to depression.[57] With or without a known genetic component, stressful life events, personality, and sex may also play a modifying role in depression risk. In particular, adversity or maltreatment during critical periods in early life has been demonstrated to substantially increase the risk of later development of depression, and is also associated with a less favourable course of illness, including an increased risk of recurrent depression.[58] [59] Traumatic experiences in adulthood, including intimate partner violence and gender-based violence, also increase the risk of depression.[26]

Previous substance use (particularly cannabis and tobacco) is associated with an increased risk of depression, although this link is not necessarily causal.[60]

Meta-analysis evidence suggests an association between lifestyle habits (including low levels of physical activity and unhealthy dietary pattern) and the development of depression, although it has not been established whether this link is causal.[61] [62][63]

The role of the gut microbiome in the aetiology of depression is an area of active research. Studies have shown differences in the composition of gut microbiota, with associated differences in gut amino acid metabolism, between people with depression and healthy controls.[64] [65]

Pathophysiology

The pathophysiology of depression remains unclear. Abnormal concentrations of neurotransmitters, dysregulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis, and abnormalities of second messenger systems have all been identified as being possibly involved in the pathophysiology of depression.

Pathophysiological theories of monoaminergic neurotransmitters and depression attempt to link the known mechanisms of action of antidepressants to evidence concerning the role of specific neurotransmitters and clinical manifestations of depression. For example, abnormalities in dopamine may be related to

impaired motivation and concentration, low levels of noradrenaline (norepinephrine) and dopamine may play a role in the fatigue and hypersomnia, and impaired noradrenaline and serotonergic regulation may contribute to physical symptoms.[66] [67] [68] In particular, the role of serotonin in the development of depression has been much-studied, but remains incompletely understood. Older explanations that attribute depression to a 'deficiency of serotonin' are now widely regarded as overly simplistic and misleading. A large, widely reported umbrella review challenged the role of serotonin in depression, although these findings have been questioned by other experts, citing possible methodological weaknesses.[69] [70] Perhaps the most resilient experimental evidence for the hypothesis that low serotonin is associated with depression comes from studies using the tryptophan depletion method - effectively depleting bodily tryptophan and therefore serotonin by ingesting a cocktail containing all amino acids except tryptophan. This method tends to temporarily restore depressive symptoms in patients who have recovered from major depression. The effect appears to be limited to those in recovery from depression, not in volunteers without depression, so the role of serotonin in causing depression, if any, appears complex.[71] [72]

HPA axis dysregulation has been demonstrated in people with depression. Morning cortisol secretion is not suppressed by administration of low-dose dexamethasone at bedtime in many people with depression.[73] [74]

Gut microbiota alterations are hypothesised to influence mood by production of metabolites and bacterial components that affect neurotransmission in the central nervous system; animal models offer tentative evidence in support of this theory.[64] [65] [75]

Systemic inflammation has been proposed as one potential causative factor in the pathogenesis of depression; of note, there is some evidence that previous childhood maltreatment increases the risk of systemic inflammation in adults.[76]

Across an analysis of neuroimaging studies from 20 sites internationally, adults with major depression had thinning in regions of the orbitofrontal, cingulate, insular, and temporal cortices, and reduction in hippocampus volume.[77] [78] [79] Structural and functional abnormalities in fronto-limbic networks were also detected in neuroimaging studies of treatment-naive patients with depression.[80] [81] However, findings vary substantially across individuals, underscoring clinical heterogeneity. Depression is postulated to be the result of dysfunction across interconnected networks in the brain, and the aim of much current research is to explore neural systems, rather than individual brain regions.[82]

Classification

International classification of diseases, eleventh edition (ICD-11)[2]

ICD-11 depressive disorders are subdivided into single-episode and recurrent types, with designations for severity of the most recent episode and, in severe cases, the presence or absence of psychosis (hallucinations or delusions).

Additionally, ICD-11 includes under the depressive disorder category a diagnosis of dysthymic disorder and a new one for mixed anxiety and depressive disorder

Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, fifth edition, text revision (DSM-5-TR)[1]

DSM-5-TR divides depressive disorders into:

THEORY

- · Disruptive mood dysregulation disorder
- Major depressive disorder (including major depressive episode)
- · Persistent depressive disorder (previously known as dysthymic disorder)
- Premenstrual dysphoric disorder
- Substance-/medication-induced depressive disorder
- · Depressive disorder due to another medical condition
- Other specified depressive disorders
- Unspecified depressive disorder
- Unspecified mood disorder.

These types of depression are distinguished based on the length and number of symptoms in addition to sad mood and/or anhedonia, the degree of functional impairment, and the severity of symptoms. Additionally, depressive symptoms as part of cyclothymia or bipolar disorder may also be seen.

Case history

Case history #1

A 35-year-old woman presents with a 1-month history of poor sleep and irritable mood, in the setting of a recent divorce and ongoing custody battle with her former husband over their two teenage children. She has also just had a bad performance review at work due to her inability to meet deadlines and is fearful of losing her job. She explains that her work problems have arisen because she has been unable to keep her concentration focused on work. She expresses feelings of worthlessness and wonders sometimes what is the point of living. She has to force herself to stay engaged in her children's activities and other interests that she used to enjoy; she feels she is 'just going through the motions'. She had a similar episode after the birth of her second child, but pulled out of it after several months. There is a family history of suicide; her mother killed herself when the patient was 10 years old. Her examination is notable for poor eye contact and frequent tears. Her test results, including the thyroid-stimulating hormone, are normal.

Other presentations

Although core features of depression appear to be relatively consistent across different cultures, a number of key points of cultural variation have been noted; for example, sadness may be less of a prominent symptom in some cultures, and differences in expressing emotions may result in underreporting of emotional and cognitive symptoms in some cultural groups compared to somatic symptoms.[7] Somatic symptoms (e.g. headaches, generalised aches and pains, palpitations, tremor, blurred vision), although not comprehensively described in current established diagnostic criteria, are commonly reported symptoms of depression across a number of different geographical populations, including people from Africa, Asia, Central and South America and the Pacific Islands, but may occur in people with depression regardless of their location or culture.[8] [9]

In a minority of people with depression, and more commonly in men, externalising features may be present, for example, anger, aggression, substance use problems, and risk-taking behaviour.[10]

In older people, depression can present as diminished self-care, psychomotor retardation, irritability, and apathy. These patients may also present with severe cognitive disturbance (memory deficits) as a result of the depression. Older people may also be more likely to have single or multiple comorbidities

7

that contribute to the development of depression (e.g., malaise from medical illness or side effects of non psychiatric medications).[11]

Women in the perinatal period are at high risk for depression.[12] See Postnatal depression .

Patients with diabetes, cancer, stroke, myocardial infarction, obesity, and other general medical conditions have significantly higher rates of depression than people without comorbid conditions and may present atypically with non-adherence, multiple unexplained symptoms, or chronic pain syndromes.[13] [14] [15] [16]

Approach

Depression is the most common psychiatric disorder in the general population; the majority of people with depression will present initially to primary care.[124] [125] The initial diagnosis may be missed in as many as 50% of people with depression in this setting.[126] [127]

History

Patients may present with a history of depressed, anxious, irritable, or flat mood; anhedonia; weight changes; libido changes; sleep disturbance; psychomotor problems; low energy; excessive guilt; poor concentration; or suicidal ideation.[1]

Patients with mild depression may appear to be functioning normally, but this requires considerably increased effort.[1] Fatigue and sleep disturbance are common features of depression. Psychomotor disturbances, and delusional (or near-delusional) guilt, are much less common but indicate greater overall severity when present.[1] Some patients emphasise somatic complaints rather than feelings of sadness.[1]

Patients may report psychotic symptoms such as delusions or hallucinations.[1] [2]

Patients often have a personal or family history of depression. Enquire about the patient's response to any past psychiatric treatments (including pharmacological and non-pharmacological treatments), any history of psychiatric hospitalisation, and any emergency department visits for psychiatric illness.[128]

Some patients will have experienced stress, trauma, or loss. Clinicians should use open-ended, empathic questions when enquiring about a patient's trauma history.[128] Patients may not share details of childhood physical or sexual abuse unless specifically asked.[128]

In older patients, depression can present as diminished self-care, somatic complaints, psychomotor retardation, irritability, and apathy. These patients may also present with severe cognitive disturbance (memory deficits) as a result of the depression.[31] Older patients may also be more likely to have single or multiple comorbidities that contribute to the development of depression (e.g., malaise from medical illness or side effects of non-psychiatric medications).[11]

Risk of death by suicide is increased substantially, with an almost 20-fold increase in risk compared to the general population.[34] Suicide risk mitigation is critical, especially as the risk may increase early in treatment. Routinely asking patients about suicidal ideation and reducing access to lethal means (especially firearms) can reduce the risk of suicide.[129] See Suicide risk mitigation.

Substance use is common in people with depression.[38] [104] Enquiry should should include assessment of alcohol, tobacco, recreational drugs, and any misuse of prescribed or over-the-counter medications.[128]

Enquire about other psychiatric and non-psychiatric diagnoses. Some physical illnesses may cause symptoms that mimic depression (e.g., hypothyroidism, Cushing's disease). Depression may also affect a patient's ability to adhere to treatment for a physical illness.

Examination

There are no definitive findings of depression on physical examination. Many patients will have a depressed affect. Some will have downcast gaze, furrowed brow, psychomotor slowing, speech latency, and expressions of guilt or self-blame.

The physical examination and cognitive screening may be useful in ruling out common conditions that are often confused with depression (e.g., hypothyroidism, dementia) and in looking for commonly cooccurring illnesses (including obesity, cancer, stroke).

Depression screening

Commonly used screening tests include the Primary Care Evaluation of Mental Disorders (PRIME-MD) and 9-item Depression Scale of the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9) for adults in primary care and the Edinburgh Depression Score for Postnatal Depression for use in the perinatal period.[130] [131] [Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale] (https://www.fresno.ucsf.edu/pediatrics/downloads/ edinburghscale.pdf) Several diagnostic tools are available for older adults, such as the Geriatric Depression Scale and, when cognitive impairment is prominent, the Cornell Scale for Depression in Dementia. [Cornell Scale For Depression in Dementia] (https://cgatoolkit.ca/Uploads/ContentDocuments/ cornell_scale_depression.pdf)

Screening tools validated in an appropriate language for the patient may be required.

The US Preventive Services Task Force recommends that primary care practices screening adults should have systems in place that ensure positive screening results are followed by accurate diagnosis, effective treatment, and careful follow-up.[132]

Depression diagnosis

To ensure diagnostic accuracy, physicians should apply International classification of diseases, eleventh edition (ICD-11) or Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, fifth edition, text revision (DSM-5-TR) criteria to all patients suspected of having depression or who have a positive screening test for depression. Determining whether the episode is mild, moderate, or severe, with or without psychosis, informs treatment decisions. See Criteria . Subthreshold (minor) depression is not defined in DSM-5-TR, but may apply to those with 2-4 depressive symptoms, including either sad mood or anhedonia, for at least 2 weeks.[5] [6]

For patients with dementia who might not readily be able to recognise or describe symptoms due to cognitive impairment, clinical assessment is essential in case finding, and can be supported by the use of a variety of diagnostic tools.[133] Specific structured diagnostic assessments for older people are available and should be used instead of the PRIME-MD or PHQ-9: for example, the Geriatric Depression Scale or, for older people with cognitive impairment, the Cornell Scale for Depression in Dementia. [Cornell Scale For Depression in Dementia] (https://cgatoolkit.ca/Uploads/ContentDocuments/ cornell_scale_depression.pdf) Physicians can use the PHQ-9 to score current depression severity and to follow up treatment response.

Tests

Depression is a clinical diagnosis. There are no diagnostic tests.[134] Simple laboratory tests should be performed in the work-up to exclude other causes of depression symptoms. Initial tests include thyroid

function tests, metabolic panel, and full blood count. Serum vitamin B12 and folate levels, and 24-hour urinary cortisol may also be informative.

History and exam

Key diagnostic factors

presence of risk factors (common)

• Key risk factors include older age; recent childbirth, stress, or trauma; co-existing medical conditions (diabetes, cancer, stroke, myocardial infarction, and obesity); personal or family history of depression; certain medications (e.g., corticosteroids) and female sex.

depressed mood (common)

• Major criterion for diagnosis: depressed mood or loss of interest, most of the day, nearly every day, for a period of 2 weeks along with 4 other symptoms of depression.[1]

anhedonia (common)

• Major criterion for diagnosis: diminished interest or pleasure in all or almost all activities most of the day, nearly every day, for a period of 2 weeks along with 4 other symptoms of depression.[1]

functional impairment (common)

• Symptoms cause impairment in, for example, social or occupational functions.[1]

Other diagnostic factors

weight change (common)

• Significant weight loss when not dieting, weight gain, or decrease or increase in appetite nearly every day.[1] A change of >5% of body weight within 1 month is considered significant.[1]

libido changes (common)

• May show reduced libido.

sleep disturbance (common)

• Insomnia or hypersomnia persistently.[1]

changes in movement (common)

• Psychomotor agitation or retardation nearly every day.[1] The changes in movement should be observable by others, rather than subjective feelings of restlessness or being slowed down.[1]

low energy (common)

• Fatigue or loss of energy nearly every day.[1]

excessive guilt (common)

• Feelings of worthlessness or excessive or inappropriate guilt nearly every day.[1]

poor concentration (common)

• Diminished ability to think or concentrate, or indecisiveness, nearly every day.[1]

suicidal ideation (common)

• Recurrent thoughts of death, recurrent suicidal ideation without a specific plan, a specific suicide plan, or a suicide attempt.[1]

somatic symptoms (common)

• Somatic symptoms (e.g., headaches, generalised aches and pains, palpitations, tremor, blurred vision), although not comprehensively described in established diagnostic criteria, are commonly reported symptoms of depression, particularly in certain geographical populations, for example, people from Africa, Asia, Central and South America, and the Pacific Island, but may occur in people with depression regardless of their location or culture.[8] [9]

bipolar disorder excluded (common)

• According to DSM-5-TR, there should be no evidence of mania or hypomania.[1]

substance abuse/medication side effects excluded (common)

 According to DSM-5-TR, major depressive disorder should not be diagnosed if the symptoms are primarily attributable to the pharmacological effects or side effects of prescribed medications or substances of abuse.[1]

medical illness excluded (common)

• According to DSM-5-TR, major depressive disorder should not be diagnosed if the symptoms are primarily attributable to a somatic medical condition.[1]

schizophrenia excluded (uncommon)

• According to DSM-5-TR, chronic psychosis excludes the diagnosis of major depressive disorder if the depressive symptoms are primarily attributable to the chronic psychotic illness.[1]

Risk factors

Strong

postnatal status

• Approximately 19% of postnatal women have a major depressive episode during the first 3 months after delivery.[83] Women with a previous psychiatric disturbance, poor social support, and an unplanned pregnancy are at higher risk.[12] Parenting programmes may improve the short-term psychosocial health of mothers.[84] See Postnatal depression.

personal or family history of depressive disorder or suicide

• A family history of depression is associated with a twofold increased risk, more functional impairment, longer episodes, more frequent recurrence, and persistent thoughts of death and suicide.[85] The rate of suicide is twice as high in families of suicide victims.[86]

12

Anxiety and depressive disorders are highly comorbid; according to one worldwide survey, 45.7% of
people with major depressive disorder had a history of one or more anxiety disorders. Comorbidity with
an anxiety disorder during depressive episodes was also common, occurring in 41.6% of people with
depression.[87] According to the Sequenced Treatment Alternatives to Relieve Depression (STAR*D)
study, 53% of the patients with major depression also had significant symptoms of anxiety (often
termed 'anxious depression').[88]

adverse childhood experiences

Adversity or maltreatment during critical periods in early life has been demonstrated to substantially increase the risk of later development of depression, and is also associated with a less favourable course of illness, including an increased risk of recurrent depression; however, some studies suggest that antidepressant treatment can nevertheless be helpful in this population.[58] [59][89] The risk is not entirely psychological: it has been postulated that exposure to adverse events in early life may lead to epigenetic modifications affecting gene expression, which may predispose to depression.[57] Childhood adversity is also associated with increased risk of depression in people who have particular alleles of the polymorphic FKBP5 gene, which encodes a protein involved in glucocorticoid signaling pathways.[56]

dementia

In older adults with dementia, the prevalence of comorbid depression appears to be around 16%, although may be as high as 35% depending on the diagnostic criteria used; dementia, by some measures, can nearly double the risk of depression in older adults.[41] Depression may be a prodromal feature of dementia, or a psychological response to experiencing a degenerative disease with associated loss of function and autonomy.[90] Conversely, depression may also be a risk factor for dementia.[91]

corticosteroid use

• Depression is a documented adverse effect.[92]

interferon use

• Depression is a documented adverse effect and is treatable.[93]

oral contraceptive use

• A large population-based study found a slight, but statistically significant elevated risk of depression in oral contraceptive users.[94] Risk appears to vary by age and hormone contents of the specific oral contraceptive.[95]

co-existing medical conditions

Patients hospitalised for medical or surgical problems and those with various chronic medical conditions, including diabetes, cancer, stroke, coronary artery disease, HIV, chronic pain, polycystic ovary syndrome, and obesity have significantly higher rates of depression than people without comorbidities.[13] [14] [15] [16] [96] [97] [98] [99] [100] [101] There may be a particularly increased risk of depression in chronic illness in patients with conditions characterised by inflammation and pain.[102] The relationship between chronic medical conditions and depression is bidirectional. Depressed patients are more likely to develop chronic medical conditions.[43] [44] Adults who experienced chronic medical illness in childhood also have higher rates of depression.[103]

female sex

• Incidence of depression in women is double the incidence in men.[27] [33]

Weak

comorbid substance use

• The use of intoxicating substances (alcohol, cannabis, and other recreational drugs), often to an excessive or habitual degree, is common in people with depression.[38] [104] [105] Men with depression are twice as likely as women to have a comorbid substance use disorder.[38] There is no evidence that medical cannabinoids are effective for the treatment of depression.[106]

personality disorders

• Some personality disorders co-occur more frequently with depression, including borderline personality disorder, and Cluster C personality disorders.[107] [108] [109] Depression combined with a personality disorder may have a poorer outcome than depression alone; however, data are mixed.[110]

history of violent victimisation

• Having been the victim or witness of violence, such as physical or sexual abuse including intimate partner violence, is a risk factor for subsequent development of depression.[26] [111]

obesity

New data analytic methods applied to several very large databases have supported the hypothesis that body fat mass is associated with, and likely a causal factor for, depression.[112] One population-based study conducted in Europe reported a significantly higher prevalence of depression in people with BMI >30 kg/m² compared with people with BMI >18.5 kg/m² and <30 kg/m².[27]

older age (≥65 years)

 Rates of depression increase in older-age, particularly among older people who are hospitalised or living in assisted care facilities.[31] Global prevalence in elderly people has been estimated at 13.3%.[30] Another systematic review looking at rates of depression in older adults globally, estimated the pooled prevalence of depression as being 31.74%, with higher rates of depression seen within developing countries (40.78%) compared to developed countries (17.05%).[31]

separated/divorced marital status

Associated with an increased risk of developing major depressive disorder according to one systematic review.[26]

Investigations

1st test to order

Test

clinical diagnosis

- Major depression: ≥5 of the following symptoms have been present during the same 2-week period and represent a change from previous functioning. At least one of the symptoms is either depressed mood or loss of interest or pleasure: depressed mood most of the day, nearly every day as self-reported or observed by others; markedly diminished interest or pleasure in all or almost all activities most of the day, nearly every day; significant weight loss when not dieting, weight gain or decrease or increase in appetite nearly every day; insomnia or hypersomnia nearly every day; psychomotor agitation or retardation nearly every day; fatigue or loss of energy nearly every day; feelings of worthlessness or excessive or inappropriate guilt nearly every day; diminished ability to think or concentrate, or indecisiveness, nearly every day; recurrent thoughts of death, recurrent suicidal ideation without a specific plan, a specific suicide plan, or a suicide attempt.[1]
- In addition, these symptoms: cause functional impairment (e.g., social, occupational); are not related to substance abuse, medication side effects, or another medical condition; are not related to a grief reaction.
- Women who have clinically significant changes in mood along with other depressive symptoms, linked to the menstrual cycle, may warrant a diagnosis of premenstrual dysphoria. Patients who have depressive symptoms attributable to another cause, such as psychoactive drugs, medication side effects, or medical illness, may be diagnosed with specific substance-induced or medication-related depressive symptoms or depression secondary to a specified somatic medical condition, respectively. Otherwise, clinically significant depression where the symptoms fall short of meeting full DSM-5-TR criteria in number, duration, or severity can be diagnosed as either 'other specified depressive disorder' (where the reason for falling short of criteria is given: for example, 'brief' or 'short-duration' or 'insufficient symptoms') or 'unspecified depressive disorder' where the reason is not stated.
- Persistent depressive disorder: the patient has had depressed mood, for most of the day, for more days than not, for ≥2 years.[1]
- Subthreshold (minor) depression is not defined in DSM-5-TR, but may apply to those with 2-4 depressive symptoms, including either sad mood or anhedonia, for at least 2 weeks.[5] [6]

metabolic panelnormal• Provides baseline and may reveal metabolic disturbance.normalFBCnormal• Other causes of fatigue such as anaemia should be ruled out.normalthyroid function testsnormal• An elevated serum thyroid-stimulating hormone level suggests
hypothyroidism.normal

ICD-11 or DSM-5-TR diagnostic criteria depending on the depressive subcategory

Test	Result
 Patient Health Questionnaire-2 (PHQ-2) The PHQ-2 is derived from the Primary Care Evaluation of Mental Disorders (PRIME-MD) tool and quickly and accurately screens for depression with only two questions: 'Over the past 2 weeks, have you felt down, depressed, hopeless?' and 'over the past 2 weeks, have you felt little interest or pleasure in doing things?'[135] A positive response to either question warrants a thorough review of diagnostic criteria or an equivalent tool. 	positive result screens for depression in primary care
 Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) The PHQ-9 can be used as a diagnostic and disease management tool. The PHQ-9 is a 9-item depression questionnaire that reflects the DSM-5-TR criteria. It classifies current symptoms on a scale of 0 (no symptoms) to 4 (daily symptoms). It has been validated for use in primary care settings. Repeating the PHQ-9 during treatment allows the clinician to objectively monitor response to therapy. 	positive result screens for depression in primary care
 Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale US and UK guidelines stress the importance of routinely assessing patients for depression during the perinatal period.[136] [137] The Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale is a 10-item questionnaire for women in the perinatal period. A score of ≥10 suggests depression; however, clinicians should be mindful of individual patient circumstances (e.g., education and culture) that might impact scoring.[138] [139] [140] Although it does not assess the severity of depression, it does assess for suicidal ideation. [Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale] (https://www.fresno.ucsf.edu/pediatrics/ downloads/edinburghscale.pdf) See Postnatal depression . 	positive result screens for depression in postnatal period
 Geriatric Depression Scale The short form contains 15 yes/no questions. This scale does not assess the severity of symptoms.[141] [142] 	>5 suggests depression; >10 strongly suggests depression
 Cornell Scale for Depression in Dementia This scale is a 19-item questionnaire intended for geriatric patients with dementia. [Cornell Scale For Depression in Dementia] (https://cgatoolkit.ca/Uploads/ContentDocuments/cornell_scale_depression.pdf) This scale does not assess the severity of symptoms.[143] 	>10 suggests probable depression; >18 indicates definite depression

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

Other tests to consider

Test	Result
24-hour free cortisol	normal
 Elevated 24-hour urinary free cortisol level suggests Cushing's disease. 	
vitamin B12	normal
 Vitamin B12 deficiency is associated with macrocytic anaemia, paraesthesia, numbness, and impaired memory. 	
folic acid	normal
 Patients with depression have been found to have lower levels of serum folate than people without a psychiatric diagnosis, and than non-depressed psychiatric patients.[144] 	

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

Differentials

Condition	Differentiating signs / symptoms	Differentiating tests
Adjustment disorder with depressed mood	• This is a subsyndromal depression with a clearly identified precipitating event. It usually does not require medicine and resolves with resolution of the acute stressor.	• DSM-5-TR.
Substance-/medication- or medical illness- associated and other depressive disorders	• Depressive symptoms that fall short of diagnostic criteria for major depressive disorder due to concurrent substance use, medication side effects, or somatic medical illness, or for other specifiable or unspecifiable reasons.	 Medical history and physical, chemistry, haematological, and other tests to rule out or diagnose somatic medical illness; review and monitoring of prescription drugs for possible side effects; toxicology screen for evidence of substance abuse.
Bipolar disorder	 In this condition, major depressive disorder is accompanied by or interspersed with one or more manic, hypomanic, or mixed episodes. 	• ICD-11, DSM-5-TR.
Premenstrual dysphoric disorder (PMDD)	 PMDD is characterised by depressed mood, anxiety, and irritability during the week before menses and resolving with menses. PMDD also has prominent pain symptoms. 	• ICD-11, DSM-5-TR.
Grief/bereavement	 Depressive symptoms may be transiently present in normal grief. The duration and expression of normal grief varies among racial/ ethnic groups.[145] Symptoms more consistent with depression include inappropriate guilt regarding actions surrounding death of loved one, persistent thoughts of death (survivor's feelings that he or she would be better off dead or should have died with the deceased person are considered a normal part of grief), morbid preoccupation 	• ICD-11, DSM-5-TR.

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

Condition	Differentiating signs /	Differentiating tests
	symptoms	
	 with worthlessness, marked psychomotor retardation, prolonged and marked functional impairment, and hallucinations. Transiently hearing the voice of or seeing the deceased person is considered within normal limits of bereavement. Note that ICD-11 introduced prolonged grief disorder as a new diagnostic category, which describes a pathologically persistent and disabling reaction to bereavement, exceeding social, cultural and religious norms.[2] According to DSM-5-TR and ICD-11, if the patient has a full syndrome of major depressive disorder, a recent loss or state of bereavement does not preclude the diagnosis or preclude the benefits of antidepressant treatment. However, a psychotherapeutic approach aimed at bereavement is likely to be more successful than standard psychotherapeutic approaches for depression.[146] 	
Dementia	 Dementia is characterised by cognitive (memory) changes, psychiatric symptoms, personality changes, problem behaviours, and changes in day-to-day functioning. 	 A mini-mental state examination or neuropsychiatric testing should be conducted if the diagnosis is uncertain.[147] Focused laboratory testing (i.e., thyroid-stimulating hormone level, vitamin B12 level) should be considered for reversible causes of dementia.
Anxiety disorders	 Anxiety disorders frequently occur along with depression. Generalised anxiety disorder (GAD) is characterised by excessive worry, muscular tension, fatigue, autonomic hyperactivity, and increased vigilance; patients with anxious depression may 	• ICD-11, DSM-5-TR.

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

19

Condition	Differentiating signs /	Differentiating tests
	symptoms	
	appear to have GAD.[148] Specific anxiety disorders (i.e., panic disorder, social phobia, obsessive- compulsive disorder, PTSD) should also be considered.	
Alcohol-use disorder	 Patients often may complain of insomnia, nightmares, poor memory, and nervousness. 	• Various screening tools are in wide use, including the CAGE questionnaire and the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT).[149]
Anorexia nervosa	• Eating disorders such as anorexia nervosa are more common in women and characterised by disturbance in the perception of body weight, size, or shape, and refusal to maintain healthy body weight.	• ICD-11, DSM-5-TR.
Hypothyroidism	 Associated signs and symptoms include weight gain, constipation, and fatigue. 	An elevated serum thyroid- stimulating hormone level suggests hypothyroidism.
Medicine adverse effects	 Patients should be asked about use of glucocorticoids, interferon, levodopa, propranolol, and oral contraceptives. Results from studies investigating whether isotretinoin increases the incidence of depression and/or suicidal ideation are conflicting; signs and symptoms of depression should be monitored during and after treatment with isotretinoin.[150] 	These effects may be temporally associated with medicine initiation race.
Cushing's disease	• This disease is associated with progressive obesity, dermatological manifestations, signs of adrenal androgen excess, and proximal muscle wasting.	Elevated 24-hour urinary free cortisol level.
Vitamin B12 deficiency	 This deficiency is associated with macrocytic anaemia, paraesthesia, numbness, and impaired memory. 	Reduced serum vitamin B12 level.

Condition	Differentiating signs / symptoms	Differentiating tests
Obstructive sleep apnoea (OSA)	• Depressive symptoms are a common consequence of OSA, and can be reversed by treatment directed at the OSA.[151]	Sleep study.

Criteria

International classification of diseases, eleventh edition (ICD-11)[2]

ICD-11 depressive disorders are subdivided into single-episode and recurrent types, with designations for severity of the most recent episode and, in severe cases, the presence or absence of psychosis (hallucinations or delusions).

Symptoms include:

- Depressed mood
- Diminished interest/capacity for pleasure
- · Change in sleep
- Psychomotor change
- Reduced energy; fatigue
- · Feelings of worthlessness; excessive or inappropriate guilt
- Hopelessness
- Difficulty concentrating
- Recurrent thoughts of death or suicide.

Mild depression is diagnosed when no symptom is present to an intense degree and there is some, but not considerable, functional impairment.

Moderate depression denotes several symptoms present to a marked degree and considerable but not complete functional impairment.

Severe depression is diagnosed when many or most of the characteristic symptoms of depression are present to a marked degree, and/or several are present to an intense degree, and there is complete or near-complete functional impairment.

Note: the presence of psychotic symptoms by definition defines an episode as moderate or severe.

Additionally, ICD-11 includes under the depressive disorder category a diagnosis of dysthymic disorder, and a new one for mixed anxiety and depressive disorder.

Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, fifth edition, text revision (DSM-5-TR)[1]

DSM-5-TR divides depressive disorders into:

- Disruptive mood dysregulation disorder
- Major depressive disorder (including major depressive episode)

- · Persistent depressive disorder (previously known as dysthymic disorder)
- Premenstrual dysphoric disorder
- · Substance-/medication-induced depressive disorder
- · Depressive disorder due to another medical condition
- Other specified depressive disorders
- Unspecified depressive disorder
- Unspecified mood disorder.

Major depression[1]

Five or more of the following symptoms have been present during the same 2-week period and represent a change from previous functioning. At least one of the symptoms is either depressed mood or loss of interest or pleasure:

- · Depressed mood most of the day, nearly every day, as self-reported or observed by others
- Markedly diminished interest or pleasure in all or almost all activities, for most of the day, nearly every day
- Significant weight loss when not dieting, weight gain or decrease, or increase in appetite nearly every day
- · Insomnia or hypersomnia nearly every day
- Psychomotor agitation or retardation nearly every day
- · Fatigue or loss of energy nearly every day
- · Feelings of worthlessness or excessive or inappropriate guilt nearly every day
- Diminished ability to think or concentrate, or indecisiveness, nearly every day
- Recurrent thoughts of death, recurrent suicidal ideation without a specific plan, a specific suicide plan, or a suicide attempt.

In addition, these symptoms:

- · Cause functional impairment (e.g., social, occupational)
- Are not better explained by substance abuse, medication side effects, or other psychiatric or somatic medical conditions.

There are 3 degrees of severity of major depression defined in the DSM-5-TR:

- Mild: few, if any, symptoms more than number required for diagnosis of major depression, the intensity of the symptoms is distressing but manageable, and the symptoms result in minor functional impairment
- Moderate: the number of symptoms, intensity of symptoms, and/or functional impairment are between those specified for 'mild' and 'severe' depression
- Severe: the number of symptoms is substantially in excess of that required to make the diagnosis, the intensity of the symptoms is seriously distressing and unmanageable, and the symptoms markedly interfere with social and occupational functioning.

The following specifiers may be added to the diagnosis of depressive disorder:

- · With anxious distress
- With mixed features (if there are at least 3 associated manic/hypomanic symptoms)
- With melancholic features
- With atypical features
- With psychotic features
- · With catatonia

DIAGNOSIS

- · With peripartum onset
- With seasonal pattern.

Depressive disorder (subthreshold or minor depression)

Subthreshold (minor) depression is not defined in DSM-5-TR, but when used in the past it referred to a patient who had from 2-4 depressive symptoms, including either sad mood or anhedonia for at least 2 weeks.[5]

Depressive disorder due to:

- Substance/medication use/abuse: full or partial major depressive syndrome attributable to pharmaceuticals or other intoxicants
- Medical condition: full or partial major depressive syndrome attributable to another somatic medical illness
- Other (specified or unspecified) depressive disorder: major depressive syndrome attributable to another external or somatic cause, or a depressive syndrome that for other known or unknown reasons falls short of a full major depressive syndrome.

Persistent depressive disorder[1]

Depressed mood, for more days than not, for ≥ 2 years. Impairment compared with major depressive disorder may be less severe. During the 2 years, the patient has never been without symptoms for more than 2 months at a time.

Two or more of the following symptoms are present while depressed:

- · Poor appetite or overeating
- Insomnia or hypersomnia
- · Low energy or fatigue
- Low self-esteem
- Fatigue
- · Poor concentration or difficulty making decisions
- Feelings of hopelessness.

Screening

Recommendations

The US Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) found convincing evidence to recommend screening for depression in the general adult population, including pregnant and postnatal women and older adults, although public health bodies in some countries (e.g., the UK and Canada) do not recommend routine screening.[132][152] [153] Systems should be in place to ensure accurate diagnosis, effective treatment, and appropriate follow-up after screening. There was insufficient evidence to support universal screening of suicide risk directly.[132]

There are some clinical situations in which routine screening is recommended. For example, because of the high risk for depression after physical trauma, a brief screening instrument like the Patient Health Questionnaire-2 (PHQ-2) or Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) should be administered to patients admitted to trauma centres, according to US-based guidance.[154] Regular routine screening and

assessment for depression is recommended for patients with cancer in all phases of the illness, according to European treatment guidelines.[155]

Tools

The PHQ-2 is derived from the Primary Care Evaluation of Mental Disorders (PRIME-MD) tool and quickly and accurately screens for depression with only two questions:[135]

'Over the past 2 weeks, have you felt down, depressed, hopeless?'

'Over the past 2 weeks, have you felt little interest or pleasure in doing things?'

A positive response to either question warrants a thorough review of the Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, fifth edition, text revision (DSM-5-TR) criteria or an equivalent tool.

The PHQ-9 can be used as a diagnostic and disease management tool. The PHQ-9 is a 9-item depression questionnaire that reflects the DSM-5-TR criteria. It classifies current symptoms on a scale of 0 (no symptoms) to 3 (daily symptoms). It has been validated for use in primary care settings. Repeating the PHQ-9 during treatment allows the clinician to objectively monitor response to therapy.

One meta-analysis determined that a screening approach beginning with a PHQ-2, and moving on to a PHQ-9 for PHQ-2 scores of \geq 2, was similarly accurate to administering the PHQ-9 to all patients, and reduced the need to administer a full PHQ-9 by over 50%.[156]

Screening in pregnancy

Evidence suggests that screening pregnant and postnatal women reduces the risk of depression.[157] [158] The US guidelines stress the importance of routinely assessing patients for depression during the perinatal period. The American College for Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG) recommends that screening for perinatal depression takes place at multiple timepoints during the perinatal period using the same standardised, validated screening instrument; this includes the initial antenatal visit, later in pregnancy, and at postnatal visits. Examples given include the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS) or Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9).[136]

This EPDS is a 10-item questionnaire that is commonly used in the perinatal period. A score of ≥10 suggests depression.[138] [139] [140] One meta-analysis determined that a cut-off score of 13 or more identified higher-severity cases, while a cut-off score of 11 or above optimised sensitivity and specificity in screening.[159] EDPS includes an assessment of suicidal ideation. [Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale] (https://www.fresno.ucsf.edu/pediatrics/downloads/edinburghscale.pdf)

ACOG recommends that, when someone answers 'yes' to a self-harm or suicide question in the perinatal period, clinicians should immediately assess for likelihood, acuity, and severity of risk of suicide attempt and then arrange for risk-tailored management.[136] See Suicide risk mitigation.

Canadian guidance recommends against universal instrument-based screening during the perinatal period, but assumes that, as part of usual care during the perinatal period, care providers will inquire about and be attentive to maternal health and well-being.[160] The UK National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) recommends that healthcare professionals (including midwives, obstetricians, health visitors, and general practitioners) should consider asking two questions to identify possible depression in the perinatal period, at the woman's first contact with primary care, at her first antenatal appointment (usually around week 10 of pregnancy), and postnatally (first year after childbirth):[137]

- During the past month, have you often been bothered by feeling down, depressed, or hopeless?
- During the past month, have you often been bothered by having little interest or pleasure in doing things?

If the woman answers 'yes' to either of the initial questions, is at risk of developing a mental health problem, or there is clinical concern, NICE recommends that clinicians consider:

- Using the EPDS or
- · Using the PHQ-9 as part of a full assessment or
- Referring the woman to her GP, or, if a severe mental health problem is suspected, to a mental health professional

Women at high risk for depression because of a prior or current history of severe depressive disorder should ideally be under the care of a specialist perinatal psychiatrist; clinicians should ask about depressive symptoms at each contact.[137]

For specific information on screening for depression in the postnatal period, see Postnatal depression .

Screening in older adults

The Geriatric Depression Scale and Cornell Scale for Depression in Dementia have been validated for older adults with and without dementia, respectively.[141] [142] [143]

25

Approach

The goals of treatment are to eradicate symptoms of depression, improve daily functioning and quality of life, improve workplace functioning, reduce suicidality, minimise treatment adverse effects, and prevent relapse.[161] [162][163]

The initial priority is to identify and mitigate against any immediate risks for harm to self or others, including consideration of the need for inpatient admission (see Acute and urgent considerations).

For people with depression who can be safely managed outside of a hospital setting, first-line treatment options include:[164] [165]

- · Psychological therapy (e.g., cognitive behavioural therapy [CBT])
- Pharmacotherapy (e.g., antidepressants)
- · The combination of psychological therapy and pharmacotherapy

Both antidepressants and psychological therapy have shown effectiveness when used alone, and yield similar results in randomised trials. Results from one meta-analysis of antidepressant treatment for adults with depression suggest numbers needed to treat (NNT) values of 16, 11, and 4 for the mild-to-moderate, severe, and very-severe subgroups, respectively.[166] Psychological treatments have been shown to be both effective and cost-effective in reducing depressive symptoms, and may reduce the number of sickness absence days from work, whether this is face to face or online.[163] [167] [168] [169] Treatment response to CBT is comparable with antidepressant response in some studies.[170] [Evidence B] For those with more severe depression, the combination of psychological therapy plus pharmacotherapy has demonstrated greater efficacy than either treatment alone.[171] [172] [173] [174] Psychological therapy, both used alone or used in combination with pharmacotherapy, has a more enduring treatment effect than pharmacotherapy alone.[175] It should be noted that for people with subthreshold or mild symptoms, the prognosis is often good without the need for pharmacotherapy or psychological therapy.[176]

Electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) may be an option for those who have not responded to, or cannot tolerate, antidepressants.[165] The response rate is better for patients with severe major depression than for moderate or mild depression.[177] The potential impact on memory and cognition, which may reduce functioning during active treatment, make ECT less desirable for patients with less severe depression. ECT is often the treatment of choice for severely depressed people with late-life depression, because it is effective, and avoids complications that may arise from pharmacological intolerance and drug-drug interactions associated with treatment for comorbid physical conditions.[178]

Treatment decisions are informed by a number of important real-world considerations, including access to psychological treatment, which may be limited or non-existent in some locations. Furthermore, people with depression may have a strong preference for either psychological therapy or pharmacotherapy. Research to guide evidence-based individualised treatment is at an early stage.[179] Choice of treatment is therefore highly individualised and empirically validated.

For all patients with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165] Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and it may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible. This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

Lifestyle advice encompassess instruction on the following:[180]

- · Sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking
- · Healthy diet and exercise
- Cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse (including cannabis use); if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required

Urgent and acute considerations

Features indicating a need for urgent management include psychosis, suicidal ideation, catatonia, severe psychomotor retardation impeding activities of daily living, and severe agitation.[165] [181] [182] These people are at increased risk for suicide, impulsive and potentially self-destructive behaviour, and health complications due to poor self-care and immobility.

Consultant referral, hospitalisation, constant observation, tranquilisation, and/or ECT may be required to ensure safety until definitive antidepressant therapy can take effect. The pharmacological and non-pharmacological treatment options used in these patients, once the risks have been stabilised, are discussed in Moore severe depression.

Urgent consultant referral is indicated and hospitalisation should be considered for people:[165] [181] [182]

- · With significant suicidal ideation or intent who lack adequate safeguards in their family environment
- · With intent to hurt others
- · Who are unable to care for themselves and adhere to their treatment
- With psychotic symptoms
- With uncontrolled agitation accompanied by the risk of impulsive behaviour.

Suicide risk mitigation

• Suicide risk mitigation is critical, especially as the risk may increase early in treatment. Routinely asking people about suicidal ideation and reducing access to lethal means (especially firearms) can reduce the risk of suicide.[129] Close telephone follow-up by a trained psychiatrist may help reduce the risk of death by suicide after a previous suicide attempt.[183] See Suicide risk mitigation .

Pharmacotherapy

- Antidepressant therapy: usually the first-line option in most people with severe depression requiring an urgent management approach. General principles of prescribing antidepressants are described in 'More severe depression'.
- Psychosis: antidepressants alone may not effectively address psychotic symptoms, such as delusions or hallucinations; therefore, clinicians should have a lower threshold for adding an antipsychotic to antidepressant treatment in people with psychosis.[165] [184] [185]
- Agitation: for people who have severe agitation as a depressive symptom, antipsychotics can directly tranquilise the distress associated with this form of severe depression. People with agitation may also benefit from short-term treatment with a benzodiazepine, or possibly both an antipsychotic and a benzodiazepine, until definitive antidepressant therapy takes effect.[186] Patients with mild agitation or severe anxiety can be treated with a benzodiazepine and/or an antipsychotic.
- Catatonia: people with catatonia are usually treated with a benzodiazepine, sometimes in combination with an antipsychotic: ECT may also be considered.[187]
- Suicidality: esketamine nasal spray (an active isomer of ketamine, an N-methyl-D-aspartate [NMDA] receptor antagonist) may be considered by a consultant for those with depression with acute suicidal ideation or behaviour, as an adjunct therapy to an oral antidepressant. Although

esketamine is being used more frequently in clinical practice, questions remain about which patients respond best to it, how long therapeutical effects might persist, and over what duration to continue treatment. While no longer considered a last-resort treatment, esketamine is not a firstor second-line treatment, and it is typically reserved for people with persistent suicidal ideation. Availability of esketamine varies according to country of practice and relevant regulatory approval. In the US, the drug is only available through a restricted distribution programme. The drug must be self-administered by the patient, who is supervised by a health care provider in a certified medical office, and the patient monitored for at least 2 hours because of the risk of sedation, respiratory depression, difficulty with attention, judgement and thinking (dissociation), suicidal thoughts and behaviours, and the potential for drug misuse. Be aware that patients with poorly controlled hypertension or pre-existing aneurysmal vascular disorders may be at increased risk for adverse cardiovascular or cerebrovascular effects. Esketamine is contraindicated in patients with aneurysmal vascular disease, arteriovenous malformation, or intracerebral haemorrhage. Use of esketamine nasal spray beyond 4 weeks is not currently supported by evidence, given that its effectiveness beyond 4 weeks has not yet been evaluated. Esketamine may also be considered for some people with treatment-resistant depression (see below).

Electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)

- Indication: although most people referred for ECT have tried other antidepressant treatments, ECT
 may be considered early in the course of treatment in certain people with severe depression. It
 may be used early in treatment for depression with psychotic symptoms, suicidality, or catatonia, or
 where there has been a previous positive treatment response to ECT.[165] [177]
- General procedure: ECT is performed under general anaesthesia, typically 2 or 3 times a week for a total of 6-12 treatments.[188]
- Risks: patient and clinician must be fully informed of the potential risks, including the risks associated with not having ECT, so that the patient can provide informed consent.[165] The mortality rate of ECT is estimated to be about 2 deaths per 100,000 treatments, meaning that it is one of the safer procedures performed under general anesthetic.[189] [190] Overall, there is no increase in risk of medical complications in patients receiving ECT versus equally depressed patients not receiving ECT.[191] ECT affects heart rate and blood pressure. Chest pain, arrhythmias, persistent hypertension, and ECG changes have been reported as complications, particularly in patients with pre-existing cardiac disease.[192] Cardiovascular conditions should be stabilised before administering ECT.[192] The majority of patients report adverse cognitive effects during and shortly after treatment, most commonly memory loss (both anterograde and retrograde amnesia). This impairment seems to be short-lived according to objective assessment, although a significant proportion of patients report persistent memory loss following ECT.[193] [194] This potential risk must be balanced against the evidence in favour of its efficacy, especially in patients with severe depression. If a person with depression cannot give informed consent for ECT, it should only be given when it does not conflict with a valid advance treatment decision made by the person.[165]
- After-effects: ECT treatment effects are temporary; following successful treatment, the effect must be maintained by the use of antidepressants and/or maintenance electroconvulsive treatments (typically once per week to once every 4 weeks or longer, titrated to stability).[195]

Supportive care

• Agitated patients require high levels of care because of their enhanced emotional distress and the risk of impulsive violence. Severe impairment of the activities of daily living due to catatonia or psychomotor retardation increases the severity of depression, as patients who are inert and

28

bedbound, or not taking adequate sustenance run the risk of a deterioration in health while awaiting a response to pharmacotherapy. These patients may require supportive nursing care. Psychological therapy

 These patients are unlikely to find other talking treatments effective, and it may worsen their outlook. Limit psychotherapy to the support necessary to manage the patient safely and to encourage the patient to accept definitive treatment.

More severe depression

'More severe depression' has been defined by NICE in the UK as a Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) score of 16 or more.[165] This category includes both moderate and severe depression, as defined by DSM-5-TR.[165]

While it is important to assess the severity of depression using valid diagnostic criteria, the author uses a somewhat broader approach when determining severity of depressive symptoms. Thus the author notes that, within their own clinical practice, the following factors might sway the judegment towards considering a specific depressive episode to be 'more severe':

- · Symptoms suggestive of high clinical risk, for example, suicidal ideation
- Symptoms that are highly specific for depression and/or that might impede normal coping strategies, for example, lack of interest[196]
- · Symptoms that are present on a daily or near-daily basis
- A substantial lack of motivation where the person is unable to distract themselves from their depressive symptoms

For people with more severe depression who can be safely managed outside of a hospital setting, treatment options include pharmacotherapy and psychological therapy, either alone or in combination.[165] [197] Efficacy of antidepressants is more pronounced with increasing severity of depression.[166] The combination of psychological therapy plus pharmacotherapy has demonstrated greater efficacy for this patient group than either treatment alone.[171] [172] [173] [174] The World Health Organization (WHO) recommends psychological interventions whenever possible for all adults with moderate-to-severe depression, either with or without pharmacotherapy.[198] Although monotherapy with a psychological therapy is one potential option as endorsed by some treatment guidelines, the author notes that evidence to support this approach is limited.[165] [197] [198] [199] In the absence of definitive evidence supporting this approach, clinicians should consider patient preferences or other individual factors when deciding whether to offer psychological therapy alone to people with more severe depression. A stepped care model may be considered, whereby those who do not respond adequately to psychological treatment alone are offered timely add-on pharmacological treatment.[198]

Regardless of treatment type, close follow-up and at minimum supportive or educational interventions during the onset of treatment can improve treatment adherence and may also reduce the risk of self-injury or suicide that can emerge in the very early phases of recovery, when energy and arousal have increased but mood remains depressed.

Antidepressants for more severe depression

Antidepressants are more efficacious than placebo in patients with moderate or severe depression.[200] [201]

Choice of antidepressant

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our</u>). © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved. The main antidepressant options include:

- Selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) (e.g., citalopram, escitalopram, fluoxetine, paroxetine, sertraline)
- Serotonin-noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) (e.g., desvenlafaxine, duloxetine, levomilnacipran, venlafaxine)
- Bupropion (a dopamine-reuptake inhibitor)
- Mirtazapine (a 5-HT2 receptor antagonist)
- Vilazodone (an SSRI and partial 5-HT1A receptor agonist)
- · Vortioxetine (a serotonin-reuptake inhibitor with serotonin receptor modulation properties)
- · Agomelatine (a melatonin receptor agonist and 5-HT2c receptor antagonist
- Reboxetine (a noradrenaline-reuptake inhibitor)

No consistent differences in safety or efficacy have been demonstrated between antidepressants.[202] [203] While a few meta-analyses of comparative treatment efficacy have favoured one drug over others, by and large they are comparable in efficacy.[204] [205]

US guidance recommends that initial pharmacological treatment should be with a second-generation antidepressant (e.g., SSRI, SNRI, bupropion, mirtazapine, vilazodone, vortioxetine).[197] UK guidance recommends offering an SSRI as first-line treatment for most people with depression for whom pharmacological treatment is suitable.[165] Later-line options recommended by NICE include an SNRI or (in secondary-care only) a tricyclic antidepressant or a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI).[165] According to UK guidance, clinicians should only consider prescribing vortioxetine when there has been no or limited response to at least 2 previous antidepressants.[165]

Choice of drug should be based on patient preference, tolerability, safety in overdose, presence of other psychiatric illness, and past evidence of effectiveness in the patient.[181]

Determine antidepressant dose based on the known target dose range. Within the recommended ranges for several commonly used second-generation antidepressants (SSRIs, venlafaxine, and mirtazapine) it has been shown that across a population, the correlation between dose and efficacy flattens or declines at around the midpoint, in part because of diminished tolerability at higher doses.[206] High-dose SSRI treatment for depression in patients refractory to medium-dose treatment is not supported by evidence and is not recommended.[207] [208] [209]

Depressed patients with undiagnosed bipolar affective disorder may convert to frank mania if they receive antidepressants. Ask patients about a prior history of manic episodes (e.g., periods of days to weeks marked by unusually high energy, euphoria, insomnia, hyperactivity, or impaired judgement) before starting antidepressant therapy.

Antidepressants and suicide risk

Although the net result of antidepressant response is a significant reduction in suicidal ideation, there is some evidence of increased suicidal thoughts and behaviour in the first weeks of treatment, particularly in teenagers and young adults, and in those on relatively high starting doses.[210][211] [212] [213] This association is not necessarily causal and may instead be attributable to confounding factors.[214] The results of one large meta-analysis suggest that in adults under the age of 25 years, the risk of both emergence and worsening of suicidality may be raised in weeks 3-6 of treatment (but not in weeks 1-2).[215] Close monitoring and suicide risk mitigation is recommended when prescribing an

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved. antidepressant to a person under the age of 25 years, or to anybody thought to be at increased risk for suicide.[165]

Assessing antidepressant response

Follow up patients 1-2 weeks after initiating therapy, then monthly for the next 12 weeks. The Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) may be used to assess changes in symptom severity. Titrate the antidepressant dose to the maximum tolerated in patients who experience a partial response after 2-4 weeks. Patients may begin to show a response within the first 1-2 weeks of treatment; however, one fifth of those who have not previously responded may begin to respond after week 5.[216] Successful antidepressant therapy to the point of remission of all symptoms may be expected to take 6-8 weeks. A 50% decrease in symptom score constitutes an adequate response, and a 25% to 50% change in symptom score may indicate the need to modify treatment.

Psychological treatments for more severe depression

Psychological treatments may be delivered via different methods and settings, and may include individual, group, or virtual sessions. No clear differences in efficacy have been found among different types of psychological therapies used for depression.[217] Published treatment guidelines recommend a range of psychological therapies as first-line options more more severe depression, including cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT), behavioural activation, short-term psychodynamic therapy, interpersonal psychotherapy, and problem-solving therapy.[165] [218] However guidance from the American College of Physicians only recommends CBT, citing insufficient evidence to support other types of psychological therapies.[197]

CBT has shown greater efficacy than pharmacological placebo across levels of severity.[219] Treatment response to CBT is comparable with antidepressant response in some studies.[170] [Evidence B] CBT has an enduring effect that reduces subsequent risk after treatment ends.[175] Adjunctive CBT has also been found to improve outcomes for depression treatment in the primary care setting.[220]

Other psychological modalities for more severe depression include include the following.[165] [218]

- Interpersonal psychotherapy (IPT): requires the patient to have psychological insight.[221]
 Frequency for IPT is determined by the healthcare provider. The time to response is approximately 12 weeks. IPT may improve interpersonal functioning, and also appears effective for relapse prevention.[222]
- Problem-solving therapy (PST): focuses on training in adaptive problem-solving attitudes and skills.[223] [224] [225] Results from PST are comparable to those from CBT in primary care settings.[226]
- Behavioural activation: a less cerebral, more behavioural alternative to CBT. It actively promotes a
 return to functioning and has the advantage of not requiring doctoral-level therapists to administer
 it. A Cochrane review found it to be equally effective to CBT for adults with depression, albeit with a
 low level of certainty given the evidence available.[227]
- Short-term psychodynamic psychotherapy: may be useful for people with emotional and developmental difficulties in relationships contributing to their depression.[165] [228]

Less severe depression

'Less severe depression' has been defined by NICE in the UK as a Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) score of less than 16.[165] This category includes both subthreshold and mild symptoms. Patients

with less severe depression have low to moderate severity symptoms, partial impairment, no psychotic symptoms, no suicidal ideation, and no psychomotor retardation or agitation.

For people with subthreshold and mild symptoms, the prognosis is often good without the need for pharmacotherapy or formal psychological therapy.[176] [229] For people with less severe depression who do not want treatment, or who feel that their depressive symptoms are improving, an initial period of active monitoring may be appropriate, with review after 2-4 weeks, with advice given to seek medical input if symptoms worsen, and the option to consider treatment at any time if needed.[165] This approach may facilitate further assessment, monitoring and shared decision-making. Psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended for all people with depression of any severity. Psychoeducation alone can achieve remission for some people with less severe depression.[230]

For people with less severe depression who wish to consider treatment, guidelines typically recommend non-pharmacological therapies first line, based on the assessment that the risk:benefit ratio does not justify the use of pharmacotherapy for mild depression.[165] [197] Less intensive options such as guided self-help and group CBT or behavioural activation may be a reasonable initial option in this group.[165] However it is important to note that, as for all patients with depression, treatment is individualised, and there may be reasons to consider pharmacological treatment from the offset in this group in certain circumstances (e.g., when there is a history of severe depression, where there is a lack of access to psychological treatment, when the patient has a preference for pharmacotherapy, or when there is a history of a previous positive treatment response to pharmacotherapy).

Combination psychological therapy and pharmacotherapy offers no demonstrated short-term advantage in this group. However, continued psychological therapy with antidepressant management is an effective option when continued through both acute and ongoing phases of treatment.[173]

The initial choice of therapy should be guided by patient preference. Options include:

- Supportive interventions: self-help books, yoga, relaxation training, light therapy, exercise, tai chi, music therapy, and acupuncture[231] [232][233] [234][235][236] [237] [238] [239] [240] [241] [242]
- Computer-based treatment: CBT, PST, and stress management.[243] [244] [245] [246] [247] [248]
 [249] [250]
- Antidepressant treatment

• Psychological therapy: CBT, IPT, PST, or a mindfulness-based intervention[251] [252] [253] Supportive interventions

- For some people who have milder symptoms, the degree of impairment or distress from these symptoms might not outweigh the stigma the person attaches to accepting any form of psychiatric treatment; for these people a focus directly on symptom management may be the optimal strategy.[254]
- Self-help books are popular and may have long-term benefits for some patients.[231]
- Yoga may have a beneficial effect on depressive disorders, but there are significant variations in interventions, reporting, and feasibility.[255]
- Other supportive interventions include relaxation training, light therapy, exercise, tai chi, music therapy, and acupuncture.[232] [233] [234] [235] [236][237] [238] [239] [240] [241] [242] [256] [257] [258][259] In people with depression, higher remission rates were observed in a higher-dose exercise group plus continuation of SSRI treatment compared with low-dose exercise plus SSRIs.[238] Conversely, cessation of exercise may worsen depressive symptoms.[260] [261] Computer-based treatment

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

- Internet- and mobile-based interventions are a promising and rapidly emerging development, and demonstrate efficacy. Digital interventions have the potential to widen access to evidence-based care for depression by reaching underserved populations, and may also increase the quality of care by augmenting face-to-face treatment. They may facilitate collaborative care, and shared decisionmaking.[243] [244] [245] [246] [247] [248] [249][250]
- They may be useful for people who cannot access or afford or schedule individual or group face-toface CBT.
- The evidence is greatest for internet CBT (iCBT), and suggests that guided iCBT (iCBT supported by human guidance) is as effective as face-to-face CBT.[262] [263] Unguided CBT also demonstrates efficacy, but with smaller treatment effect sizes.[244] There may be an increasing role for other types of self-help and self-guided interventions such as behavioural activation strategies, particularly for those with less severe symptoms of depression.[250] [264] [265][266]
- Smartphone-based iCBT and novel app-based approaches are increasingly popular with patients; evidence of efficacy has not been established, although preliminary evidence as to their feasibility and efficacy looks promising.[267]
- Several key barriers to digital interventions have been noted, including concerns about reduced access to care for people with lower levels of digital literacy, which may include older people. There is evidence to suggest that patients with a lower educational level may be at increased risk of symptom deterioration with internet-based guided-self-help than patients with higher education.[268]

Psychological therapy

- Psychological therapy (CBT, IPT, or PST) is also considered a first-line option in less severe depression. Psychological therapy appears to have a positive impact on the quality of life of people with depression, beyond measurable reductions in depressive symptom severity.[269] As a general guide, the psychological interventions listed above in the section on 'more severe depression' are also suitable for people with 'less severe depression'.[165] UK-based guidance from NICE also lists mindfulness-based therapy as a potential additional option in this group.[165] [270]
- Less severe depression treated with psychological therapy may be less likely to progress to more severe depression.[271]

Antidepressant treatment

- The routine use of antidepressants for patients with mild depression has been questioned based on weaker evidence for efficacy in people with milder symptomatology.[272] Some analyses have not consistently determined that mild depression responds less well to antidepressants than severe depression, although the evidence on this is mixed overall; other studies suggest an increasing magnitude of benefit of antidepressants with higher levels of depressive symptomatology.[166]
 [273] [274] [275][276]
- In the absence of definitive evidence, clinicians should therefore be guided by patient preference or other patient-specific factors in deciding whether to offer pharmacotherapy for less severe depression.
- If antidepressants are used, follow the same principles as for more severe depression (above).

Depression unresponsive to initial therapy

Regardless of depression severity, if the response to first-line therapy is inadequate, initial steps include reassessing the diagnosis, evaluating comorbidities, and exploring adherence to treatment.[277]

For those receiving antidepressants, continue treatment if there has been some improvement for at least the full 6-8 weeks. If the response is still incomplete, and if the drug is well-tolerated, and not already above the threshold of safe dose, consider increasing the dose. But do not continue prescribing a drug providing inadequate benefit indefinitely. Of note, in patients with no initial improvement to treatment with fluoxetine, one study showed the likelihood of converting to a positive response decreased the longer patients remained unimproved.[278]

Augmentation with psychological therapy is a good option to consider if there is a partial improvement with first-line pharmacotherapy, given that the evidence suggests that combined therapy works better than either treatment alone, with a synergistic effect of using both.[173] [174] [197] Switching from pharmacotherapy to a psychological therapy may be another reasonable option to consider, particularly for those with less severe depression (e.g., if the patient expresses this as a preference and can access CBT).[197]

Another option to consider if an antidepressant has been prescribed is switching to an alternative antidepressant.[279] [280] Switching may be appropriate if no improvement in symptoms has occurred within the first 2 weeks of treatment; however, be aware that early response may be, but is not necessarily, a reliable indicator of continued response.[281] [282] [283] [284]

Switching between antidepressants within a class may be considered initially (e.g., from one SSRI to another SSRI).[181] Next consider a change in drug class; for example, if a patient was on an SSRI, then consider an SNRI.[181] If treatment was not tolerated due to adverse effects, retry with an agent with fewer or different adverse effects. If an agent is switched, resume weekly follow-up until a response is apparent.

Caution is required when switching from one antidepressant to another due to the risk of drug interactions, serotonin syndrome, withdrawal symptoms, or relapse.

The timeframe required for safely switching depends on various factors including the pharmacokinetic properties of the drugs and possible interactions between them, as well as patient characteristics such as age, sensitivity to adverse effects, and the capacity to wait to begin a new course of treatment. In some situations, it is possible to give both drugs for a short period of time while the changeover is occurring; however, this should only be done under specialist guidance. In other cases, it is safer to take a more conservative approach. This involves slowly tapering the dose of the first drug before stopping it, and then waiting a period of time before starting the second drug (known as a washout period, which is usually five half-lives of the first drug). Drugs with longer half-lives (e.g., fluoxetine) require longer washout periods (e.g., up to 5-6 weeks) when combined with a drug with which the combination is contraindicated (e.g., monoamine oxidase inhibitors with fluoxetine). Specific recommendations for switching from one antidepressant to another, along with suitable washout periods, are available and local guidance should be consulted. When in doubt, in the absence of such guidelines, as a general principle perform a drug interaction check to be sure there are no absolute contraindications, and then 'start low and go slow' until safety can be ascertained.

If there is an inadequate response to two (or more) full-dose and duration antidepressants, the patient's depression might be considered treatment-resistant or treatment-refractory, and warrants a more complex approach, as outlined in the 'Treatment-resistant/refractory depression' section.

Treatment-resistant/refractory depression

Evidence to guide treatment decisions when people with depression do not respond to initial treatments is very limited.[285] [286] The majority of patients with depression do not reach full remission after their first antidepressant trial, but a substantial proportion of those will respond to a second or third antidepressant.[280] The terms 'treatment-refractory' or 'treatment-resistant' depression have been used variously, and somewhat inconsistently, to denote depressive illness that has not remitted after two antidepressant trials of adequate dose and duration.[287] [288] An alternative term has been proposed to emphasise less the binary response of remission or non-remission and more the common scenario of partial, or inconsistent, treatment response: 'difficult-to-treat depression'.[289] Regardless of the terminology, guidelines typically suggest that clinicians working in primary care should request input from a psychiatrist after two unsuccessful treatment interventions; however, in practice this may need to be balanced against barriers to referral such as lack of specialist access.[182][290] Comorbid medical conditions, and psychosocial factors such as temperamental vulnerabilities, behaviour patterns, and life circumstances, may all make depression more difficult to treat.

New symptoms, attributed to medication side effects, commonly interrupt pharmacotherapy attempts; however, somatic symptoms are a common correlate of depressive disorder. Many perceived medication side effects, such as cognitive impairment, weight gain, and headache, occur just as frequently in study patients taking placebo.[291]

Reassessment

Reassessment can be useful after an apparently failed course of treatment, because some of the residual symptoms of depression (e.g., social avoidance, sleep/wake reversal, feelings of hopelessness) can reflect behavioural adaptations to depression, rather than depression itself. In such cases, symptoms may best be ameliorated through behavioural intervention or psychological therapy rather than a new medication trial. Cognitive deficits after remission of symptoms are common.[292] These may warrant monitoring and, if appropriate, the patient may benefit from reassurance that there may be continued improvement over time.

With intermittent, brief follow-up visits it is also easy to miss mood-cycling that may occur between sessions that would indicate a bipolar spectrum disorder rather than pure major depression.

Psychological treatment

• Check and ensure that the patient has started psychological therapy if multiple pharmacological agents have been unsuccessful; in particular, CBT appears to be effective at reducing symptoms in treatment-resistant depression with long-lasting results (up to at least 1 year).[293]

Antidepressant treatment

- Switching antidepressants: assuming major depressive disorder continues to be the most salient clinical problem, alternative options for treatment-resistant/refractory depression within the antidepressant class include monotherapy with a third (or fourth or fifth) SSRI, SNRI, or an atypical agent (e.g., bupropion, mirtazapine, vilazodone, vortioxetine). One caveat about this approach, however, is that there are little high-quality clinical trials data to support switching antidepressants as opposed to continuing with the first (and raising the dose or trying augmentation strategies).[285]
- Combining antidepressants: the process of switching antidepressants, if undertaken, provides a window of opportunity for combined antidepressant therapy (i.e., an SSRI or SNRI plus bupropion

or mirtazapine) while crossing over from one to the other. However, there are little data to support the efficacy of antidepressant combinations.[294] [295] [296] [297] One notable exception to these observations is an apparently synergistic effect when the second antidepressant adds presynaptic alpha-2 receptor antagonism (e.g., mirtazapine, trazodone); however, as in other combination strategies, patient retention in treatment drops when additional drugs are added.[298] A specialist may prescribe two (or in rare cases more) antidepressants as a way of making optimal use of adverse effects (e.g., adding mirtazapine to an SNRI to facilitate sleep, or bupropion to an SSRI to try to improve sexual functioning). There is some evidence that failure on one or several antidepressants does not preclude later success.[279] [280] Although the general rule of thumb is to give antidepressants for at least 6-8 weeks, if there is no improvement at all in the first 2 weeks, switching may be appropriate at that point.[282]

- Choice of alternative antidepressants: when selecting a third (or fourth or fifth) medication to switch to, consider not only another SSRI, SNRI, or atypical agent (e.g., bupropion, mirtazapine), but also a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) (e.g., amitriptyline, desipramine, doxepin, imipramine, or nortriptyline). Historically the first-line pharmacotherapy for depression, TCAs have fallen somewhat out of favour because of their adverse effects, the need for gradual dose increases, and their potential lethality in overdose. However, they remain effective and useful for many patients. Dose TCAs according to therapeutic blood monitoring. For most TCAs there is a minimum therapeutic level; for nortriptyline, uniquely, there is a therapeutic window delineating a range of effective levels. UK guidance states that TCAs should only be prescribed for depression by a specialist clinician (e.g., psychiatrist) working in secondary care.[165]
- Monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs): in cases where nothing else has worked and the patient can tolerate a washout period from their current antidepressant, an MAOI (e.g., isocarboxazid, phenelzine, selegiline, tranylcypromine) can be uniquely effective, even though it is associated with a more severe adverse effect profile and recommended only when other options prove ineffective.[299] [300] The washout period depends on the half-life of the antidepressant the patient is currently on and can range from 1-5 weeks. Do not use an MAOI without consulting a psychiatrist first.[165]
- Lithium augmentation: some studies show that combinations of antidepressants with other classes
 of medication are better than just a combination of different antidepressants alone.[301] In patients
 who have not responded to conventional antidepressants, lithium augmentation is an evidencebased approach.[302] [303] Lithium augmentation is initiated by a psychiatrist because of its narrow
 therapeutic index and risks of inadvertent toxicity from excessive dosing and drug-drug interactions.
- Antipsychotic augmentation: augmentation with some agents is becoming more common practice and may improve outcomes, including in older adults.[303] [304] [305] [306] However, intolerability and treatment discontinuation are more common with the majority of adjunctive antipsychotics compared to with placebo.[307] One cohort study reported increased mortality risk in patients receiving augmentation with an antipsychotic for depression compared with patients receiving augmentation with a second antidepressant.[308] It is unclear whether this is a pharmacological effect of antipsychotics or a reflection of the likelihood that antipsychotics tend to be prescribed to patients who are at higher risk for mortality for other reasons. Because of this potential risk, augmentation with an antipsychotic for treatment-resistant depression should typically be overseen by a psychiatrist who can determine the clinical necessity of choosing it over other strategies. Evidence better supports short-term versus long-term use of adjunctive antipsychotics.[309] Longterm use exposes patients to common antipsychotic side effects such as weight gain, akathisia, and, rarely, tardive dyskinesia. This concern applies as well to new agents such as brexpiprazole, which are similar to antipsychotics structurally but are marketed specifically for use in treatment-

resistant depression. Although deemed effective (in a small number of studies), the side effects are similar to other antipsychotics, and so it is important to consider whether benefits outweigh risks in people without psychosis.[310] [311] [312] [313] [314] [315]

- Esketamine nasal spray: may be considered by a consultant either as monotherapy or as an augmentation strategy (to be used with an oral antidepressant) for treatment-resistant depression. Although esketamine is being used more frequently in clinical practice, questions remain about which patients respond best to it, how long therapeutical effects might persist, and over what duration to continue treatment. While no longer considered a last-resort treatment, esketamine is not a first- or second-line treatment. A key practical consideration is the logistical and occupational commitments required of patients; for example, the need to take time away from work and to arrange necessary transport and support. Availability of esketamine varies according to country of practice and relevant regulatory approval. In the US, the drug is only available through a restricted distribution programme. The drug must be self-administered by the patient, who is supervised by a health care provider in a certified medical office, and the patient monitored for at least 2 hours because of the risk of sedation, respiratory depression, difficulty with attention, judgement and thinking (dissociation), suicidal thoughts and behaviours, and the potential for drug misuse. Be aware that patients with poorly controlled hypertension or pre-existing aneurysmal vascular disorders may be at increased risk for adverse cardiovascular or cerebrovascular effects. Esketamine is contraindicated in patients with aneurysmal vascular disease, arteriovenous malformation, or intracerebral haemorrhage. Use of esketamine nasal spray beyond 4 weeks is not currently supported by evidence, given that its effectiveness beyond 4 weeks has not yet been evaluated.
- Other augmentation strategies may be used by specialists (e.g., thyroid hormone, pindolol, and modafinil, as well as emerging treatments such as ketamine and transcranial magnetic stimulation).[316] [317] [318]

ECT

 When depression is severe enough to cause danger, significant distress, or functional impairment, the superior efficacy of ECT makes it a reliable and reasonable rescue treatment. The transient impact on memory and cognition, which may reduce functioning during active treatment, make ECT less desirable for patients with milder depression. It is important to remember that the effects of ECT generally last only a few weeks, so pharmacotherapy is necessary to sustain its effects or act as maintenance therapy. Combined with antidepressants, lithium has been shown to reduce the risk for relapse post-ECT.[319]

Duration of pharmacological treatment

Duration of antidepressant treatment following the remission of symptoms depends on the prior course of illness. Data on treatment outcomes beyond the initial weeks of treatment are limited, although one systematic review suggests that the efficacy of antidepressants compared with placebo is stable over at least the first 6 months of treatment.[320] In general, there appears to be a reduced risk of relapse when antidepressants are continued for 6 months or over.[321] [322] [323]

Based on this, it is advisable to continue successful antidepressant treatment for at least 6-12 months following remission.[165] [322]

For people prescribed an antipsychotic for depression with psychotic symptoms, UK guidance recommends continuing antipsychotic treatment for a number of months after remission, if tolerated.

NICE recommends that the decision about if and when to stop an antipsychotic should be made by, or in consultation with, specialist psychiatric services.[165]

Discontinuation of antidepressant treatment has consistently been associated with a greater risk of relapse than does continuing treatment, and is therefore a complex clinical decision.[324] [325] [326] While the risk of relapse over a population of patients increases off treatment, a substantial proportion of patients may stop antidepressants without consequence.[327] For some people at increased risk of relapse, continuation of treatment beyond this period may be considered. Shared decision-making is recommended. See Maintenance treatment and relapse prevention.

Discontinuation of medication for depression

The most immediate concern when removing a patient from antidepressant treatment is the possibility of rapid relapse, if in fact the antidepressant was still serving its purpose. Beyond that, some antidepressants, particularly those in the SSRI or SNRI classes, are associated with a 'discontinuation syndrome'. Typical are flu-like symptoms, hyperarousal, insomnia, vertigo, and sensory disturbances (e.g., 'brain zaps'). Patients will often know how vulnerable they are to these symptoms, if they have ever skipped a dose or run out of their medication. Clinicians should slowly decrease the dose to reduce the risk of unpleasant discontinuation symptoms; this can usually be done over several weeks, but in some cases may take several months or longer in particularly susceptible patients. [324] [328] Drugs with shorter half-lives (e.g., paroxetine, venlafaxine) may require longer periods of taper.[329] A proportionate method of tapering is recommended by some treatment guidelines; this involves reductions as a proportion of the previous dose (e.g., 25%) rather than reducing the dose by a fixed increment each time.[165] If the required dose is not available in tablet form, a liquid preparation may be required (if available). Be aware that people's experiences of discontinuation symptoms can vary substantially from mild and transient to longer-lasting and more severe. Anticipatory discussion with the patient is important, including when and how to seek support from a healthcare professional in the event of such symptoms.[329] Closely monitor the patient to ensure that any apparent emerging discontinuation symptoms do not in fact represent a relapse of their depression.[272] [330]

UK guidance advises that antipsychotics for psychotic depression should only be stopped in specialist mental health services, or following specialist mental health advice. When stopping an antipsychotic, reduce the dose gradually over at least 4 weeks, and in proportion to the length of treatment.[165]

Maintenance treatment and relapse prevention

For patients established on antidepressants, regularly review their antidepressant use to assess efficacy and the presence of any adverse effects, and to ensure that long-term use remains clinically indicated.[272]

Shared decision-making is recommended; options for those already taking an antidepressant who have achieved full or partial remission are:[165]

- · Continuing antidepressant treatment
- · Switching to a psychological treatment for relapse prevention
- Continuing with the same antidepressant and adding on a psychological treatment for relapse prevention.

Maintenance on antidepressants following remission does not guarantee protection from relapse, but there is evidence of at least a modest benefit.[331]

The World Federation of Societies of Biological Psychiatry (WFSBP) supports the use of maintenance treatment for recurrent depression in some circumstances; WFSBP recommends maintenance treatment for 5-10 years, or indefinitely, for those people at greater risk of recurrent depression, particularly when two or three attempts to withdraw pharmacotherapy have been followed by another episode within a year.[332]

The selection and success of treatment for relapse prevention depends on the type and severity of depressive symptoms, but most often relies on trial and error.

There is a growing body of evidence supporting the use of psychological therapy for prevention of relapse and recurrence, both when used alone and in combination with pharmacotherapy.[175] [333] Specific modalities with demonstrated efficacy for relapse prevention include preventive CBT, mindfulnessbased CBT, and interpersonal therapy (IPT).[165] [334] Staged treatment trials suggest that CBT may be particularly beneficial when used during the continuation phase of treatment; CBT reduces the risk of relapse/recurrence at least as well as, and perhaps better than, antidepressant continuation.[335] [336] [337] In pooled clinical trials, mindfulness-based CBT was found to be particularly useful in relapse prevention.[338] There is evidence that switching in the maintenance phase from pharmacotherapy to psychotherapy can be at least as effective in preventing relapse as staying with pharmacotherapy.[333] [339] Psychological therapy in patients who suffer from recurrent episodes may be well aimed if it addresses the despair patients often feel when they see recovery as only a temporary respite from suffering, and if it educates patients about ways to cope with and possibly prevent recurrences.

Recurrent episodes

Recurrent episodes of major depression should be treated with the same antidepressant that previously induced remission, provided that the recurrences do not occur while under adequate maintenance treatment with such medication.

Pregnancy

Depression coinciding with pregnancy creates a significant clinical dilemma. On the one hand, the fetus is exposed to a potential for harm by the increased likelihood of maternal substance misuse, neglect of health, or suicide. On the other hand, all antidepressants cross the placental barrier, with the potential to cause iatrogenic harm to the fetus. Studies of the safety of antidepressant use in pregnancy for the most part add up to minimal risk to the fetus.[340] [341] There is little controlled trial evidence. Consistent data to support fully informed decision-making are lacking.

Obstetric risks of antidepressant use during pregnancy

Cohort studies have reported a small increased risk of pre-eclampsia, postnatal haemorrhage, and gestational diabetes in women who continue antidepressants throughout pregnancy.[342] [343] Based on mixed evidence for an increased risk of postnatal haemorrhage associated with antidepressants, the UK government has advised caution.[344]

Psychiatric risks of antidepressant discontinuation

Women who stop their antidepressant are more likely to have a relapse of depression during their pregnancy.[345] [346] UK national enquiry data show that in women in contact with UK psychiatric services, peinatal suicides are more likely to occur in those with a depression diagnosis and no active treatment at the time of death.[347]

Effects on the fetus and child

Depression itself may negatively affect fetal development (e.g., causing hyperactivity and irregular fetal heart rate), increase infants' cortisol levels, impact on infant temperament, and influence behaviour in later childhood and adolescence.[348]

For infants exposed to antidepressants during pregnancy, evidence as to whether there is an increased risk of preterm birth and low birth weight compared to infants of mothers with untreated depression is mixed.[343] [349] [350] [351] [352] [353] [354]

Transient irritability and other symptoms reminiscent of antidepressant discontinuation syndromes affect a substantial proportion of neonates exposed to antidepressants in utero up to the time of delivery.[355]

There is a small increased risk of persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn with maternal SSRI and SNRI use in any trimester (number needed to harm = 100).[356] [357]

Recommendations for management

Clinicians and patients should carefully discuss the risks of remaining on antidepressant treatment during pregnancy, against the risks of stopping or avoiding antidepressants and exposing the fetus to the harmful effects of prepartum depression. In the US, such discussions are frequently carried out by the patient's obstetrician; obstetricians in the US may seek further consultant treatment advice from Perinatal Psychiatry Access Programs where available.[358] In other locations (e.g., the UK) clinicians should consult a consultant with experience in perinatal mental health as part of this process. The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG) recommends that if pharmacological treatment is required for perinatal depression, SSRIs may be used as first-line pharmacotherapy, and SNRIs are reasonable alternatives.[358] Despite the lack of consistent evidence of harmful effects of antidepressants to fetal and infant health and development, caution is required.

Some classes of antidepressants, such as TCAs and MAOIs, are not routinely used for depression in pregnancy, owing to concerns about potential risks to the mother and baby.[358] Esketamine nasal spray is a relatively new drug and is not recommended in pregnancy, as studies involving pregnant animals treated with ketamine indicate that esketamine may cause harm to the fetus when used during pregnancy.

Updated information about potential harms from antidepressants and other pharmaceuticals can be found at various resources. [UK Teratology Information Service] (http://www.uktis.org)

Severity of depressive symptoms may influence treatment choice. For women with very severe major depression in pregnancy, ECT may be the treatment of choice as it does not expose the fetus to any known risk.[359] [360] For more severe depression, the risk to the fetus from the potentially harmful effects of the mother's untreated depression on her health might outweigh any detectable risk to the fetus from antidepressants.[340] [341] [361] Where the maternal and fetal risk of untreated depression is low, as in mild to moderate depression, the risk/benefit balance may tip in favour of non-pharmacological therapies, as reflected in several treatment guidelines worldwide.[358] [362]

Psychological treatments have essentially no risk of side effects and may be offered as one first-line option for depression occurring in pregnancy, particularly for those with less severe depression.[358] CBT is associated with a moderate treatment effect for major depressive disorder during pregnancy. Interpersonal psychotherapy also appears to have a treatment effect, but to a lesser extent than CBT.[363] [364]

It is important to consider and address any coexisting psychosocial problems, such as intimate partner violence.

Postnatal depression

See Postnatal depression .

Older adults with depression (age >65 years)

The treatment of depression in older adults is broadly similar to that in younger adult patients, and antidepressants are an effective treatment for depression in this group.[11] Collaborative care models may be particularly useful for this patient group.[365] [366] There is evidence of efficacy for psychological treatments for older people with depression, including older adults residing in long-term care settings, although the evidence is uncertain.[367] Suicide risk mitigation is an important consideration, given the relatively higher rates of suicidal ideation in this age-group.[368]

Caution is required when prescribing for older patients with depression (as with any pharmacological treatment in older people) due to an increased risk of side effects and increased use of concurrent medication in this population. Clinicians should typically start at the lowest dose and titrate up slowly when prescribing any drug treatment in older adults, and be aware of potential drug interactions. However, if older adults are unresponsive to a low dose of antidepressants, a higher dose may be required; many older patients ultimately require the same doses of antidepressant that are used for younger adults.

The Screening Tool of Older Persons Prescriptions and Screening Tool to Alert doctors to Right Treatment (STOPP/START) criteria is a reliable screening tool enabling prescribers to avoid potentially inappropriate treatment (and under-treatment) in adults over the age of 65 years.[11] [STOPP-START] (https://www.cgakit.com/m-2-stopp-start)

ECT may be a suitable treatment for older patients with severe depression and avoids complications arising from drug-related adverse effects.[178]

Comorbidities

Antidepressants may be effective in reducing depression and alcohol consumption in patients with comorbid depression and alcohol dependence.[369] Antidepressant use in depressed patients who are on opioid agonist therapy is not well supported.[370] Available evidence on the use of antidepressants with depression comorbid with dementia is poor, suggesting their potential value may be outweighed in many cases by the potential for adverse effects.[371] There is some evidence for CBT-based treatments added to usual care in this patient group.[372] Evidence from one Cochrane review concluded that CBT-based treatments added to usual care probably have a small positive effect on symptoms of depression and quality of life when added to usual care for people with dementia and mild cognitive impairment.[372] One large-scale meta-analysis concluded that psychological interventions may be superior to pharmacological treatment in patients with dementia.[373] Evidence is also low quality, but more favourable, for antidepressants in patients with depression and HIV infection.[374] Support for antidepressants for depression comorbid with cancer is mixed.[155] [375] Non-pharmacological approaches for the management of depressive symptoms both during and after cancer treatment (e.g., mindfulness-based interventions, yoga, music therapy, relaxation, reflexology and tai chi, and/or qigong) have been recommended according to integrative oncology treatment guidelines.[376]

Treatment algorithm overview

Please note that formulations/routes and doses may differ between drug names and brands, drug formularies, or locations. Treatment recommendations are specific to patient groups: see disclaimer

Acute		(summary)
at risk of harm to self or others (psychotic, suicidal, severe psychomotor retardation impeding activities of daily living, catatonia, or severe agitation): non-pregnant		
	1st	urgent psychiatric referral ± hospitalisation
	plus	antidepressant
	adjunct	immediate symptom management with benzodiazepine ± antipsychotic
	adjunct	esketamine nasal spray
	adjunct	electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)
	2nd	increase dose or switch to alternative antidepressant
at risk of harm to self or others (psychotic, suicidal, severe psychomotor retardation impeding activities of daily living, catatonia, or severe agitation): pregnant		
	1st	urgent psychiatric referral ± hospitalisation (with psychiatric and obstetric involvement)
more severe depression (PHQ score ≥16): non-pregnant		
	1st	antidepressant and/or psychological therapy
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
	adjunct	immediate symptom management with benzodiazepine ± antipsychotic
	adjunct	esketamine nasal spray
	adjunct	electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)
	2nd	increase antidepressant dose or switch to alternative treatment or combination therapy
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
	adjunct	esketamine nasal spray
	adjunct	electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)

MANAGEMENT

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> Use of this content is subject to our). © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

Depression in adults

Management

Acute		(summary)
less severe depression (PHQ <16): non-pregnant		
	1st	active monitoring
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
	1st	supportive interventions
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
	1st	computer-based interventions
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
	1st	psychological therapy
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
	1st	antidepressant
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
	2nd	increase antidepressant dose or switch to alternative treatment
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
treatment-resistant/refractory depression		
	1st	reassess and switch to alternative antidepressant or combination therapy
	plus	consider augmentation pharmacotherapy
	nlus	nsychological therapy or other non-

treatment-resistant/refractory depression		
	1st	reassess and switch to alternative antidepressant or combination therapy
	plus	consider augmentation pharmacotherapy
	plus	psychological therapy or other non- pharmacological treatment
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
	2nd	electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)
	plus	psychological therapy or other non- pharmacological treatment
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
pregnant		
	1st	active monitoring and/or antidepressant and/or electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)
	plus	psychological therapy
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

MANAGEMENT

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> Use of this content is subject to our). © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

Management

Ongoing		(summary)
treatment responsive		
	1st	maintenance antidepressant and/or psychological therapy
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice
recurrent episode		
	1st	repeat of remission-inducing regimen or long-term therapy
	plus	psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

44

Treatment algorithm

Please note that formulations/routes and doses may differ between drug names and brands, drug formularies, or locations. Treatment recommendations are specific to patient groups: <u>see disclaimer</u>

Acute

at risk of harm to self or others (psychotic, suicidal, severe psychomotor retardation impeding activities of daily living, catatonia, or severe agitation): non-pregnant

1st

urgent psychiatric referral ± hospitalisation

» These people are at increased risk for suicide, impulsive and potentially self-destructive behaviour, and health complications due to poor self-care and immobility.

» Refer urgently to a psychiatrist. Suicide risk mitigation is critical. Consider hospitalisation for people: with significant suicidal ideation or intent who lack adequate safeguards in their family environment; with intent to hurt others; who are unable to care for themselves and adhere to their treatment; who have psychotic symptoms, or uncontrolled agitation accompanied by the risk of impulsive behaviour.[165] [181] [182] If the individual is unwilling to be hospitalised, engage family support and, if necessary, exercise legal means to compel treatment.

» Specialist referral, hospitalisation, constant observation, tranquilisation, and/or electroconvulsive therapy may be required to ensure safety until definitive antidepressant therapy can take effect.

» People with agitation require high levels of care because of their enhanced emotional distress and the risk of impulsive violence. Severe impairment of the activities of daily living due to catatonia or psychomotor retardation increases the severity of depression, as people who are inert and bedbound, or not taking adequate sustenance, run the risk of a deterioration in health while awaiting a response to pharmacotherapy. These people may require supportive nursing care.

plus antidepressant

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

Primary options

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved. MANAGEMENT

» citalopram: 20 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 40 mg/day

OR

» escitalopram: 10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 20 mg/day

OR

» fluoxetine: 20 mg orally (immediaterelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 80 mg/day; doses >20 mg/day may be given in 2 divided doses

A delayed-release, once-weekly formulation is available for maintenance therapy.

OR

» paroxetine: 20 mg orally (immediaterelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 50 mg/ day; 25 mg orally (controlled-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 62.5 mg/day

OR

» sertraline: 50 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 200 mg/day

OR

» desvenlafaxine: 50 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 400 mg/day; doses >50 mg/day have not shown additional benefit

OR

» duloxetine: 40-60 mg/day orally initially given in 1-2 divided doses, increase gradually according to response, maximum 120 mg/ day; doses >60 mg/day have not shown additional benefit

OR

» levomilnacipran: 20 mg orally once daily initially for 2 days, increase to 40 mg once

MANAGEMENT

daily, then increase gradually according to response, maximum 120 mg/day

OR

» venlafaxine: 75 mg/day orally (immediaterelease) initially given in 2-3 divided doses, increase gradually according to response, maximum 225 mg/day; 75 mg orally (extended-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 225 mg/day

OR

» bupropion: 100 mg orally (immediaterelease) twice daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 450 mg/day given in 2-3 divided doses; 150 mg orally (sustained-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 400 mg/day given in 2 divided doses; 150 mg orally (extendedrelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 450 mg/day

OR

» mirtazapine: 15 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 45 mg/day

OR

» vilazodone: 10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 40 mg/day

OR

» vortioxetine: 5-10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 20 mg/day

» Antidepressant therapy is usually the firstline option in most patients. Electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) is the first-line treatment in some people with severe depression, but when immediate ECT is either not indicated or not an option, antidepressant pharmacotherapy is crucial.

» US guidance recommends that initial pharmacological treatment should be with a second-generation antidepressant. This may include a selective serotonin-reuptake

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our</u>). © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

inhibitor (SSRI; e.g., citalopram, escitalopram, fluoxetine, paroxetine, sertraline); a serotoninnoradrenaline reuptake inhibitor (SNRIs; e.g., desvenlafaxine, duloxetine, levomilnacipran, venlafaxine); bupropion (a dopamine-reuptake inhibitor); mirtazapine (a 5-HT2 receptor antagonist); vilazodone (an SSRI and partial 5-HT1A receptor agonist); vortioxetine (a serotonin-reuptake inhibitor with serotonin receptor modulation properties).[197] UK guidance recommends offering an SSRI as first-line treatment for most people with depression for whom pharmacological treatment is suitable.[165] SNRIs are recommended by NICE as a later-line option.[165] According to UK guidance, clinicians should only consider prescribing vortioxetine when there has been no or limited response to at least 2 previous antidepressants.[165]

» No consistent differences in safety or efficacy have been demonstrated between antidepressants.[202] [203] While a few metaanalyses of comparative treatment efficacy have favoured one drug over others, by and large they are comparable in efficacy.[204] [205]

» Choice of drug should be based on patient preference, tolerability, and past evidence of effectiveness in the patient.[181]

» Depressed patients with undiagnosed bipolar affective disorder may convert to frank mania if they receive antidepressants. Ask patients about a prior history of manic episodes (e.g., periods of days to weeks marked by unusually high energy, euphoria, insomnia, hyperactivity, or impaired judgment) before starting antidepressant therapy.

» There is some evidence of increased suicidal thoughts and behaviour in the first weeks of treatment, particularly in teenagers and young adults, and in those on relatively high starting doses.[210] [211] [212] [213] This association is not necessarily causal and may instead be attributable to confounding factors.[214] Close monitoring and risk management is recommended when prescribing an antidepressant to a person under the age of 25 years, or to anybody thought to be at increased risk for suicide.[165]

» Follow up patients 1-2 weeks after initiating therapy, then monthly for the next 12 weeks. If you prefer systematic assessment, use the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) to assess changes in symptom severity. Titrate

48

the antidepressant dose to the maximum tolerated in patients who experience a partial response after 2-4 weeks. Patients may begin to show a response within the first 1-2 weeks of treatment; however, one fifth of those who have not previously responded may begin to respond after week 5.[216] Successful antidepressant therapy to the point of remission of all symptoms may be expected to take 6-8 weeks. A 50% decrease in symptom score constitutes an adequate response, and a 25% to 50% change in symptom score may indicate the need to modify treatment.

» Continue successful antidepressant treatment for 6-12 months following remission, before considering discontinuation.[165] [322] However, some treatment guidelines recommend that patients with frequent recurrences and relapses, who respond successfully to antidepressant treatment, may require longer-term or indefinite pharmacological therapy, following shared decision-making.[332]

» The specific drug regimens listed are examples of commonly used regimens only. Consult local guidance for other examples and preferred options.

adjunct immediate symptom management with benzodiazepine ± antipsychotic

Treatment recommended for SOME patients in selected patient group

Primary options

» lorazepam: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» clonazepam: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» risperidone: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» olanzapine: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

» quetiapine: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» fluphenazine: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» trazodone: consult specialist for guidance on dose

» Emergency treatment of mood disorder symptoms aims to stabilise a situation that otherwise leaves the patient in danger from suicidal impulses or extreme self-neglect, and leaves third parties in danger due to unpredictable, impulsive, or aggressive behaviour. Short-term treatment with a benzodiazepine and/or antipsychotic may also bring immediate relief from insomnia, anxiety, agitation, and persistent ruminative thinking while waiting the expected several weeks for significant symptom remission from the antidepressant.[186]

» Because antipsychotics tend to have significant clinical effects more rapidly than antidepressants, the decision to employ one is more urgent than to use an antidepressant. Have a lower threshold for adding an antipsychotic to antidepressant treatment in patients with severe depression under several circumstances. Antidepressants alone may not effectively address psychotic symptoms, such as delusions or hallucinations.[184]

» People with catatonia can be treated with a benzodiazepine (e.g., lorazepam, clonazepam), sometimes in combination with an antipsychotic and ECT.[187] Patients with psychosis or severe agitation can be treated with an antipsychotic (e.g., risperidone, olanzapine, quetiapine, fluphenazine). Patients with mild agitation or severe anxiety can be treated with a benzodiazepine and/or an antipsychotic. Patients with insomnia can be treated with quetiapine or trazodone. Antipsychotics are more appropriate where there is risk of benzodiazepine dependence.

» Dose to effectiveness: if the benzodiazepine or antipsychotic fails to produce an effect and is tolerated, increase the dose with caution up to the recommended maximum. If it fails at the

50

maximum dose or leads to intolerable adverse effects at lower doses, switch to another agent.

» The specific drug regimens listed are examples of commonly used regimens only. Consult local guidance for other examples and preferred options.

adjunct esketamine nasal spray

Treatment recommended for SOME patients in selected patient group

Primary options

» esketamine nasal: (28 mg/device) 84 mg intranasally twice weekly for 4 weeks, may decrease dose to 56 mg twice weekly based on tolerability

Use in conjunction with an oral antidepressant for this indication. Evaluate benefit after 4 weeks before continuing treatment; use beyond 4 weeks has not been evaluated for this indication. Each device contains 2 sprays (1 spray for each nostril) and delivers a total of 28 mg per device. Use of 2 or 3 devices is required to achieve the recommended dose. A 5-minute rest between the use of devices is recommended.

» Esketamine (an active isomer of ketamine, an N-methyl-D-aspartate [NMDA] receptor antagonist) may be considered by a consultant for depression with acute suicidal ideation or behaviour, as an adjunct to an oral antidepressant.

 Although esketamine is being used more frequently in clinical practice, questions remain about which patients respond best to it, how long therapeutical effects might persist, and over what duration to continue treatment.
 While no longer considered a last resort treatment, esketamine is not a first- or secondline treatment.

» Availability of esketamine varies according to country of practice and relevant regulatory approval. In the US, the drug is only available through a restricted distribution programme.

» The drug must be self-administered by the patient, who is supervised by a health care provider in a certified medical office, and the patient monitored for at least 2 hours because of the risk of sedation, respiratory depression, difficulty with attention, judgement and thinking

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

(dissociation), suicidal thoughts and behaviours, and the potential for drug misuse. Monitor respiratory status and blood pressure during treatment.

» Be aware that patients with poorly controlled hypertension or pre-existing aneurysmal vascular disorders may be at increased risk for adverse cardiovascular or cerebrovascular effects. Esketamine is contraindicated in patients with aneurysmal vascular disease, arteriovenous malformation, or intracerebral haemorrhage.

» Use of esketamine nasal spray beyond 4 weeks is not currently supported by evidence, given that its effectiveness beyond 4 weeks has not yet been evaluated.

adjunct electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)

Treatment recommended for SOME patients in selected patient group

» In certain patients with severe depression who have psychotic features, active suicidal thoughts, catotonia or who are unresponsive to or intolerant of antidepressants, or who have had a previous positive response to ECT, ECT may be considered early in the course of treatment.[39] [177] ECT is often the treatment of choice for severely depressed older patients because it is effective, and avoids the complications that may arise from pharmacological intolerance and drug interactions associated with treatment for comorbid physical conditions.[178]

» ECT is performed under general anaesthesia, typically 2 or 3 times a week for a total of 6-12 treatments.[188]

» Patient and clinician must be fully informed of the potential risks, including the risks associated with not having ECT, so that the patient can provide informed consent.[165] The mortality rate of ECT is estimated to be about 2 deaths per 100,000 treatments, meaning that it is one of the safer procedures performed under general anaesthetic.[189] [190] Overall, there is no increase in risk of medical complications in patients receiving ECT versus equally depressed patients not receiving ECT.[191] ECT affects heart rate and blood pressure. Chest pain, arrhythmias, persistent hypertension, and ECG changes have been reported as complications. particularly in patients with pre-existing cardiac disease.[192] Cardiovascular conditions should be stabilised before administering ECT.[192] The majority of patients report adverse cognitive effects during and shortly after treatment, most

52

commonly memory loss (both anterograde and retrograde amnesia).[194] This impairment seems to be short-lived according to objective assessment, although a significant proportion of patients report persistent memory loss following ECT.[193] [194] This potential risk must be balanced against the evidence in favour of its efficacy, especially in patients with severe depression. If a person with depression cannot give informed consent for ECT, it should only be given when it does not conflict with a valid advance treatment decision made by the person.[165]

» ECT treatment effects are temporary; following successful treatment, the effect must be maintained by the use of antidepressants and/ or maintenance electroconvulsive treatments (typically once per week to once every 4 weeks or longer, titrated to stability).[195] Combined with antidepressants, lithium has been shown to reduce the risk for relapse post-ECT.[319]

increase dose or switch to alternative antidepressant

» If the response to first-line therapy is inadequate, initial steps include reassessing the diagnosis, evaluating comorbidities, and exploring adherence to treatment.[277]

» Continue treatment if there has been some improvement for at least the full 6-8 weeks. If the response is still incomplete, and if the drug is well-tolerated, and not already above the threshold of safe dose, consider increasing the dose. But do not continue prescribing a drug providing inadequate benefit indefinitely. Of note, in patients with no initial improvement to treatment with fluoxetine, one study showed the likelihood of converting to a positive response decreased the longer patients remained unimproved.[278]

» Another option to consider is switching to an alternative antidepressant.[279] [280] By the end of four different medication trials, 60% to 70% of patients are likely to respond to treatment. Switching may be appropriate if no improvement in symptoms has occurred within the first 2 weeks of treatment.[281] [282] However, early response may be, but is not necessarily, a reliable indicator of continued response.[283] [284]

» Consider a change in drug class; if a patient was on a selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitor, then try a serotonin noradrenaline-reuptake

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our</u>). © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

2nd

inhibitor. If treatment was not tolerated due to adverse effects, retry with an agent with fewer or different adverse effects. If an agent is switched, resume weekly follow-up until a response is apparent.

» Caution is required when switching from one antidepressant to another due to the risk of drug interactions, serotonin syndrome, withdrawal symptoms, or relapse.

» The timeframe required for safely switching depends on various factors, including the pharmacokinetic properties of the drugs and possible interactions between them, as well as patient characteristics such as age, sensitivity to adverse effects, and the capacity to wait to begin a new course of treatment. In some situations, it is possible to give both drugs for a short period of time while the changeover is occurring; however, this should only be done under specialist guidance. In other cases, it is safer to take a more conservative approach. This involves slowly tapering the dose of the first drug before stopping it, and then waiting a period of time before starting the second drug (known as a washout period, which is usually five half-lives of the first drug). Drugs with longer half-lives (e.g., fluoxetine) require longer washout periods (e.g., up to 5-6 weeks) when combined with a drug with which the combination is contraindicated (e.g., monoamine oxidase inhibitors with fluoxetine). Specific recommendations for switching from one antidepressant to another, along with suitable washout periods, are available and local guidance should be consulted. When in doubt, in the absence of such guidelines, as a general principle perform a drug interaction check to be sure there are no absolute contraindications, and then 'start low and go slow' until safety can be ascertained.

» Continue successful antidepressant treatment for 6-12 months following remission, before considering discontinuation.[165][322] However, some treatment guidelines recommend that patients with frequent previous recurrences and relapses, who respond successfully to antidepressant treatment, may require longerterm or indefinite pharmacological indefinite therapy, following shared decision-making.[332]

» If there is an inadequate response to two (or more) full-dose and duration antidepressants, the patient's depression might be considered treatment resistant or refractory, and warrants a more complex approach.

at risk of harm to self or others (psychotic, suicidal, severe psychomotor retardation impeding activities of daily living, catatonia, or severe agitation): pregnant

1st

urgent psychiatric referral ± hospitalisation (with psychiatric and obstetric involvement)

» These people are at increased risk for suicide, impulsive and potentially self-destructive behaviour, and health complications due to poor self-care and immobility.

» Refer urgently to a psychiatrist; joint psychiatric and obstetric involvement is required to ensure the safety of both mother and fetus. Suicide risk mitigation is critical. Consider hospitalisation for people: with significant suicidal ideation or intent who lack adequate safeguards in their family environment; with intent to hurt others; who are unable to care for themselves and adhere to their treatment; who have psychotic symptoms, or uncontrolled agitation accompanied by the risk of impulsive behaviour.[165] [181] [182] If the individual is unwilling to be hospitalised, engage family support and, if necessary, exercise legal means to compel treatment.

 » Specialist referral, hospitalisation, constant observation, and/or electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) may be required to ensure safety until definitive antidepressant therapy can take effect.

» People with agitation require high levels of care because of their enhanced emotional distress and the risk of impulsive violence. Severe impairment of the activities of daily living due to catatonia or psychomotor retardation increases the severity of depression, as people who are inert and bedbound, or not taking adequate sustenance, run the risk of a deterioration in health while awaiting a response to pharmacotherapy. These people may require supportive nursing care.

» Severity of depressive symptoms may influence treatment choice. In very severe depression in pregnancy, ECT may the treatment of choice when the severity of illness puts the patient and/or fetus at risk either due to poor maternal self-care or suicide. There is no known risk to the fetus from ECT.[359] [360]

» Antidepressants may be considered, following shared decision-making based on individualised

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our</u>). © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved. MANAGEMENT

risk:benefit assessment: In the US, such discussions are frequently carried out by an obstetrician; obstetricians in the US may seek further specialist treatment advice from Perinatal Psychiatry Access Programs where available.[358] In other locations (e.g., the UK) input from a specialist with experience in perinatal mental health is typically required. The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG) recommends that if pharmacological treatment is required for perinatal depression, selective serotoninreuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) may be used as first-line pharmacotherapy, and serotoninnoradrenaline reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) are reasonable alternatives.[358] Despite the lack of consistent evidence of harmful effects of antidepressants to fetal and infant health and development, caution is required.

» Some classes of antidepressants, such as tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs), are not routinely used for depression in pregnancy, owing to concerns about potential risks to the mother and baby.[358] Esketamine nasal spray is a relatively new drug and is not recommended in pregnancy, as studies involving pregnant animals treated with ketamine indicate that esketamine may cause harm to the fetus when used during pregnancy.

» Updated information about potential harms from antidepressants and other pharmaceuticals can be found at various resources. [UK Teratology Information Service] (http:// www.uktis.org)

more severe depression (PHQ score ≥16): non-pregnant

1st antidepressant and/or psychological therapy

Primary options

» citalopram: 20 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 40 mg/day

OR

» escitalopram: 10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 20 mg/day

OR

<u>MANAGEMENT</u>

» fluoxetine: 20 mg orally (immediaterelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 80 mg/day; doses >20 mg/day may be given in 2 divided doses

A delayed-release, once-weekly formulation is available for maintenance therapy.

OR

» paroxetine: 20 mg orally (immediaterelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 50 mg/ day; 25 mg orally (controlled-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 62.5 mg/day

OR

» sertraline: 50 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 200 mg/day

OR

» desvenlafaxine: 50 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 400 mg/day; doses >50 mg/day have not shown additional benefit

OR

» duloxetine: 40-60 mg/day orally initially given in 1-2 divided doses, increase gradually according to response, maximum 120 mg/ day; doses >60 mg/day have not shown additional benefit

OR

» levomilnacipran: 20 mg orally once daily initially for 2 days, increase to 40 mg once daily, then increase gradually according to response, maximum 120 mg/day

OR

» venlafaxine: 75 mg/day orally (immediaterelease) initially given in 2-3 divided doses, increase gradually according to response, maximum 225 mg/day; 75 mg orally (extended-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 225 mg/day

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

OR

» bupropion: 100 mg orally (immediaterelease) twice daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 450 mg/day given in 2-3 divided doses; 150 mg orally (sustained-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 400 mg/day given in 2 divided doses; 150 mg orally (extendedrelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 450 mg/day

OR

» mirtazapine: 15 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 45 mg/day

OR

» vilazodone: 10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 40 mg/day

OR

» vortioxetine: 5-10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 20 mg/day

» More severe depression has been defined by NICE in the UK as a Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) score of 16 or more.[165] This category includes both moderate and severe depression, as defined by DSM-5-TR.[165]

» Treatment decisions are informed by a number of important real-world considerations, including access to psychological treatment, which may be limited or non-existent in some locations. Furthermore, people with depression may have a strong preference for psychological therapy or pharmacotherapy. Research to guide evidencebased individualised treatment is at an early stage.[179] Choice of treatment is therefore highly individualised and empirically validated.

 Treatment options for more severe depression include pharmacotherapy and psychological therapy, either alone or in combination.[165]
 [197] Both pharmacotherapy and psychological therapy have shown effectiveness when used alone, and yield similar results in randomised trials.

» Results from one meta-analysis of antidepressant treatment for adults with depression suggest numbers needed to treat (NNT) values of 16, 11, and 4 for the mild-tomoderate, severe, and very-severe subgroups, respectively.[166]

» Although monotherapy with a psychological therapy is one potential option as endorsed by some treatment guidelines, the author notes that evidence to support this approach is limited.[165] [197] [198] [199] In the absence of definitive evidence supporting psychological treatment as monotherapy for more severe depression, clinicians should consider patient preferences or other individual factors to guide this decision. A stepped care model may be considered, whereby those who do not respond adequately to psychological treatment alone are offered timely add-on pharmacological treatment.[198]

» The World Health Organization (WHO) recommends that psychological interventions are included within the treatment regimen whenever possible for all adults with moderate-to-severe depression.[198]

» The combination of psychological therapy plus pharmacotherapy has been demonstrated to be more effective than either treatment alone for those with more severe depression.[171] [172] [173] [174] Furthermore, the addition of psychological therapy to the treatment regimen is associated with a more enduring treatment effect than when pharmacotherapy is used alone.[169] [175][377]

» Psychological treatments may be delivered via different methods and settings, and may include individual, group, or virtual sessions. No clear differences in efficacy have been found among different types of psychological therapies used for depression.[217]

» Published treatment guidelines recommend a range of psychological therapies as firstline options more severe depression, including cognitive behavioural therapy, behavioural activation, short-term psychodynamic therapy, interpersonal psychotherapy, and problemsolving therapy.[165] [218] However guidance from the American College of Physicians only recommends CBT, citing insufficient evidence to support other types of psychological therapies.[197]

» Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) has shown greater efficacy than pharmacological

placebo across levels of severity.[219] Treatment response to CBT is comparable with antidepressant response in some studies.[170] [Evidence B] Staged treatment trials suggest that CBT may be particularly beneficial when used during the continuation phase of treatment; CBT reduces the risk of relapse/recurrence at least as well as, and perhaps better than, antidepressant continuation.[175] [335] [336] [337]

» US guidance recommends that initial pharmacological treatment should be with a second-generation antidepressant. This may include a selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitor (SSRI; e.g., citalopram, escitalopram, fluoxetine, paroxetine, sertraline); a serotoninnoradrenaline reuptake inhibitor (SNRIs; e.g., desvenlafaxine, duloxetine, levomilnacipran, venlafaxine); bupropion (a dopamine-reuptake inhibitor); mirtazapine (a 5-HT2 receptor antagonist); vilazodone (an SSRI and partial 5-HT1A receptor agonist); vortioxetine (a serotonin-reuptake inhibitor with serotonin receptor modulation properties).[197] UK guidance recommends offering an SSRI as first-line treatment for most people with depression for whom pharmacological treatment is suitable.[165] SNRIs are recommended by NICE as a later-line option.[165] According to UK guidance, clinicians should only consider prescribing vortioxetine when there has been no or limited response to at least 2 previous antidepressants.[165]

» No consistent differences in safety or efficacy have been demonstrated between antidepressants.[202] [203] While a few metaanalyses of comparative treatment efficacy have favoured one drug over others, by and large they are comparable in efficacy.[204] [205]

» Choice of drug should be based on patient preference, tolerability, safety in overdose, presence of other psychiatric illness, and past evidence of effectiveness in the patient.[181]

» Depressed patients with undiagnosed bipolar affective disorder may convert to frank mania if they receive antidepressants. Ask patients about a prior history of manic episodes (e.g., periods of days to weeks marked by unusually high energy, euphoria, insomnia, hyperactivity, or impaired judgement) before starting antidepressant therapy.

» There is some evidence of increased suicidal thoughts and behaviour in the first weeks of treatment, particularly in teenagers and

young adults, and in those on relatively high starting doses.[210] [211] [212] [213] This association is not necessarily causal and may instead be attributable to confounding factors.[214] Close monitoring and risk management is recommended when prescribing an antidepressant to a person under the age of 25 years, or to anybody thought to be at increased risk for suicide.[165]

» Follow up patients 1-2 weeks after initiating therapy, regardless of treatment type, then monthly for the next 12 weeks. If you prefer systematic assessment, use the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) to assess changes in symptom severity.

» For people taking antidepressants, titrate the dose to the maximum tolerated in patients who experience a partial response after 2-4 weeks. Patients may begin to show a response within the first 1-2 weeks of treatment; however, one fifth of those who have not previously responded may begin to respond after week 5.[216] Successful antidepressant therapy to the point of remission of all symptoms may be expected to take 6-8 weeks. A 50% decrease in symptom score constitutes an adequate response, and a 25% to 50% change in symptom score may indicate the need to modify treatment.

» Continue successful antidepressant treatment for 6-12 months following remission, before considering discontinuation.[165] [322] However, some treatment guidelines recommend that patients with frequent recurrences and relapses, who respond successfully to antidepressant treatment, may require longer-term or indefinite pharmacological therapy, following shared decision-making.[332]

» The specific drug regimens listed are examples of commonly used regimens only. Consult local guidance for other examples and preferred options.

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

» For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165] Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible. This involvement allows them

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

adjunct immediate symptom management with benzodiazepine ± antipsychotic

Treatment recommended for SOME patients in selected patient group

Primary options

» lorazepam: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» clonazepam: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» quetiapine: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» trazodone: consult specialist for guidance on dose

» Patients with mild agitation or severe anxiety can be treated with the short-term use of a benzodiazepine (e.g., lorazepam, clonazepam) and/or an antipsychotic (e.g., quetiapine). However, one cohort study reported increased mortality risk in patients receiving augmentation with an antipsychotic for depression compared with patients receiving augmentation with a second antidepressant.[308] Patients with insomnia can be treated with quetiapine or trazodone. Antipsychotics are more appropriate where there is risk of benzodiazepine dependence.

» Dose to effectiveness: if the benzodiazepine or antipsychotic fails to produce an effect and is tolerated, increase the dose with caution up to the recommended maximum. If it fails at the

MANAGEMENT

maximum dose or leads to intolerable adverse effects at lower doses, switch to another agent.

» The specific drug regimens listed are examples of commonly used regimens only. Consult local guidance for other examples and preferred options.

adjunct esketamine nasal spray

Treatment recommended for SOME patients in selected patient group

Primary options

» esketamine nasal: (28 mg/device) 84 mg intranasally twice weekly for 4 weeks, may decrease dose to 56 mg twice weekly based on tolerability

Use in conjunction with an oral antidepressant for this indication. Evaluate benefit after 4 weeks before continuing treatment; use beyond 4 weeks has not been evaluated for this indication. Each device contains 2 sprays (1 spray for each nostril) and delivers a total of 28 mg per device. Use of 2 or 3 devices is required to achieve the recommended dose. A 5-minute rest between the use of devices is recommended.

» Esketamine (an active isomer of ketamine, an N-methyl-D-aspartate [NMDA] receptor antagonist) may be considered by a consultant for depression with acute suicidal ideation or behaviour, as an adjunct to an oral antidepressant.

 Although esketamine is being used more frequently in clinical practice, questions remain about which patients respond best to it, how long therapeutical effects might persist, and over what duration to continue treatment.
 While no longer considered a last resort treatment, esketamine is not a first- or secondline treatment.

» Availability of esketamine varies according to country of practice and relevant regulatory approval. In the US, the drug is only available through a restricted distribution programme.

» The drug must be self-administered by the patient, who is supervised by a health care provider in a certified medical office, and the patient monitored for at least 2 hours because of the risk of sedation, respiratory depression, difficulty with attention, judgement and thinking

(dissociation), suicidal thoughts and behaviours, and the potential for drug misuse. Monitor respiratory status and blood pressure during treatment.

» Be aware that patients with poorly controlled hypertension or pre-existing aneurysmal vascular disorders may be at increased risk for adverse cardiovascular or cerebrovascular effects. Esketamine is contraindicated in patients with aneurysmal vascular disease, arteriovenous malformation, or intracerebral haemorrhage.

» Use of esketamine nasal spray beyond 4 weeks is not currently supported by evidence, given that its effectiveness beyond 4 weeks has not yet been evaluated.

adjunct electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)

Treatment recommended for SOME patients in selected patient group

» Electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) may be an option for those who have not responded to, or cannot tolerate, antidepressants.[165] The response rate is better for patients with severe major depression than for moderate or mild depression.[177] The potential impact on memory and cognition, which may reduce functioning during active treatment, make ECT less desirable for patients with milder depression. ECT is often the treatment of choice for severely depressed people with late-life depression, because it is effective, and avoids complications that may arise from pharmacological intolerance and drug interactions associated with treatment for comorbid physical conditions.[178]

» ECT is performed under general anesthesia, typically 2 or 3 times a week for a total of 6-12 treatments.[188]

» Patient and clinician must be fully informed of the potential risks, including the risks associated with not having ECT, so that the patient can provide informed consent.[165] The mortality rate of ECT is estimated to be about 2 deaths per 100,000 treatments, meaning that it is one of the safer procedures performed under general anesthetic.[189] [190] Overall, there is no increase in risk of medical complications in patients receiving ECT versus equally depressed patients not receiving ECT.[191] ECT affects heart rate and blood pressure. Chest pain, arrhythmias, persistent hypertension, and ECG changes have been reported as complications, particularly in patients with pre-existing cardiac

disease.[192] Cardiovascular conditions should be stabilised before administering ECT.[192] The majority of patients report adverse cognitive effects during and shortly after treatment, most commonly memory loss (both anterograde and retrograde amnesia).[194] This impairment seems to be short-lived according to objective assessment, although a significant proportion of patients report persistent memory loss following ECT.[193] [194] This potential risk must be balanced against the evidence in favour of its efficacy, especially in patients with severe depression. If a person with depression cannot give informed consent for ECT, it should only be given when it does not conflict with a valid advance treatment decision made by the person.[165]

» ECT treatment effects are temporary; following successful treatment, the effect must be maintained by the use of antidepressants and/ or maintenance electroconvulsive treatments (typically once per week to once every 4 weeks or longer, titrated to stability).[195] Combined with antidepressants, lithium has been shown to reduce the risk for relapse post-ECT.[319]

increase antidepressant dose or switch to alternative treatment or combination therapy

» If the response to first-line therapy is inadequate, initial steps include reassessing the diagnosis, evaluating comorbidities, and exploring adherence to treatment.[277]

» For those already being treated with an antidepressant, continue treatment if there has been some improvement for at least the full 6-8 weeks. If the response is still incomplete, and if the drug is well-tolerated, and not already above the threshold of safe dose, consider increasing the dose. But do not continue prescribing a drug providing inadequate benefit indefinitely. Of note, in patients with no initial improvement to treatment with fluoxetine, one study showed the likelihood of converting to a positive response decreased the longer patients remained unimproved.[278]

» Augmentation with psychological therapy is a good option to consider if there is a partial improvement with first-line pharmacotherapy, given that the evidence suggests that combined therapy works better than either treatment alone owing to a synergistic effect of using both.[173] [174] [197] Likewise, patients who do not respond adequately to psychological

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

2nd

treatment alone may be offered add-on pharmacological treatment.[198] Switching from pharmacotherapy to a psychological therapy, or from a pharmacological therapy to pharmacotherapy, may be another reasonable option to consider, as guided by patient preference and access to CBT.[197]

» Another option to consider for those already receiving pharmacotherapy is switching to an alternative antidepressant.[279] [280] Switching may be appropriate if no improvement in symptoms has occurred within the first 2 weeks of treatment.[281] [282] However, early response may be, but is not necessarily, a reliable indicator of continued response.[283] [284]

» Switching between antidepressants within a class may be considered initially (e.g., from one selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitor [SSRI] to another SSRI).[181] Next consider a change in drug class; for example, if a patient was on an SSRI, then consider a serotonin noradrenaline-reuptake inhibitor (SNRI).[181] If treatment was not tolerated due to adverse effects, retry with an agent with fewer or different adverse effects. If an agent is switched, resume weekly follow-up until a response is apparent.

» Caution is required when switching from one antidepressant to another due to the risk of drug interactions, serotonin syndrome, withdrawal symptoms, or relapse. See Serotonin syndrome.

» The timeframe required for safely switching depends on various factors, including the pharmacokinetic properties of the drugs and possible interactions between them, as well as patient characteristics such as age, sensitivity to adverse effects, and the capacity to wait to begin a new course of treatment. In some situations, it is possible to give both drugs for a short period of time while the changeover is occurring; however, this should only be done under specialist guidance. In other cases, it is safer to take a more conservative approach. This involves slowly tapering the dose of the first drug before stopping it, and then waiting a period of time before starting the second drug (known as a washout period, which is usually five half-lives of the first drug). Drugs with longer half-lives (e.g., fluoxetine) require longer washout periods (e.g., up to 5-6 weeks) when combined with a drug with which the combination is contraindicated (e.g., monoamine oxidase inhibitors with fluoxetine). Specific recommendations for switching from one

MANAGEMENT

antidepressant to another, along with suitable washout periods, are available and local guidance should be consulted. When in doubt, in the absence of such guidelines, as a general principle perform a drug interaction check to be sure there are no absolute contraindications, and then 'start low and go slow' until safety can be ascertained.

» Continue successful antidepressant treatment for 6-12 months following remission, before considering discontinuation.[165] [322] However, some physicians recommend that patients with frequent previous recurrences and relapses, who respond successfully to antidepressant treatment, may require longer-term or indefinite indefinite pharmacological therapy, following shared decision-making.[332]

» If there is an inadequate response to two (or more) full-dose and duration antidepressants, the patient's depression might be considered treatment resistant or refractory, and warrants a more complex approach.

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

 » For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165]
 Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible.
 This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

adjunct esketamine nasal spray

Treatment recommended for SOME patients in selected patient group

Primary options

» esketamine nasal: (28 mg/device) 84 mg intranasally twice weekly for 4 weeks, may

decrease dose to 56 mg twice weekly based on tolerability

Use in conjunction with an oral antidepressant for this indication. Evaluate benefit after 4 weeks before continuing treatment; use beyond 4 weeks has not been evaluated for this indication. Each device contains 2 sprays (1 spray for each nostril) and delivers a total of 28 mg per device. Use of 2 or 3 devices is required to achieve the recommended dose. A 5-minute rest between the use of devices is recommended.

» Esketamine (an active isomer of ketamine, an N-methyl-D-aspartate [NMDA] receptor antagonist) may be considered by a consultant for depression with acute suicidal ideation or behaviour, as an adjunct to an oral antidepressant.

» Although esketamine is being used more frequently in clinical practice, questions remain about which patients respond best to it, how long therapeutical effects might persist, and over what duration to continue treatment. While no longer considered a last resort treatment, esketamine is not a first- or secondline treatment.

» Availability of esketamine varies according to country of practice and relevant regulatory approval. In the US, the drug is only available through a restricted distribution programme.

» The drug must be self-administered by the patient, who is supervised by a health care provider in a certified medical office, and the patient monitored for at least 2 hours because of the risk of sedation, respiratory depression, difficulty with attention, judgement and thinking (dissociation), suicidal thoughts and behaviours, and the potential for drug misuse. Monitor respiratory status and blood pressure during treatment.

» Be aware that patients with poorly controlled hypertension or pre-existing aneurysmal vascular disorders may be at increased risk for adverse cardiovascular or cerebrovascular effects. Esketamine is contraindicated in patients with aneurysmal vascular disease, arteriovenous malformation, or intracerebral haemorrhage.

» Use of esketamine nasal spray beyond 4 weeks is not currently supported by evidence,

given that its effectiveness beyond 4 weeks has not yet been evaluated.

adjunct electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)

Treatment recommended for SOME patients in selected patient group

» ECT may be an option for those who have not responded to, or cannot tolerate, antidepressants.[165] The response rate is better for patients with severe major depression than for moderate or mild depression.[177]

The potential impact on memory and cognition, which may reduce functioning during active treatment, make ECT less desirable for patients with milder depression. ECT is often the treatment of choice for severely depressed people with late-life depression, because it is effective, and avoids complications that may arise from pharmacological intolerance and drug interactions associated with treatment for comorbid physical conditions.[178]

» ECT is performed under general anesthesia, typically 2 or 3 times a week for a total of 6-12 treatments.[188]

» Patient and clinician must be fully informed of the potential risks, including the risks associated with not having ECT, so that the patient can provide informed consent.[165] The mortality rate of ECT is estimated to be about 2 deaths per 100,000 treatments, meaning that it is one of the safer procedures performed under general anesthetic.[189] [190] Overall, there is no increase in risk of medical complications in patients receiving ECT versus equally depressed patients not receiving ECT.[191] ECT affects heart rate and blood pressure. Chest pain, arrhythmias, persistent hypertension, and ECG changes have been reported as complications, particularly in patients with pre-existing cardiac disease.[192] Cardiovascular conditions should be stabilised before administering ECT.[192] The majority of patients report adverse cognitive effects during and shortly after treatment, most commonly memory loss (both anterograde and retrograde amnesia).[194] This impairment seems to be short-lived according to objective assessment, although a significant proportion of patients report persistent memory loss following ECT.[193] [194] This potential risk must be balanced against the evidence in favour of its efficacy, especially in patients with severe depression. If a person with depression cannot give informed consent for ECT, it should only be given when it does not conflict with a

valid advance treatment decision made by the person.[165]

» ECT treatment effects are temporary; following successful treatment, the effect must be maintained by the use of antidepressants and/ or maintenance electroconvulsive treatments (typically once per week to once every 4 weeks or longer, titrated to stability).[195] Combined with antidepressants, lithium has been shown to reduce the risk for relapse post-ECT.[319]

less severe depression (PHQ <16): non-pregnant

1st active monitoring

 'Less severe depression' has been defined by NICE in the UK as a Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) score of less than 16.[165] This category includes both subthreshold and mild symptoms.

» Treatment decisions are informed by a number of important real-world considerations, including access to psychological treatment, which may be limited or non-existent in some locations. Furthermore, people with depression may have a strong preference for psychological therapy or pharmacotherapy. Research to guide evidencebased individualised treatment is at an early stage.[179] Choice of treatment is therefore highly individualised and empirically validated.

» For people with subthreshold and mild symptoms, the prognosis is often good without the need for pharmacotherapy or formal psychological therapy.[176] [229] For people with less severe depression who do not want treatment, or who feel that their depressive symptoms are improving, an initial period of active monitoring may be appropriate, with review after 2-4 weeks, with advice given to seek medical input if symptoms worsen, and the option to consider treatment at any time if needed.[165] This approach may facilitate further assessment, monitoring and shared decision-making.

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

» Psychoeducation alone can achieve remission for some people with less severe depression.[230]

» For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is

recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165] Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible. This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

1st supportive interventions

» 'Less severe depression' has been defined by NICE in the UK as a Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) score of less than 16.[165] This category includes both subthreshold and mild symptoms.

» Treatment decisions are informed by a number of important real-world considerations, including access to psychological treatment, which may be limited or non-existent in some locations. Furthermore, people with depression may have a strong preference for psychological therapy or pharmacotherapy. Research to guide evidencebased individualised treatment is at an early stage.[179] Choice of treatment is therefore highly individualised and empirically validated.

» For people with less severe depression who wish to consider treatment, guidelines typically recommend non-pharmacological therapies as first-line, based on the assessment that the risk:benefit ratio does not justify the use of pharmacotherapy for mild depression.[165] [197]

» For some patients who have milder symptoms, the degree of impairment or distress from these symptoms might not outweigh the stigma the patients attach to accepting any form of psychiatric treatment; in these patients a focus directly on symptom management may be the optimal strategy.[254] Bibliotherapy, a programme of self-help by reading, may have long-term benefits for some patients.[231]

» Yoga interventions may have a beneficial effect on depressive disorders, but there are

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer(.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our</u>). © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

significant variations in interventions, reporting, and feasibility.[255]

» Other supportive interventions include relaxation training, light therapy, exercise, tai chi, music therapy, and acupuncture.[232] [233] [234] [235] [236][237] [238] [239] [240] [241] [242] In patients with depression, higher remission rates were observed in a higher-dose exercise group plus continuation of serotonin noradrenalinereuptake inhibitor treatment compared with lowdose exercise plus selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors.[238] Conversely, cessation of exercise may worsen depressive symptoms.[260] [261]

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

» For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165] Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible. This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

1st computer-based interventions

» 'Less severe depression' has been defined by NICE in the UK as a Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) score of less than 16.[165] This category includes both subthreshold and mild symptoms.

» Treatment decisions are informed by a number of important real-world considerations, including access to psychological treatment, which may be limited or non-existent in some locations. Furthermore, people with depression may have a strong preference for psychological therapy or pharmacotherapy. Research to guide evidencebased individualised treatment is at an early

stage.[179] Choice of treatment is therefore highly individualised and empirically validated.

» For people with less severe depression who wish to consider treatment, guidelines typically recommend non-pharmacological therapies as first-line, based on the assessment that the risk:benefit ratio does not justify the use of pharmacotherapy for mild depression.[165] [197]

» Internet- and mobile-based interventions are a promising and rapidly emerging development, and demonstrate efficacy. They may be a useful intervention for people who cannot access or afford or schedule individual or group face-toface CBT.

» Digital interventions have the potential to widen access to evidence-based care for depression by reaching underserved populations, and may also increase the quality of care by augmenting face-to-face treatment. They may facilitate collaborative care, and shared decisionmaking.[243] [244] [245] [246] [247] [248] [249] [250]

» The evidence is greatest for internet CBT (iCBT), and suggests that guided iCBT (iCBT supported by human guidance) is as effective as face-to-face CBT.[262] [263]

» Unguided CBT also demonstrates efficacy, but with smaller treatment effect sizes.[244] There may be an increasing role for other types of self-help and self-guided interventions such as behavioural activation strategies, particularly for those with less severe symptoms of depression.[250] [264] [265][266]

» Several key barriers to digital interventions have been noted, including concerns about reduced access to care for people with lower levels of digital literacy; appropriate patient selection is therefore required. There is evidence to suggest that patients with a lower educational level may be at increased risk of symptom deterioration with internet-based guided-self-help than patients with higher education.[268]

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

» For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165] Psychoeducation entails

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our</u>). © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible. This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

1st psychological therapy

» 'Less severe depression' has been defined by NICE in the UK as a Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) score of less than 16.[165] This category includes both subthreshold and mild symptoms.

» Treatment decisions are informed by a number of important real-world considerations, including access to psychological treatment, which may be limited or non-existent in some locations. Furthermore, people with depression may have a strong preference for psychological therapy or pharmacotherapy. Research to guide evidencebased individualised treatment is at an early stage.[179] Choice of treatment is therefore highly individualised and empirically validated.

» For people with less severe depression who wish to consider treatment, guidelines typically recommend non-pharmacological therapies as first-line, based on the assessment that the risk:benefit ratio does not justify the use of pharmacotherapy for mild depression.[165] [197]

» Psychological therapy appears to have a positive impact on the quality of life of patients with depression, beyond measurable reductions in depressive symptom severity.[269] Mild depression treated with psychotherapy may be less likely to progress to severe depression.[271]

» Psychological treatments may be delivered via different methods and settings, and may include individual, group, or virtual sessions. No clear differences in efficacy have been found among different types of psychological therapies used for depression.[217] Less intensive psychological therapies such as guided self-help

and group CBT or behavioural activation may be reasonable initial options in this group.[165]

» Note that US-based guidance from the American College of Physicians only recommends CBT, citing insufficient evidence to support other types of psychological therapies.[197]

» Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) has shown greater efficacy than pharmacological placebo across levels of severity.[219] Treatment response to CBT is comparable with antidepressant response in some studies.[170] [Evidence B] Staged treatment trials suggest that CBT may be particularly beneficial when used during the continuation phase of treatment; CBT reduces the risk of relapse/recurrence at least as well as, and perhaps better than, antidepressant continuation.[335] [336] [337] In pooled clinical trials, mindfulness-based CBT was found to be particularly useful in relapse prevention.[338] CBT appears to have an enduring effect that reduces subsequent risk after treatment ends.[175] Adjunctive CBT has also been found to improve outcomes for depression treatment in the primary care setting.[220]

» Other types of psychological therapy for less severe depression include interpersonal psychotherapy (IPT), problem-solving therapy (PST), behavioural activation, and mindfulnessbased therapy.[165]

» IPT requires the patient to have psychological insight.[221] Frequency for both CBT and IPT is determined by the healthcare provider. The time to response is approximately 12 weeks. IPT may improve interpersonal functioning, and also appears effective for relapse prevention.[222] PST focuses on training in adaptive problem-solving attitudes and skills.[223] [224] [225] Results from PST are comparable to those from CBT in primary care settings.[226]

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

 » For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165]
 Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible.

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

1st antidepressant

Primary options

» citalopram: 20 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 40 mg/day

OR

» escitalopram: 10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 20 mg/day

OR

» fluoxetine: 20 mg orally (immediaterelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 80 mg/day; doses >20 mg/day may be given in 2 divided doses

A delayed-release, once-weekly formulation is available for maintenance therapy.

OR

» paroxetine: 20 mg orally (immediaterelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 50 mg/ day; 25 mg orally (controlled-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 62.5 mg/day

OR

» sertraline: 50 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 200 mg/day

OR

76

» desvenlafaxine: 50 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 400 mg/day; doses >50 mg/day have not shown additional benefit

OR

» duloxetine: 40-60 mg/day orally initially given in 1-2 divided doses, increase gradually according to response, maximum 120 mg/ day; doses >60 mg/day have not shown additional benefit

OR

» levomilnacipran: 20 mg orally once daily initially for 2 days, increase to 40 mg once daily, then increase gradually according to response, maximum 120 mg/day

OR

» venlafaxine: 75 mg/day orally (immediaterelease) initially given in 2-3 divided doses, increase gradually according to response, maximum 225 mg/day; 75 mg orally (extended-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 225 mg/day

OR

» bupropion: 100 mg orally (immediaterelease) twice daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 450 mg/day given in 2-3 divided doses; 150 mg orally (sustained-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 400 mg/day given in 2 divided doses; 150 mg orally (extendedrelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 450 mg/day

OR

» mirtazapine: 15 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 45 mg/day

OR

» vilazodone: 10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 40 mg/day

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved. MANAGEMENT

OR

» vortioxetine: 5-10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 20 mg/day

» 'Less severe depression' has been defined by NICE in the UK as a Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) score of less than 16.[165] This category includes both subthreshold and mild symptoms.

» For people with less severe depression who wish to consider treatment, guidelines typically recommend non-pharmacological therapies as first-line, based on the assessment that the risk:benefit ratio does not justify the use of pharmacotherapy for mild depression.[165] [197] However note that, as for all patients with depression, there may be reasons to consider pharmacological treatment from the offset in this group in certain specific circumstances (e.g., when there is a history of severe depression, where there is a lack of access to psychological treatment, when the patient has a preference for pharmacotherapy, or when there is a history of a previous positive treatment response to pharmacotherapy). An antidepressant may be preferable in some patients as it may offer a more rapid response than a non-pharmacological treatment.

» Treatment decisions are informed by a number of important real-world considerations, including access to psychological treatment, which may be limited or non-existent in some locations. Furthermore, people with depression may have a strong preference for psychological therapy or pharmacotherapy. Research to guide evidencebased individualised treatment is at an early stage.[179] Choice of treatment is therefore highly individualised and empirically validated.

» US guidance recommends that initial pharmacological treatment should be with a second-generation antidepressant. This may include a selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitor (SSRI; e.g., citalopram, escitalopram, fluoxetine, paroxetine, sertraline); a serotoninnoradrenaline reuptake inhibitor (SNRIs; e.g., desvenlafaxine, duloxetine, levomilnacipran, venlafaxine); bupropion (a dopamine-reuptake inhibitor); mirtazapine (a 5-HT2 receptor antagonist); vilazodone (an SSRI and partial 5-HT1A receptor agonist); vortioxetine (a serotonin-reuptake inhibitor with serotonin receptor modulation properties).[197] UK

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

guidance recommends offering an SSRI as first-line treatment for most people with depression for whom pharmacological treatment is suitable.[165] SNRIs are recommended by NICE as a later-line option.[165] According to UK guidance, clinicians should only consider prescribing vortioxetine when there has been no or limited response to at least 2 previous antidepressants.[165]

» The most commonly prescribed antidepressants, SSRIs and SNRIs, offer similar response rates and can be used first line as monotherapy in mild to moderate depression.[378] No consistent differences in safety or efficacy have been demonstrated between antidepressants.[202] [203] While a few meta-analyses of comparative treatment efficacy have favoured one drug over others, by and large they are comparable in efficacy.[204] [205]

» Choice of drug should be based on patient preference, tolerability, safety in overdose, presence of other psychiatric illness, and past evidence of effectiveness in the patient.[181]

» Depressed patients with undiagnosed bipolar affective disorder may convert to frank mania if they receive antidepressants. Ask patients about a prior history of manic episodes (e.g., periods of days to weeks marked by unusually high energy, euphoria, insomnia, hyperactivity, or impaired judgement) before starting antidepressant therapy.

» There is some evidence of increased suicidal thoughts and behaviour in the first weeks of treatment, particularly in teenagers and young adults, and in those on relatively high starting doses.[210] [211] [212] [213] This association is not necessarily causal and may instead be attributable to confounding factors.[214] Close monitoring and risk management is recommended when prescribing an antidepressant to a person under the age of 25 years, or to anybody thought to be at increased risk for suicide.[165]

» Follow up patients 1-2 weeks after initiating therapy, then monthly for the next 12 weeks. If you prefer systematic assessment, use the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) to assess changes in symptom severity. Titrate the antidepressant dose to the maximum tolerated in patients who experience a partial response after 2-4 weeks. Patients may begin to show a response within the first 1-2 weeks of

treatment; however, one fifth of those who have not previously responded may begin to respond after week 5.[216] Successful antidepressant therapy to the point of remission of all symptoms may be expected to take 6-8 weeks. A 50% decrease in symptom score constitutes an adequate response, and a 25% to 50% change in symptom score may indicate the need to modify treatment.

» Continue successful antidepressant treatment for 6-12 months following remission, before considering discontinuation.[165] [322] However, some treatment guidelines recommend that patients with frequent recurrences and relapses, who respond successfully to antidepressant treatment, may require longer-term or indefinite pharmacological therapy, following shared decision-making.[332]

» The specific drug regimens listed are examples of commonly used regimens only. Consult local guidance for other examples and preferred options.

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

 » For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165]
 Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible.
 This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

2nd increase antidepressant dose or switch to alternative treatment

» If the response to first-line therapy is inadequate, initial steps include reassessing the diagnosis, evaluating comorbidities, and exploring adherence to treatment.[277]

0

» For those already being treated with an antidepressant, continue treatment if there has been some improvement for at least the full 6-8 weeks. If the response is still incomplete, and if the drug is well-tolerated, and not already above the threshold of safe dose, consider increasing the dose. But do not continue prescribing a drug providing inadequate benefit indefinitely. Of note, in patients with no initial improvement to treatment with fluoxetine, one study showed the likelihood of converting to a positive response decreased the longer patients remained unimproved.[278]

» Another option to consider for those already receiving pharmacotherapy is switching to an alternative antidepressant.[279] [280] Switching may be appropriate if no improvement in symptoms has occurred within the first 2 weeks of treatment.[281] [282] However, early response may be, but is not necessarily, a reliable indicator of continued response.[283] [284]

» Switching between antidepressants within a class may be considered initially (e.g., from one selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitor [SSRI] to another SSRI).[181] Next consider a change in drug class; for example, if a patient was on an SSRI, then consider a serotonin-noradrenaline reuptake inhibitor [SNRI].[181] If treatment was not tolerated due to adverse effects, retry with an agent with fewer or different adverse effects. If an agent is switched, resume weekly follow-up until a response is apparent.

» Caution is required when switching from one antidepressant to another due to the risk of drug interactions, serotonin syndrome, withdrawal symptoms, or relapse. See Serotonin syndrome.

» The timeframe required for safely switching depends on various factors, including the pharmacokinetic properties of the drugs and possible interactions between them, as well as patient characteristics such as age, sensitivity to adverse effects, and the capacity to wait to begin a new course of treatment. In some situations, it is possible to give both drugs for a short period of time while the changeover is occurring; however, this should only be done under specialist guidance. In other cases, it is safer to take a more conservative approach. This involves slowly tapering the dose of the first drug before stopping it, and then waiting a period of time before starting the second drug (known as a washout period, which is usually five half-lives of the first drug). Drugs

with longer half-lives (e.g., fluoxetine) require longer washout periods (e.g., up to 5-6 weeks) when combined with a drug with which the combination is contraindicated (e.g., monoamine oxidase inhibitors with fluoxetine). Specific recommendations for switching from one antidepressant to another, along with suitable washout periods, are available and local guidance should be consulted. When in doubt, in the absence of such guidelines, as a general principle perform a drug interaction check to be sure there are no absolute contraindications, and then 'start low and go slow' until safety can be ascertained.

» Switching from pharmacotherapy to a psychological therapy, or from a pharmacological therapy to pharmacotherapy, may be another reasonable option to consider, as guided by patient preference and access to CBT.[197]

» Continue successful antidepressant treatment for 6-12 months following remission, before continuing discontinuation.[165] [322] However, some treatment guidelines recommend that patients with frequent previous recurrences and relapses, who respond successfully to antidepressant treatment, may require longerterm or indefinite pharmacological therapy, following shared decision-making.[332]

» If there is an inadequate response to two (or more) full-dose and duration antidepressants, the patient's depression might be considered treatment resistant or refractory, and warrants a more complex approach.

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

» For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165] Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible. This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking,

treatment-resistant/refractory depression

1st

reassess and switch to alternative antidepressant or combination therapy

excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is

Primary options

required).[180]

» citalopram: 20 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 40 mg/day

OR

» escitalopram: 10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 20 mg/day

OR

» fluoxetine: 20 mg orally (immediaterelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 80 mg/day; doses >20 mg/day may be given in 2 divided doses

A delayed-release, once-weekly formulation is available for maintenance therapy.

OR

» paroxetine: 20 mg orally (immediaterelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 50 mg/ day; 25 mg orally (controlled-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 62.5 mg/day

OR

» sertraline: 50 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 200 mg/day

OR

» desvenlafaxine: 50 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 400 mg/day; doses >50 mg/day have not shown additional benefit

OR

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

» duloxetine: 40-60 mg/day orally initially given in 1-2 divided doses, increase gradually according to response, maximum 120 mg/ day; doses >60 mg/day have not shown additional benefit

OR

» levomilnacipran: 20 mg orally once daily initially for 2 days, increase to 40 mg once daily, then increase gradually according to response, maximum 120 mg/day

OR

» venlafaxine: 75 mg/day orally (immediaterelease) initially given in 2-3 divided doses, increase gradually according to response, maximum 225 mg/day; 75 mg orally (extended-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 225 mg/day

OR

» bupropion: 100 mg orally (immediaterelease) twice daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 450 mg/day given in 2-3 divided doses; 150 mg orally (sustained-release) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 400 mg/day given in 2 divided doses; 150 mg orally (extendedrelease) once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 450 mg/day

OR

» mirtazapine: 15 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 45 mg/day

OR

» vilazodone: 10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 40 mg/day

OR

» vortioxetine: 5-10 mg orally once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 20 mg/day

84

OR

» amitriptyline: 25 mg orally once daily at bedtime initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 150-300 mg/day (may give in divided doses)

OR

» desipramine: 50-75 mg orally once daily at bedtime initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 200-300 mg/day (may give in divided doses)

OR

» doxepin: 25-75 mg orally once daily at bedtime initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 150-300 mg/day (may give in divided doses)

OR

» imipramine: 25-75 mg orally once daily at bedtime initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 150-300 mg/day (may give in divided doses)

OR

» nortriptyline: 25-50 mg orally once daily at bedtime initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 150 mg/day (may give in divided doses)

Secondary options

» esketamine nasal: (28 mg/device) induction phase: 56-84 mg intranasally twice weekly for 4 weeks, adjust dose based on response and tolerability; maintenance phase: 56-84 mg intranasally once weekly for 4 weeks, followed by 56-84 mg every 1-2 weeks Dose frequency should be individualised to the least frequent dose to maintain remission/ response. Evaluate benefit after 4 weeks before continuing treatment. Each device contains 2 sprays (1 spray for each nostril) and delivers a total of 28 mg per device. Use of 2 or 3 devices is required to achieve the recommended dose. A 5-minute rest between the use of devices is recommended.

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

OR

» isocarboxazid: 10 mg orally twice daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 60 mg/day given in 2-4 divided doses

OR

» phenelzine: 15 mg orally three times daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 60-90 mg/day; reduce dose gradually over several weeks to lowest effective dose after clinical response

OR

» selegiline transdermal: 6 mg/24 hours patch once daily initially, increase gradually according to response, maximum 12 mg/24 hours

OR

» tranylcypromine: 10 mg orally three times daily initially for 2 weeks, increase gradually according to response, maximum 60 mg/day

» Evidence to guide treatment decisions when people with depression do not respond to initial treatments is very limited.[285] [286] The majority of patients with depression do not reach full remission after their first antidepressant trial, but a substantial proportion of those will respond to a second or third antidepressant.[280] The terms 'treatment-refractory' or 'treatmentresistant' depression have been used variously, and somewhat inconsistently, to denote depressive illness that has not remitted after two antidepressant trials of adequate dose and duration. [287] [288] An alternative term has been proposed to emphasise less the binary response of remission or non-remission and more the common scenario of partial, or inconsistent, treatment response: 'difficult-totreat depression'.[289]

» Guidelines typically recommend that primary care physicians seek specialist input after two unsuccessful treatment interventions, where feasible.[182] [290] Comorbid medical conditions, and psychosocial factors such as temperamental vulnerabilities, behaviour patterns, and life circumstances, may all make depression more difficult to treat.

86

» Reassessment can be useful after an apparently failed course of treatment, because some of the residual symptoms of depression (e.g., social avoidance, sleep/wake reversal, feelings of hopelessness) can reflect behavioural adaptations to depression, rather than the depression itself. In such cases, symptoms may best be ameliorated through behavioural intervention or psychological therapy rather than a new medication trial. Cognitive deficits after remission of symptoms are common.[292] These may warrant monitoring and, if appropriate, the patient may benefit from reassurance that there may be continued improvement over time.

» With intermittent, brief follow-up visits it is also easy to miss mood-cycling that may occur between sessions that would indicate a bipolar spectrum disorder rather than pure major depression. Consider diagnostic re-evaluation or whether there may have been issues around adherence with treatment, or if factors such as substance use, medication adverse effects, or medical illness may have interfered with treatment.

» Assuming major depressive disorder continues to be the most salient clinical problem, alternative options for treatment-resistant/ refractory depression within the antidepressant class include monotherapy with a third (or fourth or fifth) selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitor (SSRI), serotonin noradrenalinereuptake inhibitors (SNRI), or an atypical agent (e.g., bupropion, mirtazapine, vilazodone, vortioxetine, reboxetine, and agomelatine). The process of switching antidepressants, if undertaken, provides a window of opportunity for combined antidepressant therapy (i.e., an SSRI or SNRI plus bupropion or mirtazapine) while crossing over from one to the other. However, there are little data to support the efficacy of antidepressant combinations.[294] [295] [296] [297] One notable exception to these observations is an apparently synergistic effect when the second antidepressant adds presynaptic alpha-2 receptor antagonism (e.g., mirtazapine, trazodone); however, as in other combination strategies, patient retention in treatment drops when additional drugs are added.[298]

» A specialist may prescribe two (or in rare cases more) antidepressants as a way of making optimal use of adverse effects (e.g., adding mirtazapine to an SNRI to facilitate sleep, or bupropion to an SSRI to try to improve sexual

functioning). There is some evidence that failure on one or several antidepressants does not preclude later success.[279] [280] Although the general rule of thumb is to give antidepressants for at least 6-8 weeks, if there is no improvement at all in the first 2 weeks, switching may be appropriate at that point.[282]

» When selecting a third (or fourth or fifth) medication to switch to, consider not only another SSRI, SNRI, or atypical agent, but also a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) (e.g., amitriptyline, desipramine, doxepin, imipramine, or nortriptyline). Historically the first-line pharmacotherapy for depression, TCAs have fallen somewhat out of favour because of their adverse effects, the need for gradual dose increases, and their potential lethality in overdose. However, they remain effective and useful for many patients. Dose TCAs according to therapeutic blood monitoring. For most TCAs there is a minimum therapeutic level; for nortriptyline, uniquely, there is a therapeutic window delineating a range of effective levels. UK guidance states that TCAs should only be prescribed for depression by a specialist clinician (e.g., psychiatrist) working in secondary care.[165]

» Esketamine (an active isomer of ketamine, an N-methyl-D-aspartate [NMDA] receptor antagonist) may be considered by a consultant as monotherapy for treatment-resistant depression. Evidence has demonstrated the rapid efficacy of esketamine monotherapy; within one randomised controlled trial (RCT), within the first 24 hours of the initial dose, participants experienced significant improvements in their Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) total score, with the effects persisting for at least 4 weeks. By the fourth week, 22.5% of patients receiving esketamine had achieved remission (MADRS total score ≤12), compared to 7.6% in the placebo group.[379] Although esketamine is being used more frequently in clinical practice, a cautious approach is advised, questions remain about which patients respond best to it, how long therapeutical effects might persist, and over what duration to continue treatment. While no longer considered a last resort treatment, esketamine is not a first- or second-line treatment. Availability of esketamine varies according to country of practice and relevant regulatory approval. In the US, the drug is only available through a restricted distribution programme. The drug must be selfadministered by the patient, who is supervised

38

by a health care provider in a certified medical office, and the patient monitored for at least 2 hours because of the risk of sedation, respiratory depression, difficulty with attention, judgement and thinking (dissociation), suicidal thoughts and behaviours, and the potential for drug misuse. Monitor respiratory status and blood pressure during treatment. Be aware that patients with poorly controlled hypertension or pre-existing aneurysmal vascular disorders may be at increased risk for adverse cardiovascular or cerebrovascular effects. Esketamine is contraindicated in patients with aneurysmal vascular disease, arteriovenous malformation, or intracerebral haemorrhage.

» In cases where nothing else has worked and the patient can tolerate a washout period from their current antidepressant, monotherapy with a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI) (e.g., isocarboxazid, phenelzine, selegiline, tranylcypromine) can be uniquely effective, even though it is associated with a more severe adverse effect profile and recommended only when other options prove ineffective.[299] [300] The washout period depends on the half-life of the antidepressant the patient is currently on and can range from 1 to 5 weeks. MAOIs inhibit monoamine oxidase, causing an increase in monoamine neurotransmitters (e.g., serotonin, adrenaline, and dopamine). MAOIs are rarely used as they have many drug-drug and drugfood interactions, and should not be used in patients with hypertension. The combination of a MAOI with another antidepressant is not recommended, and certain combinations are contraindicated, owing to severe risks (e.g., serotonin syndrome). They are generally not used in primary care; do not use an MAOI without consulting a psychiatrist first.[165]

» Caution is required when switching from one antidepressant to another due to the risk of drug interactions, serotonin syndrome, withdrawal symptoms, or relapse. The timeframe required for safely switching depends on various factors, including the pharmacokinetical properties of the drugs and possible interactions between them, as well as patient characteristics such as age, sensitivity to adverse effects, and the capacity to wait to begin a new course of treatment. In some situations, it is possible to give both drugs for a short period of time while the changeover is occurring; however, this should only be done under specialist guidance. In other cases, it is safer to take a more conservative approach. This involves slowly tapering the

dose of the first drug before stopping it, and then waiting a period of time before starting the second drug (known as a washout period, which is usually five half-lives of the first drug). Drugs with longer half-lives (e.g., fluoxetine) require longer washout periods (e.g., up to 5-6 weeks) when combined with a drug with which the combination is contraindicated (e.g., monoamine oxidase inhibitors with fluoxetine). Specific recommendations for switching from one antidepressant to another, along with suitable washout periods, are available and local guidance should be consulted. When in doubt, in the absence of such guidelines, as a general principle perform a drug interaction check to be sure there are no absolute contraindications, and then 'start low and go slow' until safety can be ascertained.

» Continue successful antidepressant treatment for 6-12 months following remission, before considering discontinuation.[165] [322] A possible exception is the use of esketamine nasal spray, as current evidence on longer-term use is limited and its effectiveness beyond 4 weeks has not yet been evaluated.

» Some physicians recommend that patients with frequent previous recurrences and relapses, who respond successfully to antidepressant treatment, may require longer-term or indefinite therapy, following shared decision-making.[332]

» The specific drug regimens listed are examples of commonly used regimens only. Consult local guidance for other examples and preferred options.

plus consider augmentation pharmacotherapy

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

Primary options

» lithium: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» aripiprazole: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» olanzapine/fluoxetine: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» brexpiprazole: consult specialist for guidance on dose

OR

» cariprazine: consult specialist for guidance on dose

» In patients who have not responded to conventional antidepressants, lithium augmentation is an evidence-based approach.[302] Lithium augmentation is initiated by a psychiatrist because of its narrow therapeutic index and risks of inadvertent toxicity from excessive dosing and drug-drug interactions. Augmentation with some antipsychotic agents may improve outcomes.[304] [305] [380] However, one cohort study reported increased mortality risk in general associated with adding an antipsychotic versus adding a second antidepressant.[308] It is unclear whether this is a pharmacological effect of antipsychotics or a reflection of the likelihood that antipsychotics tend to be prescribed to patients who are at higher risk for mortality for other reasons. Because of this potential risk, augmentation with an antipsychotic for treatment-resistant depression should typically be overseen by a psychiatrist who can determine the clinical necessity of choosing it over other strategies.

» Evidence better supports short-term versus long-term use of adjunctive antipsychotics.[309] Long-term use exposes patients to common antipsychotic side effects such as weight gain, akathisia, and, rarely, tardive dyskinesia. This concern applies as well to new agents such as brexpiprazole, which are similar to antipsychotics structurally but are marked specifically for use in treatment-resistant depression. Although deemed effective (in a small number of studies), the side effects are similar to other antipsychotics, and so it is important to consider whether benefits outweigh risks in people without psychosis.[310] [311] [312] [313] [314]

» If the patient is not already on esketamine nasal spray monotherapy first line, it may be considered by a consultant as an augmentation strategy (to be used with an oral antidepressant) for treatment-resistant depression.

» Other augmentation strategies may be used by specialists.[316] [317] [318]

» The specific drug regimens listed are examples of commonly used regimens only. Consult local guidance for other examples and preferred options.

plus psychological therapy or other nonpharmacological treatment

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

» Check and ensure that the patient has started psychological therapy if multiple pharmacological agents have been unsuccessful; in particular, cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) appears to be effective at reducing symptoms in treatmentresistant depression with long-lasting results (up to at least 1 year).[293]

» Psychological therapy has been shown to be both effective and cost-effective in reducing depressive symptoms.[167] [168] Psychological therapy is as efficacious as pharmacotherapy and reduces the risk of relapse when added to pharmacotherapy.[169] [377] Psychological interventions may reduce the number of sickness absence days from work, whether this is face to face or online.[163]

» CBT has shown greater efficacy than pharmacological placebo across levels of severity.[219] Treatment response to CBT is comparable with antidepressant response in some studies.[170] [Evidence B] Staged treatment trials suggest that CBT may be particularly beneficial when used during the continuation phase of treatment; CBT reduces the risk of relapse/recurrence at least as well as, and perhaps better than, antidepressant continuation.[335] [336] [337] In pooled clinical trials, mindfulness-based CBT was found to be particularly useful in relapse prevention.[338] CBT appears to have an enduring effect that reduces subsequent risk after treatment ends.[175] Adjunctive CBT has also been found to improve outcomes for depression treatment in the primary care setting.[220]

» Other types of psychological therapy for depression include interpersonal psychotherapy (IPT), problem-solving therapy (PST), behavioural activation, and bibliotherapy. IPT requires the patient to have psychological insight.[221] Frequency for both CBT and IPT is determined by the healthcare provider. The time to response is approximately 12 weeks. IPT

may improve interpersonal functioning, and also appears effective for relapse prevention.[222] PST focuses on training in adaptive problemsolving attitudes and skills.[223] [224] [225] Results from PST are comparable to those from CBT in primary care settings.[226]

» Behavioural activation is a less cerebral, more behavioural alternative to CBT. It actively promotes a return to functioning and has the advantage of not requiring doctoral-level therapists to administer it. A Cochrane review found it to be equally effective to CBT for adults with depression, albeit with a low level of certainty given the evidence available.[227]

» Bibliotherapy, a programme of self-help by reading, may have long-term benefits for some patients.[231]

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

 » For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165]
 Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible.
 This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

2nd electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)

» ECT may be an option for those who have not responded to, or cannot tolerate, antidepressants.[165] Although listed here as a secondary option, note that treatment decisions are highly individualised, and ECT may be considered early in the course of treatment in some people with severe depression. Indications for early use include treatment for depression with psychotic symptoms, suicidality, or catatonia, or where there has been a previous positive treatment response to ECT.[165] [177]

» The response rate is better for patients with severe major depression than for moderate or mild depression.[177] The potential impact on memory and cognition, which may reduce functioning during active treatment, make ECT less desirable for patients with milder depression. ECT is often the treatment of choice for severely depressed people with late-life depression, because it is effective, and avoids complications that may arise from pharmacological intolerance and drug interactions associated with treatment for comorbid physical conditions.[178]

» ECT is performed under general anesthesia, typically 2 or 3 times a week for a total of 6-12 treatments.[188]

» Patient and clinician must be fully informed of the potential risks, including the risks associated with not having ECT, so that the patient can provide informed consent.[165] The mortality rate of ECT is estimated to be about 2 deaths per 100,000 treatments, meaning that it is one of the safer procedures performed under general anesthetic. [189] [190] Overall, there is no increase in risk of medical complications in patients receiving ECT versus equally depressed patients not receiving ECT.[191] ECT affects heart rate and blood pressure. Chest pain, arrhythmias, persistent hypertension, and ECG changes have been reported as complications, particularly in patients with pre-existing cardiac disease.[192] Cardiovascular conditions should be stabilised before administering ECT.[192] The majority of patients report adverse cognitive effects during and shortly after treatment, most commonly memory loss (both anterograde and retrograde amnesia).[194] This impairment seems to be short-lived according to objective assessment, although a significant proportion of patients report persistent memory loss following ECT.[193] [194] This potential risk must be balanced against the evidence in favour of its efficacy, especially in patients with severe depression. If a person with depression cannot give informed consent for ECT, it should only be given when it does not conflict with a valid advance treatment decision made by the person.[165]

» ECT treatment effects are temporary; following successful treatment, the effect must be maintained by the use of antidepressants and/ or maintenance electroconvulsive treatments (typically once per week to once every 4 weeks or longer, titrated to stability).[195] Combined

with antidepressants, lithium has been shown to reduce the risk for relapse post-ECT.[319]

plus psychological therapy or other nonpharmacological treatment

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

» Check and ensure that the patient has started psychological therapy if multiple pharmacological agents have been unsuccessful; in particular, cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) appears to be effective at reducing symptoms in treatmentresistant depression with long-lasting results (up to at least 1 year).[293]

» Psychological therapy has been shown to be both effective and cost-effective in reducing depressive symptoms.[167] [168] Psychological therapy is as efficacious as pharmacotherapy and reduces the risk of relapse when added to pharmacotherapy.[169] [377] Psychological interventions may reduce the number of sickness absence days from work, whether this is face to face or online.[163]

» CBT has shown greater efficacy than pharmacological placebo across levels of severity.[219] Treatment response to CBT is comparable with antidepressant response in some studies.[170] [Evidence B] Staged treatment trials suggest that CBT may be particularly beneficial when used during the continuation phase of treatment; CBT reduces the risk of relapse/recurrence at least as well as, and perhaps better than, antidepressant continuation.[335] [336] [337] In pooled clinical trials. mindfulness-based CBT was found to be particularly useful in relapse prevention.[338] CBT appears to have an enduring effect that reduces subsequent risk after treatment ends.[175] Adjunctive CBT has also been found to improve outcomes for depression treatment in the primary care setting.[220]

» Other types of psychological treatment for depression include interpersonal psychotherapy (IPT), problem-solving therapy (PST), behavioural activation, and bibliotherapy. IPT requires the patient to have the capacity for psychological insight.[221] Frequency for both CBT and IPT is determined by the healthcare provider. The time to response is approximately 12 weeks. IPT may improve interpersonal functioning, and also appears effective for relapse prevention.[222] PST focuses on training in adaptive problem-solving attitudes and skills.[223] [224] Results from PST are

comparable to those from CBT in primary care settings.[226]

» Behavioural activation is a less cerebral, more behavioural alternative to CBT. It actively promotes a return to functioning and has the advantage of not requiring doctoral-level therapists to administer it. A Cochrane review found it to be equally effective to CBT for adults with depression, albeit with a low level of certainty given the evidence available.[227]

» Bibliotherapy, a programme of self-help by reading, may have long-term benefits for some patients.[231]

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

» For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be re-inforced during treatment, as required.[165] Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible. This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

pregnant

96

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

1st

active monitoring and/or antidepressant and/or electroconvulsive therapy (ECT)

» Less severe depression: when the maternal and fetal risk of untreated depression is low, the risk/benefit balance may tip in favour of non-pharmacological therapies, as reflected in several treatment guidelines worldwide.[358] [362]

» More severe depression: studies of the safety of antidepressant use in pregnancy for the most part add up to minimal risk to the fetus.[340] [341] There is little controlled trial evidence. Consistent data to support fully

informed decision-making are lacking. Cohort studies have reported a small increased risk of pre-eclampsia, postnatal haemorrhage, and gestational diabetes in women who continue antidepressants throughout pregnancy.[342] [343] Based on mixed evidence for an increased risk of postnatal haemorrhage associated with antidepressants, the UK government has advised caution.[344]

» Women who stop their antidepressant are more likely to have a relapse of depression during their pregnancy.[345] [346] UK national enquiry data show that in women in contact with UK psychiatric services, peinatal suicides are more likely to occur in those with a depression diagnosis and no active treatment at the time of death.[347]

» Depression itself may negatively affect fetal development (e.g., causing hyperactivity and irregular fetal heart rate), increase infants' cortisol levels, impact on infant temperament, and influence behaviour in later childhood and adolescence.[348]

» For infants exposed to antidepressants during pregnancy, evidence as to whether there is an increased risk of preterm birth and low birth weight compared to infants of mothers with untreated depression is mixed.[343] [349] [350] [351][352] There is a small increased risk of persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn with maternal SSRI and SNRI use in any trimester (number needed to harm = 100).[356] [357]

» Clinicians and patients should carefully discuss the risks of remaining on antidepressant treatment during pregnancy, against the risks of stopping or avoiding antidepressants and exposing the fetus to the harmful effects of prepartum depression. In the US, such discussions are frequently carried out by the patient's obstetrician; obstetricians in the US may seek further specialist treatment advice from Perinatal Psychiatry Access Programs where available.[358] In other locations (e.g., the UK) clinicians should consult a specialist with experience in perinatal mental health as part of this process. The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG) recommends that if pharmacological treatment is required for perinatal depression, selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) may be used as first-line pharmacotherapy, and serotonin-noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) are reasonable alternatives.[358]

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

» Some classes of antidepressants, such as tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs), are not routinely used for depression in pregnancy, owing to concerns about potential risks to the mother and baby.[358] Esketamine nasal spray is a relatively new drug and is not recommended in pregnancy, as studies involving pregnant animals treated with ketamine indicate that esketamine may cause harm to the fetus when used during pregnancy.

» Despite the lack of consistent evidence of harmful effects of antidepressants to fetal and infant health and development, caution is required. Updated information about potential harms from antidepressants and other pharmaceuticals can be found at various resources. [UK Teratology Information Service] (http://www.uktis.org)

» Severity of depressive symptoms may influence treatment choice. In very severe depression in pregnancy, electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) may the treatment of choice when the severity of illness puts the fetus at risk either due to poor maternal self-care or suicide. There is no known risk to the fetus from ECT.[359] [360]

plus psychological therapy

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

» Psychological treatments have essentially no risk of side effects and may be offered as monotherapy as one first-line option for depression occurring in pregnancy, particularly for those with less severe depression, or as adjunctive therapy for people receiving other treatments.[358]

» Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) is associated with a robust moderate treatment effect for major depressive disorder during pregnancy. Interpersonal psychotherapy also appears to have a treatment effect, but to a lesser extent than CBT.[364]

plus psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

 » For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165]
 Psychoeducation entails educating about the

nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible. This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our</u>). © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

treatment responsive

1st

maintenance antidepressant and/or psychological therapy

» For patients established on antidepressants, regularly review their antidepressant use to assess efficacy and the presence of any adverse effects, and to ensure that long-term use remains clinically indicated.[272]

» Shared decision-making is recommended; options for those already taking an antidepressant who have achieved full or partial remission are; continuing antidepressant treatment; switching to a psychological treatment for relapse prevention; or continuing with the same antidepressant and adding on a psychological treatment for relapse prevention.[165]

» Maintenance on antidepressants following remission does not guarantee protection from relapse, but there is evidence of at least a modest benefit.[331] Continue the antidepressant regimen that led to remission for 6-12 months following remission.[165] [322] The World Federation of Societies of Biological Psychiatry (WFSBP) supports the use of maintenance treatment for recurrent depression in some circumstances; WFSBP recommends maintenance treatment for 5-10 years, or indefinitely, for those people at greater risk of recurrent depression, particularly when two or three attempts to withdraw pharmacotherapy have been followed by another episode within a year.[322]

» There is a growing body of evidence to support the use of psychological therapy for prevention of relapse and recurrence, both used alone and in combination with pharmacotherapy.[175] [333] Specific modalities with demonstrated efficacy for relapse prevention include preventive CBT. mindfulness-based CBT, and interpersonal therapy (IPT).[165] [334] Staged treatment trials suggest that CBT may be particularly beneficial when used during the continuation phase of treatment; CBT reduces the risk of relapse/ recurrence at least as well as, and perhaps better than, antidepressant continuation.[335] [336] [337] In pooled clinical trials, mindfulnessbased CBT was found to be particularly useful in relapse prevention.[338]

» Continued psychotherapy with antidepressant management is an effective option when

MANAGEMENT

100

continued through both acute and ongoing phases of treatment.[173]

» There is evidence that switching in the maintenance phase from pharmacotherapy to psychotherapy can be at least as effective in preventing relapse as staying with pharmacotherapy.[182] [333] [339]

» Computerised CBT is recommended by some international guidelines for relapse prevention in patients with mild depression.[182]

» If discontinuation of a selective serotoninreuptake inhibitor (SSRI) or a serotoninnoradrenaline reuptake inhibitor (SNRI) is required, the most immediate concern when removing a patient from antidepressant therapy is the possibility of rapid relapse. Beyond that, some antidepressants, particularly those in the SSRI or SNRI classes, are associated with a 'discontinuation syndrome'. Typical are flu-like symptoms, hyperarousal, insomnia, vertigo, and sensory disturbances (e.g., 'brain zaps'). Patients will often know how vulnerable they are to these symptoms, if they have ever skipped a dose or run out of their medication.

» Slowly decrease the dose to reduce the risk of unpleasant discontinuation symptoms; this can usually be done over several weeks, but in some cases may take several months or longer in particularly susceptible patients.[324] [328]

» Drugs with shorter half-lives (e.g., paroxetine, venlafaxine) may require longer periods of taper.[329] A proportionate method of tapering is recommended by some treatment guidelines; this involves reductions as a proportion of the previous dose (e.g. 25%) rather than reducing the dose by a fixed increment each time.[165] If the required dose is not available in tablet form, a liquid preparation may be required (if available).

» Be aware that people's experiences of withdrawal symptoms can vary substantially from mild and transient to longer-lasting and more severe. Anticipatory discussion with the patient is important, including when and how to seek support from a healthcare professional in the event of discontinuation symptoms.[329] Closely monitor the patient to ensure that any apparent emerging discontinuation symptoms do not in fact represent a relapse of their depression.[272] [330]

plus

psychoeducation and lifestyle advice

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

 » For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165]
 Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible.
 This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

recurrent episode

1st

repeat of remission-inducing regimen or long-term therapy

» Recurrent episodes of major depression should be treated with the same regimen that previously led to remission, provided that the recurrence did not occur while under adequate maintenance treatment with such medication.

» The World Federation of Societies of Biological Psychiatry (WFSBP) supports the use of pharmacological maintenance treatment for recurrent depression in some circumstances; WFSBP recommends maintenance treatment for 5-10 years, or indefinitely, for those people at greater risk of recurrent depression, particularly when two or three attempts to withdraw pharmacotherapy have been followed by another episode within a year.[332] The selection and success of these treatments depends on the type and severity of depressive symptoms, but most often relies on trial and error.

» There is a growing body of evidence to support the use of psychological therapy for prevention of relapse and recurrence, both used alone and in combination with pharmacotherapy.[175] [333] Specific modalities with demonstrated efficacy for relapse prevention include preventive CBT, mindfulness-based CBT, and interpersonal therapy (IPT).[165] [334] Staged treatment trials suggest that CBT may be particularly beneficial when used during the continuation phase of

treatment; CBT reduces the risk of relapse/ recurrence at least as well as, and perhaps better than, antidepressant continuation.[335] [336] [337] In pooled clinical trials, mindfulnessbased CBT was found to be particularly useful in relapse prevention.[338]

» Continued psychotherapy with antidepressant management is an effective option when continued through both acute and ongoing phases of treatment.[173]

» There is evidence that switching in the maintenance phase from pharmacotherapy to psychotherapy can be at least as effective in preventing relapse as staying with pharmacotherapy.[182] [333] [339]

» Computerised CBT is recommended by some international guidelines for relapse prevention in patients with mild depression.[182]

plus

psychoeducation and lifestyle advice Treatment recommended for ALL patients in selected patient group

 » For all people with depression, psychoeducation and lifestyle advice is recommended at the start of treatment, and may be reinforced during treatment, as required.[165]
 Psychoeducation entails educating about the nature of the illness and may be beneficial to involve family members whenever feasible.
 This involvement allows them to gain a better understanding of behaviours like lack of motivation or drive, which might otherwise be misconstrued as 'laziness' or disinterest.[180]

» Lifestyle advice encompasses instruction on the following: sleep hygiene, and setting appropriate times for sleeping and waking; healthy diet and exercise; cessation of smoking, excess intake of alcohol and substance misuse including cannabis use (if cessation is not possible, then advice on moderation is required).[180]

Emerging

Gepirone

Gepirone is an oral, selective serotonin 5-HT1A receptor agonist. Its mechanism of action is not yet fully understood. It has a different mechanism of action to selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), which block the reabsorption of serotonin into cells, meaning that it is likely to have a slightly different adverse effect profile to other treatments available for depression, notably with less potential for sexual dysfunction. It is approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for the treatment of major depressive disorder in adults on the basis of two RCTs which demonstrated superior efficacy compared to placebo, with effect sizes demonstrated similar to those of other approved antidepressants.[381] Gepirone is not yet routinely used in clinical practice. It is currently unclear whether there is a subgroup of patients who may be more likely to respond to gepirone; evidence from a follow-up analysis of clinical trial data suggests that adults with depression with prominent anxiety symptoms (anxious depression) had a greater response than those without prominent anxiety symptoms.[382] Gepirone is not approved in Europe as yet.

New and novel antidepressants

After nearly half a century in which the only standard pharmacological treatments for depression were based on serotonin and noradrenaline neurotransmission, there has been an explosion of promising new methods emerging in the past decade.[383] A variety of new and older reformulated agents are under development; unlike traditional antidepressants, they do not all have a primary mechanism of action involving monoaminergic neurotransmission. Dextromethorphan/bupropion has been approved by the US Food and Drug Association (FDA). Dextromethorphan is the first oral N-methyl D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor antagonist (and sigma-1 receptor agonist) to be approved for the treatment of major depressive disorder. It is rapid acting, but the exact mechanism of action in the treatment of depression is unclear. Bupropion is coformulated with dextromethorphan to increase and prolong plasma levels of dextromethorphan via competitive inhibition of cytochrome P450 2D6. Approval followed two positive trial results; the first in which it demonstrated superiority to placebo, and the second in which it demonstrated superiority to bupropion alone. Of note, efficacy of dextromethorphan/bupropion was observed early in the course of treatment (at 1-2 weeks) and sustained following this.[384] [385] Psilocybin, a psychedelic drug, has received breakthrough therapy designation from the FDA for treatment-resistant depression.[386] In one phase 2 trial comparing treatment with psilocybin to treatment with escitalopram, there were similar degrees of improvement in both treatment groups.[387] There is evidence that beneficial effects of psilocybin on depressive symptoms may last at least up to 12 months post-intervention in some patients.[388] A single dose psilocybin regimen has shown evidence of efficacy, according to two RCTs.[389] [390] It has been suggested that the positive benefits are mediated more directly through psychological therapy administered with psilocybin as opposed to a direct pharmacological effect. [391] Nitrous oxide has yielded some preliminary positive results in an open trial.[392] Agomelatine, a melatonin receptor agonist and serotonin 5-HT2c receptor antagonist, has been found to be effective and is available in Europe.[393] The antibiotic minocycline has generated some positive preliminary results when used as an adjunctive treatment with antidepressants, although results are mixed. [394] [395] [396] Targeting minocycline towards people with depression evidence of low-grade systemic inflammation (raised CRP) is an emerging area of research.[397]

Intravenous ketamine

Intravenous ketamine, an NMDA receptor antagonist, along with its inhaled isomer esketamine (see below) have continued to perform better than placebo in alleviating depressive symptoms but are not yet used in standard clinical practice.[398] [399] [400] [401] In case reports, case series, and select trials, ketamine has been shown to have a rapid effect in the reduction of scores on several depression scales.[402] [403] [404] There is some evidence of a sustained antidepressant effect for up to 6 weeks.[405] Intravenous ketamine appears to be more efficacious than intranasal esketamine.[406] However, its safety and efficacy for long-term use remain unknown.[407] [408] Acute side effects are common and are more likely to occur in patients given intravenous ketamine. The majority of side effects resolve shortly after drug administration. They include psychiatric (most commonly anxiety), psychotomimetic, cardiovascular, and neurological effects. The most common somatic effects were headache, dizziness, dissociation, elevated blood pressure, and blurred vision.[409] Repeated use of ketamine in other patient groups has been linked to urological and liver toxicity, cognitive deficits, and dependency.[409]

104

Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS)

Since its introduction in 2008, TMS - the application of a magnetic field across the skull into the brain to induce electrical activity, in daily sessions over the course of 1 to 2 months - has become widely available in some clinical settings. Data support an antidepressant effect of high-frequency repetitive TMS administered to the left pre-frontal cortex, and guidelines for best practice have been developed.[410] [411] [412] Although consensus has emerged about some aspects of the indications and application of the treatment, it remains an emerging treatment because there are many key questions about when, how, and in whom to use it. Compared with antidepressants, TMS entails a high cost in terms of both time and money. For now, it is generally reserved for patients who have not responded to antidepressants. The absence of psychosis and younger age may predict success.[410] Review of literature has found inconsistent evidence of a benefit in depression, and some evidence of a synergistic effect with concurrent antidepressant treatment.[413] [414] [415] [416] [417] [418] In a durability study, TMS therapy has been shown to have durable effects and may be successfully used as an intermittent rescue strategy to prevent impending relapse.[419] Another study suggests that maintenance treatment may enhance the durability of the antidepressant effects of TMS.[420] Based on a small sample size, it appears to be safe and effective in pregnancy, although data are limited and further controlled studies are warranted. [421] Work is ongoing to establish whether variation in treatment parameters might affect outcomes.[422] Other evidence suggests that TMS is no different from sham TMS treatment in patients with depression.[423] Large-scale studies are needed.[424]

Stanford neuromodulation therapy (SNT)

SNT is a rapidly acting non-invasive brain stimulation technique, utilising functional MRI-guided targeting, that is given over a 5-day period. It is a variant of a type of TMS utilising intermittent theta-burst stimulation. It is approved by the FDA for adults with treatment resistant major depression, following RCT data demonstrating non-inferiority to the standard, longer TMS protocol, as well as data from an RCT of 29 adults with treatment-resistant depression who experienced an average 62% reduction in Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) scores following 5 days of treatment, compared to an average 14% drop in MADRS scores in the sham stimulation group.[425] [426]

Vagus nerve stimulation (VNS)

VNS entails stimulation of the left cervical vagus nerve, using a commercial device.[427] A generator, about the size of a pocket watch, is implanted subcutaneously into the left chest wall and is connected to bipolar electrodes attached to the left vagus nerve.[428] The generator is programmed to deliver mild electric pulses in continuous cycles, typically with 30 seconds of stimulation followed by 5 minutes off.[428] VNS has been approved in Canada, Europe, and the US for the adjunctive long-term treatment of chronic depression for patients aged 18 years and older, who are experiencing a major depressive episode and have not had an adequate response to \geq 4 adequate antidepressant treatments.[429] [430] Evidence on the efficacy of VNS is mixed.[431] [432] In one long-term follow-up study, however, the benefits of VNS over treatment as usual could still be seen over 5 years.[433]

Deep brain stimulation (DBS)

A neurosurgical intervention, DBS of structures in the forebrain has had promising effects against treatmentresistant depression in a small group of individuals, but it is far from routine or low risk.[434] [435] Results are limited by small sample size and insufficient randomised control data.[436] [437] [438]

Transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS)

A weak electrical current is applied to the scalp, often via a cap. Similar to TMS in the localisation of treatment and tolerability but uses current rather than magnetic field. While the effect size was similar to that of TMS in some studies, results from other trials have been mixed.[439] [440] tDCS appears to perform better for acute depression than for treatment-resistant depression and seems to be a relatively safe option, with only minor adverse effects noted to-date.[441]

Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our</u>). © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

Two systematic reviews and meta-analyses of the efficacy of NSAIDs in depression suggest they may be effective (particularly celecoxib) and safe for this indication, although results are mixed, and further work is needed to determine in which patients NSAIDs might be most effective.[442] [443] [444]

Buprenorphine

Buprenorphine, a partial opioid receptor agonist currently in widespread use in the treatment of opioid addiction, has shown short-term efficacy for treatment-resistant depression.[445] Long-term safety and efficacy data are lacking.

Nutraceuticals

Adjunctive use of pharmaceutical-grade nutrients, such as S-adenosylmethionine (SAMe), acetylcysteine, methylfolate, omega-3 fatty acids, vitamin D, probiotics and others, has been found to be effective in improving antidepressant response in some studies, and adds little if any risk to the patient.[446] [447][448] [449] [450] [451] [452][453] [454] St John's Wort is a herb that may be effective for the treatment of mild to moderate depression.[455] [456] [Evidence C] [Evidence C] However, numerous reports indicate the possibility of clinically significant drug-drug interactions, which must be taken into account if its use is being considered.[457] [458] Folic acid has been of particular interest due to the observation that patients with depression have lower levels of serum folate than people without depression, including people with other psychiatric illnesses.[144] Supplementation with folic acid may be beneficial in depressed patients with folate deficiency. Folate supplementation may also be effective when added to standard antidepressant treatment in patients who are treatment naive or treatment resistant; however, results have been inconsistent.[144] [459] [460] One 2×2 factorial randomised clinical trial of multinutrients (omega-3 fatty acids, selenium, folic acid, and vitamin D3 plus calcium), therapy (group or individual), or their combination, given to overweight patients with subsyndromal depressive symptoms showed that multinutrients did not reduce episodes of major depressive disorder over the 1 year.[461]

Pharmacogenetics

The emergence of fast and affordable genetic assays has led to the increasing use of genetic testing to guide selection of antidepressants for depression.[462] The tests generally convey two kinds of information: some of the assays detect allelic variants of key enzymes that have proven associations with variations in treatment response; the majority delineate the variant hepatic drug-metabolising enzymes in an individual.[463] This information does not reveal which medications an individual may find effective but rather, whether a person might require high doses of a medication (being a rapid metaboliser who excretes the drug before it can adequately perfuse the brain), or low doses (for a slow metaboliser who may find recommended drug doses to have intolerable side effects). These tests may improve outcome.[464] [465] However, they have not proven to be cost-effective in practice. Pharmacogenomic analysis is not yet recommended for routine use.[466]

Primary prevention

A World Psychiatric Association Commission on depression prevention has defined three levels of intervention: universal (aimed at a general population), selective (aimed at people who have known depression risk factors), and 'indicated' (targeted to people who already have some depressive symptoms, but not 'major' depressive illness).[28] These may be combined into a staged set of interventions tailored to a given organisation or group.

Psychological and educational interventions (including CBT) have been shown to modestly reduce the risk of progression to depression when targeted at adults at increased risk due to the presence of risk factors, as well as at those with subthreshold symptoms of depression.[113] [114] One meta-analysis looking at CBT-based selective interventions for depression prevention (i.e., targeted towards those at increased risk of depression) found that such interventions were effective; 1 year after the preventive intervention, people had a relative risk of developing depression of 0.81 (95% CI: 0.72 to 0.91), meaning that those who had received the intervention had 19% lower chance of developing a depressive disorder compared to the control group. This corresponds to a number to treat (NNT) of 21, in order to prevent one episode of depression.[115]

Workplace interventions promoting employee control and physical activity, and those utilising CBT-based techniques, also show modest benefits.[116] Workplace interventions which use CBT to target people with subthreshold depressive symptoms have demonstrated small to medium effects.[117] eHealth interventions based on principles of CBT have demonstrated a small positive effect; one meta-analysis demonstrated that universal, selective and indicated eHealth interventions resulted in reduced rates of depression in the general population, although evidence on long-term efficacy is lacking.[118]

Preventative interventions which target lifestyle behaviours such as smoking also show promise for prevention.[119] Exercise has demonstrated antidepressant effects, and so may be a useful intervention to prevent progression to major depressive disorder for those with subthreshold symptoms.[120] [121] [122] [123]

Secondary prevention

Patients and their families must be cautious during the early stages of medicine treatment, as the risk of suicide may temporarily increase. Routinely asking patients about suicidal ideation and reducing access to lethal means (especially firearms) can reduce the risk of suicide.[129] See Suicide risk mitigation .

Pre-emptive antidepressant treatment may prevent depression in medically ill patients, but evidence is uncertain.[484]

Patient discussions

Anyone who is experiencing clinically significant symptoms of depression should be evaluated by a doctor.

Medicines and psychological therapy are the most common treatments. Treatment is very individualised, and depends on a number of factors specific to the person with depression, including treatment availability and their own personal preference.

There are many different types of antidepressants. These medicines may take several weeks before they become effective and should usually be taken for at least 6 months after symptoms go away to prevent symptoms from coming back, and that treatment should be reviewed regularly.[165]

Psychological or talking therapy also helps most patients with depression. Talking therapy helps the patient explore and change the thoughts, attitudes, and relationship problems associated with depression. Some people with depression can be treated effectively with psychological therapy alone. More severe depression often requires both psychological therapy and antidepressants.

Patient education should include warnings about the potential problems associated with the abrupt discontinuation of antidepressants.[330] Advise patients to talk to the healthcare professional who prescribed the antidepressant before stopping treatment.[330]

Advise them that withdrawal symptoms do not affect everyone, and can vary in type and severity between individuals. Symptoms may include:[330]

- · Unsteadiness, vertigo or dizziness
- Altered sensations (e.g., electric shock sensations)
- Altered feelings (e.g., irritability, anxiety, low mood tearfulness, panic attacks, irrational fears, confusion, or very rarely suicidal thoughts)
- · Restlessness or agitation
- Problems sleeping
- Sweating
- Abdominal symptoms (e.g., nausea)

• Palpitations, tiredness, headaches, and aches in joints and muscles

108

Monitoring

Monitoring

Initial

- Non-adherence to medication is common, and appears to be associated with a number of adverse clinical outcomes, including increased severity of depression, and increased risk of relapse and hospitalisation. One half or more of patients receiving antidepressants fail to take them at an adequate dose for an adequate duration.[479] [480] During the 8- to 12-week initiation and titration phase, the first 2 weeks of drug therapy has the greatest discontinuation risk.
- Help patients to continue medicine therapy by offering a timely response to adverse effects and by maintaining close contact. Beyond their utility in the diagnostic work-up, features of the history, examination, and laboratory studies can prove vital in monitoring for, and preventing adverse effects from, treatment.[481] Follow up with patients, in person or by telephone, within the first 2 weeks to address adverse effects, suicidality, and acceptance of medication taking, and to reinforce educational messages. Telephone follow-up by a trained nurse is also effective, as is text messaging.[482] [483]

Continuation, maintenance, and discontinuation

- Depending on the speed, stability, and adequacy of response, treatment of depression may require close follow-up for up to 1 year in order to adjust or augment therapy.
- During the maintenance phase, monitor patients monthly in person or by telephone. It is important to continue assessing adherence, suicidality, and adverse effects.
- Use the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) to assess changes in symptom severity objectively. A 50% decrease in symptom score constitutes an adequate response, and a 25% to 50% change in symptom score may indicate the need to modify treatment.
- Collaborative care models and digital interventions (e.g., iCBT) may facilitate monitoring. See Management approach .
- Duration of treatment following the remission of symptoms depends on the prior course of illness. Data on treatment outcomes beyond the initial weeks of treatment are limited, although one systematic review suggests that the efficacy of antidepressants compared with placebo is stable over at least the first 6 months of treatment.[320] In general there appears to be a reduced risk of relapse when antidepressants are continued for 6 months or over.[321] [322] [323] Continue successful antidepressant treatment for 6-12 months following remission.[165] [322]
- Discontinuation of antidepressant treatment has consistently been associated with a greater risk of relapse than does continuing treatment, and is therefore a complex clinical decision.[324] [325]
 [326] For some people at increased risk of relapse, continuation of treatment beyond this period may be required. Shared decision-making is recommended.
- The World Federation of Societies of Biological Psychiatry (WFSBP) supports the use of maintenance treatment for recurrent depression in some circumstances; WFSBP recommends maintenance treatment for 5-10 years, or indefinitely, for those people at greater risk of recurrent depression, particularly when two or three attempts to withdraw medication have been followed by another episode within a year.[332]
- For patients established on pharmacological treatment for depression, regularly review their antidepressant use to assess efficacy and the presence of any adverse effects, and to ensure that long-term use remains clinically indicated.[272]
- If discontinuation of a selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) or a serotonin-noradrenaline reuptake inhibitor (SNRI) is required, slowly decrease the dose to reduce the risk of unpleasant withdrawal symptoms; this may need to take place over several months or longer, and should be done at a rate that is tolerable to the patient.[324] [328] Drugs with shorter half-lives (e.g., paroxetine, venlafaxine) require longer periods of taper.[329] A proportionate method of tapering is recommended by some treatment guidelines; this involves reductions as a proportion of the previous dose (e.g., 25%) rather than reducing the dose by a fixed increment each time.[165] If the required dose is not available in tablet form, a liquid preparation may be required (if available). Be aware that people's experiences of withdrawal symptoms can vary substantially from mild and

transient to longer-lasting and more severe. Anticipatory discussion with the patient is important, including when and how to seek support from a healthcare professional in the event of withdrawal symptoms.[329] Closely monitor the patient to ensure that any apparent emerging withdrawal symptoms do not in fact represent a relapse of their depression.[272] [330]

There is a growing body of evidence supporting the use of psychological therapy for prevention of relapse and recurrence, both when used alone and in combination with pharmacotherapy.[175]
 [333] Specific modalities with demonstrated efficacy for relapse prevention include preventive CBT, mindfulness-based CBT, and interpersonal therapy (IPT).[334] There is evidence that switching in the maintenance phase from pharmacotherapy to psychotherapy can be at least as effective in preventing relapse as staying with pharmacotherapy.[333] [339]

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

Complications

Complications	Timeframe	Likelihood
sexual adverse effects of selective serotonin-reuptake nhibitors (SSRIs) and serotonin-noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs)	short term	medium
Treatment options include: switching to a drug with a different mechanism of action (e.g., bupropion or mirtazapine or trazodone) or, in the absence of contraindications, considering augmentation with sildenafil.[470] [471] Note that there is growing recognition of a more persistent negative impact on libid of these medications in some patients persisting after drug discontinuation; however, it remains poorly understood and characterised.[472]		nentation with tive impact on libido
isk of self-injurious behaviour	short term	medium
Children, adolescents, and young adults may experience a transient increase in risk for self-injury, most severe with rapid escalation in dosing.[210] Close monitoring and risk management is recommended when prescribing an antidepressant to a person under the age of 25 years, or to anybody thought to be at increased risk for suicide.[165]		
undesired weight gain from antidepressants	short term	low
Weight gain is most common with mirtazapine but can also be seen with SSRIs, venlafaxine, and tricyclic antidepressants. Patient may be switched to bupropion.		
andepressants. I allent may be switched to bupropion.		
agitation or excessive activation from antidepressants	short term	low
· · · · · ·	antidepressant or mir diazepines, starting a	tazapine may be
agitation or excessive activation from antidepressants Patient may be switched to another SSRI or a low-dose tricyclic added. Clinicians may consider offering a short course of benzo	antidepressant or mir diazepines, starting a	tazapine may be
Agitation or excessive activation from antidepressants Patient may be switched to another SSRI or a low-dose tricyclic added. Clinicians may consider offering a short course of benzo effective dose, to counter short-term agitation associated with St unmasking mania As many as 1 in 5 patients diagnosed with depression may later convert to a bipolar disorder diagnosis; the best predictor is a fai Depressed patients with undiagnosed bipolar affective disorder antidepressants. Ask patients about a prior history of manic epis marked by unusually high energy, euphoria, insomnia, hyperacti starting antidepressant therapy. Patients who develop manic or hypomanic symptoms after starti evaluated by a psychiatrist. Frank mania suggests bipolar illness antidepressant and initiation of a mood stabiliser, preferably und	antidepressant or mir diazepines, starting a SRI initiation. short term go on to experience in mily history of bipolar may convert to frank r odes (e.g., periods of vity, or impaired judge ing an antidepressant and should prompt of er psychiatric supervi	tazapine may be t the lowest possible Iow mania, hence disorder.[473] mania if they receive days to weeks ement) before should be liscontinuation of the
Agitation or excessive activation from antidepressants Patient may be switched to another SSRI or a low-dose tricyclic added. Clinicians may consider offering a short course of benzo effective dose, to counter short-term agitation associated with St unmasking mania As many as 1 in 5 patients diagnosed with depression may later convert to a bipolar disorder diagnosis; the best predictor is a far Depressed patients with undiagnosed bipolar affective disorder is antidepressants. Ask patients about a prior history of manic epis marked by unusually high energy, euphoria, insomnia, hyperacti starting antidepressant therapy. Patients who develop manic or hypomanic symptoms after starti evaluated by a psychiatrist. Frank mania suggests bipolar illness antidepressant and initiation of a mood stabiliser, preferably und of mood-stabiliser drug therapy in bipolar disorder is important.	antidepressant or mir diazepines, starting a SRI initiation. short term go on to experience in nily history of bipolar may convert to frank r odes (e.g., periods of vity, or impaired judge ing an antidepressant and should prompt c er psychiatric supervit 474]	tazapine may be t the lowest possible Iow mania, hence disorder.[473] mania if they receive days to weeks ement) before should be liscontinuation of the sion. Early initiation
Agitation or excessive activation from antidepressants Patient may be switched to another SSRI or a low-dose tricyclic added. Clinicians may consider offering a short course of benzo effective dose, to counter short-term agitation associated with St unmasking mania As many as 1 in 5 patients diagnosed with depression may later convert to a bipolar disorder diagnosis; the best predictor is a fai Depressed patients with undiagnosed bipolar affective disorder antidepressants. Ask patients about a prior history of manic epis marked by unusually high energy, euphoria, insomnia, hyperacti starting antidepressant therapy. Patients who develop manic or hypomanic symptoms after starti evaluated by a psychiatrist. Frank mania suggests bipolar illness antidepressant and initiation of a mood stabiliser, preferably und	antidepressant or mir diazepines, starting a SRI initiation. short term go on to experience in mily history of bipolar may convert to frank r odes (e.g., periods of vity, or impaired judge ing an antidepressant and should prompt of er psychiatric supervi	tazapine may be t the lowest possible Iow mania, hence disorder.[473] mania if they receive days to weeks ement) before should be liscontinuation of the
Agitation or excessive activation from antidepressants Patient may be switched to another SSRI or a low-dose tricyclic added. Clinicians may consider offering a short course of benzo effective dose, to counter short-term agitation associated with St unmasking mania As many as 1 in 5 patients diagnosed with depression may later convert to a bipolar disorder diagnosis; the best predictor is a far Depressed patients with undiagnosed bipolar affective disorder is antidepressants. Ask patients about a prior history of manic epis marked by unusually high energy, euphoria, insomnia, hyperacti starting antidepressant therapy. Patients who develop manic or hypomanic symptoms after starti evaluated by a psychiatrist. Frank mania suggests bipolar illness antidepressant and initiation of a mood stabiliser, preferably und of mood-stabiliser drug therapy in bipolar disorder is important.	antidepressant or mir diazepines, starting a SRI initiation. short term go on to experience in mily history of bipolar may convert to frank in odes (e.g., periods of vity, or impaired judge ing an antidepressant and should prompt of er psychiatric supervit 74] short term vent but may occur wi in dose.[475]	tazapine may be t the lowest possible Iow mania, hence disorder.[473] mania if they receive days to weeks ement) before should be liscontinuation of the sion. Early initiation

Complications	Timeframe	Likelihood
antidepressant discontinuation syndrome	short term	low

It occurs after discontinuation of an antidepressant that was taken for at least 6 weeks. Typical symptoms include influenza-like symptoms, hyperarousal, insomnia, vertigo, and sensory disturbances (e.g., 'brain zaps'). Patients will often know how vulnerable they are to these symptoms, if they have ever skipped a dose or run out of their medication. Clinicians should slowly decrease the dose to reduce the risk of unpleasant discontinuation symptoms; this can usually be done over several weeks, but in some cases may take several months or longer in particularly susceptible patients.[324] [328]

The use of SSRIs may be associated with an increased risk of suicidal behaviour in patients under 25 years old and reduced risk in adults over 25 years old.[213] [477] [478] Close monitoring and risk management is recommended when prescribing an antidepressant to a person under the age of 25 years, or to anybody thought to be at increased risk for suicide.[165]

Prognosis

Complete remission of symptoms and return to normal functioning are the therapy goals. For patients in their first episode of depression, treatment to remission may take up to several months and should be continued for a minimum of 9 to 12 months after remission.[165] [322] Depression lasting more than 12 months occurs in approximately 12% of patients according to community studies, and in up to 61% of patients treated in secondary care.[467]

Depression may be intermittent and recurrent across the lifespan. [468] For patients who are established on antidepressants clinical guidance supports consideration of prolonged antidepressant treatment and psychological therapy for relapse prevention, either alone or in combination. [165] [332]

Depression recurs in about one third of patients within 1 year of discontinuing treatment and in more than 50% of patients during their lifetime.[39] Evidence that antidepressants can prevent relapse is unclear.[469] After 15 years, 87% will experience a recurrence. For patients with multiple recurrent depressive episodes, many experts advocate long-term maintenance therapy.[332]

Diagnostic guidelines

United Kingdom

Perinatal mental health conditions (https://www.sign.ac.uk/our-guidelines/ perinatal-mental-health-conditions)

Published by: Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network

Depression in adults: treatment and management (https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng222)

Published by: National Institute for Health and Care Excellence

International

WHO Clinical descriptions and diagnostic requirements for ICD-11 mental, behavioral and neurodevelopmental disorders (CDDR) (https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240077263)

Published by: World Health Organization (WHO)

Last published: 2024

Last published: 2023

Last published: 2022

North America

Screening and diagnosis of mental health conditions during pregnancy and postpartum (https://www.acog.org/Clinical-Guidance-and-Publications/ Search-Clinical-Guidance)

Published by: American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists Last published: 2023

Depression and suicide risk in adults: screening (https:// www.uspreventiveservicestaskforce.org/uspstf)

Published by: US Preventive Services Task Force

Last published: 2023

Screening and intervention for mental health disorders and substance use and misuse in the acute trauma patient (https://www.facs.org/qualityprograms/trauma/quality/best-practices-guidelines)

Published by: American College of Surgeons

Last published: 2022

Perinatal depression: preventive interventions (https:// www.uspreventiveservicestaskforce.org/uspstf/recommendation-topics)

Published by: US Preventive Services Task Force

Last published: 2019

Last published: 2013

Recommendations on screening for depression in adults (https:// canadiantaskforce.ca/guidelines/all-guidelines)

Published by: Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care

Treatment guidelines

United Kingdom

Perinatal mental health conditions (https://www.sign.ac.uk/our-guidelines/ perinatal-mental-health-conditions)

Published by: Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network

Last published: 2023

Depression in adults: treatment and management (https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng222)

 Published by: National Institute for Health and Care Excellence
 Last published: 2022

Rehabilitation for adults with complex psychosis (https://www.nice.org.uk/ guidance/ng181)

Published by: National Institute for Health and Care Excellence Last published: 2020

British Association for Psychopharmacology consensus guidance on the use of psychotropic medication preconception, in pregnancy and postpartum 2017 (https://www.bap.org.uk/guidelines)

Published by: British Association for Psychopharmacology

Last published: 2017

Evidence-based guidelines for treating depressive disorders with antidepressants: a revision of the 2008 British Association for Psychopharmacology guidelines (https://www.bap.org.uk/guidelines)

Published by: British Association for Psychopharmacology

Last published: 2015

Europe

Improving mental health care in depression: a call for action (https:// www.europsy.net/guidance-papers)

Published by: European Psychiatric Association

Last published: 2023

114

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

International

Mental Health Gap Action Programme (mhGAP) guideline for mental, neurological and substance use disorders (https://www.who.int/publications/ i/item/9789240084278)

Published by: World Health Organization

Last published: 2023

Guidelines for biological treatment of unipolar depressive disorders, part 2: maintenance treatment of major depressive disorder - update 2015 (https:// wfsbp.org/educational-activities/treatment-cuidelines-and-consensuspaper)

Published by: World Federation of Societies of Biological Psychiatry Last published: 2015

Guidelines for biological treatment of unipolar depressive disorders, part 1: update 2013 on the acute and continuation treatment of unipolar depressive disorders (https://wfsbp.org/educational-activities/treatment-cuidelines-andconsensus-paper)

Published by: World Federation of Societies of Biological Psychiatry Last published: 2013

North America

Nonpharmacologic and pharmacologic treatments of adults in the acute phase of major depressive disorder (https://www.acponline.org/clinicalinformation/clinical-guidelines-recommendations)

Published by: American College of Physicians

Last published: 2023 (reaffirmed 2025)

Clinical guidelines for the management of adults with major depressive disorder (https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/07067437241245384)

Published by: Canadian Network for Mood and Anxiety Treatments Last published: 2023

Treatment and management of mental health conditions during pregnancy and postpartum (https://www.acog.org/Clinical-Guidance-and-Publications/ Search-Clinical-Guidance)

Published by: American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists Last published: 2023

VA/DoD clinical practice guideline for the management of major depressive disorder (https://www.healthquality.va.gov/guidelines/MH/mdd)

Published by: US Department of Veterans Affairs; Department ofLast published: 2022Defense

Depression, adult in primary care (https://www.icsi.org/guideline)

Published by: Institute for Clinical Systems Improvement Last published: 2016

The CANMAT task force recommendations for mood disorders and comorbid conditions: diagnostic, assessment, and treatment principles (https://www.canmat.org/resources/)

Published by: Canadian Network for Mood and Anxiety Treatment Last published: 2012

Practice guideline for the treatment of patients with major depressive disorder (https://psychiatryonline.org/guidelines)

Published by: American Psychiatric Association

Last published: 2010

Oceania

Royal Australian and New Zealand College of Psychiatrists clinical practice guidelines for mood disorders (https://www.ranzcp.org/clinical-guidelines-publications/in-focus-topics/mood-disorders)

Published by: The Royal Australian and New Zealand College ofLast published: 2024PsychiatristsPsychiatrists

Online resources

- 1. WHO: Global Health Estimates (https://www.who.int/data/global-health-estimates) (external link)
- 2. IHME: Global Burden of Disease (GBD) (https://www.healthdata.org/research-analysis/gbd) (external link)
- 3. Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (https://www.fresno.ucsf.edu/pediatrics/downloads/ edinburghscale.pdf) (external link)
- 4. Cornell Scale For Depression in Dementia (https://cgatoolkit.ca/Uploads/ContentDocuments/ cornell_scale_depression.pdf) (*external link*)
- 5. UK Teratology Information Service (http://www.uktis.org) (external link)
- 6. STOPP-START (https://www.cgakit.com/m-2-stopp-start) (external link)

Evidence tables

What are the effects of cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) versus second-

generation antidepressants (e.g., selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors or serotonin-noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors) in adults with major depressive disorder?[170]



This table is a summary of the analysis reported in a systematic review that focuses on the above important clinical question.

View the full source systematic review (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5623437)

Evidence B * Confidence in the evidence is moderate or low to moderate where GRADE has been performed and there may be no difference in effectiveness between the intervention and comparison for key outcomes.

Population: Adults with major depressive disorder

Intervention: CBT

Comparison: Second-generation antidepressants (e.g., selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors or serotoninnoradrenaline reuptake inhibitors)

Outcome	Effectiveness (BMJ rating) [†]	Confidence in evidence (GRADE) [‡]
Response to treatment	No statistically significant difference	Moderate

Note

The reviewers of the systematic review (view the full source systematic review above) used 'response to treatment' as defined in the individual studies, but report that most commonly this was presented as a 50% reduction of symptoms on a depression rating scale (e.g., Hamilton Depression Scale).

What are the effects of St John's Wort in adults with major depressive disorder

compared with antidepressants?[456]



This table is a summary of the analysis reported in a systematic review that focuses on the above important clinical question.

View the full source systematic review (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5010734)

Evidence C * Confidence in the evidence is very low or low where GRADE has been performed and there may be no difference in effectiveness between the intervention and comparison for key outcomes. However, this is uncertain and new evidence could change this in the future.

Population: Adults with major depressive disorder **Intervention:** St John's Wort

Comparison: Antidepressant

Outcome	Effectiveness (BMJ rating) [†]	Confidence in evidence (GRADE) [‡]
Depression, number of treatment responders	No statistically significant difference	Moderate
Depression scale score	No statistically significant difference	Moderate
Depression remission	No statistically significant difference	Low
Depression relapse	No statistically significant difference	Very Low
Quality of life: mental	No statistically significant difference	Very Low
Quality of life: physical	Favours intervention	Very Low
Number of patients with adverse events	Occurs more commonly with antidepressants compared with St John's Wort (favours intervention)	Moderate
Serious adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Low
Gastrointestinal/metabolic/ nutritional adverse events	Occurs more commonly with antidepressants compared with St John's Wort (favours intervention)	Low

Outcome	Effectiveness (BMJ rating) [†]	Confidence in evidence (GRADE) [‡]
Neurological/nervous system adverse events	Occurs more commonly with antidepressants compared with St John's Wort (favours intervention)	Low
Skin/musculoskeletal adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Low
Respiratory/infectious adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Very Low
Other organ system (eye, ear, liver, renal, reproductive) adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Low
Cardiovascular adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Low
Psychiatric adverse events	Occurs more commonly with antidepressants compared with St John's Wort (favours intervention)	Very Low
Sexual dysfunction adverse events	Occurs more commonly with antidepressants compared with St John's Wort (favours intervention)	Low

Note

- The reviewers of the systematic review (view the full source systematic review above) concluded that St John's Wort is similarly effective when compared with antidepressants.
- Fewer adverse events occurred in the gastrointestinal, neurological, and psychiatric functioning with St John's Wort when compared with antidepressants.
- Only studies with a treatment duration of ≥4 weeks were included.

What are the effects of St John's Wort in adults with major depressive disorder

compared with placebo?[456]#



This table is a summary of the analysis reported in a systematic review that focuses on the above important clinical question.

View the full source systematic review (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5010734)

Evidence C * Confidence in the evidence is very low or low where GRADE has been performed and the intervention may be more effective/beneficial than the comparison for key outcomes. However, this is uncertain and new evidence could change this in the future.

Population: Adults with major depressive disorder Intervention: St John's Wort Comparison: Placebo

Outcome	Effectiveness (BMJ rating) [†]	Confidence in evidence (GRADE) [‡]
Depression, number of treatment responders	Favours intervention	Moderate
Depression scale score	Favours intervention	Moderate
Depression remission	No statistically significant difference	Low
Depression relapse	No statistically significant difference	Very Low
Quality of life: mental	Favours intervention	Low
Quality of life: physical	No statistically significant difference	Very Low
Number of patients with adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Moderate
Serious adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Moderate
Gastrointestinal/metabolic/ nutritional adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Low
Neurological/nervous system adverse events	Occurs more commonly with St John's Wort compared with placebo (favours comparison)	Low

Outcome	Effectiveness (BMJ rating) [†]	Confidence in evidence (GRADE) [‡]
Skin/musculoskeletal adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Very Low
Photosensitivity	No statistically significant difference	Low
Respiratory/infectious adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Low
Other organ system (eye, ear, liver, renal, reproductive) adverse events	Occurs more commonly with St John's Wort compared with placebo (favours comparison)	Low
Cardiovascular adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Very Low
Psychiatric adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Very Low
Sexual dysfunction adverse events	No statistically significant difference	Very Low

Note

- The reviewers of the systematic review (view the full source systematic review above) concluded that St John's Wort is effective in treating major depressive disorder when compared with placebo.
- People experienced adverse events related to the nervous system, eye, ear, liver, renal, and reproductive organ systems with St John's Wort when compared with placebo.
- Only studies with a treatment duration of \geq 4 weeks were included.

* Evidence levels

The Evidence level is an internal rating applied by BMJ Best Practice. See the EBM Toolkit (https://bestpractice.bmj.com/info/evidence-tables/) for details.

Confidence in evidence

- A High or moderate to high
- B Moderate or low to moderate
- C Very low or low

† Effectiveness (BMJ rating)

Based on statistical significance, which demonstrates that the results are unlikely to be due to chance, but which does not necessarily translate to a clinical significance.

‡ Grade certainty ratings

High	The authors are very confident that the true effect is similar to the estimated effect.
Moderate	The authors are moderately confident that the true effect is likely to be close to the estimated effect.
Low	The authors have limited confidence in the effect estimate and the true effect may be substantially different.
Very Low	The authors have very little confidence in the effect estimate and the true effect is likely to be substantially different.

BMJ Best Practice EBM Toolkit: What is GRADE? (https://bestpractice.bmj.com/info/toolkit/learn-ebm/what-is-grade/)

Key articles

- REFERENCES
- American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, 5th ed., text revision (DSM-5-TR). Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Publishing; 2022.
- National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Depression in adults: treatment and management. Jun 2022 [internet publication]. Full text (https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng222)
- American College of Physicians. Nonpharmacologic and pharmacologic treatments
 of adults in the acute phase of major depressive disorder: a living clinical guideline
 from the American College of Physicians. Feb 2023 [internet publication].. Full
 text (https://www.acponline.org/sites/default/files/acp-policy-library/guidelines/
 nonpharmacologic_and_pharmacologic_treatments_of_adults_in_the_acute_phase_of_major_depressive_disorder

References

- 1. American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, 5th ed., text revision (DSM-5-TR). Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Publishing; 2022.
- 2. World Health Organization. ICD-11 for mortality and morbidity statistics. Jan 2024 [internet publication]. Full text (https://icd.who.int/browse/2024-01/mms/en)
- Zimmerman M, Morgan TA, Stanton K. The severity of psychiatric disorders. World Psychiatry. 2018 Oct;17(3):258-75. Full text (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/wps.20569) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30192110?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Kroenke K, Spitzer RL, Williams JB. The PHQ-9: validity of a brief depression severity measure. J Gen Intern Med. 2001 Sep;16(9):606-13. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11556941? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Kessler RC, Zhao S, Blazer DG, et al. Prevalence, correlates, and course of minor depression and major depression in the National Comorbidity Survey. J Affect Disord. 1997 Aug;45(1-2):19-30. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9268772?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Kendler KS, Gardner CO Jr. Boundaries of major depression: an evaluation of DSM-IV criteria. Am J Psychiatry. 1998 Feb;155(2):172-7. Full text (https://psychiatryonline.org/doi/10.1176/ajp.155.2.172) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9464194?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Haroz EE, Ritchey M, Bass JK, et al. How is depression experienced around the world? a systematic review of qualitative literature. Soc Sci Med. 2017 Jun;183:151-62. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28069271?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Kapfhammer HP. Somatic symptoms in depression. Dialogues Clin Neurosci. 2006;8(2):227-39. Full text (https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.31887/DCNS.2006.8.2/hpkapfhammer#d1e177) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16889108?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 9. Fried EI, Epskamp S, Nesse RM, et al. What are 'good' depression symptoms? comparing the centrality of DSM and non-DSM symptoms of depression in a network analysis. J Affect Disord. 2016 Jan 1;189:314-20. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26458184? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Martin LA, Neighbors HW, Griffith DM. The experience of symptoms of depression in men vs women: analysis of the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. JAMA Psychiatry. 2013 Oct;70(10):1100-6. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/1733742#google_vignette) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23986338?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Kok RM, Reynolds CF 3rd. Management of depression in older adults: a review. JAMA. 2017 May 23;317(20):2114-22. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28535241? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 12. Beck CT. Predictors of postpartum depression: an update. Nurs Res. 2001 Sep-Oct;50(5):275-85. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11570712?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 13. Carney RM, Freedland KE. Depression and coronary heart disease. Nat Rev Cardiol. 2016 Nov 17;14(3):145-55. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27853162?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Robinson RG, Jorge RE. Post-stroke depression: a review. Am J Psychiatry. 2015 Dec 18;173(3):221-31. Full text (https://ajp.psychiatryonline.org/doi/full/10.1176/appi.ajp.2015.15030363? url_ver=Z39.88-2003&rfr_id=ori:rid:crossref.org&rfr_dat=cr_pub%3dpubmed) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26684921?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Moulton CD, Pickup JC, Ismail K. The link between depression and diabetes: the search for shared mechanisms. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol. 2015 May 17;3(6):461-71. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25995124?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Caruso R, Nanni MG, Riba M, et al. Depressive spectrum disorders in cancer: prevalence, risk factors and screening for depression: a critical review. Acta Oncol. 2017 Feb;56(2):146-55. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28140731?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- World Health Organization. Depression and other common mental disorders: global health estimates.
 2017 [internet publication]. Full text (https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/254610)
- Cuijpers P, Vogelzangs N, Twisk J, et al. Comprehensive meta-analysis of excess mortality in depression in the general community versus patients with specific illnesses. Am J Psychiatry. 2014 Apr;171(4):453-62. Full text (https://psychiatryonline.org/doi/10.1176/appi.ajp.2013.13030325) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24434956?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Ormel J, Petukhova M, Chatterji S, et al. Disability and treatment of specific mental and physical disorders across the world. Br J Psychiatry. 2008 May;192(5):368-75. Full text (https:// www.cambridge.org/core/journals/the-british-journal-of-psychiatry/article/disability-and-treatment-ofspecific-mental-and-physical-disorders-across-the-world/84546ECF0422282EFB55DE6689187D67) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18450663?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 20. Zhang Z, Jackson SL, Gillespie C, et al. Depressive symptoms and mortality among US adults. JAMA Netw Open. 2023 Oct 2;6(10):e2337011. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/

jamanetworkopen/fullarticle/2810363#google_vignette) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37812418?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- Murray CJ, Atkinson C, Bhalla K, et al. The state of US health, 1990-2010: burden of diseases, injuries, and risk factors. JAMA. 2013 Aug 14;310(6):591-608. Full text (https:// www.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2013.13805) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23842577? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 22. Matcham F, Norton S, Scott DL, et al. Symptoms of depression and anxiety predict treatment response and long-term physical health outcomes in rheumatoid arthritis: secondary analysis of a randomized controlled trial. Rheumatology (Oxford). 2016 Feb;55(2):268-78. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4710801) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/26350486?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Harshfield EL, Pennells L, Schwartz JE, et al. Association between depressive symptoms and incident cardiovascular diseases. JAMA. 2020 Dec 15;324(23):2396-405. Full text (https:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7739139) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/33320224?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 24. Choudhary P, Ronkainen J, Nedelec R, et al. The relationship of life-course patterns of adiposity with type 2 diabetes, depression, and their comorbidity in the Northern Finland Birth Cohort 1966. Int J Obes (Lond). 2022 May 13 [Epub ahead of print]. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/ PMC9105590) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35562396?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Ferrari AJ, Somerville AJ, Baxter AJ, et al. Global variation in the prevalence and incidence of major depressive disorder: a systematic review of the epidemiological literature. Psychol Med. 2013 Mar;43(3):471-81. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22831756? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 26. Gutiérrez-Rojas L, Porras-Segovia A, Dunne H, et al. Prevalence and correlates of major depressive disorder: a systematic review. Braz J Psychiatry. 2020 Nov-Dec;42(6):657-72. Full text (https:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7678895) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/32756809?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Arias-de la Torre J, Vilagut G, Ronaldson A, et al. Prevalence and variability of current depressive disorder in 27 European countries: a population-based study. Lancet Public Health. 2021 Oct;6(10):e729-38. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC8460452) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33961802?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Herrman H, Patel V, Kieling C, et al. Time for united action on depression: a Lancet-World Psychiatric Association Commission. Lancet. 2022 Mar 5;399(10328):957-1022. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35180424?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 29. Kessler RC, Bromet EJ. The epidemiology of depression across cultures. Annu Rev Public Health. 2013;34:119-38. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23514317?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- References
- Abdoli N, Salari N, Darvishi N, et al. The global prevalence of major depressive disorder (MDD) among the elderly: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Neurosci Biobehav Rev. 2022 Jan;132:1067-73. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34742925?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 31. Fiske A, Wetherell JL, Gatz M. Depression in older adults. Annu Rev Clin Psychol. 2009;5:363-89. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.clinpsy.032408.153621) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19327033?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 32. Fornaro M, Solmi M, Stubbs B, et al. Prevalence and correlates of major depressive disorder, bipolar disorder and schizophrenia among nursing home residents without dementia: systematic review and meta-analysis. Br J Psychiatry. 2020 Jan;216(1):6-15. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1192/bjp.2019.5) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30864533?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 33. Pedersen CB, Mors O, Bertelsen A, et al. A comprehensive nationwide study of the incidence rate and lifetime risk for treated mental disorders. JAMA Psychiatry. 2014 May;71(5):573-81. Full text (https:// jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/1847579) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/24806211?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Chesney E, Goodwin GM, Fazel S. Risks of all-cause and suicide mortality in mental disorders: a meta-review. World Psychiatry. 2014 Jun;13(2):153-60. Full text (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/ doi/10.1002/wps.20128) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24890068? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Dong M, Zeng LN, Lu L, et al. Prevalence of suicide attempt in individuals with major depressive disorder: a meta-analysis of observational surveys. Psychol Med. 2019 Jul;49(10):1691-704. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30178722?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Kotiaho S, Korniloff K, Vanhala M, et al. Psychiatric diagnosis in primary care patients with increased depressive symptoms. Nord J Psychiatry. 2019 Apr;73(3):195-9. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/30929594?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Lamers F, van Oppen P, Comijs HC, et al. Comorbidity patterns of anxiety and depressive disorders in a large cohort study: the Netherlands Study of Depression and Anxiety (NESDA). J Clin Psychiatry. 2011 Mar;72(3):341-8. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21294994? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Hunt GE, Malhi GS, Lai HMX, et al. Prevalence of comorbid substance use in major depressive disorder in community and clinical settings, 1990-2019: systematic review and meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2020 Apr 1;266:288-304. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32056890? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Remick RA. Diagnosis and management of depression in primary care: a clinical update and review. CMAJ. 2002 Nov 26;167(11):1253-60. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12451082? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Gold SM, Köhler-Forsberg O, Moss-Morris R, et al. Comorbid depression in medical diseases. Nat Rev Dis Primers. 2020 Aug 20;6(1):69. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32820163? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

Depression in adults

- 41. Asmer MS, Kirkham J, Newton H, et al. Meta-analysis of the prevalence of major depressive disorder among older adults with dementia. J Clin Psychiatry. 2018 Jul 31;79(5). Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30085437?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 42. Penninx BW, Milaneschi Y, Lamers F, et al. Understanding the somatic consequences of depression: biological mechanisms and the role of depression symptom profile. BMC Med. 2013 May 15;11:129. Full text (https://bmcmedicine.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1741-7015-11-129) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23672628?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Katon WJ. Epidemiology and treatment of depression in patients with chronic medical illness.
 Dialogues Clin Neurosci. 2011;13(1):7-23. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/ PMC3181964) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21485743?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Cooney LG, Lee I, Sammel MD, et al. High prevalence of moderate and severe depressive and anxiety symptoms in polycystic ovary syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Hum Reprod. 2017 May 1;32(5):1075-91. Full text (https://academic.oup.com/humrep/article/32/5/1075/3064352) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28333286?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 45. Arnaud AM, Brister TS, Duckworth K, et al. Impact of major depressive disorder on comorbidities: a systematic literature review. J Clin Psychiatry. 2022 Oct 19;83(6):21r14328. Full text (https:// www.psychiatrist.com/jcp/impact-major-depressive-disorder-comorbidities-systematic-literature-review) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36264099?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 46. Jia H, Guerin RJ, Barile JP, et al. National and state trends in anxiety and depression severity scores among adults during the COVID-19 pandemic: United States, 2020-2021. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 2021 Oct 8;70(40):1427-32. Full text (https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/volumes/70/wr/mm7040e3.htm) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34618798?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 47. COVID-19 Mental Disorders Collaborators. Global prevalence and burden of depressive and anxiety disorders in 204 countries and territories in 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Lancet. 2021 Nov 6;398(10312):1700-12. Full text (https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(21)02143-7/fulltext) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34634250? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 48. Collier Villaume S, Chen S, Adam EK. Age disparities in prevalence of anxiety and depression among US adults during the COVID-19 pandemic. JAMA Netw Open. 2023 Nov 1;6(11):e2345073. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamanetworkopen/fullarticle/2812389#google_vignette) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38032641?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- World Health Organization. COVID-19 pandemic triggers 25% increase in prevalence of anxiety and depression worldwide. Mar 2022 [internet publication]. Full text (https://www.who.int/news/ item/02-03-2022-covid-19-pandemic-triggers-25-increase-in-prevalence-of-anxiety-and-depressionworldwide)
- 50. Gronemann FH, Jacobsen RK, Wium-Andersen MK, et al. Association of familial aggregation of major depression with risk of major depression. JAMA Psychiatry. 2023 Apr 1;80(4):350-9. Full text (https:// jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/2801423#google_vignette) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36753297?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- References
- 51. Wray NR, Ripke S, Mattheisen M, et al. Genome-wide association analyses identify 44 risk variants and refine the genetic architecture of major depression. Nat Genet. 2018 May;50(5):668-81. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29700475?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 52. Howard DM, Adams MJ, Clarke TK, et al. Genome-wide meta-analysis of depression identifies 102 independent variants and highlights the importance of the prefrontal brain regions. Nat Neurosci. 2019 Mar;22(3):343-52. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30718901? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 53. Levey DF, Stein MB, Wendt FR, et al. Bi-ancestral depression GWAS in the Million Veteran Program and meta-analysis in >1.2 million individuals highlight new therapeutic directions. Nat Neurosci. 2021 Jul;24(7):954-63. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34045744?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 54. Musliner KL, Mortensen PB, McGrath JJ, et al. Association of polygenic liabilities for major depression, bipolar disorder, and schizophrenia with risk for depression in the Danish population. JAMA Psychiatry. 2019 May 1;76(5):516-25. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/ fullarticle/2722563#google_vignette) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30698613? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 55. Risch N, Herrell R, Lehner T, et al. Interaction between the serotonin transporter gene (5-HTTLPR), stressful life events, and risk of depression: a meta-analysis. JAMA. 2009 Jun 17;301(23):2462-71. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19531786?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 56. Wang Q, Shelton RC, Dwivedi Y. Interaction between early-life stress and FKBP5 gene variants in major depressive disorder and post-traumatic stress disorder: a systematic review and metaanalysis. J Affect Disord. 2018 Jan 1;225:422-8. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/ PMC5626653) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28850857?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 57. Marzi SJ, Sugden K, Arseneault L, et al. Analysis of DNA methylation in young people: limited evidence for an association between victimization stress and epigenetic variation in blood. Am J Psychiatry. 2018 Jun 1;175(6):517-29. Full text (https://psychiatryonline.org/ doi/10.1176/appi.ajp.2017.17060693) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29325449? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 58. Li M, D'Arcy C, Meng X. Maltreatment in childhood substantially increases the risk of adult depression and anxiety in prospective cohort studies: systematic review, meta-analysis, and proportional attributable fractions. Psychol Med. 2016 Mar;46(4):717-30. Full text (https://www.cambridge.org/ core/journals/psychological-medicine/article/maltreatment-in-childhood-substantially-increases-therisk-of-adult-depression-and-anxiety-in-prospective-cohort-studies-systematic-review-metaanalysisand-proportional-attributable-fractions/1901150B6CE79593FC1E03621913BAE3) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26708271?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 59. Nanni V, Uher R, Danese A. Childhood maltreatment predicts unfavorable course of illness and treatment outcome in depression: a meta-analysis. Am J Psychiatry. 2012 Feb;169(2):141-51. Full text (https://psychiatryonline.org/doi/10.1176/appi.ajp.2011.11020335) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22420036?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 60. Gobbi G, Atkin T, Zytynski T, et al. Association of cannabis use in adolescence and risk of depression, anxiety, and suicidality in young adulthood: a systematic review and meta-analysis.

JAMA Psychiatry. 2019 Apr 1;76(4):426-34. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/ jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/2723657) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30758486? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 61. Schuch FB, Vancampfort D, Firth J, et al. Physical activity and incident depression: a metaanalysis of prospective cohort studies. Am J Psychiatry. 2018 Jul 1;175(7):631-48. Full text (https:// psychiatryonline.org/doi/10.1176/appi.ajp.2018.17111194) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/29690792?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 62. Li Y, Lv MR, Wei YJ, et al. Dietary patterns and depression risk: a meta-analysis. Psychiatry Res. 2017 Jul;253:373-82. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28431261?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Luger TM, Suls J, Vander Weg MW. How robust is the association between smoking and depression in adults? a meta-analysis using linear mixed-effects models. Addict Behav. 2014 Oct;39(10):1418-29. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24935795?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 64. Yang J, Zheng P, Li Y, et al. Landscapes of bacterial and metabolic signatures and their interaction in major depressive disorders. Sci Adv. 2020 Dec;6(49):eaba8555. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7710361) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7710361) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7710361)
- 65. Knudsen JK, Bundgaard-Nielsen C, Hjerrild S, et al. Gut microbiota variations in patients diagnosed with major depressive disorder: a systematic review. Brain Behav. 2021 Jul;11(7):e02177. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC8323045) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/34047485?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 66. Dunlop BW, Nemeroff CB. The role of dopamine in the pathophysiology of depression. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 2007 Mar;64(3):327-37. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17339521? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Nutt DJ, Baldwin DS, Clayton AH, et al. Consensus statement and research needs: the role of dopamine and norepinephrine in depression and antidepressant treatment. J Clin Psychiatry. 2006;67(suppl 6):S46-9. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16848678? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 68. Greden JF. Physical symptoms of depression: unmet needs. J Clin Psychiatry. 2003;64(suppl 7):S5-11. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12755646?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 69. Moncrieff J, Cooper RE, Stockmann T, et al. The serotonin theory of depression: a systematic umbrella review of the evidence. Mol Psychiatry. 2023 Aug;28(8):3243-56. Full text (https:// www.nature.com/articles/s41380-022-01661-0) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/35854107?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 70. Jauhar S, Arnone D, Baldwin DS, et al. A leaky umbrella has little value: evidence clearly indicates the serotonin system is implicated in depression. Mol Psychiatry. 2023 Aug;28(8):3149-52. Full text (https://www.nature.com/articles/s41380-023-02095-y) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/37322065?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 71. Smith KA, Fairburn CG, Cowen PJ. Relapse of depression after rapid depletion of tryptophan. Lancet. 1997 Mar 29;349(9056):915-9. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9093253? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 72. Neumeister A, Nugent AC, Waldeck T, et al. Neural and behavioral responses to tryptophan depletion in unmedicated patients with remitted major depressive disorder and controls. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 2004 Aug;61(8):765-73. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/ fullarticle/482046#google_vignette) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15289275? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Ising M, Horstmann S, Kloiber S, et al. Combined dexamethasone/corticotropin releasing hormone test predicts treatment response in major depression - a potential biomarker? Biol Psychiatry. 2007 Jul 1;62(1):47-54. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17123470?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 74. Carroll BJ, Feinberg M, Greden JF, et al. A specific laboratory test for the diagnosis of melancholia: standardization, validation, and clinical utility. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 1981 Jan;38(1):15-22. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7458567?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 75. Kelly JR, Borre Y, O' Brien C, et al. Transferring the blues: depression-associated gut microbiota induces neurobehavioural changes in the rat. J Psychiatr Res. 2016 Nov;82:109-18. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27491067?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 76. Kerr DM, McDonald J, Minnis H. The association of child maltreatment and systemic inflammation in adulthood: A systematic review. PLoS One. 2021;16(4):e0243685. Full text (https://journals.plos.org/ plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0243685) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/33831008?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 77. Schmaal L, Hibar DP, Sämann PG, et al. Cortical abnormalities in adults and adolescents with major depression based on brain scans from 20 cohorts worldwide in the ENIGMA Major Depressive Disorder Working Group. Mol Psychiatry. 2017 Jun;22(6):900-9. Full text (https:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5444023) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/27137745?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 78. Schmaal L, Veltman DJ, van Erp TG, et al. Subcortical brain alterations in major depressive disorder: findings from the ENIGMA Major Depressive Disorder working group. Mol Psychiatry. 2016 Jun;21(6):806-12. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4879183) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26122586?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 79. MacQueen G, Frodl T. The hippocampus in major depression: evidence for the convergence of the bench and bedside in psychiatric research? Mol Psychiatry. 2011 Mar;16(3):252-64. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20661246?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Peng W, Chen Z, Yin L, et al. Essential brain structural alterations in major depressive disorder: a voxel-wise meta-analysis on first episode, medication-naive patients. J Affect Disord. 2016 Jul 15;199:114-23. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27100056?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 81. Zhong X, Pu W, Yao S. Functional alterations of fronto-limbic circuit and default mode network systems in first-episode, drug-naïve patients with major depressive disorder: a meta-analysis of

resting-state fMRI data. J Affect Disord. 2016 Dec;206:280-6. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27639862?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 82. Friston KJ. Functional and effective connectivity: a review. Brain Connect. 2011;1(1):13-36. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22432952?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Gavin NI, Gaynes BN, Lohr KN, et al. Perinatal depression: a systematic review of prevalence and incidence. Obstet Gynecol. 2005 Nov;106(5 Pt 1):1071-83. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/16260528?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 84. Barlow J, Smailagic N, Huband N, et al. Group-based parent training programmes for improving parental psychosocial health. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2014 May 17;(5):CD002020. Full text (http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD002020.pub4/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24838729?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 85. Kendler KS, Gardner CO, Prescott CA. Clinical characteristics of major depression that predict risk of depression in relatives. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 1999 Apr;56(4):322-7. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10197826?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Runeson B, Asberg M. Family history of suicide among suicide victims. Am J Psychiatry. 2003 Aug;160(8):1525-6. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12900320? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Kessler RC, Sampson NA, Berglund P, et al. Anxious and non-anxious major depressive disorder in the World Health Organization World Mental Health Surveys. Epidemiol Psychiatr Sci. 2015 Jun;24(3):210-26. Full text (https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/epidemiology-and-psychiatricsciences/article/anxious-and-nonanxious-major-depressive-disorder-in-the-world-health-organizationworld-mental-health-surveys/E103963822D81BDEA5BB8AF120460811) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25720357?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Fava M, Alpert JE, Carmin CN, et al. Clinical correlates and symptom patterns of anxious depression among patients with major depressive disorder in STAR*D. Psychol Med. 2004 Oct;34(7):1299-308.
 Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15697056?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Childhood Trauma Meta-Analysis Study Group. Treatment efficacy and effectiveness in adults with major depressive disorder and childhood trauma history: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet Psychiatry. 2022 Nov;9(11):860-73. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36156242? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 90. Brommelhoff JA, Gatz M, Johansson B, et al. Depression as a risk factor or prodromal feature for dementia? findings in a population-based sample of Swedish twins. Psychol Aging. 2009 Jun;24(2):373-84. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19485655? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 91. Saczynski JS, Beiser A, Seshadri S, et al. Depressive symptoms and risk of dementia: the Framingham Heart Study. Neurology. 2010 Jul 6;75(1):35-41. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/20603483?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

References

- 92. Brown ES, Chandler PA. Mood and cognitive changes during systemic corticosteroid therapy. Prim Care Companion J Clin Psychiatry. 2001 Feb;3(1):17-21. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/15014624?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 93. Baraldi S, Hepgul N, Mondelli V, et al. Symptomatic treatment of interferon-α-induced depression in hepatitis C: a systematic review. J Clin Psychopharmacol. 2012 Aug;32(4):531-43. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22722514?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 94. Johansson T, Vinther Larsen S, Bui M, et al. Population-based cohort study of oral contraceptive use and risk of depression. Epidemiol Psychiatr Sci. 2023 Jun 12;32:e39. Full text (https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/epidemiology-and-psychiatric-sciences/article/populationbased-cohort-study-of-oral-contraceptive-use-and-risk-of-depression/B3C611DD318D7DC536B4BD439343A5BD) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37303201?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 95. Mu E, Kulkarni J. Hormonal contraception and mood disorders. Aust Prescr. 2022 Jun;45(3):75-9. Full text (https://australianprescriber.tg.org.au/articles/hormonal-contraception-and-mood-disorders.html) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35755988?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 96. Walker J, Burke K, Wanat M, et al. The prevalence of depression in general hospital inpatients: a systematic review and meta-analysis of interview-based studies. Psychol Med. 2018 Oct;48(14):2285-98. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29576041? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 97. Pitman A, Suleman S, Hyde N, et al. Depression and anxiety in patients with cancer. BMJ. 2018 Apr 25;361:k1415. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29695476?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 98. Nanni MG, Caruso R, Mitchell AJ, et al. Depression in HIV infected patients: a review. Curr Psychiatry Rep. 2015 Jan;17(1):530. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25413636? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 99. Bair MJ, Robinson RL, Katon W, et al. Depression and pain comorbidity: a literature review. Arch Intern Med. 2003 Nov 10;163(20):2433-45. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/ jamainternalmedicine/fullarticle/216320) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14609780? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 100. Pereira-Miranda E, Costa PRF, Queiroz VAO, et al. Overweight and obesity associated with higher depression prevalence in adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Am Coll Nutr. 2017 Mar-Apr;36(3):223-33. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28394727? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 101. Khaledi M, Haghighatdoost F, Feizi A, et al. The prevalence of comorbid depression in patients with type 2 diabetes: an updated systematic review and meta-analysis on huge number of observational studies. Acta Diabetol. 2019 Jun;56(6):631-650. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s00592-019-01295-9) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30903433? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 102. Patten SB, Williams JVA, Lavorato DH, et al. Patterns of association of chronic medical conditions and major depression. Epidemiol Psychiatr Sci. 2018 Feb;27(1):42-50. Full text

(https://www.doi.org/10.1017/S204579601600072X) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27784343?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 103. Secinti E, Thompson EJ, Richards M, et al. Research Review: childhood chronic physical illness and adult emotional health - a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Child Psychol Psychiatry. 2017 Jul;58(7):753-69. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28449285?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 104. Onaemo VN, Fawehinmi TO, D'Arcy C. Comorbid cannabis use disorder with major depression and generalized anxiety disorder: a systematic review with meta-analysis of nationally representative epidemiological surveys. J Affect Disord. 2021 Feb 15;281:467-75. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33360749?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 105. Jefsen OH, Erlangsen A, Nordentoft M, et al. Cannabis use disorder and subsequent risk of psychotic and nonpsychotic unipolar depression and bipolar disorder. JAMA Psychiatry. 2023 Aug 1;80(8):803-10. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/ fullarticle/2804862#google_vignette) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37223912? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 106. Black N, Stockings E, Campbell G, et al. Cannabinoids for the treatment of mental disorders and symptoms of mental disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet Psychiatry. 2019 Dec;6(12):995-1010. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6949116) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31672337?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Hayward M, Moran P. Comorbidity of personality disorders and mental illnesses. Psychiatry. 2008 Mar 14;7(3):102-4.
- 108. Newton-Howes G, Tyrer P, Anagnostakis K, et al. The prevalence of personality disorder, its comorbidity with mental state disorders, and its clinical significance in community mental health teams. Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol. 2010 Apr;45(4):453-60. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19543844?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 109. Zimmerman M, Rothschild L, Chelminski I. The prevalence of DSM-IV personality disorders in psychiatric outpatients. Am J Psychiatry. 2005 Oct;162(10):1911-8. Full text (https:// psychiatryonline.org/doi/10.1176/appi.ajp.162.10.1911) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/16199838?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 110. Kool S, Schoevers R, de Maat S, et al. Efficacy of pharmacotherapy in depressed patients with and without personality disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2005 Nov;88(3):269-78. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16165217? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 111. Wise LA, Zierler S, Krieger N, et al. Adult onset of major depressive disorder in relation to early life violent victimisation: a case-control study. Lancet. 2001 Sep 15;358(9285):881-7. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11567704?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 112. Speed MS, Jefsen OH, Børglum AD, et al. Investigating the association between body fat and depression via Mendelian randomization. Transl Psychiatry. 2019 Aug 5;9(1):184. Full text (https://

www.doi.org/10.1038/s41398-019-0516-4) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31383844? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 113. van Zoonen K, Buntrock C, Ebert DD, et al. Preventing the onset of major depressive disorder: a metaanalytic review of psychological interventions. Int J Epidemiol. 2014 Apr;43(2):318-29. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24760873?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 114. Conejo-Cerón S, Moreno-Peral P, Rodríguez-Morejón A, et al. Effectiveness of psychological and educational interventions to prevent depression in primary care: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Ann Fam Med. 2017 May;15(3):262-71. Full text (https:// www.annfammed.org/content/15/3/262) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28483893? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 115. Cuijpers P, Pineda BS, Quero S, et al. Psychological interventions to prevent the onset of depressive disorders: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Clin Psychol Rev. 2021 Feb;83:101955. Full text (https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0272735820301434?via%3Dihub) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33333441?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 116. Joyce S, Modini M, Christensen H, et al. Workplace interventions for common mental disorders: a systematic meta-review. Psychol Med. 2016 Mar;46(4):683-97. Full text (https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/psychological-medicine/article/workplace-interventions-for-common-mental-disorders-a-systematic-metareview/2AD6672BE73FB23B329DC9EED4E11985) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26620157?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 117. Nigatu YT, Huang J, Rao S, et al. Indicated prevention interventions in the workplace for depressive symptoms: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Am J Prev Med. 2019 Jan;56(1):e23-33. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30573152?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 118. Deady M, Choi I, Calvo RA, et al. eHealth interventions for the prevention of depression and anxiety in the general population: a systematic review and meta-analysis. BMC Psychiatry. 2017 Aug 29;17(1):310. Full text (https://bmcpsychiatry.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12888-017-1473-1) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28851342?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 119. Taylor GM, Lindson N, Farley A, et al. Smoking cessation for improving mental health. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2021 Mar 9;3(3):CD013522. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD013522.pub2/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33687070?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 120. Kvam S, Kleppe CL, Nordhus IH, et al. Exercise as a treatment for depression: a meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2016 Sep 15;202:67-86. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27253219? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 121. Pearce M, Garcia L, Abbas A, et al. Association between physical activity and risk of depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Psychiatry. 2022 Jun 1;79(6):550-9. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/2790780#google_vignette) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35416941?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 122. Mammen G, Faulkner G. Physical activity and the prevention of depression: a systematic review of prospective studies. Am J Prev Med. 2013 Nov;45(5):649-57. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24139780?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 123. Bellón JÁ, Conejo-Cerón S, Sánchez-Calderón A, et al. Effectiveness of exercise-based interventions in reducing depressive symptoms in people without clinical depression: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. Br J Psychiatry. 2021 Nov;219(5):578-87. Full text (https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/the-british-journal-of-psychiatry/article/ effectiveness-of-exercisebased-interventions-in-reducing-depressive-symptoms-in-peoplewithout-clinical-depression-systematic-review-and-metaanalysis-of-randomised-controlledtrials/E78F2113FAD9292C501403261C8EC5B7) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/33533706?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 124. Marcus SC, Olfson M. National trends in the treatment for depression from 1998 to 2007. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 2010 Dec;67(12):1265-73. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/ fullarticle/210950#google_vignette) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21135326? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 125. Kessler RC, Ormel J, Petukhova M, et al. Development of lifetime comorbidity in the World Health Organization world mental health surveys. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 2011 Jan;68(1):90-100. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/210969) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21199968?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 126. Mitchell AJ, Vaze A, Rao S. Clinical diagnosis of depression in primary care: a meta-analysis. Lancet. 2009 Aug 22;374(9690):609-19. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19640579? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 127. Cepoiu M, McCusker J, Cole MG, et al. Recognition of depression by non-psychiatric physicians-a systematic literature review and meta-analysis. J Gen Intern Med. 2008 Jan;23(1):25-36. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17968628?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 128. Silverman JJ, Galanter M, Jackson-Triche M, et al. The American Psychiatric Association practice guidelines for the psychiatric evaluation of adults. Am J Psychiatry. 2015 Aug 1;172(8):798-802. Full text (https://ajp.psychiatryonline.org/doi/10.1176/appi.ajp.2015.1720501) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26234607?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 129. Mann JJ, Apter A, Bertolote J, et al. Suicide prevention strategies: a systematic review. JAMA. 2005 Oct 26;294(16):2064-74. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16249421? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Gilbody S, Richards D, Brealey S, et al. Screening for depression in medical settings with the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ): a diagnostic meta-analysis. J Gen Intern Med. 2007 Nov;22(11):1596-602. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2219806) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17874169?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 131. Costantini L, Pasquarella C, Odone A, et al. Screening for depression in primary care with Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9): a systematic review. J Affect Disord. 2021 Jan 15;279:473-83. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33126078?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 132. US Preventive Services Task Force; Barry MJ, Nicholson WK, Silverstein M, et al. Screening for depression and suicide risk in adults: US Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. JAMA. 2023 Jun 20;329(23):2057-67. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/ jama/fullarticle/2806144) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37338872? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 133. Goodarzi ZS, Mele BS, Roberts DJ, et al. Depression case finding in individuals with dementia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2017 May;65(5):937-48. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28152174?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 134. Kennis M, Gerritsen L, van Dalen M, et al. Prospective biomarkers of major depressive disorder: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Mol Psychiatry. 2020 Feb;25(2):321-38. Full text (https:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6974432) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/31745238?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 135. Mitchell AJ, Yadegarfar M, Gill J, et al. Case finding and screening clinical utility of the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9 and PHQ-2) for depression in primary care: a diagnostic meta-analysis of 40 studies. BJPsych Open. 2016 Mar 9;2(2):127-38. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/ PMC4995584) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27703765?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 136. Screening and diagnosis of mental health conditions during pregnancy and postpartum: ACOG clinical practice guideline no. 4. Obstet Gynecol. 2023 Jun 1;141(6):1232-61. Full text (https://journals.lww.com/greenjournal/fulltext/2023/06000/ screening_and_diagnosis_of_mental_health.35.aspx) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/37486660?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Antenatal and postnatal mental health: clinical management and service guidance. Feb 2020 [internet publication]. Full text (https://www.nice.org.uk/ guidance/cg192)
- Di Florio A, Putnam K, Altemus M, et al. The impact of education, country, race and ethnicity on the self-report of postpartum depression using the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale. Psychol Med. 2017 Apr;47(5):787-99. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5369767) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27866476?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Wisner KL, Parry BL, Piontek CM. Clinical practice. Postpartum depression. N Engl J Med. 2002 Jul 18;347(3):194-9. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12124409?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 140. Cox JL, Holden JM, Sagovsky R. Detection of postnatal depression. Development of the 10-item Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale. Br J Psychiatry. 1987 Jun;150:782-6. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3651732?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 141. Sheikh JI, Yesavage JA, Brooks JO, 3rd, et al. Proposed factor structure of the Geriatric Depression Scale. Int Psychogeriatr. 1991 Spring;3(1):23-8. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/1863703?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

Depression in adults

- 142. Yesavage JA, Brink TL, Rose TL, et al. Development and validation of a geriatric depression screening scale: a preliminary report. J Psychiatr Res. 1982-1983;17(1):37-49. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7183759?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 143. Alexopoulos GS, Abrams RC, Young RC, et al. Cornell Scale for Depression in Dementia. Biol Psychiatry. 1988 Feb 1;23(3):271-84. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3337862? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 144. Morris DW, Trivedi MH, Rush AJ. Folate and unipolar depression. J Altern Complement Med. 2008 Apr;14(3):277-85. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18370582? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 145. Casarett D, Kutner JS, Abrahm J. Life after death: a practical approach to grief and bereavement. Ann Intern Med. 2001;134:208-215. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11177334? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 146. Shear MK, Wang Y, Skritskaya N, et al. Treatment of complicated grief in elderly persons: a randomized clinical trial. JAMA Psychiatry. 2014 Nov;71(11):1287-95. Full text (http:// archpsyc.jamanetwork.com/article.aspx?articleid=1910337) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/25250737?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 147. Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. "Mini-mental state". A practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. J Psychiatr Res. 1975 Nov;12(3):189-98. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1202204?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 148. Zbozinek TD, Rose RD, Wolitzky-Taylor KB, et al. Diagnostic overlap of generalized anxiety disorder and major depressive disorder in a primary care sample. Depress Anxiety. 2012 Dec;29(12):1065-71. Full text (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3629816/pdf/nihms457466.pdf) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23184657?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 149. O'Connor EA, Perdue LA, Senger CA, et al. Screening and Behavioral Counseling Interventions to Reduce Unhealthy Alcohol Use in Adolescents and Adults: Updated Evidence Report and Systematic Review for the US Preventive Services Task Force. JAMA. 2018 Nov 13;320(18):1910-1928. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2018.12086) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/30422198?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 150. Reynolds RV, Yeung H, Cheng CE, et al. Guidelines of care for the management of acne vulgaris. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2024 May;90:1006.e1-30. Full text (https://www.jaad.org/article/ S0190-9622(23)03389-3/fulltext) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38300170? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 151. Povitz M, Bolo CE, Heitman SJ, et al. Effect of treatment of obstructive sleep apnea on depressive symptoms: systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS Med. 2014 Nov 25;11(11):e1001762. Full text (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4244041) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4244041) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25423175?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 152. Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care; Joffres M, Jaramillo A, Dickinson J, et al. Recommendations on screening for depression in adults. CMAJ. 2013 Jun 11;185(9):775-82.

Full text (https://www.cmaj.ca/content/185/9/775.long) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23670157?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 153. UK National Screening Committee. Adult screening programme: depression. Jul 2020 [internet publication]. Full text (https://view-health-screening-recommendations.service.gov.uk/depression)
- 154. American College of Surgeons. Best practices guidelines: screening and intervention for mental health disorders and substance use and misuse in the acute trauma patient. Dec 2022 [internet publication]. Full text (https://www.facs.org/media/nrcj31ku/mental-health-guidelines.pdf)
- 155. Grassi L, Caruso R, Riba MB, et al. Anxiety and depression in adult cancer patients: ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline. ESMO Open. 2023 Apr;8(2):101155. Full text (https://www.esmoopen.com/ article/S2059-7029(23)00375-7/fulltext) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37087199? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Levis B, Sun Y, He C, et al. Accuracy of the PHQ-2 alone and in combination with the PHQ-9 for screening to detect major depression: systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA. 2020 Jun 9;323(22):2290-300. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7284301) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32515813?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 157. O'Connor E, Rossom RC, Henninger M, et al. Primary care screening for and treatment of depression in pregnant and postpartum women: evidence report and systematic review for the US Preventive Services Task Force. JAMA. 2016 Jan 26;315(4):388-406. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/26813212?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 158. Institute for Clinical Systems Improvement. Depression, adult in primary care. Mar 2016 [internet publication]. Full text (https://www.icsi.org/guideline/depression)
- 159. Levis B, Negeri Z, Sun Y, et al. Accuracy of the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS) for screening to detect major depression among pregnant and postpartum women: systematic review and meta-analysis of individual participant data. BMJ. 2020 Nov 11;371:m4022. Full text (https://www.bmj.com/content/371/bmj.m4022.long) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33177069?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 160. Lang E, Colquhoun H, LeBlanc JC, et al. Recommendation on instrument-based screening for depression during pregnancy and the postpartum period. CMAJ. 2022 Jul 25;194(28):E981-9. Full text (https://www.cmaj.ca/content/194/28/E981) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/35878894?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 161. Hofmann SG, Curtiss J, Carpenter JK, et al. Effect of treatments for depression on quality of life: a meta-analysis. Cogn Behav Ther. 2017 Jun;46(4):265-86. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pmc/articles/PMC5663193) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28440699? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 162. Lee Y, Rosenblat JD, Lee J, et al. Efficacy of antidepressants on measures of workplace functioning in major depressive disorder: a systematic review. J Affect Disord. 2018 Feb;227:406-15. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29154157?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

Depression in adults

- 163. Nieuwenhuijsen K, Verbeek JH, Neumeyer-Gromen A, et al. Interventions to improve return to work in depressed people. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2020 Oct 13;(10):CD006237. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD006237.pub4/full) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33052607?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 164. American Psychiatric Association. Practice guideline for the treatment of patients with major depressive disorder. Oct 2010 [internet publication]. Full text (http://psychiatryonline.org/pb/assets/raw/sitewide/practice_guidelines/guidelines/mdd.pdf)
- 165. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Depression in adults: treatment and management. Jun 2022 [internet publication]. Full text (https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng222)
- 166. Fournier JC, DeRubeis RJ, Hollon SD, et al. Antidepressant drug effects and depression severity: a patient-level meta-analysis. JAMA. 2010 Jan 6;303(1):47-53. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20051569?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 167. Health Quality Ontario. Psychotherapy for major depressive disorder and generalized anxiety disorder: a health technology assessment. Ont Health Technol Assess Ser. 2017 Nov 13;17(15):1-167. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5709536) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/29213344?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 168. Karyotaki E, Smit Y, de Beurs DP, et al. The long-term efficacy of acute-phase psychotherapy for depression: a meta-analysis of randomized trials. Depress Anxiety. 2016 May;33(5):370-83. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27000501?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 169. Kappelmann N, Rein M, Fietz J, et al. Psychotherapy or medication for depression? Using individual symptom meta-analyses to derive a symptom-oriented therapy (SOrT) metric for a personalised psychiatry. BMC Med. 2020 Jun 5;18(1):170. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/ PMC7273646) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32498707?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 170. Gartlehner G, Wagner G, Matyas N, et al. Pharmacological and non-pharmacological treatments for major depressive disorder: review of systematic reviews. BMJ Open. 2017 Jun 14;7(6):e014912. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5623437) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/28615268?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 171. Cuijpers P, Dekker J, Hollon SD, et al. Adding psychotherapy to pharmacotherapy in the treatment of depressive disorders in adults: a meta-analysis. J Clin Psychiatry. 2009 Sep;70(9):1219-29. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19818243?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 172. Cuijpers P, van Straten A, Warmerdam L, et al. Psychotherapy versus the combination of psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy in the treatment of depression: a meta-analysis. Depress Anxiety. 2009;26(3):279-88. Full text (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/da.20519) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19031487?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Oestergaard S, Møldrup C. Optimal duration of combined psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy for patients with moderate and severe depression: a meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2011 Jun;131(1-3):24-36. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20950863? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 174. Cuijpers P, Noma H, Karyotaki E, et al. A network meta-analysis of the effects of psychotherapies, pharmacotherapies and their combination in the treatment of adult depression. World Psychiatry. 2020 Feb;19(1):92-107. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6953550) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31922679?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 175. Furukawa TA, Shinohara K, Sahker E, et al. Initial treatment choices to achieve sustained response in major depression: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. World Psychiatry. 2021 Oct;20(3):387-96. Full text (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/wps.20906) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34505365?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 176. Arroll B, Roskvist R, Moir F, et al. Antidepressants in primary care: limited value at the first visit. World Psychiatry. 2023 Jun;22(2):340. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37159355? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 177. van Diermen L, van den Ameele S, Kamperman AM, et al. Prediction of electroconvulsive therapy response and remission in major depression: meta-analysis. Br J Psychiatry. 2018 Feb;212(2):71-80. Full text (https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/the-british-journal-of-psychiatry/ article/prediction-of-electroconvulsive-therapy-response-and-remission-in-major-depressionmetaanalysis/259FD7600E652E9D272481FC6D87F4F9) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/29436330?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 178. Geduldig ET, Kellner CH. Electroconvulsive therapy in the elderly: new findings in geriatric depression. Curr Psychiatry Rep. 2016 Apr;18(4):40. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26909702? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 179. Cuijpers P, Reynolds CF 3rd, Donker T, et al. Personalized treatment of adult depression: medication, psychotherapy, or both? a systematic review. Depress Anxiety. 2012 Oct;29(10):855-64. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22815247?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 180. Malhi GS, Bell E, Bassett D, et al. The 2020 Royal Australian and New Zealand College of Psychiatrists clinical practice guidelines for mood disorders. Aust N Z J Psychiatry. 2021 Jan;55(1):7-117. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33353391?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 181. Cleare A, Pariante CM, Young AH, et al. Evidence-based guidelines for treating depressive disorders with antidepressants: A revision of the 2008 British Association for Psychopharmacology guidelines. J Psychopharmacol. 2015 May;29(5):459-525. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/25969470?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 182. Ramanuj P, Ferenchick EK, Pincus HA. Depression in primary care: part 2 management. BMJ. 2019 Apr 8;365:l835. Full text (https://www.bmj.com/content/365/bmj.l835) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30962249?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Vaiva G, Vaiva G, Ducrocq F, et al. Effect of telephone contact on further suicide attempts in patients discharged from an emergency department: randomised controlled study. BMJ. 2006 May 27;332(7552):1241-5. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16735333? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 184. Kruizinga J, Liemburg E, Burger H, et al. Pharmacological treatment for psychotic depression. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2021 Dec 7;(12):CD004044. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/

cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD004044.pub5/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34875106?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 185. Oliva V, Possidente C, De Prisco M, et al. Pharmacological treatments for psychotic depression: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. Lancet Psychiatry. 2024 Mar;11(3):210-20. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38360024?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 186. Ogawa Y, Takeshima N, Hayasaka Y, et al. Antidepressants plus benzodiazepines for adults with major depression. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2019 Jun 3;(6):CD001026. Full text (https:// www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD001026.pub2/full) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31158298?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 187. Edinoff AN, Kaufman SE, Hollier JW, et al. Catatonia: clinical overview of the diagnosis, treatment, and clinical challenges. Neurol Int. 2021 Nov 8;13(4):570-86. Full text (https:// www.mdpi.com/2035-8377/13/4/57) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34842777? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Lisanby SH. Electroconvulsive therapy for depression. N Engl J Med. 2007 Nov 8;357(19):1939-45. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17989386?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 189. Watts BV, Groft A, Bagian JP. An examination of mortality and other adverse events related to electroconvulsive therapy using a national adverse event report system. J ECT. 2011 Jun;27(2):105-8. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20966769?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 190. Tørring N, Sanghani SN, Petrides G, et al. The mortality rate of electroconvulsive therapy: a systematic review and pooled analysis. Acta Psychiatr Scand. 2017 May;135(5):388-97. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28332236?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 191. Kaster TS, Vigod SN, Gomes T, et al. Risk of serious medical events in patients with depression treated with electroconvulsive therapy: a propensity score-matched, retrospective cohort study. Lancet Psychiatry. 2021 Aug;8(8):686-95. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34265274? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 192. Tess AV, Smetana GW. Medical evaluation of patients undergoing electroconvulsive therapy. N Engl J Med. 2009 Apr 2;360(14):1437-44. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19339723? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 193. Semkovska M, McLoughlin DM. Objective cognitive performance associated with electroconvulsive therapy for depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Biol Psychiatry. 2010 Sep 15;68(6):568-77. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20673880?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 194. Rose D, Fleischmann P, Wykes T, et al. Patients' perspectives on electroconvulsive therapy: systematic review. BMJ. 2003 Jun 21;326(7403):1363. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/12816822?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 195. Elias A, Phutane VH, Clarke S, et al. Electroconvulsive therapy in the continuation and maintenance treatment of depression: systematic review and meta-analyses. Aust N Z J Psychiatry. 2018

May;52(5):415-24. Full text (https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/0004867417743343) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29256252?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 196. International Advisory Group for the Revision of ICD-10 Mental and Behavioural Disorders. A conceptual framework for the revision of the ICD-10 classification of mental and behavioural disorders. World Psychiatry. 2011 Jun;10(2):86-92. Full text (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/ doi/10.1002/j.2051-5545.2011.tb00022.x) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21633677? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 197. American College of Physicians. Nonpharmacologic and pharmacologic treatments of adults in the acute phase of major depressive disorder: a living clinical guideline from the American College of Physicians. Feb 2023 [internet publication].. Full text (https://www.acponline.org/sites/default/files/acp-policy-library/guidelines/ nonpharmacologic_and_pharmacologic_treatments_of_adults_in_the_acute_phase_of_major_depressive_disorder.
- 198. Brohan E, Chowdhary N, Dua T, et al. The WHO Mental Health Gap Action Programme for mental, neurological, and substance use conditions: the new and updated guideline recommendations. Lancet Psychiatry. 2024 Feb;11(2):155-8. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37980915? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 199. Gartlehner G, Dobrescu A, Chapman A, et al. Nonpharmacologic and pharmacologic treatments of adult patients with major depressive disorder: a systematic review and network metaanalysis for a clinical guideline by the American College of Physicians. Ann Intern Med. 2023 Feb;176(2):196-211. Full text (https://www.acpjournals.org/doi/full/10.7326/M22-1845) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36689750?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 200. Vöhringer PA, Ghaemi SN. Solving the antidepressant efficacy question: effect sizes in major depressive disorder. Clin Ther. 2011 Dec;33(12):B49-61. Full text (http://www.clinicaltherapeutics.com/ article/S0149-2918%2811%2900770-3/fulltext) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/22136980?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 201. Cipriani A, Furukawa TA, Salanti G, et al. Comparative efficacy and acceptability of 21 antidepressant drugs for the acute treatment of adults with major depressive disorder: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. Lancet. 2018 Apr 7;391(10128):1357-66. Full text (https://www.thelancet.com/ journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(17)32802-7/fulltext) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/29477251?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 202. Gartlehner G, Hansen RA, Morgan LC, et al. Comparative benefits and harms of secondgeneration antidepressants for treating major depressive disorder: an updated meta-analysis. Ann Intern Med. 2011 Dec 6;155(11):772-85. Full text (https://www.acpjournals.org/doi/ full/10.7326/0003-4819-155-11-201112060-00009) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/22147715?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 203. Maslej MM, Furukawa TA, Cipriani A, et al. Individual differences in response to antidepressants: a meta-analysis of placebo-controlled randomized clinical trials. JAMA Psychiatry. 2021 May 1;78(5):490-7. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7890446) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33595620?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

Depression in adults

- 204. Ghaffari Darab M, Hedayati A, Khorasani E, et al. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors in major depression disorder treatment: an umbrella review on systematic reviews. Int J Psychiatry Clin Pract. 2020 Nov;24(4):357-70. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32667275? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 205. Thase ME, Nierenberg AA, Vrijland P, et al. Remission with mirtazapine and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors: a meta-analysis of individual patient data from 15 controlled trials of acute phase treatment of major depression. Int Clin Psychopharmacol. 2010 Jul;25(4):189-98. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20531012?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 206. Furukawa TA, Cipriani A, Cowen PJ, et al. Optimal dose of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, venlafaxine, and mirtazapine in major depression: a systematic review and dose-response meta-analysis. Lancet Psychiatry. 2019 Jul;6(7):601-9. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6586944) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31178367?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 207. Adli M, Baethge C, Heinz A, et al. Is dose escalation of antidepressants a rational strategy after a medium-dose treatment has failed? A systematic review. Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci. 2005 Dec;255(6):387-400. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15868067? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 208. Dold M, Bartova L, Rupprecht R, et al. Dose escalation of antidepressants in unipolar depression: a meta-analysis of double-blind, randomized controlled trials. Psychother Psychosom. 2017 Sep 14;86(5):283-91. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28903107?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 209. Braun C, Adams A, Rink L, et al. In search of a dose-response relationship in SSRIs-a systematic review, meta-analysis, and network meta-analysis. Acta Psychiatr Scand. 2020 Dec;142(6):430-42. Full text (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/acps.13235) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32970827?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 210. Miller M, Swanson SA, Azrael D, et al. Antidepressant dose, age, and the risk of deliberate selfharm. JAMA Intern Med. 2014 Jun;174(6):899-909. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/ jamainternalmedicine/fullarticle/1863925) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24782035? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 211. Gunnell D, Saperia J, Ashby D. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) and suicide in adults: meta-analysis of drug company data from placebo controlled, randomized controlled trials submitted to the MHRA's safety review. BMJ. 2005 Feb 19;330(7488):385. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/15718537?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 212. Saperia J, Ashby D, Gunnell D. Suicidal behaviour and SSRIs: updated meta-analysis. BMJ.
 2006 Jun 17;332(7555):1453. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16777898?
 tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 213. Li K, Zhou G, Xiao Y, et al. Risk of suicidal behaviors and antidepressant exposure among children and adolescents: a meta-analysis of observational studies. Front Psychiatry. 2022;13:880496. Full text (https://www.frontiersin.org/journals/psychiatry/articles/10.3389/fpsyt.2022.880496/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35693956?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

References

Depression in adults

- 214. Dragioti E, Solmi M, Favaro A, et al. Association of antidepressant use with adverse health outcomes: a systematic umbrella review. JAMA Psychiatry. 2019 Dec 1;76(12):1241-55. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6777224) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6777224) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC677724) Abstract (http://wwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwwww
- 215. Näslund J, Hieronymus F, Lisinski A, et al. Effects of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors on ratingscale-assessed suicidality in adults with depression. Br J Psychiatry. 2018 Mar;212(3):148-54. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29436321?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 216. Henssler J, Kurschus M, Franklin J, et al. Trajectories of acute antidepressant efficacy: how long to wait for response? A systematic review and meta-analysis of long-term, placebo-controlled acute treatment trials. J Clin Psychiatry. 2018 May/Jun;79(3). Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/29659207?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 217. Barth J, Munder T, Gerger H, et al. Comparative efficacy of seven psychotherapeutic interventions for patients with depression: a network meta-analysis. PLoS Med. 2013;10(5):e1001454. Full text (https://journals.plos.org/plosmedicine/article?id=10.1371/journal.pmed.1001454) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23723742?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 218. Department of Veterans Affairs; Department of Defense. VA/DoD clinical practice guideline for the management of major depressive disorder. Feb 2022 [internet publication]. Full text (https:// www.healthquality.va.gov/guidelines/MH/mdd/VADoDMDDCPGFinal508.pdf)
- 219. Furukawa TA, Weitz ES, Tanaka S, et al. Initial severity of depression and efficacy of cognitivebehavioural therapy: individual-participant data meta-analysis of pill-placebo-controlled trials. Br J Psychiatry. 2017 Mar;210(3):190-6. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28104735? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 220. Wiles N, Thomas L, Abel A, et al. Clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of cognitive behavioural therapy as an adjunct to pharmacotherapy for treatment-resistant depression in primary care: the CoBalT randomised controlled trial. Health Technol Assess. 2014 May;18(31):1-167. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK261983) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24824481? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 221. De Mello MF, De Jesus Mari J, Bacaltchuk J, et al. A systematic review of research findings on the efficacy of interpersonal therapy for depressive disorders. Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci. 2005 Apr;255(2):75-82. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15812600? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 222. Cuijpers P, Donker T, Weissman MM, et al. Interpersonal psychotherapy for mental health problems: a comprehensive meta-analysis. Am J Psychiatry. 2016 Jul 1;173(7):680-7. Full text (https:// ajp.psychiatryonline.org/doi/10.1176/appi.ajp.2015.15091141) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/27032627?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 223. Bell AC, D'Zurilla TJ. Problem-solving therapy for depression: a meta-analysis. Clin Psychol Rev. 2009 Jun;29(4):348-53. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19299058? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 224. Cuijpers P, van Straten A, Warmerdam L. Problem solving therapies for depression: a meta-analysis. Eur Psychiatry. 2007 Jan;22(1):9-15. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17194572? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 225. Shang P, Cao X, You S, et al. Problem-solving therapy for major depressive disorders in older adults: an updated systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Aging Clin Exp Res. 2021 Jun;33(6):1465-75. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32767273? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 226. Zhang A, Franklin C, Jing S, et al. The effectiveness of four empirically supported psychotherapies for primary care depression and anxiety: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2019 Feb 15;245:1168-86. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30699860? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 227. Uphoff E, Ekers D, Robertson L, et al. Behavioural activation therapy for depression in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2020 Jul 6;(7):CD013305. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/ cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD013305.pub2/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/32628293?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 228. Caselli I, Ielmini M, Bellini A, et al. Efficacy of short-term psychodynamic psychotherapy (STPP) in depressive disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2023 Mar 15;325:169-76. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36623570?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 229. Gunn J, Elliott P, Densley K, et al. A trajectory-based approach to understand the factors associated with persistent depressive symptoms in primary care. J Affect Disord. 2013 Jun;148(2-3):338-46. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23375580?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 230. Casañas R, Catalán R, del Val JL, et al. Effectiveness of a psycho-educational group program for major depression in primary care: a randomized controlled trial. BMC Psychiatry. 2012 Dec 18;12:230. Full text (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3551665/pdf/1471-244X-12-230.pdf) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23249399?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 231. Gualano MR, Bert F, Martorana M, et al. The long-term effects of bibliotherapy in depression treatment: systematic review of randomized clinical trials. Clin Psychol Rev. 2017 Dec;58:49-58. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28993103?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 232. Aalbers S, Fusar-Poli L, Freeman RE, et al. Music therapy for depression. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2017 Nov 16;(11):CD004517. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/ cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD004517.pub3/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/29144545?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 233. Penders TM, Stanciu CN, Schoemann AM, et al. Bright light therapy as augmentation of pharmacotherapy for treatment of depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Prim Care Companion CNS Disord. 2016 Oct 20;18(5). Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/27835725?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 234. Morgan, AJ, Jorm AF. Self-help interventions for depressive disorders and depressive symptoms: a systematic review. Ann Gen Psychiatry. 2008 Aug 19;7:13. Full text (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/

146

pmc/articles/PMC2542367) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18710579? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 235. Chi I, Jordan-Marsh M, Guo M, et al. Tai chi and reduction of depressive symptoms for older adults: a meta-analysis of randomized trials. Geriatr Gerontol Int. 2013 Jan;13(1):3-12. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22680972?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 236. Belvederi Murri M, Amore M, Menchetti M, et al; Safety and Efficacy of Exercise for Depression in Seniors (SEEDS) Study Group. Physical exercise for late-life major depression. Br J Psychiatry.
 2015 Sep;207(3):235-42. Full text (http://bjp.rcpsych.org/content/207/3/235.long) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26206864?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 237. Lam RW, Levitt AJ, Levitan RD, et al. Efficacy of bright light treatment, fluoxetine, and the combination in patients with nonseasonal major depressive disorder: a randomized clinical trial. JAMA Psychiatry. 2016 Jan;73(1):56-63. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26580307? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 238. Trivedi MH, Greer TL, Church TS, et al. Exercise as an augmentation treatment for nonremitted major depressive disorder: a randomized, parallel dose comparison. J Clin Psychiatry. 2011 May;72(5):677-84. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21658349? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 239. Cooney GM, Dwan K, Greig CA, et al. Exercise for depression. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2013
 Sep 12;(9):CD004366. Full text (http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD004366.pub6/
 full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24026850?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Sukhato K, Lotrakul M, Dellow A, et al. Efficacy of home-based non-pharmacological interventions for treating depression: a systematic review and network meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. BMJ Open. 2017 Jul 12;7(7):e014499. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/ PMC5734422) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28706086?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 241. Catalan-Matamoros D, Gomez-Conesa A, Stubbs B, et al. Exercise improves depressive symptoms in older adults: an umbrella review of systematic reviews and meta-analyses. Psychiatry Res. 2016 Oct 30;244:202-9. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27494042?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 242. Smith CA, Armour M, Lee MS, et al. Acupuncture for depression. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2018 Mar 4;(3):CD004046. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/ doi/10.1002/14651858.CD004046.pub4/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/29502347?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 243. Charova E, Dorstyn D, Tully P, et al. Web-based interventions for comorbid depression and chronic illness: a systematic review. J Telemed Telecare. 2015 Jun;21(4):189-201. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/insert id?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 244. Karyotaki E, Riper H, Twisk J, et al. Efficacy of self-guided internet-based cognitive behavioral therapy in the treatment of depressive symptoms: a meta-analysis of individual participant data. JAMA Psychiatry. 2017 Apr 1;74(4):351-9. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/

jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/2604310) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28241179? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- REFERENCES
- 245. Zhou T, Li X, Pei Y, et al. Internet-based cognitive behavioural therapy for subthreshold depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. BMC Psychiatry. 2016 Oct 21;16(1):356. Full text (https:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5073460) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/27769266?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 246. Josephine K, Josefine L, Philipp D, et al. Internet- and mobile-based depression interventions for people with diagnosed depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2017 Dec 1;223:28-40. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28715726?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 247. Păsărelu CR, Andersson G, Bergman Nordgren L, et al. Internet-delivered transdiagnostic and tailored cognitive behavioral therapy for anxiety and depression: a systematic review and metaanalysis of randomized controlled trials. Cogn Behav Ther. 2017 Jan;46(1):1-28. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27712544?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 248. Andrews G, Basu A, Cuijpers P, et al. Computer therapy for the anxiety and depression disorders is effective, acceptable and practical health care: an updated meta-analysis. J Anxiety Disord. 2018 Apr;55:70-78. Full text (https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0887618517304474?via %3Dihub) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29422409?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 249. Apaydin EA, Maher AR, Raaen L, et al. The use of technology in the clinical care of depression: an evidence map. J Clin Psychiatry. 2018 Aug 21;79(5). Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/30152646?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 250. Furukawa TA, Suganuma A, Ostinelli EG, et al. Dismantling, optimising, and personalising internet cognitive behavioural therapy for depression: a systematic review and component network meta-analysis using individual participant data. Lancet Psychiatry. 2021 Jun;8(6):500-11. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC8838916) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC8838916) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles.bmj.com)
- 251. Cuijpers P, van Straten A, van Schaik A, et al. Psychological treatment of depression in primary care: a meta-analysis. Br J Gen Pract. 2009 Feb;59(559):e51-60. Full text (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pmc/articles/PMC2629842) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19192368? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 252. Cuijpers P, van Straten A, Andersson G, et al. Psychotherapy for depression in adults: a meta-analysis of comparative outcome studies. J Consult Clin Psychol. 2008 Dec;76(6):909-22. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19045960?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 253. Cuijpers P, van Straten A, Warmerdam L, et al. Psychological treatment of depression: a metaanalytic database of randomized studies. BMC Psychiatry. 2008 May 16;8:36. Full text (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2408566) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/18485191?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 254. Nair P, Bhanu C, Frost R, et al. A systematic review of older adults' attitudes towards depression and its treatment. Gerontologist. 2020 Jan 24;60(1):e93-104. Full text (https://academic.oup.com/

gerontologist/article/60/1/e93/5497004) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31115449? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 255. Brinsley J, Schuch F, Lederman O, et al. Effects of yoga on depressive symptoms in people with mental disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Br J Sports Med. 2021 Sep;55(17):992-1000. Full text (https://bjsm.bmj.com/content/55/17/992) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32423912?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 256. Even C, Schröder CM, Friedman S, et al. Efficacy of light therapy in nonseasonal depression: a systematic review. J Affect Disord. 2008 May;108(1-2):11-23. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17950467?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 257. Sun YL, Chen SB, Gao Y, et al. Acupuncture versus western medicine for depression in China: a systematic review. Chin J Evid Based Med. 2008;8:340-5.
- 258. Herring MP, Puetz TW, O'Connor PJ, et al. Effect of exercise training on depressive symptoms among patients with a chronic illness: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Arch Intern Med. 2012 Jan 23;172(2):101-11. Full text (http://archinte.jamanetwork.com/ article.aspx?articleid=1108677) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22271118? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 259. Bridle C, Spanjers K, Patel S, et al. Effect of exercise on depression severity in older people: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. Br J Psychiatry. 2012 Sep;201(3):180-5. Full text (http://bjp.rcpsych.org/content/201/3/180.full.pdf) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22945926?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 260. Morgan JA, Olagunju AT, Corrigan F, et al. Does ceasing exercise induce depressive symptoms? A systematic review of experimental trials including immunological and neurogenic markers. J Affect Disord. 2018 Jul;234:180-92. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29529552? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 261. Morres ID, Hatzigeorgiadis A, Stathi A, et al. Aerobic exercise for adult patients with major depressive disorder in mental health services: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Depress Anxiety. 2019 Jan;36(1):39-53. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30334597?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 262. Guaiana G, Mastrangelo J, Hendrikx S, et al. A systematic review of the use of telepsychiatry in depression. Community Ment Health J. 2021 Jan;57(1):93-100. Full text (https:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7547814) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/33040191?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 263. Cuijpers P, Noma H, Karyotaki E, et al. Effectiveness and acceptability of cognitive behavior therapy delivery formats in adults with depression: a network meta-analysis. JAMA Psychiatry. 2019 Jul 1;76(7):700-7. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/2730724) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30994877?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 264. Soucy Chartier I, Provencher MD. Behavioural activation for depression: efficacy, effectiveness and dissemination. J Affect Disord. 2013 Mar 5;145(3):292-9. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/22884236?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

Depression in adults

- 265. Moritz S, Schilling L, Hauschildt M, et al. A randomized controlled trial of internet-based therapy in depression. Behav Res Ther. 2012 Aug;50(7-8):513-21. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/22677231?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 266. Alber CS, Krämer LV, Rosar SM, et al. Internet-based behavioral activation for depression: systematic review and meta-analysis. J Med Internet Res. 2023 May 25;25:e41643. Full text (https://www.jmir.org/2023/1/e41643) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37227760? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 267. Bae H, Shin H, Ji HG, et al. App-based interventions for moderate to severe depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Netw Open. 2023 Nov 1;6(11):e2344120. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamanetworkopen/fullarticle/2812076) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37983028?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 268. Ebert DD, Donkin L, Andersson G, et al. Does internet-based guided-self-help for depression cause harm? An individual participant data meta-analysis on deterioration rates and its moderators in randomized controlled trials. Psychol Med. 2016 Oct;46(13):2679-93. Full text (https:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5560500) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/27649340?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 269. Kolovos S, Kleiboer A, Cuijpers P. Effect of psychotherapy for depression on quality of life: meta-analysis. Br J Psychiatry. 2016 Dec;209(6):460-8. Full text (http://bjp.rcpsych.org/ content/209/6/460.long) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27539296? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 270. Strauss C, Bibby-Jones AM, Jones F, et al. Clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of supported mindfulness-based cognitive therapy self-help compared with supported cognitive behavioral therapy self-help for adults experiencing depression: the low-intensity guided help through mindfulness (LIGHTMind) randomized clinical trial. JAMA Psychiatry. 2023 May 1;80(5):415-24. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/2802550) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36947058?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 271. Cuijpers P, Koole SL, van Dijke A, et al. Psychotherapy for subclinical depression: meta-analysis. Br J Psychiatry. 2014 Oct;205(4):268-74. Full text (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4180844) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25274315?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 272. Royal College of Psychiatrists. Position statement on antidepressants and depression. May 2019 [internet publication]. Full text (https://www.rcpsych.ac.uk/docs/default-source/improving-care/bettermh-policy/position-statements/ps04_19---antidepressants-and-depression.pdf?sfvrsn=ddea9473_5)
- 273. Tröger A, Miguel C, Ciharova M, et al. Baseline depression severity as moderator on depression outcomes in psychotherapy and pharmacotherapy. J Affect Disord. 2024 Jan 1;344:86-99. Full text (https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S016503272301234X?via%3Dihub) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37820960?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 274. Furukawa TA, Maruo K, Noma H, et al. Initial severity of major depression and efficacy of new generation antidepressants: individual participant data meta-analysis. Acta Psychiatr

150

Scand. 2018 Jun;137(6):450-8. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29611870? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 275. Hieronymus F, Lisinski A, Nilsson S, et al. Influence of baseline severity on the effects of SSRIs in depression: an item-based, patient-level post-hoc analysis. Lancet Psychiatry. 2019 Sep;6(9):745-52. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31303567?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 276. Stone MB, Yaseen ZS, Miller BJ, et al. Response to acute monotherapy for major depressive disorder in randomized, placebo controlled trials submitted to the US Food and Drug Administration: individual participant data analysis. BMJ. 2022 Aug 2;378:e067606. Full text (https://www.bmj.com/ content/378/bmj-2021-067606.long) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35918097? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 277. Gabriel FC, Stein AT, de Melo DO, et al. Quality of clinical practice guidelines for inadequate response to first-line treatment for depression according to AGREE II checklist and comparison of recommendations: a systematic review. BMJ Open. 2022 Apr 1;12(4):e051918. Full text (https://bmjopen.bmj.com/content/12/4/e051918) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35365512? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 278. Posternak MA, Baer L, Nierenberg AA, et al. Response rates to fluoxetine in subjects who initially show no improvement. J Clin Psychiatry. 2011 Jul;72(7):949-54. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21672502?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 279. McGrath PJ, Stewart JW, Fava M, et al. Tranylcypromine versus venlafaxine plus mirtazapine following three failed antidepressant medication trials for depression: a STAR*D report. Am J Psychiatry. 2006 Sep;163(9):1531-41. Full text (https://ajp.psychiatryonline.org/doi/10.1176/ajp.2006.163.9.1531) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16946177?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 280. Schlaepfer TE, Agren H, Monteleone P, et al. The hidden third: improving outcome in treatment-resistant depression. J Psychopharmacol. 2012 May;26(5):587-602. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22236505?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 281. Lam RW. Onset, time course and trajectories of improvement with antidepressants. Eur Neuropsychopharmacol. 2012;22(suppl 3):S492-8. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/22959114?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 282. Kemp DE, Ganocy SJ, Brecher M, et al. Clinical value of early partial symptomatic improvement in the prediction of response and remission during short-term treatment trials in 3369 subjects with bipolar I or II depression. J Affect Disord. 2011 Apr;130(1-2):171-9. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21071096?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 283. Wagner S, Engel A, Engelmann J, et al. Early improvement as a resilience signal predicting later remission to antidepressant treatment in patients with major depressive disorder: systematic review and meta-analysis. J Psychiatr Res. 2017 Nov;94:96-106. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/28697423?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 284. Olgiati P, Serretti A, Souery D, et al. Early improvement and response to antidepressant medications in adults with major depressive disorder. Meta-analysis and study of a sample with treatment-

resistant depression. J Affect Disord. 2018 Feb;227:777-86. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29254066?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 285. Bschor T, Kern H, Henssler J, et al. Switching the Antidepressant After Nonresponse in Adults With Major Depression: A Systematic Literature Search and Meta-Analysis. J Clin Psychiatry. 2018 Jan/Feb;79(1):. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.4088/JCP.16r10749) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27929611?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 286. Gabriel FC, Stein AT, Melo DO, et al. Guidelines' recommendations for the treatment-resistant depression: a systematic review of their quality. PLoS One. 2023;18(2):e0281501. Full text (https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0281501) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36745622?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 287. Berlim MT, Turecki G. What is the meaning of treatment resistant/refractory major depression (TRD)? A systematic review of current randomized trials. Eur Neuropsychopharmacol. 2007 Nov;17(11):696-707. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17521891? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 288. Brown S, Rittenbach K, Cheung S, et al. Current and common definitions of treatment-resistant depression: findings from a systematic review and qualitative interviews. Can J Psychiatry. 2019 Jun;64(6):380-7. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6591751) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30763119?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 289. McAllister-Williams RH, Arango C, Blier P, et al. The identification, assessment and management of difficult-to-treat depression: an international consensus statement. J Affect Disord. 2020 Apr 15;267:264-82. Full text (https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0165032719321925) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32217227?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 290. Huynh NN, McIntyre RS. What are the implications of the STAR*D trial for primary care? A review and synthesis. Prim Care Companion J Clin Psychiatry. 2008;10(2):91-6. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2292446) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2292446) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2292446)
- 291. Sinyor M, Cheung CP, Abraha HY, et al. Antidepressant-placebo differences for specific adverse events in major depressive disorder: a systematic review. J Affect Disord. 2020 Apr 15;267:185-90. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32217218?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 292. Semkovska M, Quinlivan L, O'Grady T, et al. Cognitive function following a major depressive episode: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet Psychiatry. 2019 Oct;6(10):851-61. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31422920?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 293. Li JM, Zhang Y, Su WJ, et al. Cognitive behavioral therapy for treatment-resistant depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Psychiatry Res. 2018 Oct;268:243-50. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30071387?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 294. Rush AJ, Trivedi MH, Stewart JW, et al. Combining medications to enhance depression outcomes (CO-MED): acute and long-term outcomes of a single-blind randomized study. Am J Psychiatry. 2011

Jul;168(7):689-701. Full text (http://ajp.psychiatryonline.org/doi/pdf/10.1176/appi.ajp.2011.10111645) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21536692?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 295. Dold M, Kasper S. Evidence-based pharmacotherapy of treatment-resistant unipolar depression. Int J Psychiatry Clin Pract. 2017 Mar;21(1):13-23. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/27848269?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 296. Henssler J, Bschor T, Baethge C. Combining antidepressants in acute treatment of depression: a meta-analysis of 38 studies including 4511 patients. Can J Psychiatry. 2016 Jan;61(1):29-43. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4756602) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4756602) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27582451?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 297. Kessler D, Burns A, Tallon D, et al. Combining mirtazapine with SSRIs or SNRIs for treatmentresistant depression: the MIR RCT. Health Technol Assess. 2018 Nov;22(63):1-136. Full text (https:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK533904) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30468145? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 298. Henssler J, Alexander D, Schwarzer G, et al. Combining antidepressants vs antidepressant monotherapy for treatment of patients with acute depression: a systematic review and metaanalysis. JAMA Psychiatry. 2022 Apr 1;79(4):300-12. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/ jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/2789300) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35171215? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 299. Shulman KI, Herrmann N, Walker SE. Current place of monoamine oxidase inhibitors in the treatment of depression. CNS Drugs. 2013 Oct;27(10):789-97. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/23934742?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 300. Suchting R, Tirumalajaru V, Gareeb R, et al. Revisiting monoamine oxidase inhibitors for the treatment of depressive disorders: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2021 Mar 1;282:1153-60. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33601690?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 301. Strawbridge R, Carter B, Marwood L, et al. Augmentation therapies for treatment-resistant depression: systematic review and meta-analysis. Br J Psychiatry. 2019 Jan;214(1):42-51. Full text (https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/the-british-journal-of-psychiatry/ article/augmentation-therapies-for-treatmentresistant-depression-systematic-review-and-metaanalysis/0FEA123FDECE5FB2E838517DC22F8C57/core-reader) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30457075?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 302. Undurraga J, Sim K, Tondo L, et al. Lithium treatment for unipolar major depressive disorder: systematic review. J Psychopharmacol. 2019 Feb;33(2):167-76. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/30698058?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 303. Nuñez NA, Joseph B, Pahwa M, et al. Augmentation strategies for treatment resistant major depression: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2022 Apr 1;302:385-400. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34986373?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 304. Tohen M, Case M, Trivedi MH, et al. Olanzapine/fluoxetine combination in patients with treatmentresistant depression: rapid onset of therapeutic response and its predictive value for subsequent

overall response in a pooled analysis of 5 studies. J Clin Psychiatry. 2010 Apr;71(4):451-62. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20361905?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 305. Mohamed S, Johnson GR, Chen P, et al. Effect of antidepressant switching vs augmentation on remission among patients with major depressive disorder unresponsive to antidepressant treatment: the VAST-D randomized clinical trial. JAMA. 2017 Jul 11;318(2):132-45. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28697253?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 306. Lenze EJ, Mulsant BH, Roose SP, et al. Antidepressant augmentation versus switch in treatment-resistant geriatric depression. N Engl J Med. 2023 Mar 23;388(12):1067-79. Full text (https://www.nejm.org/doi/10.1056/NEJMoa2204462) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/36867173?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 307. Kishimoto T, Hagi K, Kurokawa S, et al. Efficacy and safety/tolerability of antipsychotics in the treatment of adult patients with major depressive disorder: a systematic review and metaanalysis. Psychol Med. 2023 Jul;53(9):4064-82. Full text (https://www.cambridge.org/core/ journals/psychological-medicine/article/efficacy-and-safetytolerability-of-antipsychotics-inthe-treatment-of-adult-patients-with-major-depressive-disorder-a-systematic-review-andmetaanalysis/4956850A4622B74F03E42FAD92D3D9F7) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/35510505?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 308. Gerhard T, Stroup TS, Correll CU, et al. Mortality risk of antipsychotic augmentation for adult depression. PLoS One. 2020 Sep 30;15(9):e0239206. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pmc/articles/PMC7526884) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32997687? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 309. Mulder R, Hamilton A, Irwin L, et al. Treating depression with adjunctive antipsychotics. Bipolar Disord.
 2018 Nov;20 Suppl 2:17-24. Full text (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1111/bdi.12701)
 Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30328223?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Spielmans GI, Berman MI, Linardatos E, et al. Adjunctive atypical antipsychotic treatment for major depressive disorder: a meta-analysis of depression, quality of life, and safety outcomes. PLoS Med. 2013;10(3):e1001403. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3595214) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23554581?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 311. Thase ME, Hobart M, Augustine C, et al. EPA-0808 efficacy and safety of adjunctive brexpiprazole (opc-34712) in major depressive disorder (MDD): a phase iii, randomized, placebo-controlled study. Eur Psychiatry. 2014;29(suppl 1):1.
- 312. Yoon S, Jeon SW, Ko YH, et al. Adjunctive brexpiprazole as a novel effective strategy for treating major depressive disorder: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Clin Psychopharmacol. 2017 Feb;37(1):46-53. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27941419?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 313. Hobart M, Zhang P, Weiss C, et al. Adjunctive brexpiprazole and functioning in major depressive disorder: a pooled analysis of six randomized studies using the Sheehan disability scale. Int J Neuropsychopharmacol. 2019 Mar 1;22(3):173-9. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/ PMC6403084) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30508090?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 314. Kishi T, Sakuma K, Nomura I, et al. Brexpiprazole as adjunctive treatment for major depressive disorder following treatment failure with at least one antidepressant in the current episode: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Int J Neuropsychopharmacol. 2019 Nov 1;22(11):698-709. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6872963) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/31350882?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 315. Ralovska S, Koychev I, Marinov P, et al. Brexpiprazole versus placebo or other antidepressive agents for treating depression. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2023 Jul 28;(7):CD013866. Full text (https:// www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD013866.pub2/full)
- 316. Hollinghurst S, Carroll FE, Abel A, et al. Cost-effectiveness of cognitive-behavioural therapy as an adjunct to pharmacotherapy for treatment-resistant depression in primary care: economic evaluation of the CoBalT Trial. Br J Psychiatry. 2014 Jan;204(1):69-76. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24262818?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 317. Ijaz S, Davies P, Williams CJ, et al. Psychological therapies for treatment-resistant depression in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2018 May 14;(5):CD010558. Full text (https:// www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD010558.pub2/full) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29761488?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 318. Kleeblatt J, Betzler F, Kilarski LL, et al. Efficacy of off-label augmentation in unipolar depression: a systematic review of the evidence. Eur Neuropsychopharmacol. 2017 May;27(5):423-41. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28318897?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 319. Lambrichts S, Detraux J, Vansteelandt K, et al. Does lithium prevent relapse following successful electroconvulsive therapy for major depression? A systematic review and meta-analysis. Acta Psychiatr Scand. 2021 Apr;143(4):294-306. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33506961? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 320. Henssler J, Kurschus M, Franklin J, et al. Long-term acute-phase treatment with antidepressants, 8 weeks and beyond: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized, placebo-controlled trials. J Clin Psychiatry. 2018 Jan/Feb;79(1). Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28068463? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 321. Baldessarini RJ, Lau WK, Sim J, et al. Duration of initial antidepressant treatment and subsequent relapse of major depression. J Clin Psychopharmacol. 2015 Feb;35(1):75-6. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25502491?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 322. Kato M, Hori H, Inoue T, et al. Discontinuation of antidepressants after remission with antidepressant medication in major depressive disorder: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Mol Psychiatry. 2021 Jan;26(1):118-33. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7815511) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32704061?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 323. Zhou D, Lv Z, Shi L, et al. Effects of antidepressant medicines on preventing relapse of unipolar depression: a pooled analysis of parametric survival curves. Psychol Med. 2022 Jan;52(1):48-56. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32501194?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 324. Van Leeuwen E, van Driel ML, Horowitz MA, et al. Approaches for discontinuation versus continuation of long-term antidepressant use for depressive and anxiety disorders in adults. Cochrane

Database Syst Rev. 2021 Apr 15;4(4):CD013495. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/ cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD013495.pub2/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/33886130?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 325. Lewis G, Marston L, Duffy L, et al. Maintenance or discontinuation of antidepressants in primary care. N Engl J Med. 2021 Sep 30;385(14):1257-67. Full text (https://www.nejm.org/ doi/10.1056/NEJMoa2106356) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34587384? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 326. Donald M, Partanen R, Sharman L, et al. Long-term antidepressant use in general practice: a qualitative study of GPs' views on discontinuation. Br J Gen Pract. 2021 Jul;71(708):e508-16. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC8074642) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/33875415?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 327. Duffy L, Clarke CS, Lewis G, et al. Antidepressant medication to prevent depression relapse in primary care: the ANTLER RCT. Health Technol Assess. 2021 Nov;25(69):1-62. Full text (https:// www.journalslibrary.nihr.ac.uk/hta/hta25690#/abstract) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/34842135?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 328. Horowitz MA, Taylor D. Tapering of SSRI treatment to mitigate withdrawal symptoms. Lancet Psychiatry. 2019 Jun;6(6):538-46. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30850328? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 329. Palmer EG, Sornalingam S, Page L, et al. Withdrawing from SSRI antidepressants: advice for primary care. Br J Gen Pract. 2023 Mar;73(728):138-40. Full text (https://bjgp.org/content/73/728/138) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36823051?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 330. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Medicines associated with dependence or withdrawal symptoms: safe prescribing and withdrawal management for adults. Apr 2022 [internet publication]. Full text (https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng215)
- 331. Gueorguieva R, Chekroud AM, Krystal JH. Trajectories of relapse in randomised, placebo-controlled trials of treatment discontinuation in major depressive disorder: an individual patient-level data meta-analysis. Lancet Psychiatry. 2017 Mar;4(3):230-7. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5340978) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28189575?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 332. Bauer M, Severus E, Köhler S, et al.; World Federation of Societies of Biological Psychiatry (WFSBF) Task Force on Treatment Guidelines for Unipolar Depressive Disorders. World Federation of Societies of Biological Psychiatry (WFSBP) guidelines for biological treatment of unipolar depressive disorders, part 2: maintenance treatment of major depressive disorder - update 2015. World J Biol Psychiatry. 2015 Feb;16(2):76-95. Full text (https://wfsbp.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/02/Bauer_et_al_2015.pdf) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25677972?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 333. Guidi J, Fava GA. Sequential combination of pharmacotherapy and psychotherapy in major depressive disorder: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Psychiatry. 2021 Mar 1;78(3):261-9. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7689568) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/33237285?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 334. Clarke K, Mayo-Wilson E, Kenny J, et al. Can non-pharmacological interventions prevent relapse in adults who have recovered from depression? a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. Clin Psychol Rev. 2015 Jul;39:58-70. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/25939032?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 335. Kuyken W, Hayes R, Barrett B, et al. Effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of mindfulness-based cognitive therapy compared with maintenance antidepressant treatment in the prevention of depressive relapse or recurrence (PREVENT): a randomised controlled trial. Lancet. 2015 Jul 4;386(9988):63-73. Full text (http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0140673614622224) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25907157?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 336. Guidi J, Tomba E, Fava GA. The sequential integration of pharmacotherapy and psychotherapy in the treatment of major depressive disorder: a meta-analysis of the sequential model and a critical review of the literature. Am J Psychiatry. 2016 Feb 1;173(2):128-37. Full text (http://ajp.psychiatryonline.org/ doi/full/10.1176/appi.ajp.2015.15040476) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26481173? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 337. Bockting CLH, Klein NS, Elgersma HJ, et al. Effectiveness of preventive cognitive therapy while tapering antidepressants versus maintenance antidepressant treatment versus their combination in prevention of depressive relapse or recurrence (DRD study): a three-group, multicentre, randomised controlled trial. Lancet Psychiatry. 2018 May;5(5):401-10. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/29625762?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 338. Kuyken W, Warren FC, Taylor RS, et al. Efficacy of mindfulness-based cognitive therapy in prevention of depressive relapse: an individual patient data meta-analysis from randomized trials. JAMA Psychiatry. 2016 Jun 1;73(6):565-74. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27119968? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Breedvelt JJF, Warren FC, Segal Z, et al. Continuation of antidepressants vs sequential psychological interventions to prevent relapse in depression: an individual participant data meta-analysis.
 JAMA Psychiatry. 2021 Aug 1;78(8):868-75. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/
 PMC8135055) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34009273?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 340. Chaudron LH. Complex challenges in treating depression during pregnancy. Am J Psychiatry. 2013 Jan;170(1):12-20. Full text (http://ajp.psychiatryonline.org/doi/full/10.1176/appi.ajp.2012.12040440) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23288385?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 341. Lassen D, Ennis ZN, Damkier P, et al. First-trimester pregnancy exposure to venlafaxine or duloxetine and risk of major congenital malformations: a systematic review. Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol. 2016 Jan;118(1):32-6. Full text (http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/bcpt.12497/full) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26435496?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 342. Dandjinou M, Sheehy O, Bérard A. Antidepressant use during pregnancy and the risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: a nested case-control study. BMJ Open. 2019 Oct 1;9(9):e025908. Full text (https://bmjopen.bmj.com/content/9/9/e025908.long) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31575566?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 343. Cabaillot A, Bourset A, Mulliez A, et al. Trajectories of antidepressant drugs during pregnancy: a cohort study from a community-based sample. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 2021 Mar;87(3):965-87.

Full text (https://bpspubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/bcp.14449) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32755022?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 344. Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency. SSRI/SNRI antidepressant medicines: small increased risk of postpartum haemorrhage when used in the month before delivery. Jan 2021 [internet publication]. Full text (https://www.gov.uk/drug-safety-update/ssri-slash-snri-antidepressant-medicines-small-increased-risk-of-postpartum-haemorrhage-when-used-in-the-month-before-delivery)
- 345. Cohen LS, Altshuler LL, Harlow BL, et al. Relapse of major depression during pregnancy in women who maintain or discontinue antidepressant treatment. JAMA. 2006 Feb 1;295(5):499-507. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jama/fullarticle/202291) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/16449615?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 346. Trinh NTH, Munk-Olsen T, Wray NR, et al. Timing of antidepressant discontinuation during pregnancy and postpartum psychiatric outcomes in Denmark and Norway. JAMA Psychiatry. 2023 May 1;80(5):441-50. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/2802141) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36884236?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 347. Khalifeh H, Hunt IM, Appleby L, et al. Suicide in perinatal and non-perinatal women in contact with psychiatric services: 15 year findings from a UK national inquiry. Lancet Psychiatry. 2016 Mar;3(3):233-42. Full text (https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanpsy/article/ PIIS2215-0366(16)00003-1/fulltext) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26781366? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 348. Gentile S. Untreated depression during pregnancy: short- and long-term effects in offspring. A systematic review. Neuroscience. 2017 Feb 7;342:154-66. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26343292?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 349. Eke AC, Saccone G, Berghella V. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) use during pregnancy and risk of preterm birth: a systematic review and meta-analysis. BJOG. 2016 Nov;123(12):1900-7. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27239775?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 350. Zhao X, Liu Q, Cao S, et al. A meta-analysis of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) use during prenatal depression and risk of low birth weight and small for gestational age. J Affect Disord. 2018 Dec 1;241:563-570. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2018.08.061) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30153640?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 351. Jarde A, Morais M, Kingston D, et al. Neonatal outcomes in women with untreated antenatal depression compared with women without depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Psychiatry. 2016 Aug 1;73(8):826-37. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/2526241) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27276520? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 352. Vlenterie R, van Gelder MMHJ, Anderson HR, et al. Associations between maternal depression, antidepressant use during pregnancy, and adverse pregnancy outcomes: an individual participant data meta-analysis. Obstet Gynecol. 2021 Oct 1;138(4):633-46. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/34623076?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

References

Depression in adults

- 353. Mitchell J, Goodman J. Comparative effects of antidepressant medications and untreated major depression on pregnancy outcomes: a systematic review. Arch Womens Ment Health. 2018 Oct;21(5):505-516. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s00737-018-0844-z) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29644439?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 354. Fitton CA, Steiner MFC, Aucott L, et al. In utero exposure to antidepressant medication and neonatal and child outcomes: a systematic review. Acta Psychiatr Scand. 2020 Jan;141(1):21-33. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31648376?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 355. Sanz EJ, De-las-Cuevas C, Kiuru A, et al. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors in pregnant women and neonatal withdrawal syndrome: a database analysis. Lancet. 2005 Feb 5-11;365(9458):482-7. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15705457?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 356. Masarwa R, Bar-Oz B, Gorelik E, et al. Prenatal exposure to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors and risk for persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn: a systematic review, meta-analysis, and network meta-analysis. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2019 Jan;220(1):57. Full text (https://www.ajog.org/article/S0002-9378(18)30709-9/fulltext) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30170040?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 357. Biffi A, Cantarutti A, Rea F, et al. Use of antidepressants during pregnancy and neonatal outcomes: an umbrella review of meta-analyses of observational studies. J Psychiatr Res. 2020 May;124:99-108. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32135392?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 358. Treatment and management of mental health conditions during pregnancy and postpartum: ACOG clinical practice guideline no. 5. Obstet Gynecol. 2023 Jun 1;141(6):1262-88. Full text (https://journals.lww.com/greenjournal/fulltext/2023/06000/ treatment_and_management_of_mental_health.36.aspx) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/37486661?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 359. Pompili M, Dominici G, Giordano G, et al. Electroconvulsive treatment during pregnancy: a systematic review. Expert Rev of Neurother. 2014 Dec;14(12):1377-90. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25346216?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 360. Anderson EL, Reti IM. ECT in pregnancy: a review of the literature from 1941 to 2007. Psychosom Med. 2009 Feb;71(2):235-42. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19073751? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 361. McAllister-Williams RH, Baldwin DS, Cantwell R, et al. British Association for Psychopharmacology consensus guidance on the use of psychotropic medication preconception, in pregnancy and postpartum 2017. J Psychopharmacol. 2017 May;31(5):519-52. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/28440103?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 362. Molenaar NM, Kamperman AM, Boyce P, et al. Guidelines on treatment of perinatal depression with antidepressants: an international review. Aust N Z J Psychiatry. 2018 Apr;52(4):320-7. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5871019) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/29506399?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 363. Nillni YI, Mehralizade A, Mayer L, et al. Treatment of depression, anxiety, and trauma-related disorders during the perinatal period: A systematic review. Clin Psychol Rev. 2018 Dec;66:136-148.

Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2018.06.004) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29935979?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 364. van Ravesteyn LM, Lambregtse-van den Berg MP, Hoogendijk WJ, et al. Interventions to treat mental disorders during pregnancy: a systematic review and multiple treatment meta-analysis. PLoS One. 2017 Mar 30;12(3):e0173397. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5373816) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28358808?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 365. Unutzer J, Katon W, Callahan CM, et al. Collaborative care management of late-life depression in the primary care setting: a randomized controlled trial. JAMA. 2002 Dec 11;288(22):2836-45. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12472325?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 366. Bruce ML, Ten Have TR, Reynolds CF 3rd, et al. Reducing suicidal ideation and depressive symptoms in depressed older primary care patients: a randomized controlled trial. JAMA. 2004 Mar 3;291(9):1081-91. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jama/fullarticle/198310#google_vignette) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14996777?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 367. Davison TE, Bhar S, Wells Y, et al. Psychological therapies for depression in older adults residing in long-term care settings. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2024 Mar 19;3(3):CD013059. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/38501686?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 368. De Leo D. Late-life suicide in an aging world. Nat Aging. 2022 Jan;2(1):7-12. Full text (https:// www.nature.com/articles/s43587-021-00160-1) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/37118360?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 369. Agabio R, Trogu E, Pani PP. Antidepressants for the treatment of people with co-occurring depression and alcohol dependence. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2018 Apr 24;(4):CD008581. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD008581.pub2/full) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29688573?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 370. Hassan AN, Howe AS, Samokhvalov AV, et al. Management of mood and anxiety disorders in patients receiving opioid agonist therapy: review and meta-analysis. Am J Addict. 2017 Sep;26(6):551-63. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28675762?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 371. Dudas R, Malouf R, McCleery J, et al. Antidepressants for treating depression in dementia. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2018 Aug 31;(8):CD003944. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD003944.pub2/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30168578?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 372. Orgeta V, Leung P, Del-Pino-Casado R, et al. Psychological treatments for depression and anxiety in dementia and mild cognitive impairment. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2022 Apr 25;4(4):CD009125. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD009125.pub3) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35466396?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 373. Watt JA, Goodarzi Z, Veroniki AA, et al. Comparative efficacy of interventions for reducing symptoms of depression in people with dementia: systematic review and network meta-analysis. BMJ. 2021

References

Mar 24;372:n532. Full text (https://www.bmj.com/content/372/bmj.n532.long) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33762262?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 374. Eshun-Wilson I, Siegfried N, Akena DH, et al. Antidepressants for depression in adults with HIV infection. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2018 Jan 22;(1):CD008525. Full text (https:// www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD008525.pub3/full) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29355886?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 375. Vita G, Compri B, Matcham F, et al. Antidepressants for the treatment of depression in people with cancer. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2023 Mar 31;3(3):CD011006. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD011006.pub4/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36999619?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 376. Carlson LE, Ismaila N, Addington EL, et al. Integrative oncology care of symptoms of anxiety and depression in adults with cancer: Society for Integrative Oncology-ASCO guideline. J Clin Oncol. 2023 Oct 1;41(28):4562-91. Full text (https://ascopubs.org/doi/10.1200/JCO.23.00857) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37582238?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- Breedvelt JJF, Brouwer ME, Harrer M, et al. Psychological interventions as an alternative and addon to antidepressant medication to prevent depressive relapse: systematic review and meta-analysis. Br J Psychiatry. 2021 Oct;219(4):538-45. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33205715? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 378. Gartlehner G, Gaynes BN, Hansen RA, et al. Comparative benefits and harms of second-generation antidepressants: background paper for the American College of Physicians. Ann Intern Med. 2008 Nov 18;149(10):734-50. Full text (http://www.annals.org/content/149/10/734.long) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19017592?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 379. ClinicalTrials.gov. A study of esketamine nasal spray, administered as monotherapy, in adult participants with treatment-resistant depression. ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier: NCT04599855. Mar 2025 [internet publication]. Full text (https://clinicaltrials.gov/study/NCT04599855)
- 380. Edwards SJ, Hamilton V, Nherera L, et al. Lithium or an atypical antipsychotic drug in the management of treatment-resistant depression: a systematic review and economic evaluation. Health Technol Assess. 2013 Nov;17(54):1-190. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24284258? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 381. Bielski RJ, Cunningham L, Horrigan JP, et al. Gepirone extended-release in the treatment of adult outpatients with major depressive disorder: a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled, parallelgroup study. J Clin Psychiatry. 2008 Apr;69(4):571-7. Full text (https://www.psychiatrist.com/jcp/ gepirone-extended-release-treatment-adult-outpatients) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/18373383?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 382. Alpert JE, Franznick DA, Hollander SB, et al. Gepirone extended-release treatment of anxious depression: evidence from a retrospective subgroup analysis in patients with major depressive disorder. J Clin Psychiatry. 2004 Aug;65(8):1069-75. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/15323591?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

Depression in adults

- 383. Borbély É, Simon M, Fuchs E, et al. Novel drug developmental strategies for treatmentresistant depression. Br J Pharmacol. 2022 Mar;179(6):1146-86. Full text (https:// bpspubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/bph.15753) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/34822719?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 384. losifescu DV, Jones A, O'Gorman C, et al. Efficacy and safety of AXS-05 (dextromethorphanbupropion) in patients with major depressive disorder: a phase 3 randomized clinical trial (GEMINI). J Clin Psychiatry. 2022 May 30;83(4):21m14345. Full text (https://www.psychiatrist.com/jcp/depression/ efficacy-safety-of-axs-05-dextromethorphan-bupropion-mdd) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/35649167?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 385. Tabuteau H, Jones A, Anderson A, et al. Effect of AXS-05 (dextromethorphan-bupropion) in major depressive disorder: a randomized double-blind controlled trial. Am J Psychiatry. 2022 Jul;179(7):490-9. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35582785?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 386. Rucker JJ, Jelen LA, Flynn S, et al. Psychedelics in the treatment of unipolar mood disorders: a systematic review. J Psychopharmacol. 2016 Dec;30(12):1220-9. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27856684?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 387. Carhart-Harris R, Giribaldi B, Watts R, et al. Trial of psilocybin versus escitalopram for depression. N Engl J Med. 2021 Apr 15;384(15):1402-11. Full text (https://www.nejm.org/ doi/10.1056/NEJMoa2032994) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33852780? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 388. Gukasyan N, Davis AK, Barrett FS, et al. Efficacy and safety of psilocybin-assisted treatment for major depressive disorder: Prospective 12-month follow-up. J Psychopharmacol. 2022 Feb;36(2):151-8. Full text (https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/02698811211073759) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/35166158?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 389. Goodwin GM, Aaronson ST, Alvarez O, et al. Single-dose psilocybin for a treatment-resistant episode of major depression. N Engl J Med. 2022 Nov 3;387(18):1637-48. Full text (https://www.nejm.org/ doi/10.1056/NEJMoa2206443) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/36322843? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 390. Raison CL, Sanacora G, Woolley J, et al. Single-dose psilocybin treatment for major depressive disorder: a randomized clinical trial. JAMA. 2023 Sep 5;330(9):843-53. Full text (https:// jamanetwork.com/journals/jama/fullarticle/2808950#google_vignette) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37651119?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 391. Davis AK, Barrett FS, May DG, et al. Effects of psilocybin-assisted therapy on major depressive disorder: a randomized clinical trial. JAMA Psychiatry. 2021 May 1;78(5):481-9. Full text (https:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7643046) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/33146667?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 392. Nagele P, Palanca BJ, Gott B, et al. A phase 2 trial of inhaled nitrous oxide for treatmentresistant major depression. Sci Transl Med. 2021 Jun 9;13(597):eabe1376. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34108247?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

162

- 393. Taylor D, Sparshatt A, Varma S, et al. Antidepressant efficacy of agomelatine: meta-analysis of published and unpublished studies. BMJ. 2014 Mar 19;348:g1888. Full text (https://www.bmj.com/content/348/bmj.g1888) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24647162? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 394. Zazula R, Husain MI, Mohebbi M, et al. Minocycline as adjunctive treatment for major depressive disorder: pooled data from two randomized controlled trials. Aust N Z J Psychiatry. 2021 Aug;55(8):784-98. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33092404? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 395. Cai DB, Zheng W, Zhang QE, et al. Minocycline for depressive symptoms: a meta-analysis of randomized, double-blinded, placebo-controlled trials. Psychiatr Q. 2020 Jun;91(2):451-61. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31965454?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 396. Al Jumaili W, Vora D, Trivedi C, et al. Role of minocycline as an adjunct neuroinflammatory modulator in treatment-resistant depression: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials. Prim Care Companion CNS Disord. 2023 Sep 14;25(5):22r03467. Full text (https://www.psychiatrist.com/pcc/ role-minocycline-adjunct-neuroinflammatory-modulator-treatment-resistant-depression-systematicreview-randomized-controlled-trials) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37713730? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 397. Nettis MA, Lombardo G, Hastings C, et al. Augmentation therapy with minocycline in treatmentresistant depression patients with low-grade peripheral inflammation: results from a doubleblind randomised clinical trial. Neuropsychopharmacology. 2021 Apr;46(5):939-48. Full text (https://www.nature.com/articles/s41386-020-00948-6) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/33504955?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 398. Dean RL, Hurducas C, Hawton K, et al. Ketamine and other glutamate receptor modulators for depression in adults with unipolar major depressive disorder. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2021 Sep 12;9(9):CD011612. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/ doi/10.1002/14651858.CD011612.pub3/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/34510411?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 399. Sanacora G, Frye MA, McDonald W, et al. A consensus statement on the use of ketamine in the treatment of mood disorders. JAMA Psychiatry. 2017 Apr 1;74(4):399-405. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28249076?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 400. Dean RL, Marquardt T, Hurducas C, et al. Ketamine and other glutamate receptor modulators for depression in adults with bipolar disorder. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2021 Oct 8;10(10):CD011611. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/ doi/10.1002/14651858.CD011611.pub3/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/34623633?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 401. Marcantoni WS, Akoumba BS, Wassef M, et al. A systematic review and meta-analysis of the efficacy of intravenous ketamine infusion for treatment resistant depression: January 2009 January 2019. J Affect Disord. 2020 Dec 1;277:831-41. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33065824? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 402. Murrough JW, losifescu DV, Chang LC, et al. Antidepressant efficacy of ketamine in treatmentresistant major depression: a two-site randomized controlled trial. Am J Psychiatry. 2013 Oct;170(10):1134-42. Full text (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3992936) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23982301?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 403. Kraus C, Rabl U, Vanicek T, et al. Administration of ketamine for unipolar and bipolar depression. Int J Psychiatry Clin Pract. 2017 Mar;21(1):2-12. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28097909? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 404. Singh JB, Fedgchin M, Daly EJ, et al. A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled, dosefrequency study of intravenous ketamine in patients with treatment-resistant depression. Am J Psychiatry. 2016 Aug 1;173(8):816-26. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27056608? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 405. Conley AA, Norwood AEQ, Hatvany TC, et al. Efficacy of ketamine for major depressive episodes at 2, 4, and 6-weeks post-treatment: a meta-analysis. Psychopharmacology (Berl). 2021 Jul;238(7):1737-52. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33787963? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 406. Bahji A, Vazquez GH, Zarate CA Jr. Comparative efficacy of racemic ketamine and esketamine for depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2021 Jan 1;278:542-55. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7704936) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/33022440?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 407. Covvey JR, Crawford AN, Lowe DK. Intravenous ketamine for treatment-resistant major depressive disorder. Ann Pharmacother. 2012 Jan;46(1):117-23. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22190250?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 408. Newport DJ, Carpenter LL, McDonald WM, et al; APA Council of Research Task Force on Novel Biomarkers and Treatments. Ketamine and other NMDA antagonists: early clinical trials and possible mechanisms in depression. Am J Psychiatry. 2015 Oct;172(10):950-66. Full text (http://ajp.psychiatryonline.org/doi/full/10.1176/appi.ajp.2015.15040465) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26423481?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 409. Short B, Fong J, Galvez V, et al. Side-effects associated with ketamine use in depression: a systematic review. Lancet Psychiatry. 2018 Jan;5(1):65-78. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28757132?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 410. Gershon AA, Dannon PN, Grunhaus L. Transcranial magnetic stimulation in the treatment of depression. Am J Psychiatry. 2003 May;160(5):835-45. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/12727683?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 411. Perera T, George MS, Grammer G, et al. The Clinical TMS Society consensus review and treatment recommendations for TMS therapy for major depressive disorder. Brain Stimul. 2016 May-Jun;9(3):336-46. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5612370) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27090022?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 412. McClintock SM, Reti IM, Carpenter LL, et al. Consensus Recommendations for the Clinical Application of Repetitive Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (rTMS) in the Treatment of Depression. J Clin

Psychiatry. 2018 Jan/Feb;79(1):. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.4088/JCP.16cs10905) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28541649?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 413. Martin JLR, Barbanoj MJ, Schlaepfer TE, et al. Transcranial magnetic stimulation for treating depression. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2002;(2):CD003493. Full text (https:// www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD003493/full) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12076483?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 414. Herrmann LLE. Transcranial magnetic stimulation. Psychiatry. 2009;8:130-4.
- 415. Allan CL, Herrmann LL, Ebmeier KP. Transcranial magnetic stimulation in the management of mood disorders. Neuropsychobiology. 2011;64(3):163-9. Full text (http://content.karger.com/produktedb/ produkte.asp?DOI=10.1159/000328951) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21811086? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 416. Wasserman D, Rihmer Z, Rujescu D, et al. The European Psychiatric Association (EPA) guidance on suicide treatment and prevention. Eur Psychiatry. 2012 Feb;27(2):129-41. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22137775?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 417. Berlim MT, Van den Eynde F, Daskalakis ZJ. High-frequency repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation accelerates and enhances the clinical response to antidepressants in major depression: a meta-analysis of randomized, double-blind, and sham-controlled trials. J Clin Psychiatry. 2013 Feb;74(2):e122-9. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23473357? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 418. Mutz J, Vipulananthan V, Carter B, et al. Comparative efficacy and acceptability of non-surgical brain stimulation for the acute treatment of major depressive episodes in adults: systematic review and network meta-analysis. BMJ. 2019 Mar 27;364:I1079. Full text (https://www.bmj.com/content/364/ bmj.I1079.long) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30917990?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 419. Janicak PG, Nahas Z, Lisanby SH, et al. Durability of clinical benefit with transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) in the treatment of pharmacoresistant major depression: assessment of relapse during a 6-month, multisite, open-label study. Brain Stimul. 2010 Oct;3(4):187-99. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20965447?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 420. Senova S, Cotovio G, Pascual-Leone A, et al. Durability of antidepressant response to repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation: Systematic review and meta-analysis. Brain Stimul. 2019 Jan Feb;12(1):119-128. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.brs.2018.10.001) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30344109?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 421. Lee HJ, Kim SM, Kwon JY. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation treatment for peripartum depression: systematic review & meta-analysis. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth. 2021 Feb 9;21(1):118. Full text (https://bmcpregnancychildbirth.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12884-021-03600-3) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33563220?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 422. Brunoni AR, Chaimani A, Moffa AH, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation for the acute treatment of major depressive episodes: a systematic review with network meta-analysis. JAMA

Psychiatry. 2017 Feb 1;74(2):143-52. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28030740? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 423. Couturier JL. Efficacy of rapid-rate repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in the treatment of depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Psychiatry Neurosci. 2005 Mar;30(2):83-90. Full text (https://www.jpn.ca/content/30/2/83.long) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15798783?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 424. Lopez-Ibor JJ, Lopez-Ibor MI, Pastrana JI. Transcranial magnetic stimulation. Curr Opin Psychiatry. 2008 Nov;21(6):640-4. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18852574? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 425. Blumberger DM, Vila-Rodriguez F, Thorpe KE, et al. Effectiveness of theta burst versus high-frequency repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in patients with depression (THREE-D): a randomised non-inferiority trial. Lancet. 2018 Apr 28;391(10131):1683-92. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29726344?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 426. Cole EJ, Phillips AL, Bentzley BS, et al. Stanford neuromodulation therapy (SNT): a doubleblind randomized controlled trial. Am J Psychiatry. 2022 Feb;179(2):132-41. Full text (https:// psychiatryonline.org/doi/10.1176/appi.ajp.2021.20101429) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/34711062?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 427. Grimm S, Bajbouj M. Efficacy of vagus nerve stimulation in the treatment of depression. Expert Rev Neurother. 2010 Jan;10(1):87-92. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20021323? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 428. Carpenter LL, Friehs GM, Tyrka AR, et al. Vagus nerve stimulation and deep brain stimulation for treatment resistant depression. Med Health RI. 2006 Apr;89(4):137;140-1. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16676910?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 429. Howland RH. Vagus nerve stimulation for depression and other neuropsychiatric disorders. J Psychosoc Nurs Ment Health Serv. 2006 Sep;44(9):11-4. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/16989326?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 430. Murphy JV, Patil A. Stimulation of the nervous system for the management of seizures: current and future developments. CNS Drugs. 2003;17(2):101-15. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12521358?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 431. Martin JL, Martín-Sánchez E. Systematic review and meta-analysis of vagus nerve stimulation in the treatment of depression: variable results based on study designs. Eur Psychiatry. 2012 Apr;27(3):147-55. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22137776? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 432. Wu C, Liu P, Fu H, et al. Transcutaneous auricular vagus nerve stimulation in treating major depressive disorder: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Medicine (Baltimore). 2018 Dec;97(52):e13845. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1097/MD.00000000013845) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30593183?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our<u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

- 433. Aaronson ST, Sears P, Ruvuna F, et al. A 5-Year Observational Study of Patients With Treatment-Resistant Depression Treated With Vagus Nerve Stimulation or Treatment as Usual: Comparison of Response, Remission, and Suicidality. Am J Psychiatry. 2017 Jul 1;174(7):640-648. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1176/appi.ajp.2017.16010034) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/28359201?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 434. Bergfeld IO, Mantione M, Hoogendoorn ML, et al. Deep brain stimulation of the ventral anterior limb of the internal capsule for treatment-resistant depression: a randomized clinical trial. JAMA Psychiatry. 2016 May 1;73(5):456-64. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27049915? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 435. Zhou C, Zhang H, Qin Y, et al. A systematic review and meta-analysis of deep brain stimulation in treatment-resistant depression. Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry. 2018 Mar 2;82:224-232.
 Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.pnpbp.2017.11.012) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29146474?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 436. Naesström M, Blomstedt P, Bodlund O. A systematic review of psychiatric indications for deep brain stimulation, with focus on major depressive and obsessive-compulsive disorder. Nord J Psychiatry. 2016 Oct;70(7):483-91. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27103550? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 437. Mosley PE, Marsh R, Carter A. Deep brain stimulation for depression: Scientific issues and future directions. Aust N Z J Psychiatry. 2015 Nov;49(11):967-78. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26276049?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 438. Dandekar MP, Fenoy AJ, Carvalho AF, et al. Deep brain stimulation for treatment-resistant depression: an integrative review of preclinical and clinical findings and translational implications. Mol Psychiatry. 2018 May;23(5):1094-1112. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1038/mp.2018.2) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29483673?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 439. De Smet S, Nikolin S, Moffa A, et al. Determinants of sham response in tDCS depression trials: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry. 2021 Jul 13;109:110261. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33497753?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 440. Moffa AH, Martin D, Alonzo A, et al. Efficacy and acceptability of transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS) for major depressive disorder: an individual patient data meta-analysis. Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry. 2020 Apr 20;99:109836. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31837388?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 441. Palm U, Hasan A, Strube W, et al. tDCS for the treatment of depression: a comprehensive review. Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci. 2016 Dec;266(8):681-94. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/26842422?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 442. Kohler O, Benros ME, Nordentoft M, et al. Effect of anti-inflammatory treatment on depression, depressive symptoms, and adverse effects: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. JAMA Psychiatry. 2014 Dec 1;71(12):1381-91. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/25322082?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 443. Bai S, Guo W, Feng Y, et al. Efficacy and safety of anti-inflammatory agents for the treatment of major depressive disorder: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 2020 Jan;91(1):21-32. Full text (https:// www.doi.org/10.1136/jnnp-2019-320912) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31658959? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 444. Husain MI, Chaudhry IB, Khoso AB, et al. Minocycline and celecoxib as adjunctive treatments for bipolar depression: a multicentre, factorial design randomised controlled trial. Lancet Psychiatry. 2020 Jun;7(6):515-27. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32445690?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 445. Serafini G, Adavastro G, Canepa G, et al. The Efficacy of Buprenorphine in Major Depression, Treatment-Resistant Depression and Suicidal Behavior: A Systematic Review. Int J Mol Sci. 2018 Aug 15;19(8):. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.3390/ijms19082410) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30111745?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 446. Sarris J, Murphy J, Mischoulon D, et al. Adjunctive nutraceuticals for depression: a systematic review and meta-analyses. Am J Psychiatry. 2016 Jun 1;173(6):575-87. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27113121?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 447. De Berardis D, Orsolini L, Serroni N, et al. A comprehensive review on the efficacy of S-adenosyl-Lmethionine in major depressive disorder. CNS Neurol Disord Drug Targets. 2016;15(1):35-44. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26295824?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 448. Fernandes BS, Dean OM, Dodd S, et al. N-Acetylcysteine in depressive symptoms and functionality: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Clin Psychiatry. 2016 Apr;77(4):e457-66. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27137430?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 449. Sarris J. Clinical use of nutraceuticals in the adjunctive treatment of depression in mood disorders. Australas Psychiatry. 2017 Aug;25(4):369-372. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1177/1039856216689533) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28135835? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 450. Hoepner CT, McIntyre RS, Papakostas GI. Impact of supplementation and nutritional interventions on pathogenic processes of mood disorders: a review of the evidence. Nutrients. 2021 Feb 26;13(3):767. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7996954) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33652997?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 451. Appleton KM, Voyias PD, Sallis HM, et al. Omega-3 fatty acids for depression in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2021 Nov 24;11(11):CD004692. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD004692.pub5/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34817851?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 452. Okereke OI, Vyas CM, Mischoulon D, et al. Effect of long-term supplementation with marine omega-3 fatty acids vs placebo on risk of depression or clinically relevant depressive symptoms and on change in mood scores: a randomized clinical trial. JAMA. 2021 Dec 21;326(23):2385-94. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jama/fullarticle/2787320) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34932079?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

- 453. Nikolova VL, Cleare AJ, Young AH, et al. Acceptability, tolerability, and estimates of putative treatment effects of probiotics as adjunctive treatment in patients with depression: a randomized clinical trial. JAMA Psychiatry. 2023 Aug 1;80(8):842-7. Full text (https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamapsychiatry/fullarticle/2806011) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/37314797? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 454. Sarris J, Ravindran A, Yatham LN, et al. Clinician guidelines for the treatment of psychiatric disorders with nutraceuticals and phytoceuticals: The World Federation of Societies of Biological Psychiatry (WFSBP) and Canadian Network for Mood and Anxiety Treatments (CANMAT) Taskforce. World J Biol Psychiatry. 2022 Jul;23(6):424-55. Full text (https://www.tandfonline.com/ doi/full/10.1080/15622975.2021.2013041#d1e728) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/35311615?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 455. Linde K, Berner MM, Kriston L. St John's wort for major depression. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2008 Oct 8;(4):CD000448. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/ doi/10.1002/14651858.CD000448.pub3/full) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/18843608?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 456. Apaydin EA, Maher AR, Shanman R, et al. A systematic review of St. John's wort for major depressive disorder. Syst Rev. 2016 Sep 2;5(1):148. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/
 PMC5010734) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27589952?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 457. Schulz V. Safety of St. John's Wort extract compared to synthetic antidepressants. Phytomedicine.
 2006 Feb;13(3):199-204. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16428030?
 tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 458. Rahimi R, Nikfar S, Abdollahi M. Efficacy and tolerability of Hypericum perforatum in major depressive disorder in comparison with selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors: a meta-analysis. Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry. 2009 Feb 1;33(1):118-27. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19028540?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 459. Bedson E, Bell D, Carr D, et al. Folate augmentation of treatment-evaluation for depression (FolATED): randomised trial and economic evaluation. Health Technol Assess. 2014 Jul;18(48):viiviii;1-159. Full text (https://www.journalslibrary.nihr.ac.uk/hta/hta18480/#/full-report) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25052890?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 460. Roberts E, Carter B, Young AH. Caveat emptor: folate in unipolar depressive illness, a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Psychopharmacol. 2018 Apr;32(4):377-84. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29442609?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 461. Bot M, Brouwer IA, Roca M, et al. Effect of multinutrient supplementation and food-related behavioral activation therapy on prevention of major depressive disorder among overweight or obese adults with subsyndromal depressive symptoms: the MooDFOOD randomized clinical trial. JAMA. 2019 Mar 5;321(9):858-68. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30835307?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 462. Bousman CA, Arandjelovic K, Mancuso SG, et al. Pharmacogenetic tests and depressive symptom remission: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Pharmacogenomics. 2019 Jan;20(1):37-47. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30520364?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

Depression in adults

- 463. Nassan M, Nicholson WT, Elliott MA, et al. Pharmacokinetic pharmacogenetic prescribing guidelines for antidepressants: a template for psychiatric precision medicine. Mayo Clin Proc. 2016 Jul;91(7):897-907. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27289413? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 464. Rosenblat JD, Lee Y, McIntyre RS. Does pharmacogenomic testing improve clinical outcomes for major depressive disorder? A systematic review of clinical trials and cost-effectiveness studies. J Clin Psychiatry. 2017 Jun;78(6):720-9. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28068459? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 465. Rosenblat JD, Lee Y, McIntyre RS. The effect of pharmacogenomic testing on response and remission rates in the acute treatment of major depressive disorder: A meta-analysis. J Affect Disord. 2018 Dec 1;241:484-491. Full text (https://www.doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2018.08.056) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30149336?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 466. Pyzocha N. GeneSight Psychotropic Genetic Testing for Psychiatric Medication Selection. Am Fam Physician. 2021 Jul 1;104(1):89-90. Full text (https://www.aafp.org/pubs/afp/issues/2021/0700/p89.html) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/34264602?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 467. Verduijn J, Verhoeven JE, Milaneschi Y, et al. Reconsidering the prognosis of major depressive disorder across diagnostic boundaries: full recovery is the exception rather than the rule.
 BMC Med. 2017 Dec 12;15(1):215. Full text (https://bmcmedicine.biomedcentral.com/ articles/10.1186/s12916-017-0972-8) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29228943? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 468. Klein DN, Shankman SA, Rose S. Ten-year prospective follow-up study of the naturalistic course of dysthymic disorder and double depression. Am J Psychiatry. 2006 May;163(5):872-80. Full text (https://psychiatryonline.org/doi/10.1176/ajp.2006.163.5.872) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/16648329?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 469. Cuijpers P, Geraedts AS, van Oppen P, et al. Interpersonal psychotherapy for depression: a metaanalysis. Am J Psychiatry. 2011 Jun;168(6):581-92. Full text (http://ajp.psychiatryonline.org/doi/ full/10.1176/appi.ajp.2010.10101411) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21362740? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 470. Taylor MJ, Rudkin L, Bullemor-Day P, et al. Strategies for managing sexual dysfunction induced by antidepressant medication. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2013 May 31;(5):CD003382. Full text (https://www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD003382.pub3/full) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23728643?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 471. Nurnberg HG, Hensley PL. Selective phosphodiesterase type-5 inhibitor treatment of serotonergic reuptake inhibitor antidepressant-associated sexual dysfunction: a review of diagnosis, treatment, and relevance. CNS Spectr. 2003 Mar;8(3):194-202. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/12595814?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 472. Reisman Y. Post-SSRI sexual dysfunction. BMJ. 2020 Feb 27;368:m754. Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/32107204?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

170

References

- 473. Ratheesh A, Davey C, Hetrick S, et al. A systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective transition from major depression to bipolar disorder. Acta Psychiatr Scand. 2017 Apr;135(4):273-84. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28097648?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 474. Goldberg JF, Ernst CL. Features associated with the delayed initiation of mood stabilizers at illness onset in bipolar disorder. J Clin Psychiatry. 2002 Nov;63(11):985-91. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12444811?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 475. Andrade C. Antidepressant-withdrawal mania: a critical review and synthesis of the literature. J Clin Psychiatry. 2004 Jul;65(7):987-93. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15291689? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 476. Ghaemi SN, Rosenquist KJ, Ko JY, et al. Antidepressant treatment in bipolar versus unipolar depression. Am J Psychiatry. 2004 Jan;161(1):163-5. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pubmed/14702267?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 477. Möller HJ, Baldwin DS, Goodwin G, et al. Do SSRIs or antidepressants in general increase suicidality? WPA Section on Pharmacopsychiatry: consensus statement. Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci. 2008 Aug;258(suppl 3):S3-23. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18668279? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 478. Carpenter DJ, Fong R, Kraus JE, et al. Meta-analysis of efficacy and treatment-emergent suicidality in adults by psychiatric indication and age subgroup following initiation of paroxetine therapy: a complete set of randomized placebo-controlled trials. J Clin Psychiatry. 2011 Nov;72(11):1503-14. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21367354?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 479. Ho SC, Chong HY, Chaiyakunapruk N, et al. Clinical and economic impact of non-adherence to antidepressants in major depressive disorder: a systematic review. J Affect Disord. 2016 Mar 15;193:1-10. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26748881?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 480. Holvast F, Oude Voshaar RC, Wouters H, et al. Non-adherence to antidepressants among older patients with depression: a longitudinal cohort study in primary care. Fam Pract. 2019 Jan 25;36(1):12-20. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/30395196?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 481. Dodd S, Mitchell PB, Bauer M, et al. Monitoring for antidepressant-associated adverse events in the treatment of patients with major depressive disorder: An international consensus statement. World J Biol Psychiatry. 2018 Aug;19(5):330-48. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28984491? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 482. Wells KB, Sherbourne C, Schoenbaum M, et al. Impact of disseminating quality improvement programs for depression in managed primary care: a randomized controlled trial. JAMA. 2000 Jan 12;283(2):212-20. Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10634337? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)
- 483. Simon GE, Ralston JD, Savarino J, et al. Randomized trial of depression follow-up care by online messaging. J Gen Intern Med. 2011 Jul;26(7):698-704. Full text (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ pmc/articles/PMC3138593) Abstract (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21384219? tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

484. Kampling H, Baumeister H, Bengel J, et al. Prevention of depression in adults with long-term physical conditions. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2021 Mar 5;3(3):CD011246. Full text (https:// www.cochranelibrary.com/cdsr/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD011246.pub2/full) Abstract (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/33667319?tool=bestpractice.bmj.com)

Disclaimer

BMJ Best Practice is intended for licensed medical professionals. BMJ Publishing Group Ltd (BMJ) does not advocate or endorse the use of any drug or therapy contained within this publication nor does it diagnose patients. As a medical professional you retain full responsibility for the care and treatment of your patients and you should use your own clinical judgement and expertise when using this product.

This content is not intended to cover all possible diagnosis methods, treatments, follow up, drugs and any contraindications or side effects. In addition, since such standards and practices in medicine change as new data become available, you should consult a variety of sources. We strongly recommend that you independently verify specified diagnosis, treatments and follow-up and ensure it is appropriate for your patient within your region. In addition, with respect to prescription medication, you are advised to check the product information sheet accompanying each drug to verify conditions of use and identify any changes in dosage schedule or contraindications, particularly if the drug to be administered is new, infrequently used, or has a narrow therapeutic range. You must always check that drugs referenced are licensed for the specified use and at the specified doses in your region.

Information included in BMJ Best Practice is provided on an "as is" basis without any representations, conditions or warranties that it is accurate and up to date. BMJ and its licensors and licensees assume no responsibility for any aspect of treatment administered to any patients with the aid of this information. To the fullest extent permitted by law, BMJ and its licensors and licensees shall not incur any liability, including without limitation, liability for damages, arising from the content. All conditions, warranties and other terms which might otherwise be implied by the law including, without limitation, the warranties of satisfactory quality, fitness for a particular purpose, use of reasonable care and skill and non-infringement of proprietary rights are excluded.

Where BMJ Best Practice has been translated into a language other than English, BMJ does not warrant the accuracy and reliability of the translations or the content provided by third parties (including but not limited to local regulations, clinical guidelines, terminology, drug names and drug dosages). BMJ is not responsible for any errors and omissions arising from translation and adaptation or otherwise. Where BMJ Best Practice lists drug names, it does so by recommended International Nonproprietary Names (rINNs) only. It is possible that certain drug formularies might refer to the same drugs using different names.

Please note that recommended formulations and doses may differ between drug databases drug names and brands, drug formularies, or locations. A local drug formulary should always be consulted for full prescribing information.

Treatment recommendations in BMJ Best Practice are specific to patient groups. Care is advised when selecting the integrated drug formulary as some treatment recommendations are for adults only, and external links to a paediatric formulary do not necessarily advocate use in children (and vice-versa). Always check that you have selected the correct drug formulary for your patient.

Where your version of BMJ Best Practice does not integrate with a local drug formulary, you should consult a local pharmaceutical database for comprehensive drug information including contraindications, drug interactions, and alternative dosing before prescribing.

Interpretation of numbers

Regardless of the language in which the content is displayed, numerals are displayed according to the original English-language numerical separator standard. For example 4 digit numbers shall not include a comma nor a decimal point; numbers of 5 or more digits shall include commas; and numbers stated to be less than 1 shall be depicted using decimal points. See Figure 1 below for an explanatory table.

BMJ accepts no responsibility for misinterpretation of numbers which comply with this stated numerical separator standard.

This approach is in line with the guidance of the International Bureau of Weights and Measures Service.

Figure 1 – BMJ Best Practice Numeral Style

5-digit numerals: 10,000

4-digit numerals: 1000

numerals < 1: 0.25

Our full website and application terms and conditions can be found here: Website Terms and Conditions.

Contact us

+ 44 (0) 207 111 1105 support@bmj.com

BMJ BMA House Tavistock Square London WC1H 9JR UK

174

This PDF of the BMJ Best Practice topic is based on the web version that was last updated: Mar 19, 2025. BMJ Best Practice topics are regularly updated and the most recent version of the topics can be found on <u>bestpractice.bmj.com</u>. Use of this content is subject to our <u>disclaimer (.</u> <u>Use of this content is subject to our)</u>. © BMJ Publishing Group Ltd 2025. All rights reserved.

BMJ Best Practice

Contributors:

// Authors:

Dean F. MacKinnon, MD

Associate Professor Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, The Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, MD DISCLOSURES: DFM declares that he has no competing interests.

// Acknowledgements:

Dr Dean F. MacKinnon would like to gratefully acknowledge Dr Roger S. McIntyre, Dr Tonya Fancher, and Dr Richard Kravitz, the previous contributors to this topic.

DISCLOSURES: RSM has received research funds from Stanley Medical Research Institute and National Alliance for Research on Schizophrenia and Depression (NARSAD). RSM is on the advisory board for AstraZeneca, Bristol-Myers Squibb, France Foundation, GlaxoSmithKline, Janssen-Ortho, Solvay/Wyeth, Eli Lilly, Organon, Lundbeck, Biovail, Pfizer, Shire, and Schering-Plough. RSM is on the Speakers Bureau for Janssen-Ortho, AstraZeneca, Eli Lilly, Lundbeck, Biovail, and Wyeth. RSM has received research grants from Eli Lilly, Janssen-Ortho, Shire, and AstraZeneca. RSM has received travel funds from Bristol-Myers Squibb. TF declares that she has no competing interests. RK has received research grants from Pfizer on non-depression-related topics.

// Peer Reviewers:

Christopher Dowrick, BA MBChB MSc MD

Emeritus Professor University of Liverpool, UK DISCLOSURES: CD has been reimbursed by Novartis for participating in an educational event.

Erin K. Ferenchick, MD

Center for Family and Community Medicine Columbia University Medical Center, Upper Manhattan, NY DISCLOSURES: EKF declares that she has no competing interests.