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## Depression prevalence using the HADS-D compared to SCID major depression classification

### Citation for published version:

Brehaut, E, Neupane, D, Levis, B, Wu, Y, Sun, Y, Krishnan, A, He, C, Bhandari, PM, Negeri, Z, Riehm, KE, Rice, DB, Azar, M, Yan, XW, Imran, M, Chiovitti, MJ, Saadat, N, Cuijpers, P, Ioannidis, JPA, Markham, S, Patten, SB, Ziegelstein, RC, Henry, M, Ismail, Z, Loiselle, CG, Mitchell, ND, Tonelli, M, Boruff, JT, Kloda, LA, Beraldi, A, Braeken, APBM, Carter, G, Clover, K, Conroy, RM, Cukor, D, da Rocha e Silva, CE, De Souza, J, Downing, MG, Feinstein, A, Ferentinos, PP, Fischer, FH, Flint, AJ, Fujimori, M, Gallagher, P, Goebel, S, Jetté, N, Julião, M, Keller, M, Kjærgaard, M, Love, AW, Löwe, B, Martin-Santos, R, Michopoulos, I, Navines, R, O'Rourke, SJ, Öztürk, A, Pintor, L, Ponsford, JL, Rooney, AG, Sánchez-González, R, Schwarzbald, ML, Sharpe, M, Simard, S, Singer, S, Stone, J, Tung, K-Y, Turner, A, Walker, J, Walterfang, M, White, J, Benedetti, A & Thombs, BD 2020, 'Depression prevalence using the HADS-D compared to SCID major depression classification: An individual participant data meta-analysis', *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, vol. 139. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychores.2020.110256>

### Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1016/j.jpsychores.2020.110256](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychores.2020.110256)

### Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

### Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

### Published In:

Journal of Psychosomatic Research

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1 **Depression Prevalence using the HADS-D Compared to SCID Major Depression**

2 **Classification: an Individual Participant Data Meta-Analysis**

3

4 **Running head:** Estimating Depression Prevalence using the HADS-D and SCID

5

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161 **ABSTRACT**

162 **Objectives:** Validated diagnostic interviews are required to classify depression status and  
163 estimate prevalence of disorder, but screening tools are often used instead. We used individual  
164 participant data meta-analysis to compare prevalence based on standard Hospital Anxiety and  
165 Depression Scale – depression subscale (HADS-D) cutoffs of  $\geq 8$  and  $\geq 11$  versus Structured  
166 Clinical Interview for DSM (SCID) major depression and determined if an alternative HADS-D  
167 cutoff could more accurately estimate prevalence.

168 **Methods:** We searched Medline, Medline In-Process & Other Non-Indexed Citations via Ovid,  
169 PsycINFO, and Web of Science (inception-July 11, 2016) for studies comparing HADS-D scores  
170 to SCID major depression status. Pooled prevalence and pooled differences in prevalence for  
171 HADS-D cutoffs versus SCID major depression were estimated.

172 **Results:** 6,005 participants (689 SCID major depression cases) from 41 primary studies were  
173 included. Pooled prevalence was 24.5% (95% Confidence Interval (CI): 20.5%, 29.0%) for  
174 HADS-D  $\geq 8$ , 10.7% (95% CI: 8.3%, 13.8%) for HADS-D  $\geq 11$ , and 11.6% (95% CI: 9.2%,  
175 14.6%) for SCID major depression. HADS-D  $\geq 11$  was closest to SCID major depression  
176 prevalence, but the 95% prediction interval for the difference that could be expected for HADS-  
177 D  $\geq 11$  versus SCID in a new study was -21.1% to 19.5%.

178 **Conclusions:** HADS-D  $\geq 8$  substantially overestimates depression prevalence. Of all possible  
179 cutoff thresholds, HADS-D  $\geq 11$  was closest to the SCID, but there was substantial heterogeneity  
180 in the difference between HADS-D  $\geq 11$  and SCID-based estimates. HADS-D should not be  
181 used as a substitute for a validated diagnostic interview.

182 **Key Words:** depression, Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale, individual participant data,  
183 meta-analysis, screening tools

184 **INTRODUCTION**

185           Accurately measuring depression prevalence in different populations is important to  
186 understand disease burden, interpret research on etiology, and utilize healthcare resources as  
187 efficiently as possible (Rogan & Gladen, 1978). In mental health research, diagnostic interviews  
188 are required for diagnosis of major depression (First, Spitzer, Gibbon, & Williams, 1995;  
189 Wittchen, 1994). These interviews, however, are costly to administer, especially in large groups,  
190 due to the time and trained personnel required to conduct them properly. Therefore, self-report  
191 screening questionnaires are sometimes used as an inexpensive alternative to evaluate depression  
192 prevalence, with the percentage of patients scoring above a cutoff threshold being described as  
193 the prevalence of depression (Levis et al., 2019; Thombs, Kwakkenbos, Levis, & Benedetti,  
194 2018). Screening tool cutoffs, however, are typically set to cast a wide net and identify many  
195 more individuals for further assessment than will meet diagnostic criteria. Thus, commonly used  
196 screening tools tend to overestimate depression prevalence, sometimes substantially (Thombs et  
197 al., 2018).

198           A previous study used an individual participant data meta-analysis (IPDMA) approach to  
199 compare prevalence based on a depression screening tool with prevalence based on a validated  
200 diagnostic interview. That meta-analysis examined prevalence based on the Patient Health  
201 Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) using the standard cutoff of  $\geq 10$  compared to prevalence based on the  
202 Structured Clinical Interview for the DSM (SCID) among 9,242 participants from 44 primary  
203 studies (Levis et al., 2020). Compared to the SCID, PHQ-9  $\geq 10$  overestimated prevalence by  
204 11.9%; across included studies, the mean and median ratio of PHQ-9 prevalence to SCID-based  
205 prevalence were 2.5 and 1.9. In that study, the authors attempted to identify a PHQ-9 cutoff that

206 would match SCID-based prevalence, but heterogeneity was too high to generate consistently  
207 accurate estimates in individual studies for any PHQ-9 cutoff.

208         The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) is a self-report screening  
209 questionnaire designed to be administered to non-psychiatric medical patients. It includes 14  
210 items, with 7 assessing symptoms of depression (HADS-D) and 7 assessing symptoms of anxiety  
211 (HADS-A) over the past week. To avoid overlap with physical illness, the HADS-D does not  
212 include symptoms common to both physical and mental disorders, such as insomnia, loss of  
213 appetite, or fatigue. Cutoff thresholds of  $\geq 8$  and  $\geq 11$  on the HADS-D are traditionally used as  
214 standard cutoffs for identifying people who may have depression (Zigmond & Snaith, 1983).  
215 Although not designed for this purpose, the HADS-D is also frequently used to report depression  
216 prevalence in primary research studies. A review of recent studies listed in PubMed (2018-2019)  
217 identified 32 studies that reported “prevalence” of depression based on a HADS-D cutoff, with  $\geq$   
218 8 and  $\geq 11$  used in 66% and 16% of the studies, respectively (see supplementary material  
219 eMethods 1 and eTable 1).

220         Although other screening tools and commonly used cutoffs have been shown to  
221 overestimate depression prevalence, it is not clear whether this would be the case with the  
222 HADS-D. A previous study that investigated prevalence of major depression among survivors of  
223 acute myocardial infarction found a prevalence of 20% (10,785 participants, 8 studies) using  
224 structured interviews, compared to 16% using a HADS-D cutoff of  $\geq 8$  (863 participants, 4  
225 studies), and 7% using  $\geq 11$  (830 participants, 4 studies) (Thombs et al., 2006). This was a  
226 between-study comparison, however, and no included studies administered both the HADS-D  
227 and a validated diagnostic interview.

228           The objectives of the present study were to use an IPDMA approach to (1) compare  
229 pooled prevalence based on HADS-D cutoffs of  $\geq 8$  and  $\geq 11$  with major depression prevalence  
230 based on the SCID; and (2) use a prevalence-matching approach to determine if any cutoff  
231 threshold on the HADS-D matches prevalence based on the SCID with sufficiently low  
232 heterogeneity that it could be used to accurately measure depression prevalence in future studies.

## 233 **METHODS**

234           This study used a subset of data collected for an IPDMA of the diagnostic accuracy of the  
235 HADS-D for screening to detect major depression. Detailed methods of the IPDMA were  
236 registered in PROSPERO (CRD42015016761), and a protocol was published (Thombs et al.,  
237 2016). The present analysis was not included in the original IPDMA protocol, which focused  
238 only on diagnostic accuracy. A protocol for the present study was published on the Open Science  
239 Framework prior to initiating the study (<https://osf.io/n5a3e/>).

### 240 **Study Selection**

241           In the main IPDMA, datasets from studies in any language were eligible for inclusion if  
242 (1) they included HADS-D scores; (2) they included diagnostic classifications for current Major  
243 Depressive Episode (MDE) or Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) based on the Diagnostic and  
244 Statistical Manual (DSM) or International Classification of Diseases criteria, using a validated  
245 semi-structured or fully structured interview; (3) the HADS-D and diagnostic interview were  
246 administered within two weeks of each other, since diagnostic criteria for major depression are  
247 for symptoms experienced in the last two weeks; (4) participants were  $\geq 18$  years and not  
248 recruited from youth or school-based settings, since the main IPDMA was designed for adult  
249 screening, and although there are some adults in schools, the pathways for identification and  
250 management are likely very different from other adult settings; and (5) participants were not

251 recruited from psychiatric settings or because they were identified as having symptoms of  
252 depression, since screening is done to identify unrecognized cases. Datasets where not all  
253 participants were eligible were included if primary data allowed selection of eligible participants.

254 For the present study, we included only primary studies that based diagnoses on the SCID  
255 (First et al., 1995). The SCID is a semi-structured diagnostic interview designed to be conducted  
256 by an experienced clinician; it requires professional judgment and allows rephrasing questions  
257 and probes to follow up responses. The reason for including only studies that used the SCID is  
258 that in recent analyses using three large IPDMA databases (Levis et al., 2018, Levis et al., 2019,  
259 Wu et al., 2020) we found that, compared to semi-structured interviews, fully structured  
260 interviews, which are designed for administration by lay interviewers, may identify more patients  
261 with low-level symptoms as depressed but fewer patients with high-level symptoms. These  
262 results are consistent with the idea that semi-structured interviews most closely replicate clinical  
263 interviews done by trained professionals, whereas fully structured interviews are less rigorous  
264 reference standards; they are less resource-intensive options that can be administered by research  
265 staff without diagnostic skills but may misclassify major depression in substantial numbers of  
266 patients. An important feature of the SCID is that it allows the interviewer to probe to determine  
267 whether a symptom is merely a manifestation of a physical illness. In the HADS IPDMA  
268 database, the SCID was the most commonly used semi-structured interview; out of 83 studies, 45  
269 used semi-structured interviews, and 41 of the 45 used the SCID. In sensitivity analyses, we also  
270 included the 4 studies from the IPDMA database that used semi-structured interviews other than  
271 the SCID.

## 272 **Data Sources and Searches**



273 A medical librarian searched Medline, Medline In-Process & Other Non-Indexed  
274 Citations via Ovid, PsycINFO, and Web of Science from inception to July 11, 2016, using a  
275 peer-reviewed search strategy (McGowan et al., 2016) (see supplementary material eMethods 2).  
276 We also reviewed reference lists of relevant reviews and queried contributing authors about non-  
277 published studies. Search results were uploaded into RefWorks (RefWorks-COS, Bethesda, MD,  
278 USA). After de-duplication, unique citations were uploaded into DistillerSR (Evidence Partners,  
279 Ottawa, Canada) for tracking search results.

280 Two investigators independently reviewed studies by title and abstract for eligibility. If  
281 either deemed a study potentially eligible, a full-text review was done by both investigators  
282 independently. Any disagreements were resolved by consensus and consulting a third  
283 investigator when necessary. For languages other than those in which team members were fluent,  
284 translators were consulted.

### 285 **Data Contribution and Synthesis**

286 Authors of eligible datasets were invited to contribute de-identified primary data,  
287 including HADS-D scores and major depression classification status. We emailed corresponding  
288 authors of eligible primary studies at least three times, as necessary, with at least two weeks  
289 between each email. If we did not receive a response, we emailed co-authors and attempted to  
290 contact corresponding authors by phone.

291 Before integrating individual datasets into our synthesized dataset, we compared  
292 published participant characteristics and diagnostic accuracy results with results from raw  
293 datasets and resolved any discrepancies in consultation with the original investigators.

### 294 **Data Analysis**

295 *Comparison of HADS-D  $\geq 8$  and  $\geq 11$  Prevalence with SCID Major Depression Prevalence*

296 For each primary study, we estimated 7 values: (1) the percentage of participants who  
297 scored  $\geq 8$  on the HADS-D, (2) the percentage of participants who scored  $\geq 11$  on the HADS-D,  
298 (3) the percentage of participants classified as having major depression based on the SCID, (4)  
299 the difference between HADS-D  $\geq 8$  percentage and SCID percentage, (5) the ratio for HADS-D  
300  $\geq 8$  percentage versus SCID percentage, and the corresponding (6) difference and (7) ratio for  
301 HADS-D  $\geq 11$  versus the SCID. Then, across all studies, we pooled prevalence for HADS-D  $\geq 8$ ,  
302 HADS-D  $\geq 11$ , and SCID, and we pooled the HADS-D versus SCID differences in prevalence  
303 from each study.

#### 304 *Prevalence Matching*

305 To identify which HADS-D cutoff best matches SCID-based prevalence, we estimated  
306 the pooled difference in prevalence for each possible HADS-D cutoff compared to the SCID.  
307 The HADS-D cutoff with the smallest pooled difference was chosen to be the “prevalence-  
308 matched cutoff.” Then, for each included study, we estimated the difference and ratio in  
309 prevalence based on the prevalence-matched cutoff versus SCID major depression. We  
310 determined the mean and median absolute difference and the range of differences across all  
311 studies. To illustrate the range of difference values that would be expected if a new study were to  
312 compare prevalence based on the prevalence-matched cutoff to prevalence based on the SCID,  
313 we estimated a 95% prediction interval for the difference.

314 All meta-analyses were conducted in R (R version R 3.4.1 and R Studio version 1.0.143)  
315 using the lme4 package. To estimate pooled prevalence values, generalized linear mixed-effects  
316 models with a logit link function were fit using the glmer function. To estimate pooled difference  
317 values, linear mixed-effects models were fit using the lmer function. To account for correlation  
318 between subjects within the same primary study, random intercepts were fit for each primary

319 study. To quantify heterogeneity, for each analysis, we calculated  $\tau^2$ , which is the estimate of  
320 between-study variance, and  $I^2$ , which quantifies the proportion of total variability due to the  
321 between-study heterogeneity.

322 We conducted two sets of post hoc analyses. First, some studies had high depression  
323 prevalence. Thus, to test whether differences in prevalence between the HADS-D and SCID  
324 might be influenced by heterogeneity in depression levels, we repeated the main analysis of  
325 prevalence excluding studies with SCID-based prevalence  $\geq 20.0\%$ . Second, we assessed  
326 whether differences in prevalence for the prevalence-matched cutoff and SCID were associated  
327 with study or patient characteristics. To do this, we fit an additional linear mixed-effects model  
328 for pooled prevalence difference, including age, sex, country human development index category  
329 (“very high” [reference group] or “high”, based on the United Nation’s Human Development  
330 Index for the year of publication), recruitment setting category (nonmedical care, inpatient care  
331 [reference group], outpatient care, or mixed inpatient and outpatient care), and sample size as  
332 fixed-effect covariates. For this analysis, we excluded 520 participants (8.7%) who were missing  
333 age or sex data. We repeated all analyses including 4 studies that used semi-structured interviews  
334 other than the SCID.

## 335 **RESULTS**

336 The initial search for the main IPDMA found 10,015 unique titles and abstracts for  
337 potential eligibility. Of these, we excluded 9,584 studies after reviewing titles and abstracts and  
338 238 studies after full-text review. There were 193 eligible studies using data from 133 unique  
339 samples from which 75 (56.4%) contributed individual participant data. Authors also contributed  
340 data from 8 unpublished studies, resulting in a total of 83 datasets. For our main analyses, we  
341 excluded 42 studies that used diagnostic interviews other than the SCID. In total, the main

342 analyses included 41 primary studies involving 6,005 participants (689 SCID major depression  
343 cases; 11.5%; Figure 1). Of 58 eligible primary studies with unique samples that did not  
344 contribute individual participant data, 26 used the SCID (3,096 participants). Thus, the main  
345 analyses in the present study included 61.2% of eligible studies that used the SCID (41 of 67)  
346 and 66.0% of eligible participants (6,005 of 9,101). See Table 1 for characteristics of each  
347 included study.

348         There were 4 additional studies that used semi-structured diagnostic interviews other than  
349 the SCID (635 participants; 65 major depression cases; 10.2%), which we included in sensitivity  
350 analyses. Two of these studies used the Monash Interview for Liaison Psychiatry, one used the  
351 Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia, and one used the Schedules for Clinical  
352 Assessment in Neuropsychiatry. Thus, these analyses included 45 primary studies (6,640  
353 participants; 754 major depression cases; 11.4%; Table 1).

### 354 **Objective 1: Comparison of HADS-D $\geq$ 8, HADS-D $\geq$ 11 and SCID Major Depression**

#### 355 **Prevalence**

##### 356 *Pooled Prevalence*

357         The results for individual studies are presented in Table 1. For the 41 studies included in  
358 our main analyses, the percentage of participants who scored  $\geq$  8 on the HADS-D ranged from  
359 4.2% to 82.7%, with a pooled prevalence of 24.5% (95% CI: 20.5% to 29.0%,  $\tau^2$ :0.49,  $I^2$ :  
360 97.2%). The percentage of participants who scored  $\geq$  11 on the HADS-D ranged from 0.3% to  
361 74.7%, with a pooled prevalence of 10.7% (95% CI: 8.3% to 13.8%,  $\tau^2$ : 0.71,  $I^2$ : 97.1%). The  
362 percentage of participants classified as having SCID major depression ranged from 0% to 50.0%,  
363 with a pooled prevalence of 11.6% (95% CI: 9.2% to 14.6%,  $\tau^2$ : 0.6,  $I^2$ :97.1%).

364 Excluding 8 studies (552 participants; 185 major depression cases; 33.5%) with SCID-  
365 based prevalence of 20.0% or over, prevalence based on the HADS-D  $\geq$  8 was 21.8% (95% CI:  
366 18.4% to 25.6%,  $\tau^2$ : 0.31,  $I^2$ = 96.4). Prevalence based on the HADS-D  $\geq$  11 was 9.2% (95% CI:  
367 7.3% to 11.6%,  $\tau^2$ : 0.41,  $I^2$ = 96.0). Prevalence based on the SCID was 8.9% (95% CI: 7.6% to  
368 10.4%,  $\tau^2$ : 0.14,  $I^2$ = 94.7).

369 Results were similar when the 4 studies using interviews other than the SCID were  
370 included.

### 371 *Pooled Difference and Ratio*

372 The difference between HADS-D  $\geq$  8 and SCID-based prevalence in the main analyses  
373 ranged from -9.5% to 41.3%, and the pooled difference was 12.4% (95% CI: 8.8% to 16%,  $\tau^2$ :  
374 0.01,  $I^2$ : 97.2%). The difference between HADS-D  $\geq$  11 and SCID-based prevalence ranged from  
375 -31.0% to 33.3%, and the pooled difference was -0.8% (95% CI: -4.1% to 2.5%,  $\tau^2$ : 0.01,  $I^2$ :  
376 97.2%).

377 Results were similar in the sensitivity analyses. Pooled difference for HADS-D  $\geq$  8 was  
378 11.9% (95% CI: 8.6% to 15.2%,  $\tau^2$ : 0.01,  $I^2$ : 97.4%), and pooled difference for HADS-D  $\geq$  11  
379 was -1.0% (95% CI: -4.0% to 2.0%,  $\tau^2$ : 0.01,  $I^2$ : 97.5%). The ratio of HADS-D  $\geq$  8 prevalence  
380 to SCID major depression prevalence ranged from 0.4 to 7.7 times (mean: 2.6 times; median: 2  
381 times). The ratio of HADS-D  $\geq$  11 prevalence to SCID major depression prevalence ranged from  
382 0 to 3.8 times (mean: 1.2 times; median: 0.8 times).

### 383 *Mean Ratio and Difference in Individual Studies*

384 In the main analyses, the mean ratio of HADS-D to SCID-based prevalence was 0.73  
385 times for the 3 studies with HADS-D  $\geq$  8-based prevalence  $<$  10.0% (mean difference: -2.7%),  
386 1.8 times for the 7 studies with HADS-D  $\geq$  8-based prevalence between 11.0% and 19.0% (mean

387 difference: 6.1%), and 2.9 times for the 31 studies with HADS-D  $\geq$  8-based prevalence of 20.0%  
388 or greater (mean difference: 15.2%). The mean ratio was 0.7 times for the 19 studies with  
389 HADS-D  $\geq$  11-based prevalence  $<$  10.0% (mean difference: -4.4%), 1.5 times for the 15 studies  
390 with HADS-D  $\geq$  11-based prevalence between 11.0% and 19.0% (mean difference: -1.3), and 2  
391 times for the 7 studies with HADS-D  $\geq$  11-based prevalence of 20.0% or greater (mean  
392 difference: 9.8%). Results were similar when the 4 additional studies were included.

### 393 **Objective 2: Prevalence Matching**

394 Of all possible HADS-D cutoffs,  $\geq$  11 produced the pooled prevalence estimate that most  
395 closely matched SCID major depression prevalence (HADS-D  $\geq$  11: 10.7%, SCID: 11.6%)  
396 (Figure 2). This cutoff underestimated depression prevalence compared to the SCID, but only  
397 slightly (pooled difference: -0.8%). HADS-D  $\geq$  10 produced a pooled prevalence of 14.7%  
398 (pooled difference: 3.1%), and HADS-D  $\geq$  12 a pooled prevalence of 7.9% (pooled difference: -  
399 3.7%). The mean absolute difference between HADS-D  $\geq$  11 and SCID was 8.2%, and the  
400 median absolute difference was 6.7%. The 95% prediction interval for the difference between  
401 HADS-D  $\geq$  11 and SCID-based prevalence was -21.1% to 19.5%. Results were similar in  
402 sensitivity analyses. In the post-hoc analysis, no participant or study characteristics were  
403 significantly associated with differences in prevalence for the HADS-D prevalence-match cutoff  
404 compared to the SCID.

### 405 **DISCUSSION**

406 Previous research has demonstrated that there may be substantial differences between  
407 screening tools and diagnostic tools in estimating depression prevalence (Levis et al., 2020,  
408 Thombs et al., 2018, Levis et al., 2019). In the present study, we found that the most commonly  
409 used HADS-D cutoff threshold for reporting depression prevalence of  $\geq$  8 overestimated

410 depression prevalence (24.5%) substantially compared to SCID major depression prevalence  
411 (11.6%). A HADS-D cutoff of  $\geq 11$  underestimated prevalence only slightly in aggregate  
412 compared to the SCID (10.7%), but heterogeneity in the difference between HADS-D  $\geq 11$  and  
413 SCID-based estimates in individual studies was high. The 95% prediction interval for difference  
414 between HADS-D  $\geq 11$  and SCID-based prevalence ranged from approximately -20% to 20%,  
415 which suggests that any single new study using HADS-D  $\geq 11$  may over or underestimate  
416 depression prevalence by up to 20%.

417         Results from the present study are partially consistent with what might be expected  
418 theoretically when comparing screening tools and diagnostic tools (Thombs et al., 2018). Since  
419 screening tools are designed to cast a wide net and identify individuals who might be depressed,  
420 they generally tend to overestimate depression prevalence when compared to diagnostic  
421 interviews, which are designed to determine who meets diagnostic criteria. This was indeed the  
422 case in our study for results from the HADS-D  $\geq 8$ , which were in line with those from a  
423 previous study that found that the PHQ-9 similarly overestimated prevalence (Levis et al., 2020).  
424 A finding that was unique to the present study was that estimates based on another commonly  
425 used cutoff threshold, HADS  $\geq 11$ , were in aggregate consistent with major depression  
426 prevalence based on the SCID. The findings from the present study differed from those in a  
427 previous synthesis of evidence from post-acute myocardial infarction patients in which  
428 depression prevalence estimates based on HADS-D  $\geq 8$  and  $\geq 11$  were both lower than estimates  
429 based on structured interviews (Thombs et al., 2006). This discrepancy may be due to the  
430 specific clinical population eligible for the review or because none of the studies included in that  
431 review administered both the HADS-D and a structured interview to the same group of  
432 individuals.

433 Identifying a HADS-D cutoff that consistently matches the SCID would allow  
434 researchers to use screening questionnaires rather than diagnostic interviews for prevalence  
435 estimation, thus conserving time and resources. However, when we used a prevalence-matching  
436 approach and identified the closest HADS-D cutoff ( $\geq 11$ ) to the SCID, although the aggregate  
437 estimates were similar, heterogeneity between studies was too high to suggest that HADS-D  $\geq 11$   
438 would accurately estimate prevalence in any particular future study. In fact, it may substantially  
439 under or overestimate prevalence in individual studies.

440 Researchers often describe the proportion of individuals scoring at or above a cutoff  
441 threshold as prevalence of “depressive symptoms” or “clinically significant depressive  
442 symptoms” rather than prevalence of “depression”. However, this does not resolve the problem.  
443 There is no evidence that impairment becomes meaningful at or above these thresholds, which  
444 have been set for the purpose of screening, and not for impairment delineation. While individuals  
445 scoring above these thresholds have greater impairment on average than those scoring below the  
446 threshold, this would be the case for any threshold that is set. Reporting the proportion of  
447 individuals scoring above a threshold may be useful for comparisons between samples. However,  
448 it should not be characterized as “prevalence” or as the percentage of individuals who have  
449 “symptoms of depression” versus no symptoms.

450 Ideally, semi-structured interviews should be used for prevalence estimation, since they  
451 provide patient-specific details that help interviewers determine whether the diagnostic criteria  
452 for depression are met. They also most closely replicate full assessments done by trained  
453 professionals (Wu et al., 2020). However, these interviews are not always feasible as they are  
454 time-intensive compared to screening questionnaires. Diagnostic interviews also require trained  
455 research staff or mental health professionals to conduct them properly. Hiring clinicians or



456 training research staff to do this can be costly and time-consuming, especially when assessing  
457 large numbers of study participants. When determining which diagnostic interview to use,  
458 researchers should consider the advantages and disadvantages of each, including performance,  
459 cost, and required training (Wu et. al., 2020). When publishing studies, researchers should  
460 discuss their reasons for selecting a particular interview, as well as the implications of their  
461 selection.

462         To our knowledge, this is the first study to synthesize evidence and directly compare  
463 depression prevalence based on HADS-D scores versus the SCID. Strengths of this study are that  
464 we examined data from 41 primary research studies including 6,005 participants, and that we  
465 directly compared status based on HADS-D scores to status based on a validated diagnostic  
466 interview. A limitation is that we did not incorporate data from 39% of eligible studies that used  
467 the SCID (26 of 61) and 34% of eligible participants (3,096 of 9,101), since they did not provide  
468 individual participant data. Furthermore, since not all studies described the qualifications of the  
469 individuals administering the SCID, it is possible that interviewer skill-level contributed to  
470 heterogeneity. Since the objective of our study was to determine how accurate the HADS-D is  
471 for estimating depression prevalence, we did not evaluate whether the correct individuals were  
472 identified; that is beyond the scope of this study. Since diagnostic criteria for major depression  
473 are for symptoms experienced in the last two weeks, we ensured that all studies administered the  
474 HADS-D and SCID within two-weeks of each other. However, studies may not have  
475 administered the HADS-D and SCID on the same day. This may have contributed to variability  
476 in responses to the SCID and the HADS-D, but it would not be expected to contribute to bias.  
477 We included studies where diagnoses were based on DSM or ICD criteria, but only one study  
478 used ICD (De Souza et. al., 2009). This study did not use the SCID and was included only in

479 sensitivity analyses. Finally, this study considered only the HADS-D, which is one screening tool  
480 out of many that are commonly used in clinical practice. As shown in this study, the degree to  
481 which the use of screening tools may accurately estimate prevalence depends on the specific  
482 screening tool and cutoff threshold used.

483         In conclusion, we found that the standard HADS-D cutoff of  $\geq 8$ , which is most  
484 commonly used by researchers to estimate depression prevalence, resulted in overestimation  
485 when compared to the SCID. The other standard screening cutoff of  $\geq 11$  most closely matched  
486 SCID prevalence, but heterogeneity in the difference between HADS-D and SCID-based  
487 estimates in individual studies was high and not associated with study or participant  
488 characteristics. Findings are consistent with evidence demonstrating that depression screening  
489 tools should not be used for diagnostic purposes. Studies should only report prevalence of  
490 depression if they used a validated diagnostic interview designed for case classification.  
491 Clinicians and researchers should be aware that the prevalence of depression reported in studies  
492 using depression screening tools may not be accurate.

493 **Contributors:**

494 • BLevis, PC, JPAI, SM, SBP, RCZ (DEPRESSD Steering Committee Members), MH, ZI,  
495 CGL, NDM, MT (DEPRESSD Knowledge Users), ABenedetti, and BDT (DEPRESSD  
496 Directors) were responsible for the conception, design and oversight of the main IPDMA  
497 project of which the present study is a part.

498 • EB, DN, BLevis, JPAI, ABenedetti, and BDT were responsible for the conception and  
499 design of the present study

500 • JTB and LAK designed and conducted database searches to identify eligible studies.

501 • ABeraldi, APBMB, GC, KC, RMC, DC, CEdReS, JDS, MGD, AF, PPF, FHF, AJF, MF,  
502 PG, SG, NJ, MJ, MKeller, MKjærgaard, AWL, BLöwe, RMS, IM, RN, SJO, AÖ, LP,  
503 JLP, AGR, RSG, MLS, MS, SSimard, SSinger, JS, KYT, AT, JWalker, MW, and JWhite  
504 contributed primary datasets that were included in this study.

505 • EB, DN, BLevis, YW, YS, AK, CH, PMB, ZN, KER, DBR, MA, XWY, MI, MJC, NS  
506 and BDT contributed to data extraction and coding for the meta-analysis.

507 • EB, DN, BLevis, ABenedetti, and BDT contributed to the data analysis and  
508 interpretation.

509 • EB, DN, BLevis, YW, and BDT contributed to drafting the manuscript.

510 • All authors provided a critical review and approved the final manuscript. ABenedetti and  
511 BDT are the guarantors; they had full access to all the data in the study and take  
512 responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analyses.

513

514 **Declaration of Competing Interest:**

515 All authors have completed the Unified Competing Interest form at  
516 [http://www.icmje.org/coi\\_disclosure.pdf](http://www.icmje.org/coi_disclosure.pdf) and declare that: no support from any organisation for  
517 the submitted work; no financial relationships with any organisations that might have an interest  
518 in the submitted work in the previous three years with the following exceptions: (1) Dr. Ismail  
519 declares that he has received personal fees from Avanir, Janssen, Lundbeck, Otsuka, Sunovion,  
520 outside the submitted work. (2) Dr. Tonelli declares that he has received a grant from Merck  
521 Canada, outside the submitted work. (3) Dr. Feinstein reports that he received speaker's  
522 honorariums from Biogen, Sanofi-Genzyme, Merck-Serono, Novartis, Roche, and is on the  
523 advisory board for Akili Interactive, outside the submitted work; He has also received royalties  
524 from the Cambridge University Press for the Clinical Neuropsychiatry of Multiple Sclerosis, 2nd  
525 Edition. (4) Dr. Löwe declares that the primary study by Löwe et al. was supported by  
526 unrestricted educational grants from Pfizer, Germany. (5) Dr. Stone declares that he has received  
527 personal fees from UptoDate, outside the submitted work. No other relationships or activities  
528 that could appear to have influenced the submitted work.

529 **Roles of the Funding Source:**

530 This study was funded by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR, KRS-144045 &  
531 PCG 155468). Ms. Neupane was supported by a G.R. Caverhill Fellowship from the Faculty of  
532 Medicine, McGill University. Drs. Levis and Wu were supported by Fonds de recherche du  
533 Québec - Santé (FRQS) Postdoctoral Training Fellowships. Mr. Bhandari was supported by a  
534 studentship from the Research Institute of the McGill University Health Centre. Ms. Rice was  
535 supported by a Vanier Canada Graduate Scholarship. Dr. Patten was supported by a Senior  
536 Health Scholar award from Alberta Innovates, Health Solutions. The primary study by Scott et  
537 al. was supported by the Cumming School of Medicine and Alberta Health Services through the  
538 Calgary Health Trust, and funding from the Hotchkiss Brain Institute. The primary study by  
539 Amoozegar et al. was supported by the Alberta Health Services, the University of Calgary  
540 Faculty of Medicine, and the Hotchkiss Brain Institute. The primary study by Cheung et al. was  
541 supported by the Waikato Clinical School, University of Auckland, the Waikato Medical  
542 Research Foundation and the Waikato Respiratory Research Fund. The primary study by Cukor  
543 et al. was supported in part by a Promoting Psychological Research and Training on Health-  
544 Disparities Issues at Ethnic Minority Serving Institutions Grants (ProDIGs) awarded to Dr.  
545 Cukor from the American Psychological Association. The primary study by De Souza et al. was  
546 supported by Birmingham and Solihull Mental Health Foundation Trust. The primary study by  
547 Honarmand et al. was supported by a grant from the Multiple Sclerosis Society of Canada. The  
548 primary study by Fischer et al. was supported as part of the RECODEHF study by the German  
549 Federal Ministry of Education and Research (01GY1150). The primary study by Gagnon et al.  
550 was supported by the Drummond Foundation and the Department of Psychiatry, University  
551 Health Network. The primary study by Akechi et al. was supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid for

552 Cancer Research (11-2) from the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare and a Grant-  
553 in-Aid for Young Scientists (B) from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports,  
554 Science and Technology. The primary study by Kugaya et al. was supported in part by a Grant-  
555 in-Aid for Cancer Research (9-31) and the Second-Term Comprehensive 10-year Strategy for  
556 Cancer Control from the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. The primary study  
557 Ryan et al. was supported by the Irish Cancer Society (Grant CRP08GAL). The primary study by  
558 Keller et al. was supported by the Medical Faculty of the University of Heidelberg (grant no.  
559 175/2000). The primary study by Love et al. (2004) was supported by the Kathleen Cuninghams  
560 Foundation (National Breast Cancer Foundation), the Cancer Council of Victoria and the  
561 National Health and Medical Research Council. The primary study by Love et al. (2002) was  
562 supported by a grant from the Bethlehem Griffiths Research Foundation. The primary study by  
563 Löwe et al. was supported by the medical faculty of the University of Heidelberg, Germany  
564 (Project 121/2000). The primary study by Navines et al. was supported in part by the Spanish  
565 grants from the Fondo de Investigación en Salud, Instituto de Salud Carlos III (EO PI08/90869  
566 and PSIGEN-VHC Study: FIS-E08/00268) and the support of FEDER (one way to make  
567 Europe). The primary study by O'Rourke et al. was supported by the Scottish Home and Health  
568 Department, Stroke Association, and Medical Research Council. The primary study by Sanchez-  
569 Gistau et al. was supported by a grant from the Ministry of Health of Spain (PI040418) and in  
570 part by Catalonia Government, DURSI 2009SGR1119. The primary study by Gould et al. was  
571 supported by the Transport Accident Commission Grant. The primary study by Rooney et al. was  
572 supported by the NHS Lothian Neuro-Oncology Endowment Fund. The primary study by  
573 Schwarzbald et al. was supported by PRONEX Program (NENASC Project) and PPSUS  
574 Program of Fundação de Amparo a pesquisa e Inovacao do Estado de Santa Catarina (FAPESC)

575 and the National Science and Technology Institute for Translational Medicine (INCT-TM). The  
576 primary study by Simard et al. was supported by IDEA grants from the Canadian Prostate Cancer  
577 Research Initiative and the Canadian Breast Cancer Research Alliance, as well as a studentship  
578 from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research. The primary study by Singer et al. (2009) was  
579 supported by a grant from the German Federal Ministry for Education and Research (no.  
580 01ZZ0106). The primary study by Singer et al. (2008) was supported by grants from the German  
581 Federal Ministry for Education and Research (# 7DZAIQTX) and of the University of Leipzig (#  
582 formel. 1-57). The primary study by Meyer et al. was supported by the Federal Ministry of  
583 Education and Research (BMBF). The primary study by Stone et al. was supported by the  
584 Medical Research Council, UK and Chest Heart and Stroke, Scotland. The primary study by  
585 Turner et al. was supported by a bequest from Jennie Thomas through Hunter Medical Research  
586 Institute. The primary study by Walterfang et al. was supported by Melbourne Health. Drs.  
587 Benedetti and Thombs were supported by FRQS researcher salary awards. No other authors  
588 reported funding for primary studies or for their work on this study. No funder had any role in  
589 the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of the  
590 data; preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript; and decision to submit the manuscript  
591 for publication.

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### 593 **Acknowledgements**

594 We thank Dr. Linda Kwakkenbos for helping with translation and coding throughout the project.

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**Table 1.** Characteristics of included studies.

Author, year	Country	Population	N total	N (%) Major Depression	Mean Age	% Female	N (%) HADS-D $\geq 8$	% Difference: HADS-D $\geq 8$ - Major Depression	Ratio: HADS-D $\geq 8$ / Major Depression	N (%) HADS-D $\geq 11$	% Difference: HADS-D $\geq 11$ - Major Depression	Ratio: HADS-D $\geq 11$ / Major Depression
<b>Studies from IPDMA that used the SCID and were included in main analyses</b>												
Akechi, 2006	Japan	Outpatients with cancer in palliative care	223	17 (8.0%)	61.1	65.0%	97 (43.0%)	35.9%	5.7	43 (19.0%)	11.7%	2.5
Amoozegar, 2017	Canada	Patients with migraines	102	51 (50.0%)	42.5	81.4%	53 (52.0%)	2.0%	1.0	32 (31.0%)	-18.6%	0.6
Beraldi, 2014	Germany	Patients of haemato-oncology	120	10 (8.0%)	52.1	32.5%	32 (27.0%)	18.3%	3.2	16 (13.0%)	5.0%	1.6
Braeken, 2010	Netherlands	Dutch cancer patients in radiotherapy	13	1 (8.0%)	69.4	NR	4 (31.0%)	23.1%	4.0	2 (15.0%)	7.7%	2.0
Cukor, 2008	USA	Patients with end-stage renal disease	70	14 (20.0%)	53.3	52.9%	18 (26.0%)	5.7%	1.3	7 (10.0%)	-10.0%	0.5
da Rocha e Silva, 2013	Brazil	Patients with stroke	47	14 (30.0%)	59.8	51.1%	16 (34.0%)	4.3%	1.1	7 (15.0%)	-14.9%	0.5
Ferentinos, 2011	Greece	Patients with amyotrophic	36	8 (22.0%)	62.0	41.7%	11 (31.0%)	8.3%	1.4	6 (17.0%)	-5.6%	0.7

		lateral sclerosis										
Fiest, 2014	Canada	Patients with epilepsy	180	30 (17.0%)	41.1	51.4%	31 (17.0%)	0.6%	1.0	18 (10.0%)	-6.7%	0.6
Fischer, 2014	Germany	Patients with heart failure	194	11 (6.0%)	65.9	20.6%	49 (25.0%)	19.6%	4.5	25 (13.0%)	7.2%	2.3
Gagnon, 2005	Canada	Patients admitted to hospital due to fall	108	14 (13.0%)	78.1	87.0%	22 (20.0%)	7.4%	1.6	7 (6.0%)	-6.5%	0.5
Goebel, 2011	Germany	Patients with brain tumors	26	0 (0.0%)	58.3	50.0%	5 (19.0%)	19.2%	–	1 (4.0%)	3.8%	–
Golden, 2006	Ireland	Outpatients with Hepatitis C	86	7 (8.0%)	37.7	25.6%	24 (28.0%)	19.8%	3.4	11 (13.0%)	4.7%	1.6
Gould, 2011	Australia	Patients with traumatic brain injury	189	15 (8.0%)	35.7	21.7%	35 (19.0%)	10.6%	2.3	12 (6.0%)	-1.6%	0.8
Honarmand, 2009	Canada	Patients with multiple sclerosis	140	9 (6.0%)	43.9	74.3%	26 (19.0%)	12.1%	2.9	10 (7.0%)	0.7%	1.1
Juliao, 2013	Portugal	Patients with advanced disease	75	31 (41.0%)	NR	NR	62 (83.0%)	41.3%	2.0	56 (75.0%)	33.3%	1.8
Keller, 2004	Germany	Inpatients with cancer at the department of surgery	76	4 (5.0%)	56.7	38.2%	22 (29.0%)	23.7%	5.5	15 (20.0%)	14.5%	3.8

Kjaergaard, 2014	Norway	Healthy population	357	20 (6.0%)	52.5	100.0%	15 (4.0%)	-1.4%	0.8	1 (0.3%)	-5.3%	0
Kugaya, 2000	Japan	Inpatients with Cancer	81	3 (4.0%)	61.2	25.9%	23 (28.0%)	24.7%	7.7	9 (11.0%)	7.4%	3.0
Lambert, 2015	Australia	Patients with cancer	164	25 (15.0%)	58.5	65.9%	33 (20.0%)	4.9%	1.3	16 (10.0%)	-5.5%	0.6
Löwe, 2002	Germany	Medical outpatients	497	64 (13.0%)	41.8	66.4%	193 (39.0%)	26.0%	3.0	100 (20.0%)	7.2%	1.6
Meyer, 2008	Germany	Patients undergoing laryngectomy	102	4 (4.0%)	60.4	93.1%	25 (25.0%)	20.6%	6.2	13 (13.0%)	8.8%	3.2
Michopoulos, 2010	Greece	Elderly inpatients	194	27 (14.0%)	74.0	47.9%	83 (43.0%)	28.9%	3.1	47 (24.0%)	10.3%	1.7
Navines, 2012	Spain	Patients with chronic hepatitis C	500	32 (6.0%)	43.4	30.6%	74 (15.0%)	8.4%	2.3	31 (6.0%)	-0.2%	1.0
Öztürk, 2013	Turkey	Patients with acne	45	7 (16.0%)	20.9	80.0%	14 (31.0%)	15.6%	2.0	5 (11.0%)	-4.4%	0.7
Patten, 2015	Canada	Patients with multiple sclerosis	42	20 (48.0%)	NR	28.6%	16 (38.0%)	-9.5%	0.8	7 (17.0%)	-31%	0.4
Pintor, 2006	Spain	Patients on waiting list for heart transplantation	73	13 (18.0%)	55.2	16.4%	15 (21.0%)	2.7%	1.2	8 (11.0%)	-6.8%	0.6
Rooney, 2013	UK	Adults with cerebral glioma	133	15 (11.0%)	53.7	42.9%	20 (15.0%)	3.8%	1.3	9 (7.0%)	-4.5%	0.6

Ryan, 2012	Ireland	Patients with advanced cancer	203	8 (4.0%)	61.6	49.3%	46 (23.0%)	18.7%	5.8	16 (8.0%)	3.9%	2.0
Sanchez-Gistau, 2012	Spain	Patients with epilepsy	296	35 (12.0%)	36.1	55.7%	74 (25.0%)	13.2%	2.1	40 (14.0%)	1.7%	1.1
Sanchez, 2012	Spain	Patients undergoing heart transplantation	22	3 (14.0%)	54.2	9.1%	6 (27.0%)	13.6%	2.0	2 (9.0%)	-4.5%	0.7
Sanchez, 2014	Spain	Candidates for heart transplantation	120	8 (7.0%)	55.6	22.5%	26 (22.0%)	15%	3.2	7 (6.0%)	-0.8%	0.9
Schwarzbold, 2014	Brazil	Patients with severe traumatic brain injury	44	14 (32.0%)	32.8	18.2%	12 (27.0%)	-4.5%	0.9	8 (18.0%)	-13.6%	0.6
Simard 2015	Canada	Survivors of cancer	60	7 (12.0%)	60.3	43.3%	3 (5.0%)	-6.7%	0.4	1 (2.0%)	-10%	0.1
Singer, 2008	Germany	Patients with laryngeal cancer	141	8 (6.0%)	63.7	8.5%	38 (27.0%)	21.3%	4.8	16 (11.0%)	5.7%	2.0
Singer, 2009	UK	Patients with cancer in acute care	580	55 (9.0%)	59.4	38.4%	200 (34.0%)	25%	3.6	101 (17.0%)	7.9%	1.8
Stone, 2004	UK	Outpatients after stroke	35	4 (11.0%)	71.2	31.4%	5 (14.0%)	2.9%	1.2	3 (9.0%)	-2.9%	0.8
Tung, 2015	China	Patients with diabetes	136	33 (24.0%)	39.8	56.6%	32 (24.0%)	-0.7%	1.0	12 (9.0%)	-15.4%	0.4

Turner, 2012	Australia	Patients after stroke	72	13 (18.0%)	66.7	47.2%	18 (25.0%)	6.9%	1.4	5 (7.0%)	-11.1%	0.4
Turner, Unpublished	Australia	Patients undergoing cardiac rehabilitation	52	4 (8.0%)	60.3	86.5%	4 (8.0%)	0%	1.0	3 (6.0%)	-1.9%	0.8
Walker, 2007	UK	Patients with cancer	361	30 (8.0%)	NR	23.5%	45 (12.0%)	4.2%	1.5	14 (4.0%)	-4.4%	0.5
Walterfang, 2007	Australia	Sample of Australian Patients with Adrenomyeloneuropathy	10	1 (10.0%)	43.8	10.0%	3 (30.0%)	20%	3.0	2 (20.0%)	10%	2.0

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**Studies that used other semi-structured interviews and were included in sensitivity analyses**

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Love, 2002 <sup>1</sup>	Australia	Outpatients with breast cancer	302	28 (9.0%)	46.3	100.0%	35 (12.0%)	2.3%	1.2	8 (3.0%)	-6.60%	0.3
Love, 2004 <sup>2</sup>	Australia	Outpatients with breast cancer	227	16 (7.0%)	51.7	100.0%	43 (19.0%)	11.9%	2.7	16 (7.0%)	0%	1.0
O'Rourke, 1998 <sup>3</sup>	UK	Patients with stroke	56	9 (16.0%)	67.1	33.9%	13 (23.0%)	7.1%	1.4	7 (13.0%)	-3.60%	0.8
De Souza, 2009 <sup>4</sup>	UK	Outpatients with Huntington's disease	50	12 (24.0%)	50.8	48.0%	16 (32.0%)	8.0%	1.3	11 (22.0%)	-2.0%	0.9

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Author, year	Country	Population	N total	N (%) Major Depression	Mean Age	Percent Female	N (%) HADS-D ≥ 8	% Difference: HADS-D ≥ 8 - Major Depression	Ratio: HADS-D ≥ 8 / Major Depression	N (%) HADS-D ≥ 11	% Difference: HADS-D ≥ 11 - Major Depression	Ratio: HADS-D ≥ 11 / Major Depression
<b>Studies from IPDMA that used the SCID and were included in main analyses</b>												
Akechi, 2006	Japan	Outpatients with cancer in palliative care	223	17 (8.0%)	61.1	65.0	97 (43.0%)	35.9%	5.7	43 (19.0%)	11.7%	2.5
Amoozegar, 2017	Canada	Patients with migraines	102	51 (50.0%)	42.5	81.4	53 (52.0%)	2.0%	1.0	32 (31.0%)	-18.6%	0.6
Beraldi, 2014	Germany	Patients of haemato-oncology	120	10 (8.0%)	52.1	32.5	32 (27.0%)	18.3%	3.2	16 (13.0%)	5.0%	1.6
Braeken, 2010	Netherlands	Dutch cancer patients in radiotherapy	13	1 (8.0%)	69.4	NR	4 (31.0%)	23.1%	4.0	2 (15.0%)	7.7%	2.0
Cukor, 2008	USA	Patients with end-stage renal disease	70	14 (20.0%)	53.3	52.9	18 (26.0%)	5.7%	1.3	7 (10.0%)	-10.0%	0.5
da Rocha e Silva, 2013	Brazil	Patients with stroke	47	14 (30.0%)	59.8	51.1	16 (34.0%)	4.3%	1.1	7 (15.0%)	-14.9%	0.5
Ferentinos, 2011	Greece	Patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis	36	8 (22.0%)	62.0	41.7	11 (31.0%)	8.3%	1.4	6 (17.0%)	-5.6%	0.7



Fiest, 2014	Canada	Patients with epilepsy	180	30 (17.0%)	41.1	51.4	31 (17.0%)	0.6%	1.0	18 (10.0%)	-6.7%	0.6
Fischer, 2014	Germany	Patients with heart failure	194	11 (6.0%)	65.9	20.6	49 (25.0%)	19.6%	4.5	25 (13.0%)	7.2%	2.3
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Goebel, 2011	Germany	Patients with brain tumors	26	0 (0.0%)	58.3	50.0	5 (19.0%)	19.2%	–	1 (4.0%)	3.8%	–
Golden, 2006	Ireland	Outpatients with Hepatitis C	86	7 (8.0%)	37.7	25.6	24 (28.0%)	19.8%	3.4	11 (13.0%)	4.7%	1.6
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Navines, 2012	Spain	Patients with chronic hepatitis C	500	32 (6.0%)	43.4	30.6	74 (15.0%)	8.4%	2.3	31 (6.0%)	-0.2%	1.0
Öztürk, 2013	Turkey	Patients with acne	45	7 (16.0%)	20.9	80.0	14 (31.0%)	15.6%	2.0	5 (11.0%)	-4.4%	0.7
Patten, 2015	Canada	Patients with multiple sclerosis	42	20 (48.0%)	NR	28.6	16 (38.0%)	-9.5%	0.8	7 (17.0%)	-31%	0.4
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Sanchez, 2014	Spain	Candidates for heart transplantation	120	8 (7.0%)	55.6	22.5	26 (22.0%)	15%	3.2	7 (6.0%)	-0.8%	0.9
Schwarzbold, 2014	Brazil	Patients with severe traumatic brain injury	44	14 (32.0%)	32.8	18.2	12 (27.0%)	-4.5%	0.9	8 (18.0%)	-13.6%	0.6
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**Studies that used other semi-structured interviews and were included in sensitivity analyses**  
**39.8**

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Love, 2002 <sup>1</sup>	Australia	Outpatients with breast cancer	302	28 (9.0%)	46.3	100.0	35 (12.0%)	2.3%	1.2	8 (3.0%)	-6.60%	0.3
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O'Rourke, 1998 <sup>3</sup>	UK	Patients with stroke	56	9 (16.0%)	67.1	33.9	13 (23.0%)	7.1%	1.4	7 (13.0%)	-3.60%	0.8
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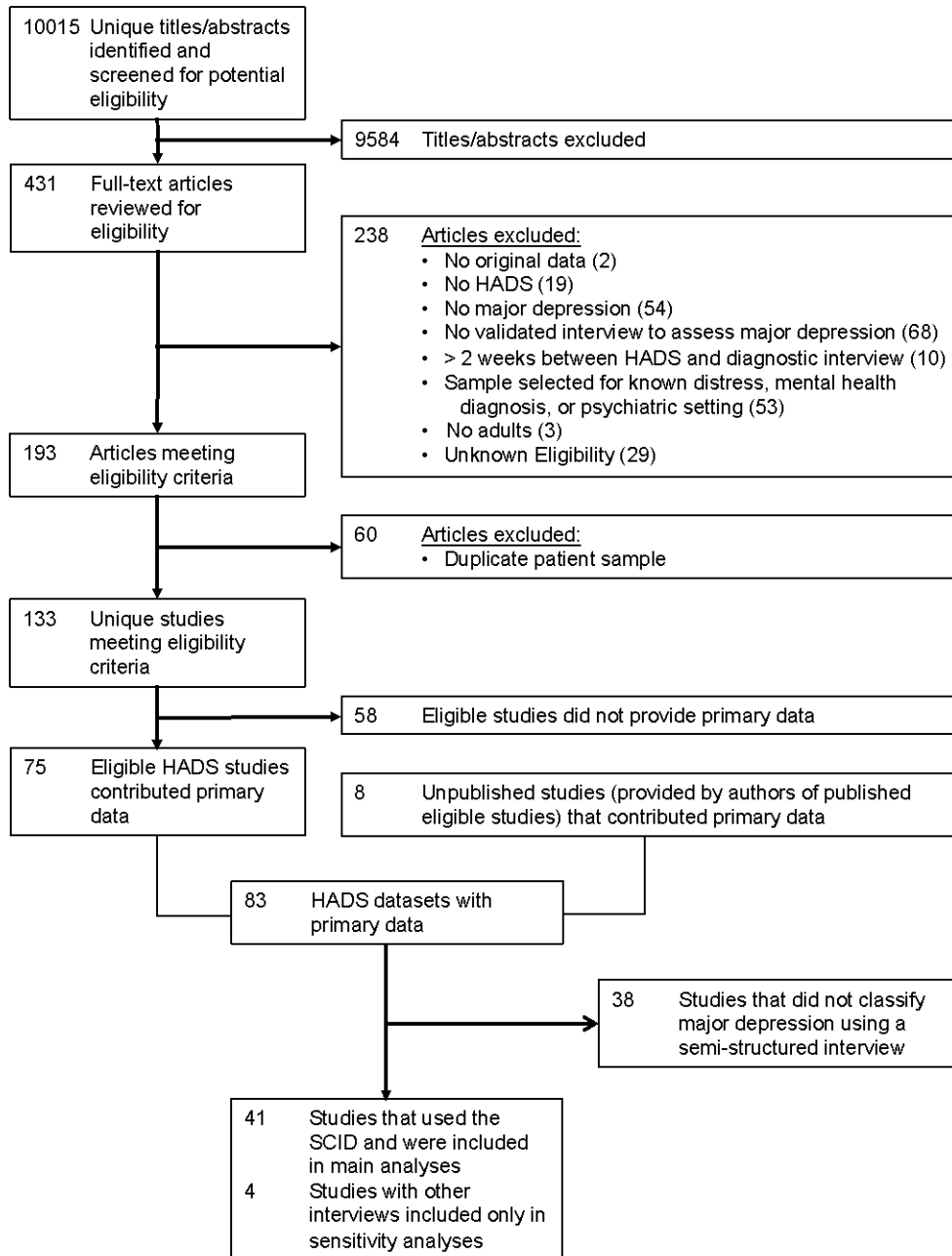
<sup>1,2</sup> Diagnostic interview = Monash Interview for Liaison Psychiatry

<sup>3</sup> Diagnostic interview = Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia

<sup>4</sup> Diagnostic interview = Schedules for Clinical Assessment in Neuropsychiatry

NR= Not reported

**Figure 1.** Study selection process.



**Figure 2.** Proportion of participants (%) who scored at or above each possible HADS-D cutoff.

