Mediation of the Association Between Vascular Risk Factors and Depressive Symptoms by C-Reactive Protein: Longitudinal Evidence from the UK Biobank

Authors

Lina Romankiewicz, MSc ¹, H. Lina Schaare, PhD ^{2,3}, Steffen Nestler, PhD ¹, Arno Villringer, PhD,MD ^{4,5,6}, Maria Blöchl, PhD ^{1,4,7}

Affiliations

- ¹ Department of Psychology, University of Münster, Münster, Germany
- ² Otto Hahn Group Cognitive Neurogenetics, Max Planck Institute for Human Cognitive and Brain Sciences, Leipzig, Germany
- ³ Institute of Neuroscience and Medicine (INM-7: Brain and Behaviour) Research Centre Jülich, Germany
- ⁴ Department of Neurology, Max Planck Institute for Human Cognitive and Brain Sciences, Leipzig, Germany
- ⁵ Clinic for Cognitive Neurology, University Clinic Leipzig, Leipzig, Germany
- ⁶ Center for Stroke Research Berlin, Charité Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Berlin, Germany
- ⁷ International Max Planck Research School: Neuroscience of Communication: Structure, Function, and Plasticity, Leipzig, Germany

Corresponding Author

Maria Blöchl, Max Planck Institute for Human Cognitive and Brain Sciences, 04103 Leipzig, Germany. Email address: bloechl@cbs.mpg.de

Word count:

Word count abstract: 240
Word count introduction: 622
Word count paper: 3084
Number of references: 70

Number of tables: 3 Number of figures: 1

ABSTRACT

People with vascular risk factors (VRFs) are at higher risk for depressive symptoms. Given recent findings implicating low-grade systemic inflammation in both vascular and mental health, this study examined the extent to which the VRF-depressive symptom association might be mediated by low-grade systemic inflammation. To this end, we analysed longitudinal data of 9,034 participants from the UK Biobank (mean age = 56.54 years), who took part in three consecutive assessments over the course of about 8 years. Cumulative VRF burden at baseline was defined as the presence of 5 VRFs (hypertension, obesity, hypercholesterolemia, diabetes, and smoking). Low-grade systemic inflammation was assessed using serum-derived C-reactive protein (CRP) and depressive symptoms were measured using the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9). We performed mediation models using longitudinal data and a path analytic framework, while controlling for age, gender, racial-ethnic background, socioeconomic status, and baseline mood. VRFs at baseline showed a small association with higher depressive symptoms at follow-up (total effect = 0.014, 95% CI [0.007; 0.021]). CRP mediated this association (indirect effect = 0.003, 95% CI [0.001; 0.005]) and accounted for 20.10% of the total effect of VRF burden on depressive symptoms. Exploratory analyses taking a symptom-based approach revealed that mediating pathways pertained to specific depressive symptoms: tiredness and changes in appetite. These results suggest that the small association between VRF burden and depressive symptoms may be partly explained by the inflammation-promoting effects of VRFs, which might promote a specific symptom-profile of depression.

Keywords: vascular risk factors, depressive symptoms, inflammation, longitudinal, UK Biobank

INTRODUCTION

Hypertension, overweight and obesity, hypercholesterolemia, diabetes, and smoking are important modifiable risk factors for vascular diseases and major contributors to global disease burden [1]. Vascular risk factors (VRFs) have also been implicated in the aetiology of mood disorders, particularly in later life depression [2–4]. Although findings have not always been consistent [5–7], a number of prospective population-based studies support that people with VRFs are at higher risk for developing depression and depressive symptoms [8–12]. This association is particularly strong for burden from multiple VRFs [9], which often tend to accumulate [13]. However, mechanistic explanations as to why VRFs burden and depressive symptoms are linked remain debated [6, 14, 15].

In recent years, low-grade systemic inflammation gained considerable attention as a potential link between vascular and mental health [14, 16–18]. Low-grade systemic inflammation reflects a chronic manifestation of the body's natural inflammatory response to physical injury or infection [18]. While an acute inflammatory response – as a temporally and spatially restricted activation of immune cells – is typically adaptive and resolves once the threat has passed [19, 20], low-grade systemic inflammation reflects a prolonged, unresolved activation of the immune system. Low-grade inflammation is thus characterized by the systemic presence of inflammatory markers and has been connected to a broad range of chronic diseases [18, 20, 21].

Increasing evidence supports that inflammatory processes are involved in the pathophysiology of depression [22–24]. Earlier experimental evidence has shown that acute inflammation is associated with protective behavioural responses ("sickness behaviour"), such as sadness, anhedonia, fatigue or social withdrawal [25, 26], that mimic depressive symptoms. In turn, low-grade systemic inflammation is thought to be linked to a chronification of these symptoms, which can lead to depression [19, 23, 24]. Support for this hypothesis comes from studies in patients with depression showing that elevated levels of C-reactive protein (CRP), a serum-derived marker of low-grade systemic inflammation, is present in about 25% of patients [27]. Moreover, an association between CRP and depressive symptoms has repeatedly been found in cross-sectional and longitudinal cohort studies [28–31]. Recent findings have

furthermore highlighted that these processes might not be general, but specific to certain symptoms of depression [30–34]. For example, a recent pooled analysis of 15 cohort studies [30] demonstrated that CRP levels are linked with four physical symptoms (e.g. changes in appetite, sleep problems) and one cognitive symptom (little interest in doing things).

VRFs have been discussed as one of the main sources of low-grade systemic inflammation [35, 36]. Especially smoking, diabetes, and obesity have been linked to elevated plasma levels of inflammatory proteins [37–40]. For example, compounds consumed from smoking tobacco increase pro-inflammatory cytokines and proteins due to the burden of free radicals and inducing local inflammation in the lung parenchyma [36, 41]. These inflammatory processes might in turn contribute to the development of depressive symptoms [14, 16, 17]. Previous studies found that once the influence of individual VRFs is controlled for, the association between inflammation and depressive symptoms weakens substantially [42–44], pointing to the possibility that VRFs may precede inflammatory processes in depression. However, most of these previous studies were cross-sectional and could not establish the temporal order between VRFs, inflammation, and depressive symptoms. Moreover, previous research typically only focused on single VRFs, albeit their associations are likely exacerbated with the presence of multiple accumulated VRFs [35].

In the current study, we analysed longitudinal data in a large sample of middle-aged and older adults to examine the longitudinal association between VRF burden, inflammation, and depressive symptoms. Our main aim was to test to what extent serum CRP mediates the association between VRF burden and depressive symptoms. The analyses benefit from a clear temporal ordering with VRFs measured at the baseline assessment, serum CRP at the first follow up about 4 years later, and depressive symptoms at the second follow up about 8 years after baseline. Given studies suggesting symptom-specific associations with VRFs as well as inflammation [30–34, 45], we also explored whether these associations pertain to certain depressive symptoms.

METHODS

Participants

The UK Biobank is a large, ongoing cohort study that initially recruited about 500,000 community-dwelling adults aged 37 to 73 years from across the United Kingdom [46]. All participants included in the present study participated in three consecutive assessments: First, participants underwent a baseline assessment (T1), which comprised a wide range of demographic and health factors (including VRFs) and was conducted between 2006 and 2010. A subset of these participants took part in a second assessment between 2012 and 2013, which included a measure of CRP levels (T2). Participants' depressive symptoms were assessed at a third online mental health assessment, which was conducted between 2016 and 2017 (T3). We only included participants, who attended all three assessments (baseline assessment (T1), blood sampling (T2) and online follow-up (T3)). We excluded participants with manifest vascular disease (stroke, heart attack, heart failure), autoimmune diseases (multiple sclerosis, myasthenia gravis), neurodegenerative or severe neuropsychiatric disorders (motor neuron disease, Parkinson's disease, dementia, epilepsy, schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, mania, alcohol or substance abuse, post-traumatic stress disorder, eating disorders), or a prior diagnosis of depression (see Table S1 in the Supplementary Material for further details on variables used). To avoid confounding due to possible acute infections, we also excluded participants whose CRP levels exceeded 10 mg/L [e.g. 27, 34]. Figure S1 in the Supplementary Material shows a flow chart of participant inclusion and exclusion.

The UK Biobank received ethical approval from the North West Multi-centre Research Ethics Committee (MREC; reference 11/NW/0382). The present analyses were conducted under UK Biobank application number 37721. All participants provided informed consent. Further information on the consent procedure can be found in the UK Biobank Documentation.

Measures

In the following, we will describe the measures used in this study. Further details on the variables used can be found in **Table S2** in the Supplementary Material.

Vascular Risk Factor Burden

VRF burden was based on five VRFs that are associated with an increased risk of vascular diseases: hypertension, overweight or obesity, hypercholesterolemia, diabetes, and smoking [47]. Hypertension was defined as either reporting the presence of diagnosed hypertension or having systolic blood pressure ≥ 130mmHg and diastolic blood pressure ≥ 80 mmHg [48]. Overweight/obesity was defined as having a Body Mass Index (BMI) ≥ 25kg/m² [49]. Hypercholesterolemia and diabetes were defined as reporting the presence of diagnosed high cholesterol and diabetes, respectively. Smoking was defined as reporting (occasional) current smoking of tobacco. All five VRFs were coded as either present ("1") or absent ("0") and summed into a composite score with a higher score indicating higher VRF burden (total score range 0 to 5).

C-Reactive protein

Serum concentrations of high-sensitivity CRP were used as a marker of low-grade systemic inflammation. Serum CRP levels were determined using an immunoturbidimetric method (Beckman Coulter AU5800) with a reportable range of high sensitivity serum CRP from 0.08–80 mg/L. Detailed information on the blood sampling and the serum CRP measurement can be found in the UK Biobank documentation [50–52]. CRP values were log-transformed due to their skewed distribution.

Depressive Symptoms

Depressive symptoms were assessed using the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9). The PHQ-9 is a well-established screening instrument for diagnosing and monitoring the severity of depression [53]. Participants answered nine items following the nine DSM criteria for Major Depressive Disorder: (1) feelings of depression, (2) feelings of inadequacy, (3) feelings of tiredness or low energy, (4) lack of interest or pleasure in doing things, (5) poor appetite or overeating, (6) thought of suicide or self-harm, (7) concentration problems, (8) sleep problems, (9) changes in speed/amount of moving or speaking). Answers were given on a Likert-scale ranging from 0 ("not at all") to 3 ("nearly every day"). The scale showed good internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$). For our analyses of overall depressive symptom severity, we calculated an average score with higher values indicating more severe depressive symptoms.

Covariates

Age, gender, racial-ethnic background, educational attainment, household income, Townsend deprivation index (TDI), and baseline depressed affect were included as covariates. Age (in years) was assessed at baseline. Gender was defined as a dichotomous variable due to its binary assessment (women / men). We defined racialethnic background as a dichotomous variable (White / People of Colour [including people who identified as Asian or Asian British, Black or Black British, Chinese, Mixed, or Other]) since most of the sample identified themselves as "White". Educational attainment was defined as a dichotomous variable ("College or university degree" / "No college or university degree"). Household income was assessed as a categorial variable indicating pre-tax total household income in Sterling Pound ("Less than 18,000" / "18,000 to 30,999" / "31,000 to 51,999" / "52,000 to 100,000" / "Greater than 100,000"). The TDI reflects material deprivation within a population and was assessed as a continuous variable with higher values indicating greater deprivation [54, 55]. Baseline depressed mood was calculated as the average score of four items assessing mood symptoms at baseline: frequency of depressed mood, frequency of unenthusiasm / disinterest, frequency of tenses/restlessness, frequency of tiredness. Answers ranged from 1 ("not at all") to 4 ("nearly every day") (see Table S2 in the Supplementary Material for variable details).

Statistical Analyses

To investigate whether serum CRP mediates the relationship between VRF burden and overall or single depressive symptoms, we performed longitudinal mediation analyses (**Figure 1**). VRF burden at baseline was defined as the exposure (X), serum CRP as the mediator (M), and depressive symptoms as the outcome (Y). To estimate the mediation model, we relied on a path analytic framework, which simultaneously estimates the direct, indirect, and total effect [56].

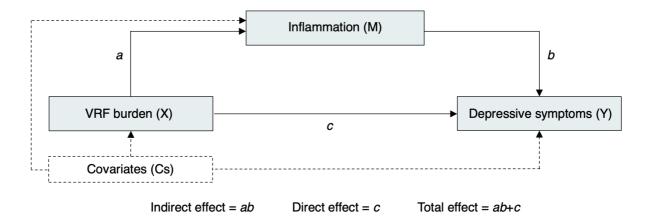


Figure 1. Illustration of the longitudinal mediation model. VRF burden was measured at T1, inflammation at T2, and depressive symptoms at T3. Covariates included age, gender, racial-ethnic background, educational attainment, household income, Townsend deprivation index, and baseline depressed mood.

In these models, the direct effect c reflects the association between the exposure VRF burden at T1 (X) and the outcome depressive symptoms at T3 (Y). It is the regression coefficient estimated by regressing X on Y while accounting for covariates. The indirect effect reflects the part of the association between X and Y that is mediated by serum CRP measured at T2 (M). It is the product of two path coefficients: the coefficient from regressing X on M (a), and the coefficient from regressing M on Y while accounting for X and all covariates (b). The total effect is the sum of the direct (c) and the indirect effect (a*b) and reflects the association between X and Y that is direct and mediated via M.

For our main analyses, we estimated a longitudinal mediation model with mean depressive symptoms at T3 as the outcome (Y) to test whether inflammation mediates the effect of VRFs on overall depressive symptoms. In addition, we estimated longitudinal mediation models with single depressive symptoms as outcomes to explore the symptom-specificity of potential mediating effects.

In all models, 95%-confidence intervals (CI) were computed using bootstrapping (with 5,000 bootstrapping samples) to test the direct, the total, and the indirect effect. Effects were declared significant when the 95% CI did not contain zero. The ratio of the indirect effect to the total effect was used to quantify the proportion of the total effect mediated by the indirect effect, which is a useful metric when evaluating the size of the mediating

effect [57]. However, this effect size is technically speaking not a proportion since it can reach values above one or below zero and can only be calculated sensibly when both the total and indirect effect have the same direction [58].

All data analyses were conducted using R version 4.1.1. Mediation models were fitted using the structural equation modelling (SEM) package lavaan [59].

Robustness Analyses

To ensure that results of the main analysis were robust against plausible analysis decisions, we conducted several robustness analyses. First, we estimated the model with the CRP variable as mediator before log-transformation. Second, we ensured our results were robust against bias due to missing data in the outcome or covariates by estimating a further model using the robust Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML) estimation, which assumes that data is missing at random (MAR) [60]. Finally, we conducted a sensitivity analysis by examining how the size of the indirect effect changes when we include an (unobserved) confounder of the mediator-outcome relation of a small, a moderate, and a large size [61].

RESULTS

Sample Characteristics

Our sample included 9,034 participants with longitudinal data for VRF burden, CRP, and depressive symptoms. The baseline characteristics of participants included in the study are shown in **Table 1**. On average, participants were 56.54 years old at baseline (SD = 7.27, range 40-70) and 4,480 participants (49.59%) were women. **Table S3** in the Supplementary Material shows zero-order correlations between all variables.

Table 1Baseline characteristics of study participants (N = 9,034)

Variable	n (%) or M ± SD
Age (in years)	56.54 ± 7.27
Gender	
Women	4,480 (49.59)
Men	4,554 (50.41)
Racial-ethnic background	
White	8,882 (98.32)
People of Colour ^a	152 (1.68)
Education attainment	
University degree	4,497 (49.78)
No university degree	4,537 (50.22)
Baseline depressive symptoms	0.26 ± 0.38
Household income	
Less than 18,000	1,178 (13.1)
18,000 to 30,999	2,320 (25.68)
31,000 to 51,999	2,787 (30.85)
52,000 to 100,000	2,236 (24.75)
Greater than 100,000	513 (5.68)
TDI	-2.22 ± 2.55
VRF burden	1.33 ± 0.94
Time T1 \rightarrow T2 (in days)	$1,526.42 \pm 312.79$
Time T2 → T3 (in days)	1,342.12 ± 93.71

Note. SD = standard derivation, TDI = Townsend deprivation index, VRF = vascular risk factor, CRP = C-reactive protein, FU = follow-up.

VRF burden, CRP, and overall depressive symptoms

We first examined whether VRF burden at T1 was associated with overall depressive symptom severity at T3. Our longitudinal mediation analysis revealed a positive total effect (estimate = 0.014, 95% CI [0.007; 0.021]), suggesting that higher VRF burden at T1 was associated with higher depressive symptoms at T3 (**Table 2**). With respect to our second hypothesis, the model yielded a significant indirect effect (estimate = 0.003, 95% CI [0.001; 0.005]), indicating a mediating effect of serum CRP on the association between VRF burden and depressive symptoms. The proportion mediated

^a Includes people who identify as "Asian or Asian British", "Black or Black British", "Chinese", "Mixed", or "Other ethnic group".

was 20.10% (95% CI [7.4%; 46.5%]). Accordingly, higher VRF burden was associated with higher levels of log CRP at T2 (estimate (a) = 0.237, 95% CI [0.217; 0.257]), and higher log CRP levels were associated with higher depression scores at follow-up (estimate (b) = 0.012, 95% CI [0.004; 0.020]).

Robustness Analyses

This pattern of results remained unchanged when we used the untransformed serum CRP variable as a mediator (see **Table S4**) and when accounting for missing data using FIML estimation (see **Table S5**). However, sensitivity analyses indicated that the indirect effect is not significantly different from zero when controlling for an unobserved confounder of the mediator-outcome relation with a medium effect (estimate = 0.006, 95% CI = [-0.008, 0.004]).

Table 2Results of longitudinal mediation analyses of VRF burden, log CRP, and overall depressive symptoms

	estimate	lower 95% CI	upper 95% CI
Total effect	0.014	0.007	0.021
Direct effect (c)	0.011	0.004	0.019
Indirect effect	0.003	0.001	0.005
VRFs → CRP (a)	0.237	0.217	0.257
$CRP \to depr.\ sympt.\ (\textit{b})$	0.012	0.004	0.020
Proportion mediated	20.1%	7.4%	46.5%

Note. All associations are adjusted for covariates age, gender, racial-ethnic background, educational attainment, household income, Townsend deprivation index, and baseline depressive symptoms. CI = confidence interval. CRP = C-reactive protein. VRFs = Vascular risk factors.

VRF burden, **CRP**, and single depressive symptoms

Additional analyses examined symptom-specific effects. We found significant total effects of VRF burden on feelings of tiredness (estimate = 0.050, 95% CI [0.034; 0.065]), changes in appetite (estimate = 0.045, 95% CI [0.033; 0.057]), and sleep problems (estimate = 0.025, 95% CI [0.006; 0.046]). However, log CRP only mediated the effect between VRF burden and feelings of tiredness (estimate = 0.010, 95% CI

[0.006; 0.014]) and changes in appetite (estimate = 0.006, 95% CI [0.003; 0.010]). The full results of all longitudinal mediation models for single symptoms are shown in **Table 3**.

Table 3Results of longitudinal mediation analyses of VRF burden, log CRP, and single depressive symptoms

	Total effect (95% CI)	Direct effect (95% CI)	Indirect effect (95% CI)	Proportion mediated ^a (95% CI)
Feelings of depression	-0.001 (-0.012, 0.009)	-0.002 (-0.013, 0.008)	0.001 (-0.002, 0.003)	-
Inadequacy	-0.002 (-0.013, 0.009)	-0.003 (-0.014, 0.009)	0.001 (-0.002, 0.003)	-
Tiredness	0.050 (0.034, 0.065)	0.039 (0.023, 0.055)	0.010 (0.006, 0.015)	21.0% (12.2%, 34.4%)
Lack of interest	0.003 (-0.008, 0.014)	-0.001 (-0.012, 0.010)	0.004 (0.001, 0.007)	-
Changes in appetite	0.045 (0.033, 0.057)	0.039 (0.027, 0.050)	0.006 (0.003, 0.010)	14.2% (6.9%, 23.0%)
Thoughts of suicide	0.004 (-0.001, 0.009)	0.004 (-0.001, 0.009)	0.001 (-0.001, 0.002)	-
Concentration problems	0.004 (-0.008, 0.015)	0.002 (-0.010, 0.013)	0.002 (-0.001, 0.005)	_
Sleep problems	0.025 (0.006, 0.046)	0.027 (0.008, 0.048)	-0.002 (-0.006, 0.003)	-
Changes in speed	-0.001 (-0.008, 0.005)	-0.004 (-0.011, 0.002)	0.003 (0.001, 0.004)	-

Note. All associations are adjusted for covariates age, gender, racial-ethnic background, educational attainment, household income, Townsend deprivation index, and baseline depressed depressive symptoms. CI = confidence interval.

^a Proportion mediated was only calculated when total and indirect effects were significantly different from zero.

DISCUSSION

In the UK Biobank, we investigated the longitudinal association between VRF burden, low-grade inflammation, and depressive symptoms. We identified a small association between VRF burden and depressive symptoms at follow-up. Part of this association was mediated by serum CRP, a marker of low-grade systemic inflammation: Higher VRF burden was associated with increased serum CRP, which in turn was associated with higher depressive symptoms, after adjusting for sociodemographic variables and baseline depressed mood. Additional analyses exploring individual depressive symptoms revealed that this mediating effect was most prominent for two somatic symptoms: feelings of tiredness and changes in appetite.

Our findings are in line with several studies showing a small association between cumulative burden from multiple VRFs and depressive symptoms in mid- and later life [9, 11, 12]. Importantly, our results inform the debate on mechanisms underlying the VRF-depression relationship by suggesting that the small depressogenic effect of VRFs is, at least in part, due to their inflammation-promoting characteristics. Several authors have previously proposed inflammation as a possible mechanism linking vascular and mental health [14, 16–18]. However, studies disentangling the mediational effect of inflammation on the relationship between VRF burden and depressive symptoms are still scarce and mainly focused on cross-sectional data or on bivariate associations [43, 62, 63]. A strength of the present study was to directly quantify this mediating pathway in a large cohort study with temporal ordering of the variables under study.

Our results thus also add to the growing literature on the complex interconnections between inflammation, vascular health, and mental health. Specifically, our results support one hypothesised pathway that inflammation mediates the association between VRF burden and depressive symptoms [35, 43, 63]. Other research has shown that inflammation in turn also increases the risk of manifest cardiovascular diseases, independent of 'classical' VRFs used in this study [36, 64]. Inflammation directly affects the development of atherosclerotic lesions in the arterial tree and weakens endothelial reactivity and myocardial function [64]. Some studies have even suggested that inflammation might explain part of the increased risk of manifest vascular diseases (e.g. heart disease, stroke) in depression, although results have

been inconsistent [65–68]. VRF burden therefore might be a promising shared downstream target for preventing depressive symptoms and manifest vascular diseases by reducing inflammatory processes [69].

Thus, one particularly promising avenue for future research will be to investigate whether interventions or policies aimed at reducing VRF burden (and preventing vascular diseases) can also alleviate low-grade systemic inflammation and depressive symptoms. Large-scale RCTs with multiple components of interventions in middle-aged and older adults are underway and could aid to answer these research questions in the future [70, 71]. Moreover, it remains to be investigated if these findings could inform treatment stratification and whether inflammation-reducing treatments are an effective complementary treatment for depressed patients with high VRF burden [72].

The symptom-specific associations observed in our study are consistent with recent work suggesting that depression is not a homogeneous construct but an interplay of symptoms that can have different risk factors [73, 74]. Several previous reports have supported that VRFs as well as inflammation have distinct associations with specific depressive symptoms related to somatic or metabolic processes [30–32, 45, 63]. Our findings are in line with this research, supporting the notion that VRFs and low-grade inflammation might promote a specific symptom profile in depression. For example, the recently proposed immuno-metabolic subtype of depression has been suggested to be characterised by altered vascular and metabolic functions, disturbances in immune function, and specific behavioural symptoms [75]. Our findings support one specific pathway involving VRF burden, which may promote low-grade inflammation and specific depressive symptoms.

A limitation of our study is that our sample might be limited with respect to generalisability. While the UK Biobank offers a unique data source with extensive health data and longitudinal design, the sample has been shown to be selective and healthier than the general UK population [76]. Moreover, the UK Biobank is known to be less diverse with respect to racial-ethnic identity than the general population of the UK [77]. To understand mechanisms between VRFs, inflammation, and depression in more detail, future studies using large, representative, and more diverse samples are needed. Another limitation is that we were not able to include data before midlife. While middle-aged and older adults are at increased risk for VRFs and inflammation [78, 79],

the underlying pathological processes likely start much earlier in life. For example, recent studies demonstrate that VRFs are associated with depressive symptoms in the first 18 years of life [80, 81], and that inflammation is already linked to depressive symptoms in younger adults [82]. Future studies including assessments during childhood and adolescence would be needed to extend our findings and disentangle the associations between VRFs, inflammation, and depressive symptoms across the lifespan.

In this longitudinal study, we show that the association between VRFs and depressive symptoms in mid- and later life is partially mediated by low-grade systemic inflammation. Our results suggest that VRF burden is linked to increased low-grade systemic inflammation, which in turn is associated with more depressive symptoms. The present study therefore adds weight to the long-standing notion that inflammation plays a crucial role in linking vascular and mental health. Furthermore, our exploratory results, suggesting that this mediation is pertinent to certain symptoms of depression, highlight that vascular and inflammatory processes pertain to a certain (somatic) subgroup of depression.

Acknowledgements

No specific funding was received for this paper. We are extremely grateful to all participants in the UK Biobank and the UK Biobank team.

Conflict of Interest

On behalf of all authors, there are no conflicts of interests to declare.

REFERENCES

- 1. Roth GA, Mensah GA, Johnson CO, Addolorato G, Ammirati E, Baddour LM, et al. Global Burden of Cardiovascular Diseases and Risk Factors, 1990-2019: Update From the GBD 2019 Study. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2020;76:2982–3021.
- 2. Alexopoulos GS. 'Vascular depression' hypothesis. Archives of General Psychiatry. 1997;54:915–922.
- 3. Sneed JR, Culang-Reinlieb ME. The vascular depression hypothesis: An update. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry. 2011;19:99–103.
- 4. Aizenstein HJ, Baskys A, Boldrini M, Butters MA, Diniz BS, Jaiswal MK, et al. Vascular depression consensus report a critical update. BMC Medicine. 2016;14:1–16.
- 5. Stewart R, Prince M, Richards M, Brayne C, Mann A. Stroke, vascular risk factors and depression. British Journal of Psychiatry. 2001;178:23–28.
- 6. Almeida OP. Vascular depression: myth or reality? International Psychogeriatrics. 2008;20:645–652.
- 7. Kim J-M, Stewart R, Kim S-W, Yang S-J, Shin I-S, Yoon J-S. Vascular risk factors and incident late-life depression in a Korean population. British Journal of Psychiatry. 2006;189:26–30.
- 8. Armstrong NM, Meoni LA, Carlson MC, Xue Q-L, Bandeen-Roche K, Gallo JJ, et al. Cardiovascular risk factors and risk of incident depression throughout adulthood among men: The Johns Hopkins Precursors Study. Journal of Affective Disorders. 2017;214:60–66.
- 9. Valkanova V, Ebmeier KP. Vascular risk factors and depression in later life: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Biological Psychiatry. 2013;73:406–413.
- Almeida OP, Flicker L, Norman P, Hankey GJ, Vasikaran S, van Bockxmeer FM, et al. Association of Cardiovascular Risk Factors and Disease With Depression in Later Life. The American Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry. 2007;15:506–513.
- 11. Kivimäki M, Shipley MJ, Allan CL, Sexton CE, Jokela M, Virtanen M, et al. Vascular risk status as a predictor of later-life depressive symptoms: A cohort study. Biological Psychiatry. 2012;72:324–330.
- 12. Blöchl M, Schaare HL, Kunzmann U, Nestler S. The Age-Dependent Association Between Vascular Risk Factors and Depressed Mood. J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci. 2021. 3 June 2021. https://doi.org/10.1093/geronb/gbab063.
- 13. D'Agostino RB, Vasan RS, Pencina MJ, Wolf PA, Cobain M, Massaro JM, et al. General cardiovascular risk profile for use in primary care: the Framingham Heart Study. Circulation. 2008;117:743–753.
- 14. Taylor WD, Aizenstein HJ, Alexopoulos GS. The vascular depression hypothesis: mechanisms linking vascular disease with depression. Molecular Psychiatry. 2013;18:963–974.
- 15. Blöchl M, Schaare L, Kumral D, Gaebler M, Nestler S, Villringer A. Vascular risk factors, white matter microstructure, and depressive symptoms: A longitudinal analysis in the UK Biobank. PsyArxiv. 2022.

- 16. Shao M, Lin X, Jiang D, Tian H, Xu Y, Wang L, et al. Depression and cardiovascular disease: Shared molecular mechanisms and clinical implications. Psychiatry Res. 2020;285:112802.
- 17. Mattina GF, Van Lieshout RJ, Steiner M. Inflammation, depression and cardiovascular disease in women: the role of the immune system across critical reproductive events. Ther Adv Cardiovasc Dis. 2019;13.
- 18. Furman D, Campisi J, Verdin E, Carrera-Bastos P, Targ S, Franceschi C, et al. Chronic inflammation in the etiology of disease across the life span. Nature Medicine. 2019;25:1822–1832.
- 19. Straub RH, Schradin C. Chronic inflammatory systemic diseases: An evolutionary trade-off between acutely beneficial but chronically harmful programs. Evol Med Public Health. 2016;2016:37–51.
- 20. Netea MG, Balkwill F, Chonchol M, Cominelli F, Donath MY, Giamarellos-Bourboulis EJ, et al. A guiding map for inflammation. Nat Immunol. 2017;18:826–831.
- 21. Bennett JM, Reeves G, Billman GE, Sturmberg JP. Inflammation–Nature's Way to Efficiently Respond to All Types of Challenges: Implications for Understanding and Managing "the Epidemic" of Chronic Diseases. Frontiers in Medicine. 2018;5.
- 22. Miller AH, Raison CL. The role of inflammation in depression: from evolutionary imperative to modern treatment target. Nat Rev Immunol. 2016;16:22–34.
- 23. Dantzer R, O'Connor JC, Freund GG, Johnson RW, Kelley KW. From inflammation to sickness and depression: when the immune system subjugates the brain. Nat Rev Neurosci. 2008;9:46–56.
- 24. Slavich GM, Irwin MR. From stress to inflammation and major depressive disorder: A social signal transduction theory of depression. Psychological Bulletin. 2014;140:774–815.
- 25. Reichenberg A, Yirmiya R, Schuld A, Kraus T, Haack M, Morag A, et al. Cytokine-associated emotional and cognitive disturbances in humans. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 2001;58:445–452.
- 26. Harrison NA, Brydon L, Walker C, Gray MA, Steptoe A, Critchley HD. Inflammation causes mood changes through alterations in subgenual cingulate activity and mesolimbic connectivity. Biol Psychiatry. 2009;66:407–414.
- 27. Osimo EF, Baxter LJ, Lewis G, Jones PB, Khandaker GM. Prevalence of low-grade inflammation in depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis of CRP levels. Psychological Medicine. 2019;49:1958–1970.
- 28. Zalli A, Jovanova O, Hoogendijk WJG, Tiemeier H, Carvalho LA. Low-grade inflammation predicts persistence of depressive symptoms. Psychopharmacology (Berl). 2016;233:1669–1678.
- 29. Au B, Smith KJ, Gariépy G, Schmitz N. The longitudinal associations between C-reactive protein and depressive symptoms: evidence from the English Longitudinal Study of Ageing (ELSA). Int J Geriatr Psychiatry. 2015;30:976–984
- 30. Frank P, Jokela M, Batty GD, Cadar D, Steptoe A, Kivimäki M. Association Between Systemic Inflammation and Individual Symptoms of Depression: A Pooled Analysis of 15 Population-Based Cohort Studies. Am J Psychiatry. 2021;178:1107–1118.

- 31. Jokela M, Virtanen M, Batty GD, Kivimäki M. Inflammation and Specific Symptoms of Depression. JAMA Psychiatry. 2016;73:87–88.
- 32. van Eeden WA, van Hemert AM, Carlier IVE, Penninx BWJH, Lamers F, Fried EI, et al. Basal and LPS-stimulated inflammatory markers and the course of individual symptoms of depression. Translational Psychiatry. 2020;10:1–12.
- 33. Moriarity DP, van Borkulo C, Alloy LB. Inflammatory phenotype of depression symptom structure: A network perspective. Brain Behav Immun. 2021;93:35–42.
- 34. Milaneschi Y, Kappelmann N, Ye Z, Lamers F, Moser S, Jones PB, et al. Association of inflammation with depression and anxiety: evidence for symptom-specificity and potential causality from UK Biobank and NESDA cohorts. Mol Psychiatry. 2021. 16 June 2021. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41380-021-01188-w.
- 35. Berk M, Williams LJ, Jacka FN, O'Neil A, Pasco JA, Moylan S, et al. So depression is an inflammatory disease, but where does the inflammation come from? BMC Medicine. 2013;11:200.
- 36. Alfaddagh A, Martin SS, Leucker TM, Michos ED, Blaha MJ, Lowenstein CJ, et al. Inflammation and cardiovascular disease: From mechanisms to therapeutics. Am J Prev Cardiol. 2020;4:100130.
- 37. Ellulu MS, Patimah I, Khaza'ai H, Rahmat A, Abed Y. Obesity and inflammation: the linking mechanism and the complications. Arch Med Sci. 2017;13:851–863.
- 38. Tsalamandris S, Antonopoulos AS, Oikonomou E, Papamikroulis G-A, Vogiatzi G, Papaioannou S, et al. The Role of Inflammation in Diabetes: Current Concepts and Future Perspectives. Eur Cardiol. 2019;14:50–59.
- 39. Bakhru A, Erlinger TP. Smoking Cessation and Cardiovascular Disease Risk Factors: Results from the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. PLoS Med. 2005;2:e160.
- 40. Jukema RA, Ahmed TAN, Tardif J-C. Does low-density lipoprotein cholesterol induce inflammation? If so, does it matter? Current insights and future perspectives for novel therapies. BMC Medicine. 2019;17:197.
- 41. Van Eeden S, Leipsic J, Paul Man SF, Sin DD. The Relationship between Lung Inflammation and Cardiovascular Disease. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2012;186:11–16.
- 42. Pitharouli MC, Hagenaars SP, Glanville KP, Coleman JRI, Hotopf M, Lewis CM, et al. Elevated C-Reactive Protein in Patients With Depression, Independent of Genetic, Health, and Psychosocial Factors: Results From the UK Biobank. Am J Psychiatry. 2021;178:522–529.
- 43. Fried EI, Stockert S von, Haslbeck JMB, Lamers F, Schoevers RA, Penninx BWJH. Using network analysis to examine links between individual depressive symptoms, inflammatory markers, and covariates. Psychological Medicine. undefined/ed:1–9.
- 44. Köhler CA, Freitas TH, Maes M, de Andrade NQ, Liu CS, Fernandes BS, et al. Peripheral cytokine and chemokine alterations in depression: a meta-analysis of 82 studies. Acta Psychiatr Scand. 2017;135:373–387.
- 45. Azevedo R de M, Roest AM, Hoen PW, Jonge P de. Cognitive/affective and somatic/affective symptoms of depression in patients with heart disease and their association with cardiovascular prognosis: a meta-analysis. Psychological Medicine. 2014;44:2689–2703.

- 46. Bycroft C, Freeman C, Petkova D, Band G, Elliott LT, Sharp K, et al. The UK Biobank resource with deep phenotyping and genomic data. Nature. 2018;562:203–209.
- 47. Stamler J, Stamler R, Neaton JD, Wentworth D, Daviglus ML, Garside D, et al. Low risk-factor profile and long-term cardiovascular and noncardiovascular mortality and life expectancy: Findings for 5 large cohorts of young adult and middle-aged men and women. JAMA. 1999;282:2012–2018.
- 48. Muntner P, Shimbo D, Carey RM, Charleston JB, Gaillard T, Misra S, et al. Measurement of blood pressure in humans: A scientific statement from the American Heart Association. Hypertension. 2019;73:e35–e66.
- 49. Jensen MD, Ryan DH, Ard JD, Donato KA, Hu FB, Hubbard VS, et al. 2013 AHA/ACC/TOS Guideline for the management of overweight and obesity in adults. Circulation. 2014;129:S102–S138.
- 50. UK Biobank. Blood Sample Collection, Processing and Transport. 2011. https://biobank.ctsu.ox.ac.uk/crystal/crystal/docs/Bloodsample.pdf. Accessed 4 April 2021.
- UK Biobank. Biomarker assay quality procedures: approaches used to minimise systematic and random errors (and the wider epidemiological implications).
 2019. https://biobank.ctsu.ox.ac.uk/crystal/crystal/docs/biomarker_issues.pdf.
 Accessed 4 April 2021.
- 52. UK Biobank. Companion Document to Accompany Serum Biomarker Data. 2019. https://biobank.ctsu.ox.ac.uk/crystal/crystal/docs/serum_biochemistry.pdf. Accessed 4 April 2022.
- 53. Kroenke K, Spitzer RL, Williams JB. The PHQ-9: validity of a brief depression severity measure. J Gen Intern Med. 2001;16:606–613.
- 54. Townsend P. Deprivation*. Journal of Social Policy. 1987;16:125–146.
- 55. Morris R, Carstairs V. Which deprivation? A comparison of selected deprivation indexes. Journal of Public Health. 1991;13:318–326.
- 56. MacKinnon DP. Introduction to statistical mediation analysis. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group/Lawrence Erlbaum Associates; 2008.
- 57. Alwin DF, Hauser RM. The Decomposition of Effects in Path Analysis. American Sociological Review. 1975;40:37–47.
- 58. Preacher KJ, Kelley K. Effect size measures for mediation models: quantitative strategies for communicating indirect effects. Psychol Methods. 2011;16:93–115.
- 59. Rosseel Y. lavaan: An R package for structural equation modeling. Journal of Statistical Software. 2012;48:1–36.
- 60. Enders CK. The performance of the Full Information Maximum Likelihood estimator in multiple regression models with missing data. Educational and Psychological Measurement. 2001;61:713–740.
- 61. Fritz MS, Kenny DA, MacKinnon DP. The Combined Effects of Measurement Error and Omitting Confounders in the Single-Mediator Model. Multivariate Behavioral Research. 2016;51:681–697.
- 62. Daly M. The relationship of C-reactive protein to obesity-related depressive symptoms: A longitudinal study. Obesity. 2013;21:248–250.
- 63. Chirinos DA, Murdock KW, LeRoy AS, Fagundes C. Depressive symptom profiles, cardio-metabolic risk and inflammation: Results from the MIDUS study. Psychoneuroendocrinology. 2017;82:17–25.

- 64. Hansson GK. Inflammation, Atherosclerosis, and Coronary Artery Disease. New England Journal of Medicine. 2005;352:1685–1695.
- 65. Kop WJ, Stein PK, Tracy RP, Barzilay JI, Schulz R, Gottdiener JS. Autonomic nervous system dysfunction and inflammation contribute to the increased cardiovascular mortality risk associated with depression. Psychosom Med. 2010;72:626–635.
- 66. Davidson KW, Schwartz JE, Kirkland SA, Mostofsky E, Fink D, Guernsey D, et al. Relation of inflammation to depression and incident coronary heart disease (from the Canadian Nova Scotia Health Survey [NSHS95] Prospective Population Study). Am J Cardiol. 2009;103:755–761.
- 67. Hiles SA, Baker AL, de Malmanche T, McEvoy M, Boyle M, Attia J. The role of inflammatory markers in explaining the association between depression and cardiovascular hospitalisations. J Behav Med. 2015;38:609–619.
- 68. Surtees PG, Wainwright NWJ, Boekholdt SM, Luben RN, Wareham NJ, Khaw K-T. Major Depression, C-Reactive Protein, and Incident Ischemic Heart Disease in Healthy Men and Women. Psychosomatic Medicine. 2008;70:850–855.
- 69. Khandaker GM, Zuber V, Rees JM, Carvalho L, Mason AM, Foley CN, et al. Shared mechanisms between coronary heart disease and depression: findings from a large UK general population-based cohort: Supplementary Material. BioRxiv. 2019. 29 January 2019. https://doi.org/10.1101/533828.
- 70. Ngandu T, Lehtisalo J, Solomon A, Levälahti E, Ahtiluoto S, Antikainen R, et al. A 2 year multidomain intervention of diet, exercise, cognitive training, and vascular risk monitoring versus control to prevent cognitive decline in at-risk elderly people (FINGER): a randomised controlled trial. The Lancet. 2015;385:2255–2263.
- 71. Rosenberg A, Mangialasche F, Ngandu T, Solomon A, Kivipelto M. Multidomain Interventions to Prevent Cognitive Impairment, Alzheimer's Disease, and Dementia: From FINGER to World-Wide FINGERS. J Prev Alzheimers Dis. 2020;7:29–36.
- 72. Ioannou M, Foiselle M, Mallet J, Stam EL, Godin O, Dubertret C, et al. Towards precision medicine: What are the stratification hypotheses to identify homogeneous inflammatory subgroups. European Neuropsychopharmacology. 2021;45:108–121.
- 73. Cramer AOJ, Borsboom D, Aggen SH, Kendler KS. The pathoplasticity of dysphoric episodes: differential impact of stressful life events on the pattern of depressive symptom inter-correlations. Psychological Medicine. 2012;42:957–965.
- 74. Cramer AOJ, Waldorp LJ, van der Maas HLJ, Borsboom D. Comorbidity: A network perspective. Behavioral and Brain Sciences. 2010;33:137–150.
- 75. Milaneschi Y, Lamers F, Berk M, Penninx BWJH. Depression Heterogeneity and Its Biological Underpinnings: Toward Immunometabolic Depression. Biological Psychiatry. 2020;88:369–380.
- 76. Fry A, Littlejohns TJ, Sudlow C, Doherty N, Adamska L, Sprosen T, et al. Comparison of Sociodemographic and Health-Related Characteristics of UK Biobank Participants With Those of the General Population. Am J Epidemiol. 2017;186:1026–1034.

- 77. Manolio TA. Using the Data We Have: Improving Diversity in Genomic Research. The American Journal of Human Genetics. 2019;105:233–236.
- 78. Ferrucci L, Fabbri E. Inflammageing: chronic inflammation in ageing, cardiovascular disease, and frailty. Nat Rev Cardiol. 2018;15:505–522.
- 79. Lind L, Sundström J, Ärnlöv J, Lampa E. Impact of Aging on the Strength of Cardiovascular Risk Factors: A Longitudinal Study Over 40 Years. Journal of the American Heart Association;7:e007061.
- 80. Chaplin AB, Smith N, Jones PB, Khandaker GM. Direction of association between Cardiovascular risk and depressive symptoms during the first 18 years of life: A prospective birth cohort study. J Affect Disord. 2021;292:508–516.
- 81. Chaplin AB, Daniels NF, Ples D, Anderson RZ, Gregory-Jones A, Jones PB, et al. Longitudinal association between cardiovascular risk factors and depression in young people: a systematic review and meta-analysis of cohort studies. Psychological Medicine. 2021:1–11.
- 82. Moriarity DP, Mac Giollabhui N, Ellman LM, Klugman J, Coe CL, Abramson LY, et al. Inflammatory Proteins Predict Change in Depressive Symptoms in Male and Female Adolescents. Clinical Psychological Science. 2019;7:754–767.

Supplementary Material for

Mediation of the Association between Vascular Risk Factors and Depressive Symptoms by C-Reactive Protein: Longitudinal Evidence from the UK Biobank

Lina Romankiewicz, H. Lina Schaare, Steffen Nestler, Arno Villringer, Maria Blöchl

Correspondence to: bloechl@cbs.mpg.de

This PDF file includes:

Exclusion Criteria (Table S1)	p. 2
Flowchart of Participant Inclusion and Exclusion (Figure S1)	p. 3
Variables Used in Analyses (Table S2)	p. 4
Zero-Order Correlations (Table S3)	p. 5
Robustness Analyses Results (Tables S4 and S5)	p. 6

Table S1 *Variables for Exclusion Criteria with Hyperlinks to the UK Biobank Showcase*

Data ID	Data descriptor	If one of the following was present, participant was		
		excluded		
<u>6150</u>	Vascular/heart	[heart attack]		
	problems diagnosed			
	by doctor			
<u>20002</u>	Non-cancer illness code, self-reported	[1075] heart attack / myocardial infarction		
		[1076] heart failure / pulmonary oedema		
		[1081] stroke		
		[1083] subdural haemorrhage / haematoma		
		[1259] motor neurone disease		
		[1260] myasthenia gravis		
		[1261] multiple sclerosis		
		[1262] parkinsons disease		
		[1263] dementia / alzheimers / cognitive impairment		
		[1264] epilepsy		
		[1286] depression		
		[1289] schizophrenia		
		[1291] mania / bipolar disorder / manic depression		
		[1408] alcohol dependency		
		[1409] opioid dependency		
		[1410] other substance abuse/dependency		
		[1469] post-traumatic stress disorder		
		[1470] anorexia / bulimia / other eating disorder		
		[1491] brain haemorrhage		
		[1583] ischaemic stroke		
		[1615] obsessive compulsive disorder (ocd)		

Figure S1
Flowchart of UK Biobank participants included in the current study

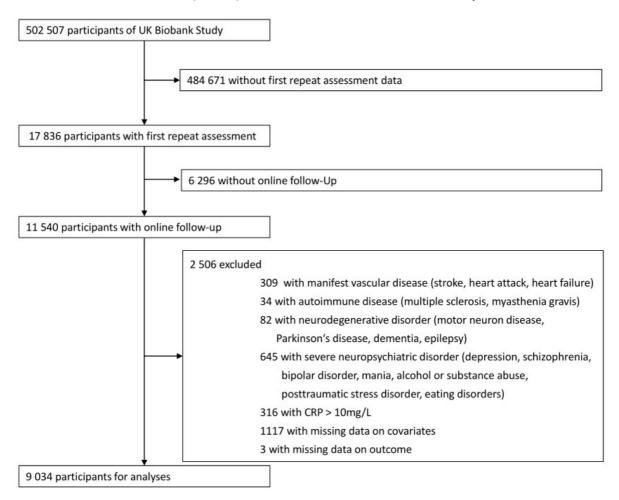


Table S2
Variables Relevant for Analyses with Hyperlinks to the UK Biobank Showcase

Data ID	Data descriptor
Vascular risk factors	<u> </u>
4080	Systolic blood pressure, automated reading (mmHg)
93	Systolic blood pressure, manual reading (mmHg)
4079	Diastolic blood pressure, automated reading (mmHg)
94	Diastolic blood pressure, manual reading (mmHg)
<u>21001</u>	Body mass index (kg/m²)
20002	Non-cancer illness code, self-reported
	[high cholesterol]
	[hypertension] / [essential hypertension] /
	[gestational hypertension / pre-eclampsia]
<u>2443</u>	Diabetes diagnosed by doctor
<u>1239</u>	Current tobacco smoking (yes, on most or all days / only
	occasionally / no)
Inflammatory marker	
<u>30710</u>	C-reactive protein
Depressive symptoms	
<u>20510</u>	Recent feelings of depression
<u>20507</u>	Recent feelings of inadequacy
<u>20519</u>	Recent feelings of tiredness or low energy
<u>20514</u>	Recent lack of interest or pleasure in doing things
<u>20511</u>	Recent poor appetite or overeating
<u>20513</u>	Recent thought of suicide or self-harm
<u>20508</u>	Recent trouble concentrating on things
<u>20517</u>	Trouble falling asleep, or sleeping too much
<u>20518</u>	Recent changes in speed / amount of moving or speaking
Covariates	
<u>21003</u>	Age (in years)
<u>31</u>	Gender (male/female)
<u>21000</u>	Ethnic background
<u>6138</u>	Educational attainment
<u>738</u>	Household income
<u>189</u>	Townsend deprivation index
<u>20508</u>	Frequency of depressed mood in last 2 weeks
<u>2060</u>	Frequency of unenthusiasm / disinterest in last 2 weeks
<u>2070</u>	Frequency of tenseness / restlessness in last 2 weeks
<u>2080</u>	Frequency of tiredness / lethargy in last 2 weeks

Table S3 *Zero-order correlations*

Zeio-order correlations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	-									
2. Gender	-0.08	-								
3. Ethnicity	0.08	0.00	-							
4. Education	-0.07	0.01	-0.05	-						
5. Baseline depressive symptoms	-0.15	0.07	-0.03	0.01	-					
6. Household income	-0.32	-0.07	-0.02	0.25	-0.02	-				
7. TDI	-0.13	0.02	-0.09	-0.02	0.07	-0.15	-			
8. VRF burden	0.19	-0.24	0.01	-0.10	0.03	-0.07	0.02	-		
9. Log CRP	0.10	0.02	0.01	-0.09	0.03	-0.007	0.03	0.25	-	
10. Depressive symptoms FU	-0.14	0.08	-0.01	-0.02	0.44	-0.0	0.09	0.03	0.05	-

Note. TDI = Townsend deprivation index, VRF = vascular risk factor, CRP = C-reactive protein, FU = follow-up.

Table S4Results of longitudinal mediation analyses of VRF burden, raw CRP, and overall depressive symptoms

	estimate	lower 95% CI	upper 95% CI
Total effect	0.014	0.007	0.022
Direct effect (c)	0.012	0.005	0.019
Indirect effect	0.002	0.001	0.004
VRF → CRP (a)	0.355	0.316	0.394
$CRP \to depr.\ Sympt.\ (\textit{b})$	0.006	0.002	0.011

Note. All associations are adjusted for covariates age, gender, ethnicity, educational attainment, household income, Townsend deprivation index, and baseline depressed affect. CI = confidence interval. CRP = C-reactive protein. VRF = Vascular risk factor.

Table S5Results of longitudinal mediation analyses of VRF burden, log CRP, and overall depressive symptoms using FIML-estimator

	estimate	lower 95% CI	upper 95% CI
Total effect	0.014	0.008	0.021
Direct effect (c)	0.011	0.004	0.018
Indirect effect	0.003	0.002	0.005
VRF → CRP (a)	0.241	0.222	0.261
$CRP \to depr.\ Sympt.\ (\mathit{b})$	0.014	0.007	0.021

Note. All associations are adjusted for covariates age, gender, ethnicity, educational attainment, household income, Townsend deprivation index, and baseline depressed affect. CI = confidence interval. CRP = C-reactive protein. VRF = Vascular risk factor.