How effective are physical activity interventions for alleviating depressive symptoms in older people? A systematic review

Holly Blake [corresponding author]

Faculty of Medicine & Health Sciences, University of Nottingham, UK.

Address for correspondence: Holly Blake, University of Nottingham School of Nursing, Midwifery & Physiotherapy, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Queen's Medical Centre, Nottingham NG7 2AH, UK.

e-mail: Holly.Blake@nottingham.ac.uk

Phoenix Kit Han Mo

Institute of Work, Health and Organisations, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK

Sumaira Malik

Institute of Work, Health and Organisations, University of Nottingham, Nottingham,

Shirley Thomas

UK

Institute of Work, Health and Organisations, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK

Received 30th July 2008; returned for revisions 27th December 2008; revised manuscript accepted 17th April 2009.

#### **Abstract**

*Background*: The benefits of physical exercise in reducing clinically defined depression in the general population have been established, although a review of the evidence for older adults is needed.

*Objectives*: To assess the efficacy of physical exercise for the treatment of depressive symptoms in older adults (460 years).

Data sources: We searched: MEDLINE (1966–May 2008); EMBASE (1980–May 2008); Cumulative Index to Nursing & Allied Health Literature (CINAHL; 1982–May 2008); PsycINFO (1966–May 2008), The Cochrane Library (Issue 2, 2008), and National Research Register (NRR; Issue 2, 2008).

Review methods: Randomized controlled trials and quasi-experimental studies of physical exercise interventions for depression were included where 80% or more of participants were >60 years. Abstracts were assessed to determine whether they met specified inclusion criteria. Primary analysis focused on the prevalence of diagnosable depressive disorder following intervention. Secondary outcome was depression or mood scores on standardized scales.

*Results*: Eleven randomized controlled trials with a total of 641 participants were included in the review. Short-term positive outcome for depression or depressive symptoms was found in nine studies, although the mode, intensity and duration of intervention varied across studies. Medium- to long-term effects of intervention

were less clear.

Conclusion: Physical exercise programmes obtain clinically relevant outcomes in the treatment of depressive symptoms in depressed older people. Exercise, though not appropriate for all in this population, may improve mood in this group. Further research is needed to establish medium- to long-term effects and cost-effectiveness.

#### Introduction

Depression is common in old age, [1], [2] and is often associated with a range of social, demographic and physical factors. [3] Depression is a treatable condition, although if left untreated, there is evidence of an increased risk of morbidity [4] and mortality, [5], [6] with an associated economic and societal burden. [7] Effective treatments for depression in older age include antidepressants, electroconvulsive therapy, cognitive behaviour therapy, psychodynamic psychotherapy, reminiscence therapy, problem solving therapy, bibliotherapy (for mild to moderate depression) and exercise.[8] However, depression in older adults often goes undiagnosed or may be inadequately treated [9–11] Although some psychological treatments for depression can be effective [12] they can be demanding on resources. For example, while antidepressant treatments are effective for some, they may also have undesirable sideeffects and can be associated with an increased risk of falls.[13] Concordance also remains a significant issue.[14] Exercise has been proposed as an alternative treatment over the past decade [15] and such interventions are showing promise for this age group. The link between physical activity and health is well-documented in diverse populations [16] with moderate exercise associated with reduced cardiovascular risk, body mass index and blood pressure, improved respiration, psychological health and pain management [17] and also reduced clinically defined depression.[18],[19]

Studies have shown that increasing physical activity in older age is important due to the range of associated health benefits such as improving balance, strength and gait endurance and may positively affect quality of life and depression for older people also. [20] Hypothesized mechanisms for the beneficial effects of exercise on mental health include biological explanations, self-esteem and mastery and the distraction

hypothesis.[21] Increasing physical activity in the population is important for older people given the established health benefits of a more active lifestyle. Physical exercise is an achievable means by which the progression of mobility limitation and further disability may be slowed or even prevented, both within the general population and specifically for older adults with or without chronic conditions. Further, first episode depression after the age of 60 has a 70% risk of recurrence within two years of remission [22] and exercise promotion may therefore be a sustainable method for continued treatment in the long term. It is already known that specifically, exercise has benefits for clinically depressed people in primary care [23] Research has suggested the potential psychological benefits of exercise training for older, non-depressed adults and these include improvements in cognitive function, mood and wellbeing. [24–26] There are fewer reports of research on participatory exercise interventions as treatment for depressed older adults. Although a previous review has identified a short-term effect of physical exercise in reducing clinical depression and depressive symptoms in studies published prior to April 2005,[27] a current review of the quality of the available evidence and effects of such interventions in both the short and long term is required. Thus the present paper aims to assess the efficacy of physical exercise interventions for alleviating depressive symptoms in depressed older people (aged > 60 years).

#### Method

## Identification of relevant studies

Electronic databases

Studies in any language and any type, including journal articles, book chapters, dissertations and conference abstracts, were searched and identified in the following electronic databases: MEDLINE (1966–May 2008); EMBASE (1980–May 2008); Cumulative Index to Nursing & Allied Health Literature (CINAHL; 1982–May 2008); PsycINFO (1966–May 2008), The Cochrane Library (Issue 2, 2008) and National Research Register (NRR; Issue 2, 2008).

## Key search terms

A broad search strategy was developed under the following key terms: 'physical activity', 'older people', and 'depressive symptoms'. To maximize the search in the databases, various synonyms and combinations of the search terms were used. Search terms for 'physical activity' included 'physical activity' and 'exercise'. Search terms for 'older people' included 'older people', 'older adults', 'elderly', 'aging', 'ageing', and 'gerontology'. Search terms for 'depressive symptoms' included 'depression', 'depressed', 'depressive', and 'mood' (see Appendix for an example of search strategy).

Reference lists of articles identified through the database searches were examined in order to identify further relevant studies. Bibliographies of systematic and non-systematic review articles were also examined for further relevant studies.

### Criteria for inclusion

Studies were included for the review if they fulfilled the following criteria. First, the study described a randomized controlled trial or quasi-experimental study design in which participants had been assigned to either an intervention group or a control group. Second, the intervention described had an exercise component, which was

delivered by someone with explicitly stated training. Third, the study was explicitly on older adults where over 80% of participants were recorded as being 60 years of age or more. A previous systematic review of treatments for depression in older age focused on participants aged 60 and over and so this was adopted as the age cut-off point in this review. Fourth, participants were diagnosed on recruitment with depressive symptoms (including major depression, a depressive disorder, or dysthymia) via a psychiatric interview, standardized mood measures or a treating clinician. Fifth, participants were screened to exclude individuals with dementia in order to avoid the confounding effects of the condition, which may have resulted in difficulty adhering to the exercise intervention. Studies were excluded where participants were not depressed at recruitment, or the sole purpose of the intervention was to provide information or education, or occupational therapy unless there was a clearly defined exercise intervention component.

There were no restrictions on the basis of age, gender or other participant individual characteristic. There was no restriction on the eligibility of studies on the basis of sample size, duration of follow-up or publication status. Studies including mixed patient populations were not excluded from review as long as they all had a diagnosis of depressive symptoms at recruitment.

#### Excluded studies

Excluded studies and the reasons for their exclusion are presented in Table 1.[28–46]

The primary reasons for exclusion were that participants were

not from an older population or were not depressed

at baseline, the exercise intervention was not structured,

or there were no appropriate outcome

measures.

### Review process

The reviewers independently extracted, crosschecked and reported data using standardized data extraction forms recommended by the Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network (SIGN) (available at http://www.sign.ac.uk/).

Disagreements were resolved by discussion. Data regarding the participants' characteristics, research design, intervention and effect size were collected. The methodological quality of the studies was then assessed using the Critical Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) tool (available at http://

www.phru.nhs.uk/Pages/PHD/resources.htm) for randomized controlled trials and the guidelines set by the SIGN.

#### Results

#### **Included studies**

Based on the literature search, 4385 abstracts were identified and irrelevant citations were discarded on the basis of title and abstract. Twenty-nine articles were relevant to the study aims and full texts of these were retrieved for further examination.

Throughout the screening process, contacts were made to authors for further details of the characteristics of participants. Ten studies met the inclusion criteria and were included for the review. One additional study was identified through the reference lists of the selected articles. All of the identified articles were in English. Details of the study selection process are presented in Figure 1.

## **Participant characteristics**

Sample characteristics

The sample size of the studies varied considerably from 14 to 138. The mean age of participants ranged from 65 to 82.4 years. The male to female ratio ranged from 1:4.4[47] to 1:1.[48] One study did not provide any information regarding gender of the participants.[49] The full characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 2.

Depression diagnosis

Participants were either diagnosed as fulfilling the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fourth edition (DSM-IV) criteria for depression or dysthymia, or were screened for depressive symptoms using standardized measurements such as the Diagnostic Interview Schedule, Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HRS), Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CES-D), Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS) and Beck Depression Inventory (BDI). In eight studies where information about participant's use of medical treatment was available, six studies stated that participants were not receiving pharmacologic medication prior to the study.[49–54] In one study, participants were receiving pharmacological treatment for at least six weeks prior to the study but with no evidence of a sustained response and they continued to receive pharmacological treatment throughout the study.[55] In another study, participants were on medication but had no change of medication or its dosage prior to the study.[56]

Study characteristics

All of the included studies described randomized controlled trials. The characteristics of the selected studies are presented in Table 2.

### Mode of intervention

The mode of physical activity intervention described included walking,[49] aerobics,[47],[50] Tai Chi,[48] Qigong (a formulated set of practice involving the coordination of body movement and breathing techniques),[56] and weight-bearing or progressive resistance training.[47],[50–55]

### *Intensity and duration*

The training intensities in the studies varied greatly; however in most studies, participants engaged in the designated physical activity three times per week. The duration of the intervention session varied from 20 to 60 minutes, and the duration of the intervention period varied considerably from 6 to 19 weeks. Seven studies reported follow-up assessment varying from 4 weeks to 26 months. [47], [50], [52–53], [55–57]

# Setting

Participants were outpatients recruited from primary care, psychiatric services, local nursing or care homes, religious organizations, volunteer databases or media advertisements.

#### Outcome measures

The primary outcome focused on the proportion of patients who were no longer diagnosed as depressed according to diagnostic criteria as applied by the study authors at follow-up or depressive symptoms as measured on standardized validated scales including the Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression,[58] Geriatric Depression

Scale,[59] Beck Depression Inventory,[60] Center for Epidemiological Studies

Depression Scale [61] and the mental health scale of the Medical Outcome

Study SF-36 Scale.[62] Outcomes included immediate post treatment, medium term

(3–12 months) and long term (412 months).

### Quality assessment

Although all included studies were randomized controlled trials, only five studies reported the allocation concealment method.[50],[52],[53],[55],[57] Blinding of investigator was not mentioned in four studies, however in the remaining seven studies,[47],[48],[51],[54–57] the investigator was kept blinded about participants' treatment condition. Four studies reported differences in some of the participants' baseline measures,[51],[55–57] with two studies reporting greater proportion of participants with dysthymia [57] or depression[56] in the intervention group, and the other two reporting greater proportion of female participants in the intervention group.[51],[55] Three studies reported no drop-outs,[49],[52],[55], and one study did not provide information about drop-out rates.[50] In the remaining seven studies, the attrition rate ranged from 5% to 23.5%. The use of intention-to-treat analysis was described in five studies.[47],[48],[51],[57],[53] The full results of the quality assessment are presented in Table 3.

Effect of exercise on depressive symptoms

Immediately post intervention

Findings of the studies are presented in Table 2. Out of the 11 studies reviewed, findings on the immediate post-intervention effect of exercise intervention were available in seven studies. Five yielded significant positive results for exercise

intervention in improving depression or depressive symptoms. These studies showed that participants who were in the exercise intervention group showed significant reductions in depression or depressive measures [48],[49],[52],[56] at the end of the intervention compared with participants in the no treatment control group. One study showed that participants who were assigned to a higher intensity of progressive resistance training showed significantly higher levels of improvement in depression compared with those in a low-intensity progressive resistance training condition, or a control group. [54] On the other hand, one study found that although participants in the exercise conditions showed declines in clinician-rated depression severity compared with the control group and results were comparable with those who received medication, no significant differences were found in self-reported depression measures.[50] Another study of older people who were on antidepressant treatment but were not responsive to it found that although there was significantly higher proportion of the participants in the intervention group who experienced a greater than 30% decline in depression as measured by the Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression at post intervention, both groups showed significant improvement in depression as measured by the Geriatric Depression Scale.[55]

### *Medium term (3–12 months)*

Findings on the medium-term effect of exercise intervention were available in six studies. Ciechanowski et al.[57] reported that participants in the intervention group showed significant improvement in depression at six months and 12 months follow-up. They were also more likely to have at least a 50% reduction in depressive symptoms, and to achieve complete remission from depression at 12 months. Singh et al.[53] found that participants in the exercise group showed significant reduction in

depression at 20 weeks follow-up compared with controls. On the other hand, in one study among participants who were not responsive to antidepressant treatment, there were no difference between the intervention and control groups at 24 months follow-up.[55] One study with Qigong intervention showed that while there were significant improvements in depression midway through the intervention and at the end of exercise intervention, this was not maintained at the four-week and eight-week follow-up.[56] Another study comparing the effects of aerobic and resistance exercise found that a significant reduction in depression score was showed in only aerobic exercise but not the resistance exercise condition at three and nine months follow-up.[47] Sims et al.[51] also reported no significant difference in depression score between intervention and control groups at 10 weeks and six months follow-up. In summary, there is limited or conflicting evidence of benefit of exercise in the medium term.

## Long term (412 months)

Findings on the long-term effect of exercise intervention were available in only two studies with mixed results. Singh et al.[53] found that depression score significantly reduced in the intervention group at 26 months follow-up compared with controls. On the other hand, Penninx et al.[47] reported significant reduction in depression score in the aerobic exercise group but not in the resistance exercise group at 18 months follow-up.[47]

## **Discussion**

Most of the studies had significant positive findings in terms of reductions in depression or depressive symptoms, or increased remission from depression

immediately after exercise intervention, when compared with controls. The few remaining studies identified non-significant trends towards positive outcomes or positive outcomes over the study period for both intervention and control groups. More than half the studies which measured medium-term outcomes demonstrated a positive effect of exercise on depression outcomes. Other studies found no medium-term effect or that positive effects varied according to exercise mode of intervention (e.g. aerobic/resistance). Most studies did not measure the long-term outcomes of intervention yet those that did showed positive outcomes, although longer term effects were found for aerobic exercise but not maintained for resistance exercise modalities. We therefore conclude that exercise intervention exerts a clinically relevant effect on depressive symptoms in older people.

Direct comparison between studies is difficult since studies varied greatly in sample characteristics, nature of control comparison group (e.g. group attendance versus usual care), mode of intervention, intensity and duration of exercise, outcome measures used and length of follow-up. Although evidence from well-designed research studies is clearly limited, the findings do suggest that both aerobic exercise and resistance training programmes may be beneficial in improving mood in older people with depression.

There are several limitations of the present review that should be noted. Comparable with most systematic reviews, there remains a possibility that some articles may have been overlooked, particularly for studies examining exercise interventions without explicitly addressing older adults with depression or depressive symptoms in their abstract or title. Nevertheless, a range of databases have been searched and articles that did not explicitly mention older adults with depression or depressive symptoms in their title or abstracts were retained in the first screening and their full text was

reviewed before a decision was made. In addition, there remains a risk of publication bias, as negative or insignificant results might be less likely to be published. In addition, as most of the studies engaged participants with exercise in a group format, no conclusion could be made as to whether the benefits were due to social or group effect, or physical exercise per se. Therefore, these findings must be interpreted with caution. Finally, it was hoped that a meta-analysis would be feasible, although this was not undertaken firstly due to constraints of time and funding, and secondly it was decided that the trials included were too heterogeneous for a statistical pooling to be meaningful. Evidence of cost-effectiveness of exercise interventions for the treatment of depressive symptoms would be of benefit for decision-making regarding service use and delivery. However, most of the studies included did not investigate the cost-effectiveness of exercise as a treatment modality for depressive symptoms. More well-designed research studies are needed to clarify the effectiveness of different intervention modalities for older people and to further investigate the medium- and long-term impact of exercise programmes in this group.

Exercise is currently under-used as a treatment for depression although exercise therapies are becoming increasingly available through organized referral schemes in primary care. However, these are not well-utilized and general practitioners (GPs) report low usage of the services with only 15% of GPs who know about the services frequently referring their depressed patients.[63] Exercise may be as effective as medication yet has many additional health benefits including reduced risk of heart disease, stroke, high blood pressure, some cancers, type 2 diabetes, osteoporosis and obesity.[22] This makes exercise appropriate for patients with a combination of physical and mental health problems without the stigma sometimes associated with antidepressant medication and the 'talking therapies'.

Furthermore, exercise habits can become part of a healthy lifestyle pattern which not only has obvious physical and mental health benefits but can provide individuals with a sense of control over their own recovery, which is important since depression is often associated with hopelessness.[63]

Exercise for older people with depression can be structured or unstructured, with participation initiated by individuals, social and volunteer groups or primary care referral. Although there are issues with attrition from exercise programmes which require some level of commitment from participants, exercise has long been identified as a popular treatment for depression by patients [64],[65] and treatment completion rates in exercise referral schemes are often higher than those for medication.[63] From a resource perspective, exercise therapy involves referring patients to other health professionals. This could potentially share out the burden of patient care which may be attractive to practitioners.

# Clinical messages

- Exercise may reduce depression or depressive symptoms in older people, with immediate and clinically relevant effects.
- Longer term outcome, mode, duration and intensity of intervention needs further investigation.
- Exercise may be useful as a supplementary treatment for depression in older people.

# **Competing interests**

None declared.

#### References

- 1 Alexopoulos GS. Depression in the elderly. Lancet 2005; 265: 1961–70.
- 2 Iliffe S, Baldwin R. Guidelines for managing late-life depression. Geriatr Med 2003; 33: 49–55.
- 3 Anstey KJ, Sanden CV, Sargent-Cox K, Luszcz MA. Prevalence and risk factors for depression in a longitudinal, population-based study including individuals in the community and residential care. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry 2007; 15: 497–505.
- 4 Lopez AD, Mathers CD, Ezzati M, Jamison DT, Murray CJL. eds. Global burden of disease and risk factors. New York, Oxford University Press, 2006.
- 5 Geerlings SW, Beekman ATF, Deeg DJH, Twisk JWR, Tilburg WV. Duration and severity of depression predict mortality in older adults in the community. Psychol Med 2002; 32: 609–18.
- 6 Cuijpers P, Smit F. Excess mortality in depression: a meta-analysis of community studies. J Affect Disord 2002; 72: 227–36.
- 7 Smits F, Smits N, Schoevers R, Deeg D, Beekman A, Cuijpers P. An epidemiological approach to depression prevention in older age. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry 2008; 16: 444–53.
- 8 Frazer CH, Christensen H, Griffiths KM. Effectiveness of treatments for depression in older people. Med J Austr 2005; 182: 627–32.
- 9 Livingston G, Hawkins A, Graham N, Blizard B, Mann A. The Gospel Oak Study: prevalence rates of dementia, depression and activity limitation among elderly residents in inner London. Psychol Med 1990; 20: 137–46.
- 10 Volkers AC, Nuyen J, Verhaak PFM, Schellevis FG. The problem of diagnosing major depression in elderly primary care patients. J Affect Disord 2004; 82: 259–63.

- 11 Rost K, Zhang M, Fortney J, Smith J, Coyne J, Smith JR. Persistently poor outcomes of undetected major depression in primary care. Gen Hosp Psychiatry 1998; 20: 12–20.
- 12 Pinquart M, Duberstein PR, Lyness JM. Effects of psychotherapy and other behavioural interventions on clinically depressed older adults: a meta-analysis. Aging Ment Health 2007; 11: 645–57.
- 13 Richards JB, Papaioannou A, Adachi JD, Lawrence J, Whitson HE, Prior JC, Goltzman D. Effect of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors on the risk of fracture. Arch Intern Med 2007; 167: 188–94.
- 14 Maidment R, Livingston G, Katona C. Just keep taking the tablets: concordance to antidepressant treatment in older people in primary care. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry 2002; 17: 752–57.
- 15 Moore K, Blumenthal J. Exercise training as an alternative treatment for depression among older adults. Altern Ther Health Med 1998; 4: 48–56.
- 16 Penedo F, Dahn J. Exercise and well-being: a review of mental and physical health benefits associated with physical activity. Curr Opin Psychiatry 2005; 18: 189–93.
- 17 Chen KM, Tseng WS, Ting LF, Huang GF. Development and evaluation of a yoga exercise programme for older adults. J Adv Nurs 2007; 57: 432–41.
- 18 Biddle S, Fox K, Boutcher S, Faulkner G. The way forward for physical activity and the promotion of psychological well-being. In Biddle S, Fox K, Boutcher S. eds. Physical activity and psychological well-being. London, Routledge, 2000, 155.
- 19 Lawlor DA, Hopker SW. The effectiveness of exercise as an intervention in the management of depression: systematic review and meta-regression analysis of randomised controlled trials. BMJ 2001; 322: 763–67.

- 20 Hill K, Smith R, Fearn M, Rydberg M, Oliphant R. Physical and psychological outcomes of a supported physical activity program for older carers. J Aging Phys Act 2007; 15: 257–71.
- 21 Daley AJ. Exercise therapy and mental health in clinical populations: is exercise therapy a worthwhile intervention? Adv Psychiatr Treat 2002; 8: 262–70.
- 22 Zis AP, Grof P, Webster M, Goodwin FK. Prediction of relapse in recurrent affective disorder. Psychopharmacol Bull 1980; 16: 47–49.
- 23 Craft L, Perna F. The benefits of exercise for the clinically depressed. Prim Care. Companion J Clin Psychiatry 2004; 6: 104–11.
- 24 Dustman RE, Ruhling RO, Russell EM et al. Aerobic exercise training and improved neuropsychological function of older individuals. Neurobiol Aging 1984; 5: 35–42.
- 25 Emery CF, Gatz M. Psychological and cognitive effects of an exercise program for community-residing older adults. Gerontologist 1990; 30: 184–88.
- 26 Gitlin LN, Lawton MP, Windsor-Landsberg LA, Kleban MH, Sands LP, Posner J. In search of psychological benefits. J Aging Health 1992; 4: 174–92.
- 27 Sjosten N, Kivela S-L. The effects of physical exercise on depressive symptoms among the aged: a systematic review. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry 2006; 21: 410–18.
- 28 Babyak M, Blumenthal JA, Herman S et al. Exercise treatment for major depression: Maintenance of therapeutic benefit at 10 months. Psychosom Med 2000; 62: 633–38.
- 29 Bartholomew JB, Morrison D, Ciccolo JT. Effects of acute exercise on mood and well-being in patients with major depressive disorder. Med Sci Sports Exerc 2005; 37: 2032–37.

- 30 Blumenthal JA, Babyak MA, Moore KA et al. Effects of exercise training on older patients with major depression. Arch Intern Med 1999; 159: 2349–56.
- 31 Hembree LD. Exercise and its effect on hopelessness and depression in an aging female population in eastern Oklahoma. Dissertation Abstract International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences, 2001.
- 32 Hume W. Exercise was more effective in the long term than sertraline or exercise plus sertraline for major depression in older adults. Evid Based Ment Health 2001; 4: 105.
- 33 Knubben K, Reischies FM, Adli M, Schlattmann P, Bauer M, Dimeo F. A randomised, controlled study on the effects of a short-term endurance training programme in patients with major depression. Br J Sport Med 2007; 41: 29–33.
- 34 Kovach-Anta CM. The effects of physical activity on levels of depression, anxiety, and hypochondriasis in the elderly. Dissertation Abstract International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 1998.
- 35 Legrand F, Heuze JP. Antidepressant effects associated with different exercise conditions in participants with depression: a pilot study. J Sport Exerc Psychol 2007; 29: 348–64.
- 36 Llewellyn-Jones RH, Baikie KA, Smithers H, Cohen J, Snowdon J, Tennant CC. Multi-faceted shared care intervention for late life depression in residential care: randomised controlled trial. BMJ 1999; 319: 676–82.
- 37 McMurdo ME. Randomised controlled trial of the effects of exercise on depressive disorder in old age. National Research Register, 2001.
- 38 Miser WF. Exercise as an effective treatment option for major depression in older adults. J Fam Practice 2000; 49: 109–10.

- 39 Motl RW, Konopack JF, McAuley E, Elavsky S, Jerome GJ, Marquez DX. Depressive symptoms among older adults: Long-term reduction after a physical activity intervention. J Behav Med 2005; 28: 385–94.
- 40 Parkinson S. The impact of physical exercise on psychological well-being in older adults. Dissertation Abstract International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 2006
- 41 Price JR. A structured activity programme reduces depressive symptoms in moderately depressed older men with coronary heart disease, but not women. Evid Based Ment Health 2006; 9: 17.
- 42 Raj A. PEARLS home based treatment significantly improves depression, dysthymia, and health related quality of life in older people. Evid Based Ment Health 2004; 7: 110.
- 43 Shin Y. The effects of a walking exercise program on physical function and emotional state of elderly Korean women. Public Health Nurs 1999; 16: 146–54. 44 Veale D, Le Fevre K, Pantelis C, de Souza V, Mann A, Sargeant A. Aerobic exercise in the adjunctive treatment of depression: a randomized controlled trial. J R Soc Med 1992; 85: 541–44.
- functioning and mood in older women. Aust NZ J Publ Health 1997; 21: 45–52.

  46 Zou XB, Lin ZX, Lin JD, Lu D, Chen GM. Interventional efficacy of citalopram combined with shining and psychological morning exercise in the attack of depression

45 Williams P, Lord SR, Williams P, Lord SR. Effects of group exercise on cognitive

47 Penninx BW, Rejeski WJ, Pandya J et al. Exercise and depressive symptoms: A comparison of aerobic and resistance exercise effects on emotional and physical function in older persons with high and low depressive symptomatology. J Gerontol B

in elderly people. Chin J Clin Rehabil 2005; 9: 24–25.

Psychol Sci Soc Sci 2002; 57: 124–32.

- 48 Chou KL, Lee PWH, Yu ECS et al. Effect of Tai Chi on depressive symptoms amongst Chinese older patients with depressive disorders: a randomized clinical trial. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry 2004; 19: 1105–107.
- 49 McNeil JK, LeBlanc EM, Joyner M. The effect of exercise on depressive symptoms in the moderately depressed elderly. Psychol Aging 1991; 3: 487–88. 50 Brenes GA, Williamson JD, Messier SP et al. Treatment of minor depression in older adults: a pilot study comparing sertraline and exercise. Aging Ment Health 2007; 11: 61–68.
- 51 Sims J, Hill K, Davidson S, Gunn J, Huang N. Exploring the feasibility of a community-based strength training program for older people with depressive symptoms and its impact on depressive symptoms. BMC Geriatr 2006; 6: 18.
  52 Singh NA, Clements KM, Fiatarone MA. A randomized controlled trial of progressive resistance training in depressed elders. J Gerontol A Biol 1997; 52: 27–35.
- 53 Singh NA, Clements KM, Singh MAF. The efficacy of exercise as a long-term antidepressant in elderly subjects: A randomized, controlled trial. J Gerontol A Biol 2001; 56: 479–501.
- 54 Singh NA, Stavrinos TM, Scarbek Y, Galambos G, Liber C, Fiatarone Singh MA. A randomized controlled trial of high versus low intensity weight training versus general practitioner care for clinical depression in older adults. J Gerontol A Biol 2005; 60: 768–76.
- 55 Mather AS, Rodriguez C, Guthrie MF, McHarg AM, Reid IC, McMurdo MET. Effects of exercise on depressive symptoms in older adults with poorly responsive depressive disorder – randomised controlled trial. Br J Psychiatry 2002; 180: 411–15.

- 56 Tsang HW, Fung KM, Chan AS, Lee G, Chan F. Effect of a qigong exercise programme on elderly with depression. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry 2006; 21: 890–97. 57 Ciechanowski P, Wagner E, Schmaling K et al. Community-integrated homebased depression treatment in older adults A randomized controlled trial. JAMA 2004; 291: 1569–77.
- 58 Hamilton M. A rating scale for depression. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1960; 23: 56–62.
- 59 Gompertz P, Pound P, Ebrahim S. The reliability of stroke outcome measurement. Clin Rehabil 1993; 7: 290–96.
- 60 Beck AT, Ward CH, Mendelson M, Mock J, Erbaugh J. An inventory for measuring depression. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1961; 4: 561–71.
- 61 Radloff LS. The CES-D scale: A self-report depression scale for research in the general population. Appl Psych Meas 1970; 1: 385–401.
- 62 Stewart AL, Greenfield S, Hayes RD. The MOS short-form general health survey: reliability and validity in a patient population. Med Care 1988; 26: 724–35.
- 63 Mental Health Foundation. Up and running? Exercise therapy and the treatment of mild or moderate depression in primary care. London, Mental Health Foundation, 2005.
- 64 Martinsen EW. Benefits of exercise for the treatment of depression. Sports Med 1990; 9: 380–89.
- 65 Mind. Latest Mind survey provides good news. Press Release, London, 2001.

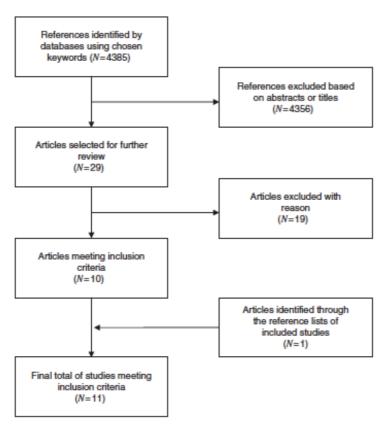


Figure 1 QUORUM flowchart of study selection process.

Table 1 Articles excluded and reason for exclusion

	Study	Reason for exclusion
1)	Babyak et al., 2000	Less than 80% of participants over 60
2)	Bartholomew et al., 2005	Participants not elder population
3)	Blumenthal et al., 1999	Less than 80% of participants over 60
4)	Hembree, 2001	Participants not depressed at baseline
5)	Hume, 2001	Commentary of an exercise intervention study
6)	Knubben et al., 2007	Participants not elder population
7)	Kovach-Anta, 1998	Participants not depressed at baseline
8)	Legrand et al., 2007	Participants not elder population
9)	Llewellyn-Jones et al., 1999	Intervention not structured
10)	McMurdo, 2001	No outcome data reported
11)	Miser, 2000	Less than 80% of participants over 60
12)	Motl et al., 2005	Participants not depressed at baseline
13)	Parkinson, 2006	Participants not depressed at baseline
14)	Price, 2006	Commentary of an exercise intervention study
15)	Raj, 2004	Commentary of an exercise intervention study
16)	Shin, 1999	Participants not depressed at baseline
17)	Veale, 1992	Not elder population
18)	Williams et al., 1997	Participants not depressed at baseline
19)	Zou, 2005	No exercise component