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Title: Urban-Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies

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Abstract: Context: Depression among older adults (\geq age 60) is a problem that could be exacerbated by global trends in urbanization and population aging. The study purpose was to assess whether urban, relative to rural, residence is associated with depression among older adults and whether associations differ in countries with developed versus developing economies.

Evidence Acquisition: In 2017, we identified and extracted information from comparative studies of urban-rural depression prevalence among older adults. Studies were identified in PubMed, PsychINFO, and Web of Science and limited to English language articles published after 1985. Eighteen studies met inclusion criteria. Random effects meta-analysis was conducted to produce weighted pooled odds ratios (ORs) estimating the association between urban-rural residence and depression for all study participants ($N=31,598$) and sub-analyses were conducted for developed ($n=12,728$) and developing ($n=18,870$) countries.

Evidence Synthesis: Depression prevalence was significantly higher among urban residents in ten studies and significantly higher among rural residents in three studies (all three conducted in China). Associations between urban-rural residence and depression generally remained significant after adjusting for covariates. In developed countries, the odds of depression were significantly higher among urban than rural residents (pooled OR=1.44, 95% CI=1.10, 1.88). However, in developing countries, this association was not observed (pooled OR=0.91, 95% CI=0.46, 1.77).

Conclusions: Converging trends of urbanization and population aging could increase the global burden of depression among older adults. The pathways through which urban-rural residence influences depression risk among older adults might differ by county context. Future research should focus on measuring variation in these contexts.

Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies

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CONTEXT

Human longevity is increasing, and the demographic composition of societies is aging. Between 2015 and 2050, global life expectancy at birth is projected to increase from 70 to 77 years.¹ By 2050, the proportion of the world's population aged more than 60 years is projected to double and the proportion aged more than 80 years is projected to triple.^{2,3} In Europe, the proportion of the population aged more than 60 years is expected to increase from 24% to 34% between 2015 and 2050. Increasing trends are also expected in Latin America (from 11% to 26%), North America (from 21% to 28%), and Asia (from 12% to 25%).³ These increases in longevity pose challenges for policymakers as they are forced to address the implications of population aging within the context of other societal changes. As Beard and Bloom describe, "Population ageing is not taking place in isolation. Other broad social changes are transforming society...."

Understanding the interplay between these trends is crucial if policymakers are to make the best decisions to promote the health and wellbeing of older people."⁴

Urbanization and urban migration are social changes that are important to understand within the context of population aging. The proportion of the world's population living in cities increased from 43% to 54% between 1990 and 2014 and is projected to increase to 66% by 2050.¹ Rates of urbanization are accelerating fastest in countries with developing economies. For example, between 2014 and 2050, the proportion of people living in cities is projected to increase from 40% to 56% in Africa and from 48% to 66% in Asia, compared with increases from 73% to 82% in Europe and 80% to 86% in North America.¹ As trends in population aging, urbanization, and urban migration converge, there is an increasing need for evidence about how urban contexts can maximize the health benefits, and minimize the health risks, of cities for older adults.⁵⁻⁸

Although urban–rural differences in the physical health of older adults have been the focus of numerous initiatives,^{5–8} questions regarding how city living influences the mental health of older adults have received less attention. Such questions are important because the risk and protective factors for mental health conditions change as people age.⁹ Moreover, a substantive body of research suggests that urban residence increases risk for mental health conditions and that rates of mental health conditions are generally higher in urban than rural areas.^{10–16}

However, the dynamics through which urban residence influences mental health are complex and likely to vary for different mental health conditions, populations, and country contexts.^{10,17}

Depression is one mental health condition for which the social and physical characteristics of cities could increase the risk for, or be protective against, depression among older adults.

Depression Among Older Adults

Systematic reviews and meta-analyses estimate that the global prevalence of major depressive disorder (MDD) is in the range of 1% to 5% among adults aged 65 years or older.^{18–24} Global estimates of the prevalence of clinically significant depressive symptoms (CSDSs), which do not meet the full criteria for MDD, among adults aged 65 years or older hover around 15%.^{18,23,25–27}

Although the prevalence of MDD and CSDS among older adults are similar to that of middle-aged adults, depression among older adults has widely been recognized as a public health priority for at least two reasons.^{27,28} First, the consequences of depression are more severe among older adults than among their middle-aged counterparts. In addition to adversely affecting quality of life, depression among older adults substantially increases the risk for myriad adverse

outcomes—including physical health problems, suicide, mortality, and reduced physical, cognitive, and social functioning.^{18,20,27,29–34} For example, the association between MDD and suicide is stronger among older adults than any other age group¹⁸ and at least eight prospective studies have found that CSDSs increase risk for subsequent physical limitations.²⁷

Second, depression is potentially more preventable among older adults than their younger counterparts. Approximately half of cases of MDD among older adults are new cases experienced by people who never had MDD earlier in life.^{18,35,36} These older adults are also less likely to have a family history of depression.^{18,37} This suggests that depression among older adults is less influenced by inherited genetic factors and more influenced by social and environmental factors.⁹

Potential Importance of Urban Versus Rural Residence

An integration of findings from the fields of geriatric psychiatry and urban health reveals numerous pathways through which features of cities could increase depression risk among older adults or, alternatively, be protective against depression. For example, urban environments could increase depression risk via disrupted sleep. Poor sleep is one of the strongest risk factors for depression among older adults^{38,39} and could be exacerbated by urban environments because excessive exposure to artificial light at night is more prevalent in urban than rural areas and disrupts sleep quality.^{10,40–43} Urban residence could also increase depression risk via direct and indirect exposure to neighborhood crime. Negative perceptions of neighborhood safety are strong risk factors for depression among older adults^{44–48} and violent crime rates are generally higher in urban than rural areas.⁴⁹

Alternatively, some features of urban environments could reduce depression risk among older adults. For example, physical inactivity^{50–55} and social isolation^{18,23,56} are strong risk factors for depression among older adults. Public transportation networks and walkable streetscapes, which are generally both more robust in urban than rural areas, could reduce these risk factors by facilitating physical activity, active transport, and social connectivity.^{51,57–62}

Potential Differences Between Countries With Developed Versus Developing Economies

It is plausible that the direction of an association between urban–rural residence and depression differs in countries with developed versus developing economies because the characteristics of urban and rural environments might vary across these contexts. For example, residents of rural areas in developed countries are likely to have some access to mental health services, whereas residents of rural areas in developing countries might have no access because services are exclusively concentrated in urban areas.⁶³ Residents of urban areas in developed countries are likely to have access to public transportation, whereas residents of urban areas in developing countries might not have such access and rely on walking as their primary mode of transit.^{64,65} The importance of country context when considering the pathways through which urban and rural environments influence mental health is highlighted by a 2018 study of 42 low- and middle-income countries which found no association between urban (versus rural) residence and psychosis—a finding contrary to the well-established relationships between urban residence and psychosis that is typically observed in high-income countries.¹⁷ This and other findings have promoted calls for greater examination of how the influence of urban and rural environments on mental health might vary between country contexts.⁶⁶

Study Purpose

Reviews have examined various aspects of depression among older adults and identified individual and neighborhood-level risk and protective factors.^{23,25–27,30,32,38,44,50,67–70} However, with the exception of one meta-analysis of studies in China published nearly 20 years ago,⁷¹ evidence of the association between urban–rural residence and depression among older adults has not been systematically assessed or integrated. The purpose of this study was to address this knowledge gap and provide directions for future research. A systematic review and meta-analysis were conducted of comparative studies focused on urban–rural differences in depression (including both MDD and CSDSs) among older adults aged 60 years or older. The specific aims are to: assess whether urban versus rural residence is associated with depression among older adults; identify factors that are significantly associated with depression among urban but not rural older adults, and vice versa; and assess whether the association between urban–rural residence and depression differs between developed and developing countries.

EVIDENCE ACQUISITION

Search Strategy

The present review was conducted in accordance with PRISMA guidelines. In July 2017, the authors searched PubMed, PsychINFO, and Web of Science for articles that mentioned any of the following combinations of terms in the title, abstract, or keywords: (*depression* OR *depressive*) AND (*elderly* OR *older adult* OR *late life*) AND (*urban* OR *city* OR *cities* OR *metropolitan* OR *urbanization*) AND (*rural* OR *countryside*). The selection of these terms was informed by those used in prior reviews of depression among older adults^{23,25–27,30,32,38,44,50,67–71} and urban–rural differences in mental health.^{10–16} The search was limited to articles published in

English since 1985. After removing duplicates, this search identified 170 articles that were screened for inclusion (Figure 1).

Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

Two authors read the abstracts of the 170 articles and screened for inclusion. Articles were included if they assessed urban–rural differences in MDD and CSDSs among older adults aged ≥ 60 years. Studies that focused only on urban or rural populations, without considering urban–rural differences, were excluded. Moreover, non-empirical articles (e.g., commentaries), exclusively qualitative studies and studies limited to clinical interventions, institutionalized populations, or caregivers of older adults were excluded.

Thirty-nine articles met screening criteria. The full texts of these articles were obtained, reviewed by the two coders, and excluded if they did not meet screening criteria or did not present data on the prevalence of MDD or CSDSs among adults aged ≥ 60 years stratified by urban–rural residence. When articles met all inclusion criteria but did not present information on urban–rural differences in depression prevalence ($n=2$), the study’s authors were contacted and the article was included if the information could be obtained ($n=1$). This process resulted in 18 articles that were included in the meta-analysis.

Data Extraction, Quality Assessment, and Analysis

For each article, information was extracted on the characteristics of study participants (e.g., age, country), instruments and scoring thresholds used to assess depression, definitions of urban–rural residence, and sample size. When available in studies that used multivariable regression, information was extracted on the AOR of urban–rural depression prevalence and the variables

that were adjusted for in the final model. Information was also extracted on variables that were significantly associated with depression risk among urban but not rural older adults, and vice versa.

Authors assessed the methodologic quality of each study on nine domains using a quality assessment instrument (Appendix 1) adapted from the review by Luppia and colleagues⁶⁹ of depression prevalence among older adults. Two authors independently reviewed the 18 studies and each domain was scored as 2 if criteria were fully met, 1 if partially met, and 0 if not met. An aggregate quality score was then calculated for each study. Studies in the >75th percentile (score ≥ 14) were coded a high quality, those in the 50th to 75th percentile (score 9–13 were coded as moderate quality, and those in the <50th percentile (score ≤ 8) were coded as low quality.

Using the definitions of depression and urban–rural residence from each study, information on the number of depressed and non-depressed older adults in the urban and rural populations, respectively, were extracted. Outcomes of MDD and CSDSs were combined because there were substantial differences in how these two outcomes were operationalized across studies and because this study’s aims were focused on assessing the relative association between urban–rural residence and depression among older adults—not on estimating depression prevalence in urban and rural areas.

Using data on the number of depressed and non-depressed older adults in the urban and rural populations of each study, random effects meta-analysis was conducted using the “metan”

command in Stata, version 17 to produce weighted pooled ORs with 95% CIs estimating the association between urban–rural residence and depression. A random effects model was used because the characteristics of urban and rural environments and study populations were assumed to vary substantially between studies and because I^2 statistics demonstrated high heterogeneity between studies (i.e., >75%).⁷² Weighted pooled ORs were produced for all studies together and also separately for studies conducted in countries with developed and developing economies, based on the UNs' World Economic Situation and Prospects classifications.⁷³ Forest plots were created to display results.

To conduct sensitivity analysis, authors systematically assessed the influence of each study on the pooled results by producing weighted pooled ORs without each individual study. This was carried out for all studies together and separately for countries with developed versus developing economies. To assess publication bias, funnel plots were created and Egger's tests were conducted.⁷⁴

EVIDENCE SYNTHESIS

Study Characteristics

Appendix Table 1 summarizes the characteristics, methodologic quality, and results of the 18 studies.^{75–92} Nine studies were conducted in developed countries (Japan, U.S., Sweden, Italy, Canada, Great Britain) and nine were conducted in developing countries (Iran, China, Taiwan, Peru, Mexico, Venezuela, South Korea, India). Study sample size ranged from 86 to 6,178 and the median sample size was 1,169.

Seven studies were coded as high quality, eight were moderate quality, and three were low quality. The quality of studies was similar for those conducted in developed and developing countries. There were substantial differences in how depression outcomes and urban–rural residence were operationalized across studies. Six different instruments were used to assess depression. The 15-item Geriatric Depression Scale was used most frequently (six studies), but five different scoring thresholds were used with the scale to classify older adults as having CSDSs (threshold range, ≥ 5 to ≥ 9). Five studies used the addresses of study participants and national urban–rural classification systems (e.g., U.S. Census Bureau definitions, Chinese Hukou System designations) to classify participants as urban or rural and four included information about the population density of urban–rural classifications.

Unadjusted Associations From Individual Studies

The study prevalence of depression was significantly higher among urban residents in ten studies, significantly higher among rural residents in three studies, and there was no significant difference between the urban and rural residents in five studies. All studies in which depression was significantly higher among rural residents were conducted in China, which was classified as a developing country. The strength of the association between urban–rural residence and depression varied dramatically between studies. Among individual studies conducted in developed countries, the unadjusted OR of depression between urban and rural (ref) residents ranged from 0.72 (95% CI=0.45, 1.15)⁷⁸ to 4.29 (95% CI=1.84, 9.99).⁸⁹ Among individual studies conducted in developing countries, the ORs ranged from 0.09 (95% CI=0.06, 0.15)⁸² to 16.36 (95% CI=2.19, 122.28).⁷⁶

Pooled Analyses

When the results of all 18 studies were pooled ($N=31,598$), the study prevalence of depression was not significantly different between urban (10.2%) and rural (10.7%) residents (chi-square $p=0.168$). The pooled OR from random effects meta-analysis was 1.18 (95% CI=0.84, 1.65). I^2 was 93.4% (chi-square $p<0.001$), indicating high heterogeneity between studies. A funnel plot (Figure 2) demonstrates that studies fall on both sides of zero with moderate symmetry, suggesting the absence of major publication bias. Egger's test suggested that there was no significant small studies effect (Egger's test $p=0.356$). In the sensitivity analyses that assessed influence of individual studies, pooled ORs ranged from 1.10 (95% CI=0.78, 1.56) to 1.32 (95% CI=1.01, 1.74).

When the results of all studies conducted in developed countries were pooled ($n=12,728$), the study prevalence of depression was significantly higher among urban (16.0%) than rural (11.8%) residents (chi-square $p<0.001$). The pooled OR from random effects meta-analysis was 1.44 (95% CI=1.10, 1.88) with high heterogeneity between studies ($I^2=75.3\%$, chi-square $p<0.001$; Figure 3). In the sensitivity analysis, pooled ORs for developed countries ranged from 1.32 (95% CI=1.03, 1.68) to 1.56 (95% CI=1.18, 2.07).

When the results of all studies conducted in developing countries were pooled ($n=18,870$), the study prevalence of depression was significantly lower among urban (7.5%) than rural (9.6%) residents (chi-square $p<0.001$). The pooled OR from random effects meta-analysis was 0.91 (95% CI=0.46, 1.77) with high heterogeneity ($I^2=96.2\%$, chi-square $p<0.001$; Figure 4). In the sensitivity analysis, pooled ORs for developing countries ranged from 0.76 (95% CI=0.38, 1.50) to 1.17 (95% CI=0.69, 1.99).

Adjusted Associations From Individual Studies

Nine studies conducted multivariable regression and presented AORs of the association between urban residence and depression.^{82,83,85–87,89–92} The variables most frequently included in these models were age (seven studies), gender (six studies), marital status/widowhood (six studies), functional impairment/disability (five studies), education (four studies), income/financial strain (four studies), and housing (four studies). The magnitude, direction, and significance of unadjusted and adjusted ORs were similar in most studies. For example, in the study by Walters et al.⁹² of older adults in Great Britain, the odds of depression among urban versus rural residents only increased from 1.40 (95% CI=1.16, 1.69) to 1.61 (95% CI=1.20, 2.17) after adjusting for age, gender, financial strain, housing, physical symptoms, unmet needs in activity of daily living, living alone, and impaired cognition.

Eight studies examined interactions between urban–rural residence and factors associated with depression (i.e., identified factors associated with depression risk among urban but not rural older adults, and vice versa).^{75,78,81,83,85,86,88,91} In five of these studies, interactions between rural residence and factors related to social isolation (e.g., living alone, not having any close friends) were present in which isolation-related factors were independently and significantly associated with depression among rural, but not the urban, residents.^{75,83,85,86,91} For example, after adjusting for covariates, the study by Abe and colleagues⁷⁵ of older adults in Japan found that the odds of depression were 1.28 times higher among older adults with poor social support in rural areas, whereas the association between social support and depression was not significant among those residing in urban areas. Associations between social isolation and depression among rural older adults were identified in studies conducted in developed^{75,83,91} as well as developing^{85,86}

countries. Results were mixed for other known risk factors for depression among older adults (e.g., poor physical health, financial stress, female gender).

DISCUSSION

Considered holistically, the results of this review and meta-analysis suggest that urban residence might increase depression risk among older adults. Of the 18 included studies, depression prevalence was significantly higher among urban residents in ten studies and significantly higher among rural residents in only three studies (all three conducted in China). Although the review was not designed to elucidate the mechanisms through which urban–rural residence might influence depression, the magnitude of unadjusted and adjusted ORs of urban–rural depression were generally similar in the nine studies that controlled for potential confounders. This suggests that urban and rural environments might have independent effects on depression risk among older adults.

In the pooled sub-analysis of studies conducted in developed countries, the present study found that the odds of depression were significantly higher among older adults residing in urban, as opposed to rural, areas. This finding is very similar to the pooled results of the meta-analysis by Peen et al.¹⁶ of urban–rural differences of depression among people of all ages in developed countries. In the pooled sub-analysis of studies conducted in developing countries, however, the present study found that the odds of depression were not significantly higher among older adults residing in urban than rural areas. This finding is consistent with the results of the meta-analysis by Chen and colleagues⁷¹ (published in 1999) of risk factors for depression among older adults in

China and two more recent studies conducted in China both found that symptom mean scores were significantly higher among rural than urban residents.^{93,94}

The finding that the odds of depression appear to be significantly lower among older adults in rural than urban areas of China could partially be the result of mass migration of older adults with greater socioeconomic resources (i.e., lower depression risk) from rural to urban areas.^{93,95}

Li et al.⁹³ found that the association between rural residence and depression among older adults in China lost significance after adjusting for socioeconomic factors at household- and community-levels. It is also possible that the elevated prevalence of depression among older adults in rural China could be the result of an “empty nest” trend in which the children of rural older adults are leaving home to work in cities at an accelerated rate.⁹⁶ In a sample drawn from older adult empty nest households in China, Su and colleagues⁹⁴ found that depression symptoms scores were significantly higher for those in rural than urban areas.

Future research in countries other than China that have rapidly developing economies and are experiencing major trends in rural–urban migration (e.g., India, Nigeria)¹ should test the hypothesis that rural residence is associated with depression among older adults. Relatedly, future research should integrate measures of urban–rural residence and depression into longitudinal studies of older adults to examine how the age at which migration occurs might affect depression risk. In their cross-sectional study of older adults in South Korea, Kim and colleagues⁸⁶ retrospectively assessed past urban–rural residence via self-report and found that depression prevalence was higher among those who moved from rural to urban areas between the

ages of 21 and 60 years (20.3%), and after age 60 years (25.5%) than those who lived in urban areas their entire lives (19.3%).

Given the large heterogeneity in the magnitude of associations between urban–rural residence and depression, additional research is needed to understand how social and economic factors might interact with features of urban and rural environments to influence depression risk among older adults. For example, a significant interaction was identified between social isolation, rural residence, and depression in five studies^{75,83,85,86,91} and future research should test the hypothesis that social isolation mediates the relationship between rural residence and depression in countries with developing economies. Relatedly, more research is needed about how macro-level factors that vary across countries (e.g., public transportation infrastructure, pensions, access to health care services) might mediate and moderate associations between urban–rural residence and depression.

Limitations

This review and meta-analysis has seven main limitations. First, urban and rural residence was not operationalized consistently between studies. Even within a single country, an inherent challenge to reviews of urban–rural differences in health is the fact that various definitions of urban and rural exist and are accepted—ranging from measures of population density to algorithm-based definitions produced by government agencies.^{97,98} This challenge is exacerbated in cross-national reviews because definitions of urban and rural vary dramatically between countries.^{99,100} However, country definitions of urban are similar to standardized UN definitions.¹⁷

Second, there are many different types of urban and rural areas (e.g., agriculture communities versus indigenous communities in the case of rural) and this review did not assess these distinctions. Third, this review was limited to comparative studies that presented data on the prevalence of depression among both urban and rural older adults. Authors limited the review to comparative studies because a wide range of depression instruments and scoring thresholds are used in the literature and limiting the review to comparative studies, in which the same instrument and scoring threshold were applied to both urban and rural groups, allowed authors to ensure that the pooled measures of association would not be biased by systematic differences in how depression was measured between urban and rural groups. This study was also limited to English language peer-reviewed literature and did not include grey literature (e.g., government reports).

Fourth, authors did not differentiate between MDD and CSDSs because there were substantial differences in how these outcomes were operationalized across studies and because the study's aims were focused on assessing the relative association between urban–rural residence and depression among older adults—not estimating depression prevalence in urban and rural areas. Fifth, studies included in this review were only conducted in six developed countries and eight developing countries and the results are not representative of all developed or developing countries.

Sixth, the studies included in the review were published over a 26-year period and pooled results might not reflect recent changes in urban and rural environments. For example, in the U.S., suicide rates are increasing at a faster pace in rural than urban counties and such a trend could

indicate that features of rural environments related to mental health are changing.¹⁰¹ Finally, it should be emphasized all 18 studies included in the review were cross-sectional and only nine articles presented adjusted estimates of urban–rural depression risk. Thus, the results demonstrate associations between urban–rural residence and depression among older adults but should not be interpreted as implying causality.

CONCLUSIONS

This review of comparative studies generally suggests that converging trends of urbanization, urban migration, and population aging could increase the global burden of depression among older adults. The heterogeneity of results between studies suggests that the nature of the relationship between urban–rural residence and depression among older adults varies across contexts. Future research is needed to identify the specific factors that moderate the impact of urban living on depression and the most effective intervention strategies.

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LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. PRISMA flow diagram to identify comparative studies of urban–rural differences in depression among older adults.

Figure 2. Funnel plot of urban–rural differences in depression among older adults, 18 studies.

Figure 3. Odds of depression among urban versus rural older adults in developed countries ($n=12,728$).

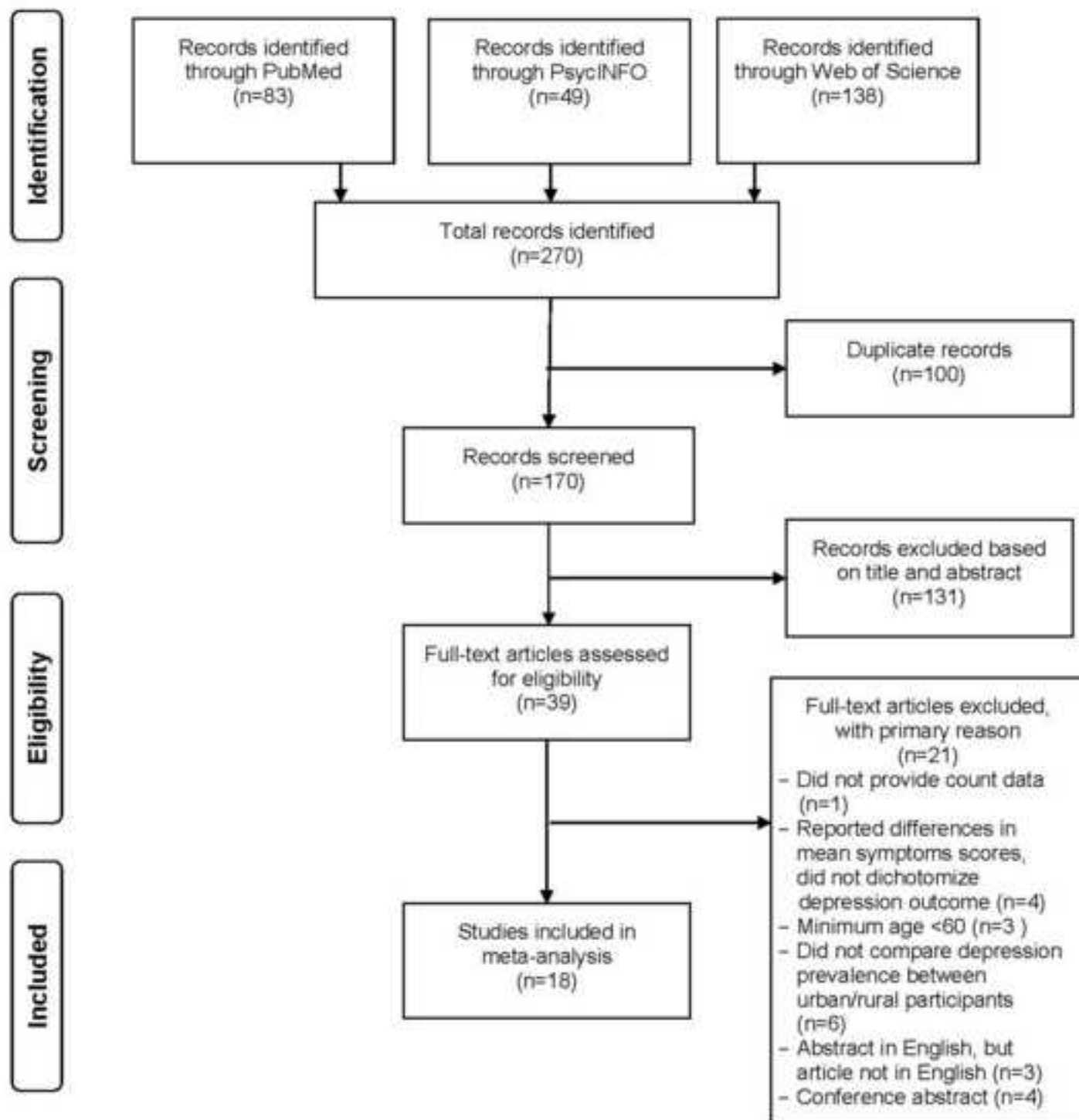
Notes: Weights are from random effects model. Arrows indicate that the 95% CIs are truncated.

Figure 4. Odds of depression among urban versus rural older adults in developing countries ($n=18,870$).

Notes: Weights are from random effects model.

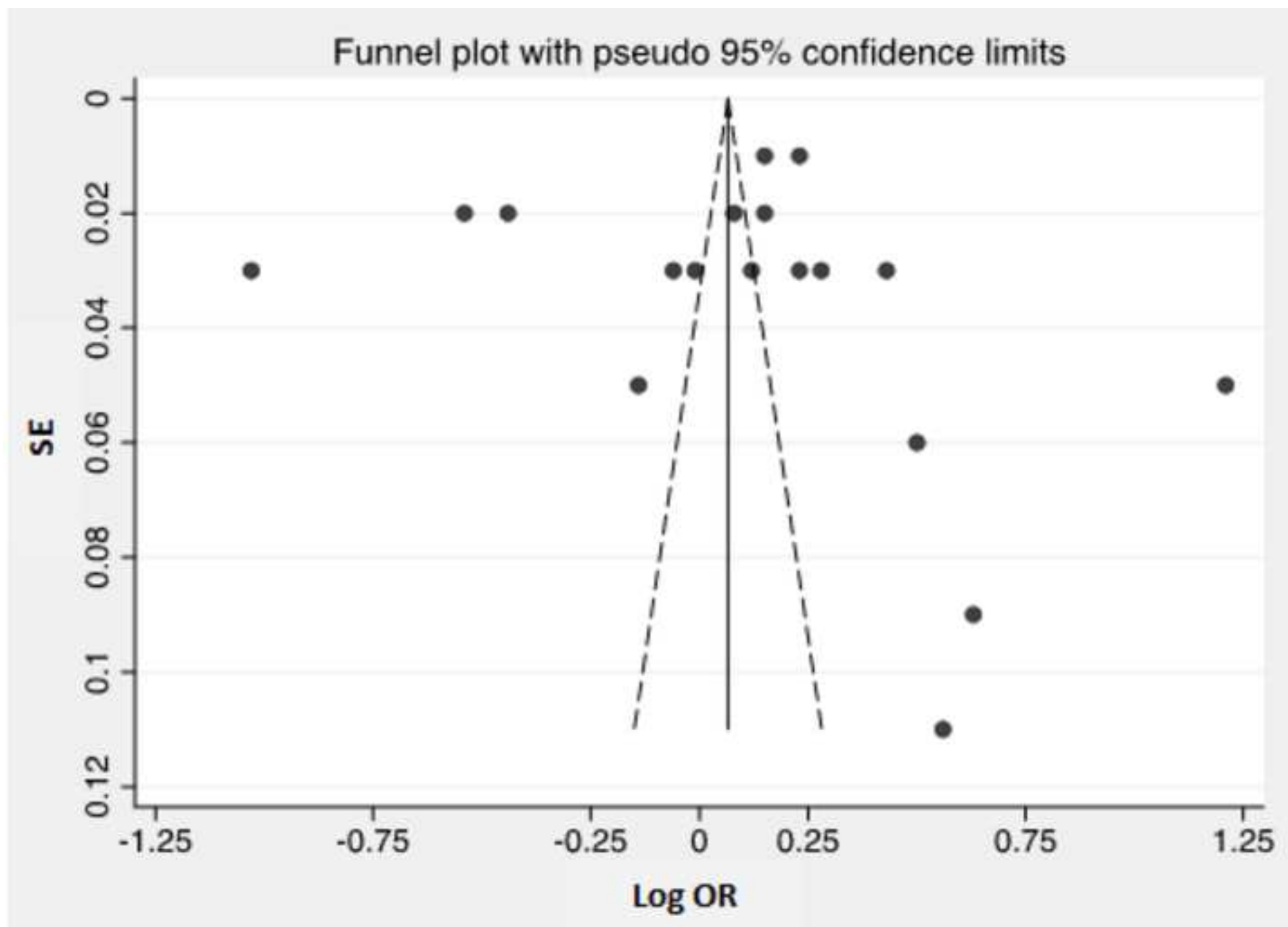
Figure

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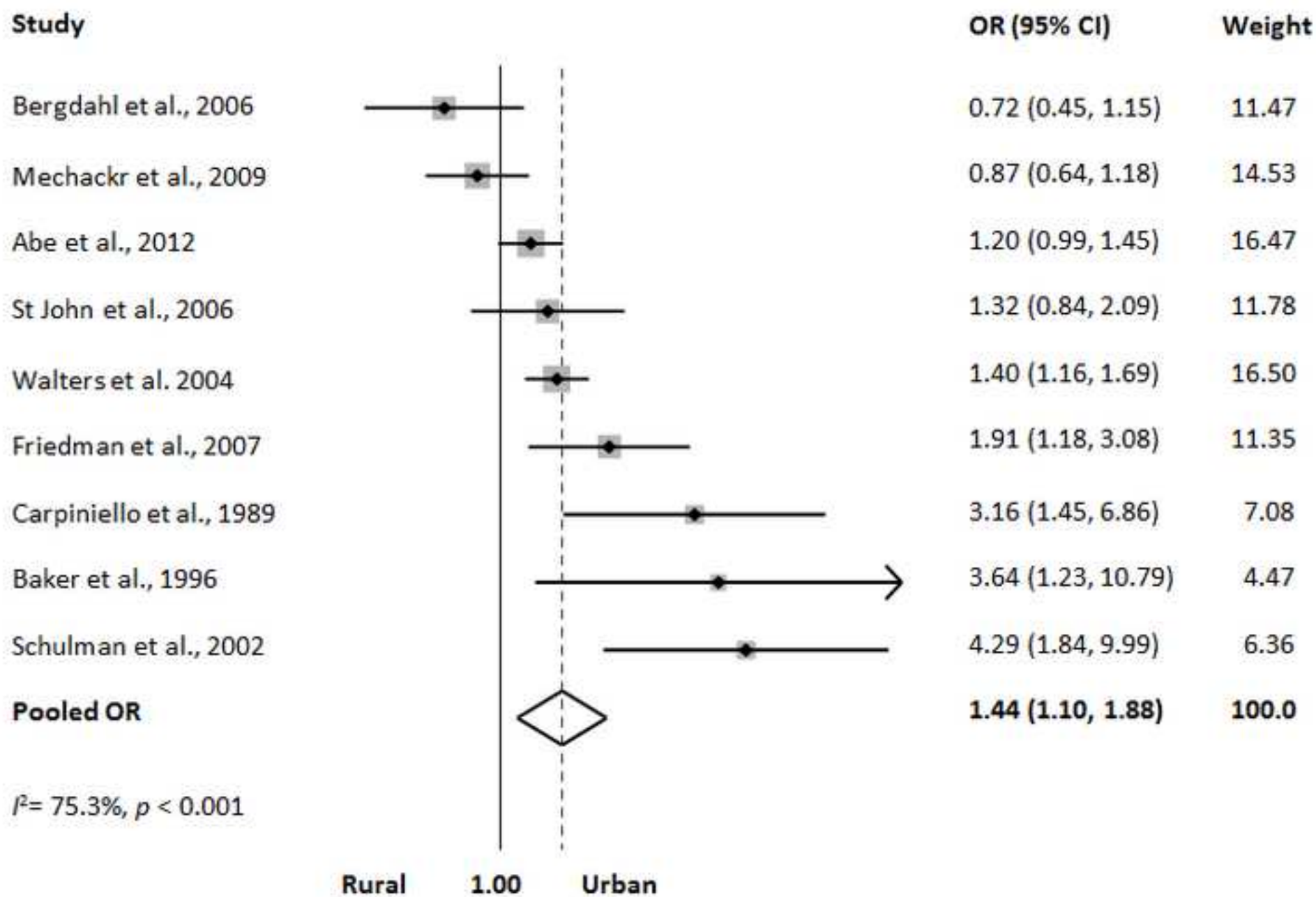


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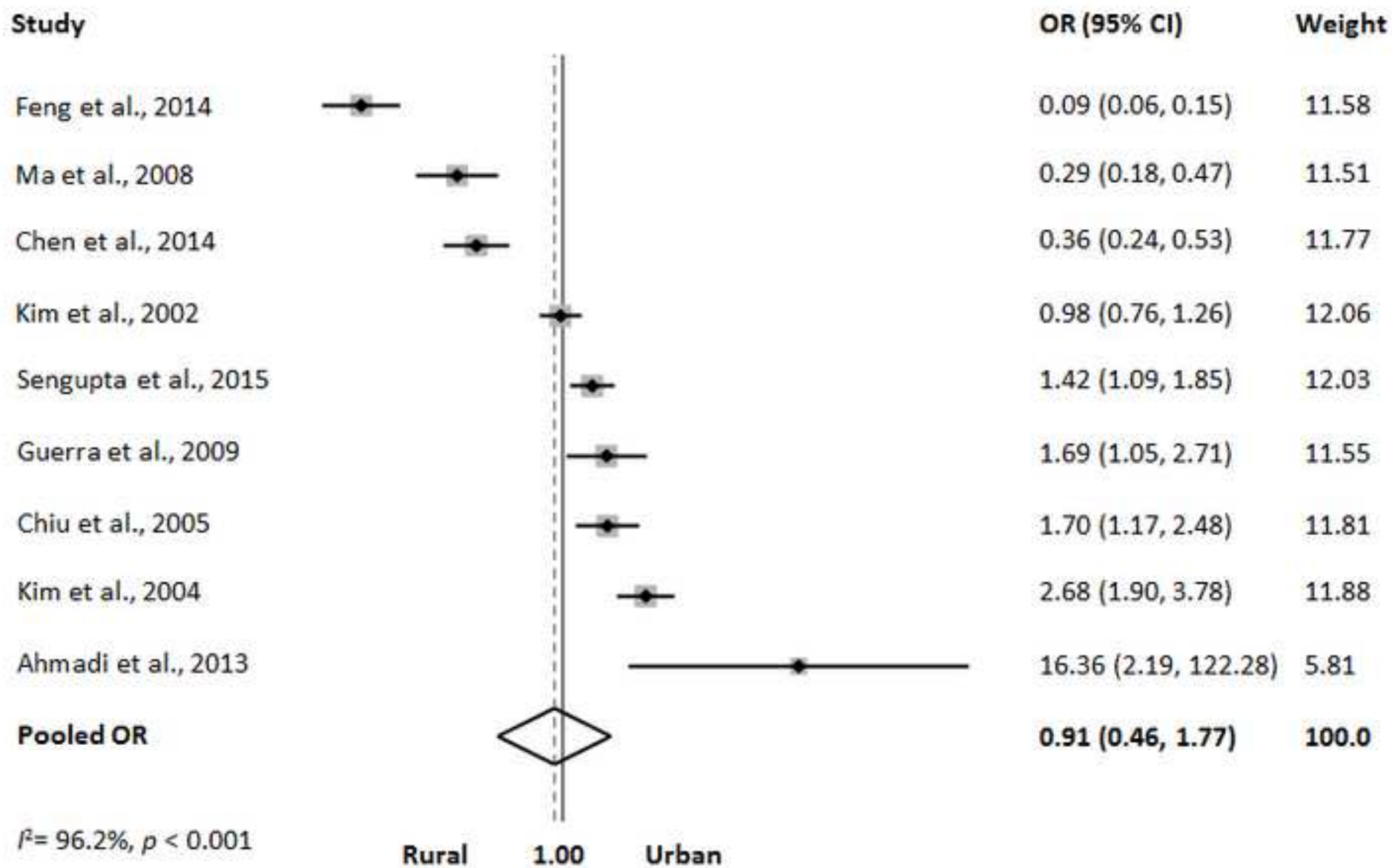
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Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Appendix 1. Methodological Quality Assessment Instrument, Studies of Urban–Rural Differences in Depression Among Older Adults

1. Socio-demographic characteristics are described (e.g., age, gender, education).
2. Parameters for classifying participants as urban or rural are clearly defined.
 - 0=not defined
 - 1=subjectively defined (e.g., population density information provided, name of jurisdiction provided)
 - 2=defined according to government classification system
3. Study inclusion and/or exclusion criteria are clearly described.
4. Information about cognitive status of participants is provided and/or addressed in analysis.
 - 2=explicitly excluded or addressed in analysis
5. Detailed description of methods and instruments is provided.
6. Participation and response rates are adequate.
 - No information provided or participation/response rate <50%=0 points
 - Response/participation rate between 50 and 75%=1 point
 - Response/participation over 75%=2 points
7. Adjusted associations between urban-rural residence and depression provided.
8. Diagnostic procedure is described:
 - For MDD: valid instrument/criteria
 - For CSDS: valid cut-off score
9. The handling of missing values is described.

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Point assignment (except as noted above):

- Criterion was not met=0 points
- Criterion was partially met=1 point
- Criterion was fully met=2 points

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Appendix Table 1. Articles Included in Systematic Review of Urban–Rural Differences in Depression Among Older Adults

Study characteristics	Measures	Results
Abe et al., 2012 ¹	Depression measure: Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥ 6)	No statistically significant difference in depression prevalence between urban and rural groups.
Country: Japan	Urban: Kumamoto City, population of “about” 730,000, capital of Kumamoto Prefecture	Urban depression prevalence=28.2%
Economy: Developed	Rural: Aso District, population of “about” 70,000, mountainous area of Kumamoto Prefecture	Rural depression prevalence=24.7%
N: 2,152		Unadjusted OR=1.20 (95% CI=0.99, 1.45)
Age range: 65+		AOR for urban–rural depression risk=n/a
		Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender, medical history, sleep disturbance, morale, living alone, poor social support, financial strain, employment
		Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Sleep disturbance (AOR=1.48, 95% CI=1.04, 2.10)
		Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Poor social support (AOR=1.28, 95% CI=1.08, 1.52)
		Moderate methodological quality (score=9)
Ahmadi et al., 2013 ²	Depression measure: Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥ 9)	Depression prevalence higher in urban group.
Country: Iran	Urban: Based on “regional municipality”	Urban depression prevalence=39.5%

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Economy: Developing	Rural: Based on “regional municipality”	Rural depression prevalence=3.6% Unadjusted OR=16.36 (95% CI=2.19, 122.28)
N: 337		Moderate methodological quality (score=10)
Age range: 60+		
Baker et al., 1996 ³	Depression measure: Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D) (threshold score ≥ 16)	Depression prevalence higher in urban group. Urban depression prevalence=27.1%
Country: U.S.	Rural: one “rural” county in Tennessee	Rural depression prevalence=12.5%
Economy: Developed	Urban: one “urban” county in Tennessee	Unadjusted OR=3.64 (95% CI=1.23, 10.79)
N: 86		Moderate methodological quality (score=11)
Age range: 60+		
Bergdahl et al., 2006 ⁴	Depression measure: Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥ 5 or anyone previously diagnosed with depression or receiving ongoing treatment with antidepressants)	No statistically significant difference in depression prevalence between urban and rural groups. Urban depression prevalence=26.9%
Country: Sweden		Rural depression prevalence=33.9%
Economy: Developed	Urban: Residents of a university city in northern Sweden with approximately 105,000 inhabitants covering an area of 2,316 square kilometers	Unadjusted OR=0.72 (95% CI=0.45, 1.15)
N: 363		AOR for urban-rural depression risk=n/a
Age range: 85+		

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

	Rural: Residents of five communities in the rural part of northern Sweden with a total of 24,523 inhabitants in an area of 27,507 square kilometers	Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender, use of analgesics, experienced loneliness, heart failure, loss of a child, minimal nutritional assessment, not going outside independently
		Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Loss of a child (AOR=2.88, 95% CI=1.15, 7.21) - Not going outdoors independently (AOR=3.53, 95% CI=1.43, 8.68)
		Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Use of analgesics (AOR=6.39, 95% CI=1.05, 38.98)
		Moderate methodological quality (score=11)
Carpiniello et al., 1989 ⁵	Depression measure: Beck Depression Inventory (information on threshold score not provided)	Depression prevalence higher in urban group.
Country: Italy	Urban: Cagliari, 3rd district, Sardinia	Urban depression prevalence=17.0%
Economy: Developed	Rural: Two small villages (Ilbono and Ales) on the island of Sardinia	Rural depression prevalence=6.0%
N: 302		Unadjusted OR=3.16 (95% CI=1.45, 6.86)
Age range: 65+		Low methodological quality (score=8)
Chen et al., 2014 ⁶	Depression measure: Geriatric Mental State Automated Geriatric Examination for Computer Assisted Taxonomy (GMS-AGECAT) (threshold score ≥ 3)	Depression prevalence higher in rural group.
Country: China		Urban depression prevalence=2.1%
		Rural depression prevalence=5.7%

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Economy: Developing N: 3,336	Urban: Yiming sub-district of Hefei city Rural: six villages in Tangdian District of Yingshang County	Unadjusted OR=0.36 (95% CI=0.24, 0.53) Low methodological quality (score=8)
Age range: 65+ (urban); 60+ (rural)		
Chiu et al., 2005 ⁷ Country: Taiwan Economy: Developing N: 1,005 Age range: 65+	Depression measure: Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥8) Urban: Kaohsiung City, the second ranking metropolitan area in Taiwan Rural: A town (San-Lin) one hour drive from Kaohsiung City	Depression prevalence higher in urban group. Urban depression prevalence=20.1% Rural depression prevalence=12.8% Unadjusted OR=1.70 (95% CI=1.17, 2.48) AOR for urban–rural depression risk=n/a Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender, marital status/widowhood, education, disability, chronic conditions, living alone Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Chronic conditions (AOR= 1.76, 95% CI=1.07, 2.90) - Living alone (AOR=2.14, 95% CI=1.05, 4.36) Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Widowhood (AOR=5.69, 95% CI=2.42, 13.38) Low methodological quality (score=7)

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Feng et al., 2014 ⁸	Depression measure: Geriatric Mental State Schedule) (threshold score ≥ 3)	Depression prevalence higher in rural group.
Country: China	Urban: Address classified as urban (i.e., “non-farmer”) in Hukou database	Urban depression prevalence=2.8%
Economy: Developing	Rural: Address classified as rural (i.e., “farmer”) in Hukou database	Rural depression prevalence=23.6%
N: 1,329		Unadjusted OR=0.09 (95% CI=0.06, 0.15)
Age range: 60+		AOR for urban–rural depression risk=0.07 (95% CI=0.04, 0.12)
		Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender
		High methodological quality (score=17)
Friedman et al., 2007 ⁹	Depression measure: Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview (information on threshold score not provided)	Depression prevalence higher in urban group.
Country: U.S.	Urban: Address classified as being in Metropolitan Statistical Area by U.S. Census Bureau	Urban depression prevalence=14.8%
Economy: Developed	Rural: Address classified as being in Non-Metropolitan Statistical Area by U.S. Census Bureau	Rural depression prevalence=8.3%
N: 926		Unadjusted OR=1.91 (95% CI=1.18, 3.08)
Age range: 65+		AOR for urban-rural depression risk=8.33 (95% CI=2.63, 25.0)
		Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, marital status, income, financial strain, physical limitations, health status, chronic conditions, anxiety symptoms, obesity status, widowhood, supplemental health insurance, past year ambulatory procedure, ≥ 2 emergency room visits in past 6 months, ≤ 1 close friends

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

		<p>Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Financial strain (AOR=1.50, 95% CI=1.01, 2.23) - ≤1 close friends (AOR=6.86, 95% CI=2.18, 21.58) - ≥2 emergency room visits in past 6 months (AOR=4.00, 95% CI=1.19, 13.43) - Physical limitations (AOR=1.08, 95% CI=1.01, 1.14) <p>High methodological quality (score=14)</p>
<p>Guerra et al., 2009¹⁰</p> <p>Country: Peru, Mexico, Venezuela</p> <p>Economy: Developing</p> <p>N: 5,886</p> <p>Age range: 65+</p>	<p>Depression measure: Geriatric Mental State, structured clinical interview (information on threshold score not provided)</p> <p>Urban:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Peru: Two districts in the city of Lima - Mexico: Six districts in the suburb of Tlalpan, south of Mexico City - Venezuela: One district in the southwest of the city of Caracas <p>Rural:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Peru: Six districts in the coastal province of Canete - Mexico: Nine villages in the north of the mountainous state of Morelos 	<p>Depression prevalence higher in urban group.</p> <p>Urban depression prevalence (pooled)=2.3%</p> <p>Rural depression prevalence(pooled)=1.4%</p> <p>Unadjusted OR=1.71 (95% CI=1.05, 2.71)</p> <p>Moderate methodological quality (score=12)</p>
<p>Kim et al., 2002¹¹</p> <p>Country: South Korea</p>	<p>Depression measure: Geriatric Depression Scale, Korean Form (threshold score ≥14)</p>	<p>No statistically significant difference in depression prevalence between urban and rural groups.</p> <p>Urban depression prevalence=32.8%</p>

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Economy: Developing	Urban: Residents of Songjeong, Kwangju, a city with a total of 9,866 inhabitants in an area of 17.3 square kilometers	Rural depression prevalence=33.3%
N: 1,134	Rural: Residents of Samto, Kwangju, area with a total of 4,120 inhabitants in an area of 38.3 square kilometers	Unadjusted OR=0.98 (95% CI=0.76, 1.26)
Age range: 65+		AOR for urban–rural depression risk=1.84 (95% CI=1.20, 2.83)
		Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender, marital status, education, housing, unemployment, disability, social support, religion, past manual occupation
		Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Older age (AOR=1.26, 95% CI=1.04, 1.52) - Past manual occupation (AOR=1.79, 95% CI=1.13, 2.83) - Renting housing (AOR=2.14, 95% CI=1.30, 3.53)
		Moderate methodological quality (score=11)
Kim et al., 2004 ¹²	Depression measure: Geriatric Mental State Schedule (information on threshold score not provided)	Depression prevalence higher in urban group.
Country: South Korea		Urban depression prevalence=21.0%
Economy: Developing	Urban: Residents of Songjeong, Kwangju, a city with a total of 9,866 inhabitants in an area of 17.3 square kilometers	Rural depression prevalence=8.6%
N: 1,204	Rural: Residents of Samto, Kwangju, area with a total of 4,120 inhabitants in an area of 38.3 square kilometers	Unadjusted OR=2.68 (95% CI=1.90, 3.78)
Age range: 65+		AOR for urban-rural depression risk=1.84 (95% CI=1.20-2.83)
		Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender, marital status, education, housing, unemployment, disability,

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

		social support, religion, living alone, seeing friends less than monthly, having no close friends, seeing neighbors less than monthly
		Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Older age (AOR=1.40, 95% CI=1.08, 1.81) - Female gender (AOR=1.99, 95% CI=1.02, 3.86)
		Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Seeing friends less than monthly ($p=0.042$)* - Having no close friends ($p=0.027$)*
		*Significance of variable \times rural residence interaction term; information on AORs not provided.
		Moderate methodological quality (score=13)
Ma et al., 2008 ¹³	Depression measure: Composite International Diagnostic Interview (CIDI 1.0) (information on threshold score not provided)	Depression prevalence higher in rural group.
Country: China		Urban depression prevalence=2.6%
Economy: Developing	Urban: Not specified	Rural depression prevalence=8.4%
N: 1,601	Rural: Not specified	Unadjusted OR=0.29 (95% CI=0.18, 0.47)
Age range: 60+		AOR for urban-rural depression risk=0.33 (95% CI=0.16, 0.69)
		Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender, marital status, income, education, housing, major medical conditions
		High methodological quality (score=14)

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Mechakra-Tahiri et al., 2009 ¹⁴	Depression measure: ESA Diagnostic Questionnaire(ESA-Q) (threshold score ≥ 2)	No statistically significant difference in depression prevalence between urban and rural groups.
Country: Canada	Urban: Quebec province address designated urban by Institut de la Statistique du Quebec	Urban depression prevalence=15.1%
Economy: Developed	Rural: Quebec province address designated rural by Institut de la Statistique du Quebec	Rural depression prevalence=17.0%
N: 1,471		Unadjusted OR=0.87 (95% CI=0.64, 1.18)
Age range: 65+		AOR for urban–rural depression risk=n/a
		Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender, income, self-rated health, chronic conditions
		Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - n/a
		Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Female gender (AOR=3.22, 95% CI=2.14, 4.86) - Chronic condition (AOR=1.30, 95% CI=1.04, 1.61) - Poor self-rated health (AOR=1.24, 95% CI=1.02, 1.51)
		Moderate methodological quality (score=13)
Schulman et al., 2002 ¹⁵	Depression measure: Geriatric Depression Scale (GSD-30) (threshold score ≥ 11)	Depression prevalence higher in urban group.
Country: U.S.	Urban: Residents of a city with a population >250,000, classified by U.S. Census Bureau definition	Urban depression prevalence=54.3%
		Rural depression prevalence=21.9%

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Economy: Developed N: 118 Age range: 65+	Rural: Residents of an area “outside of incorporated areas” with a population ≥2,500, classified by U.S. Census Bureau definition	Unadjusted OR=4.29 (95% CI= 1.84, 9.99) AOR for urban–rural depression risk=3.8 (95% CI=1.5, 10.1) Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Assistance in activities of daily living, living arrangement High methodological quality (score=15)
Sengupta et al., 2015 ¹⁶ Country: India Economy: Developing N: 3,038 Age range: 60+	Depression measure: Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥5) Urban: Not specified Rural: Not specified	Depression prevalence higher in urban group. Urban depression prevalence=10.1% Rural depression prevalence=7.3% Unadjusted OR=1.42 (95% CI=1.09, 1.85) AOR for urban–rural depression risk=1.67 (95% CI=1.21, 2.29) Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender, marital status, income, education, functional impairment, type of family, occupation, cognitive impairment High methodological quality (score=14)
St John et al., 2006 ¹⁷ Country: Canada	Depression measure: Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression scale (CES-D) (threshold score ≥16)	No statistically significant difference in depression prevalence between urban and rural groups. Urban depression prevalence=11.6% Rural depression prevalence=9.0%

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Economy: Developed	Urban: Resident of urban area (population >19,999) defined by Canadian Beale codes	Unadjusted OR=1.32 (95% CI=0.84, 2.09)
N: 1,132		AOR for urban–rural depression risk=n/a
Age range: 65+	Rural: Resident of rural area (population <2,500) defined by Canadian Beale codes	Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender, education, living arrangement, financial strain, self-rated health, functional impairment, number of companions
		Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Self-rated health (AOR=3.39, 95% CI=2.06, 5.56)
		Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models: - Living alone (AOR=3.40, 95% CI=1.25, 9.26) - Financial strain (AOR=3.64, 95% CI=1.32, 10.08)
		High methodological quality (score=16)
Walters et al., 2004 ¹⁸	Depression measure: Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥6)	Depression prevalence higher in urban group.
Country: Great Britain	Urban: ZIP code with highest density quartile (≥2,467 people/km)	Urban depression prevalence=9.5%
		Rural depression prevalence=7.0%
Economy: Developed	Rural: ZIP code with lowest density quartile (0–355 people/km)	Unadjusted OR=1.40 (95% CI=1.16, 1.69)
N: 6,178		AOR for urban–rural depression risk=1.61 (95% CI=1.20, 2.17)
Age range: 75+		

Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models: Age, gender, financial strain, housing, physical symptoms, unmet needs in activity of daily living, living alone, impaired cognition

High methodological quality (score=15)

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Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

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Appendix
Urban–Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Comparative Studies
Purtle et al.

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October 27, 2018

Matthew L. Boulton, MD, MPH,
Editor-in-Chief
William Wadland, MD, MS
Deputy Editor

Dear Drs. Boulton and Wadland:

We hereby submit for consideration as a Review Article in the *American Journal of Preventive Medicine* a revision our manuscript entitled “Urban-Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Comparative Studies” (#18-0205-0143R) by Jonathan Purtle, Katherine L. Nelson, Yong Yang, Brent Langellier, Ivana Stankov, and Ana V. Diez Roux.

A point-by-point response to each of the reviewer comments is provided below.

The manuscript has been submitted solely to the *American Journal of Preventive Medicine* and it has not been previously published, either in whole or in part, nor have the findings been posted online. I have full access to all aspects of the research and writing process, and take final responsibility for the paper.

Thank you for considering our manuscript.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Jonathan Purtle'.

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Response to Review

18-0205-0143R: Urban-Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Comparative Studies

Reviewer #2:

I appreciated the attempts to streamline the paper and tighten arguments, which I believe have strengthened the manuscript. I have the remaining suggestions for further clarification or improvement.

R.2.1. P. 7, lines 84-85: Can the authors elaborate on how spatial characteristics of cities differ in countries with developed versus developed economies, and in turn affect depression levels?

Response: We have revised this statement so that it is more specific and concrete. The new sentence appears on line 84 and reads: “Residents of urban areas in developed counties are likely to have access to public transportation, whereas residents of urban areas in developing counties might not have such access and rely on walking as their primary mode of transit.”^{64,65}

R.2.2. P. 8: With regarding to the aims, the authors should develop hypotheses from the literature review on the expected relationships, particularly with regard to aim 3.

Response: The study was exploratory and we did not begin the study with *a priori* hypothesis and do not feel that it is appropriate to develop and state hypotheses after the results are known. However, we believe that the results of the study inform the development of hypotheses that can be tested in future research. We have revised the Discussion section of manuscript to explicitly identify two of these hypotheses.

The first appears on line 298 and reads: “Future research in countries other than China that have rapidly developing economies and are experiencing major trends in rural-urban migration (e.g., India, Nigeria)¹ should test the hypothesis that rural residence is associated with depression among older adults.”

The second appears on line 312 and reads: “For example, a significant interaction was identified between social isolation, rural residence, and depression in five studies^{75,83,85,86,91} and future research should test the hypothesis that social isolation meditates the relationship between rural residence and depression in counties with developing economies.”



R.2.3. (Reviewer Comment R3.2) I agree with this reviewer that some adjustment for clustering should be made in the pooled models (paragraph in lines 169-173). The current manuscript contains little detail on the methods used.

Response: We re-ran the pooled analyses using random-effects meta analyses to address this comment. We have revised the Methods section to detail how and why we did this. This new text reads: “Using data on the number of depressed and non-depressed older adults in the urban and rural populations of each study, random-effects meta-analysis was conducted using the “metan” command in Stata 17 to produce weighted pooled odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) estimating the association between urban-rural residence and depression. A random effects model was used because the characteristics of urban and rural environments and study populations were assumed to vary substantially between studies and because I^2 statistics demonstrated high heterogeneity between studies (i.e., >75%).⁷² Weighted pooled odds ratios were produced for all studies together and also separately for studies conducted in countries with developed and developing economies, based on United Nations’ World Economic Situation and Prospects classifications.⁷³ Forest plots were created to display results.”

We have updated the text and pooled odds ratios throughout the entire manuscript and Figures to reflect this change.

Reviewer #3:

R.3.1. Most of the issues that (the numerous) reviewers made have been addressed. On a minor note, there are some small wording issues (e.g., Great Britain instead of UK) which the authors may want to change.

Response: We have retained the word “Great Britain” because it is the word that the authors use in the study we cite [Walters K, Breeze E, Wilkinson P, Price GM, Bulpitt CJ, Fletcher A. Local area deprivation and urban-rural differences in anxiety and depression among people older than 75 years in Britain. *American Journal of Public Health*. 2004;94(10):1768-1774]. The study does not name the specific regions of Great Britain (e.g., England, Scotland, or Wales) where the study took place. We are hesitant to change the wording to “United Kingdom” because it typically implies inclusion of Northern Ireland, whereas Great Britain does not.

Urban-Rural Differences in Older Adult Depression: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Comparative Studies

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ABSTRACT

Context: Depression among older adults (\geq age 60) is a problem that could be exacerbated by global trends in urbanization and population aging. The study purpose was to assess whether urban, relative to rural, residence is associated with depression among older adults and whether associations differ in countries with developed versus developing economies.

Evidence Acquisition: In 2017, we identified and extracted information from comparative studies of urban-rural depression prevalence among older adults. Studies were identified in PubMed, PsychINFO, and Web of Science and limited to English language articles published after 1985. Eighteen studies met inclusion criteria. Random effects meta-analysis was conducted to produce weighted pooled odds ratios (ORs) estimating the association between urban-rural residence and depression for all study participants (N=31,598) and sub-analyses were conducted for developed (n=12,728) and developing (n=18,870) countries.

Evidence Synthesis: Depression prevalence was significantly higher among urban residents in ten studies and significantly higher among rural residents in three studies (all three conducted in China). Associations between urban-rural residence and depression generally remained significant after adjusting for covariates. In developed countries, the odds of depression were significantly higher among urban than rural residents (pooled OR=1.44, 95% CI=1.10, 1.88). However, in developing countries, this association was not observed (pooled OR=0.91, 95% CI=0.46, 1.77).

Conclusions: Converging trends of urbanization and population aging could increase the global burden of depression among older adults. The pathways through which urban-rural residence influences depression risk among older adults might differ by county context. Future research should focus on measuring variation in these contexts.

KEYWORDS

Depression, older adults, urban, rural, systematic review, meta-analysis

1 **CONTEXT**

2 Human longevity is increasing and the demographic composition of societies is aging. Between
3 2015 and 2050, global life expectancy at birth is projected to increase from 70 to 77 years.¹ By
4 2050, the proportion of the world's population over age 60 is projected to double and the
5 proportion over age 80 is projected to triple.^{2,3} In Europe, the proportion of the population over
6 age 60 is expected to increase from 24% to 34% between 2015 and 2050. Increasing trends are
7 also expected in Latin America (from 11% to 26%), North America (from 21% to 28%), and
8 Asia (from 12% to 25%).³ These increases in longevity pose challenges for policymakers as they
9 are forced to address the implications of population aging within the context of other societal
10 changes. As Beard and Bloom describe, "Population ageing is not taking place in isolation. Other
11 broad social changes are transforming society... Understanding the interplay between these
12 trends is crucial if policymakers are to make the best decisions to promote the health and
13 wellbeing of older people."⁴ (p.659)

14
15 Urbanization and urban migration are social changes that are important to understand within the
16 context of population aging. The proportion of the world's population living in cities increased
17 from 43% to 54% between 1990 and 2014 and is projected to increase to 66% by 2050.¹ Rates of
18 urbanization are accelerating fastest in countries with developing economies. For example,
19 between 2014 and 2050, the proportion of people living in cities is projected to increase from
20 40% to 56% in Africa and from 48% to 66% in Asia, compared with increases from 73% to 82%
21 in Europe and 80% to 86% in North America.¹ As trends in population aging, urbanization, and
22 urban migration converge, there is an increasing need for evidence about how urban contexts can
23 maximize the health benefits, and minimize the health risks, of cities for older adults.⁵⁻⁸

24

25 While urban-rural differences in the *physical health* of older adults have been the focus of
26 numerous initiatives,⁵⁻⁸ questions regarding how city living influences the mental health of older
27 adults have received less attention. Such questions are important because the risk and protective
28 factors for mental health conditions change as people age.⁹ Moreover, a substantive body of
29 research suggests that urban residence increases risk for mental health conditions and that rates
30 of mental health conditions are generally higher in urban than rural areas.¹⁰⁻¹⁶

31

32 However, the dynamics through which urban residence influences mental health are complex and
33 likely to vary for different mental health conditions, populations, and country contexts.^{10,17}

34 Depression is one mental health condition for which the social and physical characteristics of
35 cities could increase the risk for, or be protective against, depression among older adults.

36

37 **Depression among Older Adults**

38 Systematic reviews and meta-analyses estimate that the global prevalence of major depressive
39 disorder (MDD) is in the range of 1 to 5% among adults age ≥ 65 .¹⁸⁻²⁴ Global estimates of the
40 prevalence of clinically significant depressive symptoms (CSDS), which do not meet the full
41 criteria for MDD, among adults age ≥ 65 hover around 15%.^{18,23,25-27}

42

43 Although the prevalence of MDD and CSDS among older adults are similar to that of middle-
44 aged adults, depression among older adults has widely been recognized as a public health
45 priority for at least two reasons.^{27,28} First, the consequences of depression are more severe
46 among older adults than among their middle-aged counterparts. In addition to adversely affecting

47 quality of life, depression among older adults substantially increases risk for myriad adverse
48 outcomes—including physical health problems, suicide, mortality, and reduced physical,
49 cognitive, and social functioning.^{18,20,27,29-34} For example, the association between MDD and
50 suicide is stronger among older adults than any other age group¹⁸ and at least eight prospective
51 studies have found that CSDS increases risk for subsequent physical limitations.²⁷

52
53 Second, depression is potentially more preventable among older adults than their younger
54 counterparts. Approximately half of cases of MDD among older adults are new cases
55 experienced by people who never had MDD earlier in life.^{18,35,36} These older adults are also less
56 likely to have a family history of depression.^{18,37} This suggests that depression among older
57 adults is less influenced by inherited genetic factors and more influenced by social and
58 environmental factors.⁹

59

60 **The Potential Importance of Urban Versus Rural Residence**

61 An integration of findings from the fields of geriatric psychiatry and urban health reveals
62 numerous pathways through which features of cities could increase depression risk among older
63 adults or, alternatively, be protective against depression. For example, urban environments could
64 increase depression risk via disrupted sleep. Poor sleep is one of the strongest risk factors for
65 depression among older adults^{38,39} and could be exacerbated by urban environments because
66 excessive exposure to artificial light at night is more prevalent in urban than rural areas and
67 disrupts sleep quality.^{10,40-43} Urban residence could also increase depression risk via direct and
68 indirect exposure to neighborhood crime. Negative perceptions of neighborhood safety are strong

69 risk factors for depression among older adults⁴⁴⁻⁴⁸ and violent crime rates are generally higher in
70 urban than rural areas.⁴⁹

71

72 Alternatively, some features of urban environments could reduce depression risk among older
73 adults. For example, physical inactivity⁵⁰⁻⁵⁵ and social isolation^{18,23,56} are strong risk factors for
74 depression among older adults. Public transportation networks and walkable streetscapes, which
75 are generally both more robust in urban than rural areas, could reduce these risk factors by
76 facilitating physical activity, active transport, and social connectivity.^{51,57-62}

77

78 **Potential Differences between Countries with Developed versus Developing Economies**

79 It is plausible that the direction of an association between urban-rural residence and depression
80 differs in countries with developed versus developing economies because the characteristics of
81 urban and rural environments **might vary** across these contexts. For example, residents of rural
82 areas in developed countries are likely to have some access to mental health services, while
83 residents of rural areas in developing countries might have no access because services are
84 exclusively concentrated in urban areas.⁶³ **Residents of urban areas in developed countries are**

85 **likely to have access to public transportation, whereas residents of urban areas in developing**
86 **countries might not have such access and rely on walking as their primary mode of transit.**^{64,65}

87 The importance of country context when considering the pathways through which urban and
88 rural environments influence mental health is highlighted by a 2018 study of 42 low- and
89 middle-income countries which found no association between urban (versus rural) residence and
90 psychosis—a finding contrary to the well-established relationships between urban residence and
91 psychosis that is typically observed in high-income countries.¹⁷ **This and other findings have**

92 promoted calls for greater examination of how the influence of urban and rural environments on
93 mental health might vary between country contexts.⁶⁶

94

95 **Study Purpose**

96 Reviews have examined various aspects of depression among older adults and identified
97 individual and neighborhood-level risk and protective factors.^{23,25-27,30,32,38,44,50,67-70} However,
98 with the exception of one meta-analysis of studies in China published nearly 20 years ago,⁷¹
99 evidence of the association between urban-rural residence and depression among older adults has
100 not been systematically assessed or integrated. The purpose of this study was to address this
101 knowledge gap and provide directions for future research. A systematic review and meta-
102 analysis was conducted of comparative studies focused on urban-rural differences in depression
103 (including both MDD and CSDS) among older adults \geq age 60. The specific aims were to:

- 104 1. Assess whether urban versus rural residence is associated with depression among older
105 adults;
- 106 2. Identify factors that are significantly associated with depression among urban but not rural
107 older adults, and vice versa; and
- 108 3. Assess whether the association between urban-rural residence and depression differs between
109 developed and developing countries.

110

111 **EVIDENCE ACQUISITION**

112 **Search Strategy**

113 We conducted our review in accordance with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic
114 Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines. In July 2017, we searched PubMed,

115 PsychINFO, and Web of Science for articles that mentioned any of the following combinations
116 of terms in the title, abstract, or keywords: [“depression” OR “depressive”] AND [“elderly” OR
117 “older adult” OR “late life”] AND [“urban” OR “city” OR “cities” OR “metropolitan” OR
118 “urbanization”] AND [“rural” OR “countryside.”] The selection of these terms was informed by
119 those used in prior reviews of depression among older adults^{23,25-27,30,32,38,44,50,67-71} and urban-
120 rural differences in mental health.¹⁰⁻¹⁶ The search was limited to articles published in English
121 since 1985. After removing duplicates, this search identified 170 articles that were screened for
122 inclusion (Figure 1).

123

124 **Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria**

125 Two authors (JP, KN) read the abstracts of the 170 articles and screened for inclusion. Articles
126 were included if they assessed urban-rural differences in MDD and/or CSDS among older adults
127 ≥ 60 years. Studies that focused only on urban or rural populations, without considering urban-
128 rural differences, were excluded. Moreover, non-empirical articles (e.g., commentaries),
129 exclusively qualitative studies and studies limited to clinical interventions, institutionalized
130 populations, or caregivers of older adults were excluded.

131

132 Thirty-nine articles met screening criteria. The full texts of these articles were obtained,
133 reviewed by the two coders, and excluded if they did not meet screening criteria or did not
134 present data on the prevalence of MDD or CSDS among adults age ≥ 60 stratified by urban-rural
135 residence. When articles met all inclusion criteria but did not present information on urban-rural
136 differences in depression prevalence (n=2), the study’s authors were contacted and the article

137 was included if the information could be obtained (n=1). This process resulted in 18 articles that
138 were included in the meta-analysis.

139

140 **Data Extraction, Quality Assessment, and Analysis**

141 For each article, information was extracted on the characteristics of study participants (e.g., age,
142 country), instruments and scoring thresholds used to assess depression, definitions of urban-rural
143 residence, and sample size. When available in studies that used multivariable regression, we
144 extracted information on the adjusted odds ratio (AOR) of urban-rural depression prevalence and
145 the variables that were adjusted for in the final model. We also extracted information on
146 variables that were significantly associated with depression risk among urban but not rural older
147 adults, and vice versa.

148

149 We assessed the methodological quality of each study on nine domains using a quality
150 assessment instrument (Appendix A) adapted from Luppia and colleagues' review of depression
151 prevalence among older adults.⁶⁹ Two authors (JP, KN) independently reviewed the 18 studies
152 and each domain was scored as 2 if criteria were fully met, 1 if partially met, and 0 if not met.
153 We then calculated an aggregate quality score for each study. Studies in the >75th percentile
154 (score ≥ 14) were coded a "high quality," those in the 50th to 75th percentile ($9 \leq \text{score} \leq 13$) were
155 coded as "moderate quality," and those in the <50th percentile (score ≤ 8) were coded as "low
156 quality."

157

158 Using the definitions of depression and urban-rural residence from each study, information on
159 the number of depressed and non-depressed older adults in the urban and rural populations,

160 respectively, were extracted. Outcomes of MDD and CSDS were combined because there were
161 substantial differences in how these two outcomes were operationalized across studies and
162 because our aims were focused on assessing the relative association between urban-rural
163 residence and depression among older adults—not on estimating depression prevalence in urban
164 and rural areas.

165
166 Using data on the number of depressed and non-depressed older adults in the urban and rural
167 populations of each study, random effects meta-analysis was conducted using the “metan”
168 command in Stata 17 to produce weighted pooled odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence
169 intervals (CIs) estimating the association between urban-rural residence and depression. A
170 random effects model was used because the characteristics of urban and rural environments and
171 study populations were assumed to vary substantially between studies and because I^2 statistics
172 demonstrated high heterogeneity between studies (i.e., >75%).⁷² Weighted pooled odds ratios
173 were produced for all studies together and also separately for studies conducted in countries with
174 developed and developing economies, based on United Nations’ World Economic Situation and
175 Prospects classifications.⁷³ Forest plots were created to display results.

176
177 To conduct sensitivity analysis, we systematically assessed the influence of each study on the
178 pooled results by producing weighted pooled ORs without each individual study. This was
179 carried out for all studies together and separately for countries with developed versus developing
180 economies. To assess publication bias, we created funnel plots and conducted Egger’s tests.⁷⁴

181

182

183 **EVIDENCE SYNTHESIS**

184 **Study Characteristics**

185 The table in Appendix 2 summarizes the characteristics, methodological quality, and results of
186 the 18 studies.⁷⁵⁻⁹² Nine studies were conducted in developed countries (Japan, United States,
187 Sweden, Italy, Canada, Great Britain) and nine were conducted in developing countries (Iran,
188 China, Taiwan, Peru, Mexico, Venezuela, South Korea, India). Study sample size ranged from
189 86 to 6,178 and the median sample size was 1,169.

190
191 Seven studies were coded as high quality, eight were moderate quality, and three were low
192 quality. The quality of studies was similar for those conducted in developed and developing
193 countries. There were substantial differences in how depression outcomes and urban-rural
194 residence were operationalized across studies. Six different instruments were used to assess
195 depression. The 15-item Geriatric Depression Scale was used most frequently (six studies), but
196 five different scoring thresholds were used with the scale to classify older adults as having CSDS
197 (threshold range ≥ 5 , ≥ 9). Five studies used the addresses of study participants and national
198 urban-rural classification systems (e.g., U.S. Census Bureau definitions, Chinese Hukou System
199 designations) to classify participants as urban-rural and four included information about the
200 population density of urban- rural classifications.

201

202 **Unadjusted Associations from Individual Studies**

203 The study prevalence of depression was significantly higher among urban residents in ten
204 studies, significantly higher among rural residents in three studies, and there was no significant
205 difference between the urban and rural residents in five studies. All studies in which depression

206 was significantly higher among rural residents were conducted in China, which was classified as
207 a developing country. The strength of the association between urban-rural residence and
208 depression varied dramatically between studies. Among individual studies conducted in
209 developed countries, the unadjusted OR of depression between urban and rural (referent)
210 residents ranged from 0.72 (95% CI=0.45, 1.15)⁷⁸ to 4.29 (95% CI=1.84, 9.99).⁸⁹ Among
211 individual studies conducted in developing countries, the ORs ranged from 0.09 (95% CI=0.06,
212 0.15)⁸² to 16.36 (95 % CI=2.19, 122.28).⁷⁶

213

214 **Pooled Analyses**

215 When the results of all eighteen studies were pooled (N=31,598), the study prevalence of
216 depression was not significantly different between urban (10.2%) and rural (10.7%) residents (χ^2
217 $p=.168$). The pooled OR from random effects meta-analysis was 1.18 (95% CI=0.84, 1.65). I^2
218 was 93.4% ($\chi^2 p<.001$), indicating high heterogeneity between studies. A funnel plot (Figure 2)
219 demonstrates that studies fall on both sides of zero with moderate symmetry, suggesting the
220 absence of major publication bias. Egger's test suggested that there was no significant small
221 studies effect (Egger's test $p=.356$). In sensitivity analysis that assessed influence of individual
222 studies, pooled ORs ranged from 1.10 (95% CI=0.78, 1.56) to 1.32 (95% CI=1.01, 1.74).

223

224 When the results of all studies conducted in *developed countries* were pooled (n=12,728), the
225 study prevalence of depression was significantly higher among urban (16.0%) than rural (11.8%)
226 residents ($\chi^2 p<.0001$). The pooled OR from random effects meta-analysis was 1.44 (95%
227 CI=1.10, 1.88) with high heterogeneity between studies ($I^2=75.3%$, $\chi^2 p<.001$) (Figure 3). In

228 sensitivity analysis, pooled ORs for developed countries ranged from 1.32 (95% CI=1.03, 1.68)
229 to 1.56 (95% CI=1.18, 2.07).

230

231 When the results of all studies conducted in *developing countries* were pooled (n=18,870), the
232 study prevalence of depression was significantly lower among urban (7.5%) than rural (9.6%)
233 residents ($\chi^2 p<.000$). The pooled OR from random effects meta-analysis was 0.91 (95%
234 CI=0.46, 1.77) with high heterogeneity ($I^2=96.2\%$, $\chi^2 p<.001$) (Figure 4). In sensitivity analysis,
235 pooled ORs for developing countries ranged from 0.76 (95% CI=0.38, 1.50) to 1.17 (95%
236 CI=0.69, 1.99).

237

238 **Adjusted Associations from Individual Studies**

239 Nine studies conducted multivariable regression and presented AORs of the association between
240 urban residence and depression.^{82,83,85-87,89-92} The variables most frequently included in these
241 models were age (seven studies), gender (six studies), marital status/widowhood (six studies),
242 functional impairment/disability (five studies), education (four studies), income/financial strain
243 (four studies), and housing (four studies). The magnitude, direction, and significance of
244 unadjusted and adjusted ORs were similar in most studies. For example, in Walters and
245 colleagues⁹² study of older adults in Great Britain, the odds of depression among urban versus
246 rural residents only increased from 1.40 (95% CI=1.16, 1.69) to 1.61 (95% CI=1.20, 2.17) after
247 adjusting for age, gender, financial strain, housing, physical symptoms, unmet needs in activity
248 of daily living, living alone, impaired cognition.

249

250 Eight studies examined interactions between urban-rural residence and factors associated with
251 depression (i.e., identified factors associated with depression risk among urban but not rural
252 older adults, and vice versa).^{75,78,81,83,85,86,88,91} In five of these studies, interactions between rural
253 residence and factors related to social isolation (e.g., living alone, not having any close friends)
254 were present in which isolation-related factors were independently and significantly associated
255 with depression among rural, but not the urban, residents.^{75,83,85,86,91} For example, after adjusting
256 for covariates, Abe and colleagues'⁷⁵ study of older adults in Japan found that the odds of
257 depression were 1.28 times higher among older adults with poor social support in rural areas,
258 while the association between social support and depression was not significant among those
259 residing in urban areas. Associations between social isolation and depression among rural older
260 adults were identified in studies conducted in developed^{75,83,91} as well as developing^{85,86}
261 countries. Results were mixed for other known risk factors for depression among older adults
262 (e.g., poor physical health, financial stress, female gender),

263

264 **DISCUSSION**

265 Considered holistically, the results of this review and meta-analysis suggest that urban residence
266 might increase depression risk among older adults. Of the eighteen included studies, depression
267 prevalence was significantly higher among urban residents in ten studies and significantly higher
268 among rural residents in only three studies (all three conducted in China). Although the review
269 was not designed to elucidate the mechanisms through which urban-rural residence might
270 influence depression, the magnitude of unadjusted and adjusted ORs of urban-rural depression
271 were generally similar in the nine studies that controlled for potential confounders. This suggests

272 that urban and rural environments might have independent effects on depression risk among
273 older adults.

274
275 In the pooled sub-analysis of studies conducted in *developed* countries, we found that the odds of
276 depression were significantly higher among older adults residing in urban, as opposed to rural,
277 areas (OR=1.44, 95% CI=1.10, 1.88). This finding is very similar to the pooled results of Peen
278 and colleagues' meta-analysis of urban-rural differences of depression among people of all ages
279 in developed countries (OR=1.39, 95% CI=1.17, 1.64).¹⁶ In the pooled sub-analysis of studies
280 conducted in *developing* countries, however, we found that the odds of depression were **not**
281 **significantly higher** among older adults residing in urban than rural areas (OR=0.91, 95%
282 CI=0.46, 1.77). This finding is consistent with the results of Chen and colleagues' 1999 meta-
283 analysis of risk factors for depression among older adults in China⁷¹ and two more recent studies
284 conducted in China both found that symptom mean scores were significantly higher among rural
285 than urban residents.^{93,94}

286
287 The **finding that the odds of depression appear to be significantly lower among older adults in**
288 **rural than urban areas of** China could partially be the result of mass migration of older adults
289 with greater socioeconomic resources (i.e., lower depression risk) from rural to urban areas.^{93,95}
290 Li and colleagues found that the association between rural residence and depression among older
291 adults in China lost significance after adjusting for socioeconomic factors at household- and
292 community-levels.⁹³ It is also possible that the elevated prevalence of depression among older
293 adults in rural China could be the result of an "empty nest" trend in which the children of rural
294 older adults are leaving home to work in cities at an accelerated rate.⁹⁶ In a sample drawn from

295 older adult empty nest households in China,⁹⁴ Su and colleagues found that depression
296 symptoms scores were significantly higher for those in rural than urban areas.

297

298 Future research in countries other than China that have rapidly developing economies and are
299 experiencing major trends in rural-urban migration (e.g., India, Nigeria)¹ should test the
300 hypothesis that rural residence is associated with depression among older adults. Relatedly,

301 future research should integrate measures of urban-rural residence and depression into
302 longitudinal studies of older adults to examine how the age at which migration occurs might
303 affect depression risk. In their cross-sectional study of older adults in South Korea, Kim and
304 colleagues⁸⁶ retrospectively assessed past urban-rural residence via self-report and found that
305 depression prevalence was higher among those who moved from rural to urban areas between the
306 ages of 21 and 60 (20.3%), and after age 60 (25.5%) than those who lived in urban areas their
307 entire lives (19.3%).

308

309 Given the large heterogeneity in the magnitude of associations between urban-rural residence
310 and depression, additional research is needed to understand how social and economic factors
311 might interact with features of urban and rural environments to influence depression risk among
312 older adults. For example, a significant interaction was identified between social isolation, rural
313 residence, and depression in five studies^{75,83,85,86,91} and future research should test the hypothesis
314 that social isolation mediates the relationship between rural residence and depression in countries
315 with developing economies. Relatedly, more research is needed about how macro-level factors
316 that vary across countries (e.g., public transportation infrastructure, pensions, access to health

317 care services) might mediate and moderate associations between urban-rural residence and
318 depression.

319

320 **Limitations**

321 Our review and meta-analysis has seven main limitations. First, urban and rural residence was
322 not operationalized consistently between studies. Even within a single country, an inherent
323 challenge to reviews of urban-rural differences in health is the fact that various definitions of
324 urban and rural exist and are accepted—ranging from measures of population density to
325 algorithm-based definitions produced by government agencies.^{97,98} This challenge is exacerbated
326 in cross-national reviews because definitions of urban and rural vary dramatically between
327 countries.^{99,100} However, country definitions of urban are similar to standardized United Nations
328 definitions.¹⁷

329

330 Second, there are many different types of urban and rural areas (e.g., agriculture communities
331 versus indigenous communities in the case of rural) and our review did not assess these
332 distinctions. Third, our review was limited to comparative studies that presented data on the
333 prevalence of depression among both urban and rural older adults. We limited our review to
334 comparative studies because a wide range of depression instruments and scoring thresholds are
335 used in the literature and limiting our review to comparative studies, in which the same
336 instrument and scoring threshold were applied to both urban and rural groups, allowed us to
337 ensure that our pooled measures of association would not be biased by systematic differences in
338 how depression was measured between urban and rural groups. Our study was also limited to

339 English language peer-reviewed literature and did not include grey literature (e.g., government
340 reports).

341

342 Fourth, we did not differentiate between MDD and CSDS because there was substantial
343 differences in how these outcomes were operationalized across studies and because our aims
344 were focused on assessing the relative association between urban-rural residence and depression
345 among older adults—not estimating depression prevalence in urban and rural areas. Fifth, studies
346 included in our review were only conducted in six developed countries and eight developing
347 countries and the results are not representative of all developed or developing countries.

348

349 Sixth, the studies included in the review were published over a 26 year period and pooled results
350 might not reflect recent changes in urban and rural environments. For example, in the United
351 States, suicide rates are increasing at a faster pace in rural than urban countries and such a trend
352 could indicate that features of rural environments related to mental health are changing.¹⁰¹

353 Finally, it should be emphasized all 18 studies included in the review were cross-sectional and
354 only nine articles presented adjusted estimates of urban-rural depression risk. Thus, our results
355 demonstrate associations between urban-rural residence and depression among older adults but
356 should not be interpreted as implying causality.

357

358 **CONCLUSION**

359 Our review of comparative studies generally suggests that converging trends of urbanization,
360 urban migration, and population aging could increase the global burden of depression among
361 older adults. The heterogeneity of results between studies suggests that the nature of the

362 relationship between urban-rural residence and depression among older adults varies across
363 contexts. Future research is needed to identify the specific factors that moderate the impact of
364 urban living on depression and the most effective intervention strategies.

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633

634 FIGURE LEGEND

635 Figure 1. PRISMA Flow Diagram to Identify Comparative Studies of Urban-Rural Differences
636 in Depression among Older Adults

637 Figure 2. Funnel Plot of Urban-Rural Differences in Depression among Older Adults, 18 Studies

638 Figure 3. Odds of Depression among Urban Versus Rural Older Adults in Developed Countries

639 (n=12,728)

640 Figure 4. Odds of Depression among Urban Versus Rural Older Adults in Developing Countries

641 (n=18,870)

Figure 1.

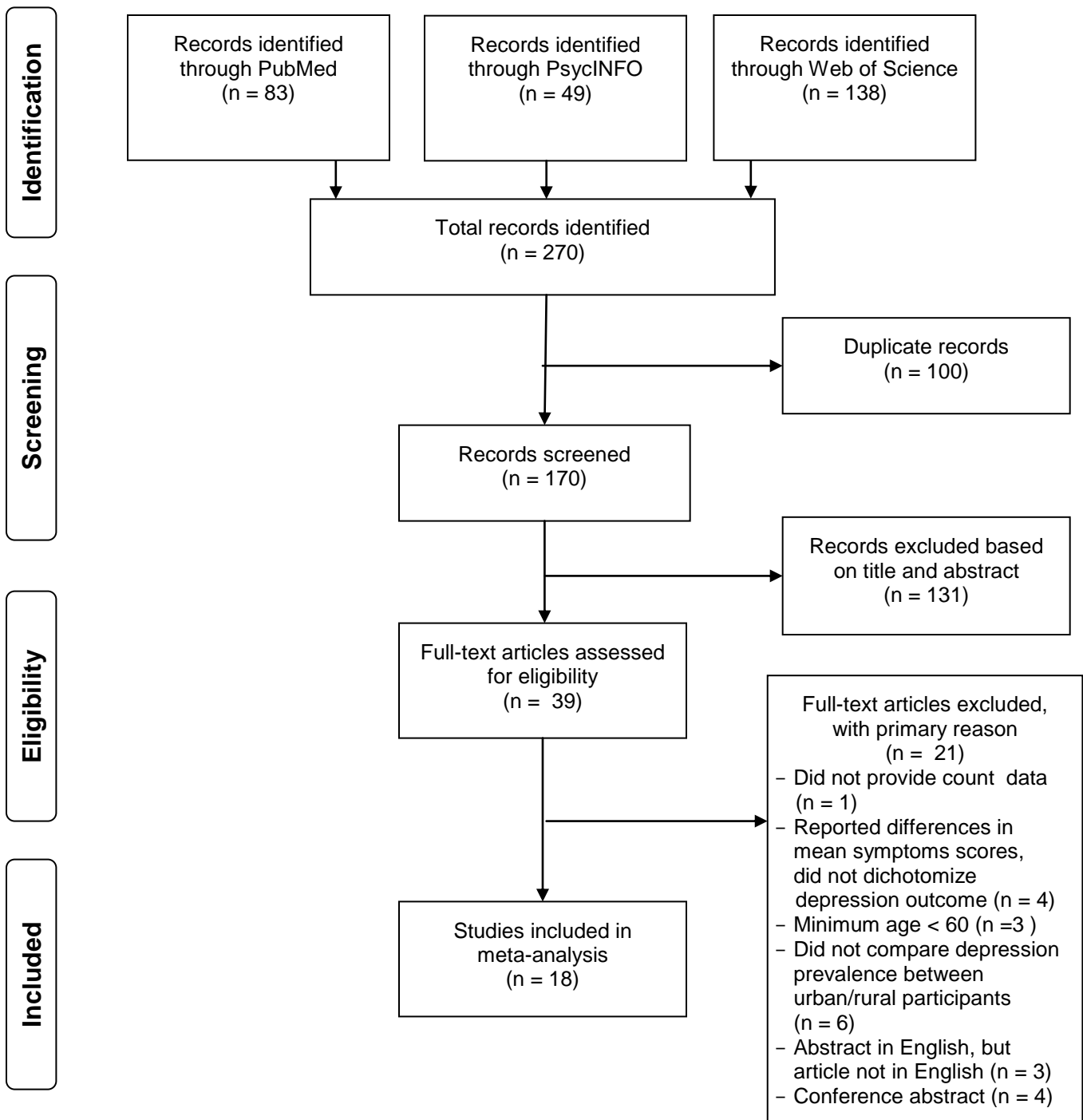
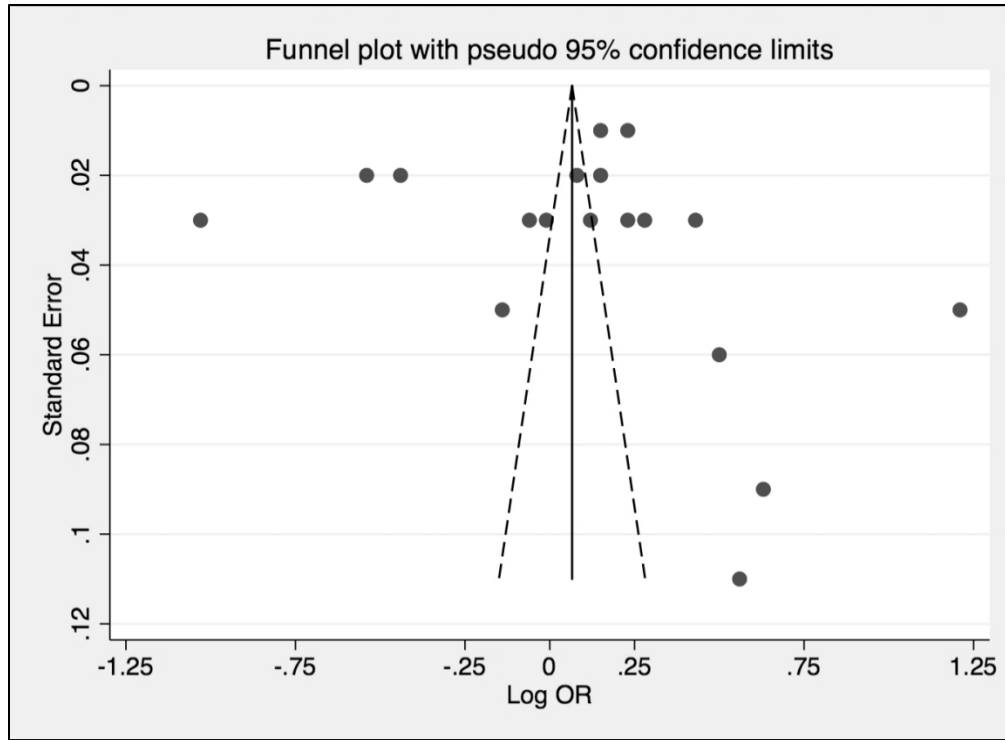
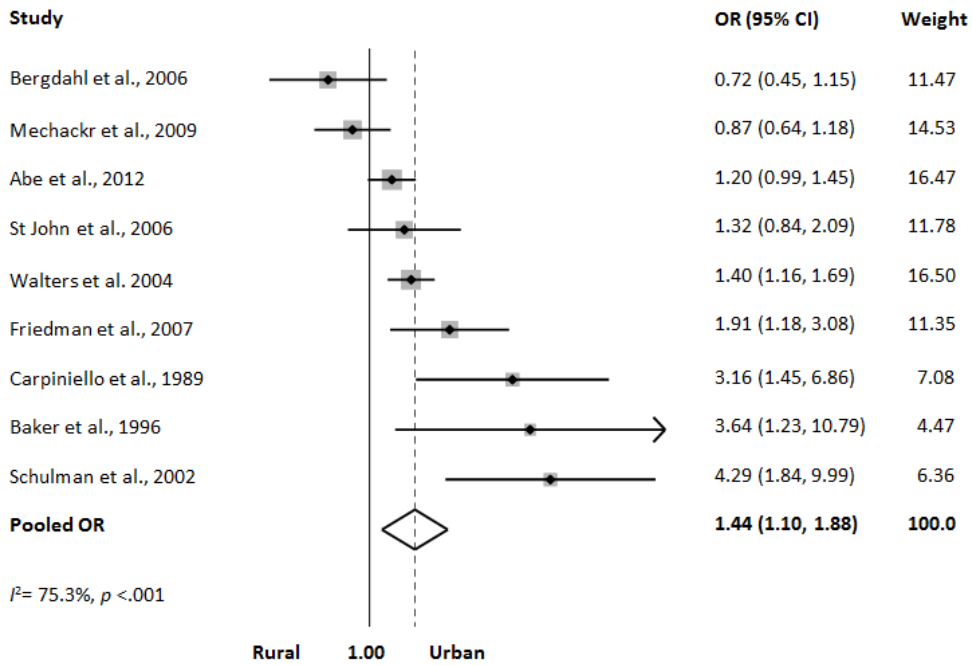


Figure 2.



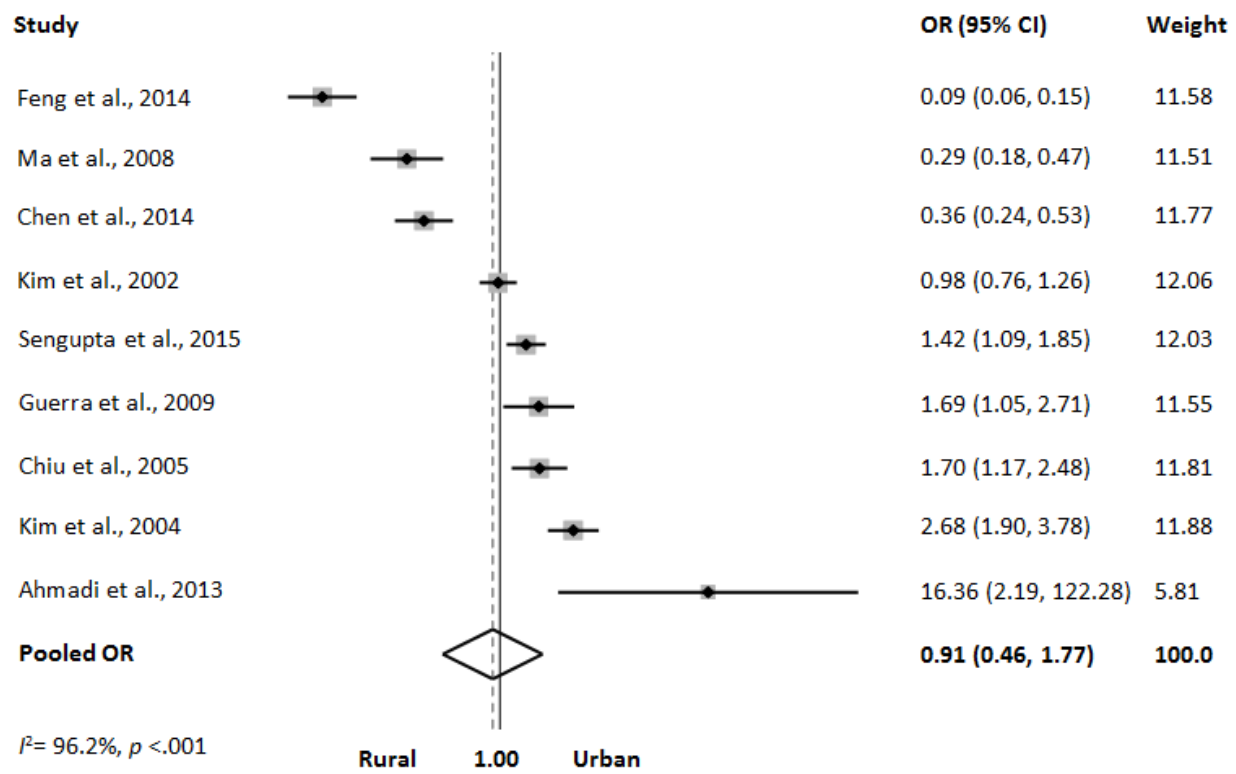
OR= odds ratio

Figure 3.



Weights are from random-effects model. OR= odds ratio, CI= confidence interval. Arrows indicate that the 95% CIs are truncated.

Figure 4.



Weights are from random-effects model. OR= odds ratio, CI= confidence interval.

Appendix A. Methodological Quality Assessment Instrument, Studies of Urban-Rural Differences in Depression among Older Adults

1. Socio-demographic characteristics are described (e.g., age, gender, education)
2. Parameters for classifying participants as urban or rural are clearly defined
 - 0= not defined
 - 1= subjectively defined (e.g., population density information provided, name of jurisdiction provided)
 - 2= defined according to government classification system
3. Study Inclusion and/or exclusion criteria are clearly described
4. Information about cognitive status of participants is provided and/or addressed in analysis
 - 2= explicitly excluded or addressed in analysis
5. Detailed description of methods and instruments is provided
6. Participation and response rates are adequate
 - No information provided or participation/response rate < 50%= 0 points
 - Response/participation rate between 50 and 75%= 1 point
 - Response/participation over 75%= 2 points
7. Adjusted associations between urban-rural residence and depression provided
8. Diagnostic procedure is described:
 - For MDD: valid instrument/criteria
 - For CSDS: valid cut-off score
9. The handling of missing values is described

Criterion was not met= 0 points Criterion was partially met= 1 point Criterion was fully met= 2 points
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Appendix B. Articles Included in Systematic Review of Urban-Rural Differences in Depression among Older Adults

Study Characteristics	Measures	Results
<p>Abe et al., 2012 [1]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> Japan</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developed</p> <p><u>N:</u> 2,152</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 65+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥ 6)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Kumamoto City, population of "about" 730,000, capital of Kumamoto Prefecture</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> Aso District, population of "about" 70,000, mountainous area of Kumamoto Prefecture</p>	<p>No statistically significant difference in depression prevalence between urban and rural groups</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence</u>= 28.2%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence</u>= 24.7%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR</u>= 1.20 (95% CI= 0.99, 1.45)</p> <p><u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk</u>= n/a</p> <p><u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender, medical history, sleep disturbance, morale, living alone, poor social support, financial strain, employment</p> <p><u>Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - Sleep disturbance (AOR= 1.48, 95% CI= 1.04, 2.10)</p> <p><u>Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - Poor social support (AOR= 1.28, 95% CI= 1.08, 1.52)</p> <p>Moderate methodological quality (score= 9)</p>
<p>Ahmadi et al., 2013 [2]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> Iran</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developing</p> <p><u>N:</u> 337</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 60+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥ 9)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Based on "regional municipality"</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> Based on "regional municipality"</p>	<p>Depression prevalence higher in urban group</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence</u>= 39.5%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence</u>= 3.6%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR</u>= 16.36 (95% CI= 2.19, 122.28)</p> <p>Moderate methodological quality (score= 10)</p>
<p>Baker et al., 1996 [3]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> United States</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developed</p> <p><u>N:</u> 86</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 60+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D) (threshold score ≥ 16)</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> one "rural" county in Tennessee</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> one "urban" county in Tennessee</p>	<p>Depression prevalence higher in urban group</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence</u>= 27.1%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence</u>= 12.5%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR</u>= 3.64 (95% CI= 1.23, 10.79)</p> <p>Moderate methodological quality (score= 11)</p>
<p>Bergdahl et al., 2006 [4]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> Sweden</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developed</p> <p><u>N:</u> 363</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 85+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥ 5 or anyone previously diagnosed with depression or receiving ongoing treatment with antidepressants)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Residents of a university city in northern Sweden with approximately 105,000 inhabitants covering an area of 2,316 square kilometers</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> Residents of five communities in the rural part of northern Sweden with a total of 24,523 inhabitants in an area of 27,507 square kilometers</p>	<p>No statistically significant difference in depression prevalence between urban and rural groups</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence</u>= 26.9%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence</u>= 33.9%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR</u>= 0.72 (95% CI= 0.45, 1.15)</p> <p><u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk</u>= n/a</p> <p><u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender, use of analgesics, experienced loneliness, heart failure, loss of a child, minimal nutritional assessment, not going outside independently</p> <p><u>Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - Loss of a child (AOR= 2.88, 95% CI= 1.15, 7.21) - Not going outdoors independently (AOR= 3.53, 95% CI= 1.43, 8.68)</p> <p><u>Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - Use of analgesics (AOR= 6.39, 95% CI= 1.05, 38.98)</p> <p>Moderate methodological quality (score= 11)</p>
<p>Carpiniello et al., 1989 [5]</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Beck Depression Inventory (information on threshold score not</p>	<p>Depression prevalence higher in urban group</p>

<p><u>Country:</u> Italy</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developed</p> <p><u>N:</u> 302</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 65+</p>	<p>provided)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Cagliari, 3rd district, Sardinia</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> Two 2 small villages (Ilbono and Ales) on the island of Sardinia</p>	<p><u>Urban depression prevalence</u>= 17.0%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence</u>= 6.0%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR</u>= 3.16 (95% CI= 1.45, 6.86)</p> <p>Low methodological quality (score= 8)</p>
<p>Chen et al., 2014 [6]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> China</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developing</p> <p><u>N:</u> 3,336</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 65+ (urban) 60+ (rural)</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Mental State Automated Geriatric Examination for Computer Assisted Taxonomy (GMS-AGECAT) (threshold score ≥ 3)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Yiming sub-district of Hefei city</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> 6 villages in Tangdian District of Yingshang County</p>	<p>Depression prevalence higher in rural group</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence</u>= 2.1%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence</u>= 5.7%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR</u>= 0.36 (95% CI= 0.24, 0.53)</p> <p>Low methodological quality (score= 8)</p>
<p>Chiu et al., 2005 [7]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> Taiwan</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developing</p> <p><u>N:</u> 1005</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 65+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥ 8)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Kaohsiung City, the second ranking metropolitan area in Taiwan</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> A town (San-Lin) one hour drive from Kaohsiung City</p>	<p>Depression prevalence higher in urban group</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence</u>= 20.1%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence</u>= 12.8%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR</u>= 1.70 (95% CI= 1.17, 2.48)</p> <p><u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk</u>= n/a</p> <p><u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender, marital status/widowhood, education, disability, chronic conditions, living alone</p> <p><u>Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - Chronic conditions (AOR= 1.76, 95% CI= 1.07, 2.90) - Living alone (AOR= 2.14, 95% CI= 1.05, 4.36)</p> <p><u>Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - Widowhood (AOR=5.69, 95% CI=2.42, 13.38)</p> <p>Low methodological quality (score= 7)</p>
<p>Feng et al., 2014 [8]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> China</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developing</p> <p><u>N:</u> 1329</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 60+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Mental State Schedule) (threshold score ≥ 3)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Address classified as urban (i.e., "non-farmer") in Hukou database</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> Address classified as rural (i.e., "farmer") in Hukou database</p>	<p>Depression prevalence higher in rural group</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence</u>= 2.8%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence</u>= 23.6%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR</u>= 0.09 (95% CI= 0.06, 0.15)</p> <p><u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk</u>= 0.07 (95% CI=0.04, 0.12)</p> <p><u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender</p> <p>High methodological quality (score= 17)</p>
<p>Friedman et al., 2007 [9]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> United States</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developed</p> <p><u>N:</u> 926</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 65+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview (information on threshold score not provided)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Address classified as being in Metropolitan Statistical Area by U.S. Census Bureau</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> Address classified as being in Non-Metropolitan Statistical Area by U.S. Census Bureau</p>	<p>Depression prevalence higher in urban group</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence</u>= 14.8%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence</u>= 8.3%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR</u>= 1.91 (95% CI= 1.18, 3.08)</p> <p><u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk</u>= 8.33 (95% CI= 2.63, 25.0)</p> <p><u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, marital status, income, financial strain, physical limitations, health status, chronic conditions, anxiety symptoms, obesity status, widowhood, supplemental health insurance, past year ambulatory procedure, ≥ 2 emergency room visits in past 6 months, ≤ 1 close friends</p> <p><u>Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - Financial strain (AOR= 1.50, 95% CI= 1.01, 2.23)</p>

		<p>- ≤ 1 close friends (AOR= 6.86, 95% CI= 2.18, 21.58)</p> <p>- ≥ 2 emergency room visits in past 6 months (AOR= 4.00, 95% CI= 1.19, 13.43)</p> <p>- Physical limitations (AOR= 1.08, 95% CI= 1.01, 1.14)</p> <p>High methodological quality (score= 14)</p>
<p>Guerra et al., 2009 [10]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> Peru, Mexico, Venezuela</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developing</p> <p><u>N:</u> 5,886</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 65+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Mental State, structured clinical interview (information on threshold score not provided)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Peru: Two districts in the city of Lima - Mexico: Six districts in the suburb of Tlalpan, south of Mexico City - Venezuela: One district in the south west of the city of Caracas <p><u>Rural:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Peru: Six districts in the coastal province of Canete - Mexico: Nine villages in the north of the mountainous state of Morelos 	<p>Depression prevalence higher in urban group</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence (pooled)=</u> 2.3%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence(pooled)=</u> 1.4%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR=</u> 1.71 (95% CI= 1.05, 2.71)</p> <p>Moderate methodological quality (score= 12)</p>
<p>Kim et al., 2002 [11]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> South Korea</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developing</p> <p><u>N:</u> 1,134</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 65+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Depression Scale, Korean Form (threshold score ≥ 14)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Residents of Songjeong, Kwangju, a city with a total of 9,866 inhabitants in an area of 17.3 square kilometers</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> Residents of Samto, Kwangju, area with a total of 4,120 inhabitants in an area of 38.3 square kilometers</p>	<p>No statistically significant difference in depression prevalence between urban and rural groups</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence=</u> 32.8%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence=</u> 33.3%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR=</u> 0.98 (95% CI= 0.76, 1.26)</p> <p><u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk=</u> 1.84 (95% CI= 1.20, 2.83)</p> <p><u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender, marital status, education, housing, unemployment, disability, social support, religion, past manual occupation</p> <p><u>Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Older age (AOR= 1.26, 95% CI= 1.04, 1.52) - Past manual occupation (AOR= 1.79, 95% CI= 1.13, 2.83) - Renting housing (AOR= 2.14, 95% CI= 1.30, 3.53) <p>Moderate methodological quality (score= 11)</p>
<p>Kim et al., 2004 [12]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> South Korea</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developing</p> <p><u>N:</u> 1,204</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 65+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Mental State Schedule (information on threshold score not provided)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Residents of Songjeong, Kwangju, a city with a total of 9,866 inhabitants in an area of 17.3 square kilometers</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> Residents of Samto, Kwangju, area with a total of 4,120 inhabitants in an area of 38.3 square kilometers</p>	<p>Depression prevalence higher in urban group</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence=</u> 21.0%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence=</u> 8.6%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR=</u> 2.68 (95% CI= 1.90, 3.78)</p> <p><u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk=</u> 1.84 (95% CI= 1.20-2.83)</p> <p><u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender, marital status, education, housing, unemployment, disability, social support, religion, living alone, seeing friends less than monthly, having no close friends, seeing neighbors less than monthly</p> <p><u>Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Older age (AOR= 1.40, 95% CI= 1.08, 1.81) - Female gender (AOR= 1.99, 95% CI= 1.02, 3.86) <p><u>Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Seeing friends less than monthly (p=.042)* - Having no close friends (p=.027)* <p>*Significance of variable x rural residence</p>

		interaction term, information on AORs not provided Moderate methodological quality (score= 13)
Ma et al., 2008 [13] <u>Country:</u> China <u>Economy:</u> Developing <u>N:</u> 1,601 <u>Age range:</u> 60+	<u>Depression measure:</u> Composite International Diagnostic Interview (CIDI 1.0) (information on threshold score not provided) <u>Urban:</u> Not specified <u>Rural:</u> Not specified	Depression prevalence higher in rural group <u>Urban depression prevalence=</u> 2.6% <u>Rural depression prevalence=</u> 8.4% <u>Unadjusted OR=</u> 0.29 (95% CI= 0.18, 0.47) <u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk=</u> 0.33 (95% CI= 0.16, 0.69) <u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender, marital status, income, education, housing, major medical conditions High methodological quality (score= 14)
Mechakra-Tahiri et al., 2009 [14] <u>Country:</u> Canada <u>Economy:</u> Developed <u>N:</u> 1,471 <u>Age range:</u> 65+	<u>Depression measure:</u> ESA Diagnostic Questionnaire(ESA-Q) (threshold score \geq 2) <u>Urban:</u> Quebec province address designated urban by Institut de la Statistique du Quebec <u>Rural:</u> Quebec province address designated rural by Institut de la Statistique du Quebec	No statistically significant difference in depression prevalence between urban and rural groups <u>Urban depression prevalence=</u> 15.1% <u>Rural depression prevalence=</u> 17.0% <u>Unadjusted OR=</u> 0.87 (95% CI= 0.64, 1.18) <u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk=</u> n/a <u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender, income, self-rated health, chronic conditions <u>Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - n/a <u>Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - Female gender (AOR= 3.22, 95% CI= 2.14, 4.86) - Chronic condition (AOR= 1.30, 95% CI= 1.04, 1.61) - Poor self-rated health (AOR= 1.24, 95% CI= 1.02, 1.51) Moderate methodological quality (score= 13)
Schulman et al., 2002 [15] <u>Country:</u> United States <u>Economy:</u> Developed <u>N:</u> 118 <u>Age range:</u> 65+	<u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Depression Scale (GSD-30) (threshold score \geq 11) <u>Urban:</u> Residents of a city with a population >250,000, classified by U.S. Census Bureau definition <u>Rural:</u> Residents of an area "outside of incorporated areas" with a population \geq 2,500 classified by U.S. Census Bureau definition	Depression prevalence higher in urban group <u>Urban depression prevalence=</u> 54.3% <u>Rural depression prevalence=</u> 21.9% <u>Unadjusted OR=</u> 4.29 (95% CI= 1.84, 9.99) <u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk=</u> 3.8 (95% CI=1.5, 10.1) <u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Assistance in activities of daily living, living arrangement High methodological quality (score= 15)
Sengupta et al., 2015 [16] <u>Country:</u> India <u>Economy:</u> Developing <u>N:</u> 3,038 <u>Age range:</u> 60+	<u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score \geq 5) <u>Urban:</u> Not specified <u>Rural:</u> Not specified	Depression prevalence higher in urban group <u>Urban depression prevalence=</u> 10.1% <u>Rural depression prevalence=</u> 7.3% <u>Unadjusted OR=</u> 1.42 (95% CI= 1.09, 1.85) <u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk=</u> 1.67 (95% CI= 1.21, 2.29) <u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender, marital status, income, education, functional impairment type of family, occupation, cognitive impairment

<p>St John et al., 2006 [17]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> Canada</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developed</p> <p><u>N:</u> 1,132</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 65+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression scale (CES-D) (threshold score ≥ 16)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Resident of urban area (population >19,999) defined by Canadian Beale codes</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> Resident of rural area (population <2,500) defined by Canadian Beale codes</p>	<p>High methodological quality (score= 14)</p> <p>No statistically significant difference in depression prevalence between urban and rural groups</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence=</u> 11.6%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence=</u> 9.0%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR=</u> 1.32 (95% CI= 0.84, 2.09)</p> <p><u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk=</u> n/a</p> <p><u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender, education, living arrangement, financial strain, self-rated health, functional impairment, number of companions</p> <p><u>Urban-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - Self-rated health (AOR=3.39, 95% CI= 2.06, 5.56)</p> <p><u>Rural-specific risk factors in fully adjusted models:</u> - Living alone (AOR=3.40, 95% CI= 1.25, 9.26) - Financial strain (AOR=3.64, 95% CI= 1.32, 10.08)</p>
<p>Walters et al., 2004 [18]</p> <p><u>Country:</u> Great Britain</p> <p><u>Economy:</u> Developed</p> <p><u>N:</u> 6,178</p> <p><u>Age range:</u> 75+</p>	<p><u>Depression measure:</u> Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS-15) (threshold score ≥ 6)</p> <p><u>Urban:</u> Zip code with highest density quartile ($\geq 2,467$ people/km)</p> <p><u>Rural:</u> Zip code with lowest density quartile (0–355 people/km)</p>	<p>High methodological quality (score= 16)</p> <p>Depression prevalence higher in urban group</p> <p><u>Urban depression prevalence=</u> 9.5%</p> <p><u>Rural depression prevalence=</u> 7.0%</p> <p><u>Unadjusted OR=</u> 1.40 (95% CI= 1.16, 1.69)</p> <p><u>Adjusted OR for urban-rural depression risk=</u> 1.61 (95% CI= 1.20, 2.17)</p> <p><u>Variables adjusted for in fully adjusted models:</u> Age, gender, financial strain, housing, physical symptoms, unmet needs in activity of daily living, living alone, impaired cognition</p> <p>High methodological quality (score= 15)</p>

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