

Depression in Asthma: Prevalence and Clinical Implications

Tanya A. Zielinski, M.D.; E. Sherwood Brown, Ph.D., M.D.; Vicki A. Nejtek, Ph.D.;
David A. Khan, M.D.; Jacob J. Moore, B.S.; and A. John Rush, M.D.

Background: Asthma and depression are both common illnesses. Data suggest that the prevalence of asthma and asthma-related morbidity and mortality has increased in the past 2 decades. Asthma has long been considered an illness in which mood and emotions contribute to symptom exacerbation. Therefore, we reviewed the recent literature on depression in persons with asthma.

Data Sources: The MEDLINE (1966–1999) and PSYCHINFO (1967–1999) databases were used to find English-language articles on asthma and depression. Search terms included *asthma*, *depression*, *dysthymia*, and *mood*.

Data Synthesis: This literature suggests depressive symptoms are more common in asthma patients than in the general population and perhaps even more common than in some other general medical conditions. Depression may be associated with asthma morbidity and mortality. Limited data suggest the older tricyclic antidepressants may improve both depression and asthma symptoms. However, no studies have examined the use of second-generation antidepressants in asthma patients.

Conclusion: Depressive symptoms are common in asthma patients. However, the prevalence of depressive disorders in this population is not well determined. Future studies should focus on determining the prevalence of major depressive disorder in this population and the effect of antidepressants on mood and asthma symptoms.

(*Primary Care Companion J Clin Psychiatry* 2000;2:153–158)

Received Aug. 22, 2000; accepted Sept. 6, 2000. From the Department of Psychiatry (Drs. Zielinski, Brown, Nejtek, and Rush, and Mr. Moore), and the Department of Internal Medicine (Dr. Khan), University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center at Dallas, Dallas.

Supported in part by the National Alliance for Research on Schizophrenia and Depression (NARSAD), the Sarah M. and Charles E. Seay Center for Basic and Applied Research in Psychiatric Illness, the John Schemerhorn Psychiatric Fund, and the Theodore and Vada Stanley Foundation.

The authors thank Leonardo Bobadilla, B.A., for proofreading the article.

Reprint requests to: E. Sherwood Brown, Ph.D., M.D., Department of Psychiatry, UT Southwestern Medical Center at Dallas, 5323 Harry Hines Blvd., Dallas, TX 75390-9070 (e-mail: sherwood.brown@utsouthwestern.edu).

Major depressive disorder (MDD) is the most common mood disorder, with a lifetime prevalence in the general population of almost 20%.^{1,2} Depression is a debilitating illness that can cause severe functional impairment and emotional anguish. It is associated with significant income loss, absenteeism from work, and increased health care system costs.^{3–5} Depression appears to be particularly common in general medical settings. Current rates of depressive conditions ranging from 15% to 21% are reported in primary care populations.^{6–8} However, depression in primary care settings is often unrecognized and untreated.^{9–12}

Depression may exacerbate symptoms of chronic general medical conditions¹³ and is associated with poor outcome in patients with diabetes, hypertension, and coronary artery disease.^{14,15} Frasure-Smith et al.¹⁵ reported that depression was a significant predictor of post-myocardial infarction mortality. Several studies of diabetic patients have linked depression to poor glucose control, higher glycosylated hemoglobin values, increased reporting of both hyperglycemic and hypoglycemic symptoms, and increased rates of complications.^{16–20}

The presence of a general medical illness may also adversely affect the course of depressive disorders. Depressed diabetic patients were found to have 8 times the rate of depression relapse of depressed persons who were physically healthy.²¹ Numerous studies have shown that psychiatric symptoms in depressed patients with general medical illnesses appear to improve in response to antidepressant therapy.²² Imipramine improved mood in depressed patients with the human immunodeficiency virus.²³ Nortriptyline therapy was associated with improvement in depressive symptoms compared with placebo in diabetic patients.²⁴

As are diabetes mellitus and coronary artery disease, asthma is a common, chronic, and debilitating general medical condition. Data suggest that the prevalence of asthma^{25,26} and asthma-related hospitalizations and deaths^{27–29} have increased in recent years. Historically, asthma has been considered a psychosomatic disease in which emotional stress plays a role in exacerbation of symptoms.^{30,31} Thus, we were interested in examining (1) the prevalence of depression in asthma patients, (2) the effect of depression on the course of illness, and (3) the effect of treatment for depression in asthma patients.

Table 1. Prevalence of Depression in Asthma Patients^a

Study	Study Group	Assessment	Outcome/Findings
Dyer and Sinclair (1997) ³²	40 elderly asthma patients 40 controls	GDS	19/40 (48%) of asthma patients with GDS score > 11; 11/40 (28%) of controls with GDS score > 11 (p = .32)
Padur et al (1995) ³³	25 children with asthma 25 children with diabetes 25 children with cancer 25 controls	CDI	Asthma patients had significantly higher CDI scores compared with all other groups (p < .05)
Badoux and Levy (1994) ³⁴	102 adult asthma patients 383 socially isolated patients 252 controls	BSI	Higher BSI scores in asthma group than in controls (p < .005)
Seigel and Golden (1990) ³⁵	40 asthma patients 40 controls	BDI	Higher BDI scores in asthma patients than in controls (p < .001)
Lyketsos et al (1987) ³⁶	35 adult asthma patients 165 mixed-illness controls	SAD	Higher SAD depression scores in asthma patients than in controls (p = .02)
Teiramaa (1979) ³⁷	100 adolescent and adult asthma patients	BDI, MMPI	53% with BDI score > 15
Meijer (1979) ³⁸	31 children with asthma 29 controls	Mother-Child Questionnaire (subscales of hostility, depression, anxiety, and defiance)	Asthma patients had higher depression scores compared with controls (p = .05)
Jones et al (1976) ³⁹	147 adult asthma patients	MMPI	49% had elevated scores on hypochondriasis, depression, and hysteria triad (p < .001)

^aAbbreviations: BDI = Beck Depression Inventory, BSI = Brief Symptom Inventory, CDI = Child Depression Inventory, GDS = Geriatric Depression Scale, MMPI = Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, SAD = Scale of Anxiety and Depression.

DATA SOURCES

A search of the MEDLINE (1966–1999) and PSYCHINFO (1967–1999) databases was conducted to find English-language studies and reviews investigating depression in asthma patients. Search terms included *asthma*, *depression*, *dysthymia*, and *mood*. We searched the bibliographies of these references to find additional research examining depression in asthma patients. Pertinent studies were divided into 3 categories: studies examining the prevalence of depressive symptoms in asthma patients, research assessing the effects of depression on the course of asthma, and research investigating the treatment of depression in asthma patients. In Table 1 (prevalence studies), we excluded studies with fewer than 50 subjects, since we felt inclusion of smaller studies would provide no useful data regarding depression prevalence. We also excluded studies published prior to 1975, since (1) their assessment techniques for depression were substantially different from those found in more recent studies and (2) diagnostic criteria for asthma have changed. Given the very small number of studies examining the use of antidepressants in asthma patients, we used less stringent inclusion criteria and discuss studies published prior to 1975.

RESULTS

Eight studies^{32–39} examining the prevalence of depressive symptoms in asthma patients met our inclusion criteria (see Table 1). Six of these were controlled studies,^{32–36,38} and all but 1 of these³² presented data consistent with a higher prevalence of depressive symptoms in asthma patients than in control groups. In the largest of the controlled studies, Badoux and Levy³⁴ administered

the Brief Symptom Inventory, a self-report questionnaire, to asthma patients (N = 102), normal controls (N = 252), and socially isolated individuals (N = 383) and found that asthma patients had significantly higher scores (p < .005) than normal controls, but lower scores than socially isolated individuals (p < .001). Lyketsos et al.³⁶ found higher scores on the depression subscale of the Scale of Anxiety and Depression in asthma patients (N = 35) than in a group of controls with a variety of illnesses (N = 165), including alopecia, psoriasis, urticaria, irritable bowel syndrome, ulcers, ulcerative colitis, and hypertension. Only patients with rheumatoid arthritis (N = 37) had higher depression scores than the asthma patients. Dyer and Sinclair³² found no significant difference in prevalence of depressive symptoms (p = .32) in elderly asthma patients (N = 40) than in normal controls (N = 40). However, a much higher percentage of asthma patients than controls had elevated depression scores. Thus, the small sample size and resulting low statistical power may limit the certainty of these negative findings.

Three of the studies^{33,35,38} examined depressive symptoms in children and adolescents with asthma. Seigel and Golden³⁵ found that adolescents with asthma (N = 40) had significantly higher Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) scores than did normal controls (p < .001) and scores similar to patients with sickle cell disease and diabetes. Since the subjects were relatively asymptomatic outpatients, the investigators suggested that the increase in depressive symptoms was not related to asthma symptoms. Padur et al.³³ found significantly higher scores on the Child Depression Inventory in children with asthma (N = 25) than in children with diabetes (N = 25) or cancer (N = 25) or in healthy controls (N = 25). Meijer³⁸ examined dependency and emotional disturbance in children

Table 2. Depression and Asthma-Related Death

Study	Study Group	Assessment	Outcome/Findings
Mascia et al (1989) ⁴⁰	140 severe asthma patients	10-y patient chart review	Depressive symptoms were found in 48% with improved asthma vs 53% with no improvement and 77% of fatalities
Picado et al (1989) ⁴¹	6 adult asthma patients	Patient chart review	In 4/6 (66%) of asthma fatalities, patients had recently stopped taking antidepressant medications
Strunk et al (1985) ⁴²	21 asthma patients 21 controls	Patient chart review	Depressive symptoms in 16/21 (76%) of fatalities vs 9/21 (43%) of controls ($p = .05$)

Table 3. Depression and Asthma Severity^a

Study	Study Group	Assessment	Outcome/Findings
Rushford et al (1998) ⁴³	100 adult asthma patients	SDS	"Exaggerated perceivers" of asthma symptoms severity had higher scores on SDS ($p = .026$) than "normal perceivers"
Bosley et al (1995) ⁴⁴	72 adult asthma patients	HADS	Medication-noncompliant patients ($N = 37$) had higher depression scores than compliant patients ($N = 35$) ($p < .05$)
Janson et al (1994) ⁴⁵	715 young adult patients	HADS	Correlation found between depression and self-reported asthma symptoms ($p < .05$); no correlation between depression and pulmonary function
Allen et al (1994) ⁴⁶	11 asthma patients, 10 controls	POMS	Higher POMS scores than controls ($p = .07$)
Janson-Bjerklie et al (1992) ⁴⁷	95 asthma patients	CES-D	Depression correlated with perceived severity ($p < .01$), but no correlation with asthma severity/risk index scores
Yellowlees et al (1988) ⁴⁸	13 patients with severe asthma (age, 18–68 y) 36 patients with less severe asthma	DSM-III, DIS	1/13 (8%) with depression 1/36 (3%) with depression

^aAbbreviations: CES-D = Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale, DIS = Diagnostic Interview Schedule, DSM-III = *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, Third Edition, HADS = Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale, POMS = Profile of Mood States questionnaire, SDS = Self-Rated Depression Scale.

with asthma ($N = 31$) and found that low-dependency boys with asthma had significantly more depressive symptoms ($p = .05$), as determined by the Mother-Child Questionnaire, than nonasthmatic low-dependency boys. Low-dependency girls with asthma also showed more depression than their high-dependency counterparts, but the difference was not significant.

Two uncontrolled studies^{37,39} meeting the inclusion criteria and examining the prevalence of depression or depressive symptoms in asthma patients were also found. As with the controlled studies, both identified depressive traits or symptoms and did not diagnose depressive disorders. Jones et al.³⁹ administered the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) to hospitalized adult asthma patients and found that 72/147 (49%) had elevated scores on the "neurotic triad" (scales of hypochondriasis, depression, and hysteria). Teiramaa,³⁷ using the semistructured psychiatric interview along with the BDI and MMPI, identified depressive symptoms or a diagnosis of depressive neurosis in over half (53%) of the asthma subjects ($N = 100$).

Relationship of Depression to Asthma Symptoms

Nine studies meeting our criteria assessed the relationship between depression and the course of asthma and are given in Tables 2 and 3.^{40–48} Three studies^{40–42} suggested that depression may increase risk of death from asthma (see Table 2). Strunk et al.⁴² examined 21 children who later died of asthma and a monitored control group. The

group with fatal asthma showed evidence of greater "behavioral disturbance" (18/21 vs. 9/21; $p > .01$) and exhibited more depressive symptoms (16/21 vs. 9/21; $p < .05$). Picado et al.⁴¹ reported that 4/6 (66%) patients who died from asthma exacerbations required treatment for a "syndrome of anxiety-depression." Interestingly, all 4 of the patients with depression who died had recently stopped taking prescribed psychotropic medication before the fatal attack. Mascia et al.⁴⁰ retrospectively reviewed the psychological characteristics of severely asthmatic children admitted to the hospital over a 10-year period. Although not statistically significant, depressive symptoms were found in 77% ($N = 9$) of fatalities in this population while only 53% ($N = 72$) of survivors had depressive symptoms.

However, not all studies have found a consistent association between severity of asthma and depression (see Table 3). Yellowlees et al.⁴⁸ examined patients with near-fatal asthma attacks ($N = 13$) and a control group with less severe illness ($N = 36$) and found a 33% overall prevalence rate of psychopathology in both groups. One subject in the study group (1/13, 8%) and one in the control group (1/36, 3%) were diagnosed with "depressive illness" according to DSM-III criteria, suggesting low rates of mood disorders in both groups.

Allen et al.⁴⁶ suggested a possible etiologic link between depression and death from asthma. These investigators found that asthma patients with depression as indicated by scores derived from the Profile of Mood

Table 4. Antidepressant Therapy in Asthmatics^a

Study	Study Group	Assessment	Outcome/Findings
Lechin et al (1998) ⁴⁹	69 asthmatic children	Tianeptine	25% improvement in FEV ₁ %
Wilson (1974) ⁵⁰	Single case study	Perphenazine (6 mg/d) plus amitriptyline (30 mg/d)	Marked improvement of asthma and depression symptoms after 6 wk of medication therapy
Sanger (1969) ⁵¹	32 multiallergic patients	Amitriptyline (N = 16) Doxepin (N = 16)	5/16 (31%) had moderate mood improvement (p = .20, NS) 12/16 (75%) had significant mood improvement (p = .006)
Sugihara et al (1965) ⁵²	60 children and adult asthma patients	Amitriptyline	62% with improvement in asthma symptoms rated as "good" or "excellent"

^aAbbreviation: FEV₁% = 1-second forced expiratory volume.

States questionnaire showed a 3-fold increased risk for an impaired voluntary drive to breathe when compared to euthymic asthma patients. Poor compliance with asthma treatment may also contribute to risk of a fatal attack. Bosley et al.⁴⁴ found significantly higher scores ($p < .05$) on the depression subscale of the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale in patients who were noncompliant ($N = 37$) with their inhaled β -agonists and steroids than in those patients who were compliant with medication ($N = 35$).

Three studies^{43,45,47} suggested that depression might be related to increased asthma symptom reporting. In a population-based study ($N = 715$), Janson et al.⁴⁵ found a correlation between depression and self-reported asthma-related symptoms, but no correlation between a diagnosis of asthma and depression or objective asthma-related measurements (e.g., spirometry) and depression. Janson-Bjerklie et al.⁴⁷ found that elevated scores on the Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale were related to subjectively perceived asthma severity and danger, but not to objective asthma severity as indicated by medication, intubation history, and hospitalization frequency. Similarly, Rushford et al.⁴³ found that "exaggerated perceivers" of asthma-related airflow obstruction had higher scores ($p = .026$) on the Self-Rated Depression Scale than "normal perceivers."

Antidepressant Therapy in Asthma Patients

Four reports⁴⁹⁻⁵² were found examining the use of antidepressants in asthma patients (Table 4). Two of these studies^{49,52} examined the efficacy of antidepressants in treating asthma-related symptoms in nondepressed patients. Sugihara et al.⁵² administered amitriptyline to 60 asthma patients, finding a "good" to "excellent" response in asthma symptoms in 62% of the subjects. The best response (79%) was observed in children under 15 years of age ($N = 14$). In a double-blind crossover design, Lechin et al.⁴⁹ also observed a mean improvement of 25% in 1-second forced expiratory volume (FEV₁% rates) in children with asthma ($N = 69$) treated with the selective serotonin reuptake enhancer tianeptine.

Two reports^{50,51} of improvement in mood in depressed asthma patients given antidepressants were found. Sanger⁵¹

compared amitriptyline and doxepin in a randomized double-blind study investigating the treatment of anxiety and depression in patients with multiple allergies, including dermatologic conditions, hay fever, and bronchial asthma. Doxepin was significantly more effective than amitriptyline at reducing Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression scores in this population. Overall, 12 of 16 doxepin-treated patients reportedly showed moderate-to-marked improvement in their overall scores, whereas 5 of 16 amitriptyline-treated patients showed moderate improvement at best. The potent antihistamine effects of doxepin, which ameliorate allergic reactions and promote bronchodilation, may in part explain the greater improvement in emotional symptoms with doxepin.

Wilson⁵⁰ reported the case of a 48-year-old female patient who suffered from asthma symptoms until she was given a combination of perphenazine (6 mg/day) and amitriptyline (30 mg/day) for anxiety and depression. After taking this regimen for 6 weeks, the patient reported that her asthma medications were discontinued and that her asthma remained in remission during the 3-month assessment period.

DISCUSSION

Virtually all studies suggest that depressive symptoms are more common in asthma patients than in the general population. Since only one study⁴⁰ examined the prevalence of MDD rather than depressive symptoms, the rates of formal mood disorders in asthma patients cannot be assessed. Minimal data were found comparing the prevalence of depression in asthma with that in other chronic illnesses. The available studies^{34,36} suggest rates of depressive symptoms may be more common in asthma than in some other severe illnesses. However, the presence of depressive disorders, not symptoms, is the basis for psychiatric diagnosis and treatment. Thus, given the available data, the prevalence of clinically significant depression in asthma patients cannot be determined.

One limitation in studies examining depressive symptoms in medically ill populations is the possibility of increased scores on depression measures due to the physical symptoms of the illness. Asthma symptoms can cause

insomnia and asthma medications (e.g., β -agonists) can cause anxiety; both of these symptoms elevate scores on some depression scales. However, the elevated scores on the BDI, which emphasizes psychological rather than neurovegetative symptoms of depression, reported by Seigel and Golden.³⁵ and Teiramaa et al.³⁷ suggest that asthma symptoms alone do not fully explain the elevated depression scores generally observed.

Data from external studies may provide evidence supporting a possible biological link between asthma and depression. Flinders line rats are very sensitive to the effects of cholinergic agents and exhibit depressive behavior in some animal models of depression.⁵³ This breed of rat also exhibits airway hyper-responsiveness after exposure to allergens.⁵⁴ In human studies, a subset of asthma patients^{55,56} as well as a subset of persons with depression exhibit evidence of glucocorticoid resistance.^{57,58} Additional controlled studies are needed, examining the prevalence of depression in asthma patients and persons with comparable disability from other general medical conditions, to determine if asthma patients are at increased risk of depression compared with other general medical conditions.

Data on the effect of depression on asthma are mixed, with some studies suggesting poor compliance with care, more severe airway obstruction, and even increased risk of asthma-related deaths in depressed asthma patients than nondepressed asthma patients. The association of depression with asthma-related mortality is of particular concern. However, these studies have methodological limitations, including retrospective designs and small sample sizes. If confirmed, the increased mortality risk may be consistent with data suggesting increases in cholinergically mediated airway constriction associated with stress or negative mood states.⁵⁹⁻⁶¹ However, other data suggest that depressed patients subjectively perceive themselves as having more severe asthma symptoms than euthymic patients, but this perception is not supported by objective measures of disease severity.^{43,45,47} In addition, preliminary data from our group suggest less severe airway obstruction, as measured with spirometry, in asthma patients with a history of a mood disorder than in those without a mood disorder.⁶² Thus, asthma patients with depression may see themselves as having more severe asthma, which could lead these patients to seek further health care treatment. A greater number of emergency room visits, greater frequency of appointments, and more aggressive treatment in the depressed asthmatic potentially could lead to an improvement in symptoms, but also greater cost due to overutilization of medical services. One possible explanation for the seemingly dichotomous findings of increased risk of death and exaggerated perception of asthma symptoms is that there may be 2 subsets of depressed asthma patients: a group with severe asthma in which depression may lead to poor medication compliance and an increased risk of mortality, and a second

group with mild asthma and symptoms of anxiety, depression, and somatic complaints who may tend to utilize medical services more often (e.g., emergency rooms).

In contrast to data in other chronic diseases, such as diabetes mellitus, few studies in the current medical literature report the effects of treatment of depression in asthma patients. These include a single case report⁵⁰ and one small uncontrolled study⁵¹ that used antidepressants infrequently prescribed in current practice. Even though several clinical trials suggest that antidepressants may improve both physical and psychological symptoms in other general medical conditions, there has been no clinical trial using second-generation antidepressants (e.g., selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors) to treat depression in asthma patients. Clearly, clinical trials of antidepressant agents are needed in asthma patients and will allow comparisons to be made among depressive symptoms, medication compliance, and both objective and subjective measures of disease severity.

CONCLUSION

In summary, the relationship of depression to asthma symptoms has been the topic of surprisingly little investigation. Given data which suggest that asthma prevalence, morbidity, and mortality are increasing and evidence that suggests an association between depression and asthma-related deaths, further research in the area is needed. Since antidepressant therapy is associated with both improvement in mood and physical symptoms in other general medical conditions, clinical trials are needed in asthma patients using both depressive symptoms and asthma symptoms as outcome measures.

Drug names: amitriptyline (Elavil and others), doxepin (Sinequan and others), nortriptyline (Pamelor and others), perphenazine (Trilafon and others).

REFERENCES

1. Kessler RC, McGonagle KA, Zhao S, et al. Lifetime and 12-month prevalence of DSM-III-R psychiatric disorders in the United States: results from the National Comorbidity Survey. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1994;51:8-19
2. Kessler RC, Nelson CB, McGonagle KA, et al. Comorbidity of DSM-III-R major depressive disorder in the general population: results from the National Comorbidity Study. *Br J Psychiatry* 1996;168(suppl 30):17-30
3. Greenberg PE, Stiglin LE, Finkelstein SN. The economic burden of depression in 1990. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1993;54:405-419
4. Kessler RC, Barber C, Birnbaum HG, et al. Depression in the workplace: effects on short-term disability. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 1999;18:163-171
5. Rice DP, Miller LS. The economic burden of affective disorders. *Br J Psychiatry* 1995;166(suppl 27):34-42
6. Nielson AC, Williams TA. Depression in ambulatory medical patients. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1980;37:999-1004
7. Clinical Practice Guideline Number 5: Depression in Primary Care, vol 1. Detection and Diagnosis. Rockville, Md: US Dept Health Human Services, Agency for Health Care Policy and Research; 1993. AHCPR publication 93-0550
8. Simon GE, VonKorff M, Barlow W. Health care costs of primary care patients with recognized depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1995;52:850-856
9. Schulberg HC, Saul M, McClelland M. Assessing depression in primary

- medical and psychiatric practices. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1985;12:1164–1170
10. Katon W, Berg AO, Robins AJ, et al. Depression: medical utilization and somatization. *West J Med* 1986;144:564–568
 11. Perez-Stable EJ, Miranda J, Munoz RF, et al. Depression in medical outpatients: underrecognition and misdiagnosis. *Arch Intern Med* 1990;150:1083–1088
 12. McQuaid JR, Stein MB, Laffaye C, et al. Depression in a primary care clinic: the prevalence and impact of an unrecognized disorder. *J Affect Disord* 1999;55:1–10
 13. Katon W, Sullivan MD. Depression and chronic medical illness. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1990;51(6, suppl):3–11
 14. Wells KB, Rogers W, Burman MA, et al. Course of depression in patients with hypertension, myocardial infarction, or insulin-dependent diabetes. *Am J Psychiatry* 1993;150:632–638
 15. Frasure-Smith N, Lesperance F, Talajic M. Depression and 18-month prognosis after myocardial infarction. *Circulation* 1995;91:999–1005
 16. Turkington RW. Depression masquerading as diabetic neuropathy. *JAMA* 1980;243:1147–1150
 17. Lustman PJ, Clouse RE, Carney RM. Depression and the reporting of diabetes symptoms. *Int J Psychiatry Med* 1988;18:295–303
 18. Kuttner MJ, Delamater AM, Santiago JV. Learned helplessness in diabetic youths. *J Pediatr Psychol* 1990;15:581–594
 19. Tun PA, Nathan DM, Perlmutter LC. Cognitive and affective disorders in elderly diabetics. *Clin Geriatr Med* 1990;6:731–746
 20. Leedom L, Meehan WP, Procci W, et al. Symptoms of depression in patients with type II diabetes mellitus. *Psychosomatics* 1991;32:280–286
 21. Lustman PJ, Griffith LS, Clouse RE. Depression in adults with diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 1988;11:605–612
 22. Gill D, Hatcher S. A systematic review of the treatment of depression with antidepressant drugs in patients who also have a physical illness. *J Psychosom Res* 1999;47:131–143
 23. Rabkin JG, Rabkin R, Harrison W, et al. Effect of imipramine on mood and enumerative measures of immune status in depressed patients with HIV illness. *Am J Psychiatry* 1994;151:516–523
 24. Lustman PJ, Griffith LS, Clouse RE, et al. Effects of nortriptyline on depression and glycemic control in diabetes: results of a double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Psychosom Med* 1997;59:241–250
 25. From the Centers for Disease Control. Asthma: United States, 1980–1990. *JAMA* 1992;268:1995–1996
 26. Weitzman M, Gortmaker SL, Sobol AM, et al. Recent trends in the prevalence and severity of childhood asthma. *JAMA* 1992;268:2673–2677
 27. Mannino DM, Homa DM, Pertowski CA, et al. Surveillance for asthma: United States, 1960–1995. *Morb Mortal Wkly Rep CDC Surveill Summ* 1998;47:1–27
 28. Evans R III, Mullally DI, Wilson RW, et al. Prevalence, hospitalization and death from asthma over two decades: 1965–1984. *Chest* 1987;91:65S–74S
 29. Weiss KB, Wagener DK. Changing patterns of asthma mortality identifying target populations at high risk. *JAMA* 1990;264:1683–1687
 30. Vachon L. Respiratory disorders. In: Kaplan HI, Sadock BJ, eds. *Comprehensive Textbook of Psychiatry*, VI. Baltimore, Md: Williams & Wilkins; 1995:1501–1514
 31. Rubin NJ. Severe asthma and depression. *Arch Fam Med* 1993;2:433–440
 32. Dyer CAE, Sinclair AJ. A hospital-based case-control study of quality of life in older asthmatics. *Eur Respir J* 1997;10:337–341
 33. Padur JS, Rapoff MA, Houston BK, et al. Psychosocial adjustment and the role of functional status for children with asthma. *J Asthma* 1995;32:345–353
 34. Badoux A, Levy DA. Psychologic symptoms in asthma and chronic urticaria. *Ann Allergy* 1994;72:229–234
 35. Seigel WM, Golden NH. Depression, self-esteem, and life events in adolescents with chronic diseases. *J Adolesc Health* 1990;11:501–504
 36. Lyketsos CG, Lyketsos GC, Richardson SC, et al. Dysthymic states and depressive syndromes in physical conditions of presumably psychogenic origin. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1987;76:529–534
 37. Teiramaa E. Psychosocial and psychic factors and age at onset of asthma. *J Psychosom Res* 1979;23:27–37
 38. Meijer A. Emotional disorders of asthmatic children. *Child Psychiatry Hum Dev* 1979;9:161–169
 39. Jones NF, Kinsman RA, Schum R, et al. Personality profiles in asthma. *J Clin Psychol* 1976;32:285–291
 40. Mascia A, Frank S, Berkman A, et al. Mortality versus improvement in severe chronic asthma: physiologic and psychological factors. *Ann Allergy* 1989;62:311–317
 41. Picado C, Montserrat JN, de Pablo J, et al. Predisposing factors to death after recovery from a life-threatening asthmatic attack. *J Asthma* 1989;26:231–236
 42. Strunk RC, Mrazek DA, Fuhrmann GS, et al. Physiologic and psychological characteristics associated with deaths due to asthma in childhood. *JAMA* 1985;254:1193–1198
 43. Rushford N, Tiller JWG, Pain MCF. Perception of natural fluctuations in peak flow in asthma: clinical severity and psychological correlates. *J Asthma* 1998;35:251–259
 44. Bosley CM, Fosbury JA, Cochrane GM. The psychological factors associated with poor compliance with treatment in asthma. *Eur Respir J* 1995;8:899–904
 45. Janson C, Bjornsson E, Hetta J, et al. Anxiety and depression in relation to respiratory symptoms and asthma. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1994;149:930–934
 46. Allen GM, Hickie I, Gandevia SC, et al. Impaired voluntary drive to breathe: a possible link between depression and unexplained ventilatory failure in asthmatic patients. *Thorax* 1994;49:881–884
 47. Janson-Bjerkle S, Ferketich S, Benner P, et al. Clinical markers of asthma severity and risk: importance of subjective as well as objective factors. *Heart Lung* 1992;21:265–272
 48. Yellowlees PM, Haynes S, Potts N, et al. Psychiatric morbidity in patients with life-threatening asthma: initial report of a controlled study. *Med J Aust* 1988;149:246–249
 49. Lechin F, van der Dijs B, Orozco B, et al. The serotonin uptake-enhancing drug tianeptine suppresses asthmatic symptoms in children: a double-blind, crossover, placebo-controlled study. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1998;38:918–925
 50. Wilson RCD. Antiasthmatic effect of amitriptyline [letter]. *Can Med Assoc J* 1974;111:212
 51. Sanger MD. The treatment of anxiety and depression in the allergic patient: case report. *Ann Allergy* 1969;27:506–510
 52. Sugihara H, Ishihara K, Noguchi H. Clinical experience with amitriptyline (tryptanol) in the treatment of bronchial asthma. *Ann Allergy* 1965;23:422–429
 53. Overstreet DH, Steiner M. Genetic and environmental models of stress-induced depression in rats. *Stress Med* 1998;14:261–268
 54. Djurie VI, Cox G, Overstreet DH, et al. Genetically transmitted cholinergic hyperresponsiveness predisposes to experimental asthma. *Brain Behav Immun* 1998;13:272–284
 55. Lane SJ, Lee TH. Mechanisms of corticosteroid resistance in asthmatic patients. *Int Arch Allergy Immun* 1997;113:193–195
 56. Leung DY, Spahn JD, Szeffler SJ. Immunologic basis and management of steroid-resistant asthma. *Allergy Asthma Proc* 1999;20:9–14
 57. Lowy MT, Reder AT, Antel JP, et al. Glucocorticoid resistance in depression: the dexamethasone suppression test and lymphocyte sensitivity to dexamethasone. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984;141:1365–1370
 58. Arana GW, Baldessarini JR, Ornstein M. The dexamethasone suppression test for diagnosis and prognosis in psychiatry. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1994;42:1193–1204
 59. Carr RE, Lehrer PM, Hochron SM, et al. Effect of psychological stress on airway impedance in individuals with asthma and panic disorder. *J Abnorm Psychol* 1996;105:137–141
 60. Lehrer PM, Hochron S, Carr R, et al. Behavioral task-induced bronchodilation in asthma during active and passive tasks: a possible cholinergic link to psychologically induced airway changes. *Psychosom Med* 1996;58:413–422
 61. Miller BD, Wood BL. Influence of specific emotional states on autonomic reactivity and pulmonary function in asthmatic children. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 1997;36:669–677
 62. Brown ES, Nejtck V, Khan DA, et al. Depression in asthma patients: preliminary findings. In: *Society of Biological Psychiatry 55th Annual Scientific Convention and Program*; May 11–13, 2000; Chicago, Ill. No. 47:8S