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Specificity of CBT for Depression: A Contribution from Multiple Treatments Meta-analyses

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Abstract The “Dodo bird verdict,” which claims that all psychotherapies are equally effective, has been a source of bewilderment and intense controversy among psychiatrists and psychologists. To examine this issue, we focused on cognitive-behavior therapy (CBT) and applied the newly developed review method known as multiple treatments meta-analysis (MTM). We identified randomized controlled trials comparing CBT against a psychological placebo (PP) and/or no treatment (NT) controls during the acute phase treatment of adults with depression. A random-effects MTM was conducted within a Bayesian framework. All the analyses were performed on an intention-to-treat basis. The MTM of the evidence network from 18 studies (39 treatment arms, 1,153 participants) revealed that CBT was significantly more likely to yield a response than NT (OR 2.24, 1.32–3.88) and that CBT was nominally, but not significantly, superior to PP (OR 1.30, 0.53–2.94), which in turn was superior to NT (OR 1.73, 0.67–4.84). The

intervention effects in MTM were associated with the number of sessions, and the specificity of CBT increased as the number of sessions increased. The specific component of CBT was estimated to constitute 50.4 % (19.7–85.0) when CBT was given for ten or more sessions. Despite the quantitatively and qualitatively limited body of randomized evidence examining this issue, the present study strongly suggested a non-null specific component of CBT when given for an adequate length.

Keywords Multiple treatments meta-analysis · Cognitive behavior therapy · Dodo bird verdict · Common factor · Specific factor

Introduction

It was Rosenzweig (1936) who first conceptualized psychotherapy as consisting of (1) common (non-specific)

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factors found in many different treatment approaches, and (2) specific factors proper to a particular treatment method and theory. This conceptualization later paved the way for Rosenthal and Frank's proposal of placebo psychotherapy, modeling pill placebo control in drug therapy trials, to establish the specific effectiveness of psychotherapies (Rosenthal and Frank 1956). They wrote in 1956: "...improvement under a special form of psychotherapy cannot be taken as evidence for (a) correctness of the theory on which it is based or (b) efficacy of the specific technique used, unless improvement can be shown to be greater than or qualitatively different from that produced by [...] a nonspecific form of psychotherapy."

The ensuing research efforts, however, have largely resulted in disappointing findings that are known as the Dodo bird verdict, which essentially states that all psychotherapies are equally effective (Baardseth et al. 2013; Luborsky et al. 2002; Luborsky and Singer 1975; Smith and Glass 1977; Wampold et al. 1997). The term originated from Rosenzweig's citation from Lewis Carroll's novel "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland," in which the characters get wet and have to dry themselves and the Dodo bird calls for a competition to run around the lake. When asked who won, the Dodo bird declares, "Everybody has won, and all must have prizes" (Rosenzweig 1936). The effectiveness of psychotherapies are thus postulated to be due to common factors, which include expectancy, relationship (empathy, warmth, alliance), and an explanatory framework (Greenberg and Newman 1996; Omer and London 1989).

However, the seminal papers cited above are subject to one or more of the following conceptual and methodological weaknesses.

1. As rightly criticized by Chambless et al. (Chambless 2002; Siev et al. 2010), the authors of these papers (Baardseth et al. 2013; Luborsky et al. 2002; Luborsky and Singer 1975; Smith and Glass 1977; Wampold et al. 1997) amalgamated very different comparisons for extremely diverse conditions among a wide spectrum of participants ranging from worried normal to psychotic inpatients. Their pooled effect size is therefore clinically uninterpretable. No one would choose his/her cancer therapy based on a meta-analysis of all therapies including all drugs, surgeries and radiation therapies for all stages of cancers of any histopathology and in any organ in the body.
2. Their dismissal of the obtained pooled effect size of 0.20 as small and clinically insignificant is factually and theoretically mistaken. First, one-third of established and acknowledged interventions in both medicine and psychiatry have effect sizes smaller than 0.3 in comparison with a placebo (Leucht et al. 2012).

How can one expect a larger effect size when comparing active treatments? Second, an effect size of 0.20 corresponds with a number needed to treat (NNT) of around 15 for control event rates between 20 and 50 % (Furukawa 1999). A common mental disorder often has a 12-month prevalence of 1–5 %, which would translate into two to ten million sufferers per year in the USA alone; a therapy with an NNT of 15 could thus bring about 200,000–1,000,000 additional responses or remissions per year that an alternative therapy cannot achieve. This is not meaningless by any humane measure.

3. They base their arguments on the point estimate and ignore the uncertainties around it. In fact, the 95 % confidence interval of their obtained effect size is very wide, surpassing 0.50, which signifies a moderate effect according to Cohen's rule of thumb (Cohen 1988) and may, in fact, be more powerful than more than half of the established and currently practiced medical interventions (Leucht et al. 2012). The correct statistical interpretation of the obtained pooled effect size in these studies should be: no firm evidence to exclude neither clinically powerful difference in effect or no difference in effect, and not evidence of no clinically meaningful difference in effect.
4. It is most surprising that these meta-analyses are not based on a systematic search of all available evidence on a particular clinical topic, in view of the disconcerting magnitude of publication bias that has become widely known (Dickersin 1990; Song et al. 2000). For example, Wampold and colleagues' reviews limited their search to four English journals only (Ahn and Wampold 2001; Wampold et al. 1997). Luborsky based their analyses on, alas, "our collection of meta-analyses" (Luborsky et al. 2002).

On the other hand, there have also been attempts to refute the Dodo bird verdict by quantifying the specific versus non-specific components in the effectiveness of psychotherapies, the most well-known of which is the one by Lambert and Barley (2001). Based on "a subset of more than 100 studies that provided statistical analyses of the predictors of outcome" they concluded that specific techniques explained 15 % of the total improvement in psychotherapy, the remaining being explained by common factors (30 %), expectancy (15 %) and extra therapeutic change (40 %). Stevens et al. (2000) were more specific: they calculated effect sizes for 80 outcome studies that each contained no treatment (NT), a common factor, and treatment groups. The effect size in terms of symptom improvement was 0.58 for treatment versus NT, which then was roughly additive of that between treatment and the common factor (0.26) and that between the common factor

and NT (0.35). Bowers and Clum (1988) did a similar analysis for behavior therapy by performing a meta-analysis of studies that had both a placebo condition and a NT condition: the overall effect size of the treatment was 0.76, of which 0.55 was specific and 0.21 was non-specific. Barker et al. (1988) limited themselves to credible placebo controls and found that the overall effect size of the treatment was 1.06, of which 0.55 was specific and 0.47 was non-specific. In other words, of the effectiveness of psychotherapies over NT, the percentage contributed by specific factors ranged widely, with values of 25, 45, 72, and 52 %, respectively. None of these figures may be clinically meaningless, but unfortunately all these reviews are subject to some or all of the criticisms described above.

Therefore, it is timely to ask how much specific versus non-specific components there are in the effectiveness of a specific psychotherapy for a well-delineated clinical condition using a modern systematic review methodology. The current study represents a secondary analysis of the Cochrane systematic reviews of six major psychotherapy schools for depression in adults (Hunot et al. 2013; Shinohara et al. 2013). The six schools included behavior therapies, cognitive-behavior therapies (CBT), third-wave cognitive therapies, psychodynamic therapies, humanistic therapies and integrative therapies. In order to quantitatively assess the specific versus non-specific components, the present study focuses on a triangular comparison between CBT, which were the most thoroughly researched of the six schools, and a psychological placebo (PP) and NT. We also applied a new meta-analysis technique, known as multiple treatments meta-analysis (MTM) or network meta-analysis (Higgins and Whitehead 1996), to this triangular comparison to combine the direct and indirect comparisons contained therein, so that we can make the maximal use of the available randomized evidence.

Methods

Criteria for Considering Studies for this Review

We included only randomized controlled studies comparing CBT with PP and/or NT in the acute phase treatment of adults with depression. Quasi-randomized studies, such as those using allocation by day of the week, date of birth, or alternate allocations, were not eligible because a lack of allocation concealment leads to overestimation (Schulz et al. 1995). Both open and single-blinded (assessor-blinded) studies were eligible, as it is impossible to blind the therapists or participants in psychotherapy trials.

Depression could either be defined as unipolar major depression according to any of the operationalized

diagnostic criteria (Feighner criteria, Research Diagnostic Criteria, DSM-III, DSM-III-R, DSM-IV, ICD-10) or as scoring above the accepted threshold of a validated depression screening instrument. Studies focusing on chronic or treatment-resistant depression were excluded.

Cognitive-behavior therapy includes cognitive therapy (Beck et al. 1979), rational emotive behavior therapy (Ellis 1979), problem-solving therapy (D’Zurilla and Goldfried 1971), self-control therapy (Fuchs and Rehm 1977), coping with depression course (Lewinsohn et al. 1984) and others that use both cognitive and behavioral skills for the treatment of depression.

Psychological placebo is defined as an experimental condition used in an attempt to control for non-specific factors. The criteria for a control condition to be regarded PP were as follows: (1) intervention is regarded as lacking active components by researchers in a trial but is explained as active to the participants; (2) the number and duration of the face-to-face session is equivalent with active treatment in the same study and; (3) the qualification of the therapists is equivalent to that for the active treatment. We did not include pill placebo controls because they control for the regression towards the mean, the natural course and treatment expectancy but not the common therapeutic factors of psychotherapy (Hollon and DeRubeis 1981).

No treatment consists of patients who did not receive either active or non-specific interventions. This control condition controls for the regression towards the mean and the natural course of the condition. We did not include waiting list controls, which are often used in psychotherapy research, among the NT controls.

Study Selection and Data Extraction

To identify relevant studies, we searched two clinical trial registries created and maintained by the Cochrane Depression, Anxiety and Neurosis Group (CCDAN), the CCDANCTR-Studies and CCDANCTR-References, supplemented by corresponding searches in CINAHL, PSYINDEX, and reference searches. The details of the search strategies for these registries can be found on the Cochrane Collaboration Depression, Anxiety and Neurosis Group’s webpage (<http://ccdancochrane.org/>). The most recent updated search for this review was done in February 2012. The quality ratings were operationalized, and studies were categorized into either a low risk of bias, a high risk of bias, or an unclear risk of bias for each domain. All the assessments were performed by two independent review authors, and disagreements were resolved by discussion between two authors and, where necessary, in consultation with a third author. Missing information was sought by contacting the original authors, whenever possible.

Outcome Measures

Acute treatment was defined as an 8-week treatment in the analyses. If 8-week data were not available, we used data ranging between 4 and 16 weeks, and the time point given in the original study as the study endpoint was given preference.

Response was our pre-defined primary outcome, as this allows the inclusion of all dropouts and thus enables a conservative estimate of the treatment effect according to the intention-to-treat principle. We defined response as the proportion of patients who showed a reduction of at least 50 % from the baseline score on the Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D), the Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS), or any other validated depression scale at the above-defined time point. If the original authors reported several outcomes, we gave preference to the BDI for a self-rating scale and the HAM-D for an observer-rating scale. Observer-rated scales were preferred to self-reported scales.

Intention-to-treat analyses were based on the total number of randomly assigned participants, irrespective of how the original study investigators analyzed the data, by assuming that all dropouts were non-responders. For studies in which the exact numbers of participants who had responded were not reported, but the means and standard deviations for continuous depression scales were reported, the number of responders was calculated using a validated imputation method (da Costa et al. 2012; Furukawa et al. 2005).

Analysis

Multiple Treatments Meta-analyses, and Examination of Inconsistency/Heterogeneity

We conducted multiple treatments meta-analyses. To ensure that the network was connected, a network diagram was constructed. Random-effects MTM, allowing for the heterogeneity of treatment effects across studies, was conducted in a Bayesian framework using OpenBUGS 3.2.1. These methods combine direct and indirect evidence for all three pairs of treatments. A key assumption of MTM is that of consistency, i.e., that direct and indirect evidence do not disagree beyond chance. In the first instance, one should ensure that the subsets of trials forming the network are similar in factors which could modify the treatment effect. Where feasible, consistency should also be statistically evaluated. Here, we used the posterior mean of the residual deviance as a global goodness of fit statistic to assess consistency. In a well-fitting model the residual deviance should be close to the number of data points. In

case with considerable inconsistency, we investigated the possible sources.

Quantifying Specific Versus Non-specific Components

The relative contributions of specific effects and non-specific effects were estimated by dividing $\log(OR_{CBT,PP})$ or $\log(OR_{PP,NT})$ by $\log(OR_{CBT,NT})$, where $OR_{X,Y}$ represents the odds ratio of treatment X over treatment Y.

Publication Bias and Sensitivity Analyses

To assess publication bias, we drew funnel plots for pairwise comparisons if the number of studies contributing to that comparison was ten or greater. To examine if the obtained results were preserved when we limited the included studies to only high-quality ones, we had planned a priori to examine the following variables: risk of biases (limiting to trials with a low risk of bias at allocation concealment, blinding of assessor, and treatment fidelity), included disorders, and response imputation.

Meta-regression

The following sources of possible clinical heterogeneity, which had been listed a priori, were examined as effect modifiers in network meta-analyses: number of sessions, group versus individual format, baseline depression severity, and concomitant pharmacotherapy.

Results

Selection and Inclusion of Studies

Out of 6,710 studies identified through an electronic search and reference search, 195 full-text articles were retrieved, of which 18 studies (comprising 39 treatment arms, and 1,153 participants) satisfied the eligibility criteria for the present study (Fig. 1).

Characteristics of the Included Studies

Figure 2 shows the network of evidence comparing CBT, PP, and NT. The characteristics of the included studies are listed in Table 1. The contents of the PP conditions are listed in Table 2. Two of the 18 studies had two CBT arms. Five of the 18 studies used an individual format for CBT or PP, 11 studies used a group format, and the remaining two used both formats. The number of sessions ranged from 4 to 12 sessions. Ten of the 15 studies allowed concomitant pharmacotherapy, while five studies did not. Only two

Fig. 1 Flowchart for selection of studies

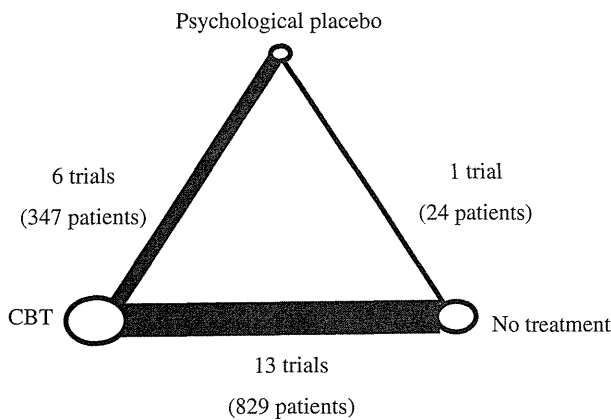
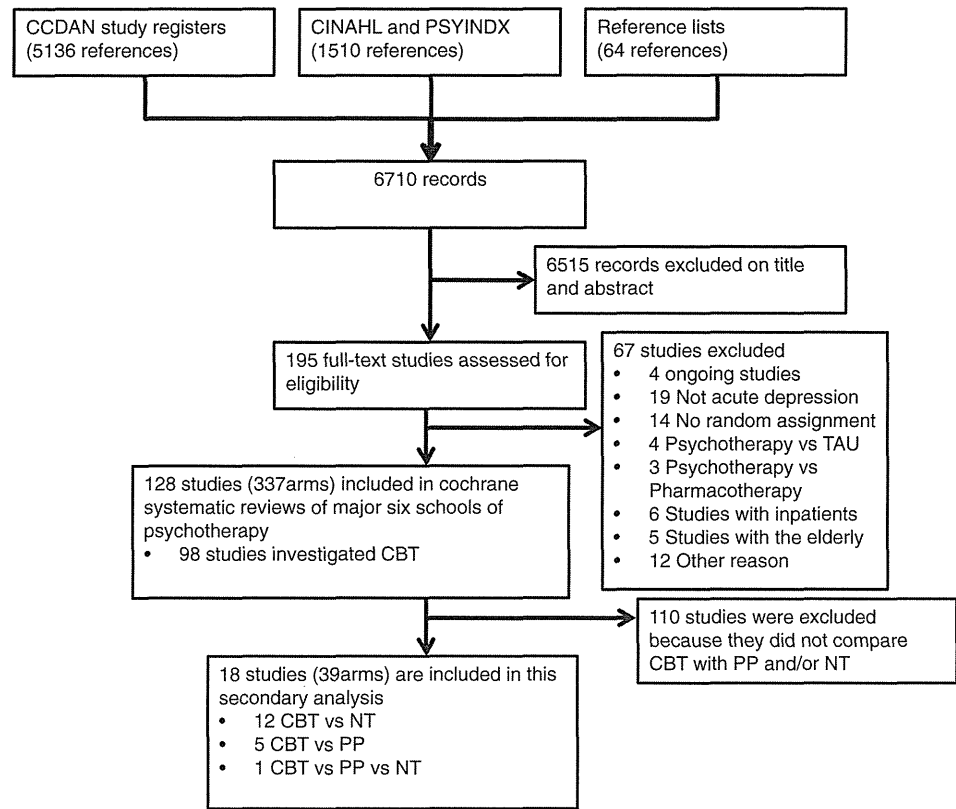


Fig. 2 Evidence network the size of each dot is proportional to the number of patients allocated and the width of line to the number of trials. Numbers do not add up to numbers in Table 1 because of a multi-arm trial by Propst 1980

studies used an observer scale (HAMD) as an outcome measure, while the other 16 studies used a self-rating scale (BDI). The mean baseline severity on the BDI was minimal (14–19) in one study, mild (20–28) in 14 studies, and moderate (>28) in one study. The quality of the included studies varied but was generally moderate. Ten studies reported adequate allocation concealment. One out of two

studies using an objective scale reported the blinding of the assessors. Three studies reported fidelity monitoring for CBT or PP. Twelve studies included patients with major depressive disorder diagnosed according to operationalized diagnostic criteria, while the remaining six included patients scoring above the accepted threshold of a validated depression screening instrument. We had to use the imputed response rates based on the continuous severity score at the end of treatment in 16 studies. All but one study provided data on the numbers of randomized patients. We used the number of participants assessed at the end of treatment as the denominator for the remaining study.

Pair-wise Meta-analyses

We conducted CBT versus PP and CBT versus NT pair-wise meta-analyses (Table 3). These analyses showed that CBT was significantly more effective than NT in bringing about a response. The CBT versus PP comparison was not significant. Overall, the heterogeneity was moderate, although for all comparisons the 95 % CI included values that showed very high or no heterogeneity, reflecting the small number of included studies for each pair-wise comparison.

Table 1 Selected characteristics of the included studies

Study	N of arms in:			N	Included disorders	Baseline BDI	Format	N of sessions	Con- comitant pharmacotherapy	Outcome scale	Risk of Bias			Response imputed
	CBT	PP	NT								Allocation concealment	Blinding of assessors	Treatment fidelity	
Besyner1979 (Besyner 1979)	1	1		20	Other	24.9	Grp	4	Unclear	BDI	Unclear	High	Unclear	Imputed
Dowrick_Finland ^a	1		1	50	MDD+	21.1	Ind	6	Allowed	BDI	Low	High	Unclear	Imputed
Rural1996 (Dowrick et al. 2000; Dunn et al. 2003)														
Dowrick_Finland ^a	1		1	47	MDD+	21.3	Ind	6	Allowed	BDI	Low	High	Unclear	Imputed
Urban1996 (Dowrick et al. 2000; Dunn et al. 2003)														
Dowrick_Ireland ^a	1		1	38	MDD+	23	Grp	8	Allowed	BDI	Low	High	Unclear	Imputed
UrbanRural1996 (Dowrick et al. 2000; Dunn et al. 2003)														
Dowrick_Norway ^a	1		1	61	MDD+	19.2	Grp	8	Allowed	BDI	Low	High	Unclear	Imputed
Rural1996 (Dowrick et al. 2000; Dunn et al. 2003)														
Dowrick_Norway ^a	1		1	67	MDD+	21	Grp	8	Allowed	BDI	Low	High	Unclear	Imputed
Urban1996 (Dowrick et al. 2000; Dunn et al. 2003)														
Dowrick_Spain ^a	1		1	30	MDD+	22	Ind	6	Allowed	BDI	Low	High	Unclear	Imputed
Urban1996 (Dowrick et al. 2000; Dunn et al. 2003)														
Dowrick_UK ^a	1		1	49	MDD+	26	Ind	6	Allowed	BDI	Low	High	Unclear	Imputed
Rural1996 (Dowrick et al. 2000; Dunn et al. 2003)														
Dowrick_UK ^a	2		1	84	MDD+	24.8	Ind/Grp	6/8	Allowed	BDI	Low	High	Unclear	Imputed
Urban1996 (Dowrick et al. 2000; Dunn et al. 2003)														
Faramarzi 2008 (Faramarzi et al. 2008)	1		1	82	Other	19.9	Grp	10	No	BDI	Unclear	High	Unclear	Imputed
Fuchs1977 (Fuchs and Rehm 1977)	1	1		18 ^b	Other	NA	Grp	6	Unclear	BDI	Unclear	High	Unclear	Imputed
Hamamci2006 (Hamamci 2006)	1		1	24	Other	28.4	Grp	11	No	BDI	Unclear	High	Unclear	Imputed
Hamdan-Mansour2009 (Hamdan-Mansour et al. 2009)	1		1	84	Other	24.1	Grp	10	Unclear	BDI	Low	High	Low	Imputed
Hegerl2010 (Hegerl et al. 2010)	1	1		120	MDD+	NA	Grp	10	No	HAMD	Unclear	Unclear	Low	No
Kelly1982 (Kelly 1982)	1	1		16	MDD+	25.4	Grp	6	Allowed	BDI	Unclear	High	Unclear	Imputed
Miranda2003 (Miranda et al. 2003)	1		1	179	MDD+	NA	Ind/Grp	8	No	HAMD	Low	Low	Unclear	No

Table 1 continued

Study	N of arms in:		N	Included disorders	Baseline BDI	Format	N of sessions	Con-comitant pharmacotherapy	Outcome scale	Risk of Bias		Response imputed
	CBT	PP								NT	Allocation concealment	
Propst1980 (Propst 1980)	2	1	1	47	Other	8	No	BDI	Unclear	High	Unclear	Imputed
Serfaty2009 (Serfaty et al. 2009)	1	1	1	137	MDD+	12	Allowed	BDI	Low	High	Low	Imputed

CBT cognitive behavior therapies, PP psychological placebo, NT no treatment, BDI beck depression inventory, MDD+ major depressive disorder diagnosed by operationalised diagnostic criteria

^a Downrick et al. (2000) reports nine independently conducted, albeit according to concerted protocols, RCTs. Two of these RCTs conducted in Ireland were reported in an amalgamated form in the definitive report Dunn et al. (2003) and is therefore treated as one trial in this meta-analysis

^b For Fuchs and Rehm (1977), randomized N was not available. Instead we used number of participants assessed at the end of intervention

Multiple Treatment Meta-analyses and Examination of Inconsistency/Heterogeneity

The consistency model provided an adequate fit to the data, with a posterior mean residual deviance of 37.8 for 37 data points, although an index of heterogeneity (the median between-trials standard deviation) was relatively high ($\sigma = 0.70$). Table 4 summarizes the results of the MTM. CBT was significantly superior to NT. CBT was not significantly different from PP, nor was PP from NT.

Publication Bias and Sensitivity Analyses

We drew a funnel plot for the primary outcome of the studies comparing CBT and NT. Egger’s test was not significant ($P = 0.34$). For other comparisons, the number of comparisons was too small for a funnel plot.

There were not enough studies to conduct MTM for sensitivity analyses, so we only conducted pair-wise meta-analyses. Among them, limiting the studies to high-quality trials did not change the overall results (see Table 3).

Meta-regression

We conducted meta-regressions for MTM to examine the effects of selected covariates on efficacy. The association between the treatment effect and the number of sessions was significant (slope -0.21 ; 95 % CrI -0.42 to -0.002). We found no indication that the treatment efficacy was significantly associated with the baseline depression severity according to the BDI (slope -0.05 ; 95 % CrI -0.21 to 0.10), nor did we find an association between the effect size and the CBT format (slope: -0.04 ; 95 %CrI: -1.28 to 1.18) or concomitant pharmacotherapy (slope -0.52 ; 95 % CrI -1.56 to 0.45).

Figure 3 shows the estimated relationship between the number of sessions and the specificity of CBT. Table 4 presents a post hoc meta-regression dichotomizing the number of session into “ ≥ 10 ” and “ < 10 ”. The specific component now contributed 50.4 % (95 % CrI 19.7–85.0 %) of the total efficacy of CBT over NT when the number of sessions was 10 or over. The interaction was qualitative (Table 4), suggesting that CBT is specifically beneficial only if it is given in 10 or more sessions.

Discussion

A systematic comprehensive search of the literature yielded a network of evidence of 18 studies (comprising 39 arms, and 1153 patients) comparing CBT, PP, and NT. The MTM of the evidence network was consistent, revealing that CBT was significantly more likely to yield a response

Table 2 Description of psychological placebo conditions in each study

Study	Description of PP
Besyner (1979)	Nonspecific group: “Therapist behavior was limited to reflection and clarification of verbal material and questioning to facilitate discussion. It may be argued that such procedures are akin to, if not identical with, those employed by Rogerian therapists. While the validity of this argument cannot be denied, it is the belief of this researcher that such procedures are considered to be minimally therapeutic.” (page 70, line 10)
Fuchs and Rehm (1977)	Nonspecific therapy: “Session 1 began in the same way as the self-control procedure with introductions, collection of deposits, a review of confidentiality issues, and a 10-minute group interaction assessment procedure. As in the other groups, participants were given an information sheet and a general introduction to group therapy concepts, generally from a nondirective framework. From that point on and throughout the ensuing sessions, therapists in this condition attempted to elicit discussion of past and current problems, to encourage group interaction, and to reflect and clarify feelings in an empathic manner. Although therapists at times suggested simple exercises within the group to facilitate open discussion, they were specifically instructed neither to recommend out-of-therapy activity nor explicitly to teach behavioral principles. These sessions lasted approximately 2 h weekly, as did self-control therapy sessions.” (page 209, left column, line 24)
Hegerl et al. (2010)	Guided self help group (GSG): “In the GSG, a supportive atmosphere was created, allowing the participants to communicate about their situation and daily life, but no psychotherapeutic intervention was allowed by the group leader.” (page 33, right column, line 1)
Kelly (1982)	Nondirective group: “The nondirective group served as a control group and met for the same amount of time as the other groups, but did not undergo their treatment procedures. Outside of behavior change strategies and cognitive strategies, the group was free to discuss any topics (e.g., support, jobs, etc.). All sessions, with the exception of the first, consisted of a review of the previous meeting’s topic and a discussion of issues the group members felt were important. The therapist behavior during all sessions was as consistent as possible. An attempt was made to provide all group members with maximum empathy and warmth.” (page 41, line 10)
Propst (1980)	Therapist Contact plus Self-Monitoring: “Participants in this condition simply met for a discussion group and kept track of their daily mood. For homework they were to record items for group discussion on their mood cards. The content of the discussion was up to the participants, as the therapists participated as little as possible.” (page 172, line 5)

Table 2 continued

Study	Description of PP
Serfaty et al. (2009)	Talking Control: “Clearly defined criteria for the TC group were used to prevent CBT from being delivered. Talking control therapy was developed during our feasibility work, and details are available from the authors. The therapists practiced delivering the TC in role plays with the supervisor so that difficult questions could be addressed. Dysfunctional beliefs were not challenged; however, the therapists were asked to show interest and warmth, encouraging participants to discuss neutral topics such as hobbies, sports, and current affairs. No advice or problem solving was given, and there was little focus on emotional issues. No suggestions for behavioral tasks were offered. So for example, if the patient said, “My daughter does not like me as she never comes to visit me,” the therapist would ask, “How many children do you have?” (page 1334, right column, line 8)

than NT (OR 2.24, 1.32–3.88) and that CBT was nominally, but not significantly, superior to PP (OR 1.30, 0.53–2.94), which in turn was superior to NT (OR 1.73, 0.67–4.84). For all the comparisons, the credible intervals were relatively wide because of the lack of power. The specificity of CBT was estimated to constitute 35.0 % (–99.5 to 180.3 %) of its efficacy over NT.

Pooling all available evidence, the estimate for the specificity of CBT had an extremely wide credible interval. In other words, overall, the currently available best evidence was compatible with both the no specificity hypothesis, i.e., the Dodo bird verdict (Baardseth et al. 2013; Luborsky et al. 2002; Luborsky and Singer 1975; Smith and Glass 1977; Wampold et al. 1997), as well as all foregoing point estimates ranging between 25 and 72 % (Barker et al. 1988; Bowers and Clum 1988; Lambert and Barley 2001; Stevens et al. 2000). However, post hoc exploratory analyses revealed that CBT of adequate length had a specificity component of about 50 %, with a 95 % credible interval between 20 and 85 %. We may now assume, with some confidence, that CBT has a non-zero specific component in the treatment of depression in adults.

There is now corollary evidence to suggest that the Dodo bird verdict is not universally operative. Critical incident stress debriefing is a form of crisis counseling aimed at preventing the development of posttraumatic stress disorder. It is typically delivered to a group of trauma survivors in a single 1–3-h session that takes place within 1 week of the trauma event. Although it does contain many common factors, such as empathic listening by experts in the field with credible explanatory models, specific factors appear to be at work leading to null to harmful results

Table 3 Pair-wise meta-analyses and sensitivity analyses

	Pair wise meta-analyses		Allocation concealment		Blinding of assessors		Treatment fidelity		Included disorders		Response imputed	
	OR (95 % CI)	n	OR (95 % CI)	n	OR (95 % CI)	n	OR (95 % CI)	n	OR (95 % CI)	n	OR (95 % CI)	n
CBT versus NT	2.07 (1.35–3.18)	13	1.79 (1.18–2.71)	10	1.31 (0.67–2.52)	1	7.00 (2.31–21.19)	1	1.49 (1.03–2.15)	9	1.31 (0.67–2.52)	1
CBT versus PP	1.74 (0.79–3.83)	6	1.55 (0.84–2.83)	1	NA	0	2.54 (1.34–4.82)	2	2.11 (1.16–3.83)	3	4.89 (1.53–15.66)	1
PP versus NT	2.04 (0.40–10.55)	1	NA	0	NA	0	NA	0	NA	0	NA	0

n number of included studies

Table 4 Odds ratios of response and specificity of CBT estimated in MTM and its meta-regression

	Overall MTM	Meta-regression MTM	
		<10sessions	≥10sessions
CBT versus NT	2.24 (1.32 to 3.88)	1.53 (1.02 to 2.28)	7.37 (3.74 to 15.15)
CBT versus PP	1.30 (0.53 to 2.94)	0.55 (0.27 to 1.20)	2.71 (1.42 to 5.33)
PP versus NT	1.73 (0.67 to 4.84)	2.72 (1.28 to 5.76)	2.72 (1.28 to 5.76)
CBT specific component	35.0 % (–99.5 % to 180.3 %)	–159.6 % (–958.4 % to 90.6 %)	50.4 % (19.7 % to 85.0 %)

Numbers in parentheses represent 95 % credible intervals

(Rose et al. 2002; van Emmerik et al. 2002). Cottraux et al. (2001) demonstrated that cognitive therapy and exposure therapy may have differential degrees of effectiveness on obsessive–compulsive disorder (OCD), with the former having greater effects on depression and anxiety and the latter having greater effects on intrusive thoughts and OCD symptoms. They also reported some analyses showing that the amount of specific effects increases from post-treatment to follow-up, which could indicate that the post-treatment results are more strongly influenced by common factors, while follow-up assessments can reflect more specific components.

The number of included studies may appear limited in comparison with some recent systematic reviews of CBT for depression (Barth et al. 2013; Jakobsen et al. 2011), but our objective was not to perform a systematic review of CBT in general but to ask a focused question regarding the specificity of CBT by performing a network meta-analysis, for which the homogeneity and consistency of the included interventions and populations were more important than for traditional pairwise meta-analyses. We therefore focused on face-to-face CBT, with patients who were diagnosed as

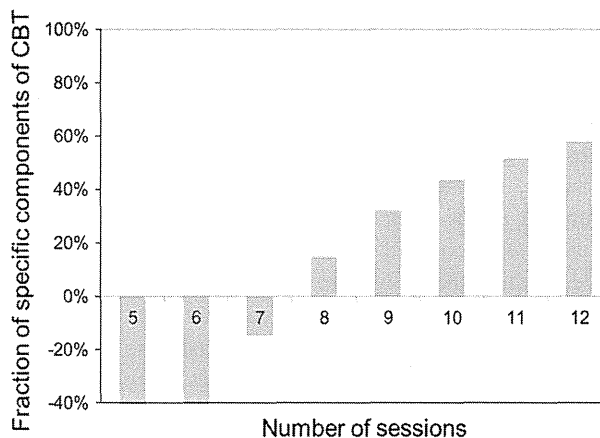


Fig. 3 Specific component of CBT for each number of sessions

having acute depression according to operationalized diagnostic criteria or by scoring above the accepted threshold of a validated depression screening instrument. We also did not include behavior therapy or third-wave CBT in order to focus on narrowly defined CBT. We excluded studies if they employed protocolized pharmacotherapy in conjunction with CBT. Neither did we include the waiting list control, often used in psychotherapy research, as an NT control because there is a growing suspicion that the waiting list control may be differentiated from the NT condition (Watanabe et al. 2007). We further limited PP to interventions that were regarded as lacking an active component by researchers in the trial but that were explained as having an active component to the participants. We did not consider so-called counseling or supportive psychotherapy as PP because we believe these techniques have active components and should be classified as an active treatment. We adopted this narrow definition of PP in order to avoid bias due to researcher allegiance. All in all, out of the 128 studies found in the original study selection, we were only able to include 18 studies comparing CBT with PP and/or NT during the acute phase treatment of adults with depression (Fig. 1).

Several caveats are in order before we conclude. First, despite our systematic and comprehensive search of the literature, we were able to include only a relatively small number of studies. Thus, for example, although the network meta-regression revealed that the specific component of CBT may constitute half of its efficacy when CBT was given for ten or more sessions, it ought to be noted that only 5 of the 18 studies had ten or more sessions. Secondly, the evidence was not only quantitatively, but also qualitatively less than desirable. Allocation concealment was reported to be adequate in only three studies, and assessor blinding was reported in only one of the 18 studies. Furthermore, only three studies examined treatment fidelity in a satisfactory manner, and the response rates had to be imputed from the reported continuous outcomes in all but two studies. The results, however, were robust to sensitivity analyses. Thirdly, the heterogeneity of evidence network among CBT, PP, and NT, measured in terms of the median between-trial standard deviation, was relatively large when compared with the estimated effect sizes between the treatment arms. The heterogeneity coupled with the small sample size may have limited the power to detect relatively weak but important effect modifiers. We were not able to conduct many of the pre-planned sensitivity analyses, and where we were able to perform such analyses, they may have lacked an adequate power. However, when we included characteristics of the trials as effect modifiers and when the heterogeneity arising from the number of sessions was accounted for, the median between-trial standard deviations decreased. Last, but not least, our analytical model supposes a simple additive relationship between specific and non-specific components. However, it is imaginable that some interaction may exist between the two types of components: for example, if a treatment is very effective from its beginning, this would increase the patients' expectations for a positive outcome and hence would increase the placebo effect, but this can occur only in the treatment group. We would need better-designed studies, possibly with multiple control conditions with differential intensities, to detect such interactions.

On the other hand, the strengths of the present study may be as follows. First and foremost, we started with a well-formulated and well-focused clinical question to examine the specificity of a well-delineated intervention, i.e. CBT, for a specific clinical condition, i.e. acute phase treatment of depression in adults. Secondly, we followed the Cochrane review methodology. Comprehensive literature searches were conducted so as to minimize publication bias (Egger et al. 2003). Detailed manuals were prepared to guide the selection and data extraction of studies in duplicates. We also examined possible sources of bias and

conducted analyses following an intention-to-treatment principle as closely as possible. Thirdly, the use of MTM has enabled us to examine the consistency of the totality of evidence surrounding CBT, PP, and NT and to derive the most precise estimate of the specific component of CBT possible based on randomized evidence, while adjusting for possible effect modifiers. Thus, the main weaknesses of previous reviews, namely the unfocused inclusion of participants and interventions, the lack of systematic searches, and the small effect sizes with wide 95 % CI, have all been addressed in this study.

In conclusion, the present study represents the most up-to-date and comprehensive summary for the specificity hypothesis of CBT for depression. Despite the quantitatively and qualitatively limited body of randomized evidence examining this issue, the present study suggested a non-null specific component for one form of psychotherapy for one particular disorder. Future studies are needed to assess the specificity of CBT and other well-defined psychotherapies of adequate length and of satisfactory quality for various psychiatric disorders and psychological problems. Such psychotherapies, when they do exist, should be given preference in the provision and training of psychotherapies. The Dodo bird verdict is on the verge of extinction.

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Conflict of interest TAF has received honoraria for speaking at CME meetings sponsored by Asahi Kasei, Eli Lilly, GlaxoSmith-Kline, Mochida, MSD, Otsuka, Pfizer, Shionogi and Tanabe-Mitsubishi. He is 18 diplomate of the Academy of Cognitive Therapy. He has received royalties from Igaku-Shoin, Seiwa-Shoten and Nihon Bunka Kagaku-sha. He is on advisory board for Sekisui Chemicals and Takeda Science Foundation. All the other authors have no conflicts of interest to declare. This study was supported in part by Grant-in-Aid by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare to TAF. The study has not been presented at any meeting.

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Comparative efficacy and tolerability of pharmacological treatments in the maintenance treatment of bipolar disorder: a systematic review and network meta-analysis



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Summary

Background Lithium is the established standard in the long-term treatment of bipolar disorder, but several new drugs have been assessed for this indication. We did a network meta-analysis to investigate the comparative efficacy and tolerability of available pharmacological treatment strategies for bipolar disorder.

Methods We systematically searched Embase, Medline, PreMedline, PsycINFO, and the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials for randomised controlled trials published before June 28, 2013, that compared active treatments for bipolar disorder (or placebo), either as monotherapy or as add-on treatment, for at least 12 weeks. The primary outcomes were the number of participants with recurrence of any mood episode, and the number of participants who discontinued the trial because of adverse events. We assessed efficacy and tolerability of bipolar treatments using a random-effects network meta-analysis within a Bayesian framework.

Findings We screened 114 potentially eligible studies and identified 33 randomised controlled trials, published between 1970 and 2012, that examined 17 treatments for bipolar disorder (or placebo) in 6846 participants. Participants assigned to all assessed treatments had a significantly lower risk of any mood relapse or recurrence compared with placebo, except for those assigned to aripiprazole (risk ratio [RR] 0.62, 95% credible interval [CrI] 0.38–1.03), carbamazepine (RR 0.68, 0.44–1.06), imipramine (RR 0.95, 0.66–1.36), and paliperidone (RR 0.84, 0.56–1.24). Lamotrigine and placebo were significantly better tolerated than carbamazepine (lamotrigine, RR 5.24, 1.07–26.32; placebo, RR 3.60, 1.04–12.94), lithium (RR 3.76, 1.13–12.66; RR 2.58, 1.33–5.39), or lithium plus valproate (RR 5.95, 1.02–33.33; RR 4.09, 1.01–16.96).

Interpretation Although most of the drugs analysed were more efficacious than placebo and generally well tolerated, differences in the quality of evidence and the side-effect profiles should be taken into consideration by clinicians and patients. In view of the efficacy in prevention of both manic episode and depressive episode relapse or recurrence and the better quality of the supporting evidence, lithium should remain the first-line treatment when prescribing a relapse-prevention drug in patients with bipolar disorder, notwithstanding its tolerability profile.

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Introduction

Bipolar disorder is a complex disorder characterised by recurrent episodes of depression and mania (bipolar I disorder) or hypomania (bipolar II disorder).^{1,2} The lifetime prevalence of bipolar I and II disorders has been estimated at about 0.5% and 1.5%, respectively.³ Bipolar disorder is often chronic: results of long-term prospective follow-up studies show that the proportions of bipolar I patients who remain in remission are very low: 28% for 4 years and about 10% for 5 years.^{4–6}

Long-term treatment is usually needed to minimise the risk of serious relapse or recurrence and to stabilise mood. Pharmacotherapy is the standard therapeutic approach. Lithium has been the standard long-term therapy for 40 years, but antiepileptics, antipsychotics, and antidepressants are also recommended and widely used in clinical practice. As the number and variety of available drugs increase, uncertainty about their com-

parative efficacy and tolerability increases, and questions remain about which agent should be used for which patient.^{7–9}

When several treatment options are available for a specific indication, having a reliable estimate of comparative efficacy (prevention of any mood episode, of manic, hypomanic, or mixed episode, and of depressive episode), tolerability, and acceptability is clinically useful. In the absence of direct comparisons between all available treatments, a network meta-analysis can be used to synthesise the available direct and indirect evidence. This method has been successfully applied to guide clinical practices in medicine and psychiatry.^{10–12} We did a systematic review and network meta-analysis of the efficacy and tolerability of pharmacological treatments for bipolar disorder to provide the most up-to-date, methodologically sound summary of the available evidence and to inform decisions about long-term treatment.

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Methods

Search strategy and selection criteria

Before beginning the review, we registered the study protocol with the PROSPERO database of systematic reviews (number CRD42012002739; appendix pp 2–11), and we did our systematic review in accordance with PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) guidelines. Subsequent changes to the protocol are shown in the appendix (p 12). The overall dataset is available online.

We searched Embase, Medline, PreMedline, PsycINFO, and the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL) to identify eligible studies published between the date of the databases' inception and July 26, 2012, and we updated the search on June 28, 2013. We also searched international trial registers via the WHO's International Clinical Trials Registry Platform (ICTRP) and the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) website on July 4, 2013, and asked pharmaceutical companies to provide additional information about their studies. Full details of the search strategies are given in the appendix (pp 13–26).

We included all randomised controlled trials comparing any pharmacological agent with placebo or active comparator, with at least 12 weeks of follow-up, for the maintenance treatment of patients with a primary diagnosis of bipolar disorder, irrespective of whether the patients' subtypes were specified or not. We also included trials in which the investigators did not use operationalised criteria, but apparently discriminated between bipolar illness and unipolar depression and provided the data separately for bipolar patients. We excluded studies focusing on child or adolescent bipolar disorder. The eligible pharmacological agents included not only the so-called mood stabilisers, but also any antipsychotics, antidepressants, and antiepileptic drugs. We included combination or augmentation studies when the two drugs used were specified, but excluded studies whose treatment group allowed either lithium or valproate as the baseline treatment. We included open trials and those with any level of blinding. We included blinded drugs, open-label drugs, and also open-label drugs plus blinded placebo into the same drug node in the network meta-analysis, because these three treatment groups should not differ in their pharmacological activities. To investigate the effect of blinding, we did a sensitivity analysis restricted to trials using double blinding. We excluded studies in which participants were randomly assigned to a maintenance treatment regimen while in an acute mood episode (so-called continuation studies); however, we included prophylaxis design (euthymic participants were eligible) and relapse prevention design (only those who responded to the investigational drug during the acute-phase treatment were eligible to be randomly assigned to either remain on the drug or be switched to placebo or comparator).

Outcome measures and data extraction

The primary outcomes were the number of participants with any recurrent mood episode (depressive, manic, hypomanic, or mixed) as defined by the study investigators (treatment efficacy) and the number of participants who dropped out of treatment because of adverse events (treatment tolerability), both at the longest available follow-up. Secondary outcomes included the number of participants who had a depressive episode, those who had a manic, hypomanic, or mixed episode, and those who discontinued treatment for any reason including relapse (treatment acceptability). We also examined the number of participants who completed suicide and the social functioning of all patients.

At least two of three reviewers (TM, HM, and TAF) selected the studies, and TM and HM, independently, were responsible for data extraction. We contacted the corresponding author or sponsor of the original article for further information when necessary. Any disagreements were resolved through discussion within the review team. We assessed the risk of bias in the included studies using the Cochrane Collaboration method, with an additional item to assess whether definitions of the mood episode relapse or recurrence were explicit or operationalised, or not.¹³

Statistical analysis

Network meta-analysis combines direct and indirect evidence for all relative treatment effects and provides estimates with maximum power.^{14–18} Although an odds ratio (OR) is a frequently used effect measure in network meta-analyses, it is not necessarily an approximation to a risk ratio (RR), which is generally easier to interpret for clinicians. We therefore used RRs in our network meta-analysis since event rates were not small in some trials.

First, we did pair-wise meta-analyses of direct evidence using the random-effects model, with R version 3.0.0 and the metafor package.^{19,20} Second, we did a random-effects network meta-analysis within a Bayesian framework using Markov chain Monte Carlo in OpenBUGS 3.2.2.²¹ Comparative RRs are reported with their 95% credible intervals (CrIs). The network meta-analysis model and the BUGS codes are shown in the appendix (pp 27–30).

The assumption of transitivity²² in the network (a prime requisite of network meta-analysis) was first assessed by considering the distributions of major effect modifiers (publication year, subtypes of bipolar disorder, percentage of female participants, inclusion of rapid-cycling bipolar disorder, mood state at recruitment, and treatment before randomisation) for all the comparisons in the networks. Consistency between direct and indirect sources of evidence was then statistically assessed globally (by comparing the fit and parsimony of consistency and inconsistency models) and locally (by calculating the difference between direct and indirect estimates in all closed loops in the network).^{23–25} We graphically presented

For more on the PROSPERO database see http://www.crd.york.ac.uk/NIHR_PROSPERO

See Online for appendix

For the complete dataset see <http://www.med.kyushu-u.ac.jp/psychiatry/>

For more on WHO's trials portal see <http://apps.who.int/trialsearch/>

For the FDA's website see <http://www.fda.gov/>

the data and evaluated inconsistency using computational and graphical tools with STATA version 13.0.²³

The treatment network will consist of closed loops and single-standing nodes. Because transitivity of single-standing nodes cannot be assessed, and its effect size estimates do not benefit from the network (ie, they cannot borrow strength from the entire network), but are often based on only one trial, analyses mainly focused on the treatment nodes constituting the closed-loop network.

We assessed the quality of evidence contributing to each network estimate with the GRADE framework, which characterises the quality of a body of evidence on the basis of the study limitations, imprecision, heterogeneity or inconsistency, indirectness, and publication bias.²⁶ The starting point for confidence in each network estimate was high, but was downgraded according to the assessments of these five aspects. We quantified the limitation of studies contributing to each network estimate by calculating the contributions from studies with an enrichment design and secondly by calculating those from studies at high risk of bias. The judgment of precision was based on whether the CrI around the point estimate overlapped with the clinically meaningful threshold.

We did sensitivity analyses using publication year, subtypes of bipolar disorder, rapid-cycling course of illness, enrichment design, sponsorship bias, duration of follow-up, and blinding of the treatment group.

Role of the funding source

This study received no external funding. The corresponding author had full access to all the data in the study and had final responsibility for the decision to submit for publication.

Results

We identified 10815 references through the electronic searches and retrieved 114 potentially eligible studies to analyse in detail (figure 1). We excluded 83 reports that did not meet the eligibility criteria, and identified two further studies when we updated our search. We also found one candidate trial from the WHO ICTRP search; however, insufficient information was available and we therefore regarded the study as awaiting assessment. We found another candidate trial²⁷ from inquiries to pharmaceutical companies and requested detailed information about it, but the clinical data of the study were not available from the company. We did not find any unpublished trials from the FDA website.

In our network meta-analysis, we included 33 trials published between 1970 and 2012, including 6846 participants. Table 1 lists the included studies (for details and references, see appendix pp 31–46) and table 2 reports their summary characteristics. The mean age of

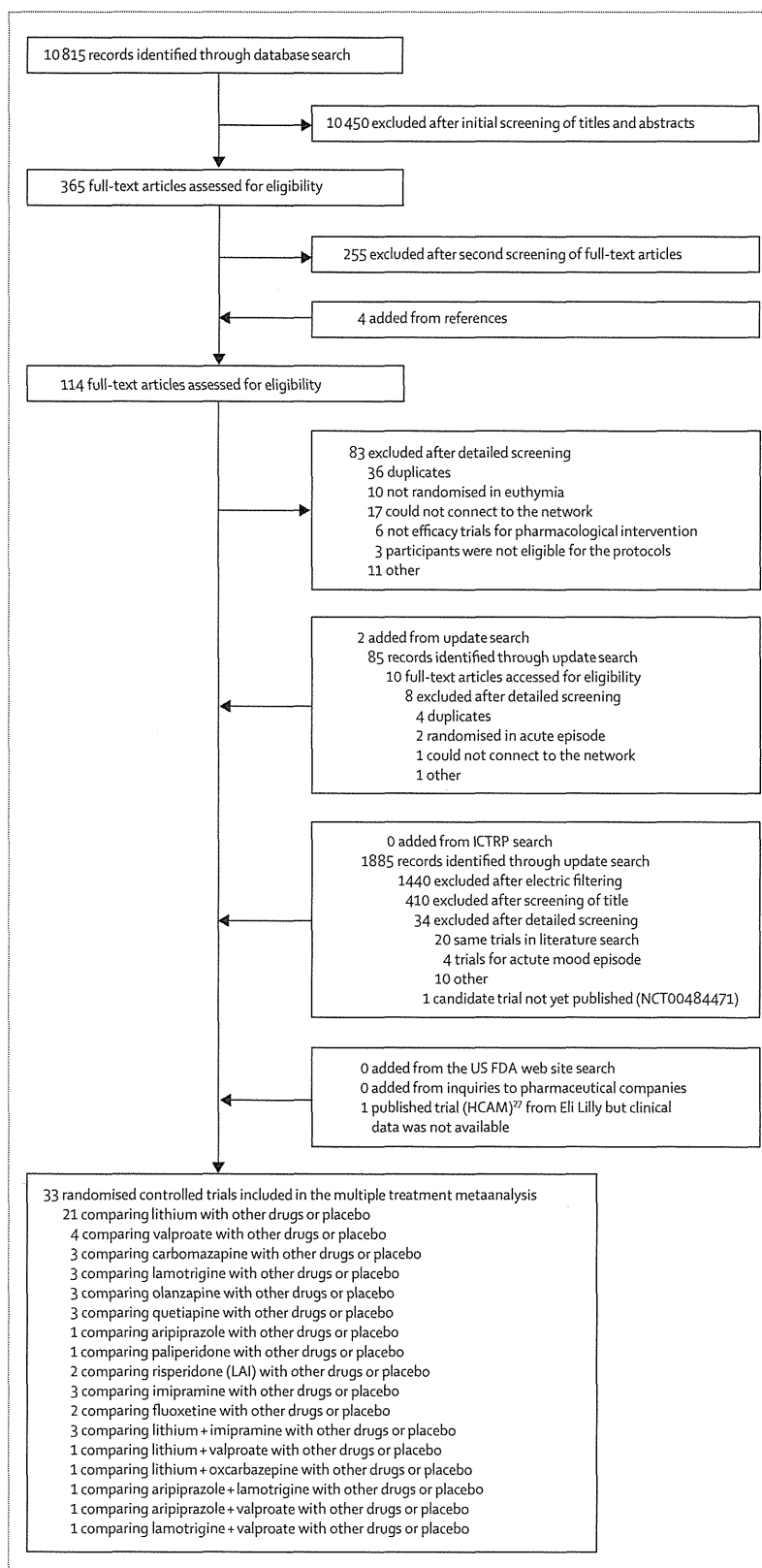


Figure 1: PRISMA flowchart

ICTRP=WHO International Clinical Trials Registry Platform. FDA=Food and Drug Administration. LAI=longacting injection. PRISMA=Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses.

	Interventions (number of participants)	Included diagnosis	Mood status at recruitment	Blinding	Enrichment design
Melia, 1970	Lithium (5) vs placebo (6)	BP	Euthymia	Double-blind	No
Cundall, 1972	Lithium (8) vs placebo (5)	BP	Unknown	Double-blind	Yes
Prien, 1973a	Lithium (18) vs imipramine (13) vs placebo (13)	BP	Depressive episode	Double-blind	No
Prien, 1973b	Lithium (101) vs placebo (104)	BP	Manic episode/hypomanic episode	Double-blind	Yes
Dunner, 1976	Lithium (16) vs placebo (24)	BP-II, BP other	Euthymia	Double-blind	No
Fieve, 1976	Lithium (24) vs placebo (29)	BP-I, BP-II	Euthymia	Double-blind	No
Kane, 1981	Lithium + imipramine (37) vs lithium + placebo (38)	BP-I	Euthymia	Double-blind	No
Kane, 1982	Lithium + imipramine (6) vs lithium (4) vs imipramine (5) vs placebo (7)	BP-II	Euthymia	Double-blind	No
Prien, 1984	Lithium + imipramine (36) vs imipramine (36) vs lithium (42)	BP	Manic episode/hypomanic episode/mixed episode/depressive episode	Double-blind	Yes
Coxhead, 1992	Lithium (16) vs carbamazepine (15)	BP	Euthymia	Double-blind	No
Bowden, 2000	Valproate (187) vs lithium (91) vs placebo (94)	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode/euthymia	Double-blind	No
Calabrese, 2000	Lamotrigine (93) vs placebo (89)	BP-I, BP-II	Manic episode/hypomanic episode/mixed episode/depressive episode/euthymia	Double-blind	Yes
Kleindienst, 2000	Lithium (86) vs carbamazepine (85)	BP-I, BP-II, BP-NOS	Manic episode/hypomanic episode/mixed episode/depressive episode	Open	No
Bowden, 2003	Lamotrigine (59) vs lithium (46) vs placebo (70)	BP-I	Manic episode/hypomanic episode	Double-blind	Yes
Calabrese, 2003	Lamotrigine (171) vs lithium (121) vs placebo (121)	BP-I	Depressive episode	Double-blind	Yes
Hartong, 2003	Carbamazepine (30) vs lithium (23)	BP-I, BP-II	Euthymia	Double-blind	No
Amsterdam, 2005	Fluoxetine (8) vs placebo (4)	BP-II	Depressive episode	Double-blind	Yes
Calabrese, 2005	Lithium (32) vs valproate (28)	BP-I, BP-II	Manic episode/hypomanic episode/mixed episode/depressive episode/euthymia	Double-blind	No
Tohen, 2005	Olanzapine (217) vs lithium (214)	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode	Double-blind	No
Tohen, 2006	Olanzapine (225) vs placebo (136)	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode	Double-blind	Yes
Keck, 2007	Aripiprazole (78) vs placebo (83)	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode	Double-blind	Yes
Vieta, 2008	Lithium + oxcarbazepine (26) vs lithium (29)	BP-I, BP-II	Euthymia	Double-blind	No
Amsterdam, 2010	Fluoxetine (28) vs lithium (26) vs placebo (27)	BP-II	Depressive episode	Double-blind	Yes
Geddes, 2010	Lithium (110) vs valproate (110) vs lithium + valproate (110)	BP-I	Euthymia	Open	No
Quiroz, 2010	Risperidone LAI (140) vs placebo (135) for efficacy outcome; risperidone LAI (154) vs placebo (149) for safety outcome	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode/euthymia	Double-blind	Yes
Koyama, 2011	Lamotrigine (45) vs placebo (58)	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode/depressive episode/euthymia	Double-blind	Yes
Weisler, 2011	Quetiapine (404) vs lithium (364) vs placebo (404)	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode/depressive episode/euthymia	Double-blind	Yes
Woo, 2011	Valproate + aripiprazole (40) vs valproate (43)	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode	Double-blind	Yes
Carlson, 2012	Aripiprazole + lamotrigine (178) vs lamotrigine (173)	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode	Double-blind	Yes
Berwaerts, 2012	Paliperidone (152) vs placebo (148)	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode	Double-blind	Yes
Young, 2012	Quetiapine (291) vs placebo (294)	BP-I, BP-II	Depressive episode	Double-blind	Yes
Bowden, 2012	Lamotrigine (45) vs lamotrigine + valproate (41)	BP-I, BP-II	Depressive episode/euthymia	Double-blind	Yes
Vieta, 2012	Risperidone LAI (132) vs placebo (135) vs olanzapine (131)	BP-I	Manic episode/mixed episode/euthymia	Double-blind	Yes

See appendix (pp 31–46) for more details and references. BP=bipolar disorder. LAI= longacting injection.

Table 1: Summary of randomised controlled trials of treatments for bipolar disorder with at least 12 weeks' follow-up

participants was 40.2 years (SD 12.8) and 3633 (55%) of 6655 participants for whom data were reported were women. The eligible diagnoses in primary studies were bipolar I disorder (15 [45%] trials), bipolar II disorder (four [12%] trials), both bipolar I and II disorder (eight [24%] trials), and unspecified bipolar disorder (six [18%] trials). Rapid-cycling bipolar disorder was excluded in five (15%) studies and included in 12 (36%) studies; no mention of it was made in the remaining 16 (48%) trials.

Participants were assigned to placebo or to one of the following 17 treatment interventions: aripiprazole,

carbamazepine, fluoxetine, imipramine, lithium, lithium plus imipramine, lithium plus oxcarbazepine, lithium plus valproate, lamotrigine, aripiprazole plus lamotrigine, valproate plus lamotrigine, olanzapine, paliperidone, quetiapine, risperidone longacting injection (LAI), valproate, and valproate plus aripiprazole. Two non-blinded randomised trials were included. The mean of the study durations of the included studies was 74.0 weeks (SD 37.6; range 17.3–171.4). We noted considerable differences across studies in mood states of the participants at study recruitment (table 2) and in treatments to stabilise

Studies (N=33)	
Recruitment area	
Cross-continental	11 (33%)
North America	14 (42%)
Europe	6 (18%)
Asia	2 (6%)
Number of treatment groups	
Two	23 (70%)
Three or more	10 (30%)
Blinding	
Open-label	2 (6%)
Single-blind	0
Double-blind	31 (94%)
Diagnostic criteria	
Not operationalised	4 (12%)
Feighner criteria	2 (6%)
Research Diagnostic Criteria	3 (9%)
DSM-III	1 (3%)
DSM-III-R	2 (6%)
DSM-IV	14 (42%)
DSM-IV-TR	7 (21%)
Included diagnosis	
Bipolar I disorder	15 (45%)
Bipolar II disorder	4 (12%)
Bipolar I and II disorder	8 (24%)
Bipolar disorder (subtype not specified)	6 (18%)
Inclusion of rapid cycling	
Included	12 (36%)
Excluded	5 (15%)
Unclear	16 (48%)
Mood statuses at recruitment	
Acute mood episode	16 (48%)
Depressive episode	5 (15%)
Manic/hypomanic/mixed episode	8 (24%)
Any acute mood episode	3 (9%)
Acute mood episode or euthymia	7 (21%)
Euthymia	6 (18%)
Unclear	4 (12%)
Mood statuses of most recent episode	
Reported*	23 (70%)
Not reported	10 (30%)
Enrichment design	
Yes	19 (58%)
No	14 (42%)
Sponsorship	
Unclear	3 (9%)
Yes	22 (67%)
No	8 (24%)

DSM=Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders. *Depressive episode was reported for 1970 participants and a manic/hypomanic/mixed episode was reported for 3660 participants.

Table 2: Summary characteristics of the 33 included studies

mood episodes before randomisation (appendix pp 55–58). An enrichment design—ie, selection of patients who responded acutely to treatment—was used in 19 (58%)

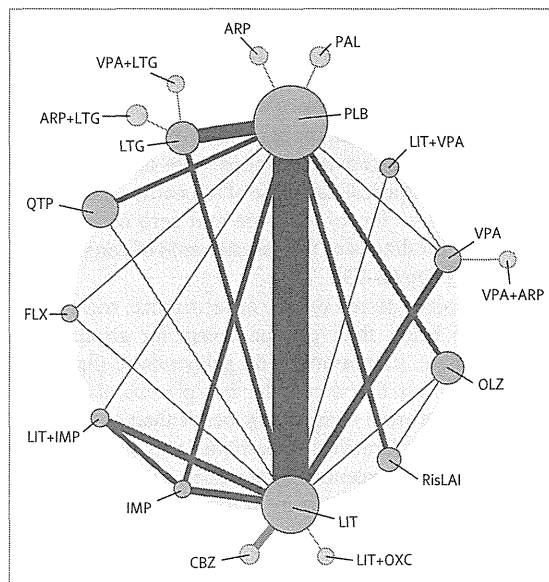


Figure 2: Network of all eligible comparisons for the network meta-analysis Each node (circle) corresponds to a drug included in the analysis, with the size proportional to the number of participants randomly assigned to that drug. Each line represents direct comparisons between drugs, with the width of the lines proportional to the number of trials comparing each pair of treatments. The treatment nodes in the closed-loop network are purple, whereas single-standing nodes and their connections are light blue. All the monotherapies, except for ARP, PAL, and CBZ, were compared with at least two other treatment nodes (ie, were in the closed-loop network). 12 (50%) of 24 comparisons for the primary efficacy outcome and seven (29%) of 24 comparisons for tolerability were done in more than one trial. ARP=aripiprazole. CBZ=carbamazepine. FLX=fluoxetine. IMP=imipramine. LIT=lithium. LTG=lamotrigine. OLZ=olanzapine. OXC=oxcarbazepine. PAL=paliperidone. PLB=placebo. QTP=quetiapine. RisLAI=risperidone longacting injection. VPA=valproate.

trials, whereas treatment before randomisation was not restricted in six (18%) trials.²⁸ In eight (24%) trials, neither one of the treatment groups had an advantage from the active run-in design (any one of the study drugs or both of them were used to stabilise mood episodes) or participants were recruited in a euthymic mood. 22 (67%) studies were done, at least in part, under industry sponsorship. Other risks of bias of the included studies are presented in the appendix (pp 47–50).

Figure 2 shows the network of eligible comparisons for the network meta-analysis. Of 153 possible pair-wise comparisons among 18 interventions, 24 direct comparisons were made for our primary outcomes (the networks for each outcome are provided in the appendix pp 51–54). Distributions of the major effect modifiers in each comparison are shown in the appendix (pp 55–58). The summaries of pair-wise meta-analyses (primary and secondary outcomes, test of heterogeneity, and funnel plots in comparison with lithium and placebo) are shown in the appendix (pp 59–67).

Figure 3 presents the results of the network meta-analyses for the primary outcomes. The heterogeneity variances of the random-effects network meta-analysis models for primary outcomes were 0.147 for any mood episode relapse or recurrence and 0.366 for tolerability.

Also, the assumption of global consistency was supported by a better trade-off between model fit and complexity when consistency was assumed than when it was not. Tests of local inconsistency revealed that the percentages for inconsistent loops were to be expected according to empirical data (one of ten comparison loops for the primary efficacy outcome and zero of seven for tolerability; for details of the assessments of consistency, see appendix pp 68–75).

For any mood episode relapse or recurrence, most of the drugs were better than placebo except for aripiprazole, carbamazepine, imipramine, and paliperidone (figure 3). Of the active drugs that were better than placebo, olanzapine and quetiapine were significantly better than lamotrigine (figure 3). For tolerability, lamotrigine and placebo were significantly better tolerated than carbamazepine, lithium, or lithium plus valproate (figure 3). The results of secondary outcomes are presented in the appendix (pp 76–80).

Figure 4 presents ranked forest plots of RRs for compounds that are included in the closed-loop network in comparison with placebo. The quality of evidence for any mood episode relapse or recurrence was rated as moderate for lithium and olanzapine, very low for lithium plus imipramine, and low for all the others (for details of the

estimation of the quality of the evidence, see appendix pp 81–106). Lithium was better than placebo in the prevention of both manic and depressive relapse or recurrence, but less well tolerated than placebo. Quetiapine was also better than placebo in the prevention of both manic and depressive relapse or recurrence. Olanzapine was significantly better than placebo in the prevention of manic but not depressive relapse or recurrence. In the other interventions, either one or both of the secondary efficacy outcomes were statistically non-significant.

We also presented results in a two-dimensional plot of RR of each drug in comparison with placebo for any mood relapse or recurrence versus tolerability, and depressive relapse or recurrence versus manic, hypomanic, or mixed relapse or recurrence (appendix pp 107–09). The cumulative probability plots and SUCRA (surface under the cumulative ranking curve) for all the included treatment groups are presented in the appendix (pp 110–20).

Because the number of completed suicides was zero or one in most of the trials, we did not calculate their RRs, and showed the raw numbers in the appendix (pp 121–24). Only five trials reported social functioning as measured by the Global Assessment of Functioning scale or the Global Assessment Scale.

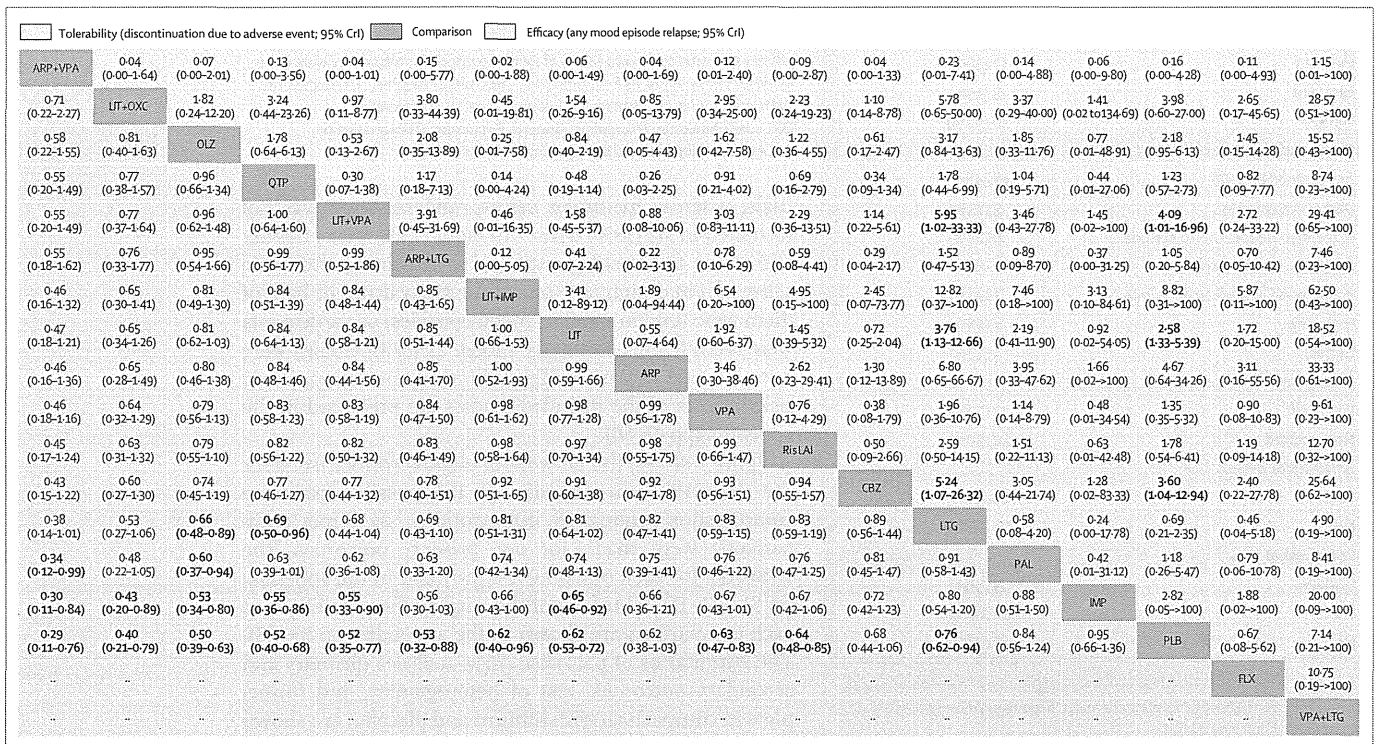


Figure 3: Efficacy (any mood episode relapse or recurrence) and tolerability (discontinuation due to adverse event) according to the network meta-analysis. Comparisons between treatments should be read from left to right and the estimates are in the cell in common between the column-defining treatment and the row-defining treatment. Drugs are reported in order of efficacy (any mood episode relapse or recurrence) ranking estimated by SUCRA (surface under the cumulative ranking curve). For tolerability, a risk ratio (RR) lower than 1.00 favours the row-defining treatment. For any mood episode relapse or recurrence, a RR lower than 1.00 favours the column-defining treatment. Significant results are in bold. The RR of drug B over drug A can be obtained by calculating the inverse of the RR of drug A over drug B. ARP=aripiprazole. CBZ=carbamazepine. CrI=credible interval. FLX=fluoxetine. IMP=imipramine. LIT=lithium. LTG=lamotrigine. OLZ=olanzapine. QTP=quetiapine. OXC=oxcarbazepine. PAL=paliperidone. PLB=placebo. RisLAI= risperidone longacting injection. VPA=valproate.

We did sensitivity analyses with respect to publication year, bipolar disorder subtype, rapid-cycling course of illness, enrichment design, sponsorship from pharmaceutical company, study duration, and blinding of the trial (appendix pp 125–31). When analyses were restricted to trials with bipolar I disorder, lithium plus imipramine seemed to increase manic relapse or recurrence. Exclusion of the studies without rapid-cycling bipolar disorder participants left 12 trials, and we noted no differences in the conclusions of primary and secondary outcomes when assessing these trials only. Giving less weight to studies with enrichment design, sponsorship from a pharmaceutical company had no or little effect on estimates of all the outcomes across the network. When the studies were restricted to those that had at least 52 weeks of follow-up or those with a double-blind design, the results showed little or no effect on estimates of any outcomes (appendix pp 125–31).

Discussion

Our comprehensive search for relevant trials identified 33 randomised controlled trials (6846 participants) of drug therapies in the maintenance treatment of bipolar disorder.

Within the main network consisting of closed loops (figure 2), all drugs or combinations, except for imipramine, were significantly more efficacious in the prevention of any mood episode relapse or recurrence than was placebo, by sizeable margins. With respect to the secondary outcomes of prophylactic efficacy, only quetiapine and lithium prevented relapse or recurrence of both polarities of the mood episode, compared with placebo (figure 4). However, we noted considerable differences in design features of the included trials (table 1). Lithium was the dominant node in the evidence network, and the evidence for lithium was well balanced in terms of mood states at recruitment, with small (or possibly null) contributions from enrichment design trials (despite its discovery about 60 years ago, most evidence about lithium has been produced in the past 15 years and lithium has often been the reference drug in registration studies about second-generation antipsychotics, ruling out the potential for sponsorship bias). In quetiapine and lamotrigine studies, the participants were more balanced in terms of mood states at study entry than were participants in olanzapine trials, but they were enriched; in olanzapine trials only participants with an acute or recent manic or mixed episode were recruited, but they were more balanced in terms of enrichment than were quetiapine and lamotrigine trials (table 1; appendix p 90). In risperidone longacting injection and fluoxetine studies, participants with specific polarity were recruited and only those responding to the investigational drug were eligible (table 1; appendix pp 55–58). Olanzapine, lithium plus valproate, and risperidone longacting injection seemed to be more prophylactic for manic episodes than for depressive episodes, whereas lamotrigine might be more prophylactic for depressive episodes (figure 4). These

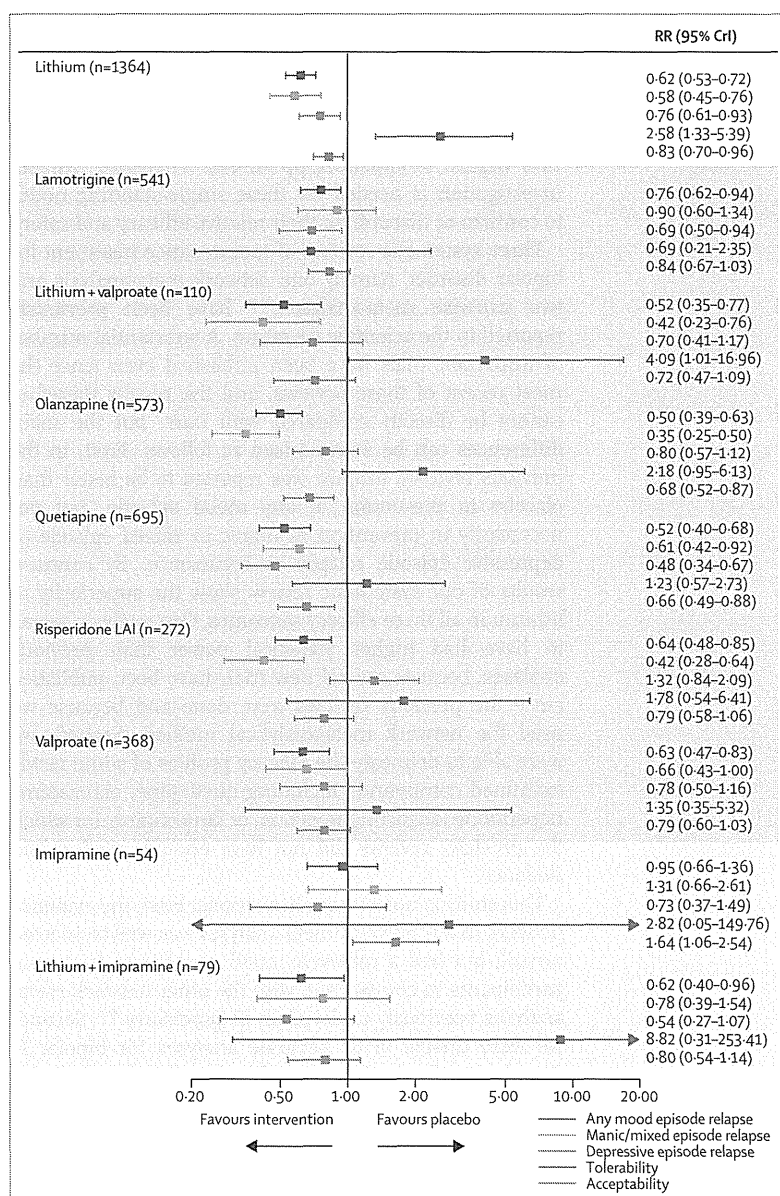


Figure 4: Efficacy according to type of mood episode recurrence or relapse, and tolerability and acceptability, compared with placebo

Results from the main closed-loop network are shown for any mood episode relapse or recurrence (dark blue line), manic, hypomanic, or mixed episode relapse or recurrence (green line), depressive episode relapse or recurrence (light blue line), tolerability (dark red line), and acceptability (red line). Fluoxetine is excluded from the plot because the result for manic, hypomanic, or mixed episode relapse or recurrence was not reported. The interventions are divided into three groups: the white background shows that all three efficacy outcomes are statistically significant and the confidence in estimate of RR to prevent any mood episode relapse is moderate; the light blue background shows that either one of three efficacy outcomes is statistically non-significant or the confidence in estimate is low; and the light green background shows that two or more of the efficacy outcomes are statistically non-significant or the confidence in estimates is low or very low. Treatments are presented in alphabetical order in each group. RR=risk ratio. CrI=credible interval. LAI=longacting injection.

drugs could be a second choice for a patient who has a specific dominant polarity.

We then examined the single-standing nodes, which do not form closed loops and are often connected to the