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Aerobic exercise for adult patients with major depressive disorder in mental health services. A systematic review and meta-analysis

Morres, Ioannis; Hatzigeorgiadis, Antonis; Stathi, Afroditi; Comoutos, Nikos; Arpin-Cribbie, Chantal; Charalampos Krommidas, Charalampos; Theodorakis, Yannis

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1	Aerobic exercise for adult patients with major depressive disorder in mental health
2	services. A systematic review and meta-analysis
3	
4	Short title: Exercise and Major Depression
5	
6	Ioannis D. Morres ^{1*} , Antonis Hatzigeorgiadis ¹ , Afroditi Stathi ² , Nikos Comoutos ¹ , Chantal
7	Arpin-Cribbie ³ , Charalampos Krommidas ¹ , Yannis Theodorakis ¹
8	
9	¹ School of Physical Education and Sport Science, University of Thessaly, Trikala, Greece
10	² School of Sport, Exercise and Rehabilitation Sciences, University of Birmingham,
11	Birmingham, UK
12	³ Department of Psychology, Laurentian University, Ontario, Canada
13	
14	*Corresponding author:
15	Ioannis D. Morres, Ph.D.
16	Postdoctoral Fellow
17	University of Thessaly, School of Physical Education & Sport Science
18	Trikala, Karyes, 42100,
19	Greece
20	Tel: +30 24310 47009
21	Email: iomorres@pe.uth.gr
22	
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1

Abstract

2 Although exercise is associated with depression relief, the effects of aerobic exercise 3 (AE) interventions on clinically depressed adult patients have not been clearly supported. The 4 purpose of this meta-analysis was to examine the antidepressant effects of AE vs. non-5 exercise comparators exclusively for depressed adults (18-65 years) recruited through mental 6 health services with a referral or clinical diagnosis of major depression. Eleven e-databases 7 and bibliographies of nineteen systematic reviews were searched for relevant randomized 8 controlled trials. A random effects meta-analysis (Hedges' g criterion) was employed for 9 pooling post-intervention scores of depression. Heterogeneity and publication bias were 10 examined. Studies were coded considering characteristics of participants and interventions, 11 outcomes and comparisons made, and study design; accordingly, sensitivity and subgroup 12 analyses were calculated. Across 11 eligible trials (13 comparisons) involving 455 patients, 13 AE was delivered on average for 45minutes, at moderate intensity, three times/week, for 9.2 weeks and showed a significantly large overall antidepressant effect (g = -0.79, 95% CI = -14 1.00, -0.57, p < .00) with low and non-statistically significant heterogeneity ($I^2 = 21\%$). No 15 16 publication bias was found. Sensitivity analyses revealed large or moderate to large antidepressant effects for AE ($I^2 < 33\%$) among trials with lower risk of bias, trials with short-17 18 term interventions (up to 4 weeks), and trials involving individual preferences for exercise. 19 Subgroup analyses revealed comparable effects for AE across various settings and delivery 20 formats, and in both outpatients and inpatients regardless symptom severity. Notwithstanding the small number of trials reviewed, AE emerged as an effective antidepressant intervention. 21

1

Introduction

2 Depression is a life threatening and disabling mental illness affecting increasingly large proportions of the society at an alarming rate worldwide (Global Burden of Disease 3 4 Study 2013 Collaborators, 2015; Üstün, Ayuso-Mateos, Chatterji, Mathers, & Murray, 2004). 5 Major depressive disorder (also referred to as clinical depression) is the most common type of 6 depression seriously challenging health systems especially since it is often recurrent and 7 treatment resistant. 8 Physical exercise is widely recommended in depression treatment (NICE, 2009; 9 CANMAT, 2016; Stanton & Reaburn, 2014). It has been associated with depression relief in 10 various meta-analytic reviews (Craft & Landers, 1998; Rethorst, Wipfli, & Landers, 2009; 11 Robertson, Robertson, Jepson, & Maxwell, 2012; Schuch et al., 2016; Silveira et al., 2013; 12 Stanton & Reaburn, 2014), even after risk of bias was considered (e.g., Rethorst et al., 2009; 13 Schuch et al., 2016). In contrast, other meta-analyses set this association into question after 14 coding for lower risk of bias (Cooney et al., 2013; Krogh, Hjorthøj, Speyer, Gluud, & 15 Nordentoft, 2017; Krogh, Nordentoft, Sterne, & Lawlor, 2011). 16 Considering carefully the attributes of these meta-analytic studies, however, we 17 identified methodological aspects that could potentially justify these equivocal conclusions. 18 Particularly, in a number of trials reported in these meta-analyses the samples included 19 participants who were recruited through mental health services but also through media 20 advertisements. Also, in a number of trials the diagnosis of depression was not based on valid 21 diagnostic criteria. Three meta-analytic studies, Krogh et al. (2011), Krogh et al. (2017) and 22 Kvam, Kleppe, Nordhus, and Hovland (2016) have exclusively focused on exercise trials for 23 patients with a diagnosis of major depression based on valid diagnostic criteria including the 24 Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 25 2013) or the International Classification of Disease (World Health Organization, 1992).

1 However, some of the trials in these three studies included media respondents. Media 2 respondents may have strong outcome expectations or motivation to lifestyle changes; 3 Blumenthal and Ong (2009) reported that community volunteers of exercise trials for 4 depression are typically motivated to exercise. Instead, depressed patients recruited through 5 health services do not seem to be comparably motivated, as they show high dropout rates 6 from exercise on referral schemes (Crone, Johnston, Gidlow, Henley, & James, 2008; James 7 et al., 2008; Tobi, Kemp, & Schmidt, 2017). In addition, a number of trials reviewed by these 8 three meta-analyses included samples with other mood disorders (e.g., dysthymia), or samples 9 with older adult (+65 years) or both adult (18-65 years) and older adult depressed patients. 10 Older depressed adults show distinct differences in depression (Fiske, Wetherell, & Gatz, 11 2009), demonstrate higher depression relief through exercise (Silveira et al., 2013), and are 12 more likely to complete exercise on prescription programs than adult peers (James et al., 13 2008). Finally, these three meta-analyses included trials comparing exercise to other exercise 14 activities (e.g., stretching). Such exercise activities, however, have been also shown to 15 improve depression, thus confounding the true antidepressant effect of exercise intervention 16 and misleading relevant conclusions (Schuch, Morres, Ekkekakis, Rosenbaum, & Stubbs, 17 2017).

18 In addition to the issues identified above, the quality of the relevant meta-analysis 19 could improve through a more appropriate assessment for the risk of bias. While exercise 20 reviews for depression are typically coding trials for risk of bias, attributable to the 21 association of systematic errors with overestimation of treatment efficacy (Moher et al., 1998; 22 Schulz, 2001; Schulz, Chalmers, Hayes, & Altman, 1995), this coding has not been based on 23 tools designed for physical therapy interventions, such as physical exercise. This seems 24 essential as intervention-specific design aspects including dropouts may remain undetected 25 and continue to influence conclusions, especially because exercise is perceived as requiring

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higher time- and effort-demands than other health behaviors (Turk, Rudy, & Salovey, 1984).
Relevant coding has been recently addressed by meta-analytic studies in the exercise-anxiety
area (Ensari, Greenlee, Motl, & Petruzzello, 2015; Stonerock, Hoffman, Smith, & Blumenthal,
2015). Finally, we identified in the literature that the antidepressant effects of aerobic exercise
(AE) in particular remain unexplored by meta-analyses, although AE (e.g., walking) is the
most pursued type of physical activity in mental health services (Sørensen, 2006).

Taking into account all the issues identified above, the purpose of our study was to
explore the antidepressant effects of AE intervention, when compared to non-exercise
comparators in adult patients, 18-65 years of age, recruited through mental health services
with a referral or a clinical diagnosis of major depressive disorder. Towards this goal, coding
for risk of bias was addressed based on a tool structured for physical therapy interventions.

12

Method

This review was conducted in accordance to the Preferred Items for Systematic
Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement that ensures quality through a standard list
of 27 items (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, & Altman, 2009).

16 Literature search

17 Eligibility criteria of study characteristics included; (1) participants 18-65 years old, 18 recruited via mental health services with a referral or with a previous diagnosis of major 19 depression (without psychotic features) as a primary disorder and not as a result of a mental or 20 medical disorder/condition; (2) AE interventions as defined by the American College of 21 Sports Medicine (ACSM) (Pollock et al., 1998); (3) comparison of AE interventions to any 22 treatment form (e.g., psychotherapy, medication) or condition (e.g., waiting list) excluding 23 exercise activities; (4) outcome measures of depression as a primary outcome; (5) studies with 24 a design of a randomized controlled trial (RCT). Given, however, the limited number of 25 exercise trials for clinically depressed adults seen in literature, it was an a priori decision of

this meta-analysis to (i) include comparative efficacy trials and (ii) compare AE to a second
intervention (excluding exercise activities) should three-arm RCTs were allocated. Previous
meta-analyses for exercise on depression are seen to typically include comparative efficacy
trials (e.g., Krogh et al., 2017; Kvam et al., 2016). Finally, the search covered the period from
1980 to March 2017 for trials written in English.

6 Two authors independently conducted the literature search. A total of ten electronic 7 databases were searched: SCOPUS, PubMed, PEDro, and the PsyINFO, SPORTDiscus, 8 Academic Search Complete, Education Resource Information Centre via EBSCO. Also, the 9 Proquest Dissertations and Theses database was searched for unpublished studies. In addition, 10 we searched the Trials Register of Promoting Health Interventions (TRoPHI; EPPI Centre), 11 ClinicalTrials.Gov, and the World Health Organization (WHO) International Clinical Trials 12 Registry Platform (ICTRP). We used medical subject headings (e.g., MESH) when possible 13 or text word terms including: depressive disorder, depression, diagnosis, patients, adult 14 (limiters 18-65years), and exercise, aerobic, running, swimming, jogging, walking or 15 bicycling. The full search strategy for the PubMed is given in supplementary material 1. 16 Trials were initially screened through titles and abstracts. Full text versions were 17 obtained subject to positive initial screening. Hand searching was also conducted; we 18 screened the bibliographies of all major systematic reviews including Cochrane reviews in the 19 exercise-depression area in the last 20 years. This led to the revision of 19 systematic reviews 20 (supplementary material 2).

21 Data extraction

Data were extracted and checked for accuracy and for duplicates onto prepared forms by the first and the fourth author. Subsequently, the two authors reached a consensus on the eligible trials. Researchers of eligible trials were contacted by e-mail to provide additional information on clinical/methodological aspects to their studies. Two reminders were sent within a period of two months. All but one author provided clinical clarifications involving
delivery formats of exercise interventions (supervision, location, individually or group) and
status of participants (outpatients or inpatients). Also, three authors were contacted to provide
methodological clarifications. Relevant information was obtained and included number of
dropouts, concealed allocation, blind assessment or baseline balance.

6 Coding

7 Coding of eligible trials was based on the PICOS criteria that refer to Participants, 8 Interventions, Comparisons, Outcome measures and Study design (PICOS) (Moher et al., 9 2009). Hence, coding included the following study characteristics: (1) participants: 10 hospitalized or non-hospitalized (inpatients or outpatients); severity of depression (mild, 11 moderate or severe); (2) intervention: duration (\leq 4weeks), frequency (\leq 3 days/week, 3 12 days/week or > 3 days/week), intensity (lower, moderate or vigorous), setting (outdoors or 13 indoors), social format (in groups or individually), delivery format (supervised or non-14 supervised); (3) comparisons: AE vs. non-exercise comparators; (4) outcome measures: rating 15 (self- or clinician-rated); (5) study design: RCTs or comparative efficacy trials with higher or 16 lower risk of bias scores of methodological qualities (score of < 6 or ≥ 6) on the 17 Physiotherapy Evidence Database scale (PEDro) (de Morton, 2009). 18 Risk of bias 19 The PEDro scale is a well-established comprehensive measure of methodological 20 quality in the literature of physical therapy (Bhogal, Teasell, Foley, & Speechley, 2005), 21 which has shown good psychometric properties (de Morton, 2009; Macedo et al., 2010; 22 Maher, Sherrington, Herbert, Moseley, & Elkins, 2003). Also, the PEDro scale is increasingly 23 used in various research areas (e.g., Knols, de Bruin, Shirato, Uebelhart, & Aaronson, 2010; 24 Pan, Wang, Xie, Du, & Guo, 2014; Pinto et al., 2012), including the area of exercise and

anxiety (e.g., Ensari et al., 2015). In the area of exercise for depression, two systematic

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1 reviews have employed the PEDro scale (Perraton, Kumar, & Machotka, 2010; Stanton & 2 Reaburn, 2014), but neither was a meta-analysis. Internal validity on the PEDro scale is 3 assessed on a point system favoring between-groups comparisons and point 4 estimates/variability measures; blinding patients, therapists and assessors; baseline balance, 5 intention-to-treat, and drop-outs. The maximum score for the internal validity criteria is 10; in 6 our study the maximum score was 8, as it is difficult, if not impossible, to blind 7 patients/therapists in exercise trials for depression. A cut-off score of 6 was employed for 8 classification of higher quality RCTs (lower risk of bias). This score represents the point of 9 reference for high quality trials when using the PEDro scale (Maher et al., 2003). The first 10 and the third authors independently assessed the methodological quality of each trial, and 11 sought consensus on the relevant evaluations. Cohen's Kappa statistic was computed, and 12 interpreted based on the Landis and Koch reference to estimating the inter-rater agreement 13 (Landis & Koch, 1977).

14 Statistical analysis

15 The software Comprehensive Meta-Analysis (Version 2.0, Biostat, Englewood, New 16 Jersey) was used to calculate intervention effects. A random effects model using the Hedges' 17 g criterion was employed to estimate standardized mean differences in depression scores from 18 pre- to post-intervention between exercise and non-exercise comparators (Borenstein, Hedges, 19 Higgins, & Rothstein, 2010). The selection of a random effects model lies upon the 20 assumption that there is a sampling error (within-study error) and between-study variance. 21 Also, the Hedges' g criterion was selected because it prevents overestimation of an effect-size 22 when the retrieved studies are less than 20. Hedge's g algorithms were interpreted with the 23 Cohen's d standards (Cohen, 1992) where values of .20, .50 and .80 point a small, moderate 24 and large intervention effect, respectively.

Statistical heterogeneity was assessed with the Cochran's Q and I² statistics for each 1 trial (Higgins, Thompson, Deeks, & Altman, 2003) taking into account that I² values up to 2 3 40% are unlikely to be important (Higgins & Green, 2011). Publication bias was assessed by 4 means of visual inspection of the funnel plots and the Begg-Mazumbar Kendall's tau (Begg & 5 Mazumdar, 1994) and Egger bias test (Egger, Smith, Schneider, & Minder, 1997) for the 6 main composite analysis. In case of significant publication bias, the trim and fill statistical 7 procedure was considered on the right and left side of the plot (Duval & Tweedie, 2000). This 8 procedure adds or removes studies to balance an asymmetrical funnel plot and adjusts the 9 effect-size accordingly. In this manner, an unbiased estimate of the effect is provided. Further, 10 the fail and safe criterion (Rosenthal, 1979) was employed to calculate the number of studies 11 needed to nullify significant effects (e.g., >.05) for the main composite analysis. A fail-safe 12 number of five times the number of reviewed comparisons plus 10(5K+10) is seen as the 13 cutoff score for considering the results robust (Rosenthal, 1979).

14 Also, three sensitivity analyses were performed to explore the robustness of our main 15 finding (overall effect-size). First, we coded lower risk of bias trials (PEDro score ≥ 6) 16 because meta-analytic reviews have reported equivocal conclusions on the association of 17 exercise with antidepressant effects in high quality trials (e.g., Cooney et al., 2013; Krogh et 18 al., 2017; Krogh et al., 2011; Rethorst et al., 2009; Schuch et al., 2016). In the second and 19 third sensitivity analyses we coded trials with short-term (up to four weeks) or preference-20 oriented exercise interventions, respectively, because both interventional aspects comprised a 21 promising strategy in the only currently available pragmatic RCT for exercise in adult 22 depressed women who were living in the community and recruited though health services 23 (Callaghan, Khalil, Morres, & Carter, 2011); both analyses would potentially contribute to the 24 clarification of the translational value of our main finding for pragmatic settings (routine 25 practice).

1 In addition, eight subgroup analyses were computed based on the PICOS criteria in 2 order to explore in detail the effect of AE on depression across various delivery formats, 3 comparisons and settings, in both out- and in-patients with various depressive symptom 4 severities, and outcome measures used. Differences in effects-sizes for subgroup comparisons 5 were considered significant if non-overlapping 95% confidence intervals for the different 6 subgroup was found (Higgins & Green, 2011). Subgroup analyses involved consideration that 7 less than five comparisons as estimates of effect may reveal imprecise results (Borenstein, 8 Hedges, Higgins, & Rothstein, 2009). 9 Publication bias tests including the Begg-Mazumbar Kendall's tau and Egger bias test

were also performed, taking into account, however, that ten or more comparisons are needed
to provide more accurate results (Sterne et al., 2011). Also, risk difference (RD) investigated
potential differences in the number of dropouts between the AE and non-exercise comparators.
Finally, a p-value of 0.05 was considered for significance in all computations.

14

Results

The PRISMA flow diagram for study selection is presented in Figure 1. Eleven trials 15 16 involving 455 patients recruited via mental health services were eligible for inclusion. These 17 studies are presented in Table 1 and 2 and are marked (*) in the reference list. One study 18 (Veale et al., 1992) reported two trials, but only the first compared AE to a non-exercise 19 condition and was allocated as Veale et al. (1992-a). Also, Salehi et al. (2016) was a three-20 arm comparative efficacy trial that employed AE, electroconvulsive therapy (ECT), and AE + 21 ECT. In line to our a priori decision to review comparative efficacy trials and exclude trials 22 with exercise controls, we reviewed only the comparisons of AE vs. ECT and AE + ECT vs. 23 ECT and allocated as Salehi et al. (2016-a) and Salehi et al. (2016-b), respectively. Also, in 24 the three-arm trial of Sadeghi et al. (2016), AE was compared to the non-exercise comparator 25 of "group discussions". This trial, however, compared also cognitive therapy as a second

1 intervention to the same non-exercise comparator. Due to small number of exercise trials for 2 depression, we compared AE to "group discussion" and allocated it as Sadeghi et al. (2016-a), 3 whereas the comparison of AE to cognitive therapy was allocated as Sadeghi et al. (2016-b). 4 The eleven eligible trials yield 13 comparisons and used continuous outcomes at pre/post-5 intervention with higher scores indicating more severe depression. Based on available 6 evidence from six of the reviewed trials (see Table 1), an average of 65% of eligible patients 7 entered into studies. Finally, trials were implemented in North and South America, Europe 8 and Asia (Table 1).

9 Study characteristics

10 Only one eligible trial did not employ fully supervised-based AE (Mota-Pereira et al., 11 2011); it included one supervised session (in a hospital gymnasium) and four non-supervised 12 home-based sessions per week. Also, AE was delivered on average three times/week, at 13 moderate intensity, with a session length of 45minutes, and total program duration of 9.2 14 weeks. A comparable number of trials recruited outpatients or inpatients, used equipment-15 based or -free modalities, administrated clinician- or self-rated outcomes, employed group or 16 individual formats, and were delivered inside or outside a hospital. Also, a comparable 17 number of trials compared AE to treatment as usual (TAU), antidepressant medication or 18 psychological therapies. In two trials, AE was compared to non-exercise comparators of 19 waiting list (Oertel-Knöchel et al., 2014) and self-administrative group discussion (Sadeghi et 20 al., 2016). Seven trials were conducted indoors, and seven recruited patients with moderate-21 severe or severe depression. The average dropout rate for the intervention and non-exercise 22 comparators was 14.8% and 14.5%, respectively.

23 Risk of bias

24 Seven trials (64%) received a score of \geq 6 on the PEDro scale that indicates lower risk 25 of bias. In contrast, four trials showed higher risk of bias, as they received a score of < 6 on

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the PEDro scale (see Table 2). Cohen's Kappa statistic was .77, portraying a substantial inter rater reliability on the PEDro scoring (Landis & Koch, 1977).

3 Meta-analysis

4 Pooled results showed that AE revealed a significantly large overall antidepressant effect compared to non-exercise comparators (g = -0.79, 95% CI -1.00, -0.57, p < .00) with 5 low and non-significant heterogeneity (Q = 15.20, p = 0.23, $I^2 = 21\%$). The Begg-Mazundar 6 7 Kendall's tau (tau -0.21, p = 0.29) and Egger bias test (intercept -2.48, p = 0.12) indicated no 8 publication bias (see Table 3 and Figure 2). Also, the funnel plot did not show evidence of 9 asymmetry (Figure 3). In addition, the fail-safe algorithm indicated that 218 studies with no 10 antidepressant effect for AE would be required to nullify the significance of the main result. 11 This indicates no publication bias, given that the relevant fail-safe standard (5k+10) for this 12 review is 75 studies (5 X 13 comparisons +10). Therefore, computation of trim and fill 13 analysis did not appear to be essential.

14 Sensitivity analyses

The sensitivity analysis for lower risk of bias trials displayed a moderate to large 15 16 effect for AE on depression (g = -0.70, 95% CI -0.94, -0.45, p < .00) with negligible heterogeneity ($I^2 = 2\%$). The sensitivity analysis for trials involving individual exercise 17 18 preferences displayed a large effect for AE (g = -0.84, 95% CI -1.17, -0.51, p < .00) with very low and non-significant heterogeneity ($I^2 = 7\%$). The sensitivity analysis for trials with short-19 term interventions displayed a moderate to large effect for AE (g = -0.71, 95% CI -1.09, -0.34, 20 p < .00) with low and non-significant heterogeneity ($I^2 = 30\%$). Details are presented in Table 21 22 3.

23 Subgroup Analyses

Eight subgroup analyses were conducted on the basis of the PICOS criteria (Moher et al., 2009) excluding the study design criterion (S) that was coded by our first sensitivity analysis. All the analyses revealed statistically significant effects for AE. Furthermore, none
 of the analyses provided evidence for significant differences for effect-sizes between the
 different groups; no publication bias was recorded; and levels of heterogeneity were non significant. The analyses are described below and the full statistics are presented in Table 4.
 Participants

Aerobic exercise showed large and moderate to large effects for outpatients and
inpatients, and for patients with any severity classification in depression (g range = -.71 to .97). In these samples heterogeneity was low and non-significant (I² from 2% to 41%).

9 Intervention

10 Large effects were found in trials where AE included equipment-free modalities, and was conducted in individual or group formats, and in indoor, outdoor or non-hospital settings 11 12 (g range = -0.77 to -1.07). In addition, moderate to large or moderate effects were seen in 13 equipment-based AE (g = -0.67, 95% CI -.98, -0.35, p < .00) or in hospital settings (g = -0.61, 95% CI -0.96, -0.27, p < .00). In all computations, levels of heterogeneity were non-14 15 significant and ranged from 0% to 53%. Finally, no dropout differences were found between the aerobic and the non-exercise comparators (RD = 0.01, 95% CI -0.03, 0.05, p = 0.59, $I^2 =$ 16 17 0%).

18 Comparisons

Compared to antidepressants/TAU, AE showed large antidepressant effect (g = -0.75,
95% CI -1.01, -0.48, p < .00). Similar effects were seen in the comparison of AE to
psychological treatments when these treatments were performed as mono-therapy/part of
multi-therapeutic program (g = -0.85, 95% CI -1.21, -0.48, p < .00). Heterogeneity was low
(I² 0% and 42%, respectively) and non-significant.

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1	Large and moderate to large, respectively, antidepressant effects for AE were found in
2	trials with self-rated (g = -0.97, 95% CI -1.35, -0.59, p < .00) or clinician-rated (g = -0.69,
3	95% CI -0.94, -0.44, p < .00) outcome measures. Heterogeneity was low (I ² 26% and 9%,
4	respectively) and non-significant. Also, a reduction of depression score by 4.5 points was seen
5	in trials employing the clinician-rated outcome of the Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression
6	(HAMD) (-4.48, 95% CI = -7.69, -1.25, standard error = 1.64, p < .00), and by 7 points in
7	trials employing the self-rated outcome of the Beck Depression Inventory-I or II (-6.96, 95%
8	CI = -12.49, -1.42, standard error = 2.83, p = 0.01).
9	Discussion
10	In this review, AE showed a significant large overall antidepressant effect ($g = -0.79$)
11	on adult patients recruited via mental health services with a referral or a clinical diagnosis of
12	major depression. Heterogeneity was low and non-significant ($I^2 = 21\%$), and no signs of
13	publication bias were found.
14	Our study included only trials with depressed patients recruited via mental health
15	services; this could be considered a step forward in the literature. Previous meta-analyses
16	included a number of trials with depressed persons recruited via media advertisements.
17	However, media respondents may have a non-clinical depression, despite a high score in
18	depression checklists, or a possible diagnosis given before/at study entry. Moreover, they may
19	have strong outcome expectations and determination for lifestyle change; Blumenthal and
20	Ong (2009) report that community volunteers for exercise trials for depression are typically
21	motivated to exercise. Depressed patients instead, may have a more challenging clinical
22	profile given that they have suffered tenacious symptoms, including psychosocial impairment
23	that led to a mental health service, and they may often experience failure or disappointment
24	because the service use uncovers the disease severity/complexity and the need for systematic
25	care (Bursztajn & Barsky, 1985; Maguire, Cullen, O'Sullivan, & O'Grady-Walshe, 1995;

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Morgan, 1989). To this extent, depressed patients referred to exercise on referral schemes are,
 unsurprisingly, showing high dropout rates, often the highest among all health referrals
 (Crone et al., 2008; James et al., 2008; Tobi et al., 2017). Therefore, our findings that stem
 from trials with patients with a referral or clinical diagnosis of depression are representative to
 routine practice and, thus, of additional value.

6 Another positive aspect of our study dealt with the inclusion of trials with only adult 7 depressed patients of 18-65 years old. This separation appeared to be essential because older 8 adult (+65years) depressed patients manifest distinct clinical differences in depression (Fiske 9 et al., 2009) and higher depression relief through exercise (Silveira et al., 2013), and are more 10 likely to complete exercise on prescription programs (James et al., 2008).

11 Importantly, 64% of our trials mirrored lower risk of bias (PEDro score ≥ 6). To the 12 best of our knowledge, only two systematic (but not meta-analytic) reviews for exercise and 13 depression have previously employed the PEDro scale (Perraton et al., 2010; Stanton & 14 Reaburn, 2014). These studies reported a score of ≥ 6 on the PEDro scale for 43% (Perraton et 15 al., 2010) and 100% (Stanton & Reaburn, 2014) of their reviewed trials. Exercise and anxiety 16 meta-analyses (Ensari et al., 2015; Stonerock et al., 2015) that employed the PEDro scale 17 have reported substantially fewer trials with lower risk of bias (33%) compared to our review. 18 Also, three sensitivity analyses were performed. The first recorded a significant 19 moderate to large antidepressant effect for AE among lower risk of bias trials. This is in line 20 to Rethorst et al. (2009) or Schuch et al. (2016) who found similar effects for exercise on 21 depression after coding for lower risk of bias, but in contrast to reviews that reported no 22 antidepressant effect for exercise after relevant coding (Krogh et al., 2017; Krogh et al., 2011). 23 The present finding is of key-importance given that high risk of bias is linked with 24 overestimation of treatment efficacy (Moher et al., 1998; Schulz, 2001; Schulz et al., 1995). 25 Further, the use of the PEDro scale, which was developed to evaluate risk of bias for physical

1 therapy interventions such as physical exercise, suggests that when intervention-specific 2 design aspects (e.g., dropouts) are included in the relevant evaluation do not confound results. 3 In the second sensitivity analysis, short-term AE (up to 4 weeks) showed a moderate 4 to large effect on depression highlighting its vital role at the early stage of care, as the most 5 frequent treatment of pharmacotherapy is typically requiring a period of 4 weeks before 6 providing any benefit (Gartlehner et al., 2011; John M. Eisenberg Center for Clinical 7 Decisions Communications Science, 2011; Seehusen & Sheridan, 2013). In further support of 8 its vital role at the early stage of mental health care, AE has been also shown to improve well-9 being of major depressed patients after a single session (Bartholomew, Morrison, & Ciccolo, 10 2005), and to decrease depression after ten consecutive daily sessions in a sample comprising 11 both bipolar and major depressed patients (Knubben et al., 2007). In the third sensitivity 12 analysis AE involving individual preferences revealed large antidepressant effects. 13 Preference-based exercise appears to be a promising strategy in adolescent and adult general 14 population segments (e.g., Hamlyn-Williams, Freeman, & Parfitt, 2014; Rose & Parfitt, 2007), 15 in patients with various health disorders (Morton, Biddle, & Beauchamp, 2008) and in 16 depressed patients participating in pragmatic RCTs (Callaghan et al., 2011; Carter et al., 17 2015; Morres, Stathi, Martinsen, & Sørensen, 2014). Therefore, this strategy warrants further 18 attention by researchers and practitioners. 19 The findings of the second and third sensitivity analyses (up to four-week exercise and

involvement of individual preferences) provide potentially important translational evidence for routine practice as they concur with the only currently available AE trial with a pragmatic design for adult depressed women (\leq 65 years) recruited through health services (Callaghan et al., 2011). This RCT reported antidepressant effects for a four-week and preference-based AE program implemented in public gyms for depressed women living in the community

25 (Callaghan et al., 2011).

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1 Based on the subgroup analyses, AE brought about a large or moderate to large 2 improvement in depression in a wide range of delivery formats; through equipment-based or 3 equipment-free modalities, inside or outside a hospital, outdoors or indoors, in groups or 4 individually, and in cohorts with outpatients or inpatients, and with different depressive 5 symptom severity. In the two remaining subgroup analyses, AE favored over psychological 6 treatments or antidepressants/TAU, demonstrating large effects on depression. Overall, AE 7 was found to be comparably effective across all eight subgroup analyses. Noteworthy, three 8 of our reviewed trials consisted of treatment-resistant depressed samples (Mota-Pereira et al., 9 2011; Oertel-Knöchel et al., 2014; Pilu et al., 2007). Another notable finding was that 10 supervised AE had clinically meaningful antidepressant effects; in trials using the clinician-11 rated HAMD or the self-rated BDI outcomes, we found a reduction in depression score by 4.5 12 and 7 points, respectively. Both reductions are considered clinically meaningful, as the 13 relevant cutoff score is 3 points (NICE, 2009). Finally, AE showed similar dropout rates to 14 non-exercise comparators. Given that exercise is perceived as requiring higher time- and 15 effort-demands than other health behaviors (Turk et al., 1984), the lack of differences in 16 dropout rates between AE and non-exercise treatment modalities for depression is of major 17 importance.

18 Several limitations of the study require consideration. First, a small number of trials 19 were allocated. However, this is widely seen as a limitation of the field. Also, we tried to run 20 a robust analysis to offset threats caused by publication bias. In addition, most of our 21 sensitivity and subgroup analyses (89%) computed at least five arms, which is considered an 22 essential number to avoid imprecise results (Borenstein et al., 2009). Second, we did not code 23 for side-effects of exercise because only Legrand and Neff (2016) explored side-effects, with 24 37% of the sample reporting transient joint/muscular soreness, diarrhea or fatigue. Although 25 these effects did not preclude patients from completing the interventions (Legrand & Neff,

1 2016), exploration of side-effects of exercise via standardized tests is an important priority. 2 Based on limited data, almost 12% of mental health patients experience a side-effect by 3 exercise (side-effects and patients' diagnoses were not clarified) (Sørensen, 2006). Also, only 4 6% of depressed patients (including older adults) assigned to physical activity programs 5 describe the potential of a side-effect (Searle et al., 2011). 6 Third, our reviewed trials did not fully describe design criteria or clinical 7 characteristics. Although all but one author provided comprehensive feedback to our 8 inquiries, future trials need to detail intervention and non-exercise comparators. Of particular 9 importance, the contact time of exercisers with supervisors and/or peers may have a 10 confounding impact on the favourable comparison of exercise to non-exercise comparators. 11 Such confounding bias, however, did not seem to occur in our study; in our subgroup analyses 12 AE was more effective than non-exercise comparators of either increased or decreased contact 13 time with service providers/users (e.g., psychological treatments or antidepressant 14 medication). Nevertheless, future trials should equalize groups in contact time and present

15 relevant information in order to allow researchers draw even firmer conclusions on whether

16 AE per se favours non-exercise comparators in depressed patients.

17 A final issue that needs to be discussed concerns the representativeness of our findings 18 to routine practice. Specifically, 35% of the patients identified as eligible for participation by 19 our reviewed trials appeared to be reluctant to entering into studies. However, considering the 20 pessimistic profile of depression and the high time and effort demands of exercise, this 21 percentage appears rather low. Nevertheless, barriers to entering into studies with AE 22 programs need to be identified by future trials. Only two of our reviewed trials provided such 23 information, reporting lack of interest as a predominant barrier (Legrand & Neff, 2016; 24 Schuch et al., 2015). Since lack of interest is a key symptom of depression, recruiters may 25 find it difficult to trigger interest to exercise these patients. However, a study conducted in

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routine practice for mental health patients from both hospital and day-care centers has
provided promising evidence (Sørensen, 2006). Particularly, exercise participation was
predicted solely by intrinsic regulation, reflecting inherent pleasure and participation for its
own shake (Sørensen, 2006). To this extent, autonomy supportive environments, providing
options for the type and intensity of exercise, which promote intrinsically regulated exercise
behavior (Ryan & Deci, 2000), might trigger interest in eligible but reluctant to exercise
depressed patients.

8

Conclusion

9 This is the first meta-analytic study to compare the antidepressant effects of AE to 10 treatments for depression excluding exercise activities, in adult patients (18-65) with a referral 11 or clinical diagnosis of major depression, who were recruited through mental health services 12 and not through media advertisements. Supervised AE compared favorably to treatments for 13 depression across various delivery formats, comparisons or settings, and regardless symptom 14 severity and type of outcome measure. Importantly, the antidepressant effect of AE was not 15 affected among trials with lower risk of bias, trials with short-term (up to four weeks) exercise 16 interventions, or trials with interventions involving individual preferences for exercise. 17 Notwithstanding the limited number of trials reviewed, AE was found to be an effective 18 antidepressant intervention.

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Table 1. Description of reviewed trials

Trial, Country, Sample	Interventions	N/ ♀ %	age m/sd	attend. dropouts %	physiolog. gains	concurr. psychiatr. therap. %	depression pre/post
Mota-Pereira	Eligible patients entered into study: 73%						
et al., (2011)	A. Aerobic Exercise (more depressed)	22/	48.6/	91		100 ^A	HAMD-17
	Walking for 30-45min/5times/week/12weeks. One weekly	57.9	2.3	14			severe/
Portugal	session was individual/supervised by a sport scientist at						improved to
	hospital on treadmill, 5.0km/h/0° grade equal to 3.7-4						mild ^{§,†}
outpatients	METs (moderate intensity). Home-based walking						
	4times/week, intensity prescription via accelerometers						
	(>1952 counts) or perceived exertion (e.g., no shortness of						
	breath). Compliance support: reminders, staff emphasized						
	the exercise benefits, consulted family members on social						
	support for exercise.						
	B. Usual pharmacotherapy (control group)	11/	45.3/				mild/
	Non-sedating antidepressants.	80	3.1	9			not improved
	Major Inclusion Criteria : treatment resistance after 9-15 me no psychotherapeutic treatment, no ch					gular exercising))
A	A A suchia Danamian						
Martinsen et al., (1985)	<u>A. Aerobic Exercise</u> Group-based/supervised outdoor jogging & walking for	28/			VO _{2max} ^{§,†}	32 ^A	BDI
u., (1985)	60min, 3times/week/9weeks at 50-70% VO ₂ max,	20/		14.2	VO _{2max}	100 ^{P,OT}	moderate/
Norway	supplemented by bicycling and/or swimming sessions at			17.2		100	improved to
(OI Way	the patient's preference.						mild ^{§,†}
npatients	F						
•	B. Occupational therapy (control group)	21/			not	66 ^A	moderate/
	Occupational therapy 60min, 3 times/week/9weeks.			10.5	improved	100 ^P	improved §
	Major Inclusion Criteria:	1 .1		0 1			

Trial, Country, Sample	Interventions	N/ ♀ %	age m/sd	attend. dropouts %	physiolog. gains	concurr. psychiatr. therap. %	depression pre/post
Schuch et al.,	Eligible patients entered into study: 47%						
(2015)	A. Aerobic Exercise	25/	38.8/			80 ^A	HAMD-17
	Exercise for 45min, 3times/week/3weeks at self-selected	72	11.5	8		8 ECT	severe/
Brazil	type (stationary bicycle, treadmill, or stepper) and intensity exercise, provided that 16kcal/kg/week are completed.						improved to normal ^{§,†}
inpatients	Individual/supervised at hospital.						
	B. Treatment as usual (control group)	25/	41.7/				severe/
	All patients were prescribed antidepressants. ECT was prescribed to 8% of the patients.	76	10.4	4			improved to mild §
	Major Inclusion Criteria: a	score of	f≥25 on	HAMD-17			
Rueter,	A. Aerobic Exercise	11/				100 ^A	BDI
(1980)	Individual/supervised (co-running) running for at least			18		100	moderate/
	20min, 3times/week/10weeks (public indoors sport track).						improved to
USA	Pace allowed talking, non-competitive, no distance/speed criteria.						minimal ^{§,†}
outpatients							
	B. Counseling Therapy (control group)	11/					moderate/
	Group & individual counseling for 10weeks, at least 30min/week. Also, on waiting list for participating in the aerobic exercise program.			18			not improved
	Major Inclusion Criteria: both males	and fer	nales, a s	score of >15	on BDI		

Trial, Country, Sample	Interventions	N/ ♀ %	age m/sd	attend. dropouts %	physiolog. gains	concurr. psychiatr. therap. %	depression pre/post
Sadeghi et al., (2016) Iran outpatients	<u>A. Aerobic exercise</u> Supervised, 50-60min/8weeks. Warm up: 10min stretching, breathing, exercises of upper/lower limbs, running in place at low intensity. The same exercises 60-80%MHR, 30-35min. Cooling down: same exercises at low intensity, 10-15min.	16/ 81	20.9/ 1.0				BDI moderate/ improved to mild ^{§, †}
o alpanonio	<u>B. Cognitive Therapy</u> Cognitive therapy for 8 weeks, 2 times/week/4weeks, and 1 time/week in the remaining 4 weeks.	16/ 75	21.1/ 1.2				moderate/ improved to mild ^{§,†}
	<u>C. Group meetings (control group)</u> Self-administrative group meetings of 45-60min to discuss issues raised by the group members.	14/ 79	20.9/ 1.2				moderate/not improved
	Major Inclusion Criteria: BD	I score	13-28, n	o medication	l		
Salehi et al., (2016) Iran	Eligible patients entered into study: 86% <u>A. Aerobic exercise</u> Individual/supervised cycling/treadmill for 40-45min, 3times/ week/4weeks at 60-75% VO2max.	20/ 25	29/ 5.1	100 0		100 ^A	HAMD-17 severe/improved to mild [§]
inpatients	B. Electroconvulsive Therapy ECT 3times/week/4weeks.	20/ 35	29.7/ 6.28	100 0		100 ^A	severe/ improved to mild §
	<u>C. Aerobic Exercise + Electroconvulsive Therapy</u> Aerobic exercise + ECT as described above.	20/ 35	30.2/ 6.2	100 0		100 ^A	severe/ improved to mild §
	Major Inclusion Criteria: age	25 to 4	0, HAMI	D score of >2	2		

Trial, Country, Sample	Interventions	N/ ♀ %	age m/sd	attend. dropouts %	physiolog. gains	concurr. psychiatr. therap. %	depression pre/post
Pilu et al., (2007) Italy outpatients	Eligible patients entered into study: 71% <u>A. Aerobic Exercise</u> Group/supervised for 60min/2times/week/32weeks, 5min warm up, 50min on a self-selected cardio-fitness machine, change every 4min (20 options), 5min cooling down. Community-based gym.	10/ 100		0		100 ^A	HAMD-17 severe/ improved to normal-mild ^{§,†}
	B. Pharmacotherapy (control group) 70% on SSRIs, 10% on SNRIs, and 5% of the patients on SSRI + SNRI + Tricyclic antidepressants.	20/ 100		0			severe/not improved
	Major Inclusion Criteria: female, 2month persisten	ce of sc	ore of >1	3 on HAME	-17 despite m	edication	
Legrand et al., (2016) France	Eligible patients entered into study: 73% <u>A. Aerobic exercise</u> Supervised/individual daily brisk walking or jogging for 30min/10days at 65-75% of MHR, park outside hospital, 92% individual sessions.	14/ 64	45.3/ 10.0	 7.1		100 ^A	BDI severe/improved to mild- moderate ^{§,†}
inpatients	<u>B. Stretching exercise</u> Supervised daily stretching 30min/10days on thighs, calves, gluteal, back, shoulders 60secs (60secs break), hospital.	11/ 72	41.0/ 13.2	 18		100 ^A	severe/ improved [§]
	<u>C. Pharmacotherapy (control group)</u> All patients were treated with antidepressants; 70% on SSRI's, 20% on SSNRI's, 10% on dopamine agonist.	10/ 70	49.1/ 16.5	10.5			severe/not improved

Trial, Country, Sample	Interventions	N/ ♀ %	age m/sd	attend. dropouts %	physiolog. gains	concurr. psychiatr. therap. %	depression pre/post
Veale et al., (1992) UK outpatients	Eligible patients entered into study: 71% <u>A. Aerobic Exercise</u> Group/supervised running 3imes/week/12 weeks in a public park just outside hospital. Warm-up/stretching before running.	48/		 25	VO _{2max} ^{§,†}	45 ^A 100 ^p	CIS moderate-severe/ improved ^{§,†}
outpatients	B. Treatment as usual (control group) Supportive psychotherapy.	35/		 17.2	not improved	34 ^A	moderate-severe/ improved §
	Major Inclusion Criteria: >17 total weighted sco	ore and	>2 depres	sion severit	y score on the	CIS	
Oertel- Knöchel et al., (2014) Germany	<u>A. Aerobic exercise</u> Group-based, supervised, for 45min, 3 times/week/4weeks at 60-70%MHR. Warm-up for 10min, 25min cardio training (aerobic exercise, aerobic with boxing exercises and circuit training) and 10min cool-down.	8/ 50	36.6/ 12.9	drop		100 ^{CT}	BDI moderate/ improved to mild moderate [§]
inpatients	<u>B. Relaxation</u> Group-based, supervised, for 45min, 3times/week/4weeks. Breathing exercises, "enjoy exercises", "imaginary journey", relaxation or acceptance and awareness training. No yoga, no muscle progressive relaxation.	6/ 66	41.3/ 15.6	outs: 32% across all groups		100 ^{ct}	moderate/ improved §
	<u>C. Waiting (control)</u> No intervention.	8/ 38	42.2 8.3	-			moderate/ not improved §

Major Inclusion Criteria: stable medication 1 month before and during the trial, disease duration at least 5 years

Trial, Country, Sample	Interventions	N/ ♀ %	age m/sd	attend. dropouts %	physiolog. gains	concurr. psychiatr. therap. %	depression pre/post
Kerling et al., (2015) Germany inpatients	<u>A. Aerobic exercise</u> Group-based, supervised by study nurses, for 51min, 3times/week/6 weeks at moderate intensity and at 13max at the Borg scale. Warm up for 6min, 25min on a bicycle ergometer, and for 20min on arm ergometer, cross trainer, stepper, treadmill, and recumbent or rowing ergometer at personal preference.	22/ 45	44.2/ 8.5	>90 0	RHR [§] VO _{2peak} [§] LMax [§] VAT [§]	77 ^A 100 ^{CBT}	MADRS moderate-severe/ improved to mild- moderate [§]
	<u>B. Treatment as usual (control group)</u> Antidepressant drugs and CBT were prescribed to 75% and 100% of the patients, respectively. As part of their routine treatment, all patients attended a daily supervised-based physical activity program of ball games, walking, and stretching at moderate intensity for 20min.	20/ 30	40.9/ 11.9	0	not improved	100 PA	moderate-severe/ improved to mild- moderate §

Major Inclusion Criteria: no acute/chronic infectious disease, no acute/lifetime immunological disease

A: Antidepressants, BDI: Beck Depression Inventory, C: Counseling, CBT: Cognitive behavioral therapy, CIS: Clinical Interview Schedule, CT: Cognitive training, ECT: Electroconvulsive therapy, HAMD-17: Hamilton Rating Scale Depression, LMax: Maximum lactate concentration, MADRS: Montgomery-Åsberg Depression Rating Scale, Max: Maximum, M: Mean, METs: Metabolic Equivalents, MHR: Maximum heart rate, MIC: Major inclusion criteria, OT: Occupational therapy, P: Psychotherapy, PA: Physical activity, RHR: Resting heart rate, SD: Standard deviation, SNRI: Serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor, SSRI: Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, VO_{2peak}: Peak oxygen uptake, VAT: Ventilatory anaerobic threshold, §: Statistically significant difference in comparison to control group.

Table 2. Consensus scores	of design	quality for	reviewed trials
	0		

PEDro Criteria	Random Allocation	Concealed Allocation	Baseline Balance	Blinding Patient/Therapist/Assessor	Dropout (<15%)	ITT	Statistical Comparison Between Groups	Point and Variability Measures	PEDro Total Score
Trials									
Schuch et al. (2015)	1	1	1	0/0/1	1	1	1	1	8
Kerling et al. (2015)	1	1	1	0/0/1	1	1	1	1	8
Legrand and Neff (2016)	1	1	1	0/0/0	1	1	1	1	7
Salehi et al. (2016)	1	1	1	0/0/1	1	1	1	1	7
Pilu et al. (2007)	1	0	1	0/0/0	1	1	1	1	6
Mota-Pereira et al. (2011)	1	1	0	0/0/1	1	0	1	1	6
Oertel-Knöchel et al. (2014)	1	0	1	0/0/1	0	1	1	1	6
Martinsen et al. (1985)	1	0	1	0/0/0	1	1	1	0	5
Sadeghi et al. (2016)	1	0	1	0/0/1	0	0	1	1	5
Veale et al. (1992-a)	1	0	1	0/0/0	0	0	1	1	4
Rueter (1980)	1	0	1	0/0/0	0	0	1	1	4

PEDro: Physiotherapy Evidence Database scale; ITT: Intention to Treat

	Trials/Arms	Treatment Effectiveness			Publica	tion Bias	Heterogeneity	
		g	CI 95%	p value	Egger intercept	Begg-Mazumbar Kendall's tau	Cochrane Q	I^2
Overall effect	11/13	-0.79	-1.00, -0.57	0.00	-2.48, p=0.12	-0.22, p=0.29	15.20, p=0.23	21%
PEDro score of $\geq 6^{1,2,4-6,9,10}$	7/8	-0.70	-0.94, -0.45	0.00	-1.87, p=0.42	-0.03, p=0.90	7.16, p=0.41	2%
Up to 4 weeks ^{2,5,9,10}	4/5	-0.71	-1.09, -0.34	0.00	-1.18, p=0.74	-0.00, p=1.00	5.79, p=0.22	30%
Exercise preferences ^{1,3,6,10}	4/4	-0.84	-1.17, -0.51	0.00	-3.73, p=0.52	-0.17, p=0.73	3.23, p=0.36	7%

Table 3. Meta-analytic findings of the effect of aerobic exercise on depression; overall effect and sensitivity analyses

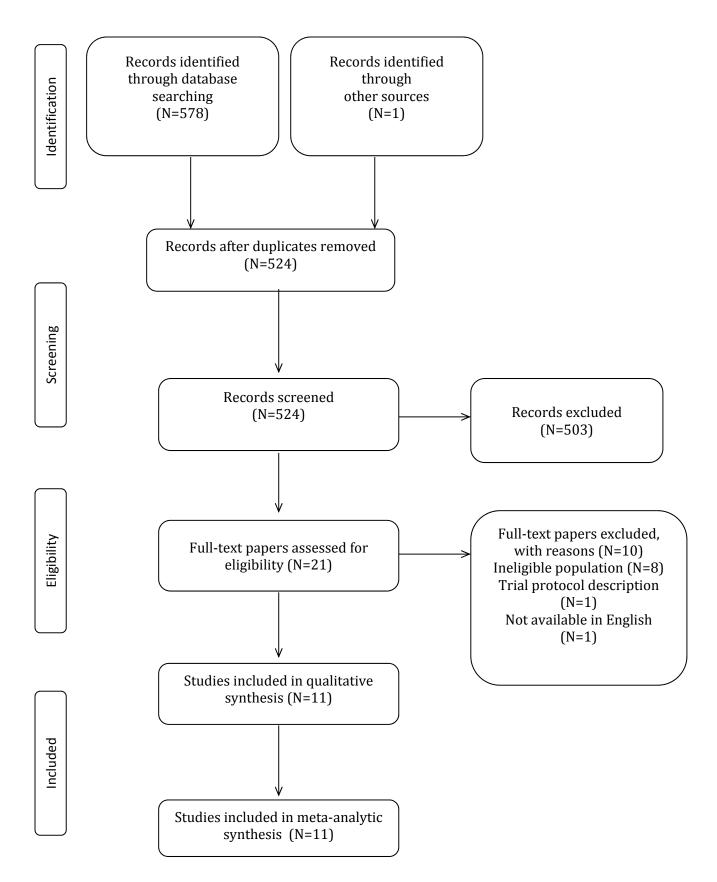
CI 95%: Confidence Intervals; g: Hedge's g; PEDro: Physiotherapy of Evidence Database Scale. ¹Kerling et al. 2015; ²Legrand and Neff, 2016; ³Martinsen et al. 1985; ⁴Mota-Pereira et al. 2011; ⁵Oertel-Knöchel et al. 2014; ⁶Pilu et al. 2007; ⁹Salehi et al. 2016; ¹⁰Schuch et al. 2015.

	Trials/Arms	Trea	atment Effectiv	eness	Publica	tion Bias	Heterogeneity	
		g	CI 95%	p value	Egger intercept	Begg-Mazumbar Kendall's tau	Cochrane Q	I ²
Participants								
Outpatients ^{4,6-8,11}	5/6	-0.84	-1.16, -0.51	0.00	-3.14, p=0.13	-0.53, p=0.13	6.12, p=0.29	18%
Inpatients ^{1-3,5,9,10}	6/7	-0.75	-1.06, -0.44	0.00	-1.36, p=0.67	-0.00, p=1.00	8.89, p=0.18	32%
Mild-moderate/moderate ^{3,5,7,8}	4/5	-0.97	-1.43, -0.51	0.00	-2.58, p=0.48	-0.10, p=0.81	6.79, p=0.15	41%
Moderate-severe/severe ^{1,2,4,6,9-11}	7/8	-0.71	-0.94, -0.48	0.00	-1.92, p=0.42	-0.18, p=0.54	7.16, p=0.41	2%
Intervention								
Equipment-based ^{1,5,6,9,10}	5/6	-0.67	-0.98, -0.35	0.00	-1.59, p=0.63	-0.00, p=1.00	6.59, p=0.25	24%
Equipment-free ^{2,3,7,8,11}	5/6	-0.94	-1.28, -0.60	0.00	-3.00, p=0.17	-0.40, p=0.26	6.96, p=0.22	28%
Group exercise ^{1,3,5,6,11}	5/5	-0.80	-1.09, -0.51	0.00	-0.62, p=0.80	-0.00, p=1.00	3.48, p=0.48	0%
Individual exercise ^{2,4,7,9,10}	5/6	-0.87	-1.30, -0.43	0.00	-4.39, p=0.14	-0.40, p=0.26	10.78, p=0.06	53%
Indoors ^{1,4-7,9,10}	7/8	-0.77	-1.10, -0.44	0.00	-3.54, p=0.13	-0.25, p=0.39	12.05, p=0.09	41%
Outdoors ^{2,3,11}	3/3	-0.94	-1.30, -0.58	0.00	-1.95, p=0.59	-0.00, p=1.00	1.37, p=0.50	0%
Hospital ^{1,5,9,10}	4/5	-0.61	-0.96, -0.27	0.00	-0.64, p=0.88	-0.00, p=1.00	5.62, p=0.23	28%
Non-hospital ^{2,3,6,7,11}	5/5	-1.07	-1.41, -0.72	0.00	-3.08, p=0.09	-0.30, p=0.46	4.65, p=0.33	14%
Comparisons								
Antidepressants or TAU ^{1,2,4,6,10,11}	6/6	-0.75	-1.01, -0.48	0.00	-1.38, p=0.35	-0.27, p=0.45	1.87, p=0.87	0%
Psychological treatments ^{1,3,7,8,11}	5/6	-0.85	-1.21, -0.48	0.00	-3.69, p=0.16	-0.40, p=0.26	8.64, p=0.12	42%
Outcomes								
Self-rated ^{2,3,5,7,8}	5/6	-0.97	-1.35, -0.59	0.00	-2.50, p=0.41	-0.13, p=0.71	6.81, p=0.24	26%
Clinician-rated ^{1,4,6,9-11}	6/7	-0.69	-0.94, -0.44	0.00	-1.56, p=0.62	-0.09, p=0.76	6.65, p=0.35	9%

Table 4. Meta-analytic findings of the effects of aerobic exercise on depression; subgroup analyses

CI 95%: Confidence Intervals; g: Hedge's g; TAU: Treatment as usual ¹Kerling et al. 2015; ²Legrand and Neff, 2016; ³Martinsen et al. 1985; ⁴Mota-Pereira et al. 2011; ⁵Oertel-Knöchel et al. 2014; ⁶Pilu et al. 2007; ⁷Rueter, 1980; ⁸Sadeghi et al. 2016; ⁹Salehi et al. 2016; ¹⁰Schuch et al. 2015; ¹¹Veale et al. 1992.

Figure 1. Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) flow diagram.



Study name	Statistics for each study								Hedge	s's g and 9	5% CI	
	Hedges's g	Standard error	Variance	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value	:				
Salehi 2016-a	-0,12	0,31	0,10	-0,73	0,49	-0,39	0,70		-			
Kerling 2015	-0,45	0,31	0,09	-1,06	0,15	-1,48	0,14			┏┿		
Sadeghi 2016-b	-0,46	0,35	0,12	-1,14	0,23	-1,31	0,19		-			
Ortel-Knoechel 2014	-0,63	0,49	0,24	-1,58	0,32	-1,30	0,19	-				
Mota-Perreira 2011	-0,68	0,39	0,15	-1,44	0,09	-1,74	0,08					
Veale 1992	-0,74	0,26	0,07	-1,25	-0,24	-2,89	0,00		╶┼┲	-		
Schuch 2015	-0,80	0,29	0,08	-1,37	-0,23	-2,76	0,01			-		
Sadeghi 2016-a	-0,85	0,37	0,14	-1,58	-0,12	-2,29	0,02	-	──┤■			
Legrand 2016	-1,01	0,44	0,19	-1,87	-0,15	-2,31	0,02		 			
Pilu 2007	-1,04	0,40	0,16	-1,82	-0,25	-2,60	0,01			-		
Salehi 2016-b	-1,13	0,33	0,11	-1,79	-0,48	-3,38	0,00	—				
Martinsen 1985	-1,23	0,33	0,11	-1,87	-0,58	-3,73	0,00					
Reuter 1980	-2,01	0,56	0,31	-3,11	-0,91	-3,59	0,00	<				
	-0,79	0,11	0,01	-1,01	-0,57	-7,17	0,00					
								-2,00	-1,00	0,00	1,00	2,00

Figure 2. Meta-analysis of depressive symptom score.

Favours Aerobic Exercise Favours Controls

