Age discrimination is a political issue which has many sides. For example, eligibility for the NHS breast screening programme has an upper age limit, which is clearly 'ageist'. On the other hand, in this issue Evans et al18 reported that some older people in good health regard the policy of offering people aged over 65 years the influenza vaccination as ageist. In some cases this may be because they feel healthy, and not 'at risk' or 'old', and do not wish to be perceived differently from people aged younger than 65 years; or it may be a reaction to the institutionalised ageism of health services, in which older people are cared for separately by geriatricians, and which is a specialty widely perceived to have more limited resources. In an era in which 'active ageing' and employment beyond existing retirement ages is being encouraged,19 these different perspectives raise a separate question of how to target services to the groups most at risk without appearing 'ageist'. The challenge for health services is to develop a consistent approach, based on an understanding and communication of risk on a case-by-case basis. There is a need to explain why 'age 65 and over' is a risk factor for complications of influenza, and why vaccination is offered to this age group. There is a similar need to explain the rationale offering screening programmes to different age groups (for example, the NHS breast screening programme age ceiling of 70 years). GPs and practice nurses are best placed to provide these explanations, but first must be sure that their own judgments are evidence based whenever possible, and that prioritisation decisions are transparent. The Harries study¹⁰ suggests that there is some way still to go.

Ann Bowling

Professor of Health Services Research, Department of Primary Care and Population Sciences, University College London

REFERENCES

- Williams A. The rationing debate. Rationing health care by age. BMJ 1997; 314(7083): 820–825.
- 2. Fries JF. Frailty, heart disease, and stroke. The compression of morbidity paradigm. *Am J Prev Med* 2005; **29**(5 Suppl 1): 164–168.
- 3. Department of Health. *National Service Framework* for older people. London: The Stationery Office, 2001.
- Barakat K, Wilkinson P, Deaner A, et al. How should age affect management of acute myocardial infarction? *Lancet* 1999; 353(9157): 955–959.
- Bowling A, Bond M, McKee D, et al. Equity in access to exercise tolerance testing, coronary angiography, and coronary artery bypass grafting by age, sex and clinical indications. Heart 2001; 85(6): 680–686.
- Bond M, Bowling A, McKee D, et al. Does ageism affect the management of ischaemic heart disease? I Health Serv Res Policy 2003; 8(1): 40–47.
- Ramsay SE, Whincup PH, Lawlor DA, et al. Secondary prevention of coronary heart disease in older patients after the national service framework: population based study. BMJ 2006; 332(7534): 144–145.
- Morris RW, Whincup PH, Papacosta O, et al. Inequalities in coronary revascularisation during the 1990s: evidence from the British regional heart study. Heart 2005; 91(5): 635–640.
- Arber S, McKinlay J, Adams A, et al. Influence of patient characteristics on doctors' questioning and lifestyle advice for coronary heart disease: a UK/US video experiment. Br J Gen Pract 2004; 54(506): 673–678.
- Harries C, Forrest D, Harvey N, et al. Which doctors are influenced by a patient's age? A multi-method study of angina treatment in general practice, cardiology and gerontology. Qual Saf Health Care 2007; 16(1): 23–27.

- 11. National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. *Social value judgements*. London: NICE, 2005.
- Bartlett C, Doyal L, Ebrahim S, et al. The causes and effects of socio-demographic exclusions from clinical trials. Health Technol Assess 2005; 9(38): iii-iv, ix-x, 1-152.
- Majeed A, Aylin P. The ageing population of the United Kingdom and cardiovascular disease. *BMJ* 2005; 331(7529): 1362.
- Sigfrid LA, Turner C, Crook D, Ray S. Using the UK primary care Quality and Outcomes Framework to audit health care equity: preliminary data on diabetes management. J Public Health 2006; 28(3): 221–225.
- Simpson CR, Hanaford PC, Lefevre K, Williams D. Effect of the UK incentive-based contract on the management of patients with stroke in primary care. Stroke 2006; 37(9): 2354–2360.
- 16. Daily Telegraph. Are the elderly less deserving of the best medical care? Telegraph Speakers' Corner. http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/main.jhtml?view=B LOGDETAIL&grid=F11&blog=yourview&xml=/new s/2007/02/14/ublview14b.xml (accessed 11 Apr 2007).
- Bowling A, Culliford L, Smith D, et al. What do patients really want? Patients' preferences for treatment for angina. London: Department of Primary Care and Population Sciences, University of London, 2007.
- Evans MR, Prout H, Prior L, et al. A qualitative study of lay beliefs about influenza immunisation in older people. Br J Gen Pract 2007; 57: 352–358.
- Department of Work and Pensions. Opportunity Age: a practical contribution to policy and planning. London: DWP, 2005.

ADDRESS FOR CORRESPONDENCE

Ann Bowling

Royal Free & UCL Medical School, Department of Primary Care and Population Sciences, Rowland Hill Street, London, NW3 2PF.

E-mail: a.bowling@ucl.ac.uk

We need a chronic disease management model for depression in primary care

The treatment of depression as described by steps 3 and 4 in the NICE guidelines for the management of depression are a particular challenge for primary care.¹ There is now an increasing body of evidence that suggests depression, for a lot of people, is a chronic illness that leads to ongoing suffering and disability. Between 50 and 70% of patients with depression treated in the primary care

setting with antidepressant medication showed a response. In a recent review of treatment for depression, a meta-analysis comparing antidepressants with placebo showed a relative risk for improvement on antidepressants over placebo of between 1.12 and 1.55, and a number needed to treat of between four and six.2 This means that for every person who responds, three to five people will not. This is likely to be similar for psychological treatments such as cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT). Response in the research sense is usually defined as a 50% improvement in symptoms from baseline. This means that even in patients who respond, many patients will remain symptomatic. Remission, defined by researchers as an improvement to minimal or no symptoms, is achieved in far fewer patients. Using remission as an outcome, antidepressants perform poorly. Fawcett and Barkin found that only 30% of patients treated with an actually antidepressant remission.3 Compounding this, fewer than 10% of patients will actually complete a course of antidepressants for the recommended duration.4

Achieving remission is important for a number of reasons. Residual symptoms of depression are associated with ongoing suffering and disability, and are also associated with a far greater likelihood of relapse. Paykel *et al* found that, over a 15-month period, 25% of patients in remission relapsed, whereas 76% of those with residual symptoms relapsed.⁵

The prognosis for many patients in primary care suffering from depression therefore appears poor. At twelve months after diagnosis nearly 45% of patients with severe depression remained depressed.6 Nearly 50% of patients diagnosed with a neurotic illness in primary care were found to still be a case a year later.7 Of those who improve, relapse is common with nearly 40% having a chronic relapsing course over more than a decade.8 It is unlikely that antidepressants (or psychological treatments) are going to be the whole solution to the treatment of depression in primary care.

Step 3 of the NICE depression guideline concerns the management of moderate or severe depression in primary care. The guideline recommends antidepressant medication, psychological interventions, and social support for these patients. Step 4 is the domain of specialist mental health services. Its focus is the management of treatment-resistant, recurrent, atypical,

and psychotic depression, and patients at significant risk. The guideline recommends medications, complex psychological interventions, and combination therapies. Few of these recommendations are based on evidence from randomised controlled trials. Although the guideline makes clear recommendations for patients who should be referred to secondary care for step 4 interventions, few patients make this transition.

Given the above figures for the prevalence of chronic depression and relapse rates, about 40% of patients with depression treated in primary care should be eligible for step 4 interventions. But over 90% of patients with common mental disorders, such as depression, are treated in primary care alone without recourse to secondary care services. This suggests that, as confirmed by clinical experience, primary care continues to treat a large proportion of patients who suffer with chronic or relapsing depression without the involvement of specialist services.

Unfortunately, the NICE guidelines fall short of describing a longitudinal model of care for people with chronic or relapsing depression, other than by combining medication and CBT. Often these patients fall between steps 3 and 4 in the steppedcare model, a model mainly suited to the treatment of patients in primary care with an acute episode of depression. We would argue that depression should be treated as a chronic disease. This would not replace stepped-care but we would recommend that stepped-care is placed within a chronic disease management framework. We would also suggest the addition of a step specifically for patients with chronic or relapsing depression that addresses management in 'real world' situations where these patients often do not end up being treated by specialist services.

Chronic disease management is already practiced in primary care for many chronic conditions such as diabetes and coronary heart disease. We argue that this model lends itself well to depression care. The cornerstones of chronic disease management have been documented by Wagner⁹ as changes in service delivery to ensure effective care through teams with well defined roles; support for selfmanagement by patients; clinical case

management of more complex patients; enhancements to decision support and clinical information systems; and close links with community resources. Implicit in this is effective follow-up, review, and 'consultancy' from specialist colleagues when appropriate.

argument that depression outcomes can be improved by the systematic reorganisation of primary care to incorporate a chronic disease management model is persuasive. Kates et al recently reviewed all randomised controlled trials of chronic disease management of depression in primary care.10 They concluded that most studies demonstrated not only improvements in symptoms, but also improvements in disability, reduction in relapse, improved adherence to treatment plans, and improved patient satisfaction. Chew-Graham et al demonstrate in this issue of the journal the feasibility of adopting such an approach for older people with depression.11

Utilising new primary care workers, and existing primary care professionals in new or adapted roles may help to develop such a service model. England and Lester recently reported in this journal that primary care mental health workers are valued by patients with depression and/or anxiety, and by primary care staff.12 Lester et al also found that patients assigned primary care mental health workers were more satisfied with their care than a control group, although no difference in clinical outcome was found.13 The primary care mental health workers in Lester et al's study provided brief interventions such as anxiety management, psychoeducation, and 'sign-posting'. However, GPs were told not to alter their clinical practice. This may account for the failure to show a difference in clinical outcome. To improve patient outcomes there needs to be an organisational change in care delivery.14 'Bolting on' extra resources to existing care strategies does not appear to be effective.

It seems sensible that a chronic disease management approach should be developed for all patients with depression. Patients who only have a single episode can still be treated within such an approach. A chronic disease management

approach is likely to include stepped-care, but should emphasise the process of care rather than individual treatment strategies at each step. Instead of focusing on particular interventions and then building a management strategy around these, the strategy should come first. Staff can then be trained accordingly to meet the requirements of that strategy.

We have reservations about the value of 'bolt-on' services, whether these are services provided by graduate mental health workers, or any other professional group, such as the psychological services recommended by Layard.15 New services need to be accompanied by a change in existing services if they are to be optimally effective. This needs careful planning and an acknowledgement that change in all parts of the system is necessary however challenging this may be for individual professionals. Many of the components of a chronic disease model for depression are described in the 'enhanced' services for depression by the Care Services Improvement Partnership. 16 However, we would argue that what is described is not an 'enhanced' service, but should be a core service for people suffering from depression.

For many people the reality of depression is that of a chronic relapsing illness, and it deserves to be treated as such. Many of these people's needs are not met by a stepped-care model alone. A chronic disease management model would help to simplify management and ensure patients have ongoing, appropriate, and timely care. We wouldn't

be satisfied with anything less than optimal care for patients with diabetes, or asthma. The same should apply to depression.

Andre Tylee

Professor Primary Care Mental Health, Health Services and Population Research Department, Institute of Psychiatry, London

Paul Walters

MRC Fellow, Health Services and Population Research Department, Institute of Psychiatry, London

REFERENCES

- National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. Depression: management of depression in primary and secondary care. Clinical Guideline 23. London: NICE, 2004.
- Arroll B, Macgillivray S, Ogston S, et al. Efficacy and tolerability of tricyclic antidepressants and SSRIs compared with placebo for treatment of depression in primary care: a meta-analysis. Ann Fam Med 2005; 3(5): 449–456.
- Fawcett J, Barkin RL. Efficacy issues with antidepressants. J Clin Psychiatry 1997; 58(Suppl 6): 32–39.
- Lepine JP, Gastpar M, Mendlewicz J, Tylee A. Depression in the community: the first pan-European study DEPRES (Depression Research in European Society). *Int Clin Psychopharmacol* 1997; 12(1): 19–29.
- Paykel ES, Ramana R, Cooper Z, et al. Residual symptoms after partial remission: an important outcome in depression. Psychol Med 1995; 25(6): 1171–1180.
- Goldberg D, Privett M, Ustun B, et al. The effects of detection and treatment on the outcome of major depression in primary care: a naturalistic study in 15 cities. Br J Gen Pract 1998; 48(437): 1840–1844.
- Mann AH, Jenkins R, Belsey E. The twelve-month outcome of patients with neurotic illness in general practice. *Psychol Med* 1981; 11(3): 535–550.
- Lloyd KR, Jenkins R, Mann A. Long-term outcome of patients with neurotic illness in general practice. *BMJ* 1996; 313(7048): 26–28.
- Wagner EH. Chronic disease care. BMJ 2004; 328(7433): 177–178.

- Kates N, Mach M. Chronic disease management for depression in primary care: a summary of the current literature and implications for practice. Can J Psychiatry 2007; 52(2): 77–85.
- Chew-Graham CA, Lovell K, Roberts C, et al. A randomised controlled trial to test the feasibility of a collaborative care for the model for the management of depression in older people. Br J Gen Pract 2007; 57: 364–370.
- 12. England E, Lester H. Implementing the role of the primary care mental health worker: a qualitative study. *Br J Gen Pract* 2007; **57**(536): 204–211.
- Lester H, Freemantle N, Wilson S, et al. Cluster randomised controlled trial of the effectiveness of primary care mental health workers. Br J Gen Pract 2007; 57(536): 196–203.
- 14. Von Korff M, Goldberg D. Improving outcomes in depression. *BMJ* 2001; **323**(7**319**): 948–949.
- 15. Layard R. The case for psychological treatment centres. *BMJ* 2006; **332**(7550): 1030–1032.
- Care Services Improvement Partnership. Designing primary care mental health services. London: Department of Health, 2006.

ADDRESS FOR CORRESPONDENCE

Andre Tylee

Health Services and Population Research
Department, NIHR Biomedical Research
Centre, David Goldberg Building,
PO Box 28, Institute of Psychiatry, De
Crespigny Park, London SE5 8AF.
E-mail: spjuatt@iop.kcl.ac.uk

How much monitoring?

Variations in practice can alert us that a problem exists, but do not tell us what to do. As practitioners we can be consistent but wrong (as with hormone replacement therapy), or inconsistent but without important impacts (as with choice of antipyretic to treat fever). Although inconsistencies are imperfect markers, they do demand examination in practice. In this issue, Vinker and colleagues¹ show

considerable difference in the number of tests ordered by practitioners in Israel over a single year. A fourfold difference was found between locations in the rates of some testing.¹ But are practitioners who are doing more haemoglobin A1c (HbA1c) tests, or those doing fewer tests, practising more appropriately? Those wanting to reduce costs may push for the lower rates, but this should only be

acceptable if that were also clinically appropriate. Unfortunately, for many of the common tests examined by Vinker *et al* the poor development of our research base in diagnostics does not give a firm foundation one way or the other.

If diagnostic research is weak, monitoring research is almost nonexistent. It is therefore notable that several of the 10 most frequently used