

Original article:

Comparing Sociodemographic Predisposing Factors in Major Depressive Disorders (MDD) and Controls in Kelantan, Malaysia

Noor Suryani Mohd Ashari¹, Mohd Azhar Mohd Yasin², Siti Nor Fairus Mohamed Sanusi¹, Mohd Nazri Shafei³

Abstract

Introduction: Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) is expected to become the second leading cause of worldwide disability by the year 2020 and the major contributor to the overall global burden of disease. **Objective:** This study was done to compare sociodemographic predisposing factors in MDD patients and controls in Kelantan, Malaysia. **Methods:** A total of 47 MDD patients and 47 healthy controls participated in this study. MDD patients were recruited from Psychiatric Clinic, HUSM and they were diagnosed according to DSM-V criteria. Patients' biodata, medical and psychiatric history were taken by physician. Data were analysed using Pearson Chi-square and multiple logistic regression. **Results:** In MDD group, 61.7% were females and 38.3% were males. Forty two percent of MDD were in the age group of 45 to 65 years old and almost 12.8% of MDD patients had family history of depression, while all healthy controls were in good general health and had no family history of depression. Pearson Chi-square revealed that there were significant associations between smoking status ($P=0.027$), marital status ($P=0.007$) educational level ($P=0.022$) and area of living ($P=0.036$) with MDD. The results showed that unmarried person were less likely to have MDD compared to those married with adjusted odds ratio (OR) of 0.31. Smoker were 5.16 at odds of having MDD as compared to non-smoker, while individuals with a low education were more likely to have MDD compared to those highly educated with adjusted OR of 2.04. The result also showed those living in urban area were less likely to have MDD compared to those living in rural area with adjusted OR of 0.48. **Conclusion:** Higher age, female and positive family history possess a higher tendency of having MDD. In addition, smokers, married, less educated and living in rural area were more likely to have MDD compared to healthy controls.

Keywords: sociodemographic, predisposing factor, major depressive disorder

*International Journal of Human and Health Sciences Vol. 03 No. 02 April'19 Page : 74-79
DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.31344/ijhhs.v3i2.80>*

Introduction

Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) is a common mental disorder characterized by sadness, loss of interest or pleasure, feelings of guilt or low self-worth, disturbed sleep or appetite, feelings of tiredness and poor concentration. It is a serious condition that can cause a variety of physical and emotional problems.

MDD can affect all people regardless of age, geography, demography, or social position. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), an estimated 350 million people of all

ages suffer from depression. MDD is projected to be the second leading cause of worldwide disability by the year 2020 and major contributor to the overall global burden of disease.³

In 2014, about 6.7% of the U.S population aged 18 and older had MDD. Across the Asia Pacific region, the rates of current to 1-month MDD ranged from 1.3 to 5.5%, while in the previous year ranged from 1.7 to 6.7% . The lifetime occurrence of MDD worldwide is between 8 to 10% . In Malaysia, MDD is expected to affect about 2.3 million people irrespective of the geographical

1. Department of Immunology
2. Department of Psychiatry,
3. Department of Community Medicine, School of Medical Sciences, Health Campus, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 16150, Kubang Kerian, Kelantan

Correspondence to: Noor Suryani Mohd Ashari, Department of Immunology, School of Medical Sciences, , Health Campus, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 16150, Kubang Kerian, Kelantan. Email: suryani@usm.my

differences of the study setting. While in the primary care population, the prevalence ranged from 6.7 to 14.4%.²

Numerous studies have demonstrated that sociodemographic factors that may contributed to the development of this disease. This study was done to compare sociodemographic predisposing factors of MDD patients with healthy controls in Kelantan, Malaysia.

Methodology

This was a cross-sectional study which was conducted among adult (aged between 18 to 65 years old) MDD patients and healthy controls. MDD patients were recruited from psychiatric out-patient clinic, Hospital Universiti Sains Malaysia. The diagnosis of all eligible subjects were confirmed by a psychiatrist, according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorder V (DSM-V) and all those who consented and met the inclusion and exclusion criteria were enrolled into this study. All participating subjects continued to receive standard pharmacological and non-pharmacological treatments for MDD from the treating doctors at the clinic.

Control subjects were randomly recruited from hospital employees and students. All subjects were asked to complete Depression Anxiety Scoring System (DASS 21) questionnaire in order to ensure that they were in good general health and had no depressive symptoms.

After getting the written consent, subject's demographic data such as age, sex, race, family history, smoking status, marital status, educational level, and area of living were obtained through individual interview and from the patients' medical record. All sociodemographic data were recorded in a study form.

Data were analysed using Pearson Chi-square and multiple logistic regression. This study was approved by Research and Ethics Committee, Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Results

A total of 47 MDD patients and 47 healthy controls were recruited in the study within January 2015 to February 2016. The mean age (SD) of MDD patients was 39.7 (13.07) years old with 42.5% of them were in the age group of 45 to 65 years old. While for healthy control, the mean age was 28.0 (8.69) years old and 46.8% of them were in the age group of 18 to 24 years old. The mean age (SD) of onset of MDD was 36.26 (11.88) years old.

In MDD group, 29 (61.7%) were females and 18 (38.3%) were males, while in healthy control, 32

(68.1%) were females and 15 (31.9%) were males. Majority of MDD patients and healthy controls were Malays which accounted for 95.7% of study population, while the other 4.3% were Chinese. Almost 12.8% of MDD patient had family history of depression, while all healthy controls were in good general health and had no family history of depression.

Table 1: Sociodemographic characteristics of MDD patients and healthy control

	MDD (n=47)	Healthy Control (n=47)
Age		
mean (SD)	39.7 (13.07)	28.0 (8.69)
Age group, n (%)		
18-24	9 (19.2)	22 (46.8)
25-44	18 (38.3)	21 (44.7)
45-65	20 (42.5)	4 (8.5)
Gender, n (%)		
Male	18 (38.3)	15 (31.9)
Female	29 (61.7)	32 (68.1)
Race, n (%)		
Malay	45 (95.7)	45 (95.7)
Chinese	2 (4.3)	2 (4.3)
Indian	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Family history of DD, n (%)		
Yes	6 (12.8)	0
No	41 (87.2)	47 (100)
Age of onset of MDD		-
mean (SD)	36.26 (11.88)	

Chi-square analysis showed that sociodemographics factors including marital status ($p = 0.007$), smoking status ($p = 0.027$), educational level ($p = 0.022$) and area of living ($p = 0.036$) were significantly associated with MDD. Further analysis using multiple logistic regression revealed that only marital status ($p = 0.011$) was significantly associated with MDD after OR (odds ratio) adjustment, while smoking status ($p = 0.150$) educational levels ($p = 0.132$) and area of living ($p = 0.174$) were not significantly associated.

The results also showed that unmarried individuals were less likely to have MDD compared to those married with adjusted OR of 0.31. Smokers were 5.16 at odds of having MDD as compared to non-smoker, while lower educated individuals were

more likely to have MDD compared to higher educated with adjusted OR of 2.04. The result also showed urban residents were less likely to have MDD compared to those living in rural area with adjusted OR of 0.48.

Table 2: Predisposing factors of Major Depressive Disorder

	MDD n (%)	Control n (%)	Crude OR (95% CI)	<i>p-value</i> ^a	Adjusted OR (95% CI)	<i>p-value</i> ^b
Marital Status						
Unmarried	19 (37.25)	32 (62.75)	0.32 (0.14,0.74)	0.007*	0.31 (0.13,0.77)	0.011*
Married	28 (65.12)	15 (34.88)	1.00		1.00	
Smoking Status						
Smoker	7 (87.5)	1 (12.5)	8.05 (0.95,68.26)	0.027*	5.16 (0.55,48.04)	0.150
Non-smoker	40 (46.51)	46 (53.49)	1.00		1.00	
Educational Level						
Low	26 (63.41)	15 (36.59)	2.64 (1.14,6.12)	0.022*	2.04 (0.81,5.14)	0.132
High	21 (39.62)	32 (60.38)	1.00		1.00	
Area of Living						
Urban	30 (43.48)	39 (56.52)	0.36 (0.14,0.91)	0.036*	0.48 (0.17,1.39)	0.179
Rural	17 (68.00)	8 (32.00)	1.00			

^a Pearson Chi-square, ^bMultiple Logistic Regression (Wald statistic), OR: odds ratio, CI: confidence interval

*Results was significant as $p < 0.05$

Discussion

In this study, the age of MDD patients range from 18 to 65 years old and the rates was highest in those aged 45 to 65 years. Few studies suggested that the age group may varies with sex^{8,9}. Rait *et al.* (2009) reported that the highest incidence for MDD was 25 to 44 years old for women and 44 to 65 years old for men.⁸ This finding was consistent with our study which also showed that the highest incidence rate for men was 44 to 65 year old, while for women was between 25 to 44 years old. MDD patients consists of 61.7% females and 38.3% males. Epidemiological studies had consistently shown that women have greater incidence rates of MDD than men with a 2:1 female to male ratio regardless of racial, ethnicity or economic background¹⁰⁻¹². The cause of this sex differences remain unclear. However, several hypotheses have been proposed. Some studies suggested that biological factors such as genetic differences and hormonal changes may account for the sex difference¹³. Other studies stated that

psychosocial factors such as relationship issues, lack of social support and adverse experiences in life especially during childhood may have a greater impact in women than men, thereby increasing the incidence rate for MDD^{14,15}. Women also reported to have more depressive symptoms than men¹⁶. Majority of our MDD patients were Malays. However, a study on the prevalence of MDD in Selangor, Malaysia reported that the prevalence was highest among minority ethnic groups (e.g. Iban, Kadazan, Orang Asli, Siam) (17.6%), followed by Chinese (13.8%), Malays (10.8%) and Indians (6.1%). The fact that MDD patients and controls in this study population consists of mostly Malays (95.7%) merely reflects the racial distribution in Kelantan, where majority of the population are Malay ethnicity. In this study, 12.8 % of MDD patients had family history of depression. It has been found that individuals with a first-degree depressive family members will experienced two to tenfold greater risk of developing MDD^{18,19}. Perris and colleagues

stated that patients without family history of depression would be genetically less vulnerable and, consequently that such patients would need more massive traumatic events to trigger depression than the patients with a family history of the disorder²⁰.

Marital status has been found to be highly associated with the prevalence of MDD. This study showed that married person were at higher risk of having MDD compared to those unmarried person which include divorced/separated or single. Few studies examine marital status differences in MDD in few countries showed different finding. A study in Kangwha Island, South Korea, reported higher risk of MDD in married person compared to unmarried²¹, which is parallel with our study. However, survey studies in Western countries like Canada, Netherland and United States showed that unmarried persons were more likely to have MDD²². Stegenga *et al.* (2012) suggested that marital disruption enhance the risk of MDD among women, while being unmarried was a crucial risk factor for men²³.

Our result showed that smokers were more likely to develop MDD compared to non-smokers. Our results are in agreement with previous studies which also reported an increased odds of depression in smokers^{24,25}. A population-based longitudinal Norwegian study demonstrated a dose-dependent relationship between smoking and depression; heavy smokers (>20 cigarettes per day) showed fourfold greater risk compared to those who had never smoked²⁶. Meanwhile, a retrospective Australian study (10 years) found that the risk for developing MDD among heavy smokers were doubled²⁵. These findings have shown that smoking is infact a major risk factor in the causal network leading to development of depression. A researcher indicated that nicotine use may increase susceptibility to depression because it influences several neurochemical systems (e.g acetylcholine and catecholamine systems)²⁷, which may play an etiological role in depression²⁸. Futhermore, tobacco smoke generates free radicals, causing protein oxidation and subsequently, tissue damage²⁹. Depression has also been characterized by elevated levels of oxidative stress that are positively correlated with the severity of the depression³⁰.

Epidemiological studies of MDD support an inverse association between the prevalence of MDD and the educational level^{31,32}. In pan-European study, higher education was associated with lower risk of mood disorder. The findings were consistent with our study which indicated that patients with lower educational level (primary and secondary school) have higher risk for MDD compared to those with higher educational level (diploma and above). In some developing countries, educational level were recognized as an important element that determine socioeconomic position and income obtained in later life³³. People with a lower educational level generally have lower socioeconomic position and faced economic hardship like unemployment, financial strain and poverty. These standard of living were associated with an increase risk of MDD^{33,34}.

Urban vs. rural residence was commonly cited as a risk factor for MDD and was identified as an etiology of this disorder³⁵. Rural area is defined as area with population less than 10 000 people, agriculture area, forests and water bodies. While urban area is characterized by higher population density of more than vast human features in comparison to area surrounding it. Similar to Breslau *et al.* (2014) and Probst *et al.* (2006), our study showed that people living in rural area have higher risk for MDD compared to those living in urban area^{36,37}, Probst *et al.* (2006) suggested that rural communities were more likely to experienced MDD because of the circumstances, conditions, and behaviors that challenge their health³⁷.

Conclusion

Higher age, female and positive family history possess a higher tendency of having MDD. In addition, smokers, married, less educated and living in rural area were significantly more likely to have MDD compared to healthy control.

Ethical approval: The study was supported by a Short Term Grant (304/PPSP/61313069) from Universiti Sains Malaysia

Conflict of interest: none

Acknowledgement: We are grateful to Lecturers and Staffs at Department of Immunology, Doctors and Nurses at Psychiatric Clinic, Hospital Universiti Sains Malaysia for their assistance throughout this study

References:

1. Fava M, Kendler KS. Major depressive disorder. *Neuron* 2000;28 (2):335-341.
2. Mukhtar F, Oei TPS. A review on the prevalence of depression in Malaysia. *Current Psychiatry Reviews* 2011;7 (3):234-238.
3. World Health Organization. Depression, <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs369/en/> (2016, accessed 14 June 2016).
4. National Institute of Mental Health. Brain Stimulation Therapies, <http://www.nimh.nih.gov/health/topics/brain-stimulation-therapies/brain-stimulation-therapies.shtml> (2016, accessed 20 September 2016).
5. Chiu E. Epidemiology of depression in the Asia Pacific region. *Australasian Psychiatry* 2004;12 (sup1):s4-s10.
6. Malaysian Psychiatric Association. Depression, <http://www.psychiatry-malaysia.org/article.php?aid=56> (2006, accessed 4 September 2016).
7. Ng CG. A review of depression research in Malaysia. *The Medical journal of Malaysia* 2014;69 (Suppl A):42-45.
8. Rait G, Walters K, Griffin M, Buszewicz M, Petersen I, Nazareth I. Recent trends in the incidence of recorded depression in primary care. *The British Journal of Psychiatry* 2009;195 (6):520-524.
9. Lee CT, Chiang YC, Huang JY, Tantoh DM, Nfor ON, Lee JF et al. Incidence of Major Depressive Disorder: Variation by Age and Sex in Low-Income Individuals: A Population-Based 10-Year Follow-Up Study. *Medicine* 2016;95 (15):e3110.
10. Kessler RC, Berglund P, Demler O, Jin R, Koretz D, Merikangas KR et al. The epidemiology of major depressive disorder: results from the National Comorbidity Survey Replication (NCS-R). *JAMA* 2003;289 (23):3095-3105.
11. Bottomley C, Nazareth I, Torres-González F, Švab I, Maaros HI, Geerlings MI et al. Comparison of risk factors for the onset and maintenance of depression. *The British Journal of Psychiatry* 2010;196 (1):13-17.
12. Van de Velde S, Bracke P, Levecque K. Gender differences in depression in 23 European countries. Cross-national variation in the gender gap in depression. *Social science & medicine* 2010;71 (2):305-313.
13. Nolen-Hoeksema S. Gender differences in depression. *Current directions in psychological science* 2001;10 (5):173-176.
14. Piccinelli M, Wilkinson G. Gender differences in depression. *The British Journal of Psychiatry* 2000;177 (6):486-492.
15. Accortt EE, Freeman MP, Allen JJ. Women and major depressive disorder: clinical perspectives on causal pathways. *Journal of Women's Health* 2008;17 (10):1583-1590.
16. Poutanen O, Koivisto AM, Mattila A, Joukamaa M, Salokangas RK. Gender differences in the symptoms of major depression and in the level of social functioning in public primary care patients. *The European journal of general practice* 2009;15 (3):161-167.
17. Kader Maideen SF, Sidik SM, Rampal L, Mukhtar F. Prevalence, associated factors and predictors of depression among adults in the community of Selangor, Malaysia. *PloS one* 2014;9 (4):e95395.
18. Wallace J, Schnieder T, McGuffin P. Genetics of depression. In I. H. Gotlib & C. L. Hammen (Eds.), *Handbook of depression* 2002; New York, NY, US: Guilford Press:169-191.
19. Goodwin FK, Jamison KR. *Manic-depressive illness: bipolar disorders and recurrent depression* (Vol. 1) 2007;Oxford University Press.
20. Perris H, Von Knorring L, Perris C. Genetic vulnerability for depression and life events. *Neuropsychobiology* 1982;8 (5):241-247.
21. Lee H. *The Kangwha Epidemiological Study of Mental Disorders: Methodological considerations. Methods and applications in mental health surveys: The Todai Health Index* 1991;211-227.
22. Andrade L, Caraveo-anduaga JJ, Berglund P, Bijl RV, Graaf RD, Vollebergh W et al. The epidemiology of major depressive episodes: results from the International Consortium of Psychiatric Epidemiology (ICPE) Surveys. *International journal of methods in psychiatric research* 2003;12 (1):3-21.
23. Stegenga BT, King M, Grobbee DE, Torres-González F, Švab I, Maaros HI et al. Differential impact of risk factors for women and men on the risk of major depressive disorder. *Annals of epidemiology* 2012;22 (6):388-396.
24. Hamalainen J, Kaprio J, Isometsa E, Heikkinen M, Poikolainen K, Lindeman S et al. Cigarette smoking, alcohol intoxication and major depressive episode in a representative population sample. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 2001;55 (8):573-576.
25. Pasco JA, Williams LJ, Jacka FN, Ng F, Henry MJ, Nicholson GC et al. Tobacco smoking as a risk factor for major depressive disorder: population-based study. *The British Journal of Psychiatry* 2008;193 (4):322-326.
26. Klungsoyr O, Nygård JF, Sørensen T, Sandanger I. Cigarette smoking and incidence of first depressive episode: an 11-year, population-based follow-up study. *American journal of epidemiology* 2006;163 (5):421-432.
27. Pomerleau OF, Pomerleau CS. Neuroregulators and the reinforcement of smoking: towards a biobehavioral explanation. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews* 1985;8 (4):503-513.
28. Carmody TP, Vieten C, Astin JA. Negative affect, emotional acceptance, and smoking cessation. *Journal of psychoactive drugs* 2007;39 (4):499-508.
29. Ozguner F, Koyu A, Cesur G. Active smoking causes oxidative stress and decreases blood melatonin levels. *Toxicology and Industrial Health* 2005;21 (10):21-26.
30. Yanik M, Erel O, Kati M. The relationship between potency of oxidative stress and severity of depression. *Acta Neuropsychiatrica* 2004;16 (4):200-203.
31. Lorant V, Deliége D, Eaton W, Robert A, Philippot P, Ansseau M. Socioeconomic inequalities in depression: a meta-analysis. *American journal of*

- epidemiology 2003;157 (2):98-112.
32. Alonso J, Angermeyer MC, Bernert S, Bruffaerts R, Brugha TS, Bryson H et al. (2004). 12-Month comorbidity patterns and associated factors in Europe: results from the European Study of the Epidemiology of Mental Disorders (ESEMeD) project. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica* 2004, 109(s420),28-37.
 33. Shi J, Zhang Y, Liu F, Li Y, Wang J, Flint J et al. Associations of educational attainment, occupation, social class and major depressive disorder among Han Chinese women. *PloS one* 2014;9 (1):e86674.
 34. Lorant V, Croux C, Weich S, Deliège D, Mackenbach J, Ansseau M. (2007). Depression and socio-economic risk factors: 7-year longitudinal population study. *The British journal of psychiatry* 2007;190 (4):293-298
 35. Wang JL. Rural–urban differences in the prevalence of major depression and associated impairment. *Social psychiatry and psychiatric epidemiology* 2004;39 (1):19-25.
 36. Breslau J, Marshall GN, Pincus HA, Brown RA. Are mental disorders more common in urban than rural areas of the United States? *Journal of psychiatric research* 2014;56:50-55.
 37. Probst JC, Laditka SB, Moore CG, Harun N, Powell MP, Baxley EG. Rural-urban differences in depression prevalence: implications for family medicine. *Family medicine-kansas city-* 2006;38 (9):653-660.
-