



The 'cardiac blues': A guide for health professionals

What is the cardiac blues?

Each year, around 54,000 Australians have a heart attack and many undergo coronary artery surgery¹. Up to three quarters of survivors experience the 'cardiac blues' during convalescence², a phenomenon which is characterised by a range of distressing and often debilitating emotional, behavioural and cognitive changes. Typical emotions include anxiety, fear and worry; anger, irritation and frustration; distress, sadness and depression; guilt and denial. These emotions are accompanied by behavioural symptoms such as tearfulness, social withdrawal, tiredness, sleep disturbance and changes in sex drive and eating patterns, as well cognitive symptoms such as confusion, forgetfulness, inability to concentrate, impaired decision making, and frequent nightmares³⁻⁷. Typically, people go on an emotional roller-coaster, experiencing many or all of these symptoms.

Patients want to know about the cardiac blues?

Patients themselves indicate that they need and want to be told about the cardiac blues. In a study of 160 Australian cardiac patients, four out of five indicated that they would like to have received information about the emotional aspects of their recovery, preferably from a health professional and preferably close to the time of the cardiac event². Given that early education regarding symptom management enhances patient recovery and improves patient outcomes^{8,9}, it is important that patients are informed about what to expect in terms of their likely emotional recovery after an acute cardiac event.²

Is it normal to go through the cardiac blues?

While the 'cardiac blues' is common, it tends to be transient. For most patients, symptoms tend to resolve in the first two to three months after the event.^{2,3,5-7,10-15} For this reason, while uncomfortable and distressing, the cardiac blues can be considered a part of the normal adjustment process and can be likened to a grief or bereavement response.

Is the cardiac blues the same as depression?

Depression is different to the cardiac blues. The two key features of depression are profound feelings of sadness most of the time, and lack of interest or enjoyment in most activities, including activities enjoyed prior to the heart event. Some people have thoughts of suicide or self-harm.

Around one in five patients experience severe depression in the year after their acute event^{10,12,16-18}, a prevalence that is four times higher than in the general population.^{5,19-22}

Post-event depression puts cardiac patients at a distinct disadvantage in terms of low engagement in activities that promote health and wellbeing, such as healthy eating^{23,24}, physical activity²³⁻²⁵, medication adherence^{25,26}, and cardiac rehabilitation attendance^{25,27,28,29,30,25,29}, and high engagement in risk behaviours such as smoking^{23,25,31,32}.

Not surprisingly then, depressed cardiac patients are at increased risk of hospital readmission³³, recurrent cardiac events^{27, 34-36}, and premature mortality^{37 38} compared with their non-depressed counterparts.

How do I differentiate between the cardiac blues and depression?

It is difficult to differentiate between the cardiac blues and depression as the symptoms of the presenting symptoms appear very similar. Two key factors are crucial in determining whether a patient has the cardiac blues or is depressed. The first is the trajectory of symptoms and the second is the presence of risk factors, or 'red flags'.

- a) **Trajectories of symptoms.** In a 'normal' cardiac blues trajectory, patients' emotional wellbeing should improve over time, as they come to terms with the acute cardiac event and begin to recover physically^{5, 10}. Typically symptoms of the cardiac blues should start to improve by 2-3 months after the cardiac event. If symptoms persist or worsen, it is likely that the patient is developing depression.
- b) **Red flags.** The risk of major depression is highest amongst patients with a mental health history³⁹⁻⁴¹, those who live alone or are socially isolated,^{10, 39, 42, 43} those who are economically disadvantaged,^{39, 43, 44} smokers,^{10, 23, 39} and those with more severe disease^{10, 39} or comorbid conditions such as diabetes.^{16, 39, 42, 45} These factors can be considered 'red flags' to alert health professionals to the patient's increased depression risk.

Red flags for increased depression risk:
• History of anxiety or depression
• Living alone or socially isolated
• Younger age (under 55 years)
• Regular use of cigarettes, drugs or alcohol
• Recent bereavement, job loss or financial stress
• Diabetes or other comorbid conditions

What is my role in supporting patients' emotional recovery?

Supporting patients' emotional recovery after hospital discharge is an important component of overall cardiac rehabilitation (CR)^{46, 47}.

- For patients on a normal bereavement trajectory, and with none or few of the 'red flags', the cardiac blues should be normalised and the patient reassured that the symptoms are likely to resolve.
- For those whose symptoms are persisting or worsening, particularly in the presence of two or more 'red flags', referral for comprehensive depression management is advised. You can refer patients to the ACHH Cardiac Counselling Clinic for support.

Differentiating the cardiac blues and depression

	Cardiac Blues	Depression
Time period	Transient	Persistent
Trajectory	Improving	Worsening
Red flags	Absent	Present
Incidence	75%	20%
Prognosis	Good	Poor

Depression screening

The latest Australian guidelines indicate that screening for depression in patients who have had a cardiac event is an important component of follow-up care⁴⁸. The guidelines, released in 2013, recommend routine depression assessments “at first presentation and again at the next follow-up appointment”, with repeat assessments recommended on a yearly basis⁴⁸. The guidelines specifically recommend a screen 2-3 months after the cardiac event⁴⁸. The recommended screening tool is the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ9).

Knowing when to refer a patient for comprehensive depression screening and management

If you are concerned that a patient might have developed anxiety or depression, you can refer them to the Cardiac Counselling Clinic directly via the ACHH website. You can also encourage your patients to make an appointment with their doctor to obtain a mental health plan to access counselling. There are many effective treatments for depression which will improve patients’ mood and quality of life.

Authors:

Dr Barbara M Murphy PhD^{1,2,3}, Dr Rosemary O Higgins DPsych^{1,2,4}, Prof Alun C Jackson PhD^{1,2,5}

¹ Australian Centre for Heart Health, Melbourne, Australia

² Faculty of Health, Deakin University, Australia

³ Department of Psychology, University of Melbourne, Australia

⁴ Department of Physiotherapy, University of Melbourne, Australia

⁵ Centre on Behavioural Health, Hong Kong University, Hong Kong PRC

References

1. Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. *Australian hospital statistics 2014-15*. 2015. Canberra: AIHW.
2. Murphy BM, Higgins RO, Jackson AC, et al. Patients want to know about the 'cardiac blues'. *Australian Family Physician* 2015; 44: 826-832.
3. Goble AJ, Biddle N and Worcester MUC. Depression after acute cardiac illness. *Qual Life Cardiovasc Care* 1989; 5: 60-65.
4. Higgins RO, Murphy BM, Nicholas A, et al. Emotional and adjustment issues faced by cardiac patients seen in clinical practice: a qualitative survey of experienced clinicians. *J Cardiopulm Rehabil Prev* 2007; 27: 291-297.
5. Murphy B, Higgins R and Jackson A. Anxiety, depression and psychological adjustment after an acute cardiac event. In: Byrne D and Alvarenga M (eds) *Handbook of Psychocardiology*. Singapore: Springer, 2016.
6. Murphy BM, Higgins RO, Shand L, et al. Improving health professionals' self-efficacy to support patients' emotional recovery after heart attack and heart surgery: The 'cardiac blues project'. *European Journal of Cardiovascular Nursing* 2016; 16: 143-149.
7. Murphy BM, Higgins RO, Shand L, et al. Managing the cardiac blues in clinical practice: A survey of Australian cardiac health professionals. *British Journal of Cardiac Nursing* 2016; 11: 222-228.
8. Veronovici NR, Lasiuk GC, Rempel GR, et al. Discharge education to promote self-management following cardiovascular surgery: An integrative review. *European Journal of Cardiovascular Nursing* 2014; 13: 22-31.
9. Weibel L, Massarotto P, Hediger H, et al. Early education and counselling of patients with acute coronary syndrome: A pilot for a randomized controlled trial. *Eur J Cardiovasc Nurs* 2014; pii: 1474515114556713
10. Murphy BM, Elliott PC, Higgins RO, et al. Anxiety and depression after coronary artery bypass graft surgery: most get better, some get worse. *Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehabil* 2008; 15: 434-440.
11. Murphy BM, Rogerson M, Worcester MUC, et al. Predicting mortality 12 years after an acute cardiac event: comparison between in-hospital and 2-month assessment of depressive symptoms in women. *J Cardiopulm Rehabil Prev* 2013; 33: 160-167.
12. Thombs BD, Bass EB, Ford DE, et al. Prevalence of depression in survivors of acute myocardial infarction: Review of the evidence. *J Gen Intern Med* 2006; 21: 30-38.
13. Tully PJ and Baker RA. Depression, anxiety, and cardiac morbidity outcomes after coronary artery bypass surgery: a contemporary and practical review. *Journal of Geriatric Cardiology* 2012; 9: 197-208.
14. Tully PJ and Higgins R. Depression screening, assessment and treatment for patients with coronary heart disease: a review for psychologists. *Australian Psychologist* 2014; 49: 337-344.
15. Schleifer SJ, Macari-Hinson MM, Coyle DA, et al. The nature and course of depression following myocardial infarction. *Arch Intern Med* 1989; 149: 1785-1789.

16. Murphy BM, Elliott PC, Worcester MU, et al. Trajectories and predictors of anxiety and depression in women during the 12 months following an acute cardiac event. *Br J Health Psychol* 2008; 13: 135-153.
17. Blumenthal JA, Lett HS, Babyak MA, et al. Depression as a risk factor for mortality after coronary artery bypass surgery. *Lancet* 2003; 362: 604-609.
18. Murphy B, Le Grande M, Alvarenga M, et al. Anxiety and Depression After a Cardiac Event: Prevalence and Predictors. *Frontiers in Psychology* 2020; 10.
19. AIHW. Australia's health 2012. Australia's health no. 13. Cat. no. AUS 156. Canberra: AIHW.
20. American Psychiatric Association. *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders fifth edition (DSM-5)*. United States of America 2013.
21. Egede LE. Major depression in individuals with chronic medical disorders: prevalence, correlates and association with health resource utilization, lost productivity and functional disability. *General Hospital Psychiatry* 2007; 29: 409-416.
22. Moser DK, Dracup K, Evangelista LS, et al. Comparison of prevalence of symptoms of depression, anxiety and hostility in elderly heart failure, myocardial infarction and coronary artery bypass graft surgery patients. *Heart Lung* 2010; 39: 378-385.
23. Murphy BM, Le Grande M, Navaratnam H, et al. Are poor health behaviours in anxious and depressed cardiac patients explained by sociodemographic factors? *Eur J Prev Cardiol* 2013; 20: 995-1003..
24. Ziegelstein RC, Fauerbach JA, Stevens SS, et al. Patients with depression are less likely to follow recommendations to reduce cardiac risk during recovery from a myocardial infarction. *Arch Intern Med* 2000; 160: 1818-1823.
25. Kronish IM, Rieckmann N, Halm EA, et al. Persistent depression affects adherence to secondary prevention behaviors after acute coronary syndromes. *J Gen Intern Med* 2006; 21: 1178-1183.
26. Gehi A, Haas D, Pipkin S, et al. Depression and medication adherence in outpatients with coronary heart disease: findings from the Heart and Soul Study. *Arch Intern Med* 2005; 165: 2508-2513.
27. Frasure-Smith N, Lesperance F and Talajic M. Depression following myocardial infarction. Impact on 6-month survival. *JAMA* 1993; 270: 1819-1825.
28. Whitmarsh A, Koutantji M and Sidell K. Illness perceptions, mood and coping in predicting attendance at cardiac rehabilitation. *Br J Health Psychol* 2003; 8: 209-221.
29. Blumenthal JA, Babyak MA, Moore KA, et al. Effects of exercise training on older patients with major depression. *Arch Intern Med* 1999; 159: 2349-2356.
30. Lane D, Carroll D, Ring C, et al. Mortality and quality of life 12 months after myocardial infarction: effects of depression and anxiety. *Psychosom Med* 2001; 63: 221-230.
31. Gravely-Witte S, Stewart D, Suskin N, et al. The association among depressive symptoms, smoking status and antidepressant use in cardiac outpatients. *J Behav Med* 2009; 32: 478-490.
32. Perez GH, Nicolau JC, Romano BW, et al. Depression: a predictor of smoking relapse in a 6-month follow-up after hospitalization for acute coronary syndrome. *Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehabil* 2008; 15: 89-94.
33. Murphy BM, Elliott PC, Le Grande MR, et al. Living alone predicts 30-day hospital readmission after coronary artery bypass graft surgery. *Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehabil* 2008; 15: 210-215.
34. Strik JJ, Denollet J, Lousberg R, et al. Comparing symptoms of depression and anxiety as predictors of cardiac events and increased health care consumption after myocardial infarction. *JACC* 2003; 42: 1801-1807.

35. Connerney I, Shapiro PA, McLaughlin JS, et al. Relation between depression after coronary artery bypass surgery and 12-month outcome: a prospective study. *Lancet* 2001; 358: 1766-1771.
36. Tully PJ, Baker RA and Turnbull D. The role of depression and anxiety symptoms and hospital readmissions after cardiac surgery. *J Behav Med* 2008; 31: 281-290.
37. van Melle JP, de Jonge P, Spijkerman TA, et al. Prognostic association of depression following myocardial infarction with mortality and cardiovascular events: A meta-analysis. *Psychosom Med* 2004; 66: 814-822.
38. Barth J, Schumacher M and Herrmann-Lingen C. Depression as a risk factor for mortality in patients with coronary heart disease: A meta-analysis. *Psychosom Med* 2004; 66: 802-813.
39. Murphy BM, Ludeman D, Elliott P, et al. 'Red flags' for anxiety and depression after an acute cardiac event: 6-month longitudinal study in regional and rural Victoria. *Eur J Prev Cardiol* 2014; 21: 1079-1089.
40. Martens EJ, Smith ORW, J., Denollet J, et al. Cardiac history, prior depression personality predict course of depressive symptoms after myocardial infarction. *Psychol Med* 2008; 38: 257-264.
41. Spijkerman TA, van der Brink RHS, Jansen JHC, et al. Who is at risk of post-MI depressive symptoms? *J Psychosom Res* 2005; 58: 425-432.
42. Frasure-Smith N, Lesperance F, Gravel G, et al. Social support, depression, and mortality during the first year after myocardial infarction. *Circulation* 2000; 101: 1919-1924.
43. Cheek F, Schrader G, Banham D, et al. Identification, course, and treatment of depression after admission for a cardiac condition: rationale and patient characteristics for the Identifying Depression As a Comorbid Condition (IDACC) project. *Am Heart J* 2003; 146: 978-984.
44. Gallagher R, McKinley S and Dracup K. Effects of a telephone counseling intervention on psychosocial adjustment in women following a cardiac event. *Heart Lung* 2003; 32: 79-87.
45. Watkins LL, Schneiderman N, Blumenthal JA, et al. Cognitive and somatic symptoms of depression are associated with medical comorbidity in patients after acute myocardial infarction. *Am Heart J* 2003; 146: 48-54.
46. National Heart Foundation of Australia and Cardiac Society of Australia and New Zealand. *Guidelines for Reducing Risk in Heart Disease: an expert guide to clinical practice for secondary prevention of coronary heart disease*. 2012. National Heart Foundation of Australia.
47. National Heart Foundation of Australia. *Recommended framework for cardiac rehabilitation*. 2004. Canberra: NHF.
48. Colquhoun DM, Bunker SJ, Clark DM, et al. Screening, referral and treatment for depression in patients with coronary heart disease: A consensus statement from the National Heart Foundation of Australia. *Medical Journal of Australia* 2013; 198: 483-484.