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Prevalence in parents and caregivers

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Introduction

Prevalence represents the overall proportion of individuals in a population who have the disorder of interest. It is different from incidence, which represents only the new cases that have developed over a particular time period. Point prevalence is the proportion of individuals in a population who have the disorder at a given point in time (e.g., at one-month post-trauma), while period prevalence is the proportion of individuals in a population who have the disorder over specific time periods (e.g., one to two months post-trauma). This table presents the evidence for the prevalence of PTSD in parents and caregivers.

Method

We have included only systematic reviews (systematic literature search, detailed methodology with inclusion/exclusion criteria) published in full text, in English, from the year 2010 that report results separately for people with PTSD. Reviews were identified by searching the databases MEDLINE, EMBASE, and PsycINFO. When multiple copies of reviews were found, only the most recent version was included. We prioritised reviews with pooled data for inclusion.

Review reporting assessment was guided by the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) checklist that describes a preferred way to present a meta-analysis¹. Reviews with less than 50% of items checked have been excluded from the library. Note that early reviews may have been guided by less stringent reporting checklists than the PRISMA, and that some reviews may have been limited by journal guidelines.

Evidence was graded using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) Working Group approach where high quality evidence such as that gained from randomised controlled trials (RCTs) may be downgraded to moderate or low if review and study quality is limited, if there is inconsistency in results, indirect comparisons,

imprecise or sparse data and high probability of reporting bias. It may also be downgraded if risks associated with the intervention or other matter under review are high. Conversely, low quality evidence such as that gained from observational studies may be upgraded if effect sizes are large or if there is a dose dependent response. We have also taken into account sample size and whether results are consistent, precise and direct with low associated risks (see end of table for an explanation of these terms)2. The resulting table represents an objective summary of the available evidence, although the conclusions are solely the opinion of staff of NeuRA (Neuroscience Research Australia).

Results

We found four systematic reviews that met our inclusion criteria³⁻⁶.

- Moderate to low quality evidence found the prevalence of PTSD in mothers following the loss of an infant ranged from 23% to 49.1% within 3 months post-loss, from 0.6% to 37% between 3 months and 12 months post-loss, and from 3.3% to 15.2% by 18 years post-loss. In fathers, prevalence of PTSD ranged from 5% to 8.4% between 7 weeks and 18 years post-loss.
- Moderate to low quality evidence found the prevalence of PTSD in caregivers of people in intensive care was between 14% and 81% during the ICU stay, and between 3% and 62% after discharge.
- Moderate quality evidence found the prevalence of PTSD in parents of children with cancer is around 26%.
- Moderate quality evidence found the prevalence of PTSD in community samples of prenatal women is around 3.3%, and postpartum PTSD was around 4%. Rates were higher (around 18-19%) in high-risk samples of women who had difficult births or pregnancies or had babies with fetal anomalies.

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Christiansen DM

Posttraumatic stress disorder in parents following infant death: A systematic review

Clinical Psychology Review 2017; 51: 60-74

View review abstract online

Comparison	Prevalence of PTSD in parents following infant loss.
Summary of evidence	Moderate to low quality evidence (unclear sample size, appears inconsistent and imprecise, direct) found the prevalence of PTSD in mothers ranged from 23% to 49.1% within 3 months post-loss, from 0.6% to 37% between 3 months and 12 months post-loss, and from 3.3% to 15.2% by 18 years post-loss. In fathers, prevalence of PTSD ranged from 5% to 8.4% between 7 weeks and 18 years post-loss.

Prevalence of PTSD in parents after infant loss

Mothers

<3 months post-loss: 5 studies, prevalence ranged from 23% to 49.1% 3-12 months post-loss: 6 studies, prevalence ranged from 0.6% to 37% Up to 18 years post-loss: 3 studies, prevalence ranged from 3.3% to 15.2%

<u>Fathers</u>

7 weeks to 18 years post-loss: 2 studies, prevalence ranged from 5% to 8.4%

There were no moderating effects from whether the death occurred prior to, during, or following birth and nor was gestational age consistently associated with PTSD severity.

Consistency in results	Appears inconsistent
Precision in results	Appears imprecise
Directness of results	Direct

Johnson CC, Suchyta MR, Darowski ES, Collar EM, Kiehl AL, Van J, Jackson JC, Hopkins RO

Psychological sequelae in family caregivers of critically ill intensive care



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unit patients a systematic review		
Annals of the American Thoracic Society 2019; 16: 894-909		
View review abstract online		
Comparison	Prevalence of PTSD in caregivers of people in intensive care.	
Summary of evidence	Moderate to low quality evidence (unclear sample size, direct) found the prevalence of PTSD in caregivers of people in intensive care was between 14% and 81% during the ICU stay, and between 3% and 62% after discharge.	
Prevalence of PTSD in caregivers of people in intensive care		
During ICU stay: 3 studies, prevalence ranged from 14% to 81%		
After discharge: 16 studies, prevalence ranged from 3% to 62%		
Authors report that caregiver PTSD decreased in most studies over time.		
Consistency in results	No measure of consistency is reported.	
Precision in results	No measure of precision is reported.	
Directness of results	Direct	

van Warmerdam J, Zabih V, Kurdyak P, Sutradhar R, Nathan PC, Gupta S

Prevalence of anxiety, depression, and posttraumatic stress disorder in parents of children with cancer: A meta-analysis

Pediatric Blood and Cancer 2019; 66: e27677

View review abstract online

Comparison	Prevalence of PTSD in parents of children with cancer.
Summary of evidence	Moderate quality evidence (large sample size, inconsistent, appears imprecise, direct) found the prevalence of PTSD in parents of children with cancer is around 26%.

Prevalence of PTSD in parents of children with cancer

31 studies, N = 5,501, prevalence = 26%, 95%Cl 22% to 32%, l^2 = 96%

Prevalence of PTSD was consistently higher in parents of children with cancer than in noncancer parental controls.

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There were no moderating effects of child's cancer phase, or study methodology.	
Consistency in results	Inconsistent
Precision in results	Appears imprecise
Directness of results	Direct

Yildiz PD, Ayers S, Phillips L

The prevalence of posttraumatic stress disorder in pregnancy and after birth: A systematic review and meta-analysis

Journal of Affective Disorders 2017; 208: 634-45

View review abstract online

Comparison	Prevalence of PTSD in pregnancy and after birth.
Summary of evidence	Moderate quality evidence (large samples, appears inconsistent and imprecise, direct) found the prevalence of PTSD in community samples of prenatal women is around 3.3%, and postpartum PTSD was around 4%. Rates were higher in highrisk samples of women who had difficult births or pregnancies or had babies with fetal anomalies (prenatal PTSD = 18.95%, postpartum PTSD = 18.5%).

Prevalence of PTSD in pregnancy and after birth

Community samples

Women sourced from maternity hospitals, antenatal clinics, or childbirth educational classes Prenatal PTSD: 29 studies, N = 14,104, prevalence = 3.3%, 95%Cl 2.4% to 4.5% Postpartum PTSD: 21 studies, N = 8,511, prevalence = 4.0%, 95%Cl 2.8% to 5.7%

High-risk samples

Woman who experienced a difficult or traumatic birth, had emergency caesarean sections, or who had severe pregnancy complications, severe fear of birth, a history of sexual/physical violence or childhood abuse, babies that were born very low birth weight, preterm, or diagnosed with a fetal anomaly

Prenatal PTSD: 6 studies, N = 1,160, prevalence = 18.9%, 95%CI 10.6% to 31.4%

Postpartum PTSD: 7 studies, N = 542, prevalence = 18.5%, 95%CI 10.6% to 30.4%

Using clinical interviews was associated with lower prevalence rates in pregnancy and higher prevalence rates postpartum.

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Consistency in results	Appears inconsistent
Precision in results	Appears imprecise
Directness of results	Direct

Explanation of acronyms

CI = confidence interval, I^2 = the percentage of the variability in effect estimates that is due to heterogeneity rather than sampling error (chance), N = number of participants

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Explanation of technical terms

Bias has the potential to affect reviews of both RCT and observational studies. Forms of bias include; reporting bias - selective reporting of results; publication bias - trials that are not formally published tend to show less effect than published trials, further if there are statistically significant differences between groups in a trial, these trial results tend to get published before those of trials without significant differences; language bias - only including English language reports; funding bias - source of funding for the primary research with selective reporting of results within primary studies; outcome variable selection bias: database bias including reports from some databases and not others; citation bias - preferential citation of authors. Trials can also be subject to bias when evaluators are not blind to treatment condition and selection bias of participants if trial samples are small⁷.

† Different effect measures are reported by different reviews.

Prevalence refers to how many existing cases there are at a particular point in time. Incidence refers to how many new cases there are per population in a specified time period. Incidence is usually reported as the number of new cases per 100,000 people per year. Alternatively some studies present the number of new cases that have accumulated over several years against a person-years denominator. This denominator is the sum of individual units of time that the persons in the population are at risk of becoming a case. It takes into account the size of the underlying population sample and its age structure over the duration of observation.

Reliability and validity refers to how accurate the instrument is. Sensitivity is the proportion of actual positives that are correctly identified (100% sensitivity = correct identification of all actual positives) and specificity is the proportion of negatives that are correctly identified (100% specificity = not identifying anyone as positive if they are truly not).

Weighted mean difference scores refer to mean differences between treatment and comparison groups after treatment (or occasionally pre to post treatment) and in a randomised trial there is an assumption that both groups are comparable on this measure prior to treatment. Standardised mean differences are divided by the pooled standard deviation (or the standard deviation of one group when groups are homogenous) that allows results from different scales to be combined and compared. Each study's mean difference is then given a weighting depending on the size of the sample and the variability in the data. Less than 0.4 represents a small effect, around 0.5 a medium effect, and over 0.8 represents a large effect⁷.

Odds ratio (OR) or relative risk (RR) refers to the probability of a reduction (< 1) or an increase (> 1) in a particular outcome in a treatment group, or a group exposed to a risk factor, relative to the comparison group. For example, a RR of 0.75 translates to a reduction in risk of an outcome of 25% relative to those not receiving the treatment or not exposed to the risk factor. Conversely, a RR of 1.25 translates to an increased risk of 25% relative to those not receiving treatment or not having been exposed to a risk factor. A RR or OR of 1.00 means there is no difference between groups. A medium effect is considered if RR > 2 or < 0.5 and a large effect if RR > 5 or < 0.28. InOR stands for logarithmic OR where a InOR of 0 shows no difference between groups. Hazard ratios measure the effect of an explanatory variable on the hazard or risk of an event.

Correlation coefficients (eg, r) indicate the strength of association or relationship

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between variables. They can provide an indirect indication of prediction, but do not confirm causality due to possible and often unforseen confounding variables. An r of 0.10 represents a weak association, 0.25 a medium association and 0.40 and over represents а strong association. Unstandardised (b) regression coefficients indicate the average change in the dependent variable associated with a 1 unit change in independent variable, statistically the other independent controlling for variables. Standardised regression coefficients represent the change being in of standard deviations to allow comparison across different scales.

‡ Inconsistency refers to differing estimates of effect across studies (i.e. heterogeneity or variability in results) is not explained by subgroup analyses and therefore reduces confidence in the effect estimate. I2 is the percentage of the variability in effect estimates that is due to heterogeneity rather than sampling error (chance) - 0% to 40%: heterogeneity might not be important, 30% to 60%: may represent moderate heterogeneity, 50% to 90%: may represent considerable heterogeneity and over this is considerable heterogeneity. I² can calculated from Q (chi-square) for the test of heterogeneity with the following formula⁷;

$$I^2 = \left(\frac{Q - df}{Q}\right) \times 100\%$$

§ Imprecision refers to wide confidence intervals indicating a lack of confidence in the effect estimate. Based on GRADE recommendations, a result for continuous data (standardised mean differences, not weighted mean differences) is considered imprecise if the upper or lower confidence

limit crosses an effect size of 0.5 in either direction, and for binary and correlation data, an effect size of 0.25. GRADE also recommends downgrading the evidence when sample size is smaller than 300 (for binary data) and 400 (for continuous data), although for some topics, these criteria should be relaxed⁹.

Indirectness of comparison occurs when a comparison of intervention A versus B is not available but A was compared with C and B was compared with C that allows indirect comparisons of the magnitude of effect of A versus B. Indirectness of population, comparator and/or outcome can also occur when the available evidence regarding a particular population, intervention, comparator, or outcome is not available and is therefore inferred from available evidence. These inferred treatment effect sizes are of lower quality than those gained from head-tohead comparisons of A and B.

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