

1 **Association of Anxiety with Cardiovascular Disease in a Chinese Cohort of**  
2 **0.5 Million Adults**

3 Man Wu, MSc<sup>1†</sup>, Yunqing Zhu, MSc<sup>1†</sup>, Jun Lv, PhD<sup>1,2</sup>, Yu Guo, MSc<sup>3</sup>, Ling Yang, PhD<sup>4,5</sup>,  
4 Yiping Chen, DPhil<sup>4,5</sup>, Wei Tang, BSc<sup>6</sup>, Shengping Xiang, BSc<sup>7</sup>, Xiaohui Sun, MSc<sup>8</sup>, Junshi  
5 Chen, MD<sup>9</sup>, Zhengming Chen, DPhil<sup>5</sup>, Canqing Yu, PhD<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Liming Li, MD, MPH<sup>1,2</sup> on  
6 behalf of the China Kadoorie Biobank Collaborative Group<sup>†</sup>

- 7 1. Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Peking  
8 University Health Science Centre, Beijing, China
- 9 2. Peking University Center for Public Health and Epidemic Preparedness & Response,  
10 Beijing 100191, China;
- 11 3. Fuwai Hospital Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences, National Center for  
12 Cardiovascular Diseases, Beijing 100037, China
- 13 4. Medical Research Council Population Health Research Unit at the University of Oxford,  
14 Oxford, United Kingdom
- 15 5. Clinical Trial Service Unit & Epidemiological Studies Unit (CTSU), Nuffield Department  
16 of Population Health, University of Oxford, United Kingdom
- 17 6. Emergency Department, Pengzhou Traditional Chinese Medical Hospital, Pengzhou,  
18 Sichuan, China
- 19 7. Pengzhou Tongyi Hospital, Pengzhou, Sichuan, China
- 20 8. NCDs Prevention and Control Department, Qingdao CDC, Qingdao, Shandong, China
- 21 9. China National Center for Food Safety Risk Assessment, Beijing, China

22 †Authors contribute equally.

23 \*Corresponding authors:

Canqing Yu, PhD

Department of Epidemiology and

Biostatistics, Peking University Health

Science Center

38 Xueyuan Road, Beijing 100191,

China

Fax number: 86-10-82801528

Phone: 86-10-82801528 ext.322

Email: [yucanqing@pku.edu.cn](mailto:yucanqing@pku.edu.cn)

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25 †The members of the steering committee and collaborative group are listed in the online-only

26 supplemental material.

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## Abstract

**Background:** Anxiety might be a potentially modifiable risk factor of cardiovascular diseases (CVDs). Evidence relating anxiety symptoms and generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) to CVDs from prospective cohort study was still lacking in China.

**Methods:** Participants aged 30 to 79 years old from 10 areas across China were recruited during 2004-2008 and were followed up until 2017. 487,209 participants without CVDs at baseline remained for analyses. Anxiety symptoms (panic attacks and continuous anxiety) during the past 12 months were identified in a face-to-face interview. Participants with continuous anxiety were further assessed for GAD using Composite International Diagnostic Interview-Short Form. The primary outcomes were incident CVD, ischaemic heart disease (IHD), haemorrhagic stroke (HS), and ischaemic stroke (IS).

**Results:** During 4.7 million person-years of follow-up, we documented 140,365 incident cases of CVD. For panic attacks, the multivariable-adjusted HRs (95% CI) were 1.08 (1.04-1.13), 1.10 (1.02-1.19), 1.20 (1.05-1.38) and 1.20 (1.11-1.30) for CVD, IHD, HS and IS, respectively. Continuous anxiety was positively associated with incident CVD and IHD, and the corresponding HRs were 1.12 (1.04-1.20) and 1.21 (1.07-1.37).

**Limitations:** Anxiety symptoms were examined according to self-reported questionnaires, which could constitute key study limitations.

**Conclusions:** Among the Chinese adults, those with anxiety symptoms or GAD might be important at-risk population of CVD.

**Key words:** Anxiety; Panic; Cardiovascular diseases; Cohort study

## 55 **Introduction**

56 Anxiety disorders include a group of disorders that share figures of excessive fear, anxiety  
57 and related behavioural disturbances. Acute anxiety symptoms include panic attack, an abrupt  
58 surge of intense fear or intense discomfort that reaches a peak within minutes. While a  
59 long-term anxiety symptom (continuous anxiety) could be diagnosed as generalized anxiety  
60 disorder (GAD), which means uncontrollable and irrational worry about various domains,  
61 occurring at least 6 months(American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Anxiety is one of the  
62 most common mental disorders with a global 1-year prevalence of 3.6% in 2015(World  
63 Health Organization, 2017). In China, a cross-sectional study of 32,552 participants across 31  
64 provinces from 2013 to 2015 found out that, anxiety disorders were the most common class of  
65 mental disorders, with a lifetime prevalence of 7.6% (95%CI: 6.3%-8.8%)(Huang, et al.,  
66 2019). However, there's still a lack of emerging evidence of the health problems related to  
67 anxiety among Chinese people.

68 Anxiety is a potential risk factors for cardiovascular disease (CVD), the latter caused an  
69 estimated 4.5 million death in China in 2016, representing 43.1% of all death, including 2.0  
70 million due to stroke followed by 1.9 due to ischaemic heart disease (IHD)(World Health  
71 Organization, 2018). Recently, A meta-analysis showed that anxiety was associated with a  
72 52% increased risk of CVD, and the association appeared to be independent of traditional risk  
73 factors, such as smoking, physical inactivity, and unhealthy diet(Batelaan, et al., 2016).  
74 Subgroup analyses showed that the elevated CVD risk associated with panic and general  
75 anxiety were 55% and 52%, respectively. Previous studies have found a consistent association

76 between anxiety and coronary heart disease (CHD)(Tully, et al., 2015, Roest, et al., 2010).  
77 However, the impact of different anxiety types on CHD has not been compared in a single  
78 study. Evidence on the association between two anxiety types and stroke is limited, with  
79 several studies reporting an increased risk(Lambiase, et al., 2014, Chou, et al., 2012), while  
80 others did not(Stewart, et al., 2016, Portegies, et al., 2016, Smoller, et al., 2007, Mathur, et al.,  
81 2016). Most of these studies failed to examine the impact of anxiety on specific stroke  
82 subtypes limited by few cases of stroke. Furthermore, there was little evidence based on  
83 China, where anxiety is a serious problem but has received less attention. Besides, anxiety  
84 could be reduced by exercise and increasing fitness(Lavie, et al., 2016). Thus, it's of great  
85 importance to estimate the association between anxiety and the risk of CVD among the  
86 Chinese.

87 In the China Kadoorie Biobank (CKB) cohort of 0.5 million adults, we prospectively  
88 examined the association of two types of anxiety symptoms (panic attack and continuous  
89 anxiety) with CVD and its various subtypes, including IHD, haemorrhagic stroke, and  
90 ischaemic stroke, and whether these associations were independent of traditional CVD risk  
91 factors. We further investigated the association between GAD status and CVD outcomes.

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## 93 **Methods**

### 94 **Study population**

95 The CKB cohort is an ongoing prospective population-based study established in 10  
96 geographically diverse localities (5 urban and 5 rural areas) across China. The study recruited

97 0.5million adults aged 30 to 79 years from 2004 to 2008. After registration, each participant  
98 completed an interviewer-administered electronic questionnaire, physical measurements, a  
99 collection of 10-ml non-fasting blood samples and written informed consent. Further details  
100 about the CKB study are available elsewhere(Chen, et al., 2011, Chen, et al., 2005). Our study  
101 obtained approval from the Ethics Review Committee of the Chinese Centre for Disease  
102 Control and Prevention (Beijing, China) and the Oxford Tropical Research Ethics Committee  
103 at the University of Oxford (United Kingdom).

104 In the present study, we excluded 25,517 participants who had the previous diagnosis of  
105 cancer (n=2,578), heart disease (n=15,472) or stroke (n=8,884) at baseline and who had  
106 missing data on body mass index (BMI) (n=2) or were recorded with an implausible  
107 censoring date (n=1). 487,209 participants remained for the final analyses.

#### 108 **Assessment of anxiety symptoms**

109 At baseline, participants were asked whether they had experienced the following two anxiety  
110 symptoms during the past 12 months: (1) Panic attack: having had a spell or an attack when  
111 all of sudden you felt frightened, anxious, or very uneasy accompanied by heart raced, blush  
112 or other symptoms (American Psychiatric Association, 2013); (2) Continuous anxiety: having  
113 a period lasting one month or longer when most of the time you felt worried, tense, or anxious  
114 and it interfered your life (Kessler, et al., 1998). If the answer was “yes” to continuous anxiety,  
115 participants were further assessed for generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) using the Chinese  
116 version of Composite International Diagnostic Interview-Short Form (CIDI-SF) by trained  
117 health workers in a face-to-face interview. The CIDI was a fully structured diagnostic

118 instrument developed by the World Health Organization for assessing mental disorders.  
119 Participants were defined as having past year GAD if they had a period of feeling worried,  
120 tense, or anxious that lasted at least six months with the following three conditions: (1) the  
121 anxious period was stronger than in other people, lasted more days, and involved worrying  
122 about more than one thing; (2) had difficulty to control over the worries; (3) had at least three  
123 physiological symptoms(Gigantesco and Morosini, 2008). In our study, panic attacks,  
124 continuous anxiety, and GAD showed good reliability among 923 participants who completed  
125 a repeated questionnaire survey within one year after baseline, with all agreements  $>0.97$ , and  
126 Prevalence and Bias Adjusted Kappa (PABAK)  $>0.95$ .

#### 127 **Assessment of covariates**

128 We collected sociodemographic characteristics, lifestyle factors, and medical history at the  
129 baseline interview. Sociodemographic characteristics included age, gender, level of education  
130 (no formal school, primary school, middle school, high school, college, university or higher)  
131 and marital status (married, widowed, divorced or separated, never married). Lifestyle factors  
132 included alcohol consumption (not weekly drinking, ex-regular drinking, not daily, daily  $<30$ ,  
133  $30-59$ , or  $\geq 60$ g/d), smoking status (never/occasional, former, current smoking 1-14, 15-24, or  
134  $\geq 25$  cigarettes/day), intake frequencies of red meat, fruits, and vegetables (daily, 4-6  
135 days/week, 1-3 days/week, monthly, rarely or never) and total physical activity (calculated as  
136 metabolic equivalent task hours per day [MET-h/day]). In addition, all participants were asked  
137 to report their family history of major chronic diseases and personal history of medical status.  
138 Trained staff measured body weight, height and blood pressure at baseline with calibrated

139 instruments. BMI was calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared.  
140 Prevalent hypertension was defined as measured systolic blood pressure  $\geq 140$  mmHg,  
141 diastolic blood pressure  $\geq 90$  mmHg, self-reported diagnosis of hypertension, or self-reported  
142 use of antihypertensive medication at baseline. Prevalent diabetes was defined as measured  
143 fasting blood glucose  $\geq 7.0$  mmol/L, measured random blood glucose  $\geq 11.0$  mmol/L, or  
144 self-reported diagnosis of diabetes.

#### 145 **Assessment of cardiovascular diseases**

146 The vital status of each participant since enrolment was followed up through linkage with  
147 local disease and death registries as well as national health insurance system, and information  
148 of those who failed to be linked was supplemented by active follow-up through local research  
149 staff (Chen, et al., 2011). Fatal and non-fatal events were documented according to the  
150 International Classification of Diseases (10th Revision) by trained coders who were blinded to  
151 baseline information. The primary outcomes of interest were incident CVD [I00-I99], IHD  
152 [I20-I25], haemorrhagic stroke [I61] and ischaemic stroke [I63], as well as incident major  
153 coronary events (MCE, including fatal IHD [I20-I25] and non-fatal myocardial infarction  
154 [I21-I23]). The secondary outcomes were mortality from CVD, IHD, haemorrhagic stroke and  
155 ischaemic stroke.

#### 156 **Statistical analysis**

157 Baseline characteristics of participants according to anxiety symptoms were described as  
158 means or proportions with adjustment for age, sex, and region as appropriate, by using  
159 multiple linear regression for continuous variables or logistic regression for categorical

160 variables.

161 Person-years at risk were calculated from the baseline date to the diagnosis of outcomes,  
162 death, loss to follow-up, or 31 December 2017, whichever came first. We used Cox  
163 proportional hazards models to calculate the hazard ratio (HR) and 95% confidence interval  
164 (CI), with joint stratification by study regions and age at baseline in 5-year intervals, using  
165 age as the underlying timescale. We examined the proportional hazards assumption by  
166 visually checking the Kaplan-Meier curves or testing it by Schoenfeld residuals. Multivariable  
167 models were adjusted for age, sex, education level, marital status, alcohol consumption,  
168 smoking status, physical activity, intake frequencies of red meat, fruits, and vegetables, BMI,  
169 prevalent hypertension and diabetes at baseline, and family history of heart attack and stroke.  
170 We estimated HRs for two anxiety symptoms (panic attacks and continuous anxiety) and  
171 CVDs based on the models above. The same analyses were conducted to GAD status in three  
172 categories (no, continuous anxiety, or GAD) by detaching participants with diagnosed GAD  
173 from those with continuous anxiety.

174 We further performed sensitivity analyses based on multivariable-adjusted models to examine  
175 the robustness of our results by additionally adjusting for heart rate or major depression; or  
176 excluding participants whose outcomes occurred during the first two years of follow-up. We  
177 also conducted analyses for short and long duration of follow-up by splitting the follow-up  
178 time at 6 years.

179 All statistical analyses were performed using Stata (version 13.1). All *P* values were  
180 two-sided, and statistical significance was defined as  $p < 0.05$ .

181 **Results**

182 Among the 487,209 participants, the mean age was  $51.5 \pm 10.5$  years, 40.9% were men, and  
183 56.9% were from rural areas. Overall, 7268 participants (1.49%) had panic attacks, 2800  
184 (0.57%) had continuous anxiety, and 624 (0.13%) had GAD during the past 12 months.  
185 Participants who had panic attacks or continuous anxiety were younger, more likely to be  
186 women, to live in rural areas and to be unmarried, had a lower level of education, and more  
187 likely to have prevalent diabetes at baseline. Those who had panic attacks were more likely to  
188 have prevalent hypertension, but the proportions of hypertension were similar between  
189 participants with and without continuous anxiety (Table 1).

190 During a median follow-up of 9.6 years (4.7 million person-years), we documented 140,365  
191 incident cases of CVD (including 45,633 IHD, 10,075 haemorrhagic stroke and 43,329  
192 ischaemic stroke), and 16,257 CVD deaths. Participants who ever had panic attacks during the  
193 past 12 months had significantly higher risks of incident CVDs, except MCE (Table 2). The  
194 multivariable-adjusted HRs (95% CI) were 1.08 (1.04-1.13) for CVD, 1.10 (1.02-1.19) for  
195 IHD, 1.20 (1.05-1.38) for haemorrhagic stroke, and 1.20 (1.11-1.30) for ischaemic stroke.  
196 Similar associations were observed for mortality from haemorrhagic stroke (HR 1.24, 95%CI  
197 1.04-1.48) and ischaemic stroke (HR 1.47, 95%CI 1.05-2.05). Nevertheless, HR for IHD  
198 mortality was found to be insignificant (eTable 1). Continuous anxiety was positively  
199 associated with incident CVD (HR 1.12, 95%CI 1.04-1.20), which was driven mainly by IHD  
200 (HR 1.21, 95%CI 1.07-1.37) and MCE (HR 1.32, 95%CI 1.00-1.74) (Table 2). Similar  
201 associations were observed for CVD and IHD mortality with adjustment for sex. However,

202 the HRs became insignificant after multivariate adjustment (eTable 1). The associations of  
203 continuous anxiety with the incidence of and mortality from haemorrhagic and ischaemic  
204 stroke were all found to be insignificant.

205 After further adjusting for major depression, the associations for panic attacks changed little,  
206 and the association between continuous anxiety and IHD remained significant, although HRs  
207 for continuous anxiety slightly reduced. The associations of panic attacks and continuous  
208 anxiety with CVDs hardly changed after adjusting for heart rate, or after excluding  
209 participants whose outcomes occurred during the first two years of follow-up (eTable 2, 3).  
210 Analyses for the short and long duration of follow-up showed that there was no statistically  
211 significant heterogeneity ( $P$  for heterogeneity  $>0.05$ ) (eTable 4).

212 We additionally examined the association between GAD status and CVDs. Compared to  
213 participants without continuous anxiety, those with GAD had an elevated but insignificant risk  
214 of IHD, MCE, haemorrhagic stroke and ischaemic stroke (Table 3). A similar trend was  
215 observed for mortality from CVDs (eTable 5). During follow-up time  $\leq 6$  years, GAD was  
216 associated with haemorrhagic stroke (HR 2.54, 95%CI 1.50-4.30), yet no significant  
217 association was observed for  $>6$  years ( $P$  for heterogeneity=0.021). GAD was also  
218 significantly associated with IHD (HR 1.59, 95%CI 1.08-2.36) for  $\leq 6$  years of follow-up,  
219 although there was no evidence for heterogeneity (eTable 6).

## 220 **Discussion**

221 In this large prospective Chinese cohort study, we found that panic attacks were positively  
222 associated with the incidence and mortality of haemorrhagic and ischaemic stroke, also

223 incident IHD. Continuous anxiety was positively associated with incident IHD and MCE, yet  
224 had no significant relationship with stroke. Diagnosed GAD had elevated risks of incident  
225 IHD and haemorrhagic stroke during follow-up time  $\leq 6$  years.

226 A most recent meta-analysis included 37 prospective studies, panic and general anxiety was  
227 associated with a 55% and a 52% increased risk of CVD, respectively, with a high degree of  
228 heterogeneity(Batelaan, et al., 2016). This meta-analysis pooled estimates of anxiety disorder  
229 and anxiety symptoms which were assessed by different scales, used atherosclerotic CVD as  
230 the outcome, and included only one study among Chinese people. In the present study, we  
231 observed significant but more moderate associations of panic attacks and continuous anxiety  
232 with total CVD. This discrepancy in the magnitude of effect size might result from difference  
233 in anxiety assessment, CVD assessment and sample characteristics. In another meta-analysis  
234 which included 20 prospective studies, anxiety was associated with a 26% increased risk of  
235 incident CHD(Roest, et al., 2010). Although previous meta-analyses with large sample sizes  
236 had great statistical efficacy, they failed to observe the effect of different anxiety types on  
237 each specific subtype of CVD. In our study, we observed a 9% increased risk of IHD for  
238 participants with panic attacks, and a 22% increased risk for those with continuous anxiety.  
239 Only one study about anxiety in relation to CHD was conducted in the Chinese population so  
240 far(Chen, et al., 2009). This study from Taiwan China included 33,696 participants and  
241 examined the association between panic disorder and acute myocardial infarction within only  
242 one year of follow-up (HR=1.75, 95%CI 1.55-1.97). The result may have a problem of  
243 reverse causality given the short duration of follow-up. Our results did not show a positive

244 association between panic attacks and MCE during approximately 10 years of follow-up.  
245 Previous evidence on anxiety and stroke was limited. The latest meta-analysis included only  
246 eight studies and found a 24% increased risk of stroke for participants with  
247 anxiety(Pérez-Piñar, et al., 2017). The meta-analysis included one study focused on panic  
248 from in Taiwan China. The study investigated the effect of panic disorder on stroke among  
249 390,309 adults and reported a 38% increased risk (HR=1.38, 95%CI 1.12-1.71)(Chou, et al.,  
250 2012). However, the study could not examine the association with specific stroke subtypes, as  
251 relatively few incident cases of stroke (n=88) were noted in patients with panic disorder. In  
252 our study, we documented 207 incident cases of haemorrhagic stroke and 570 of ischaemic  
253 stroke. Our results showed that panic attacks were associated with a 23% and a 19% increased  
254 risk of haemorrhagic stroke and ischaemic stroke. Several studies that examined the  
255 association between general anxiety symptoms and stroke found inconsistent  
256 results(Lambiase, et al., 2014, Stewart, et al., 2016, Portegies, et al., 2016).This discrepancy  
257 might partly be attributable to different tools used to assess general anxiety symptoms. In the  
258 present study, neither continuous anxiety nor GAD were associated with haemorrhagic stroke  
259 or ischaemic stroke during complete follow-up. However, GAD was significantly associated  
260 with haemorrhagic stroke during follow-up time  $\leq 6$  years. Two previous studies have reported  
261 an increased risk of stroke within the first 3 years of the detection of general anxiety, but  
262 found no significant risk for follow-up time more than 3 years(Stewart, et al., 2016, Portegies,  
263 et al., 2016), suggesting a possible short-term effect of general anxiety on stroke. However,  
264 we could not exclude the possibility of reverse causality, although we have excluded

265 participants with stroke at baseline before analyses.

266 Several potential mechanisms might help to explain the adverse association between anxiety  
267 and CVD. Anxiety can be directly associated with the evolution of atherosclerosis(Paterniti, et  
268 al., 2001). Anxiety may lead to excess activation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis  
269 and sympathetic nervous system, altered immune function(Wingo and Gibson, 2015), altered  
270 cardiovascular autonomic control such as reduced heart rate variability, and elevated  
271 cardiovascular reactivity to stress such as abnormality in ventricular repolarization, and thus  
272 may lower the threshold for ischemia(Thurston, et al., 2013). In addition, anxiety may  
273 indirectly affect CVD by driving other risk factors, such as depression, smoking, sedentary  
274 lifestyle, unhealthy diet, and metabolic abnormalities, which can contribute to the progression  
275 of CVD(Carroll, et al., 2009, Kachur, et al., 2016). However, the mechanism between GAD  
276 and haemorrhagic stroke is still unclear, since GAD was not associated with hypertension in  
277 our population.

278 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that detected the prospective association of  
279 anxiety with CVDs in mainland China. Various CVD outcomes and two types of anxiety were  
280 taken into account, and analyses have been carefully adjusted for multiple risk factors for  
281 CVD. However, some limitations still need to be acknowledged. First, our study has not  
282 assessed panic disorder at baseline and thus could not examine the effects of panic disorder on  
283 CVDs. However, we found panic attacks, which is a major symptom of panic disorders, had  
284 positive harmful effects on various CVD outcomes. We could assume that panic disorder,  
285 which is a more severe situation, may have a greater impact on CVDs. Given that

286 sub-threshold anxiety may also be at elevated CVD risk, only focusing on anxiety disorders  
287 may lose a potentially at-risk population. Second, even though we used the same questions  
288 from standized questionnaires to evaluate anxiety symptoms, these questions hadn't been  
289 validated in our population, which might lead to the possibility of misclassification. However,  
290 measurement errors may be non-differential in prospective study design, and the associations  
291 were more likely to be biased toward the null. The single item could not measure the degree  
292 and severity of symptoms, but might be more simple and feasible for screening in large-scale  
293 epidemiological studies. Third, even though we have carefully adjusted the potential  
294 confounders, residual confounding by unknown and unmeasured factors may still exist. For  
295 example, some psychotropic medication related to higher cardiovascular risk might influence  
296 the association(Hamer, et al., 2011). Since the use of psychotropic drugs was rare in the  
297 present population, the effect might not change substantially(Patel, et al., 2016). Fourth,  
298 reverse causality could be possible as well. Participants may develop anxiety symptoms under  
299 diseases or subclinical condition, which could make them more susceptible to CVD. We  
300 excluded participants with previous major chronic diseases at baseline before analyses, and  
301 our results were robust after exclusion of CVD cases occurred in the first 2 years of follow-up.  
302 Finally, a small number of participants with GAD were recruited at baseline, thus we should  
303 be cautious when generalizing the results to other population.

### 304 **Conclusions**

305 Our study found panic attacks and continuous anxiety increased the risk of CVD independent  
306 of traditional risk factors among Chinese adults, and two anxiety types showed different

307 patterns in relation to subtypes of CVD. The present study yields new information on Chinese  
308 adults that those with anxiety symptoms might be an important at-risk population of CVD.  
309 The mechanisms of the different associations of two anxiety types with stroke still need  
310 further exploration.

311

### 312 **Supplementary**

313 The eTable 1~5 and the members of the China Kadoorie Biobank collaborative group could  
314 be found online.

315

### 316 **Ethics approval statement**

317 The CKB cohort was approved by both the Ethical Review Committee of the Oxford Tropical  
318 Research Ethics Committee, University of Oxford (UK) and the Chinese Center for Disease  
319 Control and Prevention (Beijing, China) at the foundation of the project (2004-2008). At that  
320 time, the PI in China (professor Liming Li) was working at CDC China, but now he is a  
321 professor at Peking University. And the subsequent study of CKB also got approval from IRB  
322 at Peking University.

323

### 324 **Patient consent approval**

325 All participants provided informed consent.

326

### 327 **Data availability statement**

328 Requests for data should be submitted to the China Kadoorie Biobank (CKB) Data Access

329 Committee. As stated in the CKB data policy, the CKB Study Group (as data custodian) must  
330 maintain the integrity of the database for future use and regulate data access to comply with  
331 previous conditions agreed with the Chinese Government. Data security is an integral part of  
332 CKB Study protocols. Details of how to access China Kadoorie Biobank data and details of  
333 the data release schedule are available from [www.ckbiobank.org/site/Data+Access](http://www.ckbiobank.org/site/Data+Access).

334

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342 decision to publish.

343

### 344 **Declaration of competing interest**

345 The authors declare no conflicts of interests.

346

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351

### 352 **Authorship contribution statement**

353 Man Wu prepared the manuscript, Man Wu and Yunqing Zhu performed data analysis and  
354 interpretation. Yu Guo, Ling Yang, Yiping Chen, Wei Tang, Shengping Xiang and Xiaohui  
355 Sun conducted the field investigation and data collection. Canqing Yu and Jun Lv developed  
356 the idea for the study and results interpretation. Junshi Chen, Zhengming Chen and Liming Li  
357 conceived the CKB project. All authors critiqued and approved the final version of the  
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451

452 **Table 1. Baseline characteristics of 487,209 participants by symptoms of anxiety.**

Characteristics	Panic attacks			Continuous anxiety		
	No	Yes	<i>P</i>	No	Yes	<i>P</i>
No. of participants	479,941	7,268		484,409	2,800	
Age (years)	51.6	50.4	<0.001	51.6	49.2	<0.001
Female (%)	58.9	72.8	<0.001	59.0	70.8	<0.001
Rural area (%)	56.6	74.8	<0.001	56.8	69.3	<0.001
Married (%)	90.9	88.9	<0.001	90.9	82.6	<0.001
Middle school and higher (%)	49.2	47.0	<0.001	49.2	45.5	<0.001
Current daily smoker (%)	29.4	29.6	0.536	29.3	30.5	0.079
Male	67.9	67.2	0.554	67.9	68.4	0.734
Female	2.7	3.4	<0.001	2.7	3.9	<0.001
Current daily drinker (%)	9.2	8.3	0.027	9.2	8.5	0.265
Male	21.1	18.4	0.007	21.1	18.7	0.085
Female	0.9	1.0	0.405	0.9	1.2	0.216
Physical activity (MET h/day)	21.6	21.2	0.005	21.6	21.7	0.398
Average weekly consumption (day)						
Red meat	3.7	3.7	0.123	3.7	3.4	<0.001
Fresh vegetables	6.8	6.2	<0.001	6.8	6.8	<0.001
Fresh fruits	2.6	2.3	<0.001	2.6	2.4	<0.001
Body mass index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	23.6	23.6	0.478	23.6	23.4	<0.001
Diabetes (%)	5.4	6.3	0.002	5.4	7.5	<0.001
Hypertension (%)	33.7	38.5	<0.001	33.7	33.4	0.734
Family history of heart attack (%)	3.1	4.1	<0.001	3.1	5.5	<0.001
Family history of stroke (%)	17.6	20.8	<0.001	17.6	21.5	<0.001

453 \* Values according to anxiety symptoms were either mean or proportion with adjustment for age, sex and  
454 region, except for these 3 variables.

455

456 **Table 2. Association of anxiety symptoms with the risk of CVD among 487,209**  
 457 **participants.**

Endpoints	Panic attacks		Continuous anxiety	
	No	Yes	No	Yes
<b>CVD</b>				
No. of cases	138,275	2,090	139,573	792
Cases/person-years (1/1000)	30.18	28.51	30.17	27.19
Model 1	1.00	1.13 (1.08-1.18)	1.00	1.14 (1.06-1.22)
Model 2	1.00	1.12 (1.07-1.17)	1.00	1.13 (1.05-1.21)
Model 3	1.00	1.08 (1.04-1.13)	1.00	1.12 (1.04-1.20)
<b>IHD</b>				
No. of cases	44,971	662	45,370	263
Cases/person-years (1/1000)	8.92	8.36	8.92	8.37
Model 1	1.00	1.14 (1.06-1.24)	1.00	1.23 (1.09-1.39)
Model 2	1.00	1.13 (1.04-1.22)	1.00	1.22 (1.08-1.38)
Model 3	1.00	1.10 (1.02-1.19)	1.00	1.21 (1.07-1.37)
<b>MCE</b>				
No. of cases	8,989	141	9,079	51
Cases/person-years (1/1000)	1.73	1.73	1.73	1.57
Model 1	1.00	1.20 (1.02-1.42)	1.00	1.42 (1.07-1.87)
Model 2	1.00	1.15 (0.97-1.36)	1.00	1.35 (1.03-1.78)
Model 3	1.00	1.09 (0.92-1.30)	1.00	1.32 (1.00-1.74)
<b>Haemorrhagic stroke</b>				
No. of cases	9,846	229	10,007	68
Cases/person-years (1/1000)	1.89	2.81	1.91	2.10
Model 1	1.00	1.32 (1.15-1.50)	1.00	1.28 (1.01-1.62)
Model 2	1.00	1.30 (1.13-1.49)	1.00	1.22 (0.96-1.54)
Model 3	1.00	1.20 (1.05-1.38)	1.00	1.20 (0.94-1.52)
<b>Ischaemic stroke</b>				
No. of cases	42,653	676	43,091	238
Cases/person-years (1/1000)	8.45	8.50	8.45	7.53
Model 1	1.00	1.24 (1.15-1.34)	1.00	1.12 (0.99-1.27)
Model 2	1.00	1.24 (1.15-1.34)	1.00	1.11 (0.97-1.26)
Model 3	1.00	1.20 (1.11-1.30)	1.00	1.09 (0.96-1.24)

458 \* Cox proportional hazards models were stratified by study regions and age at baseline in 5-year intervals.  
 459 Multivariate models were adjusted for: model 1: sex; model 2: additionally included level of education, marital  
 460 status, alcohol consumption, smoking status, intake frequencies of red meat, fruits, and vegetables and physical  
 461 activity; model 3: additionally included BMI, prevalent hypertension at baseline, prevalent diabetes at baseline,  
 462 family history of heart attack, family history of stroke.

**Table 3. Association of GAD with the risk of CVD among 487,209 participants.**

<b>Endpoints</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Continuous anxiety</b>	<b>GAD</b>
<b>CVD</b>			
No. of cases	139,573	611	181
Cases/person-years (1/1000)	30.17	26.92	28.12
Model 1	1.00	1.14 (1.05-1.23)	1.15 (1.00-1.33)
Model 2	1.00	1.13 (1.04-1.22)	1.14 (0.99-1.32)
Model 3	1.00	1.11 (1.03-1.20)	1.14 (0.99-1.32)
<b>IHD</b>			
No. of cases	45,370	207	56
Cases/person-years (1/1000)	8.92	8.45	8.10
Model 1	1.00	1.25 (1.09-1.43)	1.16 (0.89-1.50)
Model 2	1.00	1.24 (1.08-1.42)	1.15 (0.89-1.50)
Model 3	1.00	1.23 (1.07-1.41)	1.15 (0.89-1.50)
<b>MCE</b>			
No. of cases	9,079	39	12
Cases/person-years (1/1000)	1.73	1.54	1.67
Model 1	1.00	1.41 (1.03-1.94)	1.43 (0.81-2.51)
Model 2	1.00	1.36 (0.99-1.87)	1.32 (0.75-2.32)
Model 3	1.00	1.32 (0.97-1.81)	1.32 (0.75-2.32)
<b>Haemorrhagic stroke</b>			
No. of cases	10,007	48	20
Cases/person-years (1/1000)	1.91	1.90	2.81
Model 1	1.00	1.18 (0.89-1.57)	1.61 (1.04-2.49)
Model 2	1.00	1.13 (0.85-1.50)	1.49 (0.96-2.32)
Model 3	1.00	1.10 (0.83-1.46)	1.53 (0.98-2.37)
<b>Ischaemic stroke</b>			
No. of cases	43,091	184	54
Cases/person-years (1/1000)	8.45	7.47	7.73
Model 1	1.00	1.11 (0.96-1.29)	1.15 (0.88-1.50)
Model 2	1.00	1.10 (0.95-1.28)	1.12 (0.86-1.47)
Model 3	1.00	1.08 (0.93-1.25)	1.14 (0.87-1.49)

\* Continuous anxiety in this table referred to participants who had continuous anxiety but did not meet the criteria for GAD. Cox proportional hazards models were stratified by study regions and age at baseline in 5-year intervals. Multivariate models were adjusted for: model 1: sex; model 2: additionally included level of education, marital status, alcohol consumption, smoking status, intake frequencies of red meat, fruits, and vegetables and physical activity; model 3: additionally included BMI, prevalent hypertension at baseline, prevalent diabetes at baseline, family history of heart attack, family history of stroke.