Social isolation and loneliness as risk factors for myocardial infarction, stroke, and mortality: UK Biobank cohort study of $\mathbf{4 7 9 , 0 5 4}$ men and women

Christian Hakulinen, $\mathrm{Phd}^{1,2}$; Laura Pulkki-Råback, $\mathrm{PhD}^{1}$; Marianna Virtanen, $\mathrm{PhD}^{3,4}$; Markus Jokela, $\mathrm{PhD}^{1}$; Mika Kivimäki, $\mathrm{PhD}^{5,6}$; and Marko Elovainio, $\mathrm{PhD}^{1,2}$
${ }^{1}$ Department of Psychology and Logopedics, Faculty of Medicine, University of Helsinki, Finland ${ }^{2}$ National Institute for Health and Welfare, Finland
${ }^{3}$ Finnish Institute of Occupational Health, Helsinki, Finland
${ }^{4}$ Department of Public Health and Caring Sciences, University of Uppsala, Sweden
${ }^{5}$ Department of Epidemiology and Public Health, University College London, London, UK ${ }^{6}$ Clinicum, Faculty of Medicine, University of Helsinki, Finland

Corresponding author: Christian Hakulinen, University of Helsinki, P.O. Box 21, 00014, Helsinki, Finland. Tel: +358 504482041 Email: christian.hakulinen@ helsinki.fi

Word count: 3380 words in main text; 1 table; 3 figures; online supplementary material


#### Abstract

Objective: To examine whether social isolation and loneliness (1) predict acute myocardial infarction (AMI) and stroke among those with no history of AMI or stroke, (2) are related to mortality risk among those with a history of AMI or stroke, and (3) the extent to which these associations are explained by known risk factors or pre-existing chronic conditions.

Methods: Participants were 479054 individuals from the UK Biobank. The exposures were selfreported social isolation and loneliness. AMI, stroke, and mortality were the outcomes.

Results: Over 7.1 years, 5731 had first AMI, and 3471 had first stroke. In model adjusted for demographics, social isolation was associated with higher risk of AMI (Hazard Ratio [HR]=1.43; 95\% Confidence Interval $[\mathrm{CI}]=1.32-1.55)$ and stroke ( $\mathrm{HR}=1.39$; 95\% CI=1.25-1.54). When adjusted for all the other risk factors, the hazard ratio for AMI was attenuated by $84 \%$ to 1.07 ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}=0.99$ 1.16) and the hazard ratio for stroke was attenuated by $83 \%$ to 1.06 ( $95 \%$ CI $0.96-1.19$ ). Loneliness was associated with higher risk of AMI before $(\mathrm{HR}=1.49 ; 95 \% \mathrm{CI}=1.36-1.64)$ but attenuated considerably with adjustments ( $\mathrm{HR}=1.06,95 \% \mathrm{CI}=0.96-1.17$ ). This was also the case for stroke ( $\mathrm{HR}=1.36 ; 95 \% \mathrm{CI}=1.20-1.55$ before and $\mathrm{HR}=1.04,95 \% \mathrm{CI} 0.91-1.19$ after adjustments). Social isolation, but not loneliness, was associated with increased mortality in participants with a history of AMI (HR=1.25, $95 \%$ CI 1.03-1.51) or stroke (HR=1.32, $95 \%$ CI 1.08-1.61) in the fully adjusted model.

Conclusions: There is an excess risk of AMI, stroke and death after the event among isolated and lonely persons.


Keywords: Cardiac risk factors and prevention; Epidemiology; Stroke

## Key Points

What is already known about this subject? Social isolation and loneliness have been associated with higher risk of cardiovascular disease and poorer prognosis, but it remains unclear whether these associations are independent of conventional risk factors.

What does this study add? In this population-based cohort study of over 470000 participants, most of the excess risk of cardiovascular disease and death after the cardiovascular event among isolated and lonely persons was explained by conventional risk factors.

How might this impact on clinical practice? Targeting conventional risk factors could reduce cardiovascular disease burden among isolated and lonely individuals.

## Introduction

Individuals who are socially isolated (ie., are lacking social contacts and participation in social activities) or feel lonely (ie., feel that they have too few social contacts or are not satisfied with the quality of their social contacts) have been found to be at increased risk of incident coronary heart disease (CHD) ${ }^{1}$, stroke ${ }^{2}$, and early mortality ${ }^{3-7}$. A recent meta-analysis - including 11 longitudinal studies on cardiovascular disease and 8 on stroke - suggested that social isolation and loneliness are associated with $30 \%$ excess risk of incident CHD and stroke ${ }^{8}$. However, most of the studies were small in scale, with only one study reporting more than 1000 events $^{1}$, and meta-analytic evidence suggests selective publishing of positive findings ${ }^{8}$. Furthermore, only a limited set of potential explanatory factors have been examined in previous studies and mortality after incident CHD or stroke remains unexplored. Thus, it remains unclear whether these associations are independent of biological, behavioral, psychological, health and socioeconomic factors ${ }^{9-11}$ that are known to increase risk of cardiovascular diseases ${ }^{12,13}$. In addition, although other risk factors, such as physical inactivity ${ }^{14}$ and depression, ${ }^{15}$ have been associated with poorer outcomes among individuals with pre-existing cardiovascular disease, it remains unclear whether socially isolated or lonely individuals have an elevated risk of early mortality after cardiovascular disease event.

In this analysis using UK Biobank Study, a very large prospective population-based cohort study, we examined the associations of social isolation and loneliness with first acute myocardial infarction (AMI) and first stroke. In addition, we examined whether social isolation and loneliness before AMI or stroke event are associated with mortality risk after the event. A broad range of biological, behavioral, psychological, socioeconomic and mental health-related factors were included as potential mediators or confounders of these associations.

## Methods

## Study design

In total 502632 participants (aged 40-69 years) where recruited to UK Biobank Study between April 2007 and December 2010 from the general population (5.5\% response rate). Participants completed touch-screen questionnaire, had physical measurements taken and biological samples collected by trained data nurses in one of the 22 assessment centers across England, Wales and Scotland. Details of these have been reported elsewhere ${ }^{16,17}$. In the current study, social isolation and loneliness were used as exposures and AMI, stroke, and mortality after AMI or stroke events as outcomes. The present study sample was restricted to the 479,054 participants who had complete data on either social isolation or loneliness, and AMI and stroke. 18,704 participants were excluded due to history of AMI or stroke before the baseline.

## Procedures

Date of death was obtained from death certificates held by the National Health Service (NHS) Information Centre (England and Wales) and the NHS Central Register Scotland (Scotland). Hospital admissions were identified via record linkage to Hospital Admitted Patient Care Activity (England), General / Acute Inpatient and Day Case dataset (Scotland), and Patient Episode Database for Wales. AMI and stroke events were recorded from the death register and hospital admission using the following ICD 10 codes: AMI: I21.X, I22.X, I23.X, I24.1, and I25.2; stroke: I60, I61, I63, and I64.

Age was calculated based on birth month and year. Ethnicity was defined as Caucasian vs. other based on self-reported ethnicity. Educational attainment was categorized into three groups (no secondary education, secondary education and university degree), and annual household income was measured with a five-point scale (less than 31,000 pounds; $£ 18,000$ to $£ 29,999 ; £ 30,000$ to $£ 51,999$; $£ 52,000$ to $£ 100,000$; and greater than $£ 100,000$ ). Area-based socioeconomic status was derived from postcode of residence using the Townsend deprivation index score ${ }^{18}$.

Social isolation and loneliness were assessed with scales that were used in a previous UK Biobank study. The social isolation scale contained three questions (1. "Including yourself, how many people are living together in your household?"; 2. "How often do you visit friends or family or have them visit you?"; and 3. "Which of the following [leisure/social activities] do you engage in once a week or more often? You may select more than one"), where certain answers were given one point (1 point for no participation in social activities at least weekly; 1 point for living alone; 1 point for friends and family visits less than once a month), and all other answers 0 point. This resulted in a scale ranging from 0 to 3 where person was defined as socially isolated if she/he had two or more points. Loneliness was measured with two questions: "Do you often feel lonely?" (no = 0, yes=1) and "How often are you able to confide in someone close to you?" ( $0=$ almost daily - once every few months $1=$ never or almost never). An individual was defined as lonely if she/he answered positively to both questions (score 2). Similar questions are used in other social isolation and loneliness scales (e.g., Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale ${ }^{19}$ ).

Height and weight were measured at the clinic, and the body mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight/height (m) ${ }^{2}$. Grip strength was measured using Jamar (model J00105) hydraulic hand dynamometer and the mean of the right and left-hand values was calculated and used in the analyses. Cigarette smoking (current smoker [yes/no]; ex-smoker [yes/no]), physical activity (moderate and vigorous), and alcohol-intake frequency (three or four times a week or more vs. once or twice a week or less) were self-reported. Depressive symptoms were assessed with the following four questions from the Patient Health Questionnaire ${ }^{20}$ : the frequency of (1) depressed mood, (2) disinterest or absence of enthusiasm, (3) tenseness or restlessness, and (4) tiredness or lethargy in the previous 2 weeks. Current chronic diseases (diabetes, cardiovascular disease, cancer, and other longstanding illness, disability or infirmity) was categorized into yes vs. no. Further details of these measures can be found in the UK Biobank online protocol: http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/

## Statistical analyses

Descriptive statistics are presented as mean (SD of the mean) or number (percentage) for continuous and categorical variables, respectively. Associations between social isolation and loneliness with incident AMI, stroke, and mortality after AMI or stroke were examined using Cox proportional hazard models where age was used as the timescale ${ }^{21}$, and birth month and year as time origin. The proportional hazards assumption was graphically investigated using log-log plots and Schoenfeld residual plots, and no major violations were observed. AMI, stroke, and mortality after AMI or stroke were examined as separate outcomes. Age, sex and ethnicity were used as covariates in all models. Subgroup analyses were conducted separately for men and women, three age groups (37-52 years; 53-60 years; 61-73 years), and ethnic groups (white vs non-white) as these can be seen as potential confounders.

To examine the extent to which baseline biological, behavioral, socioeconomic, psychological and health related risk factors explained the associations, percentage of excess risk mediated (PERM) was calculated for the following mechanisms: 1) biological (BMI, diastolic and systolic blood pressure, grip strength); 2) behavioral (alcohol consumption, physical activity and smoking); 3) socioeconomic (education, household income and Townsend deprivation index) and 4) mental health (depressive symptoms); and 5) history of chronic illness. PERM was calculated using the following formula ${ }^{22}$ :

> PERM $=[$ Hazard ratio (age, sex, and ethnicity adjusted) - hazard ratio (age, sex, ethnicity and risk factor adjusted) $] /\left[\right.$ Hazard ratio $\left.{ }_{(\text {age, sex, and ethnicity adjusted) })}-1\right] \times 100$.

Missing data was imputed with multiple imputation procedure using the chained equations method ${ }^{23}$. In total, five imputed datasets were generated and results were combined using Rubin's rules. Imputation model included basic demographics (age, sex, and ethnicity), predictors
(social isolation and loneliness), all mediating variables, the Nelson-Aalen estimate of cumulative hazard, and AMI and stroke status. All statistical analyses were conducted using Stata, version 13.1.

## Ethical approval

The UK Biobank study was approved by the NHS National Research Ethics Service (17th June 2011, Ref 11/NW/0382) and all participants provided electronic consent for the baseline assessments and the register linkage. The study protocol is available online: http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/.

## Results

Descriptive statistics are shown in Table 1 (for descriptive statistics according to social isolation and loneliness status, please see eTable1 and eTable2; for complete and imputed variable frequencies, please see eTable3). $9 \%$ of the individuals were socially isolated, $6 \%$ lonely, and $1 \%$ isolated and lonely. From the socially isolated individuals, $16 \%$ were lonely, and from the individuals who were lonely, $23 \%$ were socially isolated. Socially isolated and lonely individuals had higher prevalence of chronic diseases and current smoking. In addition, lonely individuals reported more depressive symptoms than non-lonely individuals. The mean follow-up was 7.1 years (range 5.4 to 10.0 years). Over the follow-up period, a total of 12,428 participants died, 5,731 had AMI, and 3,471 had stroke. Of the 5,731 participants who had AMI, 900 died (16\%) during follow-up, and of the 3,471 participants who had incident stroke, 844 ( $24 \%$ died) over the follow-up.

The associations of social isolation with incident AMI and stroke are shown in Figure 1. In analyses adjusted for age, sex and ethnicity, social isolation was associated with higher risk of AMI (Hazard Ratio $[\mathrm{HR}]=1.43 ; 95 \%$ Confidence Interval $[\mathrm{CI}]=1.32-1.55 ; \mathrm{p}<.001$ ). This association was attenuated by $14 \%$ after adjustment for biological factors, by $50 \%$ after adjustment for health behaviors, by $28 \%$ after adjustment for depressive symptoms, by $48 \%$ after adjustment for socioeconomic factors, and by $16 \%$ after adjustment for chronic diseases. In the final model adjusted
for all risk factors, the association was attenuated by $84 \%$ to 1.07 ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}=0.99-1.16$ ), and did not remain statistically significant $(\mathrm{p}=.109)$.

Social isolation was also associated with higher risk of incident stroke (HR=1.39; 95\% $\mathrm{CI}=1.25-1.54 ; \mathrm{p}<.001$ ) in the analyses adjusted for age, sex and ethnicity. The association attenuated by $14 \%$ after adjustment for biological factors, by $38 \%$ after adjustment for health behaviors, by $23 \%$ after adjustment for depressive symptoms, by $55 \%$ after adjustment for socioeconomic factors, and by $15 \%$ after adjustment for chronic diseases. When adjusted for all risk factors, the association was attenuated by $83 \%$ to 1.06 ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}=0.96-1.19$ ), and was not statistically significant ( $\mathrm{p}=.256$ ).

The associations between loneliness with incident AMI and stroke are shown in Figure
2. In analyses adjusted for age, sex and ethnicity, social isolation was associated with higher risk of AMI (HR=1.49; 95\% CI=1.36-1.64; p<.001). This association decreased by $16 \%$ after adjustment for biological factors, by $35 \%$ after adjustment for health behaviors, by $62 \%$ after adjustment for depressive symptoms, by $39 \%$ after adjustment for socioeconomic factors, and by $20 \%$ after adjustment for chronic disease. In the final model adjusted for all risk factors, the association did not remain statistically significant $(\mathrm{p}=.235)$ and was attenuated by $87 \%$ to 1.06 ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}=0.96-1.17$ ).

Loneliness was associated with higher risk of incident stroke (HR=1.36; 95\% CI=1.20$1.55 ; \mathrm{p}<.001$ ), in the analyses adjusted for sex, age and ethnicity. The association attenuated by $16 \%$ after adjustment biological factors, by $29 \%$ after adjustment for health behaviors, by $60 \%$ after adjustment for depressive symptoms, by $45 \%$ after adjustment for socioeconomic factors, and by $21 \%$ after adjustment for chronic diseases. In the final model, adjusted for all risk factors, the association was attenuated by $89 \%$ to 1.05 ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}=0.92-1.21$ ), and did not remain statistically significant ( $\mathrm{p}=.577$ ).

When loneliness, social isolation and the interaction between social isolation and loneliness were entered in the same model, social isolation and loneliness were associated with higher risk of AMI (social isolation: $\mathrm{HR}=1.36 ; 95 \% \mathrm{CI}=1.25-1.49 ;$; $<.001$; loneliness: $\mathrm{HR}=1.42$;
$95 \% \mathrm{CI}=1.27-1.59 ; \mathrm{p}<.001$ ) and incident stroke (social isolation: $\mathrm{HR}=1.37 ; 95 \% \mathrm{CI}=1.22-1.54$; $\mathrm{p}<.001$; loneliness: $\mathrm{HR}=1.35 ; 95 \% \mathrm{CI}=1.17-1.56$; $\mathrm{p}<.001$ ), in the analyses additionally adjusted for sex, age and ethnicity. The interaction terms between social isolation and loneliness were not statistically significant (all p-values > .05).

Figure 3 shows the associations between social isolation with mortality among participants who had incident AMI or stroke. Social isolation was associated with higher risk of mortality after AMI ( $\mathrm{HR}=1.50 ; 95 \% \mathrm{CI}=1.25-1.79 ; \mathrm{p}<.001$ ) in the analyses adjusted for age, sex and ethnicity. This association decreased by $13 \%$ after adjustment for biological factors, by $24 \%$ after adjustment for health behaviors, by $8 \%$ after adjustment for depressive symptoms, by $33 \%$ after adjustment for socioeconomic factors, and by $9 \%$ after adjustment for chronic disease. In the final model adjusted for all risk factors, the association was attenuated by $50 \%$ to 1.25 ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}=1.03-$ 1.51 ), but remained statistically significant ( $\mathrm{p}=.023$ ).

Similarly, in the analyses adjusted for age, sex and ethnicity, social isolation was associated with higher risk of mortality after stroke ( $\mathrm{HR}=1.51 ; 95 \% \mathrm{CI}=1.25-1.83 ; \mathrm{p}<.001$ ). This association decreased by $5 \%$ after adjustment for biological factors, by $24 \%$ after adjustment for health behaviors, by $7 \%$ after adjustment for depressive symptoms, by $26 \%$ after adjustment for socioeconomic factors, and by $7 \%$ after adjustment for chronic disease. Finally, the association attenuated by $38 \%$ to 1.32 ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}=1.08-1.61$ ), but remained statistically significant ( $\mathrm{p}=.007$ ), in the final model adjusted for all risk factors. Loneliness, in turn, was not associated with mortality among participants who had incident AMI or stroke (eFigure 1 in the online supplement).

## Sensitivity analyses

We performed a number of sensitivity analyses to examine the robustness of the findings. First, we examined the associations between social isolation and loneliness with AMI and stroke across potential confounders, ie., three age groups, sex and ethnicity. The results were consistent across
three age groups and two ethnic groups, but the associations of social isolation and loneliness with AMI were slightly stronger in women than men (eFigures 2-3). Similarly, the association between social isolation and stroke was slightly stronger in women (eFigure 3). Second, we performed complete case analyses where participants with missing values were excluded (322 818 participants had complete data on social isolation and all covariates; 315231 participants had complete data on loneliness and all covariates). The results from the complete case analyses were similar to the previously reported (eFigures 4-5). Last, we analyzed the associations between a single item of loneliness ("Do you feel lonely?) with AMI and stroke. These associations were completely overlapping with the results from between loneliness with AMI and stroke (eFigure 6).

## Discussion

The main finding of this UK Biobank study of 479054 participants followed for over 7 years is that persons reporting social isolation and loneliness had 1.4 to 1.5 -fold increased risk of incident AMI or stroke. However, approximately $85 \%$ of this excess risk was attributable to known risk factors such as obesity, smoking, low education, and pre-existing chronic illness. In addition, social isolation, but not loneliness, was associated with 1.5 -fold increased risk of mortality after the AMI or stroke event and although up to half of this this excess risk was attributable to known risk factors, social isolation remained as an independent risk factor for mortality after the AMI and stroke event.

Our findings are in agreement with the previous studies where social isolation and loneliness have been associated with increased all-cause and cardiovascular disease mortality ${ }^{3-7}$, and cardiovascular disease prognosis and incidence ${ }^{24}$. Recent literature based meta-analysis with 16 longitudinal studies showed that social isolation and loneliness are associated with $30 \%$ higher excess risk of stroke and cardiovascular heart disease after adjustment at least for age, gender and socioeconomic status ${ }^{8}$. Although these findings are of the same magnitude as ours before adjustment for risk factors and pre-existing chronic conditions, we were able to address the contribution of
conventional risk factors to the association and we found that the associations were to a large extent attributable to these conventional risk factors. To best of our knowledge, our study is the largest study on the topic. Differences between our findings and previous results could be related to study design or to selective publishing of positive results, which was suggested in the recent literature based meta-analysis ${ }^{8}$. In addition, it is possible that some of these adjustments lead to a underestimation of the true effect size, as social isolation and loneliness have been associated with many of these risk factors - such as depression ${ }^{25}$ - and, thus, some of the mediators could also be confounders.

In our previous UK Biobank study with all-cause and cause-specific mortality as an outcome, we found similarly that the association between loneliness and cardiovascular mortality was fully explained by explanatory mechanisms, whereas the association between social isolation and allcause mortality remained more independent ${ }^{7}$. Thus, it seems that the association between social isolation and prognosis after a cardiovascular event is stronger than the association between loneliness and cardiovascular health. These findings indicate that social isolation, similarly to other risk factors such as depression ${ }^{15}$, can be regarded as a risk factor for poor prognosis of individuals with cardiovascular disease.

Social isolation and loneliness can be seen as markers for many conventional risk factors - such as unhealthy lifestyles, poor mental health and socioeconomic adversity - and these risk factors also explain the association of social isolation and loneliness with cardiovascular morbidity. Thus, public health policies addressing conventional risk factors might also reduce the cardiovascular morbidity related to social isolation and loneliness. Further attention to social connections in public health prevention and intervention programs could also potentially reduce the negative health outcomes of social isolation and loneliness. Importantly, guidance on how to address health risks associated with social isolation and loneliness could be added to the education of healthcare professionals, ${ }^{26}$ to promote prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease in
individuals with poor social connections.

## Strengths and limitations

The UK Biobank is a large scale prospective cohort study that provided a unique opportunity to examine our research question. Main outcomes (AMI, stroke, and mortality) were acquired from health registers, and exposures (social isolation and loneliness) were self-reported. Social isolation was measured with three items and loneliness with two items. As it has been shown that multi-item assessment of social isolation has better predictive validity than single item measures ${ }^{4}$, multi-item assessment of social isolation and loneliness would have been a better option. Unfortunately, more items related to social isolation or loneliness were not available from the UK Biobank data. Although the response rate to UK Biobank was only $5.5 \%$, the participants are representative of the general population with respect to age, sex, ethnicity, and deprivation within the recruitment age range ${ }^{27}$. If the drop out is non-random and related to social isolation or loneliness, this could bias the results leading either over- or underestimates of the studied associations. These issues, however, do not affect generalisability of our results as population prevalence and incidence rates were not the target of our study. Reverse causality - which previous studies have demonstrated ${ }^{28}$ - could bias our findings. However, participants with cardiovascular disease or stroke events before the study baseline were excluded from the analysis. As only the date of the first cardiovascular disease or stroke event is currently available from the UK Biobank data, we were not able to examine the association between social isolation and loneliness with recurrent cardiovascular disease stroke or events. This issue is likely to important, as around one-fourth of strokes are recurrent ${ }^{12}$, and social isolation before stroke has been shown to predict poorer outcomes after stroke ${ }^{29}$. However, our results showed that social isolation is associated with increased risk of mortality after AMI or stroke event, indicating that social isolation is associated with poorer prognosis after AMI or stroke. Although we measured only social networks in a very simple way, studies using more complex
measures have reported similar findings ${ }^{2}$. Naturally, there is a possibility of residual confounding that cannot be completely ruled out in an observational study. UK Biobank included participants aged between 40 and 69 , hence current findings may not be generalized beyond this age range.

## Conclusions

Social isolation and loneliness are associated with increased risk of AMI and stroke. In addition, social isolation is related to elevated mortality after the incidence of AMI or stroke. However, although these associations are largely explained by other cardiovascular health risk factors and preexisting chronic conditions, social isolation seems to remain as an independent risk factor for mortality after the AMI and stroke event.

## Acknowledgements

Funding: This work was supported by the Academy of Finland (310591 to C.H., 311492 to M.K., 258598 and 292824 to M.V.); NordForsk (M.K.); and Helsinki Institute of Life Science fellowship (M.K.).

Conflict of interest: none declared

Data source: The present study has been conducted using the UK Biobank Resource (Application Number 14801).

Statement: The Corresponding Author has the right to grant on behalf of all authors and does grant on behalf of all authors, an exclusive licence (or non exclusive for government employees) on a worldwide basis to the BMJ Publishing Group Ltd and its Licensees to permit this article (if accepted) to be published in HEART editions and any other BMJPGL products to exploit all subsidiary rights.

## References

1. Eng PM, Rimm EB, Fitzmaurice G, Kawachi I. Social ties and change in social ties in relation to subsequent total and cause-specific mortality and coronary heart disease incidence in men. Am J Epidemiol. 2002;155(8):700-709. doi:10.1093/aje/155.8.700.
2. Nagayoshi M, Everson-Rose SA, Iso H, Mosley THJ, Rose KM, Lutsey PL. Social network, social support, and risk of incident stroke: Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities study. Stroke. 2014;45(10):2868-2873. doi:10.1161/STROKEAHA.114.005815.
3. Steptoe A, Shankar A, Demakakos P, Wardle J. Social isolation, loneliness, and all-cause mortality in older men and women. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2013;110(15):5797-5801. doi:10.1073/pnas. 1219686110.
4. Holt-Lunstad J, Smith TB, Baker M, Harris T, Stephenson D. Loneliness and Social Isolation as Risk Factors for Mortality: A Meta-Analytic Review. Perspect Psychol Sci. 2015;10:227237. doi:10.1177/1745691614568352.
5. Holt-Lunstad J, Smith TB, Layton JB. Social relationships and mortality risk: a meta-analytic review. PLoS Med. 2010;7(7):e1000316. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1000316.
6. Berkman LF, Syme SL. Social networks, host resistance, and mortality: a nine-year follow-up study of Alameda County residents. Am J Epidemiol. 1979;109(2):186-204.
7. Elovainio M, Hakulinen C, Pulkki-Råback L, et al. The contribution of risk factors to excess mortality in isolated and lonely individuals: the prospective UK Biobank cohort study. Lancet Public Heal. 2017.
8. Valtorta NK, Kanaan M, Gilbody S, Ronzi S, Hanratty B. Loneliness and social isolation as risk factors for coronary heart disease and stroke: systematic review and meta-analysis of longitudinal observational studies. Heart. 2016:1-8. doi:10.1136/heartjnl-2015-308790.
9. Thoits PA. Mechanisms linking social ties and support to physical and mental health. J Health Soc Behav. 2011;52(2):145-161. doi:10.1177/0022146510395592.
10. Cacioppo JT, Cacioppo S, Capitanio JP, Cole SW. Neuroendocrinology of Social Isolation. Annu Rev Psychol. 2015;66:733-767. doi:10.1146/annurev-psych-010814-015240.
11. Chen E, Miller GE. Socioeconomic status and health: Mediating and moderating factors. Annu Rev Clin Psychol. 2013;9:723-749. doi:10.1146/annurev-clinpsy-050212-185634.
12. Mozaffarian D, Benjamin EJ, Go AS, et al. Executive summary: Heart disease and stroke statistics-2016 update: A Report from the American Heart Association. Circulation. 2016;133(4):447-454. doi:10.1161/CIR.00000000000000366.
13. The Emerging Risk Factors Collaboration. Diabetes mellitus, fasting blood glucose concentration, and risk of vascular disease: a collaborative meta-analysis of 102 prospective studies. Lancet. 2010;375(9733):2215-2222. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(10)60484-9.
14. Mons U, Hahmann H, Brenner H. A reverse J-shaped association of leisure time physical activity with prognosis in patients with stable coronary heart disease: Evidence from a large cohort with repeated measurements. Heart. 2014;100(13):1043-1049. doi:10.1136/heartjnl-2013-305242.
15. Lichtman JH, Froelicher ES, Blumenthal JA, et al. Depression as a Risk Factor for Poor Prognosis Among Patients With Acute Coronary Syndrome: Systematic Review and Recommendations A Scientific Statement From the American Heart Association. Circulation. 2014;129(12):1350-1369. doi:10.1161/CIR.00000000000000019.
16. Sudlow C, Gallacher J, Allen N, et al. UK Biobank: An Open Access Resource for Identifying the Causes of a Wide Range of Complex Diseases of Middle and Old Age. PLoS Med. 2015;12(3):1-10. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1001779.
17. Palmer LJ. UK Biobank: bank on it. Lancet. 2007;369(9578):1980-1982. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(07)60924-6.
18. Townsend P, Phillimore P, Beattie A. Health and Deprivation: Inequality and the North. Croom Helm; 1988.
19. Hughes ME, Waite LJ, Hawkley LC, Cacioppo JT. A Short Scale for Measuring Loneliness in Large Surveys: Results From Two Population-Based Studies. Res Aging. 2004;26(6):655-672. doi:10.1177/0164027504268574.
20. Spitzer RL, Kroenke K, Williams JB. Validation and utility of a self-report version of PRIMEMD: the PHQ primary care study. Primary Care Evaluation of Mental Disorders. Patient Health Questionnaire. Jama. 1999;282(18):1737-1744. doi:10.1001/jama.282.18.1737.
21. Thiébaut ACM, Bénichou J. Choice of time-scale in Cox's model analysis of epidemiologic cohort data: A simulation study. Stat Med. 2004;23(24):3803-3820. doi:10.1002/sim. 2098.
22. Lin DY, Fleming TR, De Gruttola V. Estimating the proportion of treatment effect explained by a surrogate marker. Stat Med. 1997;16(13):1515-1527.
23. White IR, Royston P, Wood AM. Multiple imputation using chained equations: Issues and guidance for practice. Stat Med. 2011;30(4):377-399. doi:10.1002/sim.4067.
24. Steptoe A, Kivimäki M. Stress and cardiovascular disease: an update on current knowledge. Annu Rev Public Health. 2013;34:337-354. doi:10.1146/annurev-publhealth-031912-114452.
25. Cacioppo JT, Hughes ME, Waite LJ, Hawkley LC, Thisted RA. Loneliness as a specific risk factor for depressive symptoms: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. Psychol Aging. 2006;21(1):140-151. doi:10.1037/0882-7974.21.1.140.
26. Holt-Lunstad J, Smith TB. Loneliness and social isolation as risk factors for CVD: implications for evidence-based patient care and scientific inquiry. Heart. 2016;102:987-989.
27. Collins R. What makes UK Biobank special? Lancet. 2012;379(9822):1173-1174. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(12)60404-8.
28. Hakulinen C, Pulkki-Råback L, Jokela M, et al. Structural and functional aspects of social support as predictors of mental and physical health trajectories: Whitehall II cohort study. $J$ Epidemiol Community Health. 2016;70(7):710-715. doi:10.1136/jech-2015-206165.
29. Boden-Albala B, Litwak E, Elkind MS V, Rundek T, Sacco RL. Social isolation and outcomes
post stroke. Neurology. 2005;64(11):1888-1892.
doi:10.1212/01.WNL.0000163510.79351.AF.

Table 1. Descriptive characteristics of the study sample $(\mathrm{n}=479,054)$

|  |  | Mean (SD) or N (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age (years) |  | 56.35 (8.1) |
| Sex |  |  |
|  | Women | 265702 (55\%) |
|  | Men | 213352 (45\%) |
| Ethnicity |  |  |
|  | Nonwhite | 25359 (5\%) |
|  | White | 453695 (95\%) |
| Deprivation index |  | -1.29 (3.1) |
| Education |  |  |
|  | No secondary education | 78454 (17\%) |
|  | Secondary education | 236092 (50\%) |
|  | University degree | 156466 (33 \%) |
| Household income |  |  |
|  | Less than 31,000 $£$ | 89912 (22 \%) |
|  | £18,000 to $£ 29,999$ | 103504 (25\%) |
|  | £30,000 to £51,999 | 107700 (26 \%) |
|  | $£ 52,000$ to $£ 100,000$ | 84590 (21 \%) |
|  | Greater than $£ 100,000$ | 22557 (6\%) |
| Chronic illness |  |  |
|  | No | 237287 (51\%) |
|  | Yes | 227494 (49\%) |
| Social isolation |  |  |
|  | No | 427709 (91\%) |
|  | Yes | 42595 (9\%) |
| Loneliness |  |  |
|  | No | 428722 (94\%) |
|  | Yes | 28513 (6\%) |
| Body-mass index |  |  |
| ( $\mathrm{kg}^{2} / \mathrm{m}$ ) |  | 27.35 (4.75) |
| Diastolic blood pressure ( mm Hg ) |  | 82.3 (10.12) |
| Systolic blood |  | 137.81 (18.65) |
| Handgrip strength (kg) |  | 30.55 (11.01) |
| Smoker |  |  |
|  | No | 427738 (90\%) |


|  | Yes | 49646 (10\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ex-smoker |  |  |
|  | No | 314466 (66\%) |
|  | Yes | 162918 (34 \%) |
| Alcohol consumption |  |  |
|  | Twice or less per week | 269812 (56\%) |
|  | At least three times per week | 208893 (44\%) |
| Moderate physical |  |  |
| activity ${ }^{1}$ |  | 3.59 (2.33) |
| Vigorous physical |  |  |
| activity ${ }^{1}$ |  | 1.87 (1.95) |
| Depressed mood |  |  |
| (range 1-4) |  | 1.29 (0.6) |
| Unenthusiasm / |  |  |
| disinterest (range 1- |  |  |
| 4) |  | 1.27 (0.6) |
| Tenseness / |  |  |
| restlessness (range 1- |  |  |
| 4) |  | 1.31 (0.6) |
| Tiredness / lethargy |  |  |
| (range 1-4) |  | 1.68 (0.81) |

${ }^{1}$ Number of days per week of physical activity lasting more than 10 min )
Note. Due to missing data in covariates, frequencies may not add up to the total number of participants.

## Figure legends

Figure 1. Proportions of the social isolation-AMI and stroke excess risk mediated by biological, behavioral, socioeconomic, and health related factors. PERM $=$ Percentage of Excess Risk Mediated.

Figure 2. Proportions of the loneliness-AMI and stroke excess risk mediated by biological, behavioral, socioeconomic, and health related factors. PERM $=$ Percentage of Excess Risk Mediated. Figure 3. Proportions of the social isolation-mortality after AMI or stroke event excess risk mediated by biological, behavioral, socioeconomic, and health related factors. PERM $=$ Percentage of Excess Risk Mediated.

