### Number 155

## **Meditation Practices for Health: State of the Research**

#### **Prepared for:**

Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 540 Gaither Road Rockville, MD 20850 www.ahrq.gov

#### Contract No. 290-02-0023

#### Prepared by:

University of Alberta Evidence-based Practice Center Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

#### *Investigators:*

Maria B. Ospina, B.Sc., M.Sc.
Kenneth Bond, B.Ed., M.A.
Mohammad Karkhaneh, M.D.
Lisa Tjosvold, B.A., M.L.I.S.
Ben Vandermeer, M.Sc.
Yuanyuan Liang, Ph.D.
Liza Bialy, B.Sc.
Nicola Hooton, B.Sc., M.P.H.
Nina Buscemi, Ph.D.
Donna M. Dryden, Ph.D.
Terry P. Klassen, M.D., M.Sc., F.R.C.P.C.

AHRQ Publication No. 07-E010 June 2007

This report is based on research conducted by the University of Alberta Evidence-based Practice Center (EPC) under contract to the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ), Rockville, MD (Contract No. 290-02-0023). The findings and conclusions in this document are those of the author(s), who are responsible for its contents, and do not necessarily represent the views of AHRQ. No statement in this report should be construed as an official position of AHRQ or of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

The information in this report is intended to help clinicians, employers, policymakers, and others make informed decisions about the provision of health care services. This report is intended as a reference and not as a substitute for clinical judgment.

This report may be used, in whole or in part, as the basis for development of clinical practice guidelines and other quality enhancement tools, or as a basis for reimbursement and coverage policies. AHRQ or U.S. Department of Health and Human Services endorsement of such derivative products may not be stated or implied.

This document is in the public domain and may used and reprinted without permission except those copyrighted materials noted for which further reproduction is prohibited without the specific permission of copyright holders.

#### **Suggested Citation:**

Ospina MB, Bond TK, Karkhaneh M, Tjosvold L, Vandermeer B, Liang Y, Bialy L, Hooton N, Buscemi N, Dryden DM, Klassen TP. Meditation Practices for Health: State of the Research. Evidence Report/Technology Assessment No. 155. (Prepared by the University of Alberta Evidence-based Practice Center under Contract No. 290-02-0023.) AHRQ Publication No. 07-E010. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. June 2007.

The investigators have no relevant financial interests in the report. The investigators have no employment, consultancies, honoraria, or stock ownership or options, or royalties from any organization or entity with a financial interest or financial conflict with the subject matter discussed in the report.

#### **Preface**

The Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ), through its Evidence-based Practice Centers (EPCs), sponsors the development of evidence reports and technology assessments to assist public- and private- sector organizations in their efforts to improve the quality of healthcare in the United States. This report was requested and funded by the National Center for Complementary and Alternative Medicine (NCCAM). The reports and assessments provide organizations with comprehensive, science-based information on common, costly medical conditions and new healthcare technologies. The EPCs systematically review the relevant scientific literature on topics assigned to them by AHRQ and conduct additional analyses when appropriate prior to developing their reports and assessments.

To bring the broadest range of experts into the development of evidence reports and health technology assessments, AHRQ encourages the EPCs to form partnerships and enter into collaborations with other medical and research organizations. The EPCs work with these partner organizations to ensure that the evidence reports and technology assessment they produce will become building blocks for healthcare quality improvement projects throughout the Nation. The reports undergo peer review prior to their release.

AHRQ expects that the EPC evidence reports and technology assessments will inform individual health plans, providers, and purchasers as well as the healthcare system as a whole by providing important information to help improve healthcare quality.

We welcome comments on this evidence report. They may be sent by mail to the Task Order Officer named below at: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, 540 Gaither Road, Rockville, MD 20850, or by email to epc@ahrq.gov.

Carolyn M. Clancy, M.D. Director

Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality

Ruth L. Kirschstein, M.D.
Acting Director
National Center for Complementary and
Alternative Medicine
National Institutes of Health

Jean Slutsky, P.A., M.S.P.H.
Director
Center for Outcomes and Evidence
Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality

Beth A. Collins Sharp, Ph.D.,R.N. Director, EPC Program Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality

Margaret Coopey, R.N., M.G.A., M.P.S. EPC Program Task Order Officer Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality

## **Acknowledgments**

We are grateful to members of the technical expert panel for their consultation with and advice to the Evidence-based Practice Center during the preparation of this report. The members of the panel include John Astin, Ph.D., Ruth Baer, Ph.D., Vernon Barnes, Ph.D., Linda E. Carlson, Ph.D., C.Psych., Jeffery Dusek, Ph.D., Thierry Lacaze-Masmonteil, M.D., Ph.D., F.R.C.P.C., Badri Rickhi, M.D., Ph.D., and David Shannahoff-Khalsa, B.A.

We would like to thank the peer reviewers, who provided valuable input into the draft report: Dr. Kirk Warren Brown (Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA), Dr. Bei-Hung Chang (Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, MA), Dr. Thawatchai Krisanaprakornkit (Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand), Dr. T. M. Srinivasan (The International Society for the Study of Subtle Energies and Energy Medicine, Chennai (Madras), India), Dr. Harald Walach (The University of Northampton, Northampton, United Kingdom), Dr. Ken Walton (Maharishi University of Management, Fairfield, IA), and Dr. Gloria Yeh (Osher Institute at Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA).

We thank Dr. Richard L. Nahin and Dr. Catherine Stoney from the National Center for Complementary and Alternative Medicine for their insight, recommendations, and support of this work. We are grateful to the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality for granting the contract for this work and the Task Order Officer, Margaret Coopey, for facilitating the collaboration of the three organizations.

We are grateful to Lisa Hartling for her guidance when preparing the Work Plan for this report; Amy Couperthwaite, Lisa Malinowsky, and Kenneth Moreau for their assistance with article retrieval; Denise Adams, Mauricio Castillo, Carol Spooner, and Kate O'Gorman for their assistance with data extraction and quality assessment; and Christine Tyrell and Kelley Bessette for their administrative support.

### **Structured Abstract**

**Objective:** To review and synthesize the state of research on a variety of meditation practices, including: the specific meditation practices examined; the research designs employed and the conditions and outcomes examined; the efficacy and effectiveness of different meditation practices for the three most studied conditions; the role of effect modifiers on outcomes; and the effects of meditation on physiological and neuropsychological outcomes.

**Data Sources:** Comprehensive searches were conducted in 17 electronic databases of medical and psychological literature up to September 2005. Other sources of potentially relevant studies included hand searches, reference tracking, contact with experts, and gray literature searches.

**Review Methods:** A Delphi method was used to develop a set of parameters to describe meditation practices. Included studies were comparative, on any meditation practice, had more than 10 adult participants, provided quantitative data on health-related outcomes, and published in English. Two independent reviewers assessed study relevance, extracted the data and assessed the methodological quality of the studies.

**Results:** Five broad categories of meditation practices were identified (Mantra meditation, Mindfulness meditation, Yoga, Tai Chi, and Qi Gong). Characterization of the universal or supplemental components of meditation practices was precluded by the theoretical and terminological heterogeneity among practices. Evidence on the state of research in meditation practices was provided in 813 predominantly poor-quality studies. The three most studied conditions were hypertension, other cardiovascular diseases, and substance abuse. Sixty-five intervention studies examined the therapeutic effect of meditation practices for these conditions. Meta-analyses based on low-quality studies and small numbers of hypertensive participants showed that TM<sup>®</sup>, Qi Gong and Zen Buddhist meditation significantly reduced blood pressure. Yoga helped reduce stress. Yoga was no better than Mindfulness-based Stress Reduction at reducing anxiety in patients with cardiovascular diseases. No results from substance abuse studies could be combined. The role of effect modifiers in meditation practices has been neglected in the scientific literature. The physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices have been evaluated in 312 poor-quality studies. Meta-analyses of results from 55 studies indicated that some meditation practices produced significant changes in healthy participants.

Conclusion: Many uncertainties surround the practice of meditation. Scientific research on meditation practices does not appear to have a common theoretical perspective and is characterized by poor methodological quality. Firm conclusions on the effects of meditation practices in healthcare cannot be drawn based on the available evidence. Future research on meditation practices must be more rigorous in the design and execution of studies and in the analysis and reporting of results.

## **Contents**

Meditation Practices as a Part of Healing and Healthcare10Objectives of the Review11Chapter 2. Methods13Overview13Key Questions and Analytic Approach13Topic I. The Practice of Meditation13Topic III. State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare14Topic IVI. Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of Meditation Practices14Topic IV. Evidence on the Role of Effect Modifiers for Meditation Practices15Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation15Practices15Literature Review Methods17Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices17Literature Search and Retrieval17Criteria for Selection of Studies18Study Selection Process19Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies20Data Collection21Literature Synthesis22Data Analysis and Synthesis22Peer Review Process25Chapter 3. Results27Topic I. The Practice of Meditation27Main Components27Mantra Meditation28	Executive Summary	1
Definition and Types of Meditation.         9           Meditation Practices as a Part of Healing and Healthcare.         10           Objectives of the Review.         11           Chapter 2. Methods.         13           Overview.         13           Key Questions and Analytic Approach.         13           Topic I. The Practice of Meditation.         13           Topic III. State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare.         14           Topic III. Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of Meditation Practices.         15           Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation.         15           Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation.         15           Literature Review Methods.         17           Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices.         15           Literature Search and Retrieval.         17           Criteria for Selection of Studies.         18           Study Selection Process.         18           Study Selection Process.         19           Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies.         20           Data Collection.         21           Literature Synthesis.         22           Detar Review Process.         <	Evidence Report	7
Meditation Practices as a Part of Healing and Healthcare		
Objectives of the Review         11           Chapter 2. Methods         13           Overview         13           Key Questions and Analytic Approach         13           Topic I. The Practice of Meditation         13           Topic II. State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare         14           Topic III. Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of Meditation Practices         14           Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices         15           Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices         15           Literature Review Methods         17           Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices         17           Literature Search and Retrieval         17           Criteria for Selection of Studies         18           Study Selection Process         19           Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies         20           Data Collection         21           Literature Synthesis         22           Data Analysis and Synthesis         22           Peer Review Process         25           Chapter 3. Results         27           Mantra Meditation         27           Mantra Medi		
Objectives of the Review         11           Chapter 2. Methods         13           Overview         13           Key Questions and Analytic Approach         13           Topic I. The Practice of Meditation         13           Topic II. State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare         14           Topic III. Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of Meditation Practices         14           Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices         15           Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices         15           Literature Review Methods         17           Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices         17           Literature Search and Retrieval         17           Criteria for Selection of Studies         18           Study Selection Process         19           Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies         20           Data Collection         21           Literature Synthesis         22           Data Analysis and Synthesis         22           Peer Review Process         25           Chapter 3. Results         27           Mantra Meditation         27           Mantra Medi	Meditation Practices as a Part of Healing and Healthcare	10
Overview	Objectives of the Review	11
Overview	Chapter 2. Methods	13
Topic I. The Practice of Meditation	Overview	13
Topic I. The Practice of Meditation	Key Ouestions and Analytic Approach	13
Topic II. State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare		
Topic III. Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of Meditation Practices       14         Topic IV. Evidence on the Role of Effect Modifiers for Meditation Practices       15         Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices       15         Literature Review Methods       17         Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices       17         Literature Search and Retrieval       17         Criteria for Selection of Studies       18         Study Selection Process       19         Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies       20         Data Collection       21         Literature Synthesis       22         Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based	•	
Topic IV. Evidence on the Role of Effect Modifiers for Meditation Practices         15           Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices         15           Literature Review Methods         17           Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices         17           Literature Search and Retrieval         17           Criteria for Selection of Studies         18           Study Selection Process         19           Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies         20           Data Collection         21           Literature Synthesis         22           Data Analysis and Synthesis         22           Peer Review Process         25           Chapter 3. Results         27           Topic I. The Practice of Meditation         27           Main Components         27           Mantra Meditation         28           Transcendental Meditation         29           Relaxation Response         30           Clinically Standardized Meditation         31           Mindfulness Meditation         32           Vipassana         32           Zen Buddhist Meditation         35           Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction         35      <		
Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices         15           Literature Review Methods         17           Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices         17           Literature Search and Retrieval         17           Criteria for Selection of Studies         18           Study Selection Process         19           Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies         20           Data Collection         21           Literature Synthesis         22           Data Analysis and Synthesis         22           Peer Review Process         25           Chapter 3. Results         27           Topic I. The Practice of Meditation         27           Main Components         27           Mantra Meditation         28           Transcendental Meditation         28           Transcendental Meditation         30           Clinically Standardized Meditation         31           Mindfulness Meditation         32           Vipassana         32           Zen Buddhist Meditation         34           Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction         35           Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy         37           Yoga	± • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Practices       15         Literature Review Methods       17         Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices       17         Literature Search and Retrieval       17         Criteria for Selection of Studies       18         Study Selection Process       19         Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies       20         Data Collection       21         Literature Synthesis       22         Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43	•	
Literature Review Methods.       17         Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices       17         Literature Search and Retrieval       17         Criteria for Selection of Studies       18         Study Selection Process       19         Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies       20         Data Collection       21         Literature Synthesis       22         Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43		15
Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices       17         Literature Search and Retrieval       17         Criteria for Selection of Studies       18         Study Selection Process       19         Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies       20         Data Collection       21         Literature Synthesis       22         Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       29         Relaxation Response       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43		
Literature Search and Retrieval       17         Criteria for Selection of Studies       18         Study Selection Process       19         Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies       20         Data Collection       21         Literature Synthesis       22         Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43		
Criteria for Selection of Studies.       18         Study Selection Process       19         Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies       20         Data Collection       21         Literature Synthesis       22         Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       29         Relaxation Response       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43		
Study Selection Process       19         Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies       20         Data Collection       21         Literature Synthesis       22         Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       29         Relaxation Response       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43		
Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies       20         Data Collection       21         Literature Synthesis       22         Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       29         Relaxation Response       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43		
Data Collection       21         Literature Synthesis       22         Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation       29         Relaxation Response       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43		
Literature Synthesis       22         Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation®       29         Relaxation Response       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43		
Data Analysis and Synthesis       22         Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation®       29         Relaxation Response       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43		
Peer Review Process       25         Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation®       29         Relaxation Response       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43	·	
Chapter 3. Results       27         Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation®       29         Relaxation Response       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43		
Topic I. The Practice of Meditation       27         Main Components       27         Mantra Meditation       28         Transcendental Meditation®       29         Relaxation Response       30         Clinically Standardized Meditation       31         Mindfulness Meditation       32         Vipassana       32         Zen Buddhist Meditation       34         Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction       35         Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy       37         Yoga       38         Tai Chi       43	Peer Review Process	25
Main Components27Mantra Meditation28Transcendental Meditation®29Relaxation Response30Clinically Standardized Meditation31Mindfulness Meditation32Vipassana32Zen Buddhist Meditation34Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction35Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy37Yoga38Tai Chi43	1	
Mantra Meditation28Transcendental Meditation®29Relaxation Response30Clinically Standardized Meditation31Mindfulness Meditation32Vipassana32Zen Buddhist Meditation34Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction35Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy37Yoga38Tai Chi43	Topic I. The Practice of Meditation	27
Transcendental Meditation®29Relaxation Response30Clinically Standardized Meditation31Mindfulness Meditation32Vipassana32Zen Buddhist Meditation34Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction35Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy37Yoga38Tai Chi43	Main Components	27
Relaxation Response30Clinically Standardized Meditation31Mindfulness Meditation32Vipassana32Zen Buddhist Meditation34Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction35Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy37Yoga38Tai Chi43	Mantra Meditation	
Clinically Standardized Meditation31Mindfulness Meditation32Vipassana32Zen Buddhist Meditation34Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction35Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy37Yoga38Tai Chi43	Transcendental Meditation®	29
Mindfulness Meditation32Vipassana32Zen Buddhist Meditation34Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction35Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy37Yoga38Tai Chi43	Relaxation Response	30
Vipassana32Zen Buddhist Meditation34Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction35Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy37Yoga38Tai Chi43	Clinically Standardized Meditation	31
Zen Buddhist Meditation34Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction35Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy37Yoga38Tai Chi43	Mindfulness Meditation	32
Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction35Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy37Yoga38Tai Chi43	Vipassana	32
Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy37Yoga38Tai Chi43	Zen Buddhist Meditation	34
Yoga	Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction	35
Yoga		
Tai Chi		
	Qi Gong	44

Characteristics of Meditation Practices	46
Main Components	46
Breathing	47
Attention and Its Object	47
Spirituality and Belief	48
Training	49
Criteria of Successful Meditation Practice	49
Search Results for Topics II to V	
Topic II. State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare	56
General Characteristics	
Methodological Quality	
Meditation Practices Examined in Clinical Trials and Observational Studies	
Control Groups Used in Studies on Meditation Practices	69
Meditation Practices Separated by the Diseases, Conditions, and Populations for Which Th	iey
Have Been Examined	
Outcome Measures Used in Studies on Meditation Practices	96
Summary of the Results	
Topic III. Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of Meditation Practices	107
Hypertension	107
Description of the Included Studies	109
Methodological Quality of the Included Studies	110
Results of Direct Comparisons	
Transcendental Meditation®	115
Relaxation Response	122
Qi Gong	
Yoga	
Zen Buddhist meditation	127
Mixed Treatment and Indirect Comparisons	
Analysis of Publication Bias	133
Cardiovascular Diseases	
Description of the Included Studies	133
Methodological Quality of Included Studies	
Results of Direct Comparisons	
Indirect Comparisons	141
Analysis of Publication Bias	141
Substance Abuse	
Description of the Included Studies	141
Methodological Quality of Included Studies	142
Results of Quantitative Analysis	145
Analysis of Publication Bias	
Summary of the Results	
Hypertension	
Cardiovascular Diseases	
Substance Abuse	
Topic IV Evidence on the Role of Effect Modifiers for the Practice of Meditation	152

Hypertension	152
Cardiovascular Diseases	154
Substance Abuse	155
Summary of the Results	156
Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation	
Practices	157
General Characteristics	157
Overall Methodological Quality	157
Outcome Measures	159
Results of Quantitative Analysis	159
Methodological Quality of Included Studies	161
Transcendental Meditation®	165
Relaxation Response	170
Yoga	172
Tai Chi	183
Qi Gong	186
Summary of the Results	187
Transcendental Meditation®	187
Relaxation Response	188
Yoga	188
Tai Chi	188
Qi Gong	189
Chapter 4. Discussion	193
The Practice of Meditation	193
Demarcation	193
Classification	194
Universal Components of Meditation Practices	195
Complexity	
Criteria of Successful Meditation Practice	196
Training	197
State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare	197
Quality of the Evidence	198
Types of Interventions	199
Types of Control Groups	200
Types of Study Populations	200
Types of Outcome Measures	201
Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of Meditation Practices	201
Evidence on the Role of Effect Modifiers for the Practice of Meditation	
Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices	204
Strengths and Limitations	
Future Research	208
Conclusions	209

References and Included Studies	
Abbreviations	
Figures	
- igaioc	
Figure 1. Analytic framework for evidence report on the state of research on meditation practices in healthcare	16
Figure 2. Flow-diagram for study retrieval and selection for the review	
Figure 3. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)	
Figure 4. Subgroup analysis by study duration of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on SBP	
Figure 5. Subgroup analysis by study duration of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on DBP	116
Figure 6. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on body weight	117
Figure 7. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on heart rate	
Figure 8. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on measures of stress	118
Figure 9. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on measures of anger	118
Figure 10. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on measures of self-efficacy	
Figure 11. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on TC	
Figure 12. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on HDL-C	120
Figure 13. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on LDL-C	
Figure 14. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on dietary intake	
Figure 15. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE on physical activity	121
Figure 16. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus PMR on blood pressure	
(SBP and DBP)	
Figure 17. Meta-analysis of the effect of RR versus BF on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)	123
Figure 18. Meta-analysis of the effect of Qi Gong versus WL on blood pressure	
(SBP and DBP)	
Figure 19. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus NT on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)	
Figure 20. Subgroup analysis by concomitant therapy of Yoga versus NT on SBP	
Figure 21. Subgroup analysis by concomitant therapy of Yoga versus NT on DBP	
Figure 22. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus HE on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)	
Figure 23. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus HE on stress	127
Figure 24. Meta-analysis of the effect of Zen Buddhist meditation versus blood pressure	
checks on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)	128
Figure 25. SBP results (point estimate and 95% credible interval) for all intervention based	
on mixed treatment comparisons	
Figure 26. DBP results (point estimate and 95% credible interval) for all interventions based	
on mixed treatment comparisons	
Figure 27. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus exercise on body weight	
Figure 28. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus NT on SBP	
Figure 29. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus NT on DBP	
Figure 30. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus NT on cholesterol level	
Figure 31. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus NT on verbal fluency	
Figure 32. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> (no control) on blood pressure	109
Figure 33. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus WL on heart rate	109

Figure 34. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM <sup>®</sup> versus WL on blood pressure	170
Figure 35. Meta-analysis of the effect of RR versus BF on muscle tension	
Figure 36. Meta-analysis of the effect of RR versus rest on heart rate	
Figure 37. Meta-analysis of the effect of RR versus rest on blood pressure	171
Figure 38. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on heart rate	
Figure 39. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on heart rate in hypertensive	
populations	173
Figure 40. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on blood pressure	173
Figure 41. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on respiratory rate	174
Figure 42. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on galvanic skin resistance	175
Figure 43. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on fasting blood glucose	
(type II DM)	175
Figure 44. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on fasting blood glucose	176
Figure 45. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on breath holding time after	
inspiration and expiration	
Figure 46. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on auditory reaction time	
Figure 47. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on visual reaction time	
Figure 48. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on intraocular pressure	
Figure 49. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus exercise on heart rate	179
Figure 50. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus exercise on oxygen consumption	
$(VO_2 max)$	180
Figure 51. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (ULNB) versus free breathing on	
verbal ability	181
Figure 52. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (ULNB and URNB) versus free breathing	
on spatial ability	
Figure 53. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (shavasana) versus NT on blood pressure	
Figure 54. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus medication on fasting blood glucose	
Figure 55. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (ULNB) versus URNB on heart rate	
Figure 56. Meta-analysis of the effect of Tai Chi versus NT on heart rate	
Figure 57. Meta-analysis of the effect of Tai Chi versus NT on blood pressure	
Figure 58. Meta-analysis of the effect of Tai Chi versus exercise on blood pressure	
Figure 59. Meta-analysis of the effect of Tai Chi (no control) on heart rate	
Figure 60. Meta-analysis of the effect of Tai Chi (no control) on blood pressure	
Figure 61. Meta-analysis of the effect of Qi Gong (no control) on heart rate	18/
Tables	
i ables	
Table 1. Databases searched for relevant studies	17
Table 2. Inclusion criteria for topic I	
Table 3. Inclusion criteria for topics II to V	
Table 4. Characteristics of included meditation practices	
Table 5. Methodological quality of RCTs	
Table 6. Methodological quality of NRCTs	
Table 7. Methodological quality of before-and-after studies	
Table 8. Methodological quality of cohort studies (NOS scale)	
Table 9. Methodological quality of cross-sectional studies (NOS scale)	61
· / /	

Table 10.	Meditation practices examined in intervention and observational analytical studies	.62
Table 11.	Methodological quality of RCTs by meditation practice	.65
Table 12.	Methodological quality of NRCTs by meditation practice	.65
Table 13.	Methodological quality of before-and-after studies by meditation practice	.67
Table 14.	Methodological quality of cohort studies by meditation practice	.67
Table 15.	Methodological quality of cross-sectional studies by meditation practice	.69
	Number of control groups by study design	
Table 17.	Controlled intervention studies: number of control groups by meditation practice	.70
Table 18.	Observational analytical studies: number of control groups by meditation practice	.71
Table 19.	Types of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices	.77
Table 20.	Types of control groups for observational analytical studies on meditation practices	.80
Table 21.	Types of populations and conditions included in studies on meditation	.82
Table 22.	Intervention studies conducted on meditation practices by populations examined	.90
	Observational analytical studies conducted on meditation practices by populations	
examin	ed	.95
Table 24.	Type of outcome measures examined in studies on meditation practices	.96
Table 25.	Number of outcome measures examined by meditation practice	.99
Table 26.	Methodological quality of trials of meditation practices for hypertension1	10
Table 27.	Summary of outcomes by meditation practice and by comparison group included	
in meta	-analyses of the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices for hypertension.1	13
Table 28.	Mixed treatment comparisons on SBP (mm Hg) reductions compared to NT1	29
Table 29.	Mixed treatment comparisons on SBP (mm Hg) reductions compared to NT1	130
Table 30.	Methodological quality of trials of meditation practices for other cardiovascular	
	rs1	135
Table 31.	Summary of outcomes by meditation practice and by comparison group included	
in meta	-analyses of the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices in cardiovascular	
disease	s1	138
Table 32.	Methodological quality of trials of meditation practices for substance abuse1	44
Table 33.	Summary of outcomes by meditation practice and by comparison group included	
in meta	-analyses of efficacy and effectiveness1	46
Table 34.	Summary of the meta-analyses of the treatment effects of meditation practices in	
hyperte	ension and cardiovascular diseases (statistical and clinical significance)	49
Table 35.	Summary of the analyses of effect modifiers for achieving benefits from	
meditat	ion practice for hypertension1	153
Table 36.	Summary of the analyses of effect modifiers for achieving benefits from meditation	
practice	e for cardiovascular diseases1	
Table 37.	Summary of the analysis of effect modifiers for achieving benefits from meditation	
	e for substance abuse1	56
Table 38.	Methodological quality of RCTs on the physiological and neuropsychological	
effects	of meditation practices1	158
Table 39.	Methodological quality of NRCTs on the physiological and neuropsychological	
effects	of meditation practices1	58
	Methodological quality of before-and-after studies on the physiological and	
neurops	sychological effects of meditation practices1	159

Table 41. Summary of outcomes by meditation practice by comparison group by population included in meta-analyses of physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation
practices160
Table 42. Methodological quality of RCTs and NRCTs included in meta-analyses for
physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices162
Table 43. Methodological quality of before-and-after studies included in meta-analyses for
physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices
Table 44. Summary of statistical and clinical significance of physiological outcomes
examined in clinical studies on meditation practices
Appendixes
Appendix A: Technical Experts and Peer Reviewers
Appendix B: Development of Consensus on a Set of Criteria for an Operational Definition of
Meditation
Appendix C: Exact Search Strings
Appendix D: Review Forms
Appendix E: Excluded Studies and Non Obtained Studies
Appendix F: References of Multiple Publications
Appendix G: Summary Tables for Topic II
Appendix H: Characteristics of Clinical Trials of Meditation Practices for the Three Most
Studied Conditions
Appendix I: Characteristics of Studies Included in Topic V
Appendix J: Characteristics of Studies on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects
of Meditation Practices

Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/downloads/pub/evidence/pdf/meditation/medit.pdf

## **Executive Summary**

#### Introduction

The University of Alberta Evidence-based Practice Center (UAEPC) reviewed and synthesized the published literature on the state of the research of meditation practices for health. The research questions were organized under five general topics:

- 1. The practice of meditation;
- 2. The state of research on the therapeutic use of meditation practices in healthcare;
- 3. The evidence on the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices;
- 4. The evidence on the role of effect modifiers for the practice of meditation; and
- 5. The evidence on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices.

Meditation has been a spiritual and healing practice in some parts of the world for more than 5,000 years. During the last 40 years, the practice of meditation has become increasingly popular in Western countries as a complementary mind-body therapeutic strategy for a variety of health-related problems. Meditation and its therapeutic effects have been characterized in many ways in the scientific literature. The complex nature of meditation and the coexistence of many perspectives adopted to describe the characteristics of the practice have contributed to great variations in the reports of its therapeutic effects across the studies. There is a need to evaluate the evidence that has emerged within the past several decades on the effects of meditation practices in healthcare.

## Methodology

The UAEPC established a prospectively designed protocol for this evidence report. A Technical Expert Panel (TEP) was invited to provide high-level content and methodological expertise in the development of the report. Due to the lack of general consensus on a definition of meditation in the scientific literature, a set of parameters to describe meditation practices was evaluated by the TEP members using a modified Delphi methodology.

#### **Literature Sources**

Comprehensive searches were conducted in 17 relevant electronic databases up to September 2005. Other sources of potentially relevant studies included hand searches, reference tracking, contact with experts, and gray literature searches.

## **Study Selection**

A set of strict eligibility criteria was used to include potentially relevant studies. They had to be comparative, be on any meditation practice, have more than 10 adult participants, provide quantitative data on health-related outcomes, and be published in English. The criteria of study

methodology were modified to address each of the research topics of the review. Sources of secondary data (e.g., systematic reviews, narrative reviews, and book chapters) were used for topic I. Topics II to V included studies with a comparison/control group or control period: randomized controlled clinical trials (RCTs), nonrandomized controlled clinical trials (NRCTs) (topics III to V), prospective and retrospective observational studies with controls (topic II), case-control studies (topic II), uncontrolled before-and-after studies (topics II and V), and cross-sectional studies with controls (topic II).

### **Data extraction and Assessment of Study Quality**

Trained research assistants extracted the data using a comprehensive and pretested data extraction form. One reviewer verified the accuracy and completeness of the data.

Studies included in the descriptive overview on the practice of meditation (topic I) were not assessed for methodological quality. For topics II to V, the methodological quality of RCTs and NRCTs was assessed using the criteria for concealment of allocation and the Jadad Scale. The quality of observational analytical studies (e.g., prospective and retrospective observational studies, case-control studies, and cross-sectional studies with controls) was assessed using the Newcastle-Ottawa Scales (NOS). The quality of the before-and-after studies was evaluated against four criteria adapted from the NOS.

Two independent reviewers assessed study relevance, extracted the data and assessed the methodological quality of the studies. Disagreements among reviewers were adjudicated by a third reviewer.

### Synthesis of the Evidence

Data for topic I on the practice of meditation were synthesized qualitatively. A combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches was used to synthesize the data in Topics II to V. Details of individual studies were summarized in evidence tables including information on the article source, study design, study population (e.g., sample size, age, and gender), treatment groups, and outcomes. Meta-analyses using the standard inverse variance and random effects model were planned to derive pooled estimates from individual studies to support inferences regarding the magnitude and direction of the effect of meditation practices. Forest plots were used to display the individual and pooled results. An analysis of publication bias was also planned.

### Results

## **Topic I. The Practice of Meditation**

Five broad categories of meditation practices were identified in the included studies: Mantra meditation (comprising the Transcendental Meditation® technique [TM®], Relaxation Response [RR], and Clinically Standardized Meditation [CSM]), Mindfulness meditation (comprising Vipassana, Zen Buddhist meditation, Mindfulness-based Stress Reduction [MBSR], and Mindfulness-based Cognitive Therapy [MBCT]), Yoga, Tai Chi, and Qi Gong. Given the variety of the practices and the fact that some are single entities (TM®, RR, and CSM, Vipassana,

MBSR, and MBCT) while others are broad categories that encompass a variety of different techniques (Yoga, Tai Chi, Qi Gong), it is impossible to select components that might be considered universal or supplemental across practices. Though some statement about the use of breathing is universal among practices, this is not a reflection of a common approach toward breathing. The control of attention is putatively universal; however, there are at least two aspects of attention that might be employed and a wide variety of techniques for anchoring the attention. The spiritual or belief component of meditation practices is poorly described in the literature and it is unclear in what way and to what extent spirituality and belief play a role in the successful practice of meditation. The amount of variation in the described frequency and duration of practice make it difficult to draw generalizations about the training requirements for meditation techniques. The criteria for successful meditation practice have also not been described well in the literature.

# Topic II. State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare

Eight hundred and thirteen studies provided evidence regarding the state of research on the therapeutic use of meditation practices. The studies were published between 1956 and 2005, with half of the studies published after 1994. Most of the studies were published as journal articles. Studies were conducted mainly in North America (61 percent). Of the 813 studies included, 67 percent were intervention studies (286 RCTs, 114 NRCTs and 147 before-and-after studies), and 33 percent were observational analytical studies (149 cohort and 117 cross-sectional studies).

**Quality of studies.** Overall, we found the methodological quality of meditation research to be poor, with significant threats to validity in every major category of quality measured, regardless of study design. The majority of RCTs did not adequately report the methods of randomization, blinding, withdrawals, and concealment of treatment allocation. Observational studies were subject to bias arising from uncertain representativeness of the target population, inadequate methods for ascertaining exposure and outcome, insufficient followup period, and high or inadequately described losses to followup.

**Meditation practices.** Mantra meditation practices such as the TM<sup>®</sup> technique and the RR were the most frequently studied meditation practices. Other mantra practices such as CSM, Acem meditation, Ananda Marga, concentrative prayer, and Cayce's meditation have been examined less frequently. The second category of meditation practices most frequently examined is Yoga. It includes a heterogeneous group of techniques such as Hatha yoga, Kundalini yoga, and Sahaja yoga. Mindfulness meditation, which includes MBSR, MBCT, and Zen Buddhist meditation, constitutes the third most studied group of meditation practices, Tai Chi the fourth, and Qi Gong the fifth. Finally, less than 5 percent of the studies on meditation have failed to explicitly describe the meditation practice.

Control groups. The number of control groups used in the 668 controlled studies ranged from one to four. The majority of the studies utilized an active, concurrent control. Among the RCTs and NRCTs, the practice of exercise and other physical activities constituted the most frequent active comparator followed by conditions involving states of rest and relaxation, health education, and progressive muscle relaxation. Almost half of the RCTs and NRCTs included comparison groups consisting of participants assigned to waiting lists, or participants that did not receive any intervention. The vast majority of observational studies used comparison groups consisting of individuals that had not been exposed to any type of meditation practice.

**Study population.** The majority of studies on meditation practices have been conducted in healthy populations. The three most studied clinical conditions are hypertension, other cardiovascular diseases, and substance abuse. Other diseases that have been frequently examined include anxiety disorders, depression, cancer, asthma, chronic pain, type II diabetes mellitus, and fibromyalgia.

**Outcome measures.** Physiological functions, particularly cardiovascular outcomes, were the most frequently reported outcome of interest in meditation research. Psychosocial outcomes, outcomes related to clinical events and health status, cognitive and neuropsychological functions, and healthcare utilization outcomes have also been evaluated in studies of meditation practices.

# Topic III. Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of Meditation Practices

We summarized the evidence from RCTs and NRCTs on the effects of meditation practices for the three most studied clinical conditions identified in the scientific literature: hypertension (27 trials), other cardiovascular diseases (21 trials), and substance abuse disorders (17 trials).

A few studies of overall poor methodological quality were available for each comparison in the meta-analyses, most of which reported nonsignificant results. TM® had no advantage over health education to improve measures of systolic blood pressure and diastolic blood pressure, body weight, heart rate, stress, anger, self-efficacy, cholesterol, dietary intake, and level of physical activity in hypertensive patients; RR was not superior to biofeedback in reducing blood pressure in hypertensive patients; Yoga did not produce clinical or statistically significant effects in blood pressure when compared to nontreatment; Zen Buddhist meditation was no better than blood pressure checks to reduce systolic blood pressure in hypertensive patients. Yoga was no better than physical exercise to reduce body weight in patients with cardiovascular disorders. When the relative effectiveness of a variety of meditation practices was assessed using indirect meta-analysis, we found that there were no significant differences between MBSR and Yoga to control anxiety symptoms in cardiovascular patients. Meta-analysis of the effects of meditation practices for substance abuse was not possible due to the diversity of practices, comparison groups, and outcome measures reported in each of the studies reviewed.

The results of the three highest quality trials (Jadad score = 3/5) examining, respectively, Mindfulness meditation, RR, and Yoga are inconclusive with respect to the effectiveness of meditation pratices.

The study comparing Mindfulness meditation with usual care (NS) for alcohol and cocaine abuse found little indication that Mindfulness meditation enhanced treatment outcomes for substance abuse patients. The study comparing RR with PMR and rest groups for alcohol abuse found generalized effects for BP, but not for the other outcome measures (anxiety, HR, and GSR). The RR and PMR groups did not exhibit increased BP as observed in control subjects. RR and PMR produced significant changes in tension. The study comparing Yoga with exercise for alcohol abuse found a significantly greater recovery rate for the Yoga group.

Statistical and clinical heterogeneity among the trials constituted a frequent and considerable problem when pooling the results, and in some cases, it precluded summarizing data across the studies. The poor methodological quality of the trials limits the strength of inference regarding the observed treatment effects reported in this review. The lack of description of the methods of allocation concealment, randomization, description of withdrawals and dropouts per treatment

group, the absence of appropriate blinding, and the use of incompatible or inappropriate control groups undermine the validity of the results of many clinical studies.

# Topic IV. Evidence on the Role of Effect Modifiers for the Practice of Meditation

The role of patient or meditation characteristics as effect modifiers in the practice of meditation is a topic that has so far been neglected in the scientific literature. Few studies have systematically examined factors such as dose, duration, or other specific features of meditation as moderators of the effects on outcomes. Evidence from RCTs and NRCTs regarding the interaction of meditation with other variables in populations of patients with hypertension, cardiovascular disorders, or substance abuse is scarce. A few studies conducted exploratory post hoc analyses (i.e., a subgroup analysis, multiple regression, or analysis of variance) that were intended to be hypothesis generating. No conclusions on the role of effect modifiers can be drawn from the analysis of the individual studies. Individual patient data is required to appropriately examine this issue.

# TOPIC V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices

The physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices were evaluated in 311 studies. The majority of studies have been conducted in healthy participants. Meta-analysis revealed that the most consistent and strongest physiological effects of meditation practices in healthy populations occur in the reduction of heart rate, blood pressure, and cholesterol. The strongest neuropsychological effect is in the increase of verbal creativity. There is also some evidence from before-and-after studies to support the hypothesis that certain meditation practices decrease visual reaction time, intraocular pressure, and increase breath holding time. As found in studies included for topic III, the overall low methodological quality of the studies indicates that most of the studies suffered from methodological problems that may result in overestimations of the treatment effects or compromise the generalizability of the study results. Particularly, the lack of a concurrent control group in the before-and-after studies results in an inability to control for temporal trends, regression to the mean, and sensitivity to methodological features. Therefore, results from meta-analyses of the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices should be interpreted cautiously.

The very small number of trials available for each comparison precluded testing for publication bias.

### **Future Research**

Future research in meditation has several challenges. There is a need to develop a consensus on a working definition of meditation applicable to a heterogeneous group of practices. Another area of future inquiry consists of systematically comparing the effects of different meditation practices that research shows have promise. Special attention to the appropriate selection of controls is also paramount and future research should be directed toward investigating the unique challenges that mediation studies present in designing controls. In addition, more research should be done on the "dose response" of meditation practices to determine appropriate study durations and to help standardize courses of therapeutic meditation.

Because it is difficult to determine causation using uncontrolled before-and-after designs, it is recommended that these study designs be avoided in future research on the effectiveness of meditation practices. Researchers should aim to employ designs and analytic strategies that optimize the ability to make causal inferences (in some cases this may require the use of uncontrolled before-and-after designs). Future studies would benefit from using larger samples and employing concurrent controlled designs, using disease-specific measures and providing clearer descriptions of intervention components. Finally, the quality of reporting of meditation research would be improved by a wider dissemination and stricter enforcement of the CONSORT (Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials) guidelines within the complementary and alternative medicine community.

### **Conclusions**

The field of research on meditation practices and their therapeutic applications is beset with uncertainty. The therapeutic effects of meditation practices cannot be established based on the current literature. Further research needs to be directed toward the ways in which meditation may be defined, with specific attention paid to the kinds of definitions that are created. A clear conceptual definition of meditation is required and operational definitions should be developed. The lack of high-quality evidence highlights the need for greater care in choosing and describing the interventions, controls, populations, and outcomes under study so that research results may be compared and the effects of meditation practices estimated with greater reliability and validity. Firm conclusions on the effects of meditation practices in healthcare cannot be drawn based on the available evidence. It is imperative that future studies on meditation practices be rigorous in the design, execution, analysis, and reporting of the results



## **Chapter 1. Introduction and Background**

Meditation has been a spiritual and healing practice in some parts of the world for more than 5,000 years. The word "meditation" is derived from the Latin "meditari," which means "to engage in contemplation or reflection."

Historically, religious or spiritual aims were intrinsic to any form of meditation. These traditional practices held some type of spiritual growth, enlightenment,<sup>2</sup> personal transformation, or transcendental experience as their ultimate goal.<sup>3</sup> During the last 40 years, the practice of meditation has become increasingly popular and has been adapted to the specific interests and orientation of Western culture as a complementary therapeutic strategy for a variety of health-related problems.<sup>2,4</sup> Both secular forms of meditation and forms rooted in religious and spiritual systems have increasingly attracted the interest of clinicians, researchers, and the general public, and have gained acceptance as important mind-body interventions within integrative medicine (the combination of evidence-based conventional and alternative approaches that address the biological, psychological, social, and spiritual aspects of health and illness). With an estimated 10 million practitioners in the United States and hundreds of millions of practitioners worldwide,<sup>5</sup> meditation was the first mind-body intervention to be widely adopted by mainstream healthcare providers and incorporated into a variety of therapeutic programs in hospitals and clinics in the United States and abroad.<sup>6,7</sup>

## **Definition and Types of Meditation**

Meditation has been characterized in many ways in the scientific literature and there is no consensus definition of meditation. This diversity in definitions reflects the complex nature of the practice of meditation and the coexistence of a variety of perspectives that have been adopted to describe and explain the characteristics of the practice. Therefore, we recognize that any single definition limits the practice artificially and fails to account for important nuances that distinguish one type of meditation from another.<sup>8</sup>

Cardoso et al. developed a detailed operational definition of meditation broad enough to include traditional belief-based practices and those that have been developed specifically for use in clinical settings. Using a systematic approach based on consensus techniques, they defined any practice as meditation if it (1) utilizes a specific and clearly defined technique, (2) involves muscle relaxation somewhere during the process, (3) involves logic relaxation (i.e., not "to intend" to analyze the possible psychophysical effects, not "to intend" to judge the possible results, not "to intend" to create any type of expectation regarding the process), (4) a selfinduced state, and (5) the use of a self-focus skill or "anchor" for attention. From a cognitive and psychological perspective, Walsh et al. 10 defined meditation as a family of self-regulation practices that aim to bring mental processes under voluntary control through focusing attention and awareness. Other behavioral descriptions emphasize certain components such as relaxation, concentration, an altered state of awareness, suspension of logical thought processes, and maintenance of self-observing attitude. 11 From a more general perspective, Manocha 12 described meditation as a discrete and well-defined experience of a state of "thoughtless awareness" or mental silence, in which the activity of the mind is minimized without reducing the level of alertness. Meditation also has been defined as a self-experience and self-realization exercise. 13

Despite the lack of consensus in the scientific literature on a definition of meditation, most investigators would agree that meditation implies a form of mental training that requires either stilling or emptying the mind, and that has as its goal a state of "detached observation" in which practitioners are aware of their environment, but do not become involved in thinking about it. All types of meditation practices seem to be based on the concept of self-observation of immediate psychic activity, training one's level of awareness, and cultivating an attitude of acceptance of process rather than content.<sup>3</sup>

Meditation is an umbrella term that encompasses a family of practices that share some distinctive features, but that vary in important ways in their purpose and practice. This lack of specificity of the concept of meditation precludes developing an exhaustive taxonomy of meditation practices. However, in order to systematically address the question of the state of research of meditation practices in healthcare, we must attempt to identify the components that are common to the many practices that are claimed to be meditation or that incorporate a meditative component, and also clearly distinguish meditation practices from other therapeutic and self-regulation strategies such as self-hypnosis or visualization and from other relaxation techniques that do not contain a meditative component.

Meditation practices may be classified according to certain phenomenological characteristics: the primary goal of practice (therapeutic or spiritual), the direction of the attention (mindfulness, concentrative, and practices that shift between the field or background perception and experience and an object within the field<sup>3,14</sup>), the kind of anchor employed (a word, breath, sound, object or sensation<sup>7,15,16</sup>), and according to the posture used (motionless sitting or moving). Like other complex and multifaceted therapeutic interventions, meditation practices involve a mixture of specific and vaguely defined characteristics, and they can be practiced on their own or in conjunction with other therapies. As pointed out by many authors, any attempt to create a taxonomy of meditation only approximates the multidimensional experience of the practices. <sup>17</sup>

## Meditation Practices as a Part of Healing and Healthcare

The interest in meditation practices as healing strategies comes with the need to acquire a deeper knowledge of the intricate connections between body and mind, and how the mental and spiritual state of an individual directly affects psychological and physical well-being. Meditation practices have been advocated as mind-body treatments for health-related problems and as methods to attain or maintain general wellness. There is a growing body of scientific literature on the effects of meditation practices for a variety of psychiatric disorders such as depression, anxiety, panic disorders, being eating disorders, and substance abuse among others. Effects of meditation practices have been also documented using measures of emotional distress and cognitive abilities.

The effects of meditation practices as complementary treatments for medical conditions other than mental illness have been evaluated using a variety of methods and outcomes. These clinical conditions include hypertension<sup>24</sup> and other cardiovascular disorders,<sup>25,26</sup> pain syndromes and musculoskeletal diseases,<sup>18,27,28</sup> respiratory disorders (e.g., asthma, congestive obstructive pulmonary disease),<sup>29</sup> dermatological problems (e.g., psoriasis, allergies),<sup>30</sup> immunological disorders,<sup>27</sup> and treatment-related symptoms of breast and prostate cancer.<sup>18,31</sup>

There is also a considerable interest in understanding the physiological and neuropsychological effects of certain meditation practices. 3,32,33 Research conducted in this area

has used a variety of methodological approaches and formal evaluations of the methodological quality of this body of evidence have not been conducted.

There is a need to evaluate the evidence that has emerged within the past several decades on the effects of meditation practices in healthcare. Reports on the therapeutic effects of a variety of meditation practices vary greatly across studies. Numerous authors have claimed that most of the studies in this area are methodologically flawed and often have small sample sizes. The magnitude and direction of the effect often varies from one type of practice to another; however, authors agree that some meditation practices hold some promise of therapeutic benefit for a variety of diseases or conditions. Therefore, there is a great need to clarify and address a host of clinical and research questions regarding the benefits of these interventions.

It is also important to systematically evaluate the role that effect modifiers (e.g., age, gender, duration of practice, other characteristics of meditators, training conditions) may have in influencing the outcomes of the types of meditation. By elucidating important clinical questions regarding the therapeutic effects of meditation practices, consensus on standards of practice can be reached with a view to integrate mind-body approaches more effectively into conventional medical care.

## **Objectives of the Review**

- To provide a descriptive overview and synthesis of information on meditation practices in terms of the main components of the practice, the role of spirituality, training requirements, and criteria for success.
- To conduct a systematic review and synthesis of the evidence on (1) the state of research on the therapeutic use of meditation practices in healthcare, (2) the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices in healthcare, (3) the role of effect modifiers for the practices, and (4) the effects of meditation practices on physiological and neuropsychological outcomes.

## **Chapter 2. Methods**

#### **Overview**

In this chapter we document a prospectively designed protocol that the University of Alberta Evidence-based Practice Center (UAEPC) used to develop this comprehensive evidence report on the state of research of meditation practices in healthcare.

To accomplish the tasks as directed, a core research team at the UAEPC was assembled to review and refine the methodology of the task order. All the reviewers at the UAEPC are trained and experienced in systematic review methodology and critical analysis of the scientific literature. In consultation with the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ) Task Order Officer (TOO) and National Center for Complementary and Alternative Medicine (NCCAM) representatives, a Technical Expert Panel (TEP) was invited to provide high-level content and methodological expertise in the development of the report. The list of technical experts and their curriculum vitae were submitted to the AHRQ TOO for approval (Appendix A).\*

Throughout the development of the report, the UAEPC project staff worked closely with TEP members and AHRQ and NCCAM representatives to refine the research questions. Guidance was provided through a series of teleconferences and, when needed, through individual telephone calls and e-mail.

To provide a framework for the report, we first present the key questions of the review and our analytic approach to address them. We then describe the literature review methods, including a description of how we developed a set of parameters to describe meditation practices. We outline our inclusion and exclusion criteria, the search strategy for identifying articles relevant to the key questions, and the process for abstracting and synthesizing information from eligible studies. We also describe the methods for assessing the methodological quality of individual studies and the criteria for evaluating the strength of the evidence as a whole. The methods for data analysis and synthesis and the peer review process are described at the end of the chapter.

## **Key Questions and Analytic Approach**

The key questions of this review have been organized under five general topics:

## **Topic I. The Practice of Meditation**

The following questions pertain to the description of the practice of meditation and meditation techniques:

1. What is known about the practice of meditation?

\*Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

- a. What are the main components of the various meditation practices (e.g., breathing, chanting, mantras, and relaxation)? Which components are universal and which ones are supplemental?
- b. How is breathing incorporated in these practices? Are there specific breathing patterns that are integral elements of meditation? Is breathing passive or directed?
- c. For each type of meditation practice, where is the attention directed during meditation (e.g., mantra, breath, image, nothing)?
- d. To what extent is spirituality a part of meditation? To what extent is belief a part of meditation?
- e. What are the training requirements for the various meditation practices (e.g., the range of training periods, frequency of training, individual and group approaches)
- f. How is the success of the meditation practice determined (i.e., was it practiced properly)? What criteria are used to determine successful meditation practice?

# **Topic II. State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare**

The following key questions pertain to the scope of research on meditation in healthcare:

- 2. What meditation practices have been examined in clinical trials and observational studies? What control groups are used?
- 3. Can these practices be separated by the diseases, conditions, and populations for which they have been examined?
- 4. What outcome measures are used? Are psychosocial outcomes included in these studies? If so, what types?

# **Topic III. Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of Meditation Practices**

The following key questions pertain to the potential benefits and harms of meditation:

- 5. What is the evidence that meditation practices are efficacious for the three most studied diseases or conditions identified in question 2 above?
- 6. If more than one form of meditation has been studied for a particular disease or condition (as identified in question 2 above), does the efficacy of these practices differ?
- 7. For specific disease populations, are meditation practices that are used as a complement to conventional therapy more effective than either the conventional therapy or meditation therapy alone?

# **Topic IV. Evidence on the Role of Effect Modifiers for Meditation Practices**

The following key questions pertain to specific elements of the meditation practice, population and practitioner that may influence the outcomes:

- 8. What dose of meditation is necessary before successful health outcomes are realized? That is, is the duration of meditation important for outcomes?
- 9. Does the direction of attention during meditation affect outcomes?
- 10. To what extent is a rhythmic aspect (i.e., mantra, controlled breathing, or other ordered, recurrent sound or motion) critical to the practice of meditation and to health outcomes? Do such approaches to meditation that rely on these rhythmic behaviors demonstrate consistent effectiveness versus nonrhythmic approaches to meditation? More broadly, do the number and types of components that make up the various meditation practices influence the outcomes?
- 11. Do individual difference variables (age, gender, race, education, income, other) predict success in the process of meditation (i.e., adherence, acceptance), as well as predicting health outcomes?

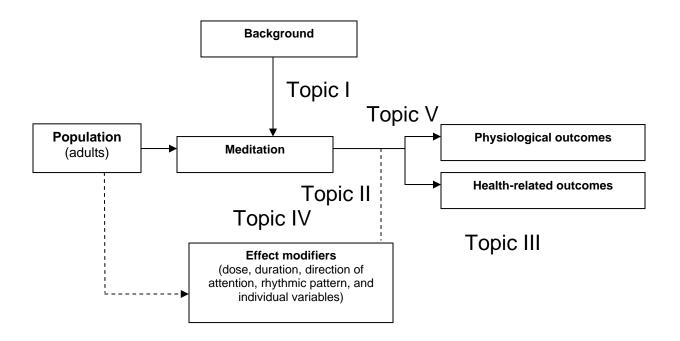
# **Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices**

The following key questions pertain to the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices:

- 12. What is known regarding cardiopulmonary, endocrine, immunologic, metabolic, and autonomic changes seen during meditation practices?
- 13. What is known regarding the effects of meditation practices on brain function (e.g., brain imaging, electroencephalogram (EEG), neuropsychological and cognitive functions)?

Figure 1 presents the analytic framework for the review. We used two main methodological approaches to address the research topics discussed in this report.

Figure 1. Analytic framework for evidence report on the state of research on meditation practices in healthcare



For topic I, the practice of meditation, the steps involved in the development of the descriptive overview included:

- development of an operational definition of meditation
- literature search
- study selection
- data extraction
- qualitative synthesis of information

For topic II on the state of research for the therapeutic use of meditation practices, topic III on the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices, topic IV on the role of effect modifiers of meditation practices, and topic V on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices, a number of steps were involved in conducting the literature review and synthesis of the evidence:

- literature search and retrieval
- study selection
- assessment of study quality
- data extraction
- data analysis and synthesis

### **Literature Review Methods**

# **Development of Operational Parameters to Define Meditation Practices**

There is no consensus on a definition of meditation in the scientific literature. For the purposes of this report, a set of parameters to describe meditation practices was developed using a modified Delphi methodology. The systematic process used to reach consensus on the operational definition of meditation was documented and is described briefly below (Appendix B).

A first-round questionnaire was distributed to TEP members to solicit their opinion on a set of parameters extracted from the scientific literature to describe meditation. Participants independently rated the importance of each parameter to characterize a practice as meditation. They were also asked to suggest other parameters not included in the questionnaire that they considered important. A feedback summary from the first-round responses was sent to TEP members along with a second-round questionnaire. In light of round-one group responses, participants were asked if they would reconsider their first-round responses. The process stopped when consensus among participants was reached. Responses to questions were analyzed and categorized by frequency of endorsement. Consensus was defined as agreement on a value or category by 80 percent of the Delphi participants.<sup>37</sup> If consensus was not reached by the Delphi technique, the TEP convened and group consensus techniques were used in a teleconference.

#### Literature Search and Retrieval

**Databases and search terms.** The research librarian worked closely with the TEP to refine search strategies for all questions of the review. Comprehensive searches were conducted of the electronic databases listed in Table 1 for the time periods specified. The order of the databases in Table 1 is the sequence in which the databases were searched (Appendix C).\*

Table 1. Databases searched for relevant studies

Database	Date of search	Years/issue searched
Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials	August 4, 2005	3rd Quarter 2005
CSA Neurosciences Abstracts	August 4, 2005	1982-2005
MEDLINE® and PreMedline®	September 8, 2005	1966 to August, 2005; Week 5
Old Medline	February 21, 2006	1950-1965
EMBASE	September 8, 2005	1988 to 2005; Week 36
Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews	September 9, 2005	3rd Quarter 2005
PsycINFO <sup>®</sup>	September 9, 2005	1872 to August, 2005; Week 4
Web of Science®	September 21, 2005	1900-2005

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

17

Table 1. Databases searched for relevant studies (continued)

Database	Date of search	Years/issue searched
OCLC FirstSearch (Articles and Proceedings)	September 22, 2005	1993-2005
AMED	September 30, 2005	1985 to September, 2005
CINAHL <sup>®</sup>	October 4, 2005	1982 to September Week 5, 2005
Cochrane Complementary Medicine Trials Register	October 25, 2005	1943-2003
CAMPAIN (Complementary and Alternative Medicine and Pain Database)	October 25, 2005	1983-2003
NLM <sup>®</sup> Gateway	October 25, 2005	1950-2005
Current Controlled Trials - BioMed Central	October 24, 2005	1998-2005
National Research Register	October 24, 2005	2000-2005
CRISP	February 21, 2006	2005-2006

In addition to the electronic databases, the following journals and collections were hand searched: *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine* (1994–2005), *Scientific Research on The Transcendental Meditation® Program: Collected Papers* (Volumes 1 to 4), *Journal of Bodywork & Movement Therapies* (1996–2005), *Journal for Meditation and Meditation Research* (2001–2003), *International Journal of Yoga Therapy* (1997–2005), and *Explore: The Journal of Science and Healing* (2005).

The reference lists of relevant studies (e.g., included studies, other systematic or narrative reviews) were reviewed to identify potentially relevant studies. Gray literature was searched to identify unpublished studies and works in progress. Scientific abstracts from the Society of Behavioral Medicine (2005) and the American Psychosomatic Society (1999-2005) annual scientific meetings were reviewed. The National Research Register from the National Health Service was searched for ongoing trials. Primary authors of potentially eligible ongoing studies were contacted if this was necessary to clarify whether those studies did indeed meet the inclusion criteria. TEP members were also requested to provide additional information about potentially relevant studies.

#### Criteria for Selection of Studies

A set of strict eligibility criteria was used to determine the inclusion and exclusion of studies for the report. The inclusion criteria for topic I are documented in Table 2. It is important to emphasize that the review on Topic I does not constitute a manual for any meditation practice. A more detailed explanation of any specific meditation practice described in this report should be sought in specialized texts or from master practitioners.

Information from primary studies and other original research identified for topics II to V was considered for topic I if it provided a detailed description of the meditation practice under study according to the parameters defined by the Delphi process.

Table 2. Inclusion criteria for topic I

Category	Criteria
Source	English-language scientific literature
Population	Adults (i.e., individuals aged ≥ 18 years)
Intervention	Empirical description of meditation practice according to the parameters defined by the TEP in the Delphi process
Study design	Systematic reviews, narrative reviews, book chapters and other sources of secondary data
Outcomes of interest	Components of meditation practices (e.g., breathing, chanting, mantras, relaxation) Role of breathing Role of attention Role of belief/spirituality Training conditions Criteria for success

Our inclusion criteria for topics II to V are documented in Table 3. Some criteria are common to all of these topics, but some criteria were specifically developed for inclusion of studies in topics III and IV only. We sought to match the type of evidence required to the nature of the questions and to identify the highest quality of evidence appropriate to answer each group of questions. For topics III and IV on the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices, and on the role of effect modifiers for meditation practices, we looked for evidence from randomized controlled clinical trials (RCTs) and nonrandomized controlled clinical trials (NRCTs). No restrictions were applied for setting or geographical location of the studies. Only studies published in the English language were eligible according to the scope outlined by NCCAM for this review.

Table 3. Inclusion criteria for topics II to V

Category	Criteria	
Source	Primary research report published in English	
Population	Adults (i.e., individuals aged ≥ 18 years)  Normal (topics II and V only) and clinical populations (topics II to V)  No previous meditation practice	
Intervention	Any meditation practice according to the parameters provided by the TEP in the Delphi study	
Sample size	N greater than 10	
Study design	Studies including a comparison/control group or control period in the methodological design: RCTs, NRCTs (topics III to V), prospective and retrospective observational studies with controls (topic II), case-control studies (topic II), uncontrolled before-and-after studies (topics II and V), and cross-sectional studies with controls (topics II)	
Outcomes of interest	Measurable data for health related outcomes	

## **Study Selection Process**

**Screening of titles and abstracts.** We developed a predefined set of broad criteria to apply to the results of the literature searches to ensure that potentially relevant articles were not

excluded early in the selection process (Appendix D).<sup>2</sup> Four independent reviewers evaluated the title and abstract of each study to select references potentially relevant to the topics of the report. The full-text of studies meeting the criteria was retrieved as was the full-text of those that reported insufficient information to determine eligibility.

**Identification of studies eligible for the review.** Two independent reviewers appraised the full-text of potentially relevant articles using a standard form that outlined the inclusion and exclusion criteria for each research topic (Appendix D).\* Decisions regarding inclusion and exclusion and the reasons for exclusion were documented.

The level of agreement among reviewers at all stages of the selection process was evaluated using the Kappa ( $\kappa$ ) statistic. <sup>38</sup> A  $\kappa$  score in the range from 0.0 to 0.40 was considered poor agreement; 0.41 to 0.60 moderate agreement; and 0.61 to 0.80 substantial agreement. <sup>39</sup> Disagreements about the inclusion or exclusion of studies were resolved by consensus. When consensus was not reached, a decision was made in consultation with the TEP.

### **Evaluating the Methodological Quality of Studies**

Rating the quality of individual articles. Studies included in the descriptive overview on the practice of meditation (topic I) were not assessed for methodological quality; therefore, the following methods for quality assessment apply to studies meeting eligibility criteria for topics II to V only.

Quality of intervention studies (RCTs, NRCTs, and before-and-after studies). The methodological quality of RCTs was assessed using the criteria for concealment of allocation 40,41 and the Jadad scale. 42 The former is based on the evidence of a strong relationship between the potential for bias in the results and allocation concealment: failure to conceal the process of treatment allocation can undermine randomization and, consequently, a selection bias may occur. 40 The Jadad scale is a validated scale that includes questions related to bias reduction: randomization, double-blinding and description of dropouts and withdrawals. This tool scores quality from 0 to 5. Studies scoring less than 3 points are usually considered to be of low quality. 42 The psychometric properties of the Jadad scale have been thoroughly tested, providing rigorous evidence to support its use. 42,43 We used individual components of the Jadad scale to create a 3-point scale based on blinding and participant attrition to assess the methodological quality of NRCTs.

No completely or partially validated instruments are available to assess the methodological quality of uncontrolled before-and-after studies. Quality of reporting of uncontrolled before-and-after studies included in topics II and V was evaluated with four questions assessing whether the study participants were representative of the target population, the method of outcome assessment was the same for the pre- and postintervention periods for all participants, outcome assessors were blind to the intervention and the purpose of study, and the number of and reasons for study withdrawals were reported.

Quality of observational analytical studies. The methodological quality of observational analytical studies (i.e., prospective and retrospective observational studies, case-control studies, and cross-sectional studies with controls) was assessed using the Newcastle-Ottawa Scales

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

(NOS).<sup>44</sup> These are eight-item instruments that use a star system to assess methodological quality across three categories: the methods of selecting the study groups, their comparability, and the ascertainment of the outcome of interest. Scores range from 0 to 9 stars. The NOS scales have been recommended by the Cochrane Nonrandomized Studies Methods Working Group, and studies on their psychometric properties are in progress.<sup>44</sup>

The assessment of quality of observational studies is more difficult than the assessment of RCTs and NRCTs. Empirical research has shown that numeric scores based on arbitrary weights given to each item in a scale are unreliable and difficult to interpret. Therefore, we decided to describe the methodological quality of observational analytical studies using the individual components of the NOS scales.

Finally, information regarding the source of funding was collected for all the included studies. 46

Two reviewers assessed the methodological quality of studies independently. Disagreements were resolved by consensus or, when no consensus could be reached, a senior methods expert adjudicated (Appendix D).\*

#### **Data Collection**

For topic I on the practice of meditation, a single reviewer extracted information that was organized according to narrative categories (e.g., components of the meditation practices, role of breathing and spirituality, training requirements, and criteria for success) to allow for a systematic description of the meditation practices considered in this report.

For topics II to V, trained research staff at the UAEPC extracted the information. A comprehensive and pretested data extraction form and guidelines explaining the extraction criteria were developed (Appendix D)\*. Information regarding the study design and methods, the characteristics of participants, interventions, comparison groups, and outcomes of interest were extracted. Data collection on study design and methods included information on the country and year of publication, type of publication, objective of the study, study design, duration, number of centers, and source of funding. Data on characteristics of the participants included setting of the study, type of primary health problem or health condition of study participants, and diagnostic criteria (as reported by the authors of the studies). Data on characteristics of the intervention (i.e., meditation practices) included a description of the practice in terms of components, content and format, frequency, and intensity. Likewise, data on the characteristics of the control group included a description of the components, content, and format. Finally, information was extracted on the type of outcomes and on the units or instruments of measurement for each outcome. A single reviewer extracted the data from the primary studies and another independent reviewer verified the accuracy and completeness of the data. Any discrepancies in data extraction were solved by consensus between the data extractor and the data verifier. During this process, the reviewers consulted with TEP members both for content and methodological advice as needed.

Study selection, methodological quality assessment, and data extraction were managed with the Systematic Review Software<sup>TM</sup> (SRS), version 3.0 (TrialStat!; Ottawa, ON). Graph extraction was performed using Corel Draw<sup>®</sup>, version 9.0 (Vector Capital, San Francisco, CA). Extracted

-

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

data were exported into Microsoft Excel<sup>TM</sup> (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA) spreadsheets.

## **Literature Synthesis**

## **Data Analysis and Synthesis**

Classification of the meditation practices. The first step in synthesizing the data for topics I to V was to create categories of analysis for the meditation practices described in the scientific literature. Based on data from the Delphi study, input from the TEP members, and a review of the literature, a set of seven categories was constructed to classify the meditation practices. Two independent researchers coded each study according to this classification scheme. Coding was discussed between researchers on a study-by-study basis. Coding discrepancies were resolved by consulting the original research study.

The following seven categories were used for data synthesis for topics II to V:

*Mantra meditation*. This category comprises meditation practices in which a main element of practice is mantra: the Relaxation Response technique (Relaxation Response or RR), the Transcendental Meditation technique (hereafter, simply "Transcendental Meditation" or "TM®"), Clinically Standardized Meditation (CSM), Acem meditation, Ananda Marga, and other concentrative practices that involve the use of a mantra such as Rosary prayer, and the Cayce method.

*Mindfulness meditation*. Though described slightly differently by Eastern and Western interpreters, this category refers generally to meditation practices that cultivate awareness, acceptance, nonjudgment, and require paying attention to the present moment. <sup>47-49</sup> This category includes Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction (MBSR), Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy (MBCT), Vipassana meditation, Zen Buddhist meditation, and other mindfulness meditation practices not further described.

 $Qi\ Gong$ . This category refers to an ancient practice from traditional Chinese medicine that combines the coordination of different breathing patterns with various physical postures, bodily movements, and meditation. External Qi Gong, in which a trained practitioner directs his or her own qi outward, with the intention of helping patients clear blockages, remove negative qi and balance the flow of qi in the body, to help the body rid itself of certain diseases is not a form of meditation according to the working definition developed for this report.

*Tai Chi*. This category describes a Chinese martial art characterized by soft, slow, flowing movements that emphasize force and complete relaxation. It has been also called "meditation in motion."

*Yoga*. This category includes a broad group of techniques rooted in yogic tradition that incorporate postures, breath control, and meditation. It includes practices such as Hatha yoga, Kundalini yoga, and individual components of Yoga such as pranayama (breath control exercises).

*Miscellaneous meditation practices*. This category describes techniques that combine different approaches to meditation in a single intervention, without giving prominence to one. It includes combined practices such as Yoga plus RR, TM<sup>®</sup> and Buddhist Meditation, and RR plus

Mindfulness meditation. The category was also used to describe meditation practices that do not fall within any of the other categories (e.g., coloring mandalas).

*Meditation practices (not described)*. This category refers to meditation practices that were not described in sufficient detail to allow them to be assigned to a more specific category, including techniques that were described by vague terminology such as "meditation," "movement meditation," and "concentrative meditation."

**Topic I.** Data for topic I on the practice of meditation were synthesized qualitatively. Information was presented in a structured format, with narrative categories of interest for the different practices of meditation identified in the scientific literature. Once categorized, the similarities and differences among the various meditation practices could be appraised. Categories of analysis include the main components of the meditation practices, the role of breathing, attention, and spirituality, the training requirements, and the criteria of success for the various meditation practices.

**Topic II.** Data collected for topic II on the state of research for the therapeutic use of meditation practices were summarized using descriptive statistics (e.g., proportions and percentages for categorical data, means with standard deviations [SD], or medians with interquartile ranges [IQR], for continuous data). Evidence and summary tables were constructed to summarize relevant characteristics of the included studies. Data from the included studies were synthesized qualitatively. We used the systematic approach of the Cochrane Collaboration for the synthesis of the evidence. The basic conceptual framework of the qualitative synthesis for topic II focused on the types of meditation practices that have been examined in intervention studies (RCTs, NRCTs, and uncontrolled before-and-after studies) and observational analytical studies (cohort studies, case-control studies, and cross-sectional studies), the types of control groups, the populations, and the types of outcome measures that have been examined in the included studies.

**Topics III and IV.** Based on the results of topic II describing the populations that have been examined, RCTs and NRCTs assessing the effects of meditation practices for the three most studied clinical conditions were included in the analyses of efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices (topic III) and the role of effect modifiers for meditation practices (topic IV). The first step in synthesizing the data for topics III and IV was to construct evidence tables that included information on each article's source, study design, study population (e.g., sample size, age, and gender), treatment groups, and outcomes. The evidence tables also included summaries of study quality and comments to help interpret the outcomes.

Meta-analyses were planned as part of the data analysis to derive pooled estimates from individual studies to support inferences regarding the magnitude and direction of the effect of the meditation practices. If studies evaluating specific meditation practices were sufficiently similar, effect sizes were combined and weighted using the standard inverse variance method<sup>51</sup> to produce an overall effect size for a given outcome. Meta-analyses used a random effects model. In this method, study means are averaged, weighting by a combination of inverse variance augmented by heterogeneity.

The types of summary statistics considered were risk ratios (RR) or odds ratios (OR) with 95 percent confidence intervals (95% CI) for dichotomous outcomes and weighted or standardized mean differences (WMD and SMD, respectively) with 95% CI for continuous outcomes. <sup>52</sup> WMD was chosen as the default method, with SMD being used only when units for the outcome were different among the studies being compared (i.e., stress measured on different scales). <sup>50,53</sup> Hedges adjusted g was used as the SD estimate when the SMD was used. <sup>54</sup> If the means were not

reported, they were either imputed from medians or discarded from meta-analysis if neither mean nor median was available. Occasionally studies did not report SDs of their estimates. In these cases, we determined the SD exactly from confidence intervals or exact p-values; estimated the SD from upper-bound p-values, interquartile ranges, ranges, or exact nonparametric p-values; or imputed from other studies reporting similar outcomes in a similar population. All the meta-analyses used endpoint data or change from baseline to endpoint data instead of using the average of separate mean changes calculated at different intervals of time. Forest plots were used to display the individual and pooled results.

Since some common outcomes were reported for many interventions, indirect comparisons<sup>55</sup> were made of these active interventions. This type of comparison involves taking the differences between the differences derived from separate meta-analyses. For example, by taking the difference between the derived meta-analysis of A versus B, and the derived meta-analysis of A versus C an estimate of the comparison of B versus C can be obtained. For some outcomes, when more than four interventions could be compared indirectly, a mixed treatment comparison was conducted. Indirect comparisons are a valid approach to meta-analysis when there is insufficient direct evidence from randomized trials reporting head-to-head comparisons between interventions. <sup>55,56</sup>

In this method, a Bayesian formulation of the data is employed. The differences between each intervention and a baseline intervention (in this case, "no treatment" was chosen as the baseline) are modeled by choosing a prior distribution for the effect and combining this prior value with the data from the studies to arrive at a posterior estimate and 95% credible interval. Such an estimate was obtained for all pairwise comparisons of interventions as well as the comparisons to the baseline intervention. Since the resulting posterior distributions are too complex for direct computation, a Markov Chain Monte Carlo simulation<sup>57</sup> was used to obtain the posterior estimates. This procedure involved simulating the unconditional, unknown posterior distribution by sampling many times from the conditional distribution and averaging the results. We used a sample of 20,000 burn-in iterations followed by 200,000 samples and noninformative normal (point estimate) and uniform (variance estimate) priors to obtain the distributions. We also computed a statistic to estimate the probability that each intervention was the best (e.g., lowered blood pressure the most) by recording the best intervention at each iteration. This simulation was performed using the WinBUGS software, version 1.4 (MRC Biostatistics Unit, Cambridge, United Kingdom).

We tested for statistical heterogeneity using the chi-square test<sup>51</sup> and quantified it using the I<sup>2</sup> statistic.<sup>58</sup> When there was evidence of clinical or statistical heterogeneity among studies, effect size estimates with corresponding 95% CI were presented separately for each study.<sup>59,60</sup> Sources of heterogeneity were explored qualitatively. They may be methodological (differences in design or quality), or clinical (differences in key characteristics of participants, interventions, or outcome measures).<sup>61</sup> Where appropriate, subgroup analysis based on patient, intervention, and study characteristics were conducted and sensitivity analysis based on study quality (Jadad score of greater than and equal to 3 points or less than 3 points) were conducted to assess the effect of quality on precision of the pooled estimates if the number of studies per comparison allowed it.<sup>62</sup>

Two analytic strategies were considered for topic IV on the effect modifiers of meditation practices. First, a meta-regression analysis using RCT-level covariates was planned to explore whether certain characteristics of the participants (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity, education, and income) or the interventions (e.g., dose, frequency, and duration) were associated with increased benefits of meditation practices. The outcome (or dependent) variable in the meta-regression

analyses would be the pooled effect size (log OR for binary outcomes, or WMD or SMD for continuous outcomes). If a meta-regression was not feasible due to a small number of trials, or limited data from primary studies, subgroup analyses would be conducted based on participant or intervention characteristics.

**Topic V.** Based on the types of outcomes identified in topic II, RCTs, NRCTs, and uncontrolled before-and-after studies (i.e., without a parallel control group) were included in the analysis of the physiological and cognitive/neuropsychological effects of meditation practices. Evidence tables were constructed to summarize each article's source, study design, study population (e.g., setting, sample size, age, and gender), treatment groups, and outcomes. The evidence tables also included summaries of the strength of the evidence, study quality, and comments to help interpret the outcomes.

Meta-analyses of RCTs and NRCTs using the methods described above for topic III were also planned for topic V. For studies with pre- and post-measures, data on change from baseline were used if available; otherwise, endpoint data were used. If meta-analytic methods were not feasible, effect size estimates with corresponding 95% CIs were presented separately for each study. Data from uncontrolled before-and-after studies were analyzed separately, and, if appropriate, the individual estimates of the treatment effect were pooled using the generic inverse variance method. Sensitivity analyses were conducted to assess the robustness of the findings when necessary. Data were displayed using forest plots.

**Publication bias.** Publication bias, or the selective publication of research depending on the results, was assessed using funnel plots, and the trim and fill method<sup>63</sup> if enough data were available from the meta-analyses. Funnel plots of effect sizes (axis X) against the SD (axis Y) for each meta-analysis were examined to identify gaps suggesting publication bias. Finally, the trim and fill method provided estimates of the number of studies potentially missing from a meta-analysis and the effect these omissions might have had on its outcome.

All analyses were performed using SAS/STAT® software version 9.1 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC), Statistical Package for the Social Sciences® for Windows® (SPSS® version 14.1, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL), and RevMan version 4.1 (Cochrane Collaboration, Oxford, UK).

Potential limitations, conclusions, and implications for future practice and research were discussed. The results were interpreted in light of the heterogeneity of the individual studies (e.g., differences in design, study populations, interventions or exposures, and outcome measures) and any evidence of publication bias, if present. Recommendations for practitioners and researchers were based solely on the evidence available.

## **Peer Review Process**

During the course of the study, the UAEPC created a list of 18 potential peer reviewers and sent it to the AHRQ TOO and NCCAM representatives for approval. In May and June 2006, the individuals on the list were approached by the UAEPC and asked if they would act as peer reviewers for this evidence report. Seven experts agreed to act as peer reviewers (Appendix A)\* and were sent a copy of the draft report and guidelines for review (Appendix D6).\* Reviewers had one month in which to provide critical feedback. Replies were requested in a word processing document, though comments were also accepted by email and telephone. The

.

 $<sup>^*</sup>Appendixes \ and \ evidence \ tables \ cited \ in \ this \ report \ are \ provided \ electronically \ at \ http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm$ 

reviewers' comments were placed in a table and common criticisms were identified by the authors. All comments and authors' replies were submitted to the AHRQ for assessment and approval. As appropriate, the draft report was amended based on reviewer comments and a final report was produced.

# Chapter 3. Results

In this chapter, the main results of the systematic review are presented according to the five topics that were addressed. The results for topic II, the state of research for the therapeutic use of meditation practices, contain all eligible studies. Studies were then selected from this larger set to address topics III to V (see chapter two on Methods).

# **Topic I. The Practice of Meditation**

## **Main Components**

The main components of any meditation practice or technique refer to its most general features. These may include specific postures (including the position of the eyes and tongue), the use of a mantra, breathing, a focus of attention, and an accompanying belief system. Posture refers to the position of the body assumed for the purpose of meditation. Though traditional meditation practices prescribe particular postures (e.g., the lotus position), postures vary between practices with the only limitation being that the posture does not encourage sleep. <sup>64</sup> Because accounts of most meditation practices describe explicitly the use and role of breathing, mantra, attention, spirituality and belief, training, and criteria for successful meditation practice, these topics are described individually.

**Breathing.** Breathing in meditation can be incorporated passively or actively. In passive breathing, no conscious control is exerted over inhalation and exhalation and breathing is "natural." In contrast, active breathing involves the conscious control over inhalation and exhalation. This may involve controlling the way in which air is drawn in (e.g., through the mouth or nostrils), the rate (e.g., drawn in quickly or over a specified length of time), the depth (e.g., shallow or deep), and the control of other body parts (e.g., relaxation of the abdomen).

**Mantra.** A distinctive feature of some meditation practices is the use of a mantra. A mantra is a sound, word, or phrase that is recited repetitively, usually in an unvarying tone, and used as an object of concentration. The mantra may be chanted aloud, or recited silently. Mantras can be associated with particular historical or archetypal figures from spiritual or religious systems, or they may have no such associations.<sup>65</sup>

**Relaxation.** Relaxation is often considered to be one of the defining characteristics of meditation practices and meditation itself is often considered to be a relaxation technique. 66-68 Indeed, it has been suggested that the popularity of meditation practices in the West is due, at least in part, to the widely accepted plausibility of their alleged effects with respect to arousal reduction. Some researchers have attempted to draw a distinction between relaxation and meditation practices on the basis of intention.

**Attention and its object.** The intentional self-regulation of attention is considered crucial to the practice of meditation, as is the development of an awareness in which thoughts do not necessarily disappear, but are simply not encouraged by dwelling on them, a state of so-called "thoughtless awareness." Some meditation practices focus attention on a singular external

object (e.g., mandala, candle, flame), sound (e.g., breath), word or phrase (i.e., mantra), or body part (e.g., the tip of the nose, the space between the eyebrows). In contrast, "mindfulness" meditation techniques aim to cultivate an objective openness to whatever comes into awareness (e.g., by paying attention to simple and repetitive activities or to the sensations of the body). In doing so, the breath may be used as an anchor (but not a focal point) to keep the meditator engaged with the present moment. Each of these techniques serves, in a different way, to discourage logical and conceptual thinking.

**Spirituality and belief.** This component refers to the extent to which spirituality and belief systems are a part of meditation practices. Spirituality and belief systems are composed of metaphysical concepts and the rules or guidelines for behavior (e.g., devotional practices or interpersonal relations) that are based on these concepts.

**Training.** Training refers to the recommended frequency and duration of periods of practice, and how long a practitioner is expected to train before being considered proficient in a given technique.

**Criteria of successful meditation practice.** The criteria of successful meditation practice are understood both in terms of the successful practice of a specific technique (i.e., is the technique being practiced properly) and in terms of achieving the aim of the meditation practice (e.g., has practice led to reduced stress, calmness of mind, or spiritual enlightenment).

Five broad categories of meditation practices were identified in the scientific literature: mantra meditation (comprising Transcendental Meditation [TM®], Relaxation Response [RR], and Clinically Stadardized Meditation [CSM]), mindfulness meditation (comprising Vipassana, Zen Buddhist meditation, Mindfulness-based Stress Reduction [MBSR], and Mindfulness-based Cognitive Therapy [MBCT]), Yoga, Tai Chi, and Qi Gong. These broad categories were used for descriptive purposes throughout the report to address the key research questions.

## **Mantra Meditation**

The distinctive characteristic of the meditation practices included in this category is the use of a mantra. A mantra is a word or phrase repeated aloud or silently and used to focus attention. A mantra often has a smooth sound, for example, the mantras "Om" or "Mu."<sup>74</sup> It is thought that these sounds produce vibrations that have different effects on people, and these vibrations can be described qualitatively or quantitatively. The three mantra meditation practices described below consist of standardized techniques; that is, the techniques have been described systematically in manuals and are relatively invariant wherever, whenever, and by whomever they are taught. <sup>23</sup>

#### Transcendental Meditation®

TM<sup>®</sup> is a technique derived from the Vedic tradition of India by Maharishi Mahesh Yogi. The TM<sup>®</sup>, a meditative state is purportedly achieved in which the repetition of the mantra no longer consciously occurs and instead the mind is quiet and without thought. The During the practice of TM<sup>®</sup>, the ordinary thinking process is said to be "transcended" (or gone beyond) as the awareness gradually settles down and is eventually freed of all mental content, remaining silently awake within itself, and producing a psychophysiological state of "restful alertness." These periods, referred to as pure consciousness or transcendental consciousness, are said to be characterized by the experience of perfect stillness, rest, stability, order, and by a complete absence of mental boundaries.

**Main components.** In the TM<sup>®</sup> technique, the meditation state is achieved by the repetition of a mantra. The mantra is a meaningless sound from the ancient Vedic tradition and is given to the meditator by an instructor in the TM<sup>®</sup> technique. TM<sup>®</sup> practitioners sit in a comfortable posture, with eyes closed, and silently repeat the mantra. Though there are reports of the components of the mantras and how they are assigned, it is difficult to confirm these reports as many of the details of practice, including mantras, are revealed only to those who have formal instruction in TM<sup>®</sup>. Instruction in the TM<sup>®</sup> technique is a systematic, but individualized process. It is believed that keeping the techniques confidential prevents students from having preconceptions about the technique (making the learning process simpler) and that it maintains the integrity of the technique across generations.

**Breathing.** TM<sup>®</sup> involves passive breathing; no breath control procedures are employed and no specific pattern is prescribed.<sup>80</sup>

**Attention and its object.** TM<sup>®</sup> is described as not requiring any strenuous effort, concentration, or contemplation. However, meditators are instructed to direct their attention to the mantra. 83

**Spirituality and belief.** The TM<sup>®</sup> technique has a theoretical framework that is described in Maharishi Mahesh Yogi's writings on the nature of transcendental consciousness and the principles underlying the TM<sup>®</sup> technique. However, it is unclear to what extent this theoretical framework, including any of its implications for spirituality, is a part of the practice. Sources that discuss this issue contend that the practice of the technique requires no changes in beliefs, philosophy, religion, or lifestyle, <sup>78,80,85</sup> implying that the theoretical framework plays no role in its practice.

Clinical reports indicate that this technique can be learned easily by individuals of any age, level of education, occupation, or cultural background. The technique requires systematic instruction by a qualified teacher to ensure effortless and correct practice. The technique is practiced twice daily for 15 to 20 minutes, usually once in the morning (before breakfast) and once in the afternoon (before dinner).

**Criteria of successful meditation practice.** The successful practice of the TM<sup>®</sup> technique is determined by a qualified teacher. As many details of the TM<sup>®</sup> technique are restricted to those who receive instruction, a description of the criteria used by the instructor for the assessment of the technique is not available in the scientific literature.

## **Relaxation Response**

The "relaxation response" is a term coined by Harvard cardiologist Herbert Benson in the early 1970s to refer to the self-induced reduction in the activity of the sympathetic nervous system, <sup>68,89</sup> the opposite of the hyperactivity of the nervous system associated with the fight-or-flight response. Benson believed that this response was not unique to TM® and that all ancient meditation practices involved common components that together are capable of producing such a response. <sup>68</sup> Basing his belief on his scientific research on hypertension and TM®, he integrated these common factors into a single technique (RR) and found that it promoted a decrease in sympathetic nervous system similar to TM®. <sup>90</sup> Many techniques for eliciting the relaxation response have been presented in a religious context in Judaism, Christianity, or Islamic mysticism (Sufism). These techniques employ both mental and physical methods, including the repetition of a word, sound, or phrase (often in the form of a prayer); and the adoption of a passive attitude. <sup>91</sup> Benson emphasized that the relaxation response is not simply a state of relaxation (and should not be confused with it) or a sleep-like state, but a unique state brought about by adherence to specific instructions. <sup>89</sup>

**Main components.** The individual is instructed to assume a comfortable posture (usually sitting, but kneeling or squatting may also be used), the eyes are closed, and the muscles are relaxed, beginning at the feet and progressing upward to the face. Once the practitioner is relaxed, the eyes may be open or remain closed. Then, breathing through the nose and focusing on the breath, the practitioner inhales and exhales, silently saying the word "one" with each exhalation. He practitioner inhales and exhales, silently saying the word "one" with each exhalation. Benson recommends "one" as a neutral, one-syllable word. When the practice is completed, the meditator sits quietly for several minutes with eyes closed and then with eyes open. Benson recommends "one" as a neutral minutes with eyes closed and then with eyes open.

More recent versions of the technique include a body scan (similar to that employed in MBSR, described below) in which practitioners are asked to move their attention slowly over the body focusing on relaxing different regions, and information sessions on the stress response and its effects on health. <sup>94</sup>

**Breathing.** Breathing is active. Practitioners breathe through the nose, cultivating an easy, natural rhythm. <sup>89</sup>

**Attention and its object.** Attention is focused on the breath. In addition, should distracting thoughts occur, an attempt should be made to ignore them and focus on the mantra. <sup>92</sup> The mantra is therefore "linked" with the breath. <sup>68</sup> It has been claimed that Benson's RR demands a greater degree of concentration than either TM<sup>®</sup> or CSM (described below). <sup>64</sup>

**Spirituality and belief.** Because it is believed that RR incorporates the essential components of a wide variety of meditation practices, it is conceptualized as a secular technique <sup>89,95</sup> and does not require adopting a specific spiritual orientation or belief system.

**Training.** RR is learned in approximately five minutes. Patients are typically instructed to elicit the relaxation response twice daily, for 15 to 20 minutes, but not within two hours after any meal, as the digestive processes may interfere with the subjective changes induced by the technique. 89,90,96

**Criteria of successful meditation practice.** Instructions for this technique are available in books and articles and there is no explicit recommendation that an experienced practitioner teach the technique or that individualized instruction is necessary. The criteria for successful meditation practice rest with the subjective evaluation of the meditator; the results of practice judged against the reported effects of RR. Instructions for this technique include the injunction not to worry about whether one is successful in achieving a deep level of relaxation, and instead to maintain a positive attitude and let relaxation occur at its own pace. 89

## **Clinically Standardized Meditation**

CSM was developed by Patricia Carrington while she was conducting studies on meditation at Princeton University in the early-to-mid 1970s. Believing that TM<sup>®</sup> was not flexible enough to be suitable for all clinical purposes and that the cost of its instruction put it beyond the reach of most individuals and institutions, Carrington modified a classical Indian form of mantra meditation and produced what she called CSM.<sup>64</sup>

**Main components.** Trainees are instructed to choose a mantra from a list of 16 Sanskrit mantras, or choose their own. In choosing their own mantra, practitioners are told to select a word that has a "pleasant ringing sound" and to avoid using words that are emotionally loaded. The word should help imbue the practitioner with a sense of serenity. <sup>64</sup> In its original formulation, CSM used a secular ritual for transferring the mantra. CSM is practiced while sitting comfortably, with eyes open and focused on a pleasant object of some kind. The mantra is repeated aloud, slowly and rhythmically, at ever decreasing volume, until it is a whisper, at which point the mantra is no longer said aloud, but instead is only thought. The eyes are then closed as the meditator continues repeating the mantra in thought. Meditators allow the mantra to proceed at its own pace, getting faster or slower, louder or softer "as it wants." <sup>64,97</sup>

**Breathing.** Breathing is passive, proceeding at its own pace and is unconnected to the repetition of the mantra.

**Attention and its object.** Like TM<sup>®</sup> and RR, CSM is a passive technique that requires little concentration or discipline. In contrast to RR, CSM instructs practitioners to flow with their thoughts rather than ignore them, returning periodically to the mantra. <sup>64</sup>

**Spirituality and belief.** CSM is designed as a secular, clinical form of meditation practice, so no specific system of spirituality or belief is required.

**Training.** CSM is taught in two lessons: a 1-hour individual lesson and a group meeting. CSM is practiced twice daily for 20 minutes.<sup>64</sup> As with RR, the contemporary version of CSM differs slightly from its original form, with perhaps the most important difference being that

trainees are given a manual and an audio recording of instructions rather than individual instruction. <sup>64</sup>

**Criteria of successful meditation practice.** The criteria for successful meditation practice rest with the subjective evaluation of the meditator, the results of practice judged against the reported effects of CSM. Books and audiotapes for self-instruction in CSM are readily available, and there is no explicit statement that an experienced practitioner teach the technique or that individualized instruction is necessary.

#### **Mindfulness Meditation**

Mindfulness has been described as a process of bringing a certain quality of attention to moment-by-moment experience and as a combination of the self-regulation of attention with an attitude of curiosity, openness, and acceptance toward one's experiences. Mindfulness meditation, the core practice of Vipassana meditation, has been incorporated into several clinically-based meditation therapies. The capacity to evoke mindfulness is developed using various meditation techniques that originated in Buddhist spiritual practices; however, general descriptions of mindfulness vary from investigator to investigator and there is no consensus on the defining components or processes.

Mindfulness approaches are not considered relaxation or mood management techniques, <sup>98</sup> and once learned, may be cultivated during many kinds of activities. Mindfulness increases the chances that any activity one is engaged in will result in an expanded perspective and understanding of oneself. <sup>76</sup> In a state of mindfulness, thoughts and feelings are observed on par with objects of sensory awareness, and without reacting to them in an automatic, habitual way. <sup>98,99</sup> Thus, mindfulness allows a person to respond to situations reflectively rather than impulsively. <sup>98</sup> Mindfulness meditation practices include the traditional Vipassana, and Zen meditation and the clinically-based techniques MBSR and MBCT. Of the four practices described below, the last two, MBSR and MBCT have standardized techniques (i.e., the techniques have been described systematically in manuals and are relatively invariant wherever, whenever, and by whomever they are taught).

## **Vipassana**

Considered by some to be the form of meditation practiced by Gautama the Buddha more than 2,500 years ago, <sup>100</sup> Vipassana, or insight meditation, is practiced primarily in south and southeast Asia but is also a popular form of meditation in Western countries. Vipassana is the oldest of the Buddhist meditation techniques that include Zen (Soto and Rinzai schools) and Tibetan Tantra. <sup>47,99</sup> The Pali term "Vipassana", though not directly translatable to English roughly means "looking into something with clarity and precision, seeing each component as distinct, and piercing all the way through so as to perceive the most fundamental reality of that thing." The goal of Vipassana is the understanding of the 3 characteristics of nature which are impermanence (anicca), sufferings (dhuka), and non-existence (anatta). Vipassana meditation helps practitioners to become more highly attuned to their emotional states. <sup>47</sup> Through the technique, meditators are trained to notice more and more of their flowing life experience, becoming sensitive and more receptive to their perceptions and thoughts without becoming caught up in them. Vipassana meditation teaches people how to scrutinize their

perceptual processes, to watch thoughts arise, and to react with calm detachment and clarity, reducing compulsive reaction, and allowing one to act in a more deliberate way.<sup>47</sup>

**Main components.** Vipassana meditation requires the cultivation of a particular attitude or approach: (1) don't expect anything, (2) don't strain; (3) don't rush, (4) observe experience mindfully, that is, don't cling to or reject anything, (5) loosen up and relax, (6) accept all experiences that you have, (7) be gentle with yourself and accept who you are, (8) question everything, (9) view all problems as challenges, (10) avoid deliberation, and (11) focus on similarities rather than differences.<sup>47</sup>

Vipassana meditation is practiced in a seated position when focusing on the breath; otherwise, no posture is prescribed and the meditator may sit, stand, walk, or lie down. Traditionally, if a static position has been taken, it is not to be changed until the meditation session has ended. However, many Western teachers allow students to move, though mindfully, to avoid persistent pain caused by being in the same position for too long. <sup>47</sup> The time devoted to seated meditation should be no longer than one can sit without excruciating pain. The eyes should be closed. <sup>47</sup>

**Breathing.** Air is inhaled and exhaled freely through the nose. There is a natural, brief pause after inhaling and again after exhaling.<sup>47</sup>

Attention and its object. The focus of attention or awareness in Vipassana can be categorized into 4 groups: body, emotions and feelings, thoughts, and mental processes. <sup>101</sup> In focusing attention on the breath, novice Vipassana meditators attain a degree of "shallow concentration." <sup>47</sup> This is not the deep absorption or pure concentration of the mantra meditation techniques. Gradually, the focus of attention is shifted to the rims of the nostrils, to the feeling of the breath going in and out. When attention wanders from the breath, the meditator brings it back and anchors it there. <sup>47,100</sup> To help concentrate on the breath, a novice meditator may silently count breaths or count between breaths. <sup>47</sup> The meditator notices the feeling of inhaling and exhaling and ignores the details of the experience. The movement of the abdominal wall while inhaling and exhaling may also be used as a focus of attention. <sup>47</sup>

The primary technique for focusing on bodily sensations is the body scan. <sup>102</sup> Beginning with the top of the head, the practitioner observes the sensations as if for the first time, and then scans the scalp, the back of the head, and the face. When visualizations of the body distract the meditator, the thoughts are simply directed back to the sensations. The focus of attention is moved continuously over the body, moving down the neck, to the shoulders, arms, hands, trunk, legs and feet. Throughout the entire scan, an attitude of nonanticipation and acceptance is maintained. <sup>102</sup>

Mindfulness can be practiced during any activity and practitioners are encouraged to practice being mindful and fully aware during other activities such as walking, stretching, and eating.  $^{100}$ 

**Spirituality and belief.** Though often described as a profound religious practice, no particular spiritual or philosophical system is required to practice Vipassana meditation.<sup>47</sup>

**Training.** Vipassana should be practiced twice daily, morning and evening, for about 5 to 10 minutes. Western interpreters of Vipassana have recommended that novice meditators should be instructed to sit motionless for no longer than 20 minutes. Ideally, a meditator works up to at least two 1-hour sessions per day, and does at least one 10-day retreat per year. Longer meditation sessions allow for deeper periods of meditation. The length of time required to become proficient in Vipassana meditation varies by individual, some students progress rapidly, others slowly.

Criteria of successful meditation practice. As instructions for this technique are available in books and articles and there is no explicit instruction in the literature that an experienced practitioner teach the technique or that individualized instruction is necessary, it is presumed that the criteria for successful meditation practice rests with the subjective evaluation of the meditator. However, instruction may be given and, if this is the case, presumably successful practice is judged by an experienced meditator.

#### **Zen Buddhist Meditation**

Zen Buddhist meditation, or Zazen, perhaps one of the most well-known forms of meditation, is a school of Mahayana Buddhism<sup>103</sup> that employs meditation techniques that originated in India several thousand years ago and were introduced to Japan from China in 1191 A.D.<sup>104</sup> Zen Buddhist meditation is typically divided into the Rinzai and Soto schools.

**Main components.** The harmony of the body, the breath, and the mind is considered essential to the practice of Zen. In the traditional forms of Zen meditation, physical preparation involves eating nutritious food in modest amounts. 104

Posture is of great importance in Zen meditation. In traditional forms, Zen meditation is performed while seated on a cushion in either the full-lotus or half-lotus position; however, many Western practitioners practice in a variety of ways from chair sitting to full lotus. <sup>104</sup> In the full-lotus position, the legs are crossed and the feet rest on top of the thighs. In the half-lotus position, only one foot is brought to rest on top of the thigh, the other remaining on the ground as in the regular cross-legged position. <sup>104,105</sup> The hands are held in one of two prescribed ways, either with the left hand placed palm up on the palm of the right hand with the tips of the thumbs touching, or with the right hand closed in a loose fist and enclosed in the left hand, the left thumb between the web of the thumb and the index finger of the right hand. <sup>104</sup> The spine is held straight and with the top of the head thrust upward, with the chin drawn in and the shoulders and abdomen remain relaxed. The body should be perpendicular and the ears, shoulders, nose, and navel should be in line. The tongue should touch the upper jaw and the molars should be in gentle contact with one another. The eyes should be half closed and the gaze focused on a point on the floor approximately 3 feet in front. <sup>104,105</sup>

**Breathing.** Breathing in Zen meditation is active and many breathing patterns are used. One deep breathing pattern begins with exhaling completely through an open mouth and letting the lower abdomen relax. Air is then inhaled through the nose and allowed to fill the chest and then the abdomen. This breathing pattern is repeated 4 to 10 times. The mouth is then closed, and air is inhaled and exhaled through the nose only. By the use of abdominal and diaphragmatic pressures, air is drawn in and pushed out. Both inhalation and exhalation should be smooth, with long breaths. <sup>104</sup> After practitioners have learned to focus on their breath by counting, counting is omitted and meditators practice "shikantaza," which means "nothing but precisely sitting." <sup>106</sup> Shikantaza is the most advanced form of Zen meditation. <sup>106</sup> With practice, the frequency of breathing becomes about three to six breaths per minute.

**Attention and its object.** Attention is focused on counting breaths or on a koan, a specific riddle that is unsolvable by logical analysis. The frequency of breathing is silently counted in one of three ways: counting the cycles of inhalation and exhalation, counting inhalations only, or counting exhalations only. Though some koans have become famous in the West (e.g., what is the sound of one hand clapping?), in practice, beginners often silently repeat the

sound "mu" while counting. As a student advances, there are many koans that may be worked on over a period of years. <sup>47</sup> This silent repetition allows the meditator to become fully absorbed in the koan. In both counting of breaths and focusing on a koan, it is essential that the concentration of the mind is on the counting or on the koan and not on respiration as such. <sup>104</sup> No attempt is made to focus the mind on a single idea or experience; the meditator sits, aware only of the present moment. <sup>49</sup>

**Spirituality and belief.** It is generally accepted that Buddhist metaphysical beliefs are not essential to the practice of Zen. At a spiritual level, Zen is considered a recognition of or, more accurately, the constant participation of all beings in the reality of each being. <sup>49</sup> Sitting should be based on the compassionate desire to save all sentient beings by means of calming the mind; however, this belief is not essential to practice. Only the wish to save all sentient beings and the strength to be disciplined in practice is necessary. <sup>104</sup>

**Training.** Depending on the purpose, Zen meditation may be practiced for a few minutes or for many hours. <sup>103</sup>

Criteria of successful meditation practice. Successful meditation practice is judged in terms of the internal changes that are brought about by cultivating awareness. The practice of Zen meditation should not be done with the aim of accomplishing some purpose or acquiring something. Lexamples of incorrect aims or approaches include (1) sitting in order to tranquilize the mind, (2) sitting to be empty in one's mind, (3) attempting to solve a koan as if playing a guessing game, and (4) being motivated by a wish to escape from everyday conflicts. Some Zen masters believe that it is acceptable for prospective students to be motivated by desires for good health, composure, iron nerves, etc., because in time their attachment to these less important purposes will be recognized. The successful practice of Zen meditation is often described in terms of an awareness of the "true nature" of reality, of discovering the extent to which ordinary experience is constructed and manipulated by our interests, fears, and purposes. Thus, successful practice results in the realization that a dreamlike absorption in personal intentions is actually the principal content of daily mental life, freeing the practitioner from circumstance and emotion.

#### Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction

The MBSR program emerged in 1979 as a way to integrate Buddhist mindfulness meditation into mainstream clinical medicine and psychology. <sup>107</sup> Originally designed by Dr. Jon Kabat-Zinn at the University of Massachusetts Medical Center, the MBSR program was a group-based program designed to treat patients with chronic pain. Since then, MBSR has also been used to reduce morbidities associated with chronic illnesses such as cancer and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome and to treat emotional and behavioral disorders. <sup>98</sup>

**Main components.** The mindfulness component of the program incorporates three different practices: a sitting meditation, a body scan, and Hatha yoga. In addition to the mindfulness meditation practice that forms the basis of the intervention, patients are taught diaphragmatic breathing, coping strategies, assertiveness, and receive educational material about stress. <sup>96</sup> The foundation for the practice of MBSR is the cultivation of seven attitudes:

- 1. nonjudgment, becoming an impartial witness to your own experience;
- 2. patience, allowing your experiences to unfold in their own time:

- 3. beginner's mind, a willingness to see everything as if for the first time;
- 4. trust, in your own intuition and authority and being yourself;
- 5. nonstriving, having no goal other than meditation itself;
- 6. acceptance, of things as they actually are in the present moment; and
- 7. not censoring one's thoughts and allowing them to come and go.<sup>48</sup>

In addition to these attitudes, a strong motivation and perseverance are considered essential to developing a strong meditation practice and a high degree of mindfulness. These attitudes are cultivated consciously during each meditation session. As with other mindfulness practices, posture and breathing are essential. The practitioner sits upright, either on a chair or cross-legged on the floor, and attempts to focus attention on a particular object, most commonly on the sensations of his or her own breath as it passes the opening of the nostrils or on the rising and falling of the abdomen or chest. Whenever attention wanders from the breath, the practitioner will simply notice the distracting thought and then let it go as attention is returned to the breath. This process is repeated each time that attention wanders from the breath. The MBSR program incorporates formal meditation (i.e., seated, walking, Yoga) and informal meditation (i.e., the application of mindfulness to the activities of daily life). In informal practice, practitioners are reminded to become mindful of their breath to help induce a state of physical relaxation, emotional calm, and insight.

The seated meditation is done either on the floor or on a straight-backed chair. When sitting on the floor, a cushion approximately 6 inches thick should be placed beneath the buttocks. The practitioner may use the "Burmese" posture in which one heel is drawn in close to the body and the other leg is draped in front, or a kneeling posture, placing the cushion between the feet. The sincerity of effort matters more than how one is sitting. Posture should be erect with the head, neck, and back aligned. The shoulders should be relaxed and the hands are usually rested on the knees or on the lap with the fingers of the left hand above the fingers of the right and the tips of the thumbs just touching each other.

The body scan is the first formal mindfulness technique that meditators do for a prolonged period and is practiced intensively for the first 4 weeks of the program. Body scanning involves lying on your back and moving the mind through the different regions of the body, starting with the toes of the left foot and moving slowly upwards to the top of the head. Scanning is done in silence and stillness.

The third formal meditation technique used in the MBSR program is mindful Hatha yoga. It consists of slow and gentle stretching and strengthening exercises along with mindfulness of breathing and of the sensations that arise as the practitioner assumes various postures<sup>48</sup>

**Breathing.** Breathing is passive and without any specific pattern.<sup>48</sup>

**Attention and its object.** During sitting meditation, the attention is focused on the inhalation and exhalation of the breath or on the rising and falling of the abdomen. When the mind becomes distracted with other thoughts, the attention is gently, but firmly returned to the breath or abdomen. During the body scan, attention is focused on the bodily sensations. When the mind wanders, attention is brought back to the part of the body that was the focus of awareness. <sup>48</sup> In contrast to other Yoga practices, mindful Hatha yoga is focused less on what the body is doing and more on maintaining moment-to-moment awareness. As in the seated meditation and body scan, the attention is focused on the breath and on the sensations that arise as the various postures are assumed.

**Spirituality and belief.** MBSR was designed as a secular, clinical practice and its practice does not require adopting any specific spiritual orientation or belief.

**Training.** The program consists of an 8-week intervention with weekly classes that last 2 to 3 hours. There is a day-long intensive meditation session between the sixth and seventh sessions. As Participants also complete 45-minute sessions at home, at least 6 days a week for 8 weeks. During the 2-hour weekly sessions, participants are instructed in the informal and formal practice of mindfulness meditation. Participants must commit to a daily, 45-minute home practice of the skills taught during the weekly meetings. The components of practice change as participants become more adept in sitting meditation, body scan, and Yoga. Body scan is initially practiced at least once per day for 45 minutes for about 4 weeks. It is then practiced every other day, alternating with Yoga.

**Criteria of successful meditation practice.** The proper practice is determined by an experienced teacher. In the absence of any religious or spiritual component, the measure of success is the achievement of successful outcomes, whether subjective (reduced perceived stress, reduced anxiety, etc.) or objective (reduced blood pressure, reduction in medication usage, etc.).

## **Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy**

Developed by Zindel Segal, Mark Williams, and John Teasdale in the 1990s as a method for preventing relapse in patients with clinical depression, MBCT combines the principles of cognitive therapy with a framework of mindfulness to improve emotional well-being and mental health. 98,108 Based on the MBSR program developed by Jon Kabat-Zinn, the original aim of the MBCT program was to help individuals alter their relationship with the thoughts, feelings, and bodily sensations that contribute to depressive relapse, and to do so through changes in understanding at a deep level. 108

**Main components.** Like MBSR, the MBCT program incorporates seated meditation and body scan. The practice teaches patients decentering (the ability to distance oneself from one's mental contents), how to recognize when their mood is deteriorating, and techniques to help reduce the information channels available for sustained ruminative thought-affect cycles and negative reactions to emotions and bodily sensations. <sup>108</sup> The core skill that the MBCT program aims to teach is the ability, at times of potential relapse, to recognize and disengage from mind states characterized by self-perpetuating patterns of ruminative, negative thought.

**Breathing.** Breathing is passive and without any specific pattern. <sup>108</sup>

**Attention and its object.** During seated meditation, the attention is focused on the inhalation and exhalation of the breath or on the rising and falling of the abdomen. When the mind becomes distracted, the attention is gently, but firmly, returned to the breath or abdomen. During the body scan, attention is focused on the bodily. When the mind wanders, attention is brought back to the part of the body that was the focus of attention.

**Spirituality and belief.** Like MBSR, MBCT was developed as a secular, clinical intervention and does not require adopting any specific spiritual orientation or belief system.

**Training.** The program consists of an 8-week program, with one 2-hour session per week. Classes contain approximately 12 students. The program is divided into two main components: in sessions one to four, participants are taught to become aware of the constant shifting of the mind and how to bring the mind to a single focus using a body scan technique

and breathing. Participants also learn how the wandering mind can give rise to negative thoughts and feelings. In sessions five to eight, participants learn how to handle mood shifts, either immediately or at a future time.

Like the MBSR program, participants must continue the sessions at home for 6 or 7 days and complete various homework exercises that teach and reinforce mindfulness skills and help participants to reflect on their mindfulness practice. <sup>108</sup>

**Criteria of successful meditation practice.** The presence of an instructor who is adept in the practice of mindfulness is crucial to the success of the program. It is generally believed that if instructors are not mindful as they teach, the extent to which class members can learn mindfulness will be limited. The proper technique is determined by an experienced practitioner. The measure of success is the achievement of successful prevention of relapse based on clinical criteria.

# Yoga

The philosophy and practice of Yoga date back to ancient times, originating perhaps as early as 5,000 to 8,000 years ago. <sup>1,109,110</sup> It has been argued that the rules or precepts set down in the first systematic work on Yoga, Patanjali's Yoga Sutras, do not set forth a philosophy, but are practical instructions for attaining certain psychological states. <sup>111,112</sup> It is important to acknowledge the diversity of techniques subsumed under the term "Yoga." Over many millenia, different yogic meditative techniques had been developed and used to restore and maintain health, and to elevate self-awareness and to also transcend ordinary states of consciousness, and ultimately to attain states of enlightenment. <sup>110</sup>

Yogic meditative techniques have been transmitted through Kundalini yoga, Sahaja yoga, Hatha yoga and other yogic lineages. Though there are numerous styles of Yoga; the styles vary according to the emphasis and combination of four primary components: asanas, pranayamas, mantras, and the various meditation techniques. In Kundalini yoga, there are thousands of different postures, some dynamic and some static, and also thousands of different meditation techniques, many of which are disorder specific. Kundalini yoga meditation techniques are usually practiced while maintaining a straight spine, and employ a large number of specific, and highly structured breathing patterns, various eye and hand postures, and a wide variety of mantras. All of these techniques supposedly have different effects and benefits in their respective combinations.

Within Hatha yoga, many "schools" have developed, each differing slightly in its emphasis on the use of breathing and postures: in Bikram Yoga, practitioners perform the same sequence of 26 asanas in each session; in Vini Yoga, emphasis on the breath makes for a slower-paced practice. Iyengar Yoga is distinguished from other styles by its emphasis on precise structural alignment, the use of props, and sequencing of poses. There are also two Tibetan yogic practices, Tsa Lung and Trul Khor, that incorporate controlled breathing, visualization, mindfulness techniques, and postures. In Yoga, it is also believed that the practice of meditation techniques can be enhanced by the proper cleansing and conditioning of the body through the asanas and breathing exercises, or pranayama techniques (though pranayama places particular emphasis on techniques of breathing, some pranayama also employ physical movements).

In addition to the schools of Yoga described above, TM<sup>®</sup> and the secular meditation techniques RR and CSM are derived from classical yogic techniques. <sup>123</sup> It is important to note

that the techniques in any given school or type of Yoga represent distinct interventions, in much the same way that psychodynamic, cognitive-behavioral, and interpersonal therapies each involve different approaches to psychotherapy. 124

The purpose of asanas, pranayams, and pratyahar (emancipation of the mind from the domination of the senses) is to help rid the practitioner of the distractions of body, breath, and sensory activity and to prepare the body and mind for meditation and spiritual development. The use of mantras is said to help cleanse and restructure the subconscious mind, and to help prepare the conscious mind to experience the various states of superconsciousness. The more advanced Yoga practices lie in dharana (concentration), dhyana (yogic meditation) and samadhi (absorption). Concentration involves attention to a single object or place, external or internal (e.g., the space between the eyebrows, the tip of the nose, the breath, a mantra [chanted loudly, softly, or silently] or attention to all of these elements simultaneously). When the mind flows toward the object of concentration uninterruptedly and effortlessly, it is meditation. When it happens for a prolonged period of time it leads to samadhi, the comprehension of the true nature of reality that ultimately leads to enlightenment and emancipates the practitioner from the bonds of time and space. 123,125

**Main components.** Classical Yoga is an all-encompassing lifestyle incorporating moral and ethical observances (yamas and niyamas), physical postures (asanas), breathing techniques (pranayams), and four increasingly more demanding levels of meditation (pratyahar, dharana, dhyana, and samadhi). Due to the incredible diversity of techniques in yogic meditation practice, it is impossible to describe them in adequate detail here. Instead, we have attempted to provide the reader with a very general description of the main components of many yogic meditation techniques. The reader is directed to the reference list for more detailed information on specific Yoga styles or techniques. 110,116,117,119,128,129

The most common translation of "asana" is "posture" or "pose" and it refers to both specific postures for gaining greater strength and flexibility and those used specifically to help achieve proper concentration for meditation. Asanas are practiced either standing, sitting, supine, or prone. The postures for strength and flexibility take each joint in the body through its full range of motion, stretching, strengthening, and balancing each body part. Depending on the particular yogic technique one follows and the individual level of practice, each asana is held anywhere from a few breath cycles (as long as 2 minutes) to as long as 10 minutes or, in the case of some advanced practices, even 2.5 hours.

In most schools, during each posture attention is directed to the breath—to the deep, inout, rhythmic sensation—and awareness is brought to the area of the body that is being stretched or strengthened. Though poses may be held for a few seconds to a few minutes, the body can also be in constant dynamic motion. Muscles relax and loosen, changing the shape of the pose, and the in and out breath moves in rhythm with the body. The practitioner simply observes the physical or psychical sensations and emotions arising while suspending judgment. The asanas are interspersed with brief moments of relaxation during which the practitioner attempts to redirect or maintain an inward focus. 130

In postures used specifically for meditation, for example in Kundalini yoga, the spine is kept straight and the practitioner can be seated in a chair with the feet flat on the floor or seated in a cross-legged posture, and specific directions are given regarding the positioning of the arms, hands, and eyes, (e.g., the palms of the hands can be pressed together with the fingers together pointing up at a 60-degree angle, and the sides of the thumbs rest on the sternum in what is called "prayer pose," 129 and the eyes are closed as if looking at a central

point on the horizon, the "third eye," or the notch region between the eyes). A mantra (again technique specific) may also be chanted, and/or a simple or complex breathing pattern may be employed. 129 Alternately, the eyes might be kept open and focused on the tip of the nose or closed and focused on the tip of the chin or top of the head, again in conjunction with any number of a wide variety of breathing patterns, and/or mantras. 129 In Sahaja yoga, practitioners sit in a relaxed posture with hands in front, palms upward. Attention is directed to a picture placed in front with a candle lit before it. Gradually when thoughts recede, meditators close their eyes and direct their attention to the "sahasrara chakra" or top of the head. The individual sits in meditation for about 10 to 15 minutes. 131 The amount to which the eyes are open or closed also varies; eyes may be fully open, fully closed, or half-closed.

**Breathing.** A central focus for most yogic meditation techniques is the breathing pattern. Pranayams, or breathing exercises, involve the conscious regulation of rhythmic breathing patterns, where some or all of the inspiration, breath retention, expiration, and breath out phases are regulated according to specific ratios or times. The inspiration and expiration phases can also be regulated by breaking each breath of the inspiration and expiration into 4 parts, 8 parts, or 16 parts or only the inspiration may be broken while the expiration remains unbroken. In addition, a breath pattern may be employed selectively through either the left or right nostril (or a sequential combination of both), or specific combinations of the nose and mouth. A wide variety of broken breath patterns have been discovered that have varying effects. Some techniques may also require holding attention on the imagined flow of energy along the spinal column collaterally with the breathing rhythm, on the sensation of inhaled air touching and passing through the nasal passage, on other parts of the body, or on a mantra.

In Hatha yoga, various patterns of respiration are closely coordinated with the body in either a static posture or with movement. There are many pranayama techniques described in Hatha yoga texts; however, the practice of pranayama in this tradition has four primary objectives: (1) a stepwise reduction in breathing frequency, (2) attainment of a 1:2 ratio for the duration of inspiration and expiration respectively, (3) holding the breath for a period at the end of inspiration that lasts twice the length of expiration, i.e., a 1:4 ratio between inhalation and retention, and (4) mental concentration on breathing. The four objectives are united in the achievement of a single purpose, namely, the slowing down of respiration to achieve an immediate intensification of consciousness through the elimination of external stimuli.

Practices such as Sudarshan Kriya Yoga involve rhythmic breathing at different rates following ujjayi pranayama (long and deep breaths with constriction at the base of throat) and bhastrika (fast and forceful breaths through the nose along with arm movements). Other practices, such as Iyengar Yoga, instruct the practitioner to breath through the nostrils only while performing the asanas. Some varieties of pranayama require the practitioner to inhale and exhale through one nostril selectively, a practice called unilateral forced nostril breathing. These breathing exercises are often practiced in combination with different postural locks (bandhas). Bandhas are restrictive positions or muscle maneuvres that exercise certain parts of the body. The most common of these are the abdominal lift (uddiyana bandha), the root lock (mula bandha), and the chin lock (jalandhara bandha).

In Kundalini yoga, there are hundreds of different breathing patterns, each having unique and specific benefits and effects. In "Sodarshan Chakra Kriya," considered one of the most powerful pranayama meditation techniques in Kundalini yoga, a unilateral forced nostril

breathing pattern is employed selectively with inspiration through the left nostril, with breath retention, and with selective expiration through the right nostril. During the breath retention phase the abdomen is pumped in and out 48 times and a three-part mantra is mentally repeated 16 times in phase with the abdominal pumping (one repetition of the three-part mantra with three pumps), and the eyes are open and focused on the tip of the nose. As the technique is mastered, the rate of respiration is eventually reduced to less than one breath per minute and practiced for a maximum of 2 hours and 31 minutes. 129

**Attention and its object.** Inherent in the practice of Yoga is an effortful progression toward increased concentration, or, more precisely, toward entering a state in which the mind is highly stable and still, consciously and purposely focused, and ordinary thoughts are suspended, and the meditator is more aware of the present moment (samadhi). This state has been described as the complete merging of the subjective consciousness and the object of focus. Hatha yoga has been defined as gentle stretching and strengthening exercises with constant awareness of breathing and of the sensations that arise as the meditator assumes various postures. By manipulating the body and making minute, detailed adjustments to perfect each posture, a person develops "one-pointed" concentration and ceases to become distracted by extraneous thoughts. 130

One Hatha yoga technique, Shavasana, or corpse pose, involves lying on the back, with legs resting on the floor slightly apart, arms at the sides, palms facing up, and eyes closed. This seemingly simple pose is actually one of the most demanding to perfect because of the practitioner's need to achieve absolute stillness and total concentration as well as control over the breath. If drowsiness occurs, practitioners are told to increase the depth of their breathing. If the mind is restless, attention to the breathing cycle or other bodily sensations is encouraged. The goal is to rest in a state of relaxation, yet be aware of raw, sensory information and to let go of any reactions or judgments. It

In Kundalini yoga, one complex meditation technique called "Gan Puttee Kriya", with multiple aspects of focus, is said to help eliminate negative thoughts, "psychic scarring," and acute stress. 116 The practitioner sits with a straight spine, either on the floor or in a chair. The backs of the hands are resting on the knees with the palms facing upward. The eyes are open only one-tenth of the way, but looking straight ahead into the darkness, not the light below. The practitioner chants consciously from the heart center in a natural, relaxed manner at a rate of one sound per second. The practitioner begins by chanting "SA" (the A sounding like "ah"), and touching the thumbtips and index fingertips together quickly and simultaneously then chanting "TA" and touching the thumbtips to the middle fingertips, then chanting "NA" and touching the thumbtips to the ring fingertips, then chanting "MA" and touching the thumbtips to the little fingertips, then chanting "RA" and touching the thumbtips and index fingertips, then chanting "MA" and touching the thumbtips to the middle fingertips, then chanting "DA" and touching the thumbtips to the ring fingertips, then chanting "SA" and touching the thumbtips to the little fingertips, then chanting "SA" and touching the thumbtips and index fingertips, then chanting "SAY" (like the word "say") and touching the thumbtips to the middle fingertips, then chanting "SO" and touching the thumbtips to the ring fingertips, then chanting "HUNG" and touching the thumbtips to the little fingertips. The thumbtips and fingers touch with about 2 to 3 pounds of pressure with each connection which supposedly helps to consolidate a circuit created by each thumb-finger link. The techniques can be practiced for 11 minutes (or less) to a maximum of 31 minutes. When finished, the practitioner remains in the sitting posture and inhales and holds the breath for 20 to 30

seconds while shaking and moving every part of the body vigorously, with the hands and fingers moving very loosely, then exhaling and repeating this two additional times, immediately followed by opening the eyes and focusing them on the tip of the nose and breathing slowly through the nose for one minute.

**Spirituality and belief.** Yoga is a science and philosophy of the human mind and body; it is a way of life, moral as well as practical. Yoga predates all formal religions, and, perhaps for this reason, the practice of Yoga does not presuppose an individual's commitment to a particular philosophical or religious system. 144,145

**Training.** The ethical principles of Yoga describe the essential attitudes and values that are needed to undertake the safe practice of Yoga. The physical practice of Yoga focuses on the development of the strength, flexibility, and endurance of the body, strengthening of the respiratory and nervous systems, development of the glandular system, and increasing the ability to concentrate. In its complete form, Yoga combines rigorous physical training with meditation practices, breathing, and sound/mantra techniques that lead to a mastery of the body, mind, and consciousness. Both ancient commentaries on Yoga and more modern books of instruction stress the importance of learning under the guidance of an experienced teacher, Guru or Master. <sup>110,121,139</sup> However, some Yoga techniques, especially asanas, pranayams, and meditation techniques, have been described and illustrated in books and videos produced for the purpose of self-study. <sup>139</sup> In terms of specific training requirements, it is recommended that Yoga exercises be practiced daily, preferably in the morning, and on an empty stomach. <sup>139</sup> Exercises can last from 15 minutes to several hours and it can take several years of consistent practice before a practitioner is able to practice properly the more demanding asanas and meditation techniques. <sup>121</sup>

**Criteria of successful meditation practice.** The ideal instruction in and assessment of Yoga techniques comes from a Guru or Master. Nevertheless, as books and video instruction are available, it can be assumed that the practitioner is able, to varying degrees, to assess the correctness of at least some asanas, pranayams, and a wide variety of meditation techniques.

Yoga is ultimately a tradition of spiritual self-discipline and practice for the pursuit of enlightenment. Like Vipassana and Zen Buddhism, the success of meditation practice is judged on the basis of the practitioner achieving this state of enlightenment or other intermediate psychological or spiritual states. For example, the central experience achieved through Sahaja yoga meditation is a state called "thoughtless awareness" or "mental silence" in which the meditator is alert and aware but is free of any unnecessary mental activity. The state of thoughtless awareness is usually accompanied by emotionally positive experiences of bliss. In general, the outcome of the meditative process is associated with a sense of relaxation and positive mood and a feeling of benevolence toward oneself and others.

As Yoga also involves exercises to strengthen the body and voluntarily control different aspects of breathing, success in these techniques can be evaluated against the standards for practice (e.g., achieving a 1:4:2 ratio in inhalation, retention, and exhalation), or developing the ability to reduce the rate of respiration to one breath per minute for 1 or 2 hours. Successful practice can also be determined by a subjective and objective evaluation of the achievement of some of the reported health benefits.

#### Tai Chi

Tai Chi (also romanized as Tai Chi Ch'uan, T'ai Chi Ch'uan, Taijiquan, Taiji, or T'ai Chi) has a history stretching back to the 13th century A.D. to the Sung dynasty. <sup>147</sup> There are five main schools, or styles, of Tai Chi, each named for the style's founding family: Yang, Chen, Sun, Wu (Jian Qian), and Wu (He Qin). <sup>148</sup> Each style has a characteristic technique that differs from other styles in the postures or forms included, the order in which the forms appear, the pace at which movements are executed, and the level of difficulty of the technique. <sup>148</sup> Though differing in focus on posture and the position of the center of gravity, all styles emphasize relaxation, mental concentration, and movement coordination. <sup>147</sup> Tai Chi practice usually involves the need to memorize the names associated with each posture and the sequence of postures. <sup>148</sup>

Main components. The practice of Tai Chi encompasses exercises that promote posture, flexibility, relaxation, well-being, and mental concentration. <sup>148,149</sup> It is characterized by extreme slowness of movement, absolute continuity without break or pause, and a total focusing of awareness on the moment. <sup>150</sup> Unlike most exercises that are characterized by muscular force and exertion, the movements of Tai Chi are slow, gentle and light. The active concentration of the mind is instrumental in guiding the flow of the body's movements. <sup>151</sup> Thus, Tai Chi is not only a physical exercise, but also involves training the mind, and this has prompted some to consider the practice "moving meditation." <sup>148-150</sup> Although Tai Chi follows the principles of other types of martial arts that focus on self-defense, its primary objective is to promote health and peace of mind. In contrast to other martial arts, Tai Chi is performed slowly, with deep and consistent breathing. <sup>151</sup> The movements should be performed in a quiet place that will help the practitioner to achieve a relaxed state. The muscles and joints are relaxed and the body is able to move easily from one position to another. The spine is in a natural erect position, and the head, torso, arms, and legs should be able to move freely and gently. The upper body is straight, never bending forward or backward, or leaning left or right. <sup>152</sup>

**Breathing.** Several different breathing techniques are employed in Tai Chi; however, the principal breathing technique, called "natural breathing," is the foundation for all other breathing techniques. In natural breathing, the practitioner takes a slow, deep (but not strained) breath, inhaling and exhaling through the nose. The mouth is closed, but the teeth are not clenched. The tip of the tongue is held lightly against the roof of the mouth. As the air is taken in, the lower abdomen expands. Once the lungs are adequately filled with air, the person exhales and the lower abdomen contracts. The breath is never held. The eyes should be lightly closed. <sup>152</sup>

The movements of Tai Chi are coordinated with the breath, and the pattern of breathing follows the succession of opposing movements of the arms: inhalation takes place when the arms are extended outward or upward, exhalation occurs as arms are contracted or brought downward. Breathing eventually becomes an unconscious part of the exercise; however, its importance in the practice never diminishes. <sup>150</sup>

**Attention and its object.** Throughout the practice, the mind remains alert but tranquil, directing the smooth series of movements and focusing on one's internal energy. This active concentration is integral to the practice. <sup>149,151</sup> It has been argued that if Tai Chi movements are performed without concentration, Tai Chi is no different from other forms of exercise. The

variety and distinctiveness of the movements ensure that one concentrates on the execution of the movements.<sup>151</sup>

**Spirituality and belief.** Tai Chi derives its philosophical orientation from the opposing elements of *yang* (activity) and *yin* (inactivity) and from *qi* (breath energy). In accordance with the symbols of yin and yang, Tai Chi movements are circular. The movements are designed to balance the qi, or vital energy, in the meridians of the body, and strengthen the qi, thus preventing illness. Like Yoga, the practice of Tai Chi does not require adopting a specific spiritual or belief system and has been used clinically as a therapeutic intervention.

**Training.** The exercise routines of the different forms of Tai Chi vary in the number of postures and in the time required to complete the routine, <sup>147</sup> with some Tai Chi programs being modified to suit the abilities of practitioners with declining physical and mental function. <sup>148</sup> Classical Yang Tai Chi includes 108 postures with some repeated sequences. Each training session includes a 20-minute warm-up, 24 minutes of Tai Chi practice, and a 10-minute cooldown. The warm-up consists of 10 movements with 10 to 20 repetitions. However, the exercise intensity depends on training style, posture, and duration. <sup>154</sup>

When practiced solely as an exercise form, sessions should occur twice a day and last about 15 minutes, 4 or more days per week.<sup>147</sup> Practitioners are not required to continue training permanently with a Tai Chi teacher, and can continue practice as a form of self-therapy.<sup>152</sup> When used as a system of self-defense, Tai Chi must be practiced with a Master and long enough to develop a deep understanding and "body memory" of the movements.<sup>155</sup> However, as a healing practice, years of study are not required and the typical practitioner may be able to learn the fundamental movements within a week.<sup>155</sup>

**Criteria of successful meditation practice.** The overall aim is not to "master" the movements, but to appreciate a developing sense of inner and outer harmony as the movements become more fluid, yet controlled, and the mind more alert, yet peaceful. <sup>149</sup> To learn and practice Tai Chi successfully, practitioners must adopt and practice specific traditional principles of posture and movement such as holding the head in vertical alignment, relaxing the chest and straightening the back, using mental focus instead of physical force, and seeking calmness of mind in movement. <sup>148</sup>

## Qi Gong

Qi Gong is classified as one of the practices known as "energy healing," a category that includes Reiki, therapeutic touch, <sup>156</sup> and the Korean practice of Chundosunbup. Dating back more than 3,000 years to the Shang Dynasty (1600 to 1100 B.C.), Qi Gong is believed to be the basis for traditional Chinese medicine. <sup>157</sup> Qi Gong is intimately connected with the practice of Tai Chi in that both exercises utilize proper body positioning, efficient movement, and deep breathing. A quiet focused mind is also essential to both. The main difference between Qi Gong and Tai Chi is that Tai Chi is a martial art. Usually practiced slowly, Tai Chi movements can be sped up to provide a form of self-defense, whereas this is not the case with the forms of Qi Gong. As a result, the visualization that accompanies a particular form is different: for a movement in Tai Chi that might involve visualizing the external consequences of a motion (e.g., disabling one's adversary), the same movement in Qi Gong would involve the visualization of an internal consequence of qi flow (e.g., qi flowing down your arm, healing your arthritis). <sup>155</sup> There are two forms of Qi Gong practice: internal (nei qi), consisting of individual practice, and external (wai qi), whereby a Qi Gong practitioner

"emits" qi for the purpose of healing another person. <sup>156,158</sup> External Qi Gong is not a meditative practice according to the working definition developed for this report. Specifically, is not a self-applied practice, and there is a relationship of dependency between the practitioner and the person being treated. For this reason, this review is restricted to studies using internal Qi Gong.

Qi Gong is said to have several thousand forms. There are five main schools or styles of Qi Gong, each emphasizing a different purpose for practice<sup>157</sup> and incorporating different exercises: Taoist, Buddhist, Confucian, Medical, and Martial.<sup>155</sup> It is believed that every Qi Gong style has its own special training methods, objectives, and compatibility with an individual's constitution and physique.<sup>159</sup> Despite this variation in technique, the main function of Qi Gong is to regulate the mind.<sup>160</sup>

**Main components.** Qi Gong, literally "breathless exercise," consists primarily of meditation, physical movements, and breathing exercises. The main components of Qi Gong vary, but most emphasize correct posture and body alignment, regulation of respiration, posture, and mind, as well as self-massage and movement of the limbs. <sup>155,160</sup> In general, Qi Gong consists of two aspects: (1) dynamic or active Qi Gong, which involves visible movement of the body, typically through a set of slowly enacted exercises, usually performed in a relaxed stationary position; <sup>155</sup> and (2) meditative or passive Qi Gong, which comprises still positions with inner movement of the diaphragm. <sup>156</sup> In some concentration practices, the eyes are closed and the tip of the tongue touches the front of the upper palate. <sup>160</sup> Essential to both aspects of practice are alert concentration, precise control of abdominal breathing, and a mental concentration on qi flow. <sup>156</sup>

Qi Gong, as a practice of self-regulation, includes regulation of the body (e.g., relaxation and posture), breath (to breathe deeply and slowly), and mind (thinking and emotion). Methods for the regulation of the mind vary. Some forms of Qi Gong stress thinking, e.g., focusing on a specific object or visualization. Other forms emphasize regulation of the emotions (e.g., a peaceful and calm mood), but let thinking go or remain "no-thought." Accordingly, Qi Gong techniques may be classified as one of two forms: concentrative Qi Gong and nonconcentrative Qi Gong. Self-practice of Qi Gong consists of three major forms: guided movement (dynamic form), pile standing, and static meditation. Whether with motion or without, the aim of Qi Gong is to remove all thoughts and focus on a region of the body known as "dantian" (the elixir field). As the body relaxes, the mind concentrates on the elixir field and all other thoughts are erased, while respiration becomes deeper and gradually decreases in frequency. When the respiration rate is decreased to four or five times per minute, the subject falls into the so-called Qi Gong state. It is recommended that a student practice only one type of Qi Gong before learning another as not all techniques are congruent.

**Breathing.** Qi Gong breathing is characterized by a concentration of attention on dantian in concert with inhalation, exhalation, and holding of breath in order to stimulate qi and blood, and to strengthen the body. <sup>159</sup> There are many ways to regulate the breath in Qi Gong including natural breathing, chest breathing, abdominal and reverse-abdominal breathing, holding the breath, and one-sided nostril and alternating nostril techniques. <sup>160</sup>

**Attention and its object.** A main tenet of Qi Gong is that intention can direct the qi within the body; the mind leads the qi, and qi leads the blood. <sup>158</sup> To exert this control over qi, the practitioner must calm the mind and clear it of thoughts. A person's success Qi Gong is directly related to the ability to concentrate in this way. This is done by focusing the mind and

body on correct breathing, and the visualization of qi as a substance moving through the body. 160

**Spirituality and belief.** Qi Gong posits the existence of a subtle energy (qi) that circulates throughout the entire human body. Pain and disease are considered to be the result of qi blockage or imbalance; strengthening and balancing qi flow can improve health and ward off disease. Taoism, an ancient spiritual tradition in East Asia, is a philosophical perspective underlying the practice of Qi Gong. The Tao is the indefinable ultimate reality—the process involving every aspect in nature and in the entire universe. Similar to the worldviews of Buddhism and Hinduism, Taoism emphasizes harmony with nature. The universe is viewed in a dynamically continuous flow and constant change. 163

Basic concepts considered essential to the understanding of Qi Gong include qi, vital energy, and gong, the skill, control, training, cultivation and practice of adjusting physical, mental and spiritual phenomena. Yin and yang, two other crucial concepts, are complementary opposites: yin signifies decrease, stillness, darkness, the six solid organs (lungs, spleen, heart, kidneys, pericardium, and liver), and bodily substances; yang signifies increase, activity, lightness, the upper and exterior parts of the body, the six hollow organs (large intestine, stomach, small intestine, urinary bladder, gallbladder, san jiao [not an organ, but the sum of the functions of transformation and interpenetration of various densities and qualities of substance within the organism]), and bodily functions. <sup>160</sup>

**Training.** Because of the possibility of Qi Gong-induced disorders from improper practice, or from the combination of incongruent forms, proper coaching is considered mandatory for safe Qi Gong practice. <sup>159</sup> Qi Gong should be practiced twice daily for 20 to 30 minutes <sup>160,164</sup> with no single session exceeding 3 hours. <sup>159</sup>

**Criteria of successful meditation practice.** Correctness of technique is judged by a Qi Gong Master. No statement of the criteria for evaluating successful outcomes was available in the literature.

## **Characteristics of Meditation Practices**

## **Main Components**

What are the main components of the various meditation practices? Which components are universal and which ones are supplemental?.

The variety of meditation practices is an indication of the diversity of the combination of main components and the way in which a given component may be emphasized in a practice. Given the multitude of practices and the many variations or techniques within these practices, it is impossible to select components that might be considered universal or supplemental across practices. Some practices prescribe specific postures (e.g., Zen Buddhist meditation, Tai Chi, Yoga) while others are less concerned with the exact position of the body (e.g., TM®, RR, CSM). Some practices (e.g., Vipassana, Zen Buddhist meditation, Yoga, Tai Chi, and Qi Gong) incorporate moving meditation, while others are strictly seated meditations (e.g., TM®, RR, and CSM). Some clinically-based practices (e.g., MBSR, MBCT), though guided by the underlying practice of mindfulness, combine several techniques. In this, however, they are not substantially different from older multifaceted meditation practices such as Yoga.

More detailed summaries addressing the main components used to describe individual practices are described below and summarized in Table 4. However, it is worth noting here some general conclusions that can be drawn from them. Though some statement about the use of breathing is universal across the practices, this seems more indicative of the ubiquitousness of breathing in humans rather than a universal feature of meditation practices per se. The control of attention is putatively universal; however, as noted below, there are at least two aspects of attention that might be employed and a wide variety of techniques for anchoring the attention, no one of which is universal. In terms of the spiritual or belief component of meditation, no meditation practice required the adoption of a specific religious framework. However, if Taoist metaphysical assumptions of Qi Gong are crucial to correctly understanding, visualizing, and guiding qi flow, then at least this practice would seem to require the adoption of a particular belief system. Nevertheless, this aspect of all meditation practices is poorly described, and it is unclear in what way and to what extent spirituality and belief play a role in the successful practice of meditation at all levels. The amount of variation in the described frequency and duration of practice make it difficult to draw generalizations about the training requirements for meditation techniques. Lastly, the criteria for successful meditation, for both the correct practice of the technique and the achievement of successful outcomes, have not been described well in the literature.

#### **Breathing**

How is breathing incorporated in these practices? Are there specific breathing patterns that are integral elements of meditation? Is breathing passive or directed?

The use of the breath is ubiquitous in all practices; however, the importance and attention given to it vary from practice to practice. Each meditation practice and technique has a breathing pattern or element that can be considered integral to that technique, whether the breath is actively controlled in terms of its timing and depth (e.g., Zen Buddhist meditation, Yoga, Tai Chi), or passive and "natural" (e.g., TM®, RR, CSM, Vipassana, MBCT). The practice of Yoga, which covers thousands of techniques, uses both active and passive breathing. Though the direction for active breathing may be relatively uniform across the techniques in a given practice (e.g., Zen Buddhist meditation), other practices use a wide array of breathing techniques that change according to the outcome desired (e.g., Kundalini yoga). For those practices that utilize passive breathing, there is no consistent pattern or rhythm as "breathing naturally" will vary from practitioner to practitioner.

## **Attention and Its Object**

For each type of meditation practice, where is the attention directed during meditation (e.g., mantra, breath, image, nothing)?

The purposeful focusing of attention is considered crucial in all meditation practices. However, like breathing, the techniques for anchoring attention vary and there is no single method shared by all practices. For those practices that use a mantra (e.g., TM<sup>®</sup>, RR, CSM),

in some the mantra may be repeated silently, and in some aloud. The factors surrounding the choice of the mantra vary and the nature of the mantra chosen will influence the number of associations brought forth by the word and the vibrations caused by the vocalization of the mantra. Some mantras will have no meaning to Western practitioners unfamiliar with Sanskrit (e.g., TM<sup>®</sup>, CSM, Yoga), while others will (e.g., RR).

Other forms of meditation practice focus attention on bodily sensations (e.g., Vipassana, MBSR, MBCT) or a body part (e.g., Tai Chi) to the exclusion of other thoughts. The so-called mindfulness techniques focus on the breath and cultivate an objective openness to whatever comes into awareness. Though this may be interpreted as not focusing attention, or, as it is sometimes paradoxically phrased, as focusing on nothing, the attention is controlled and directed with the aim of achieving a distance from one's emotional and cognitive responses to the objects in the field of attention. The difference between mindfulness meditation and other practices lies in the acceptance of these other thoughts into the field of awareness.

Though the distinction between concentrative and mindfulness meditation has prima facie validity, the reality is somewhat more complicated because some practices, such as Zen and Vipassana, have phases where concentration is used, and for which certain techniques such as counting or concentrating on a mantra are employed, while at other stages broad spaced mindful attention is encouraged.

#### **Spirituality and Belief**

To what extent is spirituality a part of meditation? To what extent is belief a part of meditation?

The one common feature of all meditation practices examined in this review is the apparent ability to practice meditation without adopting a specific system of spiritual or religious belief. However, the extent to which spirituality and belief are part of any given meditation practice is poorly described. Furthermore, if the Taoist metaphysical assumptions of Qi Gong are crucial to successfully understand, visualize, and guide qi, then at least this practice requires adoping a specific belief system.

The extent to which spirituality or belief play a role in any meditation practice appears to depend in large part on the individual practitioner. Though the traditional practices were developed within specific spiritual or religious contexts (Vipassana, Zen Buddhist meditation, Yoga, Tai Chi, Qi Gong), and therefore have spiritual or religious aspects, this does not mean that a practitioner must adopt the belief systems upon which they were based. In addition, some practices developed for purposes other than spiritual enlightenment; for example, Tai Chi and Qi Gong were developed within a system martial exercise and Traditional Chinese Medicine, respectively. Though Yoga, too, has spiritual and religious components, it is often considered more properly a system of metaphysics and psychology, especially when the ethical instructions are ignored. In summary, it appears that all meditation practices can be performed, to some degree, without adopting a specific system of spirituality or belief.

## **Training**

What are the training requirements for the various meditation practices (e.g., the range of training periods, frequency of training, individual and group approaches)?

Training refers to the specific periods of practice, the frequency and duration of practice, and how long a practitioner is expected to train before becoming proficient in a given technique. The training for meditation varies with periods of practice, ranging from 5 minutes (RR, Vipassana) to several hours (Yoga). The frequency of practice ranges from daily (MBSR, MBCT, Tai Chi, Vipassana, Yoga) to twice daily (TM<sup>®</sup>, RR, CSM, Qi Gong). Zen meditation does not specify a frequency of practice. Few practices give a required duration of practice; however, some (Yoga, Zen Buddhist meditation) give an indication of the time required to master a given technique.

#### Criteria of Successful Meditation Practice

How is the success of the meditation practice determined (i.e., was it practiced properly)? What criteria are used to determine successful meditation practice?

The criteria of successful meditation practice is understood both in terms of the successful practice of a specific technique (i.e., the technique is practiced properly) and in terms of achieving the aim of the meditation practice (e.g., leading to reduced stress, calmness of mind, or spiritual enlightenment).

The successful practice of a specific technique is sometimes judged by an experienced or master practitioner (TM<sup>®</sup>, MBSR, Yoga, Tai Chi, Qi Gong), and in some cases it can be judged by the individual (RR, CSM). However, the proliferation of self-instruction books and videos for some of the practices that also recommend an experienced teacher implies that individuals may judge, to some degree, the success of a practice.

Table 4. Characteristics of included meditation practices

Meditation practice	Main components	Breathing	Attention	Spirituality/belief	Training	Criteria for success
Mantra meditation						
TM <sup>®</sup>	Sitting (no prescribed posture) Personalized Sanskrit mantra Eyes closed	Passive, unconnected to repetition of mantra No description of breathing	Attention directed to prescribed mantra Mantra repeated silently	No specific spiritual or religious beliefs required	Taught in 4 consecutive days (preceded by two 1-hour lectures and a 5-10 minute interview) in a 1- hour training session and three 1.5 hour group sessions. Individual instruction Practiced twice daily, 15-20 min/session Instruction by qualified TM® teacher	Proper technique as judged by experienced TM <sup>®</sup> teacher; no specific criteria
Relaxation Response	Comfortable posture (sitting, kneeling, squatting) Eyes open or closed Can also include body scan and information sessions	Passive, but mantra is "linked" to exhalation Nasal	Attention focused on the breath Mantra repeated silently Thoughts are ignored	No specific spiritual or religious beliefs required	Taught in 5-min training session Individual instruction Practiced twice daily, 15-20 min/session and not before 2hrs after a meal	Proper technique according to subjective evaluation and measured against reported effects of RR
Clinically Standardized Meditation	Comfortable seated posture Sanskrit mantra or individually chosen mantra Eyes open initially and focused on pleasant object, then closed for repetition of mantra	Passive, unconnected to repetition of mantra	Attention directed to individually chosen mantra (1 of 16) Mantra repeated aloud and then at decreasing volume until it is repeated silently Thoughts recognized, but not focused on	No specific spiritual or religious beliefs required	Taught in 2 1-hr lessons Individual instruction or training manual and audio tapes Practiced twice daily for 20 min/session	Proper technique according to subjective evaluation and measured against reports of effects of CSM

Table 4. Characteristics of included meditation practices (continued)

Meditation practice	Main components	Breathing	Attention	Spirituality/belief	Training	Criteria for success	
Mindfulness n	Mindfulness meditation						
Vipassana	Cultivation of a "mindful" attitude Seated posture	Passive Nasal	Attention is focused on the breath (first on the inhalation and exhalation, then shifted to rims of the nostrils) or on bodily sensations	No specific spiritual or religious beliefs required	No specific training period given Session should last no longer than one can comfortably sit Novice meditators no longer than 20 min	Proper technique determined by experienced meditator or by self-evaluation	
Zen	Specific seated postures (lotus or half-lotus), positioning of hands, mouth and tongue Eyes half closed and focused on point on floor	Active Inhale through nose, exhale through mouth and nasal only Many breathing patterns	Attention focused on counting of breath, on a koan or "just sitting."  Breath counted by 1 of 3 methods  No attempt to focus on single idea or experience	No specific spiritual or religious beliefs required; however, attitude of nonpurposefulness is essential	No specific training period given Sessions may last from several minutes to several hours	Successful practice determined by experienced teacher; specific personal experience of the true nature of reality	
MBSR	Cultivation of a "mindful" attitude Prescribed postures Seated meditation Body scan (supine posture) Hatha yoga postures	Active (diaphragmatic breathing) and passive	Seated meditation:    attention focused    on breath as it    passes edge of    nostrils or on rising    and falling of    abdomen Body scan: attention    focused on    somatic    sensations in the    part of the body    being "scanned." Hatha yoga:    attention focused    on breath and the    sensations that    arise as different    postures are    assumed	No specific spiritual or religious beliefs required; however, strong commitment and self-discipline are essential	Taught in an 8- week course involving weekly 2-3 hr classes and 45-min sessions at home 6 days a week with homework exercises After course, practiced daily for 45 min Group instruction by an experienced MBSR practitioner	Successful meditation requires the technique be taught by an teacher experienced in mindfulness meditation; achievement of successful health outcomes	

Table 4. Characteristics of included meditation practices (continued)

Meditation practice	Main components	Breathing	Attention	Spirituality/belief	Training	Criteria for success
Mindfulness n	neditation (continued)					
MBCT	Based on MBSR program Cultivation of "decentered" or "mindful" perspective Seated meditation Body scan	Passive	Seated meditation: attention focused on breath as it passes edge of nostrils or on rising and falling of abdomen Body scan: attention focused on somatic sensations in the part of the body being "scanned	No specific spiritual or religious beliefs required	Taught in an 8-week course involving weekly 2-hr classes and 45-min sessions at home 6 days a week with homework exercises Program taught in 2 main components: (1) teaching of mindfulness, (2) learning to handle mood shifts Group instruction by an experienced practitioner of mindfulness meditation	Successful meditation requires the technique be taught by an teacher experienced in mindfulness meditation; successful prevention of depressive relapse as determined by clinical evaluation
Yoga						
Kundalini yoga, Sahaja yoga, and Hatha yoga (many styles)	Emphasis of components vary among "schools" but can include ethical observances, physical postures, breathing techniques, concentrative and mindfulness meditation	Active and passive Techniques vary	Awareness for all techniques is centered on the breath Some techniques also focus on posture	No specific spiritual or religious beliefs required unless the ethical component is included	Regular daily practice from 15 min to several hours; instruction by an experienced Yogi or Guru; may take several years or longer to properly execute asanas and pranayama	Successful technique is judged by the individual or Guru against the standards for posture and breathing and against reported benefits of successful practice

Table 4. Characteristics of included meditation practices (continued)

Meditation practice	Main components	Breathing	Attention	Spirituality/belief	Training	Criteria for success
Tai Chi						
Yang, Chen, Sun, Wu (Jian Qian), and Wu (He Qin) styles	A routine of slow, deliberate movements (movements and postures vary among schools) Body relaxed, upper body erect, not bending Mouth closed, teeth not clenched	Active Nasal	Attention is focused on movement and on one's internal energy (qi)	No specific spiritual or religious beliefs required	Routines vary in number of postures and duration Classical Yang-style Tai Chi includes 108 postures and takes approximately 20-25 min to complete; practice also includes a 20-min warm-up and 10-min cooldown Should practice everyday	Proper movement and posture as judged by experienced Tai Chi teacher
Qi Gong						
Many techniques	Meditation Prescribed posture for seated meditation Movements practiced in a relaxed stationary position Breathing exercises	Active Techniques vary	Attention is focused on the "elixir field" and on the inhalation and exhalation of the breath	No specific spiritual or religious beliefs required	Practiced twice daily for 20-30 min with no single session exceeding 3 hr	Proper movement and posture as judged by experienced Qi Gong teacher Safe practice requires instruction by experienced Qi Gong teacher

## Search Results for Topics II to V

The combined search strategies identified 11,030 citations. After screening titles and abstracts, 2,366 references were selected for further examination. The manuscripts of 81 articles were not retrieved (Appendix E).\* The majority of the unretrieved studies were abstracts from conference proceedings and articles from nonindexed journals and were requested through our interlibrary loan service, but did not arrive within the 9-month cutoff that we established for article retrieval. Therefore, the full text of 2,285 potentially relevant articles was retrieved and evaluated for inclusion in the review. The application of the selection criteria to the 2,285 articles resulted in 911 articles being included and 1,374 excluded. Figure 2 outlines study retrieval and selection for the review.

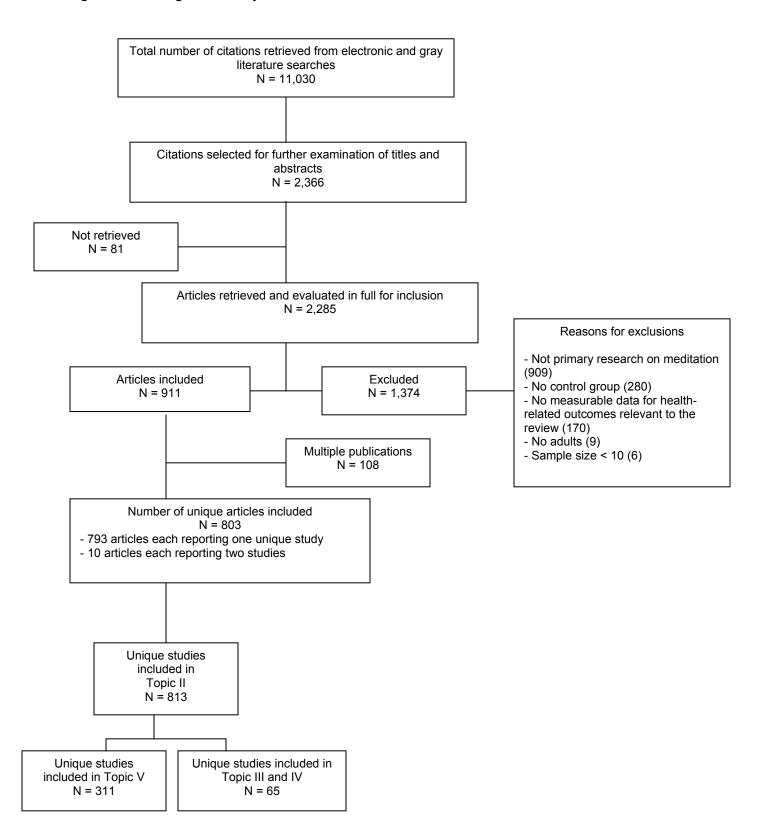
The primary reasons for excluding studies were as follows: (1) the study was not primary research on meditation practices (n= 909), (2) the study did not have a control group (n= 280), (3) the study did not report adequately on measurable data for health-related outcomes relevant to the review (n= 170), (4) the study did not examine an adult population (n= 9), and (5) the study sample included less than 10 participants (n= 6) (Appendix E)\*. The level of agreement between reviewers for inclusion and exclusion of studies was substantial (kappa = 0.84, 95% CI, 0.80 to 0.87).

From 911 included articles, 108 were identified as multiple publications; <sup>165</sup> that is, cases in which the same study was published more than once, or part of data from an original report was republished. <sup>166</sup> The multiple publications were not considered to be unique studies and any information that they provided was included with the data reported in the main study (Appendix F).\* The report that was published first was regarded as the main study. In total, 803 articles were included in this report 10 of which each reported on two studies. Therefore, this report included 813 unique studies reported in 803 articles.

-

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

Figure 2. Flow-diagram for study retrieval and selection for the review



# Topic II. State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare

#### **General Characteristics**

Eight hundred and thirteen studies provided evidence regarding the state of research on the therapeutic use of meditation. Tables G1 to G3 of Appendix G\* summarize the key characteristics of studies included in topic II.

The studies were published between 1956 and 2005, with 51 percent of the studies (n = 417) published after 1994. Most of the studies (86 percent, n = 701) were published as journal articles. Seventy-nine (10 percent) were theses or dissertations, 25 (3 percent) were abstracts from scientific conferences, and 5 (0.5 percent) were book chapters or letters. Three unpublished studies (0.5 percent) were identified by contacting investigators. Studies were conducted in North America (61 percent), Asia (24 percent), Europe (11 percent), Australasia (3 percent) and other regions (1 percent).

Of the 813 studies included, 67 percent (n = 547) were intervention studies (286 RCTs, 114 NRCTs and 147 before-and-after studies), and 33 percent (n = 266) were observational analytical studies (149 cohort and 117 cross-sectional studies).

## **Methodological Quality**

**Intervention studies.** Overall, the methodological quality of the 286 RCTs was poor (median Jadad score = 2/5; IQR, 1 to 2). Only 14 percent (n = 40) of the RCTs were considered of high quality (i.e., Jadad scores greater than or equal to 3 points). Three studies <sup>167-169</sup> obtained 4 points on the Jadad scale, and none obtained a perfect score (5 points). The remaining 246 RCTs had a high risk of bias.

The methodological quality of the RCTs was analyzed by the individual components of the Jadad scale. We found that 21 percent (n = 60) described how the randomization was carried out. Among these 60 trials, 75 percent (n = 45) reported adequate methods to randomize study participants to treatment groups, whereas 25 percent (n = 15) used inappropriate and unreliable methods (i.e., alternation or methods based on patient characteristics) that might have introduced imbalances and jeopardized the estimates of the overall treatment effect.

The vast majority of RCTs (97 percent, n = 278) did not use double blinding to hide the identity of the assigned interventions from the participant and assessor, or hide the hypothesis from the instructor and participant or participant and assessor. One of them<sup>170</sup> described an inadequate method of double blinding while the others did not provide any description about the double-blinding procedures. Finally, 51 percent (n = 145) of the RCTs provided a description of withdrawals and dropouts from the study.

Concealment of treatment allocation (separating the process of randomization from the recruitment of participants) was adequately reported in 12 (4 percent) RCTs and was inadequate in 2 (1 percent) RCTs. The majority of RCTs (272, 95 percent) failed to describe how they

\*Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

56

concealed the allocation to the interventions under study. Finally, funding source was disclosed in 41 percent (n = 118) of the RCTs. A summary of the methodological quality of RCTs is presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Methodological quality of RCTs

Quality components	N studies (%)
Randomization	286 (100)
Double blinding	8 (2.8)
Appropriate randomization	45 (15.6)
Appropriate double blinding	
Inappropriate randomization	15 (5.2)
Inappropriate double blinding	1 (0.3)
Description withdrawals	145 (50.7)
Total Jadad score (max 5); median (IQR)	2 (1, 2)
Number of high quality RCTs (Jadad score ≥3)	40 (13.9)
Appropriate concealment of allocation	12 (4.1)
Funding reported	118 (41.3)

IQR = interquartile range; RCT = randomized controlled trial

Overall, the quality of the 114 NRCTs was low (median modified Jadad score: 0/3; IQR, 0 to 1). Forty-six percent (n = 52) of the NRCTs obtained only 1 point out of 3 for the individual components of the Jadad scale, most frequently for the description of withdrawals and dropouts. The remaining 54 percent (n = 62) of the NRCTs did not score any points. Finally, the source of funding was cited in 26 percent (n = 30) of the NRCTs. A summary of the methodological quality of NRCTs is presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Methodological quality of NRCTs

Quality components	N studies (%)
Double blinding	
Appropriate double blinding	
Inappropriate double blinding	
Description withdrawals	52 (45.6)
Total modified Jadad score (max 3), median (IQR)	0 (0, 1)
Funding reported	30 (26.3)

NRCT = nonrandomized controlled trials

The quality of the 147 before-and-after studies was poor. Only 16 percent (n = 23) of the before-and-after studies included representative samples of the target population. Descriptions of the number of study withdrawals (31 percent, n = 45), reasons for study withdrawals (14 percent, n = 20), and blinding of outcome assessors to intervention and assessment periods (2 percent, n = 3) were also infrequent. Better quality results were obtained for the homogeneity in the methods for outcome assessment for the pre- and postintervention periods for all participants. Finally, funding source was disclosed in 28 percent (n = 41) of the before-and-after studies. A summary of the methodological quality of the before-and-after studies is presented in Table 7. Studies that

were included in the analysis of the methodological quality of RCTs, NRCTs, and before-and-after studies are summarized in Table G4 in Appendix G.\*

Table 7. Methodological quality of before-and-after studies

Quality components	N studies (%)
Study population representative of the target population	23 (15.6)
The method of outcome assessment was the same for the pre and post intervention periods for all participants	140 (95.2)
Outcome assessors were blind to intervention and assessment period	3 (2)
Description of the number of study withdrawals	45 (30.6)
Description of the reasons for study withdrawal	20 (13.6)
Funding reported	41 (27.9)

**Observational analytical studies.** The quality of reporting of cohort studies was evaluated with the individual components of the NOS scale regarding the selection and comparability of the cohorts, and outcome assessment. Overall, the methodological quality of the 149 cohort studies was poor (median NOS score = 3/9 stars; IQR; 2 to 4), suggesting a high risk of bias in these studies. Table 8 displays the methodological quality of the cohort studies assessed with the NOS scale.

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

Table 8. Methodological quality of cohort studies (NOS scale)

	Quality components	N studies (%)
	Representativeness of the exposed cohort	
	Truly representative of the average group in the community*	12 (8.1)
	Somewhat representative of the average group in the community*	43 (28.9)
	Selected group of participants	88 (59.1)
	No description of the derivation of the cohort	6 (4.0)
	Selection of the nonexposed cohort	
	Drawn from the same community as the exposed cohort*	56 (37.6)
	Drawn from a different source	79 (53.0)
	No description of the derivation of the nonexposed cohort	14 (9.4)
Selection of the cohorts	Ascertainment of exposure	
	Secure record*	10 (6.7)
	Structured interview	4 (2.7)
	Written self-report	21 (14.1)
	No description of exposure ascertainment	114 (76.5)
	Ascertainment of outcome	
	Demonstration that the outcome(s) of interest was not present at the start of the study*	10 (6.7)
	Study controls for two or more important confounding factors*	48 (32.2)
the cohorts	Study controls for at least one important confounding factor*	51 (34.2)
the cohorts	No adjustment for important confounding factors in the design or analysis of the study	50 (33.6)

\* Positive responses earn stars for the final score.

IQR = interquartile range; NOS = Newcastle-Ottawa Scale

Table 8. Methodological quality of cohort studies (NOS scale) (continued)

	Quality components	N studies (%)
	Assessment of outcome	
	Independent blind assessment*	24 (16.1)
	Record linkage*	85 (57.0)
ent	Self-report	38 (25.5)
SIIIG	No description of outcomes assessment	2 (1.3)
assessment	Length of followup	
	Followup long enough for outcomes to occur*	44 (29.5)
	Adequacy of followup of cohorts	
Juicoine	Complete followup (all subjects accounted for)*	17 (11.4)
Ō	Subjects lost to followup unlikely to introduce bias*	12 (8.1)
	Lost to followup likely to introduce bias	8 (5.4)
	No description of losses to followup	112 (75.2)
NOS tot	al score (max 9); median (IQR)	3 (2, 4)

In general, the cohort studies failed to protect against selection bias when assembling the exposed and nonexposed cohorts. Participants in 60 percent (n = 94) of the studies were not representative of the target population about which conclusions were to be drawn. The selection of the nonexposed cohort was equally compromised (62 percent, n = 93).

Detection bias affecting the ascertainment of both exposure and outcome was introduced in 139 (93 percent) studies. These studies did not use reliable methods to ensure that no differences in accuracy of exposure data between the cohorts existed. A similar proportion was found for studies that failed to demonstrate that the outcomes of interest were not present at the start of the study. Similarly, 105 (71 percent) cohort studies did not provide enough information to assess whether the length of the followup period was sufficient for outcomes to occur.

Attrition bias was substantial; only 20 percent (n = 29) of the studies reported followup rates unlikely to introduce differences between the comparison groups. The only methodological component that did not appear to be severely jeopardized was the control of confounders in the design or analysis. Sixty-six percent (n = 99) of the cohort studies adjusted for potential confounders either in the design or analysis. Finally, 28 percent (n = 41) of the cohort studies reported the source of funding.

The methodological quality of the cross-sectional studies was poor (median NOS total score = 2/6 stars; IQR, 1 to 3). The methodological characteristics of cross-sectional studies are summarized in Table 9. The cross-sectional studies had less prominent methodological weaknesses than the cohort studies.

Over half of the cross-sectional studies (53 percent, n = 62) chose study groups that were at least somewhat representative of the target population. However, only 21 percent of the studies (n = 24) drew the comparison groups from the same population as the study group. None of the studies used secure methods for ascertainment of exposure. Half of the cross-sectional studies (54 percent, n = 63) adjusted for potential confounders either in the design or analysis and used relatively reliable methods for assessing the outcomes (53 percent, n = 62). Finally, only 27 (23 percent) cross-sectional studies disclosed their source of funding.

Studies that were included in the analysis of the methodological quality of cohort and cross-sectional studies are summarized in Table G5 in Appendix G.\*

60

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

Table 9. Methodological quality of cross-sectional studies (NOS scale)

	Quality components	N studies (%)
	Representativeness of the study group	
	Truly representative of the average group in the community*	1 (0.9)
Selection of the comparison groups	Somewhat representative of the average group in the community*	61 (52.1)
gro	Selected group of participants	12 (10.3)
nog	No description of the derivation of the study group	43 (36.8)
aris	Selection of the comparison group	
duc	Drawn from the same community as the study group*	24 (20.5)
0 0	Drawn from a different source	56 (47.9)
ţ	No description of the derivation of the comparison group	37 (31.6)
ō ⊑	Ascertainment of exposure	
ctio	Secure record*	
ele	Structured interview	
O)	Written self-report	2 (1.7)
	No description of exposure ascertainment	115 (98.3)
ے م	Study controls for two or more important confounding factors*	49 (41.8)
oility ariso	Study controls for at least one important confounding factor*	14 (12)
Comparability of the comparison groups	No adjustment for important confounding factors in the design or analysis of the study	54 (46.2)
	Assessment of outcome	
ŧ	Independent blind assessment*	
me	Record linkage*	62 (53.0)
Outcome ssessment	Self-report	52 (44.4)
ass o	No description of outcomes assessment	3 (2.6)
NOS total s	core (max 9); median (IQR)	2 (1, 3)

<sup>\*</sup> Positive responses earn stars for the final score.

IQR = interquartile range; NOS = Newcastle-Ottawa Scale

## Meditation Practices Examined in Clinical Trials and Observational Studies

Eight hundred and thirteen studies described meditation practices examined in intervention studies (RCTs, NRCTs, and before-and-after studies) and observational analytical studies (cohort and cross-sectional studies with control groups).

Overall, 86 percent (n = 698) of the studies reported on single interventions, whereas 14 percent (n = 115) reported on composite interventions. The composite interventions included either meditation practices combined with each other, or with other therapeutic strategies within holistic treatment programs. Table 10 reports the type of meditation practices that have been examined in intervention studies and observational analytical studies. Table G6 in Appendix  $G^*$ 

-

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

provides the references of studies included for this question along with their distribution by meditation practice and study design.

Table 10. Meditation practices examined in intervention and observational analytical studies

Meditation practice	Inte	ervention	studies (n)		oservational analytical studies (n) T		
	RCT	NRCT	Before-and- after	Cohort	Cross- sectional	(n)	
Mantra meditation	111	30	31	105	60	337	
Mindfulness meditation	50	25	28	12	12	127	
Meditation (ND)	11	6	2	1	1	21	
Miscellaneous meditation practices	3		3	2	3	11	
Qi Gong	13		9	7	8	37	
Tai Chi	29	17	20	4	18	88	
Yoga	69	36	54	18	15	192	
Total	286	114	147	149	117	813	

ND = not described; NRCT = nonrandomized controlled trials; RCT = randomized controlled trials

**Mantra meditation.** Forty-one percent (n = 337) of the included studies reported on interventions involving the use of a mantra as a pivotal component for the practice of meditation. The studies were published from 1972 to 2005, with 1986 the median year of publication (IQR, 1978 to 1991). Study sample sizes ranged from 10 to 602,000 participants with a median of 40 participants per study (IQR, 24 to 68).

A variety of mantra meditation techniques were assessed in the studies. The majority of the studies (68 percent, n = 230) focused on  $TM^{\text{®}}$  or the  $TM^{\text{®}}$ -Sidhi program. Fifteen percent (n = 51) reported on Benson's RR, and nine percent (n = 31) assessed practices in which words or phrases (mantra) were chanted aloud or silently and used as objects of attention. Mantra meditation techniques such as CSM, and SRELAX that are similar to  $TM^{\text{®}}$ , but developed specifically for clinical purposes, were assessed in four percent (n = 12) of the studies". Acem meditation, an amalgam of traditional meditation techniques and Western psychological theory and practices, was evaluated in two percent (n = 7) of the studies. Finally, three percent of the studies focused on other mantra techniques such as Ananda Marga (n = 3), concentrative prayer (n = 2), and Cayce's meditation (n = 1).

Design and methodology. Thirty-three percent (n = 111) of the studies on mantra meditation were RCTs, 31 percent (n = 105) were cohort studies, 18 percent (n = 60) cross-sectional studies, and 9 percent for each of before-and-after studies (n = 31) and NRCTs (n = 30). The methodological quality of intervention studies on mantra meditation was poor: The median Jadad score for RCTs was 1/5 (IQR, 1 to 2). Only 13 out of 111 RCTs (12 percent) scored 3 points or more on the Jadad scale and thus could be considered high quality. The median modified Jadad score for NRCTs was 0.5/3 (IQR, 0 to 1). The quality of before-and-after studies was poor. The methodological quality of observational studies was also low, with a median NOS total score for cohort studies of 3/9 stars (IQR, 2 to 4) and a median NOS total score for cross-sectional studies of 2/6 stars (IQR, 1 to 3). There were major deficiencies in the selection and comparability of the study groups.

**Mindfulness meditation.** Sixteen percent of the studies (n = 127) described the use of mindfulness meditation techniques, such as MBSR (n = 49), mindfulness meditation techniques not further described (n = 37), Zen Buddhist meditation (n = 28), MBCT (n = 7), and Vipassana

meditation (n = 6). The studies were published from 1964 to 2005, with a median year of publication of 2001 (IQR, 1992 to 2003). Study sample sizes ranged from 10 to 719 with a median number of 39 participants per study (IQR, 23 to 73).

Design and methodology. Thirty-nine percent (n = 50) of the studies on mindfulness meditation were RCTs, 22 percent (n = 28) were before-and-after studies, 20 percent (n = 25) NRCTs, and 9 percent for each of cohort (n = 12) and cross-sectional studies (n = 12). The methodological quality of intervention studies on mindfulness meditation was low (RCTs median Jadad score = 2/5; IQR, 1 to 2; NRCTs median modified Jadad score: 0.5/3; IQR, 0 to 1). The quality of before-and-after studies was poor. Only 7 of 50 RCTs (14 percent) scored 3 or more points in the Jadad scale and were thus considered high quality. The observational studies also exhibited major methodological shortcomings (cohort studies median NOS total score: 3/6; IQR, 1 to 3), particularly in the areas of selection and comparability of the study groups.

**Meditation practices not described.** Three percent of the included studies (n = 21) reported on meditation practices that were not described. The studies were published from 1974 to 2004, with a median year of publication of 1998 (IQR, 1990 to 2002). Study sample sizes ranged from 10 to 230 with a median number of 46 participants per study (IQR, 27 to 97).

Design and methodology. Almost half (n = 11) of the studies were RCTs, six were NRCTs, two before-and-after studies, one cohort and one cross-sectional study. The methodological quality of the intervention studies was low (RCTs median Jadad score = 1.5/5; IQR, 1 to 2; NRCTs median modified Jadad score = 0/3; IQR, 0 to 0). Only 1 out of 11 RCTs scored 3 or more points on the Jadad scale and thus was considered high quality. The quality of before-and-after studies was poor. The cohort and cross-sectional studies obtained three and two stars on the NOS scales, respectively. Both studies failed to select unbiased study samples, thus compromising the comparability of the groups.

**Miscellaneous meditation practices.** One percent of the included studies (n = 11) reported on interventions that combined different meditation techniques in a single intervention. The studies were published from 1980 to 2005, with a median year of publication of 1985 (IQR, 1981 to 1993). Sample sizes ranged from 11 to 340 with a median number of participants per study of 84 (IQR, 20 to 181).

*Design and methodology.* Three out of 11 studies were RCTs, 3 were before-and-after studies, 2 were cohort studies, and 3 were cross-sectional studies. The methodological quality of studies on miscellaneous meditation practices showed important flaws. All RCTs scored 2 points on the Jadad scale and were considered low quality. The quality of before-and-after studies was also poor. The observational studies exhibited the same methodological flaws as the studies of other interventions described above (cohort studies median NOS total score = 3/9 stars; IQR, 1 to 3; cross-sectional studies median NOS total score = 2/6; IQR, 2 to 3).

**Qi Gong.** Five percent of the included studies (n = 37) reported on Qi Gong interventions. The studies were published between 1956 and 2005, with a median year of publication of 2000 (IQR, 1996 to 2004). Study sample sizes varied from 10 to 254 with a median number of 36 participants per study (IQR, 22 to 73).

Design and methodology. Thirty-five percent (n = 13) of the studies on Qi Gong were RCTs, 24 percent (n = 9) were before-and-after studies, 19 percent cohort (n = 7), and 22 percent cross-sectional studies (n = 8). The methodological quality of studies on Qi Gong was poor (RCTs median Jadad score = 1/5; IQR, 1 to 2), all scoring less than 3 points on the Jadad scale. The quality of before-and-after studies was also poor. The quality of observational studies was low

(cohort studies median NOS total score = 2/9 stars; IQR, 2 to 4; cross-sectional studies median NOS total score = 2.5/6; IQR, 2 to 3). Major deficiencies were found in the selection and comparability of the study groups.

**Tai Chi.** Eleven percent of the included studies (n = 88) reported on Tai Chi interventions. The studies were published from 1977 to 2005, with a median year of publication of 2002 (IQR, 1998 to 2004). Study sample sizes ranged from 10 to 311 with a median number of participants per study of 39 (IQR, 25 to 65).

Design and methodology. Thirty-three percent (n = 29) of the studies on Tai Chi were RCTs, 23 percent (n = 20) were before-and-after studies, 19 percent (n = 17) NRCTs, 20 percent (n = 18) cross-sectional studies, and 4.5 percent (n = 4) were cohort studies. The methodological quality of studies on Tai Chi was poor (RCTs median Jadad score = 2/5; IQR, 1 to 3; NRCTs median modified Jadad score = 1/3; IQR, 0 to 1). Nine out of 29 RCTs scored 3 or more points on the Jadad scale and thus were considered high quality. The quality of before-and-after studies was also low. The observational studies exhibited major flaws and were likely to be affected by bias (cohort studies median NOS total score = 2/9 stars; IQR, 2 to 4; cross-sectional studies median NOS total score = 2/6; IQR, 2 to 4).

**Yoga.** Twenty-four percent of the included studies (n = 192) reported on interventions involving Yoga practices. The studies were published between 1968 and 2005, with a median year of publication of 1998 (IQR, 1991 to 2002). Study sample sizes ranged from 10 to 335 with a median of 40 participants (IQR, 23 to 70).

Design and methodology. Thirty-six percent (n = 69) of the studies on Yoga interventions were RCTs, 28 percent (n = 54) were before-and-after studies, 19 percent (n = 36) NRCTs, 9 percent (n = 18) cohort studies, and 8 percent (n = 15) were cross-sectional studies. The methodological quality of studies on Yoga was low (RCTs median Jadad score = 1/5; IQR, 1 to 2; NRCTs median modified Jadad score = 0/3; IQR, 0 to 1). Fourteen percent (n = 10) of the RCTs on Yoga scored 3 points or more on the Jadad scale and were considered high quality. The quality of before-and-after studies was also poor. The methodological quality of observational studies was low (cohort studies median NOS total score: = 3.5/9 stars; IQR, 2.5 to 5; cross-sectional studies median NOS total score = 3/6; IQR, 1 to 3).

Tables 11 to 15 provide a comparative summary of the methodological quality of the studies classified according to the seven categories of meditation practices described in this report.

Table 11. Methodological quality of RCTs by meditation practice\*

Quality criteria	Mantra meditation (n = 111)	Mindfulness meditation (n = 50)	Meditation practices (ND) (n = 11)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (n = 3)	Qi Gong (n = 13)	Tai Chi (n = 29)	Yoga (n = 69)
Randomization; n (%)	All	All	All	All	All	All	All
Double blinding; n (%)	2 (1.2)	1 (2.0)				1 (3.4)	4 (5.8)
Appropriate randomization; n (%)	15 (13.3)	8 (16.0)	2		•••	9 (31.0)	11 (15.9)
Appropriate double blinding; n (%)			•••		•••		
Inappropriate randomization; n (%)	3 (2.7)	1 (2.0)	1		2	1 (3.4)	7 (10.1)
Inappropriate double blinding; n (%)					•••		1 (1.4)
Description withdrawals; n (%)	50 (45.0)	27 (54.0)	5	3	8	19 (65.5)	33 (47.8)
Total Jadad score (max 5); Median (IQR)	1 (1, 2)	2 (1, 2)	1 (1, 2)	2 (2, 2)	1 (1, 2)	2 (1, 3)	1 (1, 2)
Number of high quality RCTs (Jadad scores ≥3); n (%)	13 (11.6)	7 (14.0)	1			9 (31)	10 (14.4)
Appropriate concealment of allocation; n (%)	3 (2.7)	1 (2.0)	•••			3 (10.3)	5 (7.2)
Funding reported; n (%)	49 (44.1)	20 (40.0)	3		7	10 (34.4)	28 (40.6)

<sup>\*</sup> Percentages are reported for  $N \ge 20$  only IQR = interquartile range; ND = not described

Table 12. Methodological quality of NRCTs by meditation practice\*

Quality criteria	Mantra meditation (n = 30)	Mindfulness meditation (n = 25)	Meditation practices (ND) (n = 6)	Tai Chi (n = 17)	Yoga (n = 36)
Double blinding; n (%)					
Appropriate double blinding; n (%)					
Inappropriate double blinding; n (%)					
Description withdrawals; n (%)	15 (50.0)	14 (56.0)	-	9 (52.9)	14 (38.9)
Total modified Jadad score, (max 3); Median (IQR)	0.5 (0, 1)	1 (0, 1)	0 (0, 0)	1 (0, 1)	0 (0, 1)
Funding reported; n (%)	5 (16.7)	7 (28.0)	2	7 (41.2)	9 (25)

<sup>\*</sup>Percentages are reported for  $N \ge 20$  only IQR = interquartile range; ND = not described

Table 13. Methodological quality of before-and-after studies by meditation practice\*

Quality criteria	Mantra meditation (n = 31)	Mindfulness meditation (n = 28)	Meditation practices (ND) (n = 2)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (n = 3)	Qi Gong (n = 9)	Tai Chi (n = 20)	Yoga (n = 54)
Study population representative of the target population; n (%)	1 (3.2)	11 (39.3)	1	2	1	4 (20)	3 (5.5)
The method of outcome assessment was the same for the pre and postintervention periods for all participants; n (%)	29 (93.5)	25 (89.3)	2	3	8	20 (100)	53 (98.1)
Outcome assessors were blind to intervention and assessment period; n (%)	2 (6.4)					1 (5)	-
Description of the number of study withdrawals; n (%)	12 (38.7)	15 (53.6)		3	1	6 (30)	8 (14.8)
Description of the reasons for study withdrawal; n (%)	4 (12.9)	5 (17.8)		2	1	4 (20)	4 (2.1)
Funding reported; n (%)	4 (12.9)	7 (25)		2	5	3 (15)	20 (37)

<sup>\*</sup> Percentages are reported for  $N \ge 20$  only  $ND = not \ described$ 

Table 14. Methodological quality of cohort studies by meditation practice\*

	Quality criteria	Mantra meditation (n = 105)	Mindfulness meditation (n = 12)	Meditation practices (ND) (n = 1)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (n = 2)	Qi Gong (n = 7)	Tai Chi (n = 4)	Yoga (n = 18)
	Truly representative of the community; n (%)	10 (9.5)	2					
	Somewhat representative of the community; n (%)	29 (27.6)	4		1	1	2	6
	Selected group of participants; n (%)	62 (59.0)	6	1	1	5	2	11
	No description of the derivation of the cohort; n (%)	4 (3.8)				1		1
Selection of the cohorts	Drawn from the same community as the exposed cohort; n (%)	38 (36.2)	5		1	3	3	6
he	Drawn from a different source; n (%)	56 (53.3)	7		1	4	1	10
on of t	No description of the derivation of the nonexposed cohort	11 (10.5)		1		•••	•••	2
ecti	Secure record; n (%)	7 (6.7)	1					2
Sel	Structured interview; n (%)		2				1	1
	Written self-report; n (%)	11 (10.5)	6			1	2	1
	No description of exposure ascertainment; n (%)	87 (82.9)	3	1	2	6	1	14
	Demonstration that the outcome(s) of interest was not present at the start of the study; n (%)	7 (6.7)	1	1				1
>	Study controls for two or more confounding factors; n (%)	32 (30.5)	3		1	1	2	9
arabilit	Study controls for at least one confounding factor; n (%)	39 (37.1)	2		•••	3	1	6
Comparability	No adjustment for confounding factors in the design or analysis of the study; n (%)	34 (32.4)	7	1	1	3	1	3
	Independent blind assessment; n (%)	16 (15.2)	1			2	1	4
	Record linkage; n (%)	64 (61.0)	5		1	4	3	8
ä	Self-report; n (%)	23 (21.9)	6	1	1	1	-	6
essme	No description of outcomes assessment; n (%)	2 (1.9)				•••	•••	
ne ass	Followup enough for outcomes to occur; n (%)	27 (25.7)	5	1		1	2	8
Outcome assessment	Complete followup (all subjects accounted for); n (%)	7 (6.7)	2	1		1	1	5
	Subjects lost to followup unlikely to introduce bias; n (%)  *Percentages are reported for N > 20 only	9 (8.6)	2				1	

\*Percentages are reported for  $N \ge 20$  only ND = not described; NOS = Newcastle-Ottawa Scale

Table 14. Methodological quality of cohort studies by meditation practice (continued)

	Quality criteria	Mantra meditation (n = 105)	Mindfulness meditation (n = 12)	Meditation practices (ND) (n = 1)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (n = 2)	Qi Gong (n = 7)	Tai Chi (n = 4)	Yoga (n = 18)
<del></del>	Lost to followup likely to introduce bias; n (%)	6 (5.7)	1					1
Outcome assessment (continued)	No description of losses to followup; n (%)	83 (79.0)	6		2	6	2	12
NOS tota	al score (max 9); Median (IQR)	3 (2,4)	3 (2,4)	3	3 (1,3)	2 (2,4)	2 (2,4)	3.5 (2.5,5)
Funding i	reported; n (%)	22 (21.0)	4		1	4	3	7

Table 15. Methodological quality of cross-sectional studies by meditation practice\*

	Quality criteria	Mantra meditation (n = 60)	Mindfulness meditation (n = 12)	Meditation practices (ND) (n = 1)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (n = 3)	Qi Gong (n = 8)	Tai Chi (n = 18)	Yoga (n = 15)
_	Truly representative of the community; n (%)	1 (1.7)		•••				
	Somewhat representative of the community; n (%)	27 (45.0)	6*	1	3	6	13	5
sdno	Selected group of participants; n (%)	6 (10.0)	2	•••		2	2	2
son gr	No description of the derivation of the study group; n (%)	26 (46.3)	4	•••			3	8
mpari	Drawn from the same community as the study group; n (%)	14 (23.3)	2	1	2	1	2	2
the co	Drawn from a different source; n (%)	25 (41.7)	6		1	6	13	5
Selection of the comparison groups	No description of the derivation of the comparison group; n (%)	21 (35.0)	4			1	3	8
ect	Secure record; n (%)							
S	Structured interview; n (%)							
	Written self-report; n (%)	1 (1.7)	1		•••			
	No description of exposure ascertainment; n (%)	59 (98.3)	11	1	3	8	18	15

\* Percentages are reported for  $N \ge 20$  only ND = not described; NOS = Newcastle-Ottawa Scale

Table 15. Methodological quality of cross-sectional studies by meditation practice (continued)

	Quality criteria	Mantra meditation (n = 60)	Mindfulness meditation (n = 12)	Meditation practices (ND) (n = 1)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (n = 3)	Qi Gong (n = 8)	Tai Chi (n = 18)	Yoga (n = 15)
>	Study controls for two or more confounding factors; n (%)	23 (38.3)	6		2	3	8	8
arabilit	Study controls for at least one confounding factor; n (%)	7 (11.7)	2		•••	3	1	1
Comparability	No adjustment for confounding factors in the design or analysis of the study; n (%)	30 (50)	4	1	1	2	9	6
	Independent blind assessment; n (%)							
ent	Record linkage; n (%)	28 (46.7)	6			4	16	8
sessm	Self-report; n (%)	29 (48.3)	6	1	3	4	2	7
Outcome assessment	No description of outcomes assessment; n (%)	3 (5.0)						
NOS	total score (max 9); Median (IQR)	2 (1,3)	3 (1,3)	2	2 (2,3)	2.5 (2,3)	2 (2,4)	3 (1,3)
Fund	ling reported; n (%)	6 (10)	3		3	4	11	3

## **Control Groups Used in Studies on Meditation Practices**

Six hundred and sixty-eight studies contributed data for this question (402 intervention studies [RCTs and NRCTs] and 266 observational analytical studies [cohort studies and cross-sectional studies with control groups]). One hundred and forty-five studies were excluded from this analysis because they were uncontrolled before-and-after studies. Only two before-and-after studies <sup>171,172</sup> had controlled comparisons and were considered for the analysis of the type of control groups used in studies on meditation practices.

Overall, the number of control groups per study ranged from one to four. The median number of control groups per study was one (IQR, 1 to 2). Table 16 shows the distribution of the number of control groups by study design. The majority of studies (72 percent, n = 482) included one control group per study, 21 percent (n = 139) used two control groups, 5 percent (n = 33) used three control groups, and, 2 percent (n = 14) used four control groups.

Table 16. Number of control groups by study design

tudy design	1	2	3		Total
	N (%)	N (%)	ა N (%)	4 N (%)	· Otal
RCTs	185 (64.7)	76 (26.4)	19 (6.6)	6 (2.0)	286
NRCTs	88 (77.2)	20 (17.5)	1 (0.9)	5 (4.4)	114
Controlled before-and-after	2 (100)				2
Cohort studies (concurrent controls)	110 (81.5)	19 (14.1)	4 (3.0)	2 (1.5)	135
Cohort studies (historical controls)	13 (92.9)		1 (7.1)		14
Cross-sectional studies	84 (71.8)	24 (20.5)	8 (6.8)	1 (0.9)	117
	482 (72.2)	139 (20.7)	33 (4.9)	14 (2.0)	668
	NRCTs Controlled before-and-after Cohort studies (concurrent controls) Cohort studies (historical controls)	NRCTs  Controlled before-and-after  Cohort studies (concurrent controls)  Cohort studies (historical controls)  Cross-sectional studies  88 (77.2)  110 (81.5)  13 (92.9)  13 (92.9)  482 (71.8)	NRCTs	NRCTs	SIRCTs     88 (77.2)     20 (17.5)     1 (0.9)     5 (4.4)       Controlled before-and-after controlled before-and-after controls     2 (100)          Cohort studies (concurrent controls)     110 (81.5)     19 (14.1)     4 (3.0)     2 (1.5)       Cohort studies (historical controls)     13 (92.9)      1 (7.1)        Cross-sectional studies     84 (71.8)     24 (20.5)     8 (6.8)     1 (0.9)

NRCT = nonrandomized controlled trials; RCT = randomized controlled trials.

The majority of intervention studies and observational analytical studies considered in this review used single control groups (n = 482, 72 percent) as compared to the number of studies that used multiple control groups (n = 186, 28 percent). Tables 17 and 18 display the distribution of the number of control groups used in the intervention and observational analytical studies for each meditation practice.

Table 17. Controlled intervention studies: number of control groups by meditation practice\*

Meditation practice	1 N (%)	2 N (%)	3 N (%)	4 N (%)	Total
Mantra meditation	77 (54.2)	48 (33.5)	12 (8.3)	5 (3.4)	142
Mindfulness meditation	55 (73.3)	16 (21.3)	3 (4.0)	1 (1.3)	75
Meditation practice (ND)	10	5	1	1	17
Miscellaneous meditation practices	1	2			3
Qi Gong	12	1			13
Tai Chi	40 (87)	5 (10.9)	1 (2.2)		46
Yoga	80 (75.5)	19 (17.9)	3 (2.8)	4 (3.8)	106
Total	275	96	20	11	402

<sup>\*</sup> Percentages are reported for  $N \ge 20$  only

ND = not described

Table 18. Observational analytical studies: number of control groups by meditation practice

Meditation practice	1 N (%)	2 N (%)	3 N (%)	4 N (%)	Total
Mantra meditation	136 (82.4)	23 (13.9)	5 (3.0)	1 (0.6)	165
Mindfulness meditation	17*	5	2		24
Meditation practice (ND)	1		1		2
Miscellaneous meditation practices	3		1	1	5
Qi Gong	8	2	4	1	15
Tai Chi	16	6			22
Yoga	26 (15.8)	7 (4.2)			33
Total	207	43	13	3	266

<sup>\*</sup> Percentages are reported for  $N \ge 20$  only

ND = not described

Control groups from intervention studies (RCTs, NRCTs, and controlled before-and-after studies) were grouped into six categories according to the type of control group. As some studies used more than one control group as a comparator, the number of intervention studies reported below does not match the number of control groups. Tables 19 and 20 describe the types of control groups for intervention and observational studies along with their distribution by meditation practice. Table G7 in Appendix G\* lists the references for studies included in the description of the type of control groups for intervention studies along with their distribution by meditation practice.

Sham meditation or placebo concurrent controls. Eighteen of 402 intervention studies (four percent) compared meditation practices with elaborately designed and executed sham procedures such as sitting in a comfortable position without being instructed in the use of any sound or in directing the attention in certain way. Half of the studies (n = 9) using sham meditation or placebo control groups were conducted on mantra meditation (three on TM<sup>®</sup>, three on mantra techniques not specified, two on RR, and one on SRELAX, a technique adapted from TM<sup>®</sup>). Evaluation of other practices that used sham meditation or placebo groups included three studies on meditation practices not further described, two studies on Qi Gong, two on Yoga, one study on mindfulness meditation (Zen meditation), and one on Tai Chi.

**No-treatment concurrent controls.** Two types of no-treatment conditions were included in the studies: no intervention and waiting lists (WL).

No intervention controls. One hundred and twenty-four out of 402 studies (31 percent) used control groups that received no intervention of any kind. Thirty-five percent (43/123) of these studies were conducted on mantra meditation (25 studies on TM®, 8 on mantra techniques not specified, 6 on RR, 1 on Acem meditation, 1 on Cayce's meditation). There were 30 intervention studies on Yoga that used a no-intervention condition as comparator. There were 22 studies no-intervention studies on mindfulness meditation (9 studies on MBSR, 7 on mindfulness meditation practices not further specified, 5 on Zen Buddhist meditation, and 1 study on MBCT), 19 on Tai Chi, 6 on meditation practices not further described, 2 on Qi Gong, and 1 on a miscellaneous technique called "coloring mandalas."

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

Waiting list controls. Sixty-two (15 percent) of the intervention studies utilized a WL control group. Twenty-four were conducted on mantra meditation (10 studies on TM<sup>®</sup>, 5 on CSM, 5 on RR, 3 on mantra techniques not specified, and 1 on SRELAX, a technique modeled after TM<sup>®</sup>); 21 on mindfulness meditation (11 studies on MBSR, 6 on mindfulness meditation practices not further specified, 2 on MBCT, and 2 on Zen Buddhist meditation); 10 on Yoga, 3 on meditation practices not further described, 2 on Qi Gong, and 2 on Tai Chi.

Active (positive) concurrent controls: interventions other than meditation. Active concurrent controls, as opposed to placebo or no treatment concurrent controls (i.e., no intervention, and waiting list conditions) were used as comparisons in 306 intervention studies (90 percent). A wide variety of active comparison groups were employed.

Exercise and other physical activities. The practice of exercise and other physical activities constituted the most frequently used comparator (45 studies). Physical activities included, but were not limited to, aerobics, running, swimming, fencing, and stretching. Eighteen studies using exercise and other physical activities as controls were conducted on Yoga, 14 on Tai Chi, and 10 on mantra meditation (3 on mantra techniques not specified, 3 on RR, 2 on TM<sup>®</sup>, 1 on Acem meditation, 1 on CSM). One study was conducted on MBSR, one on meditation practices not specified, and one on Qi Gong.

Rest and states of relaxation. Conditions involving states of rest and relaxation were used as controls in 45 studies. There were 28 studies on mantra meditation (14 on RR, 9 on TM<sup>®</sup>, 3 on mantra techniques not specified, and 2 on CSM), 9 on Yoga, 6 on mindfulness meditation (3 on Zen Buddhist meditation, 2 on mindfulness meditation techniques not further specified, and 1 on MBSR), and 2 on other meditation practices not further described.

Educational activities. Forty-four studies used educational activities such as lectures and courses on stress management, nutrition, health, and wellness as comparators. Seventeen of these studies were conducted on mantra meditation (9 on TM<sup>®</sup>, 5 on RR, 2 on mantra techniques not specified, and 1 on CSM), 10 studies on mindfulness meditation (5 studies on MBSR, 3 on Zen Buddhist meditation, and 2 on mindfulness meditation techniques not further specified), 8 on Yoga, 6 on Tai Chi, 2 on meditation practices not further described, and 2 on miscellaneous meditation techniques.

*Progressive muscle relaxation*. The practice of progressive muscle relaxation (PMR) was chosen as a control group in 39 intervention studies. The majority of studies (n = 27) using PMR as a control were conducted on mantra meditation (10 on TM<sup>®</sup>, 8 on RR, 5 on mantra techniques not specified, 3 on CSM, and 1 on Acem meditation). There were also six studies on Yoga, five on mindfulness meditation (two on MBSR, two on mindfulness meditation techniques not further specified, and one on Zen Buddhist meditation), and one study on a meditation practice not further described.

Cognitive behavioral techniques. Twenty studies employed cognitive behavioral interventions as comparison groups. Nine of these studies were conducted on mantra meditation (three on TM<sup>®</sup>, three on RR, two on CSM, and one on mantra techniques not specified). There were seven intervention studies on mindfulness meditation (four on mindfulness meditation techniques not further specified, and three on MBSR). There were two studies on meditation practices not further described, and two studies on Yoga.

*Pharmacological interventions*. Eight studies used comparators involving pharmacological interventions such as antihypertensive medication, lipid-lowering medication, antidepressants, and other medications that were not described. There were six studies on Yoga, and two on Qi Gong that used a pharmacological intervention as a control.

*Miscellaneous active controls*. Nineteen studies reported on the use of control groups that involved a heterogeneous collection of active interventions, such as charting, creativity techniques, herbal therapy, visualization and other imagery, and cognitive tasks. Six of these studies were conducted on mantra meditation (three on RR, two on mantra techniques not specified, and one on TM<sup>®</sup>). There were also six studies on Yoga, four studies on mindfulness meditation (two on MBSR, one on Zen Buddhist meditation, and one on mindfulness meditation techniques not further specified), two on miscellaneous meditation practices, one on Tai Chi, and one on a meditation practice not further described.

Group therapy and psychotherapy. Sixteen studies used psychotherapeutic interventions such as group therapy (13 studies) and individual psychotherapy (3 studies) as comparison groups. Among the 13 studies that used group therapy as a control, 6 were on mantra meditation (3 on RR, 2 on TM<sup>®</sup>, and 1 on Acem meditation), 3 on mindfulness meditation (2 on mindfulness meditation techniques not further specified, and one on MBSR). There were also three studies on Tai Chi and two on Yoga that used group therapy as a comparator. Generally, group therapy was delivered as a form of group counseling and psychosocial support. Individual psychotherapeutic approaches were used as control groups in one study on mantra meditation (TM<sup>®</sup>), one study on MBSR, and one study on Yoga.

*Biofeedback techniques*. The practice of biofeedback (BF) techniques such as electromyographic (EMG) BF, and blood pressure BF was used as comparators in 12 intervention studies. The majority of the studies (n = 11) were conducted on mantra meditation (six on RR, three on mantra techniques not specified, and two on TM<sup>®</sup>) and one was conducted on Yoga.

*Reading.* Activities involving reading were utilized as controls in eight studies. There were six studies on mantra meditation (four on RR, and two on TM<sup>®</sup>), one on Tai Chi, and one on Yoga.

*Hypnosis*. Hypnosis was selected as a control group in four intervention studies: two on mantra meditation (TM<sup>®</sup>) and two on meditation practices not further described.

Therapeutic massage and acupuncture. Three studies used complementary interventions such as massage (two studies; one on RR, and another on MBSR) and acupuncture (one on Tai Chi) as comparison groups.

*Usual care.* Thirty-seven intervention studies included a group of usual care in their comparisons. Nine of these studies were conducted on mindfulness meditation (3 on MBCT, 2 on mindfulness meditation techniques not further specified, 2 on MBSR, and 1 on Zen Buddhist meditation), 3 on Qi Gong, 3 on mantra meditation (2 on TM<sup>®</sup> and 1 on RR), 4 on Tai Chi, 16 on Yoga, and one on meditation practices not further described

**Other control groups.** Six studies reported on the comparison groups in terms of controls without providing further comprehensive details. Two of these studies were conducted on mantra meditation (one on RR and one on TM<sup>®</sup>), two on Qi Gong, one on mindfulness meditation not further specified, and one on Tai Chi.

Active (positive) concurrent controls: meditation practices as comparison groups. Forty-three studies used meditation practices as control groups. Fourteen of these studies compared two different meditation practices against each other. Twenty-nine studies compared two versions of the same meditation practice but varied certain components of the practice, e.g., method of delivery, intensity, and length of session, of the comparison group. The former category of studies is described first and the latter is described under the category of "different dose or response concurrent control groups."

*Yoga practices*. Four studies (three on TM<sup>®</sup> and one on mantra techniques not specified) compared mantra meditation techniques versus Yoga techniques such as Savasana. One study compared Hatha yoga versus a meditation practice not further described.

*Mantra meditation*. Three studies on Yoga (Kundalini, Sahaja, and Hatha yoga) used a mantra meditation technique for their comparison groups; two of them used RR<sup>169,174</sup> the third <sup>175</sup> used a mantra technique not further described.

*Mindfulness meditation*. Two studies on mantra meditation (TM<sup>®</sup> and a mantra technique not further described) used interventions described as "mindfulness training" as comparison groups. Another study on a meditation practice not further described used mindfulness meditation as the comparison group.

*Meditation practices not described.* Two studies on mantra meditation (one on RR, and the other on TM<sup>®</sup>) failed to describe the type of meditation practice chosen for the comparison group.

*Tai Chi:* One study on mantra meditation (RR) used a Tai Chi-based intervention for the comparison group.

**Different dose or regimen: concurrent control groups.** Twenty-nine studies compared similar meditation practices but modified certain components of the practices to create the comparison groups.

*Yoga practices*. Fourteen studies compared different types of Yoga practices with each other. Nine studies 140,176-183 compared different patterns of yogic nostril breathing techniques (e.g., unilateral versus bilateral nostril breathing, left versus right forced unilateral nostril breathing), whereas five studies compared different modalities of yoga practice such as Hatha versus Astanga, 127 different formats for practice (e.g., full Sudarshan Kriya versus partial Sudarshan Kriya), 184 or combinations with other therapeutic strategies. 111,175,185

*Mantra meditation.* Nine studies on mantra meditation compared different formats for the delivery of practice. Three studies 186-188 on TM® examined either short- versus long-term or regular versus irregular practice. Two other studies on TM®189,190 included RR as one of the comparators. There were two studies on RR that used TM®191 or modifications of the RR technique 192 as comparison groups. One study on CSM used a RR control group. The remaining study on mantra meditation did not describe the practices being compared.

*Mindfulness meditation*. Four studies on mindfulness meditation used other mindfulness meditation techniques as control groups. There were two studies on MBSR, <sup>195,196</sup> one on Zen Buddhist meditation, <sup>197</sup> and one <sup>197</sup> that did not describe the mindfulness techniques being compared.

*Meditation practice not described.* Two studies <sup>198,199</sup> failed to provide a clear description of the meditation practices being compared.

**Multiple control groups.** As was shown in Table 16, 275 out of 402 intervention studies used a single control group, whereas 127 used more than one kind of control (e.g., used one active and one inactive control). Sixty-five of the intervention studies with multiple controls were conducted on mantra meditation (25 on TM<sup>®</sup>, 22 on RR, 12 on mantra techniques not further described, 4 on CSM, 1 on Acem meditation, and 1 on SRELAX). There were 26 studies with multiple controls conducted on Yoga, 20 studies on mindfulness meditation (8 on MBSR, 6 on mindfulness meditation techniques not further specified, and 6 on Zen Buddhist meditation), 7 studies on meditation practices not further described, 6 on Tai Chi, 2 on miscellaneous meditation practices, and 1 on Qi Gong.

Control groups from observational analytical studies (cohort and cross-sectional studies) were also classified according to the type of comparison used. As some studies used more than one control group as a comparator, the number of observational analytical studies reported below is less than the number of control groups. Table G8 in Appendix G provides the references for studies included in the description of the type of control groups in observational analytical studies along with their distribution by meditation practice.

**Unexposed controls.** The vast majority of observational analytical studies (92 percent, 244/266) used comparison groups consisting of individuals that were not been exposed to any type of meditation practice. Sixty-three percent (153/244) of these studies examined mantra meditation (140 studies on TM<sup>®</sup>, 6 on mantra techniques not specified, 4 on Acem meditation, and 3 on Ananda Marga meditation). There were 29 observational analytical studies on Yoga that used a group of unexposed individuals as a comparator, 21 studies where the exposed group practiced mindfulness meditation (12 on Zen Buddhist meditation, 6 on mindfulness meditation techniques not further specified, and 3 studies on Vipassana meditation), 21 on Tai Chi, 13 on Qi Gong, 5 on miscellaneous practices combining different meditation practices, and 2 on meditation practices not further described.

Active (positive) controls using interventions other than meditation practice. Thirty-seven observational analytical studies utilized control groups consisting of practitioners of techniques other than meditation.

Exercise and other physical activities. Practitioners of exercise and other physical activities constituted the most frequent active comparator (14 studies). Four studies examined Tai Chi practitioners, four studies examined Yoga practitioners, and two studies examined subjects practicing a miscellaneous group of meditation techniques. Two studies examined TM® practitioners, one examined practitioners of meditation techniques not specified, and one examined Qi Gong practitioners. The type of physical activities practiced by the control groups included aerobic and anaerobic exercises, swimming, running, and golfing.

*Miscellaneous active controls*. Five studies used control groups consisting of practitioners of martial arts, concentration, and creativity techniques. Three of these studies used practitioners of mantra meditation, specifically TM<sup>®</sup>, as exposed groups. One study examined practitioners of Tai Chi and one practitioners of miscellaneous meditation techniques.

Other comparison groups consisted of individuals exposed to a variety of practices not considered meditation. Four studies on TM<sup>®</sup> used a group of practitioners of *PMR* as a control group. Three studies on TM<sup>®</sup> included participants that underwent *hypnosis therapy*. Three studies on TM<sup>®</sup> used groups of participants exposed to conditions of *rest and relaxation* for their comparisons. One study on Qi Gong and one on Yoga included participants in *educational activities*. Group therapy participants were included for comparison in one study on TM<sup>®</sup> and in one on Yoga. Individuals involved in *reading* activities were used as controls in one study of Zen Buddhist meditation, and in one study of Yoga. Finally, practitioners of BF and cognitive behavioral techniques such as sensitivity training acted as controls in, respectively, one study of RR and one study of TM<sup>®</sup>.

**Active (positive) controls exposed to other meditation practices.** Forty-seven studies used active control groups of practitioners of a variety of meditation techniques. Eleven of these studies compared groups of practitioners of different meditation techniques against each other. Thirty-six observational analytical studies compared groups of practitioners of the same meditation technique but with different lengths of practice. The former group of studies is

-

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

described immediately below and the latter is described under "Concurrent control groups exposed to different dose or regimen of the same meditation practice."

Practitioners of mantra meditation (TM<sup>®</sup> and a mantra technique not specified) were used as the comparison group in two observational studies on mindfulness meditation (one on Zen Buddhist meditation and the other on a mantra technique not further described).

There were two studies (one on TM<sup>®</sup> and the other on a mantra technique not further described) that used mindfulness meditation practitioners as control groups. Two other studies (one on Yoga, and the other on a meditation practice not described) failed to describe the type of meditation technique practiced by the comparison group. One study on Qi Gong used Tai Chi practitioners for comparisons, and Yoga practitioners were used as control groups in two studies on TM<sup>®</sup>, one on Zen Buddhist meditation, and one on Qi Gong.

Concurrent control groups exposed to different dose or regimen of the same meditation practice. Thirty-six studies made comparisons between groups of practitioners of the same meditation practice but using different lengths of practice (e.g., short-term versus long-term). Twenty of these studies were on mantra meditation (17 on TM<sup>®</sup>, 2 on Ananda Marga, and 1 on a mantra technique not further described), 6 on mindfulness meditation (4 on Zen Buddhist meditation, 1 on Vipassana meditation, and 1 on a Mindfulness meditation technique not further specified), 6 on Qi Gong, 3 on Yoga, and 1 on Tai Chi.

**Historical controls.** Fourteen out of 266 observational analytical studies used historical controls consisting of groups of participants external to the study or of the same single group of participants with data collected at an earlier period of time. Eleven of these studies compared mantra meditation (nine on TM<sup>®</sup> and one on Ananda Marga) to data from nonmeditators collected earlier for other purposes. Three studies on Qi Gong also used nonconcurrent data from nonpractitioners, Yoga practitioners, groups of athletes and participants in educational lectures 202

**Multiple control groups.** As shown earlier in Table 16, 207 out of 266 observational analytical studies used a single control group, whereas 59 used more than one kind of control per study (e.g., use of either active controls or inactive interventions).

Twenty-nine of the observational analytical studies with multiple controls were conducted on mantra meditation (25 on TM®, 2 on Ananda Marga, and 2 on mantra techniques not further described). There were seven studies with multiple controls conducted on mindfulness meditation (five on Zen Buddhist meditation, one on mindfulness meditation techniques not further described, and one on Vipassana meditation), seven on Yoga, seven on Qi Gong, six on Tai Chi, two on miscellaneous interventions, and one on meditation practices not further described.

Table 19. Types of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices

Type of control group	N groups	N studies	Meditation practice (no. studies)
Placebo/sham	18	18	Mantra meditation (9 groups, 9 studies)  TM® (3), Mantra (NS) (3), RR (2), SRELAX (1),  Meditation practices (ND) (3 groups, 3 studies)  Yoga (2 groups, 2 studies)  Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study)  Zen Buddhist meditation (1)  Qi Gong (2 groups, 2 studies)  Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study)
No-treatment concurrent c	ontrols		
NT	126	123	Mantra meditation (44 groups, 43 studies)  TM® (25), Mantra (NS) (8); RR (6), CSM (2), Acem meditation (1), Cayce's meditation (1)  Yoga (31 groups, 30 studies)  Mindfulness meditation (23 groups, 22 studies)  MBSR (9), MM (NS) (7), Zen Buddhist meditation (5),  MBCT (1)  Tai Chi (19 groups, 19 studies)  Meditation practices (ND) (6 groups, 6 studies)  Qi Gong (2 groups, 2 studies)  Miscellaneous meditation practices (1 group, 1 study)
WL	62	62	Mantra meditation (24 groups, 24 studies)  TM® (10), CSM (5), RR (5), Mantra (NS) (3), SRELAX (1)  Mindfulness meditation (21 groups, 21 studies)  MBSR (11), MM (NS) (6),MBCT (2),  Zen Buddhist meditation (2)  Yoga (10 groups, 10 studies)  Meditation practices (ND) (3 groups, 3 studies)  Qi Gong (2 groups, 2 studies)  Tai Chi (2 groups, 2 studies)
Active (positive) concurren	t controls—ii	nterventions	other than meditation practices
Exercise/physical activity	52	45	Yoga (23 groups, 18 studies) Tai Chi (14 groups, 14 studies) Mantra meditation (13 groups, 10 studies) Mantra (NS) (3), RR (3), TM® (2), Acem meditation (1), CSM (1) Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study) MBSR (1) Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) Qi Gong (1 group, 1 study)
Rest and states of relaxation	47	45	Mantra meditation (30 groups, 28 studies) RR (14), TM <sup>®</sup> (9), Mantra (NS) (3), CSM (2) Yoga (9 groups, 9 studies) Mindfulness meditation (6 groups, 6 studies) Zen Buddhist meditation (3), MM (NS) (2), MBSR (1) Meditation practices (ND) (2 groups, 2 studies)

BF = biofeedback; CSM = Clinically Standardized Meditation; MBCT = mindfulness-based cognitive therapy; MBSR = Mindfulness-based stress reduction; MM = mindfulness meditation; = ND = not described; NS = not specified; NT = no treatment; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; RR = Relaxation Response; TM® = Transcendental Meditation®; WL = waiting list

Table 19. Types of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices (continued)

Type of control group	N groups	N studies	Meditation practice (no. studies)
Active (positive) concurren	nt controls-	-interventions	s other than meditation practices (continued)
Education	46	44	Mantra meditation (19 groups, 17 studies)  TM® (9), RR (5), Mantra (NS) (2), CSM (1)  Mindfulness meditation (10 groups, 10 studies)  MBSR (5), Zen Buddhist meditation (3), MM (NS) (2)  Yoga (8 groups, 8 studies)  Tai Chi (6 groups, 6 studies)  Meditation practices (ND) (2 groups, 2 studies)  Miscellaneous meditation practices (1 groups, 1 study)
PMR	39	39	Mantra meditation (27 groups, 27 studies)  TM® (10), RR (8), Mantra (NS) (5), CSM (3), Acem meditation (1)  Yoga (6 groups, 6 studies)  Mindfulness meditation (5 groups, 5 studies)  MBSR (2), MM (NS) (2), Zen Buddhist meditation (1)  Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study)
Cognitive behavioral techniques	22	20	Mantra meditation (9 groups, 9 studies)  TM® (3), CSM (2), Mantra (NS) (1)  Mindfulness meditation (7 groups, 7 studies)  MM (NS) (4), MBSR (3)  Meditation practices (ND) (3 groups, 2 studies)  Yoga (3 groups, 2 studies)
Miscellaneous active controls	23	19	Yoga (7 groups, 6 studies) Mantra meditation (6 groups, 6 studies) RR (3), Mantra (NS) (2), TM® (1) Mindfulness meditation (6 groups, 4 studies) MBSR (2), Zen Buddhist meditation (1), MM (NS) (1) Miscellaneous meditation practices (2 groups, 1 study) Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study)
Group therapy	14	13	Mantra meditation (6 groups, 6 studies) RR (3), TM <sup>®</sup> (2), Acem meditation (1) Mindfulness meditation (3 groups, 3 studies) MBSR (1), MM (NS) (2) Tai Chi (3 groups, 2 studies) Yoga (2 groups, 2 studies)
Psychotherapy	3	3	Mantra meditation (1 group, 1 study)  TM® (1)  Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study)  MBSR (1)  Yoga (1 group, 1 study)
BF	13	12	Mantra meditation (12 groups, 11 studies) RR (6), Mantra (NS) (3), TM <sup>®</sup> (2), Yoga (1 group, 1 study)
Reading	8	8	Mantra meditation (6 groups, 6 studies) RR (4), TM <sup>®</sup> (2) Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study) Yoga (1 group, 1 study)
Pharmacological interventions	8	8	Yoga (6 groups, 6 studies) Qi Gong (2 groups, 2 studies)
Hypnosis	4	4	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies)  TM® (2)  Meditation practices (ND) (2 groups, 2 studies)

Table 19. Types of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices (continued)

Type of control group	N groups	N studies	Meditation practice (no. studies)
Active (positive) concurren	t controls—	intervention	s other than meditation practices (continued)
Massage	3	2	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 1 study) RR (1) Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study) MBSR (1)
Acupuncture	1	1	Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study)
Active (positive) concurr	ent control	s-medita	tion practices as comparison groups
Yoga	5	5	Mantra meditation (4 groups, 4 studies)  TM <sup>®</sup> (3), Mantra (NS) (1)  Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study)
Mantra meditation	3	3	Yoga (3 groups, 3 studies)
Mindfulness meditation	3	3	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (1), Mantra (NS) (1) Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study)
Meditation practices (ND)	2	2	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) RR (1), TM <sup>®</sup> (1)
Tai Chi	11	11	Mantra meditation (1 group, 1 study) RR (1)
Different dose or regimen of	of meditation	n practices-	-concurrent control groups
Yoga	15	14	Yoga (15 groups, 14 studies)
Mantra meditation	9	9	Mantra meditation (9 groups, 9 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (5), RR (2), CSM (1), Mantra (NS) (1)
Mindfulness meditation	5	4	Mindfulness meditation (5 groups, 4 studies) MBSR (2), Zen Buddhist meditation (1), MM (NS) (1)
Meditation practices (ND)	2	2	Meditation practices (ND) (2 groups, 2 studies)
Usual care	37	37	Mindfulness meditation (9 groups, 9 studies) MM (NS) (2), MBSR (3), MBCT (3), Zen Buddhist (1) Qi Gong (3 groups, 3 studies) Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) RR (1), TM® (2) Tai Chi (4 groups, 4 studies) Yoga (16 groups, 16 studies) Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) Miscellaneous meditation practices (1 group, 1 study)
Control groups (ND)	6	6	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) RR (1), TM <sup>®</sup> (1) Qi Gong (2 groups, 2 studies) MM (NS) (1) Tai Chi (1 groups, 1 studies)
Number of controls per stu	dy		
Single control	275	275	Yoga (80 groups, 80 studies) Mantra meditation (77 groups, 77 studies) TM® (34), RR (23), Mantra (NS) (9), CSM (6), Acem meditation (2), Cayce's meditation (1) Mindfulness meditation (55 groups, 55 studies) MBSR (25), MM (NS) (18), MBCT (6), Zen Buddhist meditation (6), Tai Chi (40 groups, 40 studies) Qi Gong (12 groups, 12 studies) Meditation practices (ND) (10 groups, 10 studies) Miscellaneous meditation practices (1 group, 1 study)

Table 19. Types of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices (continued)

Type of control group	N groups	N studies	Meditation practice (no. studies)
Number of controls per stu	dy (continue	d)	
Multiple controls	296	127	Mantra meditation (152 groups, 65 studies)  TM® (25), RR (22), Mantra (NS) (11), Acem meditation (1),  SRELAX (1)  Yoga (63 groups, 26 studies)  Mindfulness meditation (45 groups, 20 studies)  MBSR (8), MM (NS) (6), Zen Buddhist meditation (6)  Meditation practices (ND) (17 groups, 7 studies)  Tai Chi (13 groups, 6 studies)  Miscellaneous meditation practices (4 groups, 2 studies)  Qi Gong (2 groups, 1 study)

Table 20. Types of control groups for observational analytical studies on meditation practices

Type of control group	N groups	N studies	Meditation practice (no. studies)
Nonexposed cohorts/comparison groups	247	244	Mantra meditation (155 groups, 153 studies)  TM® (140), Mantra (NS) (6), Acem meditation (4), Ananda marga (3)  Yoga (29 groups, 29 studies)  Mindfulness meditation (21 groups, 21 studies)  Zen Buddhist meditation (12), MM (NS) (6), Vipassana (3)  Tai Chi (22 groups, 21 studies)  Qi Gong (13 groups, 13 studies)  Miscellaneous meditation practices (5 groups, 5 studies)  Meditation practices (ND) (2 groups, 2 studies)
Active (positive) concurrent	controls expo	sed to inte	erventions other than meditation practices
Exercise/physical activity	16	14	Tai Chi (4 groups, 4 studies) Yoga (4 groups, 4 studies) Miscellaneous meditation practices (4 groups, 2 studies) Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (2) Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) Qi Gong (1 group, 1 study)
Miscellaneous active controls	7	5	Mantra meditation (5 groups, 3 studies)  TM <sup>®</sup> (3)  Miscellaneous meditation practices (1 group, 1 study)  Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study)
Progressive muscle relaxation	5	4	Mantra meditation (5 groups, 4 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (4)
Hypnosis	3	3	Mantra meditation (3 groups, 3 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (3)
Rest and states of relaxation	3	3	Mantra meditation (3 groups, 3 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (3)
Education	2	2	Qi Gong (1 group, 1 study) Yoga (1 group, 1 study)

MM = mindfulness meditation; ND = not described; NS = not specified; RR = Relaxation Response; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>

Table 20. Types of control groups for observational analytical studies on meditation practices (continued)

Type of control group	N groups	N studies	Meditation practice (no. studies)
Active (positive) concurren	t controls e	xposed to in	terventions other than meditation practices
Group therapy	2	2	Mantra meditation (1 group, 1 study) TM <sup>®</sup> (1)
			Yoga (1 group, 1 study)
Reading	2	2	Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study) Zen Buddhist meditation (1) Yoga (1 group, 1 study)
Biofeedback	1	1	Mantra meditation (1 group, 1 study) RR (1)
Cognitive behavioral techniques	1	1	Mantra meditation (1 group, 1 study) TM <sup>®</sup> (1)
Active (positive) concurren	t controls e	xposed to m	editation practices
Mantra meditation	2	2	Mindfulness meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) Zen Buddhist meditation (1), MM (NS) (1)
Mindfulness meditation	2	2	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (1), Mantra (NS) (1)
Meditation practices (ND)	2	2	Yoga (1 group, 1 study) Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study)
Tai Chi	1	1	Qi Gong (1 group, 1 study)
Yoga	4	4	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies)  TM® (2)  Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study)  Zen Buddhist meditation (1)  Qi Gong (1 group, 1 study)
Concurrent control groups	exposed to	different do	se or regimen of the same meditation practice
Mantra meditation	21	20	Mantra meditation (21 groups, 20 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (17), Ananda marga (2), Mantra (NS) (1)
Mindfulness meditation	8	6	Mindfulness meditation (8 groups, 6 studies) Zen Buddhist meditation (4), Vipassana (1), MM (NS) (1)
Qi Gong	11	6	Qi Gong (11 groups, 6 studies)
Yoga	3	3	Yoga (3 groups, 3 studies)
Tai Chi	1	1	Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study)
Historical controls	14	14	Mantra meditation (11 groups, 11 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (10), Ananda marga (1) Qi Gong (3 groups, 3 studies)

Table 20. Types of control groups for observational analytical studies on meditation practices (continued)

Type of control group	N groups	N studies	Meditation practice (no. studies)
Number of controls per stu	udy		
Single control	207	207	Mantra meditation (136 groups, 136 studies)  TM® (126), Acem meditation (4), Mantra (NS) (4), Ananda marga (1), RR (1)  Yoga (26 groups, 26 studies)  Mindfulness meditation (17 groups, 17 studies)  Zen Buddhist meditation (8), MM (NS) (6), Vipassana (3)  Tai Chi (16 groups, 16 studies)  Qi Gong (8 groups, 8 studies)  Miscellaneous meditation practices (3 groups, 3 studies)  Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study)
Multiple controls	137	59	Mantra meditation (65 groups, 29 studies)  TM® (25), Ananda marga (2), Mantra (NS) (2)  Mindfulness meditation (16 groups, 7 studies)  Zen Buddhist meditation (5), MM (NS) (1), Vipassana (1)  Yoga (14 groups, 7 studies)  Qi Gong (20 groups, 7 studies)  Tai Chi (12 groups, 6 studies)  Miscellaneous meditation practices (7 groups, 2 studies)  Meditation practices (ND) (3 groups, 1 study)

## Meditation Practices Separated by the Diseases, Conditions, and Populations for Which They Have Been Examined

Eight hundred and thirteen studies contributed to the description of the diseases, conditions, and populations for which meditation practices have been examined.

Overall, 69 percent (n = 564) of the studies included healthy participants only, whereas 30 percent (n = 244) reported on clinical populations. Five studies (0.6 percent) included both healthy and clinical participants in the study populations. Overall, the median number of participants per study was 40 (IQR, 23 to 71), with a median age of 37 years (IQR, 26 to 50; n = 536). Both male and females were equally represented in the studies (median number of males per study, 19; IQR, 10 to 36; median number of females per study, 19; IQR, 7 to 39).

Table 21 displays the diseases, conditions, and populations that have been examined in intervention and observational analytical studies on meditation practices.

Table 21. Types of populations and conditions included in studies on meditation

Category of interest	Study condition	Intervention studies	Observational analytical studies	Total	Total studies per category
Circulatory and	Hypertension	35	2	37	61
cardiovascular	Other cardiovascular diseases	24		24	

COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; HIV = human immunodeficiency virus; NS = not specified

Table 21. Types of populations and conditions included in studies on meditation (continued)

Category of interest	Study condition	Intervention studies	Observational analytical studies	Total	Total studies per category	
Dental	Dental problems (NS)	1		1	2	
	Periodontitis		1	1		
Dermatology	Psoriasis	3		3	3	
Endocrine	Obesity	1		1	11	
	Type II diabetes mellitus	10		10		
Gastrointestinal	Gastrointestinal disorders	1		1	3	
	Irritable bowel syndrome	2		2		
Gynecology	Infertility	1		1	10	
,	Menopause	2		2		
	Postmenopause	1	3	4		
	Pregnancy	1	1	2		
	Premenstrual syndrome	 1				
Healthy	College and university students	123	65	189	553	
ricallity	<u> </u>	34	26	60	555	
	Elderly					
	Healthy volunteers	90	160	250		
	Army and military	8		8		
	Prison inmates	7	3	10		
	Workers	25	3	28		
	Athletes	6		6		
	Smokers	3		3		
Immunologic	HIV	3		3	3	
Sleep disorders	Insomnia	2	•••	2	5	
	Chronic insomnia	3		3		
Mental health disorders	Anger management	1		1	66	
disorders	Anxiety disorders	14		14		
	Binge eating disorder	3		3		
	Burnout	1		1		
	Depression	11		11		
	Miscellaneous psychiatric conditions	6	1	7		
	Mood disorders	3		3		
	Neurosis	1		1		
	Obsessive-compulsive disorder	1		1		
	Parents of children with behavior problems	1		1		
	Personality disorders	1		1		
	Postraumatic stress disorders	1		1		
	Psychosis	1		1		

Table 21. Type of populations and conditions included in studies on meditation (continued)

Category of interest	Study condition	Intervention studies	Observational analytical studies	Total	Total studies per category
Mental health	Schizophrenia	1		1	
disorders (continued)	Schizophrenia AND antisocial personality disorders	1		1	
	Substance abuse	18		18	
Miscellaneous	Heterogeneous patient population	10		10	11
medical conditions	Chronic fatigue	1		1	
Musculoskeletal	Balance disorders	1		1	42
	Carpal tunnel syndrome	1		1	
	Multiple sclerosis	2		2	
	Muscular dystrophy	1		1	
	Chronic pain	10	1	11	
	Chronic rheumatic diseases	1		1	
	Fibromyalgia	10		10	
	Regional pain syndrome	1		1	
	Rheumatoid arthritis	6		6	
	Hyperkyphosis	1		1	
	Osteoarthritis	4		4	
	Osteoporosis	1		1	
	Postpolio syndrome	1		1	
	Total hip and knee replacement	1		1	
Neurological	Developmental disabilities	1		1	10
	Epilepsy	2		2	
	Migraine and tension headaches	3		3	
	Stroke	2		2	
	Traumatic brain injuries	2		2	
Oncology	Cancer	12		12	12
Organ transplant	Organ transplantation	1		1	1
Renal	End-stage renal disease	1		1	1
Respiratory and pulmonary	Asthma	11		11	16
	COPD	1		1	
	Chronic airways obstruction	1		1	
	Chronic bronchitis	1		1	
	Pleural effusion	1		1	
	Pulmonary tuberculosis	1		1	
Vestibular	Tinnitus	2		2	3

Table 21. Type of populations and conditions included in studies on meditation (continued)

Category of interest	Study condition	Intervention studies	Observational analytical studies	Total	Total studies per category
	Vestibulopathy	1		1	
Total		547	266	813	813

In general, the majority of studies (68 percent) on meditation practices have been conducted in healthy populations such as college and university students, healthy elderly participants from the community, army and military personnel, prison inmates, workers, athletes, and smokers (553 studies comprising 196 intervention studies and 257 observational analytical studies). Individuals with mental health disorders constituted the second most studied population (and the most frequently studied category of clinical conditions) examined in studies on meditation practices (66 studies: 65 intervention studies, and 1 observational analytical study). Mental health conditions included substance abuse, anxiety disorders, depression, and binge eating disorders, among others.

People with cardiovascular and circulatory conditions were the third most studied population and the second most frequently studied clinical condition (61 studies comprising 59 intervention studies and 2 observational analytical studies). There were 37 studies on hypertensive participants (35 intervention studies and 2 observational analytical studies). Cardiovascular conditions (24 intervention studies) included hypertension and a group of heterogeneous cardiovascular diseases (diseases of the circulatory system—the heart, the blood vessels of the heart, and the veins and arteries throughout the body and within the brain) such as coronary artery disease, chronic heart failure, ischemic heart disease, and myocardial infarction.

Forty-two studies on meditation practices (41 intervention studies and 1 observational analytical study) have been conducted in musculoskeletal conditions including chronic pain, fibromyalgia, rheumatoid arthritis, and osteoarthritis. Respiratory conditions (e.g., asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) have been examined in 16 intervention studies. Twelve intervention studies in oncology have been conducted using different types of cancer populations, such as breast, prostate, skin and lymphoma. Endocrine diseases such as type II diabetes mellitus (DM) and obesity conditions have been examined in 11 intervention studies on meditation practices. Heterogeneous patient populations with a variety of medical conditions not specified have been examined in 11 intervention studies.

Gynecological conditions such as postmenopause, menopause, premenstrual syndrome, pregnancy, and infertility have been examined in 10 intervention studies. Populations with gastrointestinal disorders have been examined in three intervention studies. Three intervention studies have examined the effect of meditation practices in dermatological disorders, such as psoriasis, and on vestibular problems, such as tinnitus. Finally, patients with dental problems (one intervention study, one observational study), end-stage renal disease (one intervention study), and organ transplants (one intervention study) have been used as study populations for studies on meditation practices.

After excluding healthy populations, the distribution of conditions or disorders for which meditation practices have been examined was

- 1. hypertension (35 intervention studies and 2 observational analytical studies);
- 2. other cardiovascular diseases (24 intervention studies);
- 3. substance abuse disorders (18 intervention studies);
- 4. anxiety disorders (14 intervention studies);
- 5. cancer (12 intervention studies);
- 6. asthma (11 intervention studies);
- 7. chronic pain (10 intervention studies and 1 observational analytical study);
- 8. type II DM (10 intervention studies);
- 9. fibromyalgia (10 intervention studies); and
- 10. miscellaneous psychiatric conditions (six intervention studies and one observational analytical study).

Table G9 in Appendix G\* provides a comparative summary of the number and study references by meditation practice, separated by the conditions and populations for which they have been examined.

**Mantra meditation.** Among the intervention studies on  $TM^{\otimes}$ , the majority (72 percent, 57/80) have been conducted in healthy populations (college and university students [24 studies], healthy volunteers from the community [19 studies], prison inmates [4 studies], elderly [3 studies], smokers [2 studies], and athletes [1 study]). The second largest group of  $TM^{\otimes}$  studies examined its effects on mental health disorders (nine studies) such as substance abuse (five studies), anxiety disorders (two studies), posttraumatic stress disorder (one study), and other miscellaneous psychiatric conditions (one study). Participants with circulatory or cardiovascular diseases such as hypertension (9 studies) and coronary artery disease (1 study) have been included in 10 studies on  $TM^{\otimes}$ . Other conditions such as asthma (two studies), chronic insomnia (one study), and a miscellaneous group of cancer patients (one study) have also been included in intervention studies on  $TM^{\otimes}$ .

The vast majority of observational analytical studies on TM<sup>®</sup> (98 percent, 148/151) have been conducted in healthy populations (healthy volunteers from the community [91 studies], college and university students [48 studies], prison inmates [3 studies], and workers [1 study]). Conditions such as pregnancy (one study), postmenopause (one study), and dental problems (e.g., periodontitis, one study) have been also examined.

Intervention studies on *RR* have included mainly healthy populations (31 studies), in addition to circulatory and cardiovascular conditions (hypertension [4 studies], other cardiovascular conditions [5 studies] including chronic heart failure, congestive heart failure, ischemic heart disease, premature ventricular contractions, and peripheral vascular disease), mental health disorders (substance abuse [2 studies], anxiety disorders [1 study], schizophrenia or antisocial personality disorders [1 study]), gynecological conditions (menopause [1 study], premenstrual syndrome [1 study]), and other clinical conditions such as irritable bowel syndrome (1 study), total knee replacement (1 study), skin cancer (1 study), and a group of patients with heterogeneous clinical conditions (1 study). The only observational analytical study on RR has been conducted in a population of hypertensive patients.

86

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

Nineteen intervention studies on *mantra meditation techniques not further described* have been conducted with healthy populations. Other populations included people with mental health disorders (anxiety disorders [three studies], substance abuse [two studies], miscellaneous psychiatric conditions [one study]), hypertension (one study), and epilepsy (one study). The six observational analytical studies conducted on mantra techniques not further described have included healthy volunteers from the community.

Seven intervention studies on *CSM* have been conducted on healthy populations, three on mental disorders such as anxiety disorders (one study), schizophrenia (one study), and substance abuse (one study), and another study on chronic insomnia.

All the intervention and observational analytical studies on *Acem meditation*, *Ananda Marga*, *Cayce's meditation*, and *Rosary prayer* have been conducted with healthy populations.

Yoga. Among the intervention studies on Yoga, more than half (80/158) have been conducted with healthy populations (healthy volunteers from the community [34 studies], college and university students [26 studies], army and military personnel [7 studies], workers [5 studies], prison inmates [4 studies], and athletes [1 study]). The second largest group of conditions studied is constituted by circulatory and cardiovascular diseases (21 studies) such as hypertension (13 studies), and other cardiovascular conditions (8 studies). Studies on Yoga have also included participants with mental health disorders (16 studies) such as depression (7 studies), anxiety disorders (3 studies), substance abuse (3 studies), other miscellaneous psychiatric conditions (2 studies), and obsessive-compulsive disorders (1 study). Respiratory and pulmonary conditions such as asthma (nine studies), chronic airways obstruction, chronic bronchitis, pleural effusion, and pulmonary tuberculosis (one study each) have been also examined. Participants with musculoskeletal conditions such as chronic pain, rheumatoid arthritis (two studies each), carpal tunnel syndrome, chronic rheumatic diseases, fibromyalgia, hyperkyphosis, multiple sclerosis, osteoarthritis, and postpolio syndrome (one study each) have been included in intervention studies on Yoga. Other conditions examined in Yoga studies were gastrointestinal disorders (two studies), epilepsy, migraine, pregnancy, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), lymphoma, chronic insomnia, tinnitus, and heterogeneous patient populations (one study each). All the observational analytic studies on Yoga (33 studies) have been conducted with healthy populations.

**Mindfulness meditation.** Among the 49 intervention studies on *MBSR*, 12 were conducted with healthy populations and 12 with populations with mental health disorders. Mental health disorders included anxiety disorders (three studies), mood disorders (two studies), substance abuse (two studies), binge eating disorders, burnout, personality disorders, miscellaneous psychiatric conditions, and stress-related conditions of parents of children with behavioral problems (one study each).

Participants with musculoskeletal conditions such as chronic pain (four studies) and fibromyalgia (two studies) have been also included. Cancer patients have been included in four intervention studies on MBSR. Other conditions such as psoriasis (two studies), cardiovascular diseases (two studies), traumatic brain injuries (two studies), obesity, HIV, and organ transplantation (one study each) have also been included. No observational analytic studies on MBSR were identified.

Eleven intervention studies on *mindfulness meditation not further specified* have been conducted in healthy populations. Other populations included mental health disorders (binge eating disorders [two studies], anxiety disorders, psychosis, substance abuse [one study each]).

Musculoskeletal conditions such as fibromyalgia (three studies) and chronic pain (two studies), cardiovascular diseases, cancer (three studies each), psoriasis, infertility, and heterogeneous patient populations (one study each) have been included also. The majority of observational analytical studies on mindfulness meditation techniques not further specified (six studies) have been conducted in healthy populations, with only one observational study conducted in a clinical population (individuals with chronic pain).

The majority of intervention studies (73 percent) on *Zen Buddhist meditation* have been conducted on healthy participants (11 studies). Clinical conditions that have been studied in intervention studies include hypertension (two studies), coronary artery disease, and insomnia (one study each). All the observational analytical studies conducted on Zen Buddhist meditation (13 studies) have included healthy volunteers.

Three intervention studies on *MBCT* have included patients with a depressive disorder. Other populations that have been examined are individuals with fibromyalgia, stroke, tinnitus, and healthy workers (one study each). No observational studies on MBCT were identified.

Intervention studies on *Vipassana meditation* have involved healthy populations from the community and patients with migraine or tension headaches (one study each). The observational analytical studies conducted on Vipassana meditation (four studies) have employed healthy populations from the community (two studies), college and university students, and elderly individuals (one study each).

Tai Chi. Intervention studies on Tai Chi have mainly assessed healthy populations (38 studies), particularly the elderly (25 studies). Clinical conditions examined in intervention studies of Tai Chi include musculoskeletal conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis (four studies), osteoarthritis (three studies), chronic pain (two studies), balance disorders, fibromyalgia, multiple sclerosis, and osteoporosis (one study each). Circulatory and cardiovascular conditions have been examined in four studies. Other populations examined in studies on Tai Chi are menopause, postmenopause, depression, miscellaneous psychiatric conditions, developmental disabilities, stroke, type II DM, HIV, breast cancer, end-stage renal disease, and vestibulopathy (one study each). The majority (91 percent, 20/22) of the observational analytical studies conducted in Tai Chi have examined groups of healthy, elderly individuals or other healthy individuals from the community. Two observational studies have been conducted in groups of postmenopausal women.

**Qi Gong.** Intervention studies on Qi Gong have examined populations of healthy participants (seven studies), patients with circulatory and cardiovascular disorders (hypertension [four studies], coronary artery disease [one study]), musculoskeletal conditions (fibromyalgia [two studies], muscular dystrophy and regional pain syndrome [one study each]), type II DM, substance abuse, miscellaneous medical conditions, migraine, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) (one study each). Almost all the observational analytical Qi Gong studies (14/15) were conducted with healthy populations; one was conducted with hypertensives.

**Meditation practices (ND).** Among the 19 intervention studies that failed to describe the meditation practice under study, 12 examined healthy college and university students (nine studies), workers (2 studies), and healthy volunteers from the community (one study). Intervention studies on clinical conditions included patients with hypertension, dental problems, and insomnia (one study each). Two observational studies included respectively, healthy college and university students and individuals with miscellaneous psychiatric conditions.

**Miscellaneous meditation practices.** Five of the six intervention studies that combined different meditation practices were conducted in healthy populations (three studies), miscellaneous psychiatric conditions, and heterogeneous populations of patients (one study each). One intervention study was conducted in patients with breast cancer. All five observational studies on miscellaneous meditation practices examined healthy populations.

Tables 22 and 23 summarize the diseases, conditions, and populations for which meditation practices have been studied in intervention and observational analytical studies.

Table 22. Intervention studies conducted on meditation practices by populations examined\*

Category	Population	Mantra meditation (N)	Mindfulness meditation (N)	Meditation practices (ND) (N)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (N)	Qi Gong (N)	Tai Chi (N)	Yoga (N)	Total (N)	Studies per category (N)
Circulatory and	Hypertension	14*	2	1		4	1	13	33	59
cardiovascular	Other cardiovascular diseases	6	6			1	3	8	24	
Dental	Dental problems (NS)			1					1	1
Dermatology	Psoriasis		3						3	3
Endocrine	Obesity		1						1	11
	Type II diabetes mellitus					2	1	7	10	
Gastrointestinal	Gastrointestinal disorders				•••			1	1	3
	Irritable bowel syndrome	1			•••			1	2	
Gynecology	Infertility		1		•••				1	6
	Menopause	1					1		2	
	Postmenopause						1		1	
	Pregnancy							1	1	
	Premenstrual syndrome	1							1	
Healthy	College and university students	56	23	9	2	2	4	27	124	296
	Elderly	3				1	25	5	34	
	Healthy volunteers	36	6	1	1	4	8	34	90	
	Army and military	1						7	8	

<sup>\*</sup>Only conditions for which studies were available COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; HIV = human immunodeficiency virus; ND = not described; NS = not specified

Table 22. Intervention studies conducted on meditation practices by populations examined (continued)

Category	Population	Mantra meditation (N)	Mindfulness meditation (N)	Meditation practices (ND) (N)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (N)	Qi Gong (N)	Tai Chi (N)	Yoga (N)	Total (N)	Studies per category (N)
Healthy	Prison inmates	5						2	7	
(continued)	Workers	12	5	2			1	5	25	•
	Athletes	4	1					1	6	•
	Smokers	2	1						3	•
Immunologic	HIV		1				1	1	3	3
Sleep disorders	Insomnia		1	1					2	5
	Chronic insomnia	2						1	3	•
Mental health disorders	Anger management			1					1	65
	Anxiety disorders	7	4					3	14	
	Binge eating disorder		3						3	
	Burnout		1						1	
	Depression		3				1	7	11	•
	Miscellaneous psychiatric conditions	2	1		1		1	1	6	•
	Mood disorders		2	1					3	•
	Neurosis							1	1	•
	Obsessive- compulsive disorder							1	1	•
	Parents of children with behavior problems		1						1	•
	Personality disorders		1						1	•

Table 22. Intervention studies conducted on meditation practices by populations examined (continued)

Category	Population	Mantra meditation (N)	Mindfulness meditation (N)	Meditation practices (ND) (N)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (N)	Qi Gong (N)	Tai Chi (N)	Yoga (N)	Total (N)	Studies per category (N)
Mental health disorders (continued)	Postraumatic stress disorders	1							1	
	Psychosis		1						1	
	Schizophrenia	1							1	
	Schizophrenia and antisocial personality disorders	1						•••	1	
	Substance abuse	9	3	2		1		3	18	
Miscellaneous medical conditions	Heterogeneous patient population	1	6		1	1		1	10	11
	Chronic fatigue		1						1	
Musculo- skeletal	Balance disorders	•••				•••	1		1	41
	Carpal tunnel syndrome							1	1	
	Multiple sclerosis	•••					1	1	2	
	Muscular dystrophy	•••				1			1	
	Chronic pain	•••	6			2	2	10		
	Chronic rheumatic diseases							1	1	
	Fibromyalgia		6			2	1	1	10	
	Regional pain syndrome					1			1	
	Rheumatoid arthritis						4	2	6	

Table 22. Intervention studies conducted on meditation practices by populations examined (continued)

Category	Population	Mantra meditation (N)	Mindfulness meditation (N)	Meditation practices (ND) (N)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (N)	Qi Gong (N)	Tai Chi (N)	Yoga (N)	Total (N)	Studies per category (N)
Musculo-	Hyperkyphosis		•••				-	1	1	
skeletal (continued)	Osteoarthritis						3	1	4	
,	Osteoporosis	•••					1		1	
	Postpolio syndrome	•••		•••				1	1	
	Total hip and knee replacement	1							1	
Neurological	Developmental disabilities	•••		•••		•••	1		1	10
	Epilepsy	1					•••	1	2	
	Migraine and tension headaches		1			1		1	3	
	Stroke		1				1		2	
	Traumatic brain injuries		2						2	
Oncology	Cancer	2	7		1		1	1	12	12
Organ transplant	Organ transplantation		1						1	1
Renal	End-stage renal disease	•••		•••			1		1	1
Respiratory and pulmonary	Asthma	2						9	11	16
	COPD		•••			1			1	
	Chronic airways obstruction							1	1	
	Chronic bronchitis							1	1	
	Pleural effusion							1	1	

Table 22. Intervention studies conducted on meditation practices by populations examined (continued)

Category	Population	Mantra meditation (N)	Mindfulness meditation (N)	Meditation practices (ND) (N)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (N)	Qi Gong (N)	Tai Chi (N)	Yoga (N)	Total (N)	Studies per category (N)
Respiratory and pulmonary (continued)	Pulmonary tuberculosis							1	1	
Vestibular	Tinnitus		1		•••			1	2	3
	Vestibulopathy						1		1	
Total		172	103	19	6	22	66	159	548	547

95

Table 23. Observational analytical studies conducted on meditation practices by populations examined\*

Category	Population	Mantra meditation (N)	Mindfulness meditation (N)	Meditation practices (ND) (N)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (N)	Qi Gong (N)	Tai Chi (N)	Yoga (N)	Total (N)	Studies per category (N)
Circulatory and cardiovascu -lar	Hypertension	1				1			2	2
Dental	Periodontitis	1							1	1
Gynecology	Postmenopause	1				•••	2		3	4
	Pregnancy	1							1	
Healthy	College and university students	48	6	1	1	2		7	65	257
	Elderly	5	1			1	18	1	26	
	Healthy volunteers	104	16		4	11	2	23	160	
	Prison inmates	3							3	
	Workers	1						2	3	
Mental health disorders	Miscellaneous psychiatric conditions			1					1	1
Musculo- skeletal	Chronic pain		1						1	1
Total		165	24	2	5	15	22	33	266	266

<sup>\*</sup>Only conditions for which studies were available ND = not described; NS = not specified

# **Outcome Measures Used in Studies on Meditation Practices**

In total, 3,665 outcome measures were reported in 813 studies on meditation practices. The median number of outcomes reported per study was four (IQR, 2 to 6). Table 24 displays the type of outcome measures that have been examined in studies on meditation practices.

Table 24. Type of outcome measures examined in studies on meditation practices

Domain	Outcomes	No. measures (%)	No. per domain
Physiological	Cardiovascular	496 (13.51)	1,474
	Pulmonary and respiratory	251 (6.85)	
	Nutritional biochemistry and metabolism	235 (6.41)	
	Endocrine and hormonal	125 (3.41)	
	Brain and nervous system	112 (3.06)	
	Electrodermal responses	72 (1.96)	
	Muscular	46 (1.26)	
	Lymphatic and immunological	45 (1.23)	
	Blood	28 (0.76)	
	Thermoregulatory	22 (0.60)	
	Skeletal	14 (0.38)	
	Ocular	13 (0.35)	
	Sensory	8 (0.22)	
	Renal and excretory	7 (0.19)	
	Gastric	1 (0.03)	
Psychosocial	Psychiatric and psychological symptoms	645 (15.6)	1,204
	Personality	313 (8.54)	
	Positive psychology outcomes	108 (2.95)	
	Social and interpersonal relationships	50 (1.36)	
	Health-related quality of life	42 (1.15)	
	Activities of daily living and events impact	26 (0.71)	
	Other behavioral	20 (0.55)	
Clinical	Physical functionality	252 (6.88)	698
	Clinical events and symptoms improvement	154 (4.20)	
	Nutritional status, body composition or weight	74 (2.02)	
	Health status or well-being	70 (1.91)	
	Sleep	55 (1.50)	
	Pain and pain-related behavior	54 (1.47)	
	Falls occurrence and related behaviors	17 (0.46)	
	Adherence	12 (0.33)	
	Mortality	8 (0.22)	
	Longevity	2 (0.05)	

Table 24. Type of outcome measures examined in studies on meditation practices (continued)

Domain	Outcomes	No. measures (%)	No. per domain
Cognitive and neuro-	Sensory perceptual and motor functions	103 (2.81)	239
psychological	Reasoning and executive functions	40 (1.09)	
	General functions	37 (1.01)	
	Memory	24 (0.65)	
	Attention	22 (0.60)	
	Language	13 (0.35)	
Healthcare	Medication use	30 (0.82)	50
utilization	Healthcare utilization and economic outcomes	20 (0.55)	
Total		3,665	3,665

The most frequently studied outcomes were those of physiological functions (1,474 measures), followed by psychosocial outcomes (1,204 measures), outcomes related to clinical events and health status (698 measures), cognitive and neuropsychological functions (239 measures), and healthcare utilization (50 outcomes).

Studies on mantra meditation techniques reported the largest number of outcome measures (1,306 measures), followed by studies on Yoga (989 measures), mindfulness meditation techniques (567 measures), Tai Chi (489 measures), and Qi Gong (197 measures). Studies that did not describe the meditation practice under study reported 76 measures and studies that combined practices reported 41 measures.

Table 25 provides a summary of the type and number of outcome measures examined by meditation practice.

**Physiological outcomes.** Cardiovascular measures (495 measures) were the most frequently examined variables among the physiological outcomes. They included variables such as changes in systolic and diastolic blood pressure, heart rate, oxygen consumption, and electrocardiogram patterns. Other physiological measures frequently reported included pulmonary and respiratory outcomes (251 measures) such as respiratory rate, lung function testing measures (e.g., forced expiratory volume [FEV1], forced vital capacity [FVC], peak expiratory flow rate [PEFR]), and carbon monoxide levels). Nutritional biochemistry and metabolism outcomes (235 measures) included biochemical and metabolic processes measures that act as markers of certain diseases or conditions. These measures included serum levels of cholesterol, tryglicerides, glucose, lactate, potassium, calcium, sodium, and lipid profile.

Endocrine and hormonal outcomes (125 measures) described changes in substances secreted by the endocrine system to regulate the activity of the organs. They included measures of cortisol levels, neurohormones, catecholamines, endorphines, adrenaline, and aldosterone. Brain and nervous system measures (112 measures) included electroencephalogram (EEG) profile, P300 latencies, and neurotransmitter levels. Electrodermal responses, also known as galvanic skin responses, skin conductance, and skin resistance (72 measures), included measures of the ability of the skin to conduct an electrical current as a sympathetic reaction to emotional arousal and stress. Muscular physiology (46 measures), as a proxy for emotional arousal, was examined for variables such as muscle tension and relaxation, frontal electromyographic activity, muscle voltage, and reflex function, among others. Outcomes related to the physiological functioning of the immune system (45 measures) included immunoglobulin (IgA, IgG, and IgM) concentrations, leukocytes, lymphocytes, monocytes, and neutrophil levels in general, natural killer cell activity, white blood cell count, and number of monoclonal antibodies. There were 28 outcomes related to

blood products and hemodynamic parameters, 22 on thermoregulatory functions such as skin or body temperature, and 14 measures related to the *skeletal* system, for example, bone mineral density. Other physiological outcomes less frequently reported included *ocular* (e.g., intraocular pressure, pupillary dilatation) (13 measures), *sensory*, for example, auditory thresholds (8 measures), *renal* function tests (7 measures), and *gastric* measures, for example, gastric motility (1 measure).

Table 25. Numb	er of outcome meas	ures examined by	/ meditation prac	tice	
Category	Population	Mantra meditation	Mindfulness meditation	Meditation practice (ND)	Miscel med prac

Category	Population	Mantra meditation (N)	Mindfulness meditation (N)	Meditation practice (ND) (N)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (N)	Qi Gong (N)	Tai Chi (N)	Yoga (N)	Total (N)	Measures per category (N)
\ <u></u>	Cardiovascular	196	25	9		27	87	151	495	1,474
	Pulmonary and respiratory	83	14	1		14	33	106	251	
	Nutritional biochemistry and metabolism	76	3	2	2	22	20	110	235	_
	Endocrine and hormonal	49	10	2		15	7	42	125	_
	Brain and nervous system	73	13			7		19	112	_
	Electrodermal responses	53	8	1			•••	10	72	_
ica	Muscular	30	2	2			6	6	46	
Physiological	Lymphatic and immunological	5	9			29	1	1	45	•
Phy	Blood	12	1	1		3	1	10	28	
	Thermoregulatory	10	1	1		1	2	7	22	-
	Skeletal						12	2	14	-
	Ocular	6						7	13	•
	Sensory	3						5	8	-
	Renal and excretory			2		3	1	1	7	-
	Gastric							1	1	

ND = not described

Table 25. Number of outcome measures examined by meditation practice (continued)

Category	Population	Mantra meditation (N)	Mindfulness meditation (N)	Meditation practice (ND) (N)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (N)	Qi Gong (N)	Tai Chi (N)	Yoga (N)	Total (N)	Measures per category (N)
	Psychiatric and psychological symptoms	231	183	20	13	25	33	140	645	1,204
	Personality	146	66	12	6	8	14	61	313	
cial	Positive psychology outcomes	37	37	4	5		4	21	108	
Psychosocial	Social and interpersonal relationships	26	14				3	7	50	
Psy	Health-related quality of life	3	12	2	1	4	10	10	42	
	Activities of daily living and events impact	8	8		1	1	5	3	26	_
	Other behavioral	7	3	1	3		1	5	20	
	Physical functionality	12	7	1	1	8	165	58	252	698
	Clinical events and symptoms improvement	33	31	1	3	8	17	61	154	-
	Nutritional status, body composition and weight	22	10			7	8	27	74	
	Health status and well- being	11	23	1	2	3	13	17	70	<u>-</u>
लू	Sleep	25	14	2		1	2	11	55	
Clinical	Pain and pain-related behavior	6	20			6	11	11	54	<u>-</u>
	Falls occurrence and related behavior					1	16	-	17	<del>-</del>
	Adherence	4	3			•••	3	2	12	
	Mortality	5				2		1	8	-
	Longevity	2							2	-

Table 25. Number of outcome measures examined by meditation practice (continued)

Category	Population	Mantra meditation (N)	Mindfulness meditation (N)	Meditation practice (ND) (N)	Miscellaneous meditation practices (N)	Qi Gong (N)	Tai Chi (N)	Yoga (N)	Total (N)	Measures per category (N)
	Sensory perceptual and motor functions	48	18	3	2		8	24	103	239
gical	Reasoning and executive functions	21	11	5	1			2	40	
e and cholog	General functions	17	5	1	1		4	9	37	
Cognitive and neuropsychological	Memory	14	3	2				5	24	•
Cc	Attention	10	5					7	22	•
	Language	5	1					7	13	•
Healthcare utilization	Medication use	4	3			2	2	19	30	50
duization	Healthcare utilization and economic outcomes	13	4					3	20	•
Total		1321	567	76	41	197	489	989	3680	3680

**Psychosocial outcomes.** The most studied psychosocial outcomes were those measuring psychiatric and psychological symptoms (645 measures) of anxiety, depression, stress, mood states, irritability and anger expression, and abuse of psychoactive or other substances causing psychological dependence. Measures of *personality* (both normal and abnormal) were reported for 313 outcomes. These studies reported data on either general characteristics of the personality (e.g., personality and psychological profiles, ego strength, and coping styles) or particular traits or characteristics of the individual psychological functioning (e.g., locus of control, neuroticism, psychoticism, extraversion, self-actualization, self-esteem, and hostility traits). Positive psychology outcomes (measures of processes that contribute to flourishing or optimal functioning of individuals (e.g., empathy, assertive behavior, happiness, spirituality, autonomy) were reported in 108 outcomes). Outcomes related to social and interpersonal relationships such as marital adjustment, level of interpersonal conflicts, social adjustment, and social functioning, were examined in 50 measures. Health-related quality of life measures were reported for 42 outcomes. Other psychosocial outcomes included activities of daily living (26 measures), and other miscellaneous and nonspecific behavioral measures not further classified, such as "level of relaxation" and "hypnotic response."

Clinical outcomes. Measures examining physical functions such as balance, strength, flexibility, mobility, and postural stability were the most frequently reported types of clinical outcomes (252 measures). They were followed by measures of discrete clinical events, or indicators of symptom improvement that were particular to the conditions under study, such as change in fibromyalgia symptoms, number of asthma episodes, and angina pectoris symptoms (154 measures). Outcomes related to the *nutritional status* or body composition of individuals (74 measures) included body weight, body mass index, and diet and nutritional patterns. There were 70 outcomes related to *general health status and well-being*, 55 outcomes for *sleep* characteristics, and 54 for pain-related symptoms. Seventeen outcomes reported on the frequency of falls or falls-related behaviors. Other clinical measures included *adherence* (12 measures), *mortality* (8 measures), and *longevity* (2 measures).

Cognitive and neuropsychological measures. Measures related to sensory perception and motor functions (103 measures) were the most frequently examined cognitive and neuropsychological outcomes. These measures included psychomotor performance, perceptual motor skills, field independence, absorption, autonomic arousal, and visual-spatial ability. Other cognitive and neuropsychological measures less frequently examined included reasoning and executive functions (40 measures) (e.g., cognitive flexibility, logical reasoning, thought categorization, and associate learning). General cognitive outcomes (37 measures) included global measures of intelligence, cognitive status, and neuropsychological functioning. Memory functions (e.g., short- and long-term, verbal and visual, declarative and procedural) were reported by 24 measures. Finally, language (e.g., verbal fluency, vocabulary, language comprehension, reading skills) and attention functions (e.g., concentration, sustained focusing capacity) were each reported by seven measures.

**Healthcare utilization:** A number of outcomes addressed factors related to the use of healthcare resources, such as medication use (30 measures), length of hospital stay, medical utilization rates, number of sick leaves, and payments to the healthcare system (20 measures).

When the outcome measures were analyzed by the type of meditation practice under study, we found that the 10 most frequently reported outcome measures in mantra meditation studies were

- 1. psychiatric and psychological symptoms (231 measures);
- 2. physiological cardiovascular outcomes (196 measures);
- 3. personality outcomes (146 measures);
- 4. physiological pulmonary and respiratory outcomes (83 measures);
- 5. physiological nutrition, biochemical and metabolic outcomes (76 measures);
- 6. physiological brain and nervous system outcomes (73 measures);
- 7. physiological electrodermal responses (53 measures);
- 8. physiological endocrine and hormonal outcomes (49 measures);
- 9. sensory perceptual and motor neuropsychological functions (48 measures); and
- 10. positive psychology outcomes (37 measures).

There are no studies on mantra meditation practices that have reported skeletal, renal and excretory, or gastric physiology outcomes or the occurrence of falls or fall-related behaviors.

The 10 most frequently reported outcome measures in studies on Yoga were

- 1. physiological cardiovascular outcomes (151 measures);
- 2. psychiatric and psychological symptoms (140 measures);
- 3. physiological nutrition, biochemical and metabolic outcomes (110 measures);
- 4. physiological pulmonary and respiratory outcomes (106 measures);
- 5. personality outcomes (61 measures);
- 6. clinical events and symptom improvement (61 measures);
- 7. physical functionality outcomes (58 measures);
- 8. physiological endocrine and hormonal outcomes (42 measures);
- 9. outcomes of nutritional status and body composition (27 measures); and
- 10. sensory perceptual and motor neuropsychological functions (24 measures).

No studies on Yoga reported on the occurrence of falls or fall-related behaviors, or on longevity of study participants.

The 10 most frequently reported outcome measures in studies on Tai Chi were

- 1. physical functionality (165 measures);
- 2. physiological cardiovascular outcomes (87 measures);
- 3. physiological pulmonary and respiratory outcomes (33 measures);
- 4. psychiatric and psychological symptoms (33 measures);
- 5. physiological nutrition, biochemical and metabolic outcomes (20 measures);
- 6. clinical events and symptom improvement (17 measures);
- 7. falls and fall-related behavior (16 measures);
- 8. personality measures (14 measures);
- 9. measures of health status and well-being (13 measures); and
- 10. physiological skeletal outcomes (12 measures).

There are no studies on Tai Chi that reported physiological outcomes related to the brain and central nervous system, ocular, sensory, or gastrointestinal systems, or electrodermal response. Studies on Tai Chi have not examined outcomes related to mortality, longevity, healthcare utilization, or cognitive and neuropsychological functions such as reasoning, memory, attention, and language.

The 10 most frequently outcome measures in studies on mindfulness meditation practices were

- 1. psychiatric and psychological symptoms (183 measures);
- 2. personality measures (66 measures);
- 3. positive psychology outcomes (37 measures);
- 4. clinical events and symptom improvement (31 measures);
- 5. physiological cardiovascular outcomes (25 measures);
- 6. measures of health status and well-being (23 measures);
- 7. measures of pain and pain-related behavior (20 measures);
- 8. sensory perceptual and motor neuropsychological functions (18 measures);
- 9. physiological pulmonary and respiratory outcomes (14 measures); and
- 10. social and interpersonal relationships measures (14 measures).

No studies on mindfulness meditation practices have reported outcomes of longevity, physiology of ocular, sensory, gastric, skeletal or renal systems, mortality, or the incidence of falls.

The 10 most frequently reported outcome measures in studies on Qi Gong were

- 1. physiological lymphatic and immunological outcomes (29 measures);
- 2. physiological cardiovascular outcomes (27 measures);
- 3. psychiatric and psychological symptoms (25 measures);
- 4. physiological nutrition, biochemical and metabolic outcomes (22 measures);
- 5. physiological endocrine and hormonal outcomes (15 measures);
- 6. physiological pulmonary and respiratory outcomes (14 measures);
- 7. personality measures (8 measures);
- 8. clinical events and symptom improvement (8 measures);
- 9. physical function (8 measures); and
- 10. physiological brain and nervous system outcomes (8 measures).

There are no studies on Qi Gong that reported physiological outcomes related to the muscular, skeletal, ocular, sensory, and gastric systems or on electrodermal response. Other outcomes that have not been examined in studies on Qi Gong include positive psychology, interpersonal and social relationships, and cognitive functions such as memory, attention, language, and reasoning and executive functions.

The 10 most studied outcome measures examined in studies that did not describe the meditation practice under study were

- 1. psychiatric and psychological symptoms (20 measures);
- 2. personality measures (20 measures);
- 3. physiological cardiovascular outcomes (9 measures);
- 4. reasoning and executive neuropsychological functions (5 measures);
- 5. positive psychology outcomes (4 measures);
- 6. sensory perceptual and motor neuropsychological functions (3 measures);
- 7. memory (3 measures);
- 8. muscular physiology (2 measures);

9. physiological nutrition, biochemical and metabolic outcomes (2 measures); and 10. physiological endocrine and hormonal outcomes (2 measures).

Finally, the most studied outcome measures in studies that combined miscellaneous approaches to the meditation practice were

- 1. psychiatric and psychological symptoms (13 measures);
- 2. personality measures (6 measures); and
- 3. positive psychology outcomes (5 measures).

### **Summary of the Results**

General remarks. Evidence regarding the state of research on the therapeutic use of meditation was provided in 813 studies. Half of the studies on meditation practices were published after 1994. Most of the studies have been published as journal articles, and have been conducted in North America. More than half of the studies have examined meditation practices in intervention studies. The majority of the intervention studies on meditation practices are RCTs, followed by before-and-after studies, and NRCTs. A lesser proportion of studies have used observational analytical designs, the majority being cohort studies, and compared groups of meditators versus nonmeditators or compared different groups of meditators.

Methodological quality of the included studies. Overall, the methodological quality of both intervention and observational analytical studies on meditation practices is poor. A small proportion of RCTs reported adequately on the methods of randomization, blinding, description of withdrawals, and concealment of the sequence of allocation to treatment. Half of the RCTs explicitly reported the source of funding, as did a smaller proportion of NRCTs and before-and-after studies. The observational analytical studies that have been conducted on meditation practices are prone to biases affecting the representativeness of the study and comparison groups, the ascertainment of both exposure and outcome and, in the case of longitudinal studies (i.e., cohort studies), the integrity of the followup period. Compared to the cohort studies, the cross-sectional studies have less prominent methodological weaknesses. The only methodological aspect that did not appear to be severely jeopardized in the observational studies was the methods used to control for confounders in the design or analysis. More than half of observational studies have attempted to control for confounding either in the design or the analysis of the results.

**Meditation practices examined in intervention and observational analytical studies.** The category of meditation practices that has been most frequently studied in the scientific literature is mantra meditation. This category includes a group of meditation techniques that, despite differences in principles of practice and theoretical grounds, all have a mantra as an important component of their practice. Both intervention and observational analytical studies on TM<sup>®</sup> dominate the literature on mantra meditation techniques, followed by studies on RR. Other mantra techniques such as CSM, Acem meditation, Ananda Marga, concentrative prayer, and Cayce's meditation have been examined less frequently.

The second category of meditation practices most frequently examined is Yoga. This category includes a heterogeneous group of practices rooted in yogic traditions such as Hatha, Kundalini, and Sahaja yoga. Mindfulness meditation is the third most studied group of practices.

Within this category, MBSR and Zen Buddhist meditation have been most frequently examined. The practice of Tai Chi is the fourth most frequently examined practice, followed by Qi Gong. Finally, less than five percent of the studies on meditation practices did not explicitly describe the practice under study or have combined different approaches to meditation in a single intervention without describing the individual components of the intervention.

Control groups. The number of control groups per study ranged from one to four. Among the six hundred and sixty-eight studies that used control groups, the majority of them utilized an active concurrent control for their comparisons. Among the RCTs and NRCTs, the practice of exercise and other physical activities constituted the most frequent active comparator followed by conditions involving states of rest and relaxation, educational activities, and PMR. Other active control groups included cognitive behavioral techniques, pharmacological interventions, psychotherapy, BF techniques, reading, hypnosis, therapeutic massage, and acupuncture. Almost half of the RCTs and NRCTs included comparison groups consisting of participants assigned to waiting lists or participants that did not receive any intervention. A lower proportion of RCTs and NRCTs compared different meditation practices against each other, different doses of the practice, or modified formats of similar techniques.

The vast majority of observational analytical studies used comparison groups consisting of individuals that had not been exposed to any type of meditation practice. A smaller proportion of observational analytical studies compared groups of individuals that have been actively exposed to different meditation practices.

Diseases, conditions, and populations examined in studies on meditation practices. The vast majority of studies on meditation practices have been conducted in healthy populations. The three most studied clinical conditions are hypertension, other cardiovascular diseases, and substance abuse. Other diseases that have been frequently examined include anxiety disorders, cancer, asthma, chronic pain, type II DM, fibromyalgia, and a variety of psychiatric conditions studied altogether. Studies on hypertension have been conducted mainly on mantra meditation and Yoga. Studies on other cardiovascular diseases have been conducted using Yoga, mindfulness meditation techniques, and mantra meditation. Studies on substance abuse have been conducted mainly on mantra meditation.

Outcome measures examined in studies on meditation practices. Studies on meditation practices tend to report a median number of four outcomes per study. The most frequently studied outcomes were those of physiological functions, followed by psychosocial outcomes, outcomes related to clinical events and health status, cognitive and neuropsychological functions, and healthcare utilization outcomes. Cardiovascular measures were the most frequently examined variables among the physiological outcomes. The most studied psychosocial outcomes were measures of psychiatric and psychological symptoms (e.g., anxiety and depression). Other psychosocial outcomes frequently reported include personality measures, positive psychology outcomes, and others related to social relationships, quality of life, and activities of daily living. Outcomes related to clinical events focused on measures of physical functionality, and the incidence of discrete clinical events. Among the cognitive and neuropsychological outcomes, measures of sensory perceptual and motor functions, and reasoning and executive functions were frequently examined. Finally, measures reporting healthcare utilization were uncommon.

# Topic III. Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of **Meditation Practices**

The three most studied diseases identified in topic II were hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, and substance abuse disorders. Sixty-five RCTs and NRCTs (27 on hypertension, 21 on cardiovascular diseases, and 17 on substance abuse disorders) were included in the review on the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices. All qualifying studies are presented in summary tables in the appropriate sections. Details regarding these studies are available in Appendix H.\*

# **Hypertension**

## **Description of the Included Studies**

Twenty-seven trials (24 RCTs<sup>185,203-225</sup> and 3 NRCTs<sup>226-228</sup>) were identified that evaluated the effects of meditation practices in hypertensive individuals (see Appendix H\*). The included trials evaluated eight meditation practices aimed to ameliorate a variety of outcomes associated with hypertension. The group of studies comprised eight trials on yoga, <sup>185,204,212,,216,,217,,219,,224,226</sup> five trials on TM<sup>®</sup>, <sup>205,206,210,220,221,222</sup> four trials on RR, <sup>208,209,218,228</sup> four trials on Qi Gong, <sup>207,211,213,214</sup> two trials on Zen Buddhist meditation, <sup>225,227</sup> one trial on a technique modeled after TM<sup>®</sup>, <sup>222</sup> one trial on Tai Chi, <sup>223</sup> one trial on a mantra technique not further described, <sup>203</sup> and one trial on a meditation practice that did not specify the technique.<sup>215</sup>

The trials were published between 1975 and 2005 (median year of publication, 1995; IQR, 1982 to 2003). Twenty-four of these trials have been published in journals 185,203,204,206-209,211-<sup>214,216-228</sup> while three <sup>205,210,215</sup> were identified from the gray literature. Nine trials <sup>205,206,208-210,222,227,228</sup> were conducted in the United States, four <sup>204,212,217,226</sup> in India, three <sup>185,218,219</sup> in the United Kingdom, two<sup>211,225</sup> in China, two<sup>213,214</sup> in South Korea, and one each in Germany, <sup>215</sup> Hong Kong, <sup>207</sup> The Netherlands, <sup>224</sup> New Zealand, <sup>222</sup> Russia, <sup>203</sup> Taiwan, <sup>223</sup> and Thailand. <sup>216</sup> The trials contained a total of 1,940 participants. The median sample size was 65 participants per study (IQR, 23 to 392; data from 19 trials). Seven<sup>203,205,206,218,220,221,225</sup> out of 19 trials had study sample sizes greater than 100 participants. The mean age of participants was  $50.7 \pm 9.6$  years (range, 28 to 68 years; data from 20 trials). Two trials were conducted in samples with an average age between 20 and 40 years. Sixteen trials  $^{185,205-208,210,213,214,216,219,220,222-226}$  were conducted in samples with mean ages ranging from 41 to 60 years. Two trials<sup>221,228</sup> included study populations with mean ages of 61 years and above. Seven trials<sup>204,209,211,212,215,217,218</sup> did not report the age of participants.

When the trials that reported the gender of participants were combined (n = 23), 54 percent of the participants were male and 46 percent were female. Samples in four trials 203,204,211,226 were entirely male while none of the trials included entirely female samples. Four trials 185,209,212,217 failed to report the gender of participants. Six trials explicitly indicated the ethnicity of their

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

samples. Five of them<sup>205,206,210,220,221</sup> were conducted in African-American samples, whereas one trial<sup>227</sup> stated that only white participants took part in the study.

All the trials were conducted in patients with a diagnosis of essential hypertension. All trials except five \$^{185,204,208,212,217}\$ provided a definition of hypertension in their selection criteria. Half of the trials (n = 14)\$^{203,207,209,210,213-216,218,220,221,225,226,228}\$ included participants diagnosed with Stage 1 hypertension (mean systolic blood pressure [SBP] between 140 and 159 mm Hg and/or mean diastolic blood pressure [DBP] between 90 and 99 mm Hg) and with Stage 2 hypertension (mean SBP 160 mm Hg and above and/or mean DBP 100 mm Hg and above). One study \$^{206}\$ included participants with prehypertension (mean SBP between 120 and 139 mm Hg, and/or DBP between 80 and 89 mm Hg), Stage 1, and Stage 2 hypertension. Another study \$^{205}\$ was conducted in patients with prehypertension or with Stage 1 hypertension. Five trials \$^{211,219,222,224,227}\$ included only participants with Stage 2 hypertension, whereas one trial \$^{223}\$ included only participants with Stage 1 hypertension.

All 27 trials employed a parallel study design. The length of the trials varied from 8 days<sup>204</sup> to 1 year. <sup>203,210,211,221,224</sup> The median duration of the trials was 3 months (IQR, 2 to 6). Twelve studies <sup>204,208,209,213-217,219,225,226,228</sup> were short-term trials (less than 3 months), nine trials <sup>185,205,207,212,218,220,222,223,227</sup> had a duration from 3 to 6 months, and six trials <sup>203,206,210,211,221,224</sup> lasted longer than 6 months

The 27 trials comprised six comparisons between meditation practices and no intervention, <sup>185,203,204,215,217,225</sup> four comparisons between meditation practices and waiting list, <sup>208,213,214,222</sup> and one comparison<sup>222</sup> between meditation practices and placebo. There were 29 comparisons between meditation practices and active therapies other than no intervention, WL, or placebo. Because some trials had more than one comparison arm, the total number of comparisons exceeded the number of trials. Of the 29 active comparisons, the comparative treatments were health education (HE), <sup>205,206,210,212,216,218,220,221,225</sup> BF, <sup>208,209,228</sup> PMR, <sup>204,220,221</sup> rest or relaxation, <sup>204,219,223</sup> antihypertensive medication, <sup>211,217</sup> blood pressure checks, <sup>225,227</sup> exercise, <sup>207</sup> orthostatic tilt, <sup>226</sup> and meditation practice plus BF. <sup>185</sup> The median number of comparisons per study was one (IQR, 1 to 2).

# **Methodological Quality of the Included Studies**

A summary of the methodological quality of the included trials is provided in Table 26. As a measure of methodological quality for included trials, the overall median Jadad score was 2/5 (IQR, 1 to 2). Only two trials <sup>220,221</sup> obtained 3 points and were considered of high quality. Twelve trials <sup>185,203,206,207,210,214,216,218,219,222-224</sup> obtained 2 points, nine trials <sup>204,205,208,209,211,213,215,217,225</sup> obtained 1 point, and four trials <sup>212,226-228</sup> did not obtain any points. All the trials except three <sup>226-228</sup> were described as randomized; however, the details of the description of randomization varied. The majority of trials (n = 19) <sup>185,203-205,207-211,214-219,222-225</sup> did not describe how the randomization was performed. Three trials <sup>206,220,221</sup> described an appropriate method to generate the sequence of randomization, whereas two trials <sup>212,213</sup> reported the use of inadequate approaches to sequence generation. None of the trials were described as double-blind. The adequacy of allocation concealment was unclear in all trials.

double-blind. The adequacy of allocation concealment was unclear in all trials.

An intention-to-treat statistical analysis was specified in five trials. <sup>203,206,207,220,221</sup> Nineteen trials <sup>185,203,205-207,209,210,212-214,216,218-225</sup> reported the number of dropouts for the total study sample (mean dropout rate: 21 percent; range 3 to 57 percent). Seven trials <sup>205,206,209,212,213,220,225</sup> had a

dropout rate of more than 20 percent. Withdrawals and dropouts per treatment group were clearly described in 14 trials. [185,203,207,210,213,214,216,218-224] On average, 14 percent of participants (range 0 to 26 percent) dropped out of the meditation groups. The mean dropout rate for the control groups was also 14 percent (range 4 to 25 percent; 16 control groups).

control groups was also 14 percent (range 4 to 25 percent; 16 control groups).

Fifteen trials 185,205-209,218-222,224,225,227,228 disclosed their source of funding. Nine trials 205,206,209,218-220,225,227,228 received funding from government sources, six studies 185,207,208,221,222,224 received funding from a private donor or foundation, and one 214 received internal funding.

Table 26. Methodological quality of trials of meditation practices for hypertension

Ctudy year	Maditation practice	Rand	omization	Doubl	e blinding	Description of withdrawals	Overall Jadad	Allocation	Report of funding
Study, year	Meditation practice	Stated	Method described	Stated	Method described	/dropouts	score	concealment	Report of funding
Aivazyan TA, 1988 <sup>203</sup>	Mantra meditation (NS) + relaxation techniques	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
Broota A, 1995 <sup>204</sup>	Yoga	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	No
Calderon R Jr, 2000 <sup>205</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	Yes
Castillo- Richmond A, 2000 <sup>79,206</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	No	2	Unclear	Yes
Cheung BMY, 2005 <sup>207</sup>	Qi Gong	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	Yes
Cohen J. 1983 <sup>208</sup>	RR	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	Yes
Hafner RJ, 1982 <sup>185</sup>	Yoga + BF	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	Yes
Hager JL, 1978 <sup>209</sup>	RR	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	Yes
Kondwani KA, 1998 <sup>210,229</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
Kuang AK, 1987 <sup>211</sup>	Qi Gong + AHM	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	No
Latha DR, 1991 <sup>212</sup>	Yoga + BF (thermal)	Yes	Inadequate	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	No
Lee MS, 2003 <sup>214,230</sup>	Qi Gong	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
Lee MS, 2004 <sup>213,231</sup>	Qi Gong	Yes	Inadequate	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	No
Manikonda P, 2005 <sup>215</sup>	CMBT	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	No

AHM = antihypertensive medication; AT = autogenic training; BE = breathing exercises; BF = biofeedback; CMBT = contemplative meditation and breathing technique; NA = not applicable; NS = not specified; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; RR = Relaxation Response; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>

Table 26. Methodological quality of trials of meditation practices for hypertension (continued)

Study voor	Meditation practice	Rand	omization	Doubl	e blinding	Description of withdrawals	Overall Jadad	Allocation	Report of funding
Study, year	меснаноп ргасисе	Stated	Method described	Stated	Method described	/dropouts	score	concealment	Report of funding
McCaffrey R, 2005 <sup>216</sup>	Yoga	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
Murugesan R, 2000 <sup>217</sup>	Yoga	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	No
Patel CH, 1985 <sup>218</sup>	RR + BE + PMR	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	Yes
Patel CH, 1975 <sup>219</sup>	Yoga + BF	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	Yes
Schneider RH, 1995 <sup>79,221,232</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	Yes	3	Unclear	Yes
Schneider RH, 2005 <sup>220</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	Yes	3	Unclear	Yes
Seer P, 1980 <sup>222</sup>	SRELAX (technique modeled after TM <sup>®</sup> )	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	Yes
Selvamurthy W, 1998 <sup>226</sup>	Yoga	No	NA	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	No
Stone RA, 1976 <sup>227</sup>	Zen Buddhist meditation	No	NA	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	Yes
Surwit RS, 1978 <sup>228</sup>	RR	No	NA	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	Yes
Tsai JC, 2003 <sup>223</sup>	Tai Chi	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
van Montfrans GA, 1990 <sup>224</sup>	Yoga + RR + PMR + AT	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	Yes
Yen LL, 1996 <sup>225</sup>	Zen Buddhist meditation + PMR	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	Yes

### **Results of Direct Comparisons**

Table 27 summarizes the meditation practices, comparison groups, and outcomes that were available for direct meta-analyses on the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices to treat hypertension. Direct meta-analyses were conducted when two or more studies assessed the same meditation practice, used similar comparison groups, and had usable data for common outcomes of interest. No single diagnostic criterion was chosen for categorizing study populations as hypertensive; rather, we included all studies conducted in hypertensive patients, as defined by the authors of the primary studies. Fifteen comparisons (14 studies) were not suitable for direct meta-analyses because no more than one study was available for statistical pooling: SRELAX (technique modeled after TM<sup>®</sup>) versus waiting list (WL), <sup>222</sup> SRELAX versus placebo, <sup>222</sup> RR versus HE, <sup>218</sup> RR versus WL, <sup>208</sup> Qi Gong versus antihypertensive medication (AHM), <sup>211</sup> Qi Gong versus exercise, <sup>207</sup> Tai Chi versus rest, <sup>223</sup> Yoga versus AHM, <sup>217</sup> Yoga versus orthostatic tilt, <sup>226</sup> Yoga versus progressive muscle relaxation (PMR), <sup>204</sup> Yoga versus relaxation, <sup>224</sup> Yoga versus Yoga plus BF, <sup>185</sup> Zen Buddhist meditation versus NT, <sup>225</sup> mantra meditation not specified versus NT, <sup>203</sup> and meditation practice not further specified versus NT. <sup>215</sup> Data from 16 studies were available for direct meta-analyses that involved eight comparisons: TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE, TM<sup>®</sup> versus PMR, RR versus BF, Qi Gong versus WL, Yoga versus NT, Yoga versus HE, Yoga versus rest, and Zen Buddhist meditation versus blood pressure checks. Outcomes of interest and comparisons for which data could be combined into a direct metaanalysis were

- 1. blood pressure: TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE, TM<sup>®</sup> versus PMR, RR versus BF, Qi Gong versus WL, Yoga versus NT, Yoga versus HE, Zen Buddhist meditation versus blood pressure checks;
- 2. body weight: TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE;
- 3. heart rate: TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE;
- 4. stress: TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE, Yoga versus HE;
- 5. anger: TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE;
- 6. self-efficacy: TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE;
- 7. total cholesterol (TC): TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE;
- 8. high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C): TM® versus HE;
- 9. low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C): TM® versus HE;
- 10. dietary intake (caloric intake, total fat intake, and sodium intake): TM® versus HE; and
- 11. physical activity: TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE.

Results from individual studies not included in a meta-analysis of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension are summarized in Table H1 in Appendix H.\*

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

 $\Xi$ 

Table 27. Summary of outcomes by meditation practice and by comparison group included in meta-analyses of the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices for hypertension

Intervention	Comparator	Outcome	No. studies	Meta- analysis	Outcomes for Meta-analysis
TM <sup>®</sup>	HE	TC, TG, LDL-C, HDL-C, BP changes, anger, stress, personal efficacy, diet, physical activity, pulse rate <sup>205</sup> cIMT, BP changes, weight, PR, TC, HDL-C, LDL-C, pulse pressure, smoking, exercise <sup>206</sup> LVMI, BP changes (DBP, SBP), weight, PR, PWT, LVIDD, LVIDS, IVST, E/A ratio, energy, stress impact, sleep, positive affect, sleep pattern, anxiety, depression, anger, self-efficacy, locus of control, diet, activity level, compliance <sup>210</sup> BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>221</sup> BP changes (DBP, SBP), change in AHM <sup>220</sup>	5	Yes	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>205,206,210,220,221</sup> Total cholesterol <sup>205,206</sup> HDL-C <sup>205,206</sup> LDL-C <sup>205,206</sup> Body weight <sup>205,206,210</sup> Pulse rate <sup>205,206,210</sup> Stress <sup>205,210</sup> Diet (calories, fat, sodium) <sup>205,210</sup> Physical activity <sup>205,210</sup>
	PMR	BP changes (DBP, SBP), compliance <sup>221</sup> BP changes (DBP, SBP), change in AHM <sup>220</sup>	2	Yes	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>220,221</sup>
	PLB	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>222</sup>	1	No	NA
SRELAX (technique modeled after TM <sup>®</sup> )	WL	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>222</sup>	1	No	NA
RR	HE	BP changes (DBP, SBP), TC, smoking, morbidity, mortality <sup>218</sup>	1	No	NA
	BFB	Attention (field independence, attention deployment, absorption), BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>208</sup> BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>209</sup> BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>228</sup>	3	Yes	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>208,209,228</sup>
	WL	Attention (field independence, attention deployment, absorption), BP <sup>208</sup>	1	No	NA

AHM = antihypertensive medication; AI = alpha index; APO-A1 = apolipoprotein A1; BF = biofeedback; BMI = body mass index; BP = blood pressure; cIMT = carotid intima media thickness; CO = cardiac output; CPR = cold pressor response; Cr = creatinine; DBH = dopamine beta hydroxylase; DBP = diastolic blood pressure; E/A ratio = early filling divided by atrial constriction; EEG = electroencephalogram; EMG = electromyography; EPI = epinephrine; FEV1 forced expiratory volume in 1 second; FVC = forced vital capacity; GSR = galvanic skin response; HDL-C = high density lipoprotein cholesterol; HE = health education; HR = heart rate; HRQL = health-related quality of life; IVST = intraventricular septal thickness; K = potassium; LDL-C = low density lipoprotein cholesterol; LVIDD = left ventricular internal dimension at diastole; LVDIS = left ventricular internal dimension at systole; LVMI = left ventricular mass index; NA = not applicable; Na = sodium; NE = norepinephrine; NS = not specified; NT = no treatment; PLB = placebo; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; PRA = plasma renin activity; PR = pulse rate; PWT = posterior wall thickness; RPP = rate pressure product; RR = Relaxation Response; SBP = systolic blood pressure; TC = total cholesterol; TG = triglycerides; TM® = Transcendental Meditation®; WL = waiting list

Table 27. Summary of outcomes by meditation practice and by comparison group included in meta-analyses of the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices for hypertension (continued)

Intervention	Comparator	Outcome	No. studies	Meta-analysis	Outcomes for Meta-analysis
Qi Gong	AHM	Plasma 18-OH-DOC levels, BP changes(DBP, SBP) <sup>211</sup>	1	No	NA
-	Exercise	BP, health status, anxiety, depression, HR, weight, BMI, body fat, waist/hip circumference, renin excretion, urinary albumin excretion, Na, K, urea, Cr, TC, HDL-C, LDL-C, TG, aldosterone, urine cortisol, urine Cr, urine Na, urine protein, LVMI, ejection fraction <sup>207</sup>	1	No	NA
	WL	BP changes (DBP, SBP, RPP), HR, PR, EPI, NE, FVC, FEV1, cortisol <sup>214</sup> BP changes (DBP, SBP), APO-A1, TC, HDL-C, TG, self-efficacy <sup>213</sup>	2	Yes	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>213,214</sup>
Tai Chi	Rest	BP changes (DBP, SBP), HR, TC, HDL-C, LDL-C, TG, BMI, anxiety <sup>223</sup>	1	No	NA
Yoga	AHM	Stress, BP changes (DBP, SBP), PR, weight <sup>217</sup>	1	No	NA
	NT	BP changes (DBP, SBP), anxiety, GSR <sup>204</sup> BP changes (DBP, SBP), hostility, assertive behavior, psychological symptoms <sup>185</sup> Stress, BP changes (DBP, SBP), PR, weight <sup>217</sup>	3	Yes	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>185,204,217</sup>
	HE	BP changes (DBP, SBP), AHM intake, stress control, negative responses to stress, coping behavior, somatic symptoms, symptom severity <sup>212</sup> Stress, BP changes (DBP, SBP), BMI, HR <sup>216</sup>	2	Yes	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>212,216</sup> Stress <sup>212,216</sup>
	Orthostatic tilt	BP changes (DBP, SBP), AI-EEG, CO, HR, NE, EPI, PRA, urine K, urine Na, CPR <sup>226</sup>	1	No	NA
	PMR	BP changes (DBP, SBP), anxiety, GSR <sup>204</sup>	1	No	NA
	Rest	BP changes (DBP, SBP), anxiety, GSR <sup>204</sup> BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>219</sup>	2	Yes	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>204,219</sup>
	Relaxation	BP changes (DBP, SBP), body weight, urine Na, TC <sup>224</sup>	1	No	NA
	Yoga + BF	BP changes (DBP, SBP), hostility, assertive behavior, anxiety, depression 185	1	No	NA
Zen Buddhist meditation	Blood pressure checks	BP changes (DBP, SBP), changes in plasma DBH, plasma volume, PRA <sup>227</sup> BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>225</sup>	2	Yes	BP changes (DBP, SBP) 225,227
	NT	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>225</sup>	1	No	NA
Mantra (NS)	NT	BP changes (DBP, SBP); time of BP restoration, HRQL, emotional stress, number of sick leaves <sup>203</sup>	1	No	NA
Meditation practices (NS)	NT	BP changes (DBP, SBP) <sup>215</sup>	1	No	NA

# Transcendental Meditation®

Five RCTs assessing the effects of  $TM^{\circledR}$  in hypertensive patients were identified. Five trials  $^{205,206,210,220,221}$  compared  $TM^{\circledR}$  versus HE, and two trials  $^{220,221}$  compared  $TM^{\circledR}$  versus PMR. Meta-analyses were conducted for the comparisons  $TM^{\circledR}$  versus HE, and  $TM^{\circledR}$  versus PMR.

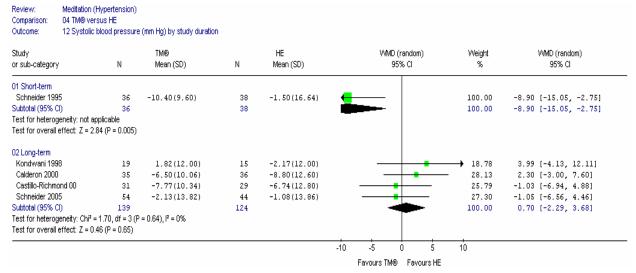
# TM® versus HE

Blood pressure. Five trials  $^{205,206,210,220,221}$  totaling 337 participants (TM<sup>®</sup> = 175, HE = 162) provided data on the effects of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on SBP and DBP (Figure 3). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of TM<sup>®</sup> (WMD = -1.10; 95% CI, -5.24 to 3.04). There was evidence of heterogeneity among the studies regarding the mean change in SBP (p = 0.05;  $I^2$  = 56.9 percent).

itudy r sub-category	N	TM® Mean (SD)	N	HE Mean (SD)	WMD (random) 95% Cl	Weight %	WMD (random) 95% CI
01 Systolic							
Schneider 1995	36	-10.40(9.60)	38	-1.50(16.64)	<del>+</del>	19.92	-8.90 [-15.05, -2.75]
Kondwani 1998	19	1.82(12.00)	15	-2.17(12.00)	·	14.69	3.99 [-4.13, 12.11]
Calderon 2000	35	-6.50(10.06)	36	-8.80(12.60)		- 22.73	2.30 [-3.00, 7.60]
Castillo-Richmond 00	31	-7.77(10.34)	29	-6.74(12.80)	<del></del>	20.67	-1.03 [-6.94, 4.88]
Schneider 2005	54	-2.13(13.82)	44	-1.08(13.86)		22.00	-1.05 [-6.56, 4.46]
Subtotal (95% CI)	175		162			100.00	-1.10 [-5.24, 3.04]
Test for overall effect: Z = 0:							
02 Diastolic	, ,						
02 Diastolic Schneider 1995	36	-5.70(7.20)	38	0.60(8.63)		21.52	-6.30 [-9.91, -2.69]
	36 19	-5.70(7.20) -3.70(5.00)	38 15	0.60(8.63) -3.63(10.00)	-	21.52 16.25	-6.30 [-9.91, -2.69] -0.07 [-5.61, 5.47]
Schneider 1995					-		
Schneider 1995 Kondwani 1998	19	-3.70(5.00)	15	-3.63(10.00)	-	16.25	-0.07 [-5.61, 5.47]
Schneider 1995 Kondwani 1998 Calderon 2000	19 35	-3.70(5.00) -3.90(7.10)	15 36	-3.63(10.00) -7.10(9.00)		16.25 21.09	-0.07 [-5.61, 5.47] 3.20 [-0.57, 6.97]
Schneider 1995 Kondwani 1998 Calderon 2000 Castillo-Richmond 00	19 35 31	-3.70(5.00) -3.90(7.10) -3.50(7.60)	15 36 29	-3.63(10.00) -7.10(9.00) -5.90(8.60)		16.25 21.09 20.08	-0.07 [-5.61, 5.47] 3.20 [-0.57, 6.97] 2.40 [-1.72, 6.52]
Schneider 1995 Kondwani 1998 Calderon 2000 Castillo-Richmond 00 Schneider 2005	19 35 31 54 175	-3.70(5.00) -3.90(7.10) -3.50(7.60) -6.24(9.48)	15 36 29 44	-3.63(10.00) -7.10(9.00) -5.90(8.60)		16.25 21.09 20.08 21.06	-0.07 [-5.61, 5.47] 3.20 [-0.57, 6.97] 2.40 [-1.72, 6.52] -1.80 [-5.58, 1.98]
Schneider 1995 Kondwani 1998 Calderon 2000 Castillo-Richmond 00 Schneider 2005 Subtotal (95% CI)	19 35 31 54 175 15.89, df = 4 (	-3.70(5.00) -3.90(7.10) -3.50(7.60) -6.24(9.48)	15 36 29 44	-3.63(10.00) -7.10(9.00) -5.90(8.60)		16.25 21.09 20.08 21.06	-0.07 [-5.61, 5.47] 3.20 [-0.57, 6.97] 2.40 [-1.72, 6.52] -1.80 [-5.58, 1.98]
Schneider 1995 Kondwani 1998 Calderon 2000 Castillo-Richmond 00 Schneider 2005 Subtotal (95% CI) Test for heterogeneity: Chi² =	19 35 31 54 175 15.89, df = 4 (	-3.70(5.00) -3.90(7.10) -3.50(7.60) -6.24(9.48)	15 36 29 44	-3.63(10.00) -7.10(9.00) -5.90(8.60)	10 -5 0 5	16.25 21.09 20.08 21.06	-0.07 [-5.61, 5.47] 3.20 [-0.57, 6.97] 2.40 [-1.72, 6.52] -1.80 [-5.58, 1.98]

Possible causes of heterogeneity in the outcome of SBP were explored. The five trials were similar in terms of the type of participants, severity of hypertension, characteristics of the interventions, and methodological quality. There were differences, however, in the duration of the trials and followup period. All but one study<sup>221</sup> were medium- or long-term trials (more than 3 months). The study with the shortest duration<sup>221</sup> (3 months) was the only trial that reported statistically significant changes in SBP favoring  $TM^{\text{®}}$ . The medium- or long-term trials did not find statistically significant differences between  $TM^{\text{®}}$  and HE for changes in SBP. A subgroup analysis based on the duration of the studies (Figure 4) showed that greater homogeneity (p = 0.64,  $I^2$  = 0 percent) was observed for the studies that assessed the medium- and long-term effects of  $TM^{\text{®}}$  and HE on SBP. After excluding the short-term study,<sup>221</sup> the direction of the effect changed to a small, nonsignificant reduction of SBP in favor of HE (WMD = 0.70; 95% CI, -2.29 to 3.68).

Figure 4. Subgroup analysis by study duration of the effect of TM® versus HE on SBP



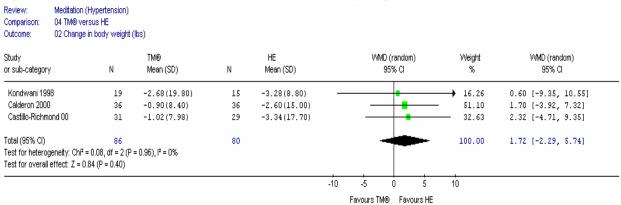
The combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of  $TM^{\$}$  (WMD = -0.58; 95% CI, -4.22 to 3.06). We found significant heterogeneity (p = 0.003;  $I^2$  = 74.8 percent) among the studies for this outcome, which may be attributed to variations in the duration of the studies. The study with the shortest duration<sup>221</sup> (3 months) was the only trial that reported statistically significant changes in DBP favoring  $TM^{\$}$ . The other medium- or long-term trials did not find statistically significant differences between  $TM^{\$}$  and HE for changes in DBP. A subgroup analysis based on the duration of the studies (Figure 5) showed that greater homogeneity (p = 0.26,  $I^2$  = 25.2 percent) was observed for the studies assessing the medium- and long-term effects of  $TM^{\$}$  and HE on DBP. After excluding the short-term study, <sup>221</sup> the magnitude of the effect estimate changed to a small, nonsignificant reduction of DBP in favor of HE (WMD = 1.02; 95% CI, -1.41 to 3.44).

Figure 5. Subgroup analysis by study duration of the effect of TM® versus HE on DBP

Comparison: 04	ditation (Hypertension) TM® versus HE Diastolic blood pressure	(mm Hg) by study duration					
Study or sub-category	N	TM® Mean (SD)	N	HE Mean (SD)	WMD (random) 95% Cl	Weight %	VMD (random) 95% Cl
01 Short-term							
Schneider 1995	36	-5.70(7.20)	38	0.60(8.63)		100.00	-6.30 [-9.91, -2.69]
Subtotal (95% CI)	36		38			100.00	-6.30 [-9.91, -2.69]
Test for heterogeneit	v: not applicable						•
Test for overall effec	t: Z = 3.42 (P = 0.0006)						
02 Long-term							
Kondwani 1998	19	-3.70(5.00)	15	-3.63(10.00)		21.14	-0.07 [-5.61, 5.47]
Calderon 2000	35	-3.90(7.10)	36	-7.10(9.00)	<del>                                     </del>	— 26.67	3.20 [-0.57, 6.97]
Castillo-Richmond 0	0 31	-3.50(7.60)	29	-5.90(8.60)		- 25.55	2.40 [-1.72, 6.52]
Schneider 2005	54	-6.24(9.48)	44	-4.44(9.49)		26.64	-1.80 [-5.58, 1.98]
Subtotal (95% CI)	139		124			100.00	1.02 [-1.41, 3.44]
Test for heterogeneit	y: Chi² = 4.01, df = 3 (P =	= 0.26), I <sup>2</sup> = 25.2%			_		
-	t: Z = 0.82 (P = 0.41)	,,					
					-10 -5 0 5	10	
					Favours TM® Favours H	E	

*Body weight.* Three trials<sup>205,206,210</sup> totaling 166 participants ( $TM^{\$} = 86$ , HE = 80) provided data on the effects of  $TM^{\$}$  versus HE on changes in body weight (lbs) (Figure 6). The results of the trials for changes in body weight were homogeneous (p = 0.96;  $I^2 = 0$  percent), and the combined WMD of 1.72 (95% CI, -2.29 to 5.74) showed a greater nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in body weight in favor of HE.

Figure 6. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM® versus HE on body weight



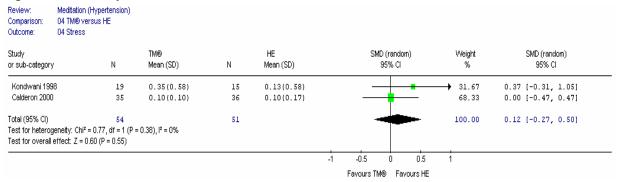
Heart rate. Three trials  $^{205,206,210}$  totaling 165 participants (TM<sup>®</sup> = 85, HE = 80) provided data on the effects of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on heart rate (bpm) (Figure 7). The results were statistically homogeneous (p = 0.34; I<sup>2</sup> = 8.3 percent). The combined WMD of -0.43 (95% CI, -4.17 to 3.31) indicated a small, nonsignificant reduction in pulse rate with TM<sup>®</sup>.

Figure 7. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on heart rate

Study or sub-category	N	TM® Mean (SD)	N	HE Mean (SD)	,	random) % Cl	Weight %	VVMD (random) 95% Cl
Kondwani 1998	19	-2.87(15.00)	15	4.20(16.00)	+-		12.15	-7.07 [-17.61, 3.47]
Calderon 2000	35	-2.60(10.06)	36	-4.20(11.40)		-	48.48	1.60 [-3.40, 6.60]
Castillo-Richmond 00	31	-3.88(10.97)	29	-3.00(11.24)	-		39.36	-0.88 [-6.51, 4.75]
Total (95% CI)	85		80				100.00	-0.43 [-4.17, 3.31]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi²	= 2.18, df = 2 (P	= 0.34), I <sup>2</sup> = 8.3%			_			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0$	.23 (P = 0.82)							

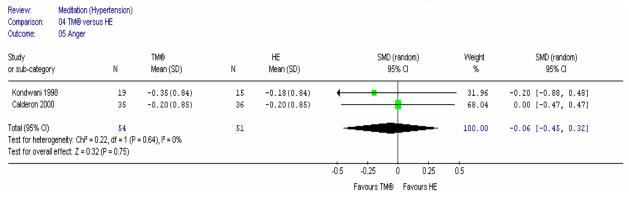
Stress. Two trials<sup>205,210</sup> totaling 105 participants (TM<sup>®</sup> = 54, HE = 51) contributed data on the effects of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on measures of stress (Figure 8). The combined estimate (SMD = 0.12; 95% CI, -0.27 to 0.50) indicated a small, nonsignificant reduction in stress scores with HE. There was evidence of homogeneity between the studies regarding the outcome of stress (p = 0.38;  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

Figure 8. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on measures of stress



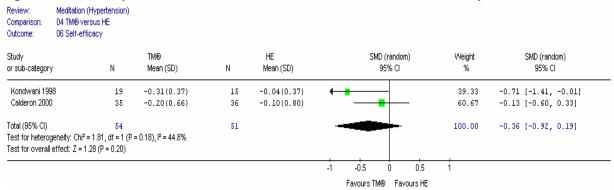
Anger. Two trials  $^{205,210}$  totaling 105 participants (TM<sup>®</sup> = 54, HE = 51) examined the effects of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on measures of anger (Figure 9). The results of the trials for changes in measures of anger were homogeneous (p = 0.64; I<sup>2</sup> = 0 percent), and the combined SMD of -0.06 (95% CI, -0.45 to 0.32) showed a small and nonsignificant reduction in scores of anger with TM<sup>®</sup>.

Figure 9. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM® versus HE on measures of anger



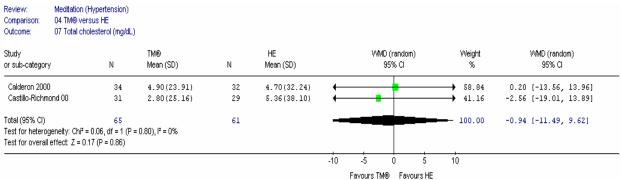
Self-efficacy. Data on changes in measures of self-efficacy were available from two trials  $^{205,210}$  with a total of 105 participants (TM $^{\$}$  = 54, HE = 51) (Figure 10). The combined SMD in measures of self-efficacy for trials of TM $^{\$}$  compared with HE was -0.36 (95% CI, -0.92 to 0.19), and showed a nonsignificant improvement in self-efficacy in favor of TM $^{\$}$ . The results of the trials for changes in self-efficacy were moderately heterogeneous (p = 0.18; I $^{2}$  = 44.8 percent).

Figure 10. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM® versus HE on measures of self-efficacy



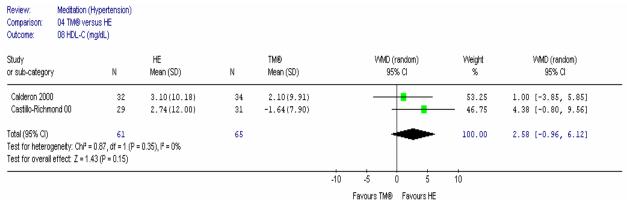
Total cholesterol (TC). Information on TC changes (mg/dL) was available from two trials  $^{205,206}$  with a total of 126 participants (TM $^{\odot}$  = 65, HE = 61) (Figure 11). The combined effect estimate showed no differences between TM $^{\odot}$  and HE in TC changes (WMD = -0.94; 95% CI, -11.49 to 9.62). The results of the trials were homogeneous (p = 0.80; I $^{2}$  = 0 percent).

Figure 11. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM® versus HE on TC



*High-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C)*. Two trials<sup>205,206</sup> totaling 126 participants (TM<sup>®</sup> = 65, HE = 61) provided data on the effects of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on changes in HDL-C (mg/dL) (Figure 12). The results of the trials were homogeneous (p = 0.35;  $I^2$  = 0 percent), and the combined WMD of -2.58 (95% CI, -6.12 to 0.96) showed a nonsignificant benefit (increase) with HE for HDL-C.

Figure 12. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on HDL-C



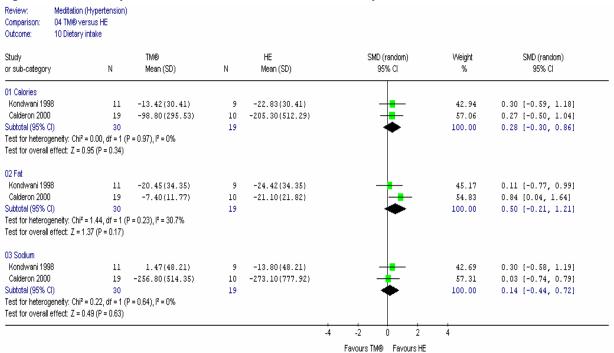
Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C). Two trials  $^{205,206}$  totaling 126 participants (TM<sup>®</sup> = 65, HE = 61) contributed data on the effects of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on changes in LDL-C (mg/dL) (Figure 13). The pooled results of the trials were homogeneous (p = 0.90; I<sup>2</sup> = 0 percent), and the combined WMD of 1.08 (95% CI, -8.65 to 10.81) showed a nonsignificant benefit (reduction) with HE for LDL-C.

Figure 13. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on LDL-C

Review: Meditation (I Comparison: 04 TM® veri Outcome: 09 LDL-C (n								
Study or sub-category	N	TM® Mean (SD)	N	HE Mean (SD)	WMD (random) 95% Cl	Weight %	WMD (random) 95% CI	Order
Calderon 2000	34	0.10(19.24)	32	-1.50(31.68)	+	58.33	1.60 [-11.14, 14.34]	0
Castillo-Richmond 00	31	2.14(20.30)	29	1.79(36.46)	+	41.67	0.35 [-14.72, 15.42]	0
Total (95% CI) Test for heterogeneity: Chi <sup>2</sup> = Test for overall effect: Z = 0.		= 0.90),  ² = 0%	61		<b>†</b>	100.00	1.08 [-8.65, 10.81]	
					-100 -50 0 50 Favours TM® Favours HE	100		

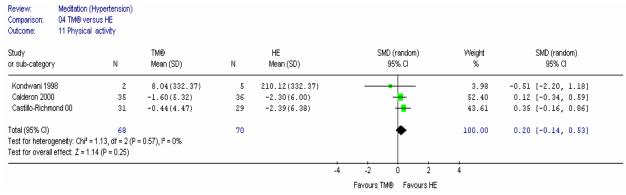
Dietary intake. Two trials<sup>205,210</sup> totaling 49 participants ( $TM^{\text{®}} = 30$ , HE = 19) provided data on the effects of  $TM^{\text{®}}$  versus HE on dietary intake, expressed as caloric intake, total fat intake, and sodium intake (Figure 14). The results of the trials for caloric intake were homogeneous (p = 0.97;  $I^2 = 0$  percent), and the combined SMD of 0.28 (95% CI, -0.30 to 0.86) showed a nonsignificant reduction in caloric intake in the HE group. The results of the trials for total fat intake were homogeneous (p = 0.23;  $I^2 = 30.7$  percent), and the combined SMD of 0.50 (95% CI, -0.21 to 1.21) showed a nonsignificant reduction in fat intake in the HE group. The results of the trials for sodium intake were homogeneous (p = 0.64;  $I^2 = 0$  percent), and the combined SMD of 0.14 (95% CI, -0.44 to 0.72) showed a nonsignificant reduction in sodium intake in the HE group.

Figure 14. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM® versus HE on dietary intake



*Physical activity*. Three trials<sup>205,206,210</sup> totaling 138 participants ( $TM^{\$} = 68$ , HE = 70) provided data on the effects of  $TM^{\$}$  versus HE on changes in physical activity (Figure 15). The combined results showed a nonsignificant reduction in changes in favor of the HE group (SMD = -0.20; 95% CI, -0.14 to 0.53). The results of the trials for changes in physical activity were homogeneous (p = 0.57;  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

Figure 15. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE on physical activity



### TM® versus PMR

*Blood pressure*. Two trials<sup>220,221</sup> totaling 179 participants ( $TM^{\mathbb{R}} = 90$ , PMR = 89) provided data on the effects of  $TM^{\mathbb{R}}$  versus PMR on SBP and DBP (Figure 16). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) indicated a significant improvement (reduction) in favor of  $TM^{\mathbb{R}}$  (WMD = -4.30; 95% CI, -8.02 to -0.57). The results of the trials for changes in SBP were homogeneous (p = 0.25;  $I^2 = 25.6$  percent).

The combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) indicated a significant improvement (reduction) in favor of  $TM^{\text{(B)}}$  (WMD = -3.11; 95% CI, -5.00 to -1.22). The results of the trials for changes in DBP were homogeneous (p = 0.67;  $I^2$  = 0 percent).

Meditation (Hypertension) Comparison: 03 TM® versus PMR 01 Blood pressure (mm Hg) VVMD (random) TM® PMR Weight WMD (random) Mean (SD) Mean (SD) 01 Systolic Schneider 1995 -10.40(9.60) -4.00(11.56) -6.40 [-11.27, -1.53] 56.85 100.00 -2.58 [-6.82, 1.66] -4.30 [-8.02, -0.57] Schneider 2005 54 -3.12(11.17) 52 89 -0.54(11.11) Test for heterogeneity: Chi² = 1.34, df = 1 (P = 0.25), l² = 25.6% Test for overall effect: Z = 2.26 (P = 0.02) 02 Diastolic Schneider 1995 -2.10(5.47) Schneider 2005 54 -2.77 [-5.24, -0.30] -3.11 [-5.00, -1.22] -5.67(6.54) 52 -2.90(6.42) 58.66 Subtotal (95% CI) Test for heterogeneity: Chi² = 0.18, df = 1 (P = 0.67), l² = 0% Test for overall effect: 7 = 3.23 (P = 0.001) -10 10 Favours TM® Favours PMR

Figure 16. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> versus PMR on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)

### **Relaxation Response**

Five trials assessing the effects of RR in hypertensive patients were identified. Three trials  $^{208,209,228}$  compared RR versus BF, one trial compared RR versus HE,  $^{218}$  and one trial compared RR versus WL.  $^{208}$  A meta-analysis was conducted for the comparison between RR and BF.

#### RR versus BF

Blood pressure. Three trials  $^{208,209,228}$  totaling 53 participants (RR = 28, BF = 25) provided data for a meta-analysis of the effects of RR versus BF on SBP and DBP (Figure 17). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) showed that BF produced a greater but nonsignificant reduction in SBP when compared to RR (WMD = 2.39; 95% CI, -5.13 to 9.91). The results were homogeneous across the trials (p = 0.55;  $I^2 = 0$  percent). Likewise, the combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of BF (WMD = 4.44; 95% CI, -4.00 to 12.88). The results of the trials for changes in DBP were homogeneous (p = 0.42;  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

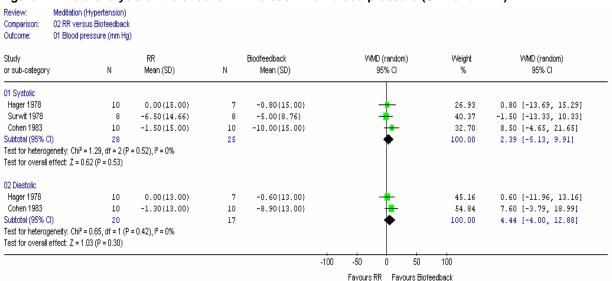


Figure 17. Meta-analysis of the effect of RR versus BF on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)

### Qi Gong

Four trials assessing the effects of Qi Gong in hypertensive patients were identified. Two trials <sup>213,214</sup> compared Qi Gong versus WL, one trial compared Qi Gong versus AHM, <sup>211</sup> and another trial <sup>207</sup> compared Qi Gong versus exercise. A meta-analysis was conducted for the comparison between Qi Gong and WL.

#### Qi Gong versus WL

Blood pressure. Two trials<sup>213,214</sup> totaling 94 participants (Qi Gong = 46, WL = 48) provided data for a meta-analysis of the effects of Qi Gong versus WL on SBP and DBP (Figure 18). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) indicated a significant improvement (reduction) in favor of Qi Gong (WMD = -17.78; 95% CI, -22.03 to -13.54). The results were homogeneous across the trials (p = 0.57;  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

Likewise, the combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) indicated a significant improvement (reduction) of DBP in favor of Qi Gong (WMD = -12.06; 95% CI, -21.62 to -2.49). There was evidence of substantial heterogeneity among the studies in DBP (p <0.00001; I² = 93.5 percent). Possible causes of heterogeneity were explored. The two trials were similar in terms of the type of participants, severity of hypertension, characteristics of the interventions, study duration, and methodological quality. Therefore, it is unknown whether clinical heterogeneity produced statistical heterogeneity between the trials for the outcome of DBP. Although each trial showed the same direction of effect, the wide confidence intervals indicate that the estimates of effect are unreliable and consistent with a broad range of possible effect sizes. Therefore, heterogeneity obscures the clinical applicability of the WMD in the analysis.

Figure 18. Meta-analysis of the effect of Qi Gong versus WL on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)

Study		Qi Gong	V	Vaiting list (VVL)	VVMD (random)	Weight	WMD (random)
or sub-category	N	Mean (SD)	N	Mean (SD)	95% CI	%	95% CI
01 Systolic							
Lee 2003	29	-15.62(9.32)	29	3.10(11.37)	=	52.98	-18.72 [-24.07, -13.37]
Lee 2004	17	-14.50(9.60)	19	1.70(11.70)	<del>-</del>	47.02	-16.20 [-23.16, -9.24]
Subtotal (95% CI)	46		48		♦	100.00	-17.78 [-22.03, -13.54]
Fest for heterogeneity: Chi <sup>a</sup>	' = 0.32, df = 1 (F	<sup>9</sup> = 0.57), l <sup>2</sup> = 0%					
「est for overall effect: ℤ =	8.22 (P < 0.0000	1)					
02 Diastolic							
Lee 2003	29	-5.86(6.40)	29	1.38(5.57)	<b>=</b>	50.84	-7.24 [-10.33, -4.15]
Lee 2004	17	-13.90(6.00)	19	3.10(5.50)	<b>=</b>	49.16	-17.00 [-20.78, -13.22]
Subtotal (95% CI)	46		48		•	100.00	-12.06 [-21.62, -2.49]
Fest for heterogeneity: Chi <sup>a</sup>	= 15.38, df = 1 i	(P < 0.0001), I <sup>2</sup> = 93.5%			-		
Test for overall effect: Z =	2.47 (P = 0.01)						

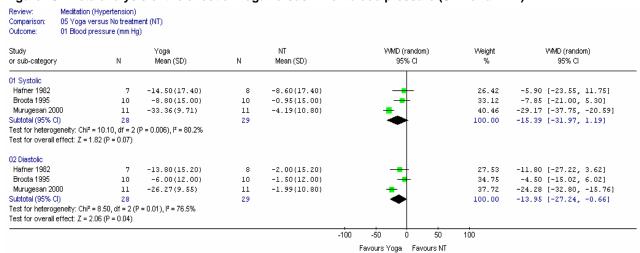
## Yoga

Eight trials<sup>185,204,212,216,217,219,224,226</sup> assessing the effects of Yoga in hypertensive patients were identified. Three trials<sup>185,204,217</sup> compared Yoga versus NT, two trials<sup>212,216</sup> compared Yoga versus HE, two trials<sup>204,219</sup> compared Yoga versus rest, one trial<sup>217</sup> compared Yoga versus AHM, one trial<sup>226</sup> compared Yoga versus orthostatic tilt, one trial<sup>204</sup> compared Yoga versus PMR, one trial<sup>224</sup> compared Yoga versus relaxation, and one trial<sup>185</sup> compared Yoga versus a combination of Yoga and BF. Meta-analyses were conducted for the comparisons of Yoga versus NT, Yoga versus HE, and Yoga versus rest.

#### Yoga versus NT

*Blood pressure*. Three trials  $^{185,204,217}$  totaling 57 participants (Yoga = 28, NT = 29) provided data for a meta-analysis of the effects of Yoga versus NT on SBP and DBP (Figure 19). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of Yoga (WMD = -15.39; 95% CI, -31.97 to 1.19). There was evidence of significant (p = 0.006) and substantial ( $I^2 = 80.2$  percent) heterogeneity among the studies regarding the mean change in SBP.

Figure 19. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus NT on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)



Possible causes of heterogeneity in the outcome of SBP were explored. The three trials were similar in duration and methodological quality. The studies failed to appropriately report some important characteristics that would have been useful for appraising the potential sources of heterogeneity in the trials. Age of participants was similar in two studies, <sup>204,217</sup> while the remaining study <sup>185</sup> failed to provide this information. The distribution of males and females for the total study population was also unknown in two <sup>185,217</sup> of the three trials. None of the studies provided a critical value for the presence or severity of hypertension. Treatment in the Broota study <sup>204</sup> consisted of practicing Shavasana consecutively for 8 days, with each session lasting 20 minutes. The intervention group in the trial of Hafner <sup>185</sup> practiced Yoga for eight 1-hour sessions at weekly intervals. Finally, participants in the Yoga group in the study of Murugesan <sup>217</sup> engaged in a variety of yogic practices (i.e., asanas, Om recitation, and meditation) twice a day for 1 hour, 6 days a week.

The most obvious difference among the three studies was that control participants in the Broota<sup>204</sup> and Hafner<sup>185</sup> trials were assigned to a NT condition in which existing medical treatment was not interrupted, whereas controls in the trial of Murugesan<sup>217</sup> did not receive any therapy. Therefore, it is likely that the conditions of NT in the Murugesan<sup>217</sup> study were systematically different from the other two studies. Yoga was used as an adjuvant therapy in the studies of Broota<sup>204</sup> and Hafner<sup>185</sup> whereas in the Murugesan trial<sup>217</sup> it was not. Murugesan<sup>217</sup> was the only study to report statistically significant results in favor of Yoga for changes in SBP and DBP.

A subgroup analysis by concomitant treatment (Figure 20) showed that greater homogeneity (p = 0.86,  $I^2 = 0$  percent) was observed for the studies that continued medical therapy in the NT condition. After excluding the study that did not provide any therapy,<sup>217</sup> the direction of the effect did not change, and a nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of Yoga was found for SBP (WMD = -7.15; 95% CI, -17.70 to 3.39).

Review: Meditation (Hypertension) 05 Yoga versus No treatment (NT) Comparison: Outcome: 02 SBP (mm Hg) by concomitant therapy NT WMD (random) WMD (random) Study Weight Yoga Mean (SD) Ν Mean (SD) 01 Concomitant therapy -14.50(17.40) -5.90 [-23.55, 11.75] Hafner 1982 -8.60(17.40) 46.11 Broota 1995 -7.85 [-21.00, 5.30] 10 -8.80(15.00) Subtotal (95% CD) 17 18 100.00 -7.15 [-17.70, 3.39] Test for heterogeneity:  $Chi^2 = 0.03$ , df = 1 (P = 0.86),  $I^2 = 0\%$ Test for overall effect: Z = 1.33 (P = 0.18) 02 No concomitant therapy Murugesan 2000 11 -33.36(9.71) 11 -4.19(10.80) 100.00 -29.17 [-37.75, -20.59] -29.17 [-37.75, -20.59] Subtotal (95% CI) 11 Test for heterogeneity: not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 6.66 (P < 0.00001)-100 -50 50 100 Ó Favours Yoga Favours NT

Figure 20. Subgroup analysis by concomitant therapy of Yoga versus NT on SBP

As depicted in Figure 19, the combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) indicated a significant improvement (reduction) in favor of Yoga (WMD = -13.95; 95% CI, -27.24 to -.0.66) There was evidence of significant heterogeneity (p = 0.01;  $I^2 = 76.5$  percent) among the studies for this outcome, which may be accounted for by the use of concomitant therapy in the NT condition. A subgroup analysis based on the presence of concomitant treatment (Figure 21)

showed that homogeneity (p = 0.44,  $I^2 = 0$  percent) was observed for the studies that did not interrupt existing medical therapy for the NT condition. After excluding the study that did not provide any concomitant therapy,  $^{217}$  the results remained similar, and a nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of Yoga was found for DBP (WMD = -6.82; 95% CI, -15.51 to 1.87).

Meditation (Hypertension) 05 Yoga versus No treatment (NT) Outcome: 03 DBP (mm Ha) by concomitant therapy VVMD (random) VMD (random) Weight or sub-category Mean (SD) Mean (SD) 95% CI 01 Concomitant therapy -13.80(15.20) -2.00(15.20) Hafner 1982 -11.80 [-27.22, 3.62] Broota 1995 10 -6.00(12.00) 10 -1.50(12.00)55.55 -4.50 [-15.02, 6.02] Test for heterogeneity:  $Chi^2 = 0.59$  df = 1 (P = 0.44)  $I^2 = 0\%$ Test for overall effect: Z = 1.54 (P = 0.12) 02 No concomitant therapy Murugesan 2000 11 -26 27(9 55) 11 -1.99(10.80) 100.00 -24.28 [-32.80, -15.76] Subtotal (95% CI) -24.28 [-32.80, -15.76] 11 100.00 Test for heterogeneity: not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 5.59 (P < 0.00001)-100 -50 Ò 100 Favours Yoga Favours NT

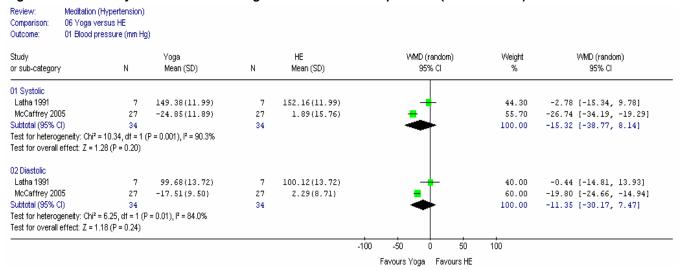
Figure 21. Subgroup analysis by concomitant therapy of Yoga versus NT on DBP

#### Yoga versus HE

Blood pressure. Two trials<sup>208,212,216</sup> totaling 68 participants (Yoga = 34, HE = 34) provided data on the effects of Yoga versus HE on SBP and DBP (Figure 22). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of Yoga (WMD = -15.32; 95% CI, -38.77 to 8.14). There was evidence of heterogeneity between the studies regarding the mean change in SBP (p = 0.001; I<sup>2</sup> = 90.3 percent). Possible causes of heterogeneity in the outcome of SBP were explored. The studies failed to report appropriately some important characteristics that would have been useful for appraising the potential sources of heterogeneity. The two trials were similar in terms of the type of participants, and methodological quality. There were differences in the duration of trials that may explain the differences in the results from the individual studies, and the heterogeneity in the pooling of the results. The Latha<sup>212</sup>study was a medium-term trial lasting 6 months, whereas the McCaffrey<sup>216</sup> study was a short-term trial of 11 weeks. The short-term trial reported statistically significant changes in SBP for Yoga as compared to HE, whereas the effects seem to disappear at medium term, as reported by the statistically nonsignificant results of the McCaffrey<sup>216</sup> trial.

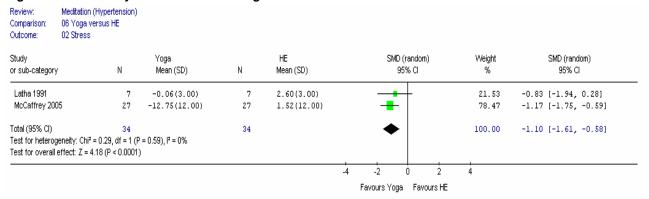
The combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) indicated a nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of Yoga (WMD = -11.35; 95% CI, -30.17 to 7.47). There was evidence of significant heterogeneity (p = 0.01;  $I^2 = 84.0$  percent) between the studies for this outcome, which may be primarily accounted for by the duration of the trials. The difference in the significance of the individual study results may be a function of the duration of the trials, with the short-term trial<sup>212</sup>showing statistically significant changes in DBP, and the medium term trial reporting nonstatistically significant results.

Figure 22. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus HE on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)



Stress. Two trials  $^{208,216}$  totaling 68 participants (Yoga = 34, HE = 34) examined the effects of Yoga versus HE on measures of stress (Figure 23). The results of the trials for changes in measures of stress were homogeneous (p = 0.59;  $I^2$  = 0 percent), and the combined SMD of -1.10 (95% CI, -1.61 to -0.58) showed a statistically significant reduction in scores of stress with Yoga.

Figure 23. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus HE on stress



#### Zen Buddhist meditation

Two trials<sup>225,227</sup> assessing the effects of Zen Buddhist meditation in hypertensive patients were identified. The two trials were included in a meta-analysis comparing Zen Buddhist meditation versus blood pressure checks.

#### Zen Buddhist meditation versus blood pressure checks

*Blood pressure*. Two trials<sup>225,227</sup> totaling 250 participants (Zen Buddhist meditation = 134, blood pressure checks = 116) provided data for a meta-analysis of the effects of Zen Buddhist meditation versus blood pressure checks on SBP and DBP (Figure 24). The combined estimate

of changes in SBP (mm Hg) indicated a nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of Zen Buddhist meditation (WMD = -3.67; 95% CI, -9.04 to 1.70). The results were homogeneous (p = 0.34;  $I^2 = 0$  percent). The combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) indicated a significant improvement (reduction) in favor of Zen Buddhist meditation (WMD = -6.08; 95% CI, -11.68 to -0.48). The results of the trials for changes in DBP were moderately homogeneous (p = 0.15;  $I^2 = 52.4$  percent).

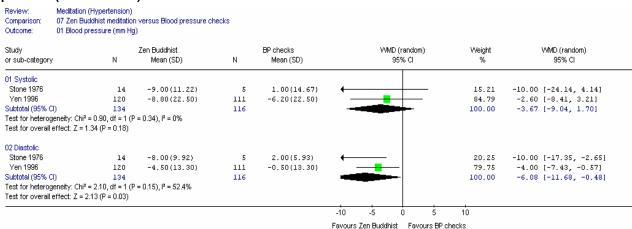


Figure 24. Meta-analysis of the effect of Zen Buddhist meditation versus blood pressure checks on blood pressure (SBP and DBP)

# **Mixed Treatment and Indirect Comparisons**

**Blood pressure.** Since many of the studies of meditation practices in hypertensive patients reported data on SBP and DBP, we were able to do a mixed treatment analysis<sup>56</sup> which allowed us to compare all interventions to one another.

SBP. Table 28 and Figure 25 show the results of the mixed treatment comparisons for SBP, ordered by the point estimate of difference from NT. The interventions ranged from reducing SBP from an average of 0.3 to 21.9 mm Hg. Tai Chi, Yoga plus BF, and Qi Gong seem to be more effective than the other interventions in terms of point estimates and likelihood of being the best intervention. However, we cannot make strong inferences on which is the best intervention due to a lack of statistical power.

Tai Chi, Yoga plus BF, and Yoga alone all reduced SBP significantly compared to NT. Yoga, Tai Chi, and Yoga plus BF were also found to be significantly superior to HE, while Qi Gong was significantly superior to a WL control (not shown). No other pair-wise comparisons were statistically significant.

Table 28. Mixed treatment comparisons on SBP (mm Hg) reductions compared to NT

Intervention	Point estimate	95% credible interval	Probability of being "best" intervention (%)
Tai Chi	-21.9	-37.9, -5.7	32.0
Yoga + BF	-20.1	-36.7, -3.1	23.8
Qi Gong	-18.4	-47.4, 10.7	27.2
CMBT	-14.9	-30.6, 0.9	8.1
Biofeedback	-13.2	-35.9, 9.4	5.1
Yoga	-13.1	-21.7, -4.4	0.6
RR	-10.8	-30.5, 8.9	0.9
Zen Buddhist meditation	-7.3	-22.1, 7.6	0.9
Rest/Relaxation	-5.9	-22.4, 11.0	0.3
Mantra meditation (NS)	-5.6	-21.8, 10.5	1.0
TM <sup>®</sup>	-2.5	-14.0, 8.7	0.0
PMR	-2.4	-15.0, 9.6	0.0
HE	-0.5	-11.8, 10.6	0.0
WL	-0.3	-26.9, 26.3	0.0
NT	0.0	NA	0.0

BF = biofeedback; CMBT = contemplative meditation plus breathing techniques; HE = health education; NA = not applicable; NS = not specified; NT = no treatment; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; RR = Relaxation Response; SBP = systolic blood pressure; TM® = Transcendental Meditation®; WL = waiting list

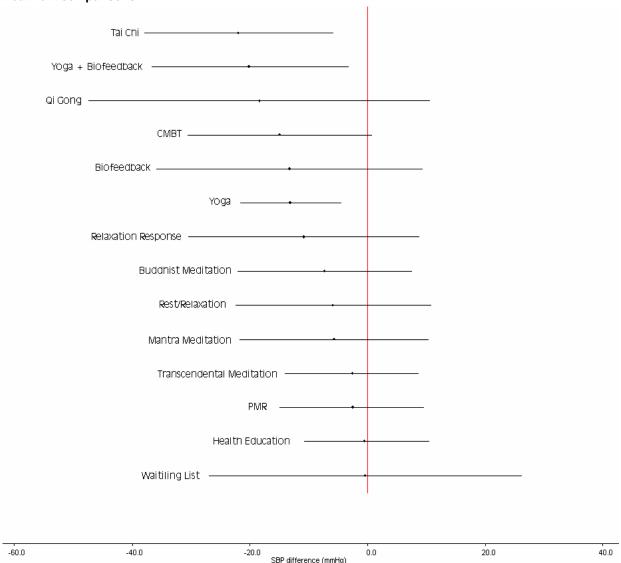


Figure 25. SBP results (point estimate and 95% credible interval) for all intervention based on mixed treatment comparisons

CMBT = contemplative meditation and breathing techniques; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation

*DBP*. Table 29 and Figure 26 show the results of the mixed treatment comparisons for DBP, ordered by the point estimate of difference from NT. Note that the study<sup>215</sup> that reported on the CMBT intervention did not report DBP and was excluded from this analysis, giving us one less intervention than the SBP analysis. The interventions ranged from reducing DBP from an average of 1.0 to 17.1 mm Hg. Yoga plus BF and Qi Gong were slightly above the other interventions in terms of point estimates and likelihood of being the best intervention, although the differences between interventions were even less than for SBP.

Yoga alone and Yoga plus BF were the only interventions that reduced DBP significantly compared to NT. The only other pair-wise comparisons (not shown) that were statistically significant were Yoga compared to HE and Qi Gong compared to WL.

Table 29. Mixed treatment comparisons on SBP (mm Hg) reductions compared to NT

Intervention	Point Estimate	95% Credible Interval	Probability of "best" (%)
Yoga + Biofeedback	-17.1	-30.9, -3.0	34.0
Qi Gong	-15.2	-40.4, 9.3	30.6
Tai Chi	-12.1	-25.8, 1.5	12.5
Zen Buddhist meditation	-12.0	-24.4, 0.2	9.1
Yoga	-11.8	-19.1, -4.6	1.8
BF	-11.4	-32.1, 8.5	9.2
Rest/Relaxation	-8.5	-22.0, 5.0	1.3
RR	-7.4	-24.2, 8.6	0.8
TM <sup>®</sup>	-3.4	-13.3, 5.9	0.1
WL	-3.3	-26.4, 19.3	0.0
PMR	-2.2	-12.8, 7.7	0.1
HE	-1.9	-11.8, 7.3	0.0
Mantra meditation (NS)	-1.0	-14.4, 12.4	0.6
NT	0.0	NA	0.0

BF = biofeedback; DBP = diastolic blood pressure; HE = health education; NA = not applicable; NS = not specified; NT = no treatment; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; RR = Relaxation Response; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>; WL = waiting list

Yoga + Biofeedback

Qi Cong

Tai Cni

Buddnist Meditation

Yoga

Biofeedback

Rest/Relaxation

Relaxation Response

Transcendental Meditation

Waiting List

PMR

Health Education

Mantra Meditation

Figure 26. DBP results (point estimate and 95% credible interval) for all interventions based on mixed treatment comparisons

PMR = progressive muscle relaxation

-40.0

*Other indirect comparisons*. We were able to make indirect comparisons between TM<sup>®</sup> and Yoga via HE for body mass index (BMI), heart rate, and stress. Yoga was nonsignificantly superior to TM<sup>®</sup> in reducing BMI (MD: -0.69; 95% CI, -2.53 to 1.15) and significantly superior in reducing both heart rate (MD: -15.6 bpm; 95% CI, -21.7 to -9.6) and stress (MD: -0.95; 95% CI, -1.76 to -0.14).

DBP difference (mmHg)

-20.0

We were also able to make an indirect comparison of TM<sup>®</sup> versus RR in reducing cigarette smoking via direct comparisons with HE. RR was found to significantly reduce smoking compared to TM<sup>®</sup> (MD: -2.8; 95% CI, 0.3 to 5.4).

## **Analysis of Publication Bias**

Because of the very small number of trials available for each comparison, the statistical tests lacked the power to detect publication bias. Therefore the analysis of the effect of publication bias on the meta-analyses presented above was not conducted.

#### Cardiovascular Diseases

# **Description of the Included Studies**

Twenty-one trials (15 RCTs $^{91,233-246}$  and 6 NRCTs $^{247-252}$ ) that evaluated the effects of meditation practices in individuals with cardiovascular diseases were identified. They included seven trials on Yoga,  $^{233,238-240,247,250,251}$  three on Tai Chi,  $^{235,246,248}$  three on RR,  $^{91,234,236}$  three on mindfulness meditation (not specified),  $^{241,242,249}$  two on MBSR,  $^{244,245}$  one on Qi Gong,  $^{243}$  one on TM $^{\text{@}}$ ,  $^{252}$  and one on Zen Buddhist meditation.

The trials were published between 1988 and 2005 (median year of publication: 2002; IQR, 1998 to 2004). Fifteen of these trials have been published in journals<sup>233-236,238-240,243,244,246,248-252</sup> while six<sup>91,237,241,242,245,247</sup> were identified from the gray literature. Eleven trials<sup>91,233,234,237,241,242,244-246,251,252</sup> were conducted in the United States, three<sup>239,240,250</sup> in India, one<sup>236</sup> in Brazil, one<sup>249</sup> in China, one<sup>247</sup> in Germany, one<sup>243</sup> in Sweden, one<sup>248</sup> in Taiwan, and one<sup>238</sup> in Thailand. Characteristics of the trials are summarized in Table H2 in Appendix H.\*A total of 1,358 individuals were assigned to meditation practices or control groups. The median sample size based on data from 20 trials was 48 participants per study (IQR, 31 to 106). Five<sup>235,242,243,249,250</sup> of 20 trials that provided data on sample size had more than 100 participants assigned to the study groups. The mean age of participants based on data from 17 trials was 63 ± 7 years (range: 52 to 77 years). Eight trials<sup>91,235,238,240,241,244,248,252</sup> were conducted in samples with mean ages ranging from 41 to 60 years. Nine trials<sup>233,234,236,237,243,246,247,249,251</sup> included study populations with ages above 61 years. Four trials<sup>239,242,245,250</sup> did not report on the age of participants.

Across all the trials that reported the gender of participants (n = 17), 70 percent were males and 30 percent were females. The samples in three trials<sup>240,248,252</sup> were entirely male while samples in two trials<sup>233,244</sup> were entirely female. Four trials<sup>239,242,245,250</sup> did not report the gender of participants. Five trials<sup>91,234,241,244,246</sup> explicitly indicated the race or ethnicity of their samples. Around 80 percent of their samples consisted of Caucasian participants, except for one trial<sup>249</sup> that involved Asian subjects only.

that involved Asian subjects only.

Twelve studies <sup>237-241,243-245,247,249,250,252</sup> were conducted in patients with coronary artery disease (CAD), as described by the primary study authors. Clinical conditions included history of myocardial infarction (MI), chronic stable angina, valve diseases, and arrhythmias. CAD diagnoses were confirmed either by angiography, <sup>237,238,240,252</sup> clinical history, <sup>241,243,244,249</sup> or combining both clinical history and electrocardiogram. <sup>239</sup> Three studies <sup>245,247,250</sup> failed to provide a description of the diagnosis criteria for inclusion in the trials. Three studies <sup>233,242,251</sup> were conducted in patients with coronary heart disease.

\_

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

Three studies<sup>246,234,236</sup> were conducted in patients with chronic hearth failure (CHF). Patients from one of the studies<sup>246</sup> on CHF met the functional capacity criteria for New York Heart Association (NYHA) classification I-IV. Patients in another study on CHF<sup>234</sup> met the criteria for NYHA functional class II-III. The remaining study on CHF<sup>236</sup> included patients that met both the Vasan and Lecy criteria for CHF, and the criteria for NYHA functional class I-II. Other cardiovascular conditions that were studied included acute myocardial infarction (AMI),<sup>235</sup> and peripheral vascular occlusive disease.<sup>91</sup> Finally, one study<sup>248</sup> was conducted in patients that underwent coronary artery bypass surgery

All 21 trials employed a parallel study design. The length of the trials varied from 90 minutes<sup>237</sup> to 1 year. <sup>240,248-250</sup> The median duration of the trials was 3 months (IQR, 2 to 9; data from 20 trials). Six studies<sup>235,237,241,244,251,252</sup> were short-term trials (less than 3 months in duration), nine trials<sup>233,234,236,238,239,243,245-247</sup> were between 3 and 6 months, and five trials<sup>240,242,248-250</sup> were longer than 6 months.

The 21 trials comprised 5 comparisons between meditation practices and no intervention, <sup>235,244,245,247,251</sup> and one comparison between meditation and WL. <sup>252</sup> There were 20 comparisons between meditation and active therapies other than no intervention or WL. As some trials had more than one comparison arm, the total number of comparisons exceeds the number of trials. The 20 active comparisons comprise exercise, <sup>233,235,239,240,248</sup> HE, <sup>234,237,243</sup> usual care, <sup>234,242,246,249</sup> group therapy, <sup>236,241</sup> pharmacological interventions, <sup>238,246,250</sup> rest, <sup>91</sup> listening to music, <sup>91</sup> and cognitive restructuring training. <sup>241</sup> Four studies were three-arm trials <sup>91,234,235,241</sup> while the remaining 17 were two-arm trials.

## **Methodological Quality of Included Studies**

The methodological quality of the included trials as measured by the overall median Jadad score was 1/5 (IQR, 1 to 2). Two trials  $^{91,234}$  obtained 3 points and were considered of high quality (i.e., Jadad scores greater than or equal to 3 points). Seven trials  $^{235,236,238,241,243,244,246}$  obtained 2 points, 11 trials  $^{233,237,239,240,242,245,248-252}$  obtained 1 point, and one trial  $^{247}$  did not obtain any points. All the trials except six  $^{247-252}$  were described as randomized; however, the description of randomization varied. The majority of trials  $(n = 13)^{235-246,253}$  did not provide a description on how the randomization was performed. Two trials  $^{91,234}$  described appropriate methods of generating the sequence of randomization. None of the trials were described as double-blind. The adequacy of allocation concealment was unclear in all the trials except one.  $^{246}$ 

An intention-to-treat analysis was specified in two trials only. <sup>234,246</sup> Sixteen trials <sup>91,233-238,241,243,244,246,248-252</sup> reported dropout information for the total study sample (mean dropout rate, 17 percent; range, 0 to 32 percent). Six trials <sup>236,241,248,249,251,252</sup> had a dropout rate of more than 20 percent. Withdrawals and dropouts per treatment group were clearly described in 14 trials <sup>91,234-236,238,241,243,244,246,248-252</sup> On average, 20 percent of participants (range, 0 to 39 percent) dropped out from the meditation groups in the 14 studies that reported dropouts. The mean dropout rate for the control groups was slightly lower (16 percent; range, 0 to 33 percent).

for the control groups was slightly lower (16 percent; range, 0 to 33 percent).

Eight trials<sup>233,234,239,240,243,246,248,249</sup> disclosed their source of funding. Seven trials<sup>233,234,239,240,243,246,249</sup> received funding from government sources; two<sup>243,246</sup> received funds from a private donor/foundation; and one<sup>248</sup> received internal funds. A comparative summary of the methodological quality of the included trials is provided in Table 30.

135

Table 30. Methodological quality of trials of meditation practices for other cardiovascular disorders

Cturdu nama	Meditation	Rando	mization	Double	e blinding	Description of withdrawals	Jadad	Allocation	Report of
Study name	practice	Stated	Method described	Stated	Method described	/dropouts	score	concealment	funding
Ades PA, 2005 <sup>233,253</sup>	Yoga + BE	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	Yes
Chang BH, 2005 <sup>234</sup>	RR	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	Yes	3	Unclear	Yes
Channer KS, 1996 <sup>235</sup>	Tai Chi	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
Curiati JA, 2005 <sup>236</sup>	RR + BE	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
Friedman NL, 2002 <sup>237</sup>	Zen Buddhist meditation	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	No
Hipp A, 1998 <sup>247</sup>	Yoga	No	NA	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	No
Jatuporn S, 2003 <sup>238</sup>	Yoga + intensive lifestyle modification	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
Lan C, 1999 <sup>248</sup>	Tai Chi	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	Yes
Mahajan AS, 1999 <sup>239</sup>	Yoga + diet changes	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	Yes
Manchanda SC, 2000 <sup>240</sup>	Yoga + diet + Aerobic exercise	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	Yes
Mandle CL, 1988 <sup>91,254</sup>	RR	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	Yes	3	Unclear	No
Pool JI, 1995 <sup>241</sup>	Mindfulness meditation (NS)	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
Quillian-Wolever RE, 2005 <sup>242</sup>	Mindfulness meditation (NS) + HE + health coaching	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	No

BE = breathing exercises; HE = health education; MBSR = mindfulness-based stress reduction; NA = not applicable; NS = not specified; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; RR = Relaxation Response; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>

Table 30. Methodological quality of trials of meditation practices for other cardiovascular disorders (continued)

Cturdu mama	Meditation	Rando	mization	Double	e blinding	Description of	Jadad	Allocation	Report of
Study name	practice	Stated	Method described	Stated	Method described	withdrawals /dropouts	score	concealment	funding
Stenlund T, 2005 <sup>243</sup>	Qi Gong	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	Yes
Tacon AM, 2003 <sup>244,255</sup>	MBSR	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
Tsai SL, 2004 <sup>249</sup>	Mindfulness meditation + BE + PMR + imagery	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	Yes
Williams KA, 2001 <sup>245</sup>	MBSR	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	No
Yeh GY, 2004 <sup>246,256</sup>	Tai Chi	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Adequate	Yes
Yogendra J, 2004 <sup>250</sup>	Yoga + risk factors control + diet + stress management	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	No
Young JW, 2001 <sup>251</sup>	Yoga	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	No
Zamarra JW, 1996 <sup>252,257</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	No

### **Results of Direct Comparisons**

Table 31 summarizes the type of meditation practice, comparison group, and outcomes that were available for direct meta-analyses on the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices to treat cardiovascular diseases. No single diagnostic criterion was chosen for categorizing study populations; rather, we included all studies conducted in patients with cardiovascular disorders, as defined by the authors of the primary studies. Direct meta-analyses were conducted when two or more studies assessed the same type of meditation practice, used similar comparison groups, and had usable data for common outcomes of interest. Briefly, the majority of the comparisons from 14 studies (16 out of 18 comparisons) were not suitable for direct meta-analyses. Common clinical outcomes were absent for the following comparisons: MBSR versus NT, <sup>244,245</sup> mindfulness techniques not specified versus usual care, <sup>242,249</sup> Yoga versus exercise, <sup>233,239,240</sup> and Yoga versus NT. <sup>247,251</sup> No more than one study was available for statistical pooling of the results for mindfulness techniques not specified versus cognitive restructuring training, <sup>241</sup> mindfulness techniques not specified versus group therapy, <sup>241</sup> Qi Gong versus HE, <sup>243</sup> RR versus HE, <sup>234</sup> RR versus group therapy, <sup>236</sup> RR versus music, <sup>91</sup> RR versus usual care, <sup>248</sup> RR versus rest, <sup>91</sup> Tai Chi versus HE, <sup>235</sup> Tai Chi versus usual care, <sup>246</sup> and Zen Buddhist meditation versus HE. <sup>237</sup>

Data from six studies were available for direct meta-analyses to compare Tai Chi versus exercise, Yoga versus medication, and Yoga versus exercise. Outcomes of interest for which data could be combined into a direct meta-analysis were

- 1. heart rate; Tai Chi versus exercise;
- 2. total cholesterol (TC); Yoga versus medication;
- 3. low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C); Yoga versus medication; and
- 4. body weight; Yoga versus exercise

Results from individual studies that were not included in a direct meta-analysis of clinical trials of meditation practices in cardiovascular are summarized in Table H2 in Appendix H.\*

-

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

138

Table 31. Summary of outcomes by meditation practice and by comparison group included in meta-analyses of the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases

Intervention	Comparator	Outcome	No. studies	Meta- analysis	Outcomes for meta- analysis
MBSR	NT	Anxiety, coping styles, emotional control, health locus of control, cortisol, breathing frequency, total catecholamines, BP changes (DBP, SBP), HRQL, perceived physical well-being <sup>244</sup> Depression, anxiety, anger, hostility, vitality, mental health, general health <sup>245</sup>	2	No	NA
Mindfulness (NS)	CRT	BP changes (DBP, SBP), HR, anxiety, depression, psychological distress, irritability, hostility <sup>241</sup>	1	No	NA
	UC (NS)	Coronary heart disease risk at 10 yr. <sup>242</sup> Anxiety, sleep, relaxation level <sup>249</sup>	2	No	NA
	Group therapy	BP changes (DBP, SBP), HR, anxiety, depression, psychological distress, irritability, hostility <sup>241</sup>	1	No	NA
Qi Gong	HE	Level of physical activity, balance, coordination, fear of falling <sup>243</sup>	1	No	NA
RR	HE	HRQL, VO <sub>2</sub> max <sup>234</sup>	1	No	NA
	Group therapy	NE, HRQL, VE/VCO <sub>2</sub> slope, VO <sub>2</sub> , LVEF, LVDDi <sup>236</sup>	1	No	NA
	Music tape	Anxiety, pain, medication use, HR, BP changes (DBP, SBP), PR <sup>91</sup>	1	No	NA
	UC (NS)	HRQL, VO <sub>2</sub> max <sup>234</sup>	1	No	NA
	Rest	Anxiety, pain, medication use, HR, BP changes (DBP, SBP), PR <sup>91</sup>	1	No	NA
Tai Chi	Exercise	BP changes (DBP, SBP), secondary: HR <sup>235</sup> Peak VO <sub>2</sub> , peak WR, HR <sup>248</sup>	2	Yes	HR <sup>235,248</sup>
	HE	BP changes (DBP, SBP), secondary: HR <sup>235</sup>	1	No	NA
	UC	HRQL, exercise capacity, BNP, VO <sub>2</sub> max, plasma catecholamines <sup>246</sup>	1	No	NA
TM	WL	Exercise tolerance, maximal workload, ST depression onset, rate-pressure product <sup>252</sup>	1	No	NA
Yoga	Exercise	TEE, body strength, body weight, BMI, fat-free mass, left ventricular function, VO <sub>2</sub> max, depression <sup>233</sup> Body weight, lipid profile (TC, HDL-C, LDL-C) <sup>239</sup> Depression, anger, anxiety, hostility, vitality, mental health <sup>240</sup>	3	Yes	Body weight <sup>233,239</sup>

BNP = B-type natriuretic peptide; BMI = body mass index; BP = blood pressure; CRT = cognitive restructuring training; DBP = diastolic blood pressure; GSH = glutathione; HDL-C = high density lipoprotein cholesterol; HE = health education; HRQL = health-related quality of life; HRV = heart rate variability; LDL-C = low density lipoprotein cholesterol; LLM = lipid lowering medication; LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction; LVDDi = left ventricular end diastolic volume index; MBSR = mindfulness-based stress reduction; NA = not applicable; NE = norepinephrine; NT = no treatment; P-MDA = plasma malondialdehyde; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; PR = pulse rate; SBP = systolic blood pressure; TC = total cholesterol; TEE = total energy expenditure; TG = triglycerides; TM® = Transcendental Meditation®; UC = usual care; VLDL-C = very low density lipoprotein cholesterol; VE/VCO<sub>2</sub> = rate of increase of ventilation per unit of increase of carbon dioxide production; Vo<sub>2</sub> max = maximum oxygen consumption; WR = work rate

Table 31. Summary of outcomes by meditation practice and by comparison group included in meta-analyses of the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases (continued)

Intervention	Comparator	Outcome	No. studies	Meta- analysis	Outcomes for meta- analysis
Yoga (continued)	NT	TC, HDL-C, LDL C, VLDL-C, TG <sup>247</sup> Anxiety, somatization, tension, depression, global status, mood disturbances <sup>251</sup>	2	No	NA
	LLM	Total antioxidant status, vitamin C, vitamin E, TG, TC, HDL-C, LDL-C, P-MDA, erythrocyte GSH, BMI <sup>238</sup> TC, LDL-C, clinical improvement, caloric intake, regression of disease, anxiety, depression, myocardial perfusion <sup>250</sup>	2	Yes	TC <sup>238,250</sup> LDL-C <sup>238,250</sup>
Zen Buddhist meditation	HE	HRV <sup>237</sup>	1	No	NA

### Tai Chi versus exercise

Heart rate. Two trials<sup>235,248</sup> totaling 99 participants (Tai Chi = 47, exercise = 52) provided data on the effects of Tai Chi versus exercise on heart rate (HR). After analyzing the substantial heterogeneity of the studies (I<sup>2</sup> = 70 percent), it was considered inappropriate to combine the study results into a single effect estimate. There were substantial differences between the two studies regarding the characteristics of participants in the studies, the methods to evaluate HR, study design, and the duration of the followup period. The study by Channer<sup>235</sup> was an 8-week RCT conducted in patients who had suffered acute MI within 3 weeks prior to enrolling in the trial. Measures of HR were taken at rest. Individual study results showed a significant benefit (reduction) in resting heart rate that favored Tai Chi over exercise. The study of Lan<sup>248</sup> was a 1-year NRCT conducted in patients that underwent coronary artery bypass surgery. Measures of HR were taken during exercise. Individual study results showed a nonsignificant improvement (increase) in HR during exercise as compared to Tai Chi.

### Yoga versus lipid lowering medication (LLM)

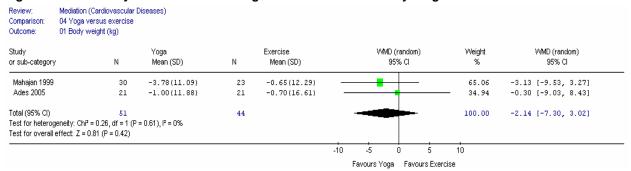
Total cholesterol (TC). Two trials<sup>238,250</sup> totaling 157 participants (Yoga = 93, LLM = 64) provided data on the effects of Yoga versus LLM on TC. After analyzing the substantial heterogeneity of the studies (I<sup>2</sup> = 97.4 percent), it was considered inappropriate to combine the study results into a single effect estimate. There were substantial differences between the two studies regarding the characteristics of participants in the studies, study design, and the duration of the followup period. The study of Jatuporn<sup>238</sup> was a 4-month RCT conducted in patients with coronary artery disease that compared the practice of Yoga and the administration of LLM. Individual study results showed a significant benefit (reduction) over the short-term in TC that favored LLM over Yoga. The study of Yogendra<sup>250</sup> was a 1-year NRCT conducted in patients with coronary artery disease that compared Yoga versus LLT. Individual study results showed a nonsignificant improvement (reduction) over the long-term in TC that favored Yoga over LLM.

Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C). Two trials<sup>238,250</sup> totaling 157 participants (Yoga = 93, LLM = 64) provided data on the effects of Yoga versus LLM on TC. As mentioned before, there was considerable clinical heterogeneity between the studies ( $I^2 = 97.3$  percent) that precluded the pooling of the results. The short-term RCT of Jatuporn<sup>238</sup> reported a significant reduction in LDL-C with LLM. The long-term NRCT of Yogendra<sup>250</sup> showed a nonsignificant decrease in LDL-C that favored Yoga over LLM.

#### Yoga versus exercise

*Body weight*. Two trials<sup>233,239</sup> totaling 95 participants (Yoga = 51, exercise = 44) provided data on the effects of Yoga versus exercise on body weight changes (Figure 27). The combined estimate of changes in body weight (kg) indicated a nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of Yoga (WMD = -2.14; 95% CI, -7.30 to 3.02). The results were statistically homogeneous (p = 0.61;  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

Figure 27. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus exercise on body weight



## **Indirect Comparisons**

We were able to indirectly compare changes in measures of anxiety in Yoga versus MBSR (i.e., each was compared to NT in separate studies). There was no significant difference between the two interventions in terms of measures of anxiety (SMD = 0.03; 95% CI, -1.16 to 1.22).

# **Analysis of Publication Bias**

Because of the very small number of trials available for each comparison, the statistical tests lacked the power to detect publication bias. Therefore the analysis of the effect of publication bias on the meta-analyses presented above was not conducted.

# **Substance Abuse**

# **Description of the Included Studies**

Seventeen trials (13 RCTs<sup>258-270</sup> and 4 NRCTs<sup>271-274</sup>) that evaluated the effects of meditation practices in individuals with substance abuse disorders were identified. They included five trials on TM<sup>®</sup>, <sup>259</sup>, <sup>261</sup>, <sup>267</sup>, <sup>270</sup>, <sup>271</sup> three on Yoga, <sup>266</sup>, <sup>269</sup>, <sup>273</sup> two on MBSR, <sup>263</sup>, <sup>272</sup> two on RR, <sup>265</sup>, <sup>268</sup> one on CMS, <sup>264</sup> one on a medical meditation practice involving the use of mantra and breathing techniques, <sup>260</sup> one on Qi Gong, <sup>262</sup> one on mindfulness meditation not further specified, <sup>258</sup> and one on a meditation practice not further described. <sup>274</sup>

The trials were published between 1956 and 2004 (median year of publication: 1986; IQR, 1979 to 1999). All the trials were published in journals, except for two, <sup>260,263</sup> which were identified from the gray literature. The majority of trials (n = 13) <sup>258-260,263-265,267-272,274</sup> were conducted in the United States; two studies were conducted in India, <sup>266,273</sup> one study was conducted in China, <sup>262</sup> and one in Sweden. <sup>261</sup> Characteristics of the trials are summarized in Table H3 in Appendix H.\*

A total of 825 individuals were assigned to meditation practices or control groups. The median sample size based on data from 16 trials was 45 participants per study (IQR, 30 to 77).

.

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

Two<sup>273,274</sup> of the 16 trials had more than 100 participants assigned to the study groups. The mean age of participants based on data from 13 trials was  $33 \pm 7$  years (range: 21 to 45 years). All the trials except two<sup>265,270</sup> were conducted in samples with mean ages ranging from 20 to 40 years. Four trials<sup>259-261,273</sup> did not report the age of participants.

Across all the trials that reported the gender of participants (n = 16), 87 percent were males and 13 percent were females. Samples in nine trials  $^{262-266,268,270,273,274}$  were entirely male; none of the trials included entirely female samples. One trial  $^{259}$  failed to report the gender of participants. The race of ethnicity of samples was reported in five trials.  $^{258,263,269,270,274}$  African American participants constituted more than 60 percent of the study population in three trials,  $^{258,263,270}$  whereas Caucasian participants constituted more than 80 percent of the study population in two trials.  $^{269,274}$ 

All the trials except five<sup>217,258,266,268,269</sup> attempted to use formal criteria or validated instruments to select participants in their studies. Two studies used the Addiction Severity Index,<sup>258,269</sup> one study<sup>266</sup> used the DSM-III criteria for alcohol dependence, and another used the Drinking Practices Questionnaire. The remaining 13 trials selected the study participants based on their reported history of substance abuse.

Participants in the studies were recruited in addiction treatment centers, <sup>258,261,262,265,269-272,274</sup> prisons, <sup>259,263,267</sup> psychiatric wards, <sup>266</sup> universities <sup>264,268</sup> or from Alcoholics Anonymous. <sup>260,273</sup> Abused substances included alcohol, <sup>258,260,261,263-266,268,270-273</sup> cocaine, <sup>258,263,272</sup> heroin, <sup>258,262,269,272</sup> marijuana, <sup>261,272</sup> inhalants, <sup>272</sup> hashish, <sup>261</sup> amphetamines, <sup>261</sup> and lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD). <sup>261</sup> Three studies did not provide details about the type of substances abused.

All 17 trials employed a parallel study design. The length of the trials varied from 1 day<sup>260</sup> to 18 months. <sup>270</sup> The median duration of the trials based on data from 16 trials was 4 months (IQR, 1 to 6). Seven studies<sup>259,260,262-265,272</sup> were short-term trials (less than 3 months), seven trials<sup>258,261,266,268,269,271,274</sup> had a duration between 3 and 6 months, and two trials<sup>270,273</sup> lasted longer than 6 months.

The 17 trials comprised four comparisons between meditation practices and no intervention, <sup>259,262,264,272</sup> and two comparisons between meditation practices and WL. <sup>259,271</sup> There were 20 comparisons between meditation practices and active therapies other than no intervention or WL. As some trials had more than one comparison arm, the total number of comparisons exceeds the number of trials. Of the 20 active comparisons, the comparative treatments were BF, <sup>270,273</sup> exercise, <sup>264,266</sup> group therapy, <sup>261,269</sup> PMR, <sup>263,265</sup> rest, <sup>260,265</sup> counseling, <sup>270</sup> psychotherapy, <sup>273</sup> relaxation, <sup>274</sup> neurotherapy, <sup>270</sup> stereotaxic surgery, <sup>273</sup> low frequency pulsed magnetic field therapy, <sup>273</sup> and pharmacotherapy. <sup>262</sup> Two studies failed to provide a description of the control group, and one study <sup>258</sup> reported the comparison group as "usual care" without providing further details. The median number of comparisons per study was one (IQR, 1 to 2).

# **Methodological Quality of Included Studies**

As a measure of methodological quality for included trials, the overall median Jadad score was 1 (IQR, 1 to 2). Three trials<sup>258,265,266</sup> obtained 3 points and were considered high quality (i.e., Jadad scores of 3 points or more). Three trials<sup>260,263,264</sup> obtained 2 points, seven trials<sup>259,261,267-271</sup> obtained 1 point, and four trials<sup>262,272-274</sup> did not obtain any points.. All the trials except four<sup>271-274</sup> were described as randomized; however, the description of randomization varied. The majority

of trials (8 out of  $13^{259,261,263,264,267-270}$  did not provide a description on how the randomization was performed. Four trials <sup>258,260,265,266</sup> described an appropriate method of generating the sequence of randomization, whereas one trial <sup>262</sup> reported an inadequate method of sequence generation. None of the trials were described as double-blind. The adequacy of allocation concealment was unclear in all included trials.

None of the studies reported the use of intention-to-treat analysis. Eight trials<sup>258,263-268,271</sup> reported dropout information for the total study sample (mean dropout rate: 34 percent; range: 0 to 87 percent). Four trials<sup>263,264,266,271</sup> had a dropout rate of more than 20 percent. Withdrawals and dropouts per treatment group were clearly described in six trials.<sup>258,263-266,271</sup> Among the six studies that reported dropouts per treatment group, 24 percent of participants (range: 0 to 48 percent) dropped out from the meditation groups. The mean dropout rate for the control groups was similar (21 percent; range: 0 to 44 percent; eight control groups).

Seven trials<sup>264,268-270,272-274</sup> reported their source of funding. Five trials<sup>268-270,273,274</sup> received government funding and two<sup>264,272</sup> received internal funding. A comparative summary of the methodological quality of the included trials is provided in Table 32.

144

Table 32. Methodological quality of trials of meditation practices for substance abuse

Otrodo	Meditation	Rand	omization	Doubl	le blinding	Withdrawals	Jadad	Allocation	Report of
Study	practice	Stated	Method described	Stated	Method described	/dropouts described	score	concealment	funding
Alterman AI, 2004 <sup>258</sup>	Mindfulness meditation	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	Yes	3	Unclear	No
Ballou D, 1977 <sup>259</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	No
Barton MJ, 2004 <sup>260</sup>	Medical meditation (mantra + BE)	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	No	2	Unclear	No
Brautigam E, 1977 <sup>261</sup>	$TM^{ ext{@}}$	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	No
Kline KS, 1982 <sup>271</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	No
Li M, 1956 <sup>262</sup>	Qi Gong	Yes	Inadequate	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	No
Marcus MT, 2001 <sup>272,275</sup>	MBSR	No	NA	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	Yes
Murphy R, 1995 <sup>263</sup>	MBSR	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	No
Murphy TJ, 1986 <sup>264</sup>	CSM	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Unclear	Yes
Parker JC, 1978 <sup>265,276,277</sup>	RR	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	Yes	3	Unclear	No
Raina N, 2001 <sup>266</sup>	Yoga	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	Yes	3	Unclear	No
Ramirez J, 1990 <sup>267</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	No
Rohsenow DJ, 1985 <sup>268</sup>	RR + PMR + CRT	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	Yes
Shaffer HJ, 1997 <sup>269</sup>	Yoga + methadon e	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	Yes
Subrahmanyam S, 1986 <sup>273</sup>	Yoga	No	NA	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	Yes
Taub E, 1994 <sup>270</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Unclear	Yes
Wong MR, 1981 <sup>274</sup>	Meditation practice (NS)	No	NA	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	Yes

BE = breathing exercises; CRT = cognitive restructuring training; CSM = clinically standardized meditation; MBSR = mindfulness-based stress reduction; NA = not applicable; NS = not specified; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; RR = Relaxation Response; TM® = Transcendental Meditation®

## **Results of Quantitative Analysis**

Table 33 summarizes the type of meditation practice, comparison group, and outcomes that were available for meta-analysis. No single diagnostic criterion was chosen for categorizing study populations. Rather, we included all studies conducted in patients with substance abuse, as defined by the authors of the primary studies. Studies were too dissimilar in type of meditation practice, comparison group, and data for common outcomes of interest to allow direct or indirect comparisons of the effectiveness of meditation practices for substance abuse. No more than one study was available for statistical pooling of any of the 23 comparisons.

Results from individual clinical trials of meditation practices in substance abuse are summarized in Table H3 in Appendix H.\*

# **Analysis of Publication Bias**

The lack of trials available for a meta-analysis on the effects of meditation practices in substance abuse precluded an assessment of publication bias.

\*Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

145

-

Table 33. Summary of outcomes by meditation practice and by comparison group included in meta-analyses of efficacy and effectiveness

Intervention	ention Comparator Outcome		No. studies	Meta- analysis	Outcomes for meta-analysis
TM <sup>®</sup>	NT	Anxiety, behavioral changes, inmate infractions <sup>259</sup>	1	No	NA
	WL	Anxiety, behavioral changes, inmate infractions <sup>259</sup> Personality profile, self-actualization <sup>271</sup>	2	No	NA
	Group therapy	Frequency of drug use, leisure activity, self-confidence, anxiety, psychomotor retardation <sup>261</sup>	1	No	NA
	Control (NS)	Self-concept, emotional stability, maturity, hostility, overconcern with physical symptoms <sup>267</sup>	1	No	NA
	BF	Drinking days, complete abstinence, mood states <sup>270</sup>	1	No	NA
	Neurotherapy	Drinking days, complete abstinence, mood states <sup>270</sup>	1	No	NA
	Counseling	Drinking days, complete abstinence, mood states <sup>270</sup>	1	No	NA
CSM	Exercise	Alcohol consumption, VO <sub>2</sub> max <sup>264</sup>	1	No	NA
	NT	Alcohol consumption, VO <sub>2</sub> max <sup>264</sup>	1	No	NA
MBSR	NT	Coping styles, psychopathology symptoms <sup>272</sup>	1	No	NA
	PMR	Egocentrism, anger, impulsivity, cortisol levels <sup>263</sup>	1	No	NA
Medical meditation (mantra + BE)	Rest	BP changes (DBP, SBP), PR, GSR, spirituality <sup>260</sup>	1	No	NA
Qi Gong	Methadone	Withdrawal symptoms, anxiety, urine morphine <sup>262</sup>	1	No	NA
	NT	Withdrawal symptoms, anxiety, urine morphine <sup>262</sup>	1	No	NA
RR	PMR	Anxiety, BP changes (DBP, SBP), HR, GSR, tension <sup>265</sup>	1	No	NA
	Rest	Anxiety, BP changes (DBP, SBP), HR, GSR, tension <sup>265</sup>	1	No	NA
	Control (NS)	Anxiety, anger, depression, alcohol consumption, locus of control, irrational beliefs <sup>268</sup>	1	No	NA
Yoga	Exercise	Recovery rate <sup>266</sup>	1	No	NA
	Group therapy	Addiction severity, psychological symptoms <sup>269</sup>	1	No	NA
	Psychotherapy	Clinical status, psychological status, WBC count, ESR, blood glucose, TC, cortisol, lactic acid, PBI, 5-HIAA, Hb, catecholamines, S-Ca, S-Mg, VMA; HVA; 17-KS, PT, MHPG, cholinesterase <sup>273</sup>	1	No	NA

<sup>5-</sup>HIAA = 5-hydroxyindole acetic acid; 17-KS = 17-ketosteroids; BE = breathing exercises; BF = biofeedback; BP = blood pressure; CSM = clinically standardized meditation; DBP = diastolic blood pressure; ESR = erythrocyte sedimentation rate; GSR = galvanic skin response; Hb = hemoglobin; HR = heart rate; HVA = homovanillic acid; LFPMF = low frequency pulsed magnetic field; MHPG = 3-methoxy-4-hydroxyphenylglycol; MBSR = mindfulness-based stress reduction; NA = not applicable; NS = not specified; NT = no treatment; PBI = protein bound iodine; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; PR = pulse rate; RR = Relaxation Response; SBP = systolic blood pressure; S-Ca = serum calcium; S-Mg = serum magnesium; TC = total cholesterol; TM® = Transcendental Meditation®; VMA = vanillylmandelic acid; WL = waiting list; WBC = white blood cell

Table 33. Summary of outcomes by meditation practice and by comparison group included in meta-analyses of efficacy and effectiveness (continued)

Intervention	Comparator	Outcome	No. studies	Meta- analysis	Outcomes for meta-analysis
Yoga (continued)	Stereotaxic surgery	Clinical status, psychological status, WBC count, ESR, blood glucose, TC, cortisol, lactic acid, PBI, 5-HIAA, Hb, catecholamines, S-Ca, S-Mg, VMA; HVA; 17-KS, PT, MHPG, cholinesterase <sup>273</sup>	1	No	NA
	BF	Clinical status, psychological status, WBC count, ESR, blood glucose, TC, cortisol, lactic acid, PBI, 5-HIAA, Hb, catecholamines, S-Ca, S-Mg, VMA; HVA; 17-KS, PT, MHPG, cholinesterase <sup>273</sup>	1	No	NA
	LFPMF	Clinical status, psychological status, WBC count, ESR, blood glucose, TC, cortisol, lactic acid, PBI, 5-HIAA, Hb, catecholamines, S-Ca, S-Mg, VMA; HVA; 17-KS, PT, MHPG, cholinesterase <sup>273</sup>	1	No	NA

# **Summary of the Results**

Table 34 summarizes the results of the meta-analyses of the treatment effects (statistical and clinical significance) of meditation practices in hypertension and cardiovascular diseases.

## **Hypertension**

Twenty-seven trials (24 RCTs, and 3 NRCTs) have evaluated the effects of meditation practices in hypertension. The majority of trials on hypertension have been conducted in Yoga (eight studies). The trials have been predominantly conducted in the United States in participants with a mean age of 51 years (range: 41 to 60 years). All studies were conducted in patients with a diagnosis of essential hypertension and used a parallel-group design. The majority of the trials were short- and medium-term. Comparison groups included HE, NT, WL, BF, PMR, and rest. The methodological quality of trials was low with only two trials considered high quality.

Data from 16 studies were available for direct meta-analyses. Outcomes suitable for meta-analysis included blood pressure, body weight, heart rate, total cholesterol, HDL-C, LDL-C, dietary intake, physical activity, and psychological measures such as stress, anger, and self-efficacy.

Direct meta-analyses showed that compared to HE, TM<sup>®</sup> did not produce significantly greater benefits on blood pressure (SBP and DBP), heart rate, TC, HDL-C, LDL-C, body weight, dietary intake, physical activity, measures of stress, anger, and self-efficacy. A subgroup analysis by study duration showed short-term significant improvement in SBP with TM<sup>®</sup>, but not over the long-term. When compared to PMR, TM<sup>®</sup> produced significantly greater benefits in SBP and DBP. When RR was compared to BF, RR did not produce significantly greater benefits on blood pressure (SBP and DBP). Qi Gong was significantly more effective than a WL in reducing SBP. Compared to NT, Yoga produced significant reductions in DBP, but not in SBP. As the results among trials were heterogeneous, a subgroup analysis showed that the effect of Yoga on SBP was significantly greater when compared to a control group without an adjuvant treatment. The same subgroup analysis was conducted for the outcome of DBP and the magnitude of the effect changed from significant to nonsignificant when Yoga was compared to a control group with an adjuvant treatment. When compared to HE, Yoga did not produce significantly greater benefits on SBP and DBP. Heterogeneity in this outcome suggested that short-term trials showed statistically significant benefits in blood pressure, whereas the effects decreased over time. Compared to HE, Yoga produced significant benefits in controlling stress. When compared with blood pressure checks, Zen Buddhist meditation did not produce significantly greater reduction in SBP, but did produce a significant reduction in DBP.

When Tai Chi, Yoga plus BF, and Yoga were indirectly compared with NT, they significantly reduced SBP. These three interventions were also better than HE to reduce SBP. For the outcome of DBP, Yoga plus BF and Yoga alone were the only interventions that significantly reduced DBP when compared to NT. Yoga was also better than HE. Yoga was nonsignificantly superior to TM® for the outcomes of body weight, heart rate and stress. Compared to TM®, RR significantly helped to reduce smoking.

#### **Cardiovascular Diseases**

Twenty-one trials (15 RCTs and 6 NRCTs) have evaluated the effects of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases. The majority of trials have been conducted in Yoga (seven studies). The trials have been predominantly conducted in the United States in participants with a mean age of 63 years (range: 52 to 77 years). Clinical conditions of study populations included MI, coronary artery disease, angina, arrhythmias, peripheral occlusive disease, and congestive heart failure. All studies used a parallel-group design. The majority of the trials were medium-term. Comparison groups included exercise, no intervention group, pharmacological interventions, HE, usual care not specified, group therapy, WL, listening to music, cognitive restructuring training. The methodological quality of trials was low with only two trials considered high quality.

Data from six studies were available for direct meta-analyses. Outcomes suitable for meta-analysis included TC, LDL-C, and body weight; however, only the results from the two trials comparing the use of Yoga with exercise for the reduction of body weight could be combined. This direct meta-analysis showed that Yoga was no better than exercise at producing changes in body weight. Indirect comparisons showed that there were no significant differences in measures of anxiety between Yoga and MBSR.

Table 34. Summary of the meta-analyses of the treatment effects of meditation practices in hypertension and cardiovascular diseases (statistical and clinical significance)

		Hypertension		
Comparison	Outcome	Outcome Statistical significance		
M <sup>®</sup> versus HE	SBP	Medium and Long-term WMD = 0.70 mm Hg (95% CI, -2.29 to 3.68) <b>TM</b> <sup>®</sup> <b>no better than HE</b>	No	
	DBP	WMD = 1.02 mm Hg (95% CI, -1.41 to 3.44) $\mathbf{TM}^{\mathbb{B}}$ no better than HE	No	
	Body weight	WMD = 1.72 lbs (95% CI, -2.29 to 5.74) <b>TM</b> <sup>®</sup> <b>no better than HE</b>	No	
	Heart rate	WMD = $-0.43$ bpm (95% CI, $-4.17$ to 3.31) TM <sup>®</sup> no better than HE	No	
	Stress	SMD = 0.12 (95% CI, -0.27 to 0.50) TM <sup>®</sup> no better than HE`	No	
	Anger	SMD = 0.06 (95% CI, -0.45 to 0.32) <b>TM</b> <sup>®</sup> <b>no better than HE</b>	No	
	Self-efficacy	SMD = -0.36 (95% CI, -0.92 to 0.19) TM <sup>®</sup> no better than HE	No	
	TC	WMD = -0.94 mg/dL (95% CI, -11.49 to 9.62) <b>TM</b> <sup>®</sup> <b>no better than HE</b>	No	
	HDL-C	WMD of -2.58 mg/dL (95% CI, -6.12 to 0.96) <b>TM<sup>®</sup> no better than HE</b>	No	
	LDL-C	WMD of 1.08 mg/dL (95% CI, -8.65 to 10.81) ${ m TM}^{ m @}$ no better than HE	No	
	Dietary intake	Fat intake: SMD = 0.50 (95% CI, -0.21 to 1.21) Sodium intake: SMD = 0.14 (95% CI, -0.44 to 0.72) <b>TM</b> <sup>®</sup> <b>no better than HE</b>	No	

BF = biofeedback; DBP = diastolic blood pressure; HDL-C = high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HE = health education; LDL-C = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; MBSR = mindfulness-based stress reduction; RR = Relaxation Response; SBP = systolic blood pressure; SMD = standardized mean difference

Table 34. Summary of the meta-analyses of the treatment effects of meditation practices in hypertension and cardiovascular diseases (statistical and clinical significance) (continued)

		Hypertension (continued)	
Comparison	Outcome	Statistical significance	Clinical significance
TM <sup>®</sup> versus HE (continued)	Physical activity	SMD = -0.20 (95% CI, -0.14 to 0.53) $TM^{\circ}$ no better than HE	No
TM <sup>®</sup> versus PMR	SBP	WMD = -4.30 mm Hg (95% CI, -8.02 to -0.57) $\mathbf{TM}^{\otimes}$ better than PMR	Yes
	DBP	WMD = -3.11 mm Hg (95% CI, -5.00 to -1.22) $\mathbf{TM}^{\mathbb{B}}$ better than HE	Borderline
RR versus BF	SBP	WMD = 2.39 mm Hg (95% CI, -5.13 to 9.91) RR no better than BF	No
	DBP	WMD = 4.44 mm Hg (95% CI, -4.00 to 12.88) RR no better than BF	No
Qi Gong versus WL	SBP	WMD = -17.78 mm Hg (95% CI, -22.03 to -13.54) <b>Qi Gong better than WL</b>	Questionable
	DBP	WMD = -12.06 mm Hg (95% CI, -21.62 to -2.49) <b>Qi Gong better than WL</b>	Questionable
Yoga versus NT	SBP	With concomitant therapy: WMD = -7.15 mm Hg (95% CI, -17.70 to 3.39)  Yoga no better than NT	No
	DBP	With concomitant therapy: WMD = -6.82 mm Hg (95% CI, -15.51 to 1.87)  Yoga no better than NT	No
Yoga versus HE	Stress	SMD = -1.10 (95% CI, -1.61 to -0.58)  Yoga better than HE	No
Zen Buddhist meditation versus blood	SBP	WMD = -3.67 mm Hg (95% CI, -9.04 to 1.70)  Zen Buddhist meditation no better than blood pressure checks	No
pressure checks	DBP	WMD = -6.08 mm Hg (95% CI, -11.68 to -0.48)  Zen Buddhist meditation better than blood pressure checks	Yes
		Cardiovascular diseases	
Comparison	Outcome	Statistical significance	Clinical significance
Yoga versus exercise	Body weight	WMD = -2.14 (95% CI, -7.30 to 3.02 Yoga no better than exercise	No
MBSR versus Yoga (indirect comparison)	Anxiety	No; SMD: 0.03; 95% CI, -1.16 to 1.22 MBSR no better than yoga	No

#### **Substance Abuse**

Seventeen trials (13 RCTs and 4 NRCTs) have evaluated the effects of meditation practices in substance abuse. The majority of trials have been conducted on TM® (five studies). The trials have been predominantly conducted in the United States in participants with a mean age of 33 years (range: 21 to 45 years). All studies used a parallel-group design. The majority of the trials were short- and medium- term. Control groups included BF, exercise, group therapy, PMR, rest, counseling, psychotherapy, relaxation, neurotherapy, stereotaxic surgery, low frequency pulsed magnetic field therapy, and pharmacotherapy. The methodological quality of trials was low with only three trials considered high quality. Study results were not combined because the trials were

too dissimilar in meditation practice, comparison group, and data for common outcomes of interest. In addition, the results of the three highest quality trials $^{258,265,266}$  (Jadad score = 3/5) examining, respectively, Mindfulness meditation, RR, and Yoga are inconclusive with respect to the effectiveness of meditation practices.

The study comparing Mindfulness meditation with usual care (NS) <sup>258</sup> for alcohol and cocaine abuse found little indication that Mindfulness meditation enhanced treatment outcomes for substance abuse patients. The study comparing RR with PMR and rest groups <sup>265</sup> for alcohol abuse found generalized effects for BP, but not for the other outcome measures (anxiety, HR, and GSR). The RR and PMR groups did not exhibit increased BP as observed in control subjects. RR and PMR produced significant changes in tension. The study comparing Yoga with exercise <sup>266</sup> for alcohol abuse found a significantly greater recovery rate for the Yoga group.

Table 32 provides a summary of the meta-analyses of the treatment effects of meditation practices in hypertension and cardiovascular diseases in terms of the statistical and clinical significance of the findings. Overall, we found that TM® had no advantages over HE to improve measures of SBP, DBP, body weight, heart rate, stress, anger, self-efficacy, cholesterol, dietary intake, and level of physical activity in hypertensive patients. Compared to PMR, TM® produced clinically and statistically significant benefits to reduce SBP. The results for DBP were of borderline clinical significance. Caution should be exerted when interpreting these results. Meta-analyses were derived from only two open label trials; therefore, performance bias and detection bias may have contributed to an overestimate of the treatment effect. RR was not shown to be superior to BF at reducing blood pressure in hypertension.

Qi Gong was superior to WL to reduce blood pressure in subjects with essential hypertension; however, the clinical significance of this finding is questionable, as the effect estimate is quite imprecise (i.e., wide confidence interval), the comparison is based on a few low-quality studies, and the appropriateness of a WL comparison group is questionable. Yoga did not produce clinically or statistically significant effects in blood pressure when compared to NT. Compared to HE, Yoga produced statistically significant changes in measures of stress. The clinical value of this change, however, is questionable (approximately a one-point reduction in measures of stress). Results were obtained from only two open label trials and this could have affected the subjective determination of outcomes. Finally, Zen Buddhist meditation was not better than blood pressure checks to reduce SBP. Although the result for DBP was clinically and statistically significant, caution should be exerted as there was some heterogeneity among the studies that contributed data for this outcome.

Yoga was no better than physical exercises to reduce body weight in patients with cardiovascular disorders. When the relative effectiveness of a variety of meditation practices was assessed using indirect meta-analysis, we found that there were no significant differences between MBSR and Yoga to control anxiety symptoms in cardiovascular patients.

# Topic IV. Evidence on the Role of Effect Modifiers for the Practice of Meditation

We aimed to identify the role of effect modifiers (e.g., patient and meditation characteristics) as moderators of the treatment effect measured in clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension, other cardiovascular diseases, and substance abuse. The small number of trials per comparison and the limited data from primary studies precluded meta-regression analyses using RCT-level covariates to assess the role of specific effect modifiers for the practice of meditation. We were also unable to conduct subgroup analyses to explore differences among subgroups of patients as the trials failed to report results by the effect modifiers being considered (i.e., characteristics of the practice or patients). Therefore, we will describe the findings from the individual studies that reported data on the role of effect modifiers.

## **Hypertension**

Of 27 trials that examined the effect of meditation practices for hypertension, only seven trials 203,205,206,209,220-222 conducted a subgroup analysis or a multiple regression analysis to explore the role of a variety of effect modifiers. A summary of the analysis is provided in Table 35. Four studies 205,206,220,221 conducted an analysis of the role of effect modifiers on health

Four studies<sup>205,206,220,221</sup> conducted an analysis of the role of effect modifiers on health outcomes resulting from the practice of TM<sup>®</sup>. They used multiple regression models<sup>205,206,221</sup> or subgroup analyses<sup>220,222</sup> by a variety of effect modifiers such as age,<sup>205,206,206</sup> gender, antihypertensive medication use,<sup>206,220,222</sup> income,<sup>205</sup> education,<sup>205</sup> and smoking<sup>206</sup> One study<sup>209</sup> conducted a subgroup analysis by age, gender, severity of hypertension, duration of disease, and medication use for the effects of RR. Another study<sup>203</sup> conducted a subgroup analysis by severity of hypertension and duration of the disease on the effects of mantra meditation and relaxation techniques. Finally, one study on a technique modeled after TM<sup>®</sup> conducted subgroup analyses of medication use,<sup>222</sup> and marital status.<sup>222</sup>

All the trials were likely to have conducted post hoc analyses as the analyses were not reported as part of the plan of analysis in the Methods sections of the studies. It is unknown whether authors of the trials decided to selectively report on the variables that showed a statistically significant positive effect.

None of the trials that provided data on effect modifiers of meditation practices for hypertension analyzed the effect of the dose of practice necessary to achieve health outcomes. Neither the role of the direction of attention during meditation nor the rhythmic aspects of the practice were explored in the studies. The trials did not provide data on how ethnicity predicts health outcomes resulting from the practice of meditation. The role of individual variables to predict success in the process of meditation (expressed as adherence or acceptance) was not explored in the trials of meditation practice and hypertension.

Table 35. Summary of the analyses of effect modifiers for achieving benefits from meditation practice for hypertension

hypertension					
Study, year, country	Study design, duration, followup, ITT	Intervention	Comparison groups	Type of analysis	Authors' conclusions
Aivazyan TA, 1988 <sup>203</sup> Russia	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 12 mo. ITT: Yes	Mantra meditation + relaxation techniques	NT	Subgroup analysis by severity and duration of disease (post hoc)	The responders had higher BP and shorter hypertension duration than did the nonresponders
Calderon R Jr, 2000 <sup>205</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 mo. ITT: NR	TM <sup>®</sup>	HE	Multiple regression analysis controlling by age, income, education. Subgroup analysis by education (post hoc)	Subjects with high school education differed significantly in magnitude of reduction in TC and LDL-C compared to those with college education Education/SES may interact with lipid response to the practice of TM®
Castillo- Richmond A, 2000 <sup>206</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 9 mo. ITT: Yes	TM <sup>®</sup>	HE	Multiple regression analysis controlling by age, AHM use, and smoking (post hoc)	No significant differences in SBP and DBP were observed after controlling for age, AHM use, and smoking
Hager JL, 1978 <sup>209</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 4 wk. ITT: No	RR	BF (BP)	Subgroup analysis by age, sex, severity and duration of disease, and medication use (post hoc)	There were no significant effects of age, sex, severity and duration of disease, and medication use on BP mean changes
Schneider RH, 1995 <sup>79,221,232</sup> United States	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration: 3 mo. ITT: Yes	TM <sup>®</sup>	PMR HE	Multiple regression analysis controlling by age, sex, risk level	Both SBP and DBP significantly improved for both sexes and for high-and low-risk levels

AHM = antihypertensive medication; AT = autogenic training; BE = breathing exercises; BF = biofeedback; BHT = borderline hypertension; BP = blood pressure; CMBT = contemplative meditation with breathing techniques; DBP = diastolic blood pressure; HE = health education; HT = hypertension; ITT = intention-to-treat;; LDL-C = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; mo. = months; NR = not reported; NRCT = nonrandomized clinical trial; NS = not specified; NT = no treatment; PLB = placebo; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; RR = relaxation response; SBP = systolic blood pressure; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>; UC = usual care; wk = weeks; WL = waiting list; yr = year

Table 35. Summary of the analysis of effect modifiers for achieving benefits from meditation practice for

hypertension (continued)

Study, year, country	Study design, duration, followup, ITT	Intervention	Comparison groups	Type of analysis	Authors' conclusions	
Schneider RH, 2005 <sup>220</sup> United States	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration: 1 yr. ITT: Yes	TM <sup>®</sup>	PMR	Subgroup analysis by sex (post hoc)	The change of SBP in women was not significantly greater than in men There was no	
			HE	-	significant overall difference in DBP. Compared to the other groups, women in the TM <sup>®</sup> group decreased more on both SBP and DBP	
Seer P, 1980 <sup>222</sup> New Zealand	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration: 3 mo. ITT: NR	SRELAX (technique modeled after TM <sup>®</sup> )	PLB	Subgroup analysis by sex, marital status, use of AHM in the past, duration of	Responders had a significantly longer hypertension history Sex, marital status,	
			WL	disease (post hoc)	and use of hypertensive medication in the past did not affect outcomes	

#### **Cardiovascular Diseases**

Of 21 trials on the effects of meditation practice on cardiovascular (CV) diseases, only two trials<sup>234,239</sup> conducted subgroup or multiple regression analyses to explore the role of effect modifiers on achieving potential benefits of meditation practice. A summary of the analysis is provided in Table 36.

Using a multiple regression model, one trial<sup>234</sup> explored whether age, education, medication use, and diet restrictions were predictors of the effectiveness of RR in patients with CV diseases. Another trial<sup>239</sup> conducted a subgroup analysis by type of condition, (i.e., patients with angina versus patients with risk factors) of the effect of an intervention that combined Yoga and dietary changes. Both trials likely conducted post hoc analyses as they were not reported as part of a plan of analysis in the Methods sections of the studies. It is unknown whether there is an outcome selection bias in the reporting of variables that were included in the analysis. None of the trials explored the effect of the dose practice necessary to achieve health outcomes, the role of direction of attention during meditation, or the rhythmic aspects of the practice. The trials did not provide data on whether ethnicity or other individual variables affect associated health outcomes or whether these variables can be used to predict the successful practice of meditation.

Table 36. Summary of the analyses of effect modifiers for achieving benefits from meditation practice for cardiovascular diseases

Study, year, country	Study design, duration, followup, ITT	Intervention	Comparison groups	Type of analysis	Authors' conclusions
Chang BH, 2005 <sup>234</sup>	3 arms analysis		Multiple regression analysis controlling by	No significant differences were observed in the adjusted change values of VO <sub>2</sub> max,	
United States	wk. ITT: Yes		UC (NS)	age, education, medication use, and diet restrictions (post hoc)	total exercise time, and exercise capacity
Mahajan AS, 1999 <sup>239</sup> India	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 14 wk. ITT: NR	Yoga + diet changes	Exercise + diet changes	Subgroup analysis by condition (risk factor group, angina group)	Subjects with coronary risk factors had significant decreases in body weight, TC, LDL-C, and increase in HDL-C Subjects with angina had a decrease in body weight, TC and HDL-C increased Changes in agina patients were acute (4 wk.) while
					Changes in agina pa

CAD = coronary artery disease; HDL-C = high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HE = health education; ITT = intention-to-treat; LDL-C = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; NS = not specified; TC = total cholesterol; TG = triglycerides; Vo<sub>2</sub> max = maximum oxygen consumption; UC = usual care; wk. = weeks

#### **Substance Abuse**

Of 17 trials investigating the effect of meditation practices on substance abuse disorders, only 4 trials<sup>264,267,268,274</sup> conducted subgroup or multiple regression analyses to explore the role of a variety of effect modifiers on achieving potential benefits of meditation practices. A summary of the analysis of effect modifiers is provided in Table 37.

The trials did not report on effect of variables such as age, gender, or ethnicity. One trial on the effect of RR that incorporated PMR and cognitive restructuring<sup>268</sup> conducted a subgroup analysis by level of drinking and level of social support received. The effect of other patient characteristics on the outcomes achieved after practicing meditation were not reported in the studies. One study<sup>267</sup> conducted a subgroup analysis by regularity of practice of TM<sup>®</sup>. A third trial, on a meditation practice not further specified,<sup>274</sup> conducted a subgroup analysis by participation in Alcoholic Anonymous groups. All the trials seemed to use exploratory post hoc analyses that were intended to be hypothesis generating. It is unknown whether authors of the trials selectively reported the variables that showed a statistically significant positive effect. The fourth trial<sup>264</sup> conducted a subgroup analysis on differences in outcomes between high compliers and noncompliers.

None of the trials that provided data on effect modifiers of meditation practices for substance abuse analyzed the effect of the dose of practice necessary to achieve health outcomes, the role of direction of attention during meditation, or the rhythmic aspects of the practice.

Table 37. Summary of the analysis of effect modifiers for achieving benefits from meditation practice for substance abuse

Study, year, country	Study design, duration, followup, ITT	Intervention	Comparison groups	Type of analysis	Authors' conclusions
Murphy TJ, 1986 <sup>264</sup> United States	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration: 8 wk. ITT: NR	arms Duration: 8 wk.		Subgroup analysis by compliance (post hoc)	Statistically significant differences between high compliers and noncompliers in ethanol consumption
	111.141		NT		and in VO <sub>2</sub> gains among meditators
Ramirez J, 1990 <sup>267</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: NR ITT: NR	TM®	Control (NS)	Subgroup analysis by regularity of practice (post hoc)	Regular TM® practitioners showed a significantly greater increase in a measure of self- concept No differences between regular versus irregular TM® practitioners were found for measures of internality-externality
Rohsenow DJ, 1985 <sup>268</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 mo. ITT: NR	RR + PMR + cognitive restructuring	Control (NS)	Subgroup analysis by level of drinking and social support (post hoc)	Participants with heavier drinking behavior and greater social support at baseline obtained significantly greater decreases in alcohol consumption
Wong MR, 1981 <sup>274</sup> United States	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 mo. ITT: NR	Meditation practice (NS)	Relaxation	Subgroup analysis by participation in AA (post hoc)	Participants in the meditation group that took part in AA showed greater improvements in measures of impulsivity

AA = Alcoholics Anonymous; CSM = clinically standardized meditation; ITT = intention-to-treat; mo = months; NRCT = nonrandomized controlled trial; NR = not reported; NS = not specified; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; RR = relaxation response;  $TM^{\text{@}}$  = Transcendental Meditation  $TM^{\text{@}}$ ; Vo<sub>2</sub> = oxygen consumption; wk = weeks

# **Summary of the Results**

The role of effect modifiers such as characteristics of the practice or patient characteristics has so far been neglected in primary research on the effects of meditation practices. Therefore, we were unable to use a linear meta-regression procedure to explore any interactions between patient characteristics or characteristics of the practice and the magnitude of the overall effect of meditation practices for hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, and substance abuse. Individual studies (seven trials on hypertension, two on cardiovascular diseases, and four on substance abuse) conducted subgroup or multiple regression analysis; however, no analyses were reported a priori in the "Methods" sections of the studies. No conclusions on the role of effect modifiers

can be drawn from the analysis of the individual studies. Individual patient data are required to appropriately examine this issue.

# Topic V. Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices

Three hundred and eleven intervention studies provided evidence on 1,323 measures of the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices. Physiological outcomes only were reported in 253 studies, cognitive and neuropsychological outcomes only in 34 studies, and both physiological and neuropsychological outcomes were reported in 24 studies. The main characteristics and methodological quality of the studies included in topic V are summarized in Tables I1 to I3 in Appendix I.\*

#### **General Characteristics**

Of the 311 studies providing data for this topic, 54 percent (n = 167) were RCTs, 21 percent (n = 65) were NRCTs, and 25 percent (n = 79) used a before-and-after design. The studies that examined the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices were composed of 110 trials on Yoga, 47 on TM $^{\odot}$ , 38 on Tai Chi, 34 on RR, 17 on mantra meditation not further described, 15 on Qi Gong, 12 on MBSR, 10 on Zen Buddhist meditation, 9 on meditation practices not further described, 8 on MM, 4 on CSM, 3 on Acem meditation, and 2 each on MBCT and Vipassana meditation. The studies were published between 1956 and 2005 (median year of publication, 1995; IQR, 1986 to 2002). Most of the studies (88 percent, n = 274) were published as journal articles. Seven percent (n = 22) were theses or dissertations, four percent (n = 13) were abstracts, and one percent (n = 2) were published as research letters. Fifty percent of the studies were conducted in North America (n = 155), followed by Asia (34 percent, n = 106), Europe (11 percent, n = 35), Australasia (three percent, n = 10), and other regions (two percent, n = 5).

# **Overall Methodological Quality**

**Randomized controlled trials.** The methodological quality of the RCTs was analyzed by the individual components of the Jadad scale. Overall, the methodological quality of the 167 RCTs was poor (median Jadad score 2/5; IQR, 1 to 2). Thirteen percent (n = 21) of the RCTs were considered high quality (i.e., Jadad score of 3 or more). Only one study obtained a score of 4 and no study obtained a perfect score of 5. The remaining 146 RCTs had a high risk of bias.

We found that only 32 (19 percent) of the studies described the randomization procedure. Of these 32 studies, 24 described an adequate procedure to randomize study participants to treatment groups, and 8 described inadequate or unreliable methods of randomization that might have introduced imbalances between group characteristics and jeopardized the estimates of the overall treatment effect.

-

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

The majority of RCTs (97 percent, n = 162) did not use double blinding to conceal the identity of the interventions. Four studies (two percent) were reported as double-blind trials. Finally, 52 percent (n = 86) of the RCTs provided a description of withdrawals and dropouts from the study.

Adequate concealment of treatment allocation was reported in five percent (n = 8) of the RCTs and was reported but considered inadequate in one percent (n = 2). The remaining RCTs (94 percent, n = 157) failed to describe how they concealed the allocation of subjects to the interventions under study. Finally, the source of funding was disclosed in 46 percent (n = 76) of the RCTs. A summary of the methodological quality of RCTs is presented in Table 38.

Table 38. Methodological quality of RCTs on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

Quality components	N studies (%)
Randomization	167 (100)
Double blinding	4 (2.4)
Appropriate randomization	24 (14.3)
Appropriate double blinding	0 (0)
Description withdrawals	86 (51.5)
Total Jadad score (max 5); Median (IQR)	2 (1,2)
Number of high quality RCTs (Jadad scores ≥3)	22 (13.1)
Appropriate concealment of allocation	8 (4.8)
Funding reported	76 (45.5)

IQR = interquartile range; RCT = randomized controlled trial

**Nonrandomized controlled trials.** Overall, the quality of the 65 NRCTs was low (median modified-Jadad score 0/3; IQR, 0 to 1). Thirty-seven percent of the studies (n = 24) received one point out of three for the individual components of the Jadad scale, in all cases for a description of withdrawals or dropouts. The remaining 63 percent did not receive any points. No studies described themselves as double blind. Finally, the source of funding was reported in 32 percent (n = 21) of the NRCTs. A summary of the methodological quality of NRCTs is presented in Table 39.

Table 39. Methodological quality of NRCTs on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

Quality components	N studies (%)
Double blinding	
Appropriate double blinding	
Description withdrawals	24 (36.9)
Funding reported	21 (32.3)

NRCT = nonrandomized controlled trials

**Before-and-after studies.** The quality of the 79 before-and-after studies was low. Only four percent (n = 3) of studies contained a sample population that could be considered representative of the target population. The blinding of outcome assessors to the intervention and assessment was described in 3 percent (n = 2) of studies, the number of study withdrawals in 15 percent (n = 12) and reasons for study withdrawals in 8 percent (n = 6). However, 94 percent of studies

(n = 74) reported using the same method of outcome assessment for the pre- and post-intervention periods. Funding source was disclosed in 32 percent (n = 25) of studies. A summary of the methodological quality of before-and-after studies is provided in Table 40.

Table 40. Methodological quality of before-and-after studies on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

Quality components	N studies (%)
Study population representative of the target population	3 (3.8)
Method of outcome assessment is the same for pre- and post- intervention periods	74 (93.7)
Outcome assessors were blind to intervention and assessment period	2 (2.5)
Description of the number of study withdrawals	12 (15.2)
Description of the reasons for study withdrawal	6 (7.6)
Funding reported	25 (31.6)

#### **Outcome Measures**

The ten most commonly reported physiological outcome measures were (1) cardiovascular functioning such as heart rate or blood pressure (169 studies), (2) pulmonary functioning FEV<sub>1</sub> and FVC (67 studies), (3) periferal nerve tests such as skin conductance (40 studies), (4) adrenocortical functioning such as cortisol and adrenaline levels (26 studies), (5) lipoprotein levels (25 studies), (6) EMG (23 studies), (7) carbohydrate metabolism such as glucose and insulin levels (18 studies), (8) brain electrophysiology such as EEG patterns (17 studies), (9) metabolic product levels such as lactic acid level (16 studies), and (10) CNS hormone and blood composition (11 studies each).

The ten most commonly reported cognitive/neuropsychological outcomes were measures of (1) attention (19 studies), (2) memory (12 studies), (3) perception (12 studies), (4) other cognitive measures such as overall cognitive functioning (11 studies), (5) reasoning (10 studies), (6) sensorimotor functioning (10 studies), (7) language (7 studies), (8) creativity (4 studies), (9) intelligence (4 studies), and (10) spatial ability (4 studies). Table I6 in Appendix I contains the complete list of reported outcome measures and their associated studies.\*

# **Results of Quantitative Analysis**

To summarize the results of the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices, we combined study results when two or more studies agreed on the type of meditation practice, comparison group, outcomes assessed, and had usable outcome data. Table 41 summarizes the type of meditation practice, comparison group, and outcomes that were available for direct meta-analyses. Meta-analyses of physiological and neuropsychological outcomes on populations with hypertension, cardiovascular diseases or substance abuse have been reported in topic III.

-

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

Outcomes on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices for which data could be combined into a direct meta-analysis were provided by 53 unique studies for a total of 15 comparisons examining five meditation techniques: TM<sup>®</sup>, RR, Yoga, Tai Chi, and Qi Gong. The remaining 258 studies were not suitable for direct meta-analysis because no more than one study was available for pooling. Yoga interventions provided the most studies for comparison (28 studies), followed by TM<sup>®</sup> (10 studies), Tai Chi (7 studies), RR (6 studies), and Qi Gong (2 studies). The trials were published between 1974 and 2005 (median year of publication, 1993; IQR, 1989 to 2001).

Of the 53 intervention studies included for meta-analysis, 20 used an RCT design, 8 used an NRCT design, and 25 were before-and-after studies. The majority of studies (n = 43) examined outcomes in healthy populations (athletes, college and university students, workers, military, prisoners, and elderly). The remaining studies examined individuals with hypertension (6 studies) and type II DM (4 studies). The main characteristics and conclusions of the individual studies included in the meta-analyses are provided in Appendix J.\*

Table 41. Summary of outcomes by meditation practice by comparison group by population included in meta-analyses of physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

Intervention	Comparator	Population	Outcome	No. of studies
TM®	No control	Healthy	BP change (SBP)	2
		Healthy	BP change (DBP)	2
	NT	Healthy	BP change (SBP)	3
		Healthy	BP change (DBP)	3
		Healthy	Cholesterol level	3
		Healthy	Verbal fluency	2
	WL	Healthy	HR	2
		Healthy	BP change (SBP)	2
		Healthy	BP change (DBP)	2
RR	BF	Healthy	Muscle tension	2
	Rest	Healthy	HR	3
		Healthy	BP change (SBP)	2
		Healthy	BP change (DBP)	2
Yoga	Exercise	Healthy	HR BP change (SBP) BP change (DBP) BP change (DBP) HR Verbal ability	2
		Healthy	HR	2
	Free breathing	Healthy	althy BP change (SBP) althy BP change (DBP) althy BP change (DBP) althy BP change (DBP) althy Cholesterol level althy Verbal fluency althy BP change (SBP) althy BP change (SBP) althy BP change (DBP) althy Verbal ability althy Vo2 pe II DM Fasting blood glucose althy HR pertension HR althy BP change (SBP) althy BP change (SBP) althy BP change (DBP) althy Respiratory rate althy Galvanic skin resistance	2
		Healthy BP change (SBP) Healthy BP change (DBP) Healthy Cholesterol level Healthy Verbal fluency Healthy HR Healthy BP change (SBP) Healthy BP change (DBP) Healthy HR Healthy HR Healthy BP change (DBP) Healthy BP change (SBP) Healthy BP change (DBP) Healthy BP change (DBP) Healthy BP change (DBP) Healthy HR Healthy Verbal ability Healthy Verbal ability Healthy VO2 Type II DM Fasting blood glucose Healthy HR Hypertension HR Healthy BP change (SBP) Healthy BP change (SBP) Healthy HR Hypertension HR Healthy BP change (SBP) Healthy BP change (DBP) Healthy BP change (DBP) Healthy Respiratory rate Healthy Respiratory rate	2	
	Medication	Healthy	$VO_2$	2
		Type II DM	Fasting blood glucose	2
	No control	Healthy	HR	7
		Hypertension	HR	2
		Healthy	BP change (SBP)	5
		Healthy	BP change (DBP)	5
		Healthy	Respiratory rate	3
		Healthy	Galvanic skin resistance	2
		Type II DM	Fasting glucose	2

<sup>\*</sup>Appendixes and evidence tables cited in this report are provided electronically at http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/tp/medittp.htm

\_

BF = biofeedback; BP = blood pressure; DBP = diastolic blood pressure, DM = diabetes mellitus; HE = health education; HR = heart rate; NT = no treatment; RR = Relaxation Response; SBP = systolic blood pressure, ULNB = unilateral left nostril breathing; URNB = unilateral right nostril breathing; WL = wait list

Table 41. Summary of outcomes by meditation practice by comparison group by population included in meta-analyses of physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

Intervention	Comparator	Population	Outcome	No. of studies
Yoga (continued)	No control	Healthy	Fasting glucose	2
	(continued)	Healthy	Total cholesterol	2
		Healthy	Breath holding time (inspiration)	3
		Healthy	Breath holding time (expiration)	4
Healthy		Healthy	Auditory reaction time	2
		Healthy	Visual reaction time	2
		Healthy	Intraocular pressure	2
	NT	Healthy	BP change (SBP)	2
	URNB	Healthy	HR	2
Tai Chi	Exercise	Healthy	BP change (SBP)	2
		Healthy	BP change (DBP)	2
	No control	Healthy	HR	2
		Healthy	BP change (SBP)	2
		Healthy	BP change (DBP)	2
	NT	Healthy	HR	2
		Healthy	BP change (SBP)	3
		Healthy	BP change (DBP)	3
Qi Gong	No control	Healthy	HR	2

# **Methodological Quality of Included Studies**

**Intervention studies.** The median Jadad score for the 20 RCTs was 2/5 (IQR, 1 to 2) (Table 40). No trials were described as double blind and no studies were considered to have employed adequate concealment of treatment allocation. A description of withdrawals and dropouts was provided in 10 of the trials. <sup>278-287</sup> Only five RCTs reported the source of funding. <sup>281,282,285,286,288</sup>

The median Jadad score for the eight NRCTs was 1/3 (IQR, 0 to 1). No NRCTs described themselves as double blind (blinding of participant and outcome assessor). Five trials provided a description of withdrawals and dropouts. Three NRCTs reported the source of funding 180,181,293 (Table 42).

**Before-and-after studies.** The overall methodological quality of the 25 included before-and-after studies was low (Table 43). Only one study<sup>294</sup> was considered to have a study population representative of the population of interest. Twenty-five studies employed the same method of outcome assessment for pre and post periods; no studies reported blinding of outcome assessors. Two studies<sup>295,296</sup> provided a description of withdrawals or dropouts; no studies provided reasons for withdrawals. Nine studies reported their source of funding.<sup>294,296-303</sup>

16%

Table 42. Methodological quality of RCTs and NRCTs included in meta-analyses for physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

Objective	Maditation are still -	Randomization		Double blinding		Description of	Overall	Allocation	Report of
Study	Meditation practice	Stated	Method described	Stated	Method described	withdrawals and dropouts	Jadad score	concealment	funding
Abrams AI, 1978 <sup>289</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	No
Agrawal RP, 2003 <sup>278</sup>	Yoga	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Inadequate	No
Alexander CN, 1991 <sup>279</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Inadequate	No
Bahrke MS, 1978 <sup>304</sup>	RR	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Inadequate	No
Block RA, 1989 <sup>177</sup>	Yoga (UNB)	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Inadequate	No
Blumenthal JA, 1991 <sup>280</sup>	Yoga	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Inadequate	No
Bose S, 1987 <sup>305</sup>	Yoga (Shavasana)	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Inadequate	No
Bowman AJ, 1997 <sup>281</sup>	Yoga	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Inadequate	Yes
Broota A, 1995 <sup>204</sup>	Yoga (Shavasana)	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Inadequate	No
Chen WW, 1997 <sup>290</sup>	Tai Chi	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	No
Cooper MJ, 1990 <sup>291</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	No
Cuthbert B, 1981 <sup>306</sup> b	RR	No	NA	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	No
De Armond DL, 1996 <sup>292</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	No
Fields JZ, 2002 <sup>282</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup> + herbal food supplements + diet + Yoga asanas	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	Yes	3	Inadequate	Yes
Hoffman JW, 1982 <sup>283</sup>	RR	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Inadequate	No
Jin P, 1992 <sup>307</sup>	Tai Chi	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Inadequate	No

NA = not applicable; RR = Relaxation Response; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>; UNB = unilateral nostril breathing

Table 42. Methodological quality of RCTs and NRCTs included in meta-analyses for physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

Ct. dv	Meditation	Randomization		Doubl	le blinding	Description of	Overall	Allocation	Report of
Study	practice	Stated	Method described	Stated	Method described	- withdrawals and dropouts	Jadad score	concealment	funding
Mohan SM, 2002 <sup>180</sup>	Yoga (UNB)	No	NA	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	Yes
Monro R, 1992 <sup>308</sup>	Yoga	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	No	2	Inadequate	No
Peters RK, 1977 <sup>284</sup>	RR	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	Yes	3	Inadequate	No
Pollak MH, 1979 <sup>288</sup>	RR	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Inadequate	Yes
Reddy KM, 1990 <sup>309</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Inadequate	No
Sanders B, 1994 <sup>181</sup>	Yoga (UNB)	No	NA	No	NA	No	0	Unclear	Yes
Sun WY, 1996 <sup>285</sup>	Tai Chi	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Inadequate	Yes
Telles S, 1994 <sup>140</sup>	Yoga (UNB)	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	No	1	Inadequate	No
Thornton EW, 2004 <sup>286</sup>	Tai Chi	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	2	Inadequate	Yes
Travis FT, 1990 <sup>293</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	No	NA	No	NA	Yes	1	Unclear	Yes
Young DR, 1999 <sup>287</sup>	Tai Chi	Yes	Unclear	No	NA	Yes	3	Inadequate	No
Zaichkowsky LD, 1978 <sup>191</sup>	RR	Yes	Adequate	No	NA	No	1	Inadequate	No

16

Table 43. Methodological quality of before-and-after studies included in meta-analyses for physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

Study	Meditation practice	Study population representative	Outcome method same for pre and post periods	Blinding of outcome assessors	Description of withdrawals/ dropouts	Reasons for withdrawal	Report of funding
Agarwal BL, 1990 <sup>295</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No
Anantharaman RN, 1984 <sup>310</sup>	Yoga (asanas + pranayama)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Benson H, 1974 <sup>311</sup>	$TM^{ ext{@}}$	No	Unsure	No	No	No	No
Bhargava R 1988 <sup>312</sup>	Yoga (pranayamas)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Chen JC, 2004 <sup>297</sup>	Yoga (UNB)	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Damodaran A, 2002 <sup>294</sup>	Yoga (asanas + pranayamas)	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Jain SC, 1993 <sup>298</sup>	Yoga	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Jones AY, 2005 <sup>296</sup>	Tai Chi	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Jones BM, 2001 <sup>299</sup>	Qi Gong	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
Joseph S, 1981 <sup>313</sup>	Yoga (prayer + asanas + pranayama + meditation)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Joshi LN, 1992 <sup>314</sup>	Yoga (pranayamas)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Kocer I, 2002 <sup>315</sup>	Yoga (UNB)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Lim YA, 1993 <sup>316</sup>	Qi Gong	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Liu S, 1996 <sup>317</sup>	Tai Chi	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Madanmohan, 1992 <sup>300</sup>	Yoga	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes

RR = Relaxation Response; TM® = Transcendental Meditation®; UNB = unilateral nostril breathing

Table 43. Methodological quality of before-and-after studies included in meta-analysis for physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

Study	Meditation practice	Study population representative	Outcome method same for pre and post periods	Blinding of outcome assessors	Description of withdrawals/ dropouts	Reasons for withdrawal	Report of funding
Malathi A, 1989 <sup>318</sup>	Yoga (asanas + pranayamas)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Manjunatha S, 2005 <sup>301</sup>	Yoga	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Pollack AA, 1977 <sup>319</sup>	TM <sup>®</sup>	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Raju PS, 1986 <sup>320</sup>	Yoga (asanas + pranayamas)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Schmidt TFH, 1994 <sup>302</sup>	Yoga + meditation + vegetarian diet	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Singh S, 2004 <sup>321</sup>	Yoga (asanas + pranayamas)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Sung BH, 2002 <sup>322</sup>	Yoga	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Telles S, 1993 <sup>323</sup>	Yoga (asanas + pranayama + mantra meditation + lectures)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Telles S, 1993 <sup>83</sup>	Raja Yoga	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Vijayalakshmi P, 2004 <sup>303</sup>	Yoga (asanas + pranayamas)	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes

# Transcendental Meditation®

Ten studies assessing the physiological and neuropsychological effects of  $TM^{\$}$  were identified for meta-analysis: three RCTs,  $^{279,282,324}$  four NRCTs,  $^{289,291-293}$  and three before-and-after studies.  $^{295,311,319}$  Among the controlled studies, five studies compared  $TM^{\$}$  versus NT,  $^{279,282,291-293}$  and two compared  $TM^{\$}$  versus WL.  $^{289,309}$ 

### TM<sup>®</sup> versus NT

Review:

Blood pressure. Three studies  $^{282,291,292}$  totaling 132 participants (TM® = 67, NT = 65) provided data for a meta-analysis on the effects of TM® on blood pressure in healthy populations (Figure 28). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) showed a small, but nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of NT (WMD = 0.93; 95% CI, -9.53 to 11.39). There was evidence of high heterogeneity among the studies regarding the mean change in SBP (p = 0.04, I² = 69.7 percent). The studies differed in duration with two studies being long-term  $^{282,291}$  (10 and 12 months, respectively) and the remaining study  $^{292}$  being short-term (3 months). A subgroup analysis indicated that for the long-term studies there was a nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in SBP favoring TM® (WMD = -5.24, 95% CI, -12.85, 2.37); for the short-term study, there was a statistically significant improvement favoring NT (Figure 28).

Figure 28. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM® versus NT on SBP

Effects of meditation on physiological and cognitive outcomes

Study		TM®	490	NT	VVMD (random)	Weight	VVMD (random)
or sub-category	N	Mean (SD)	N	Mean (SD)	95% CI	%	95% CI
01 Short term							
De Armond 1996	38	2.91(14.90)	38	-4.50(14.26)	<del>-</del>	42.86	7.41 [0.85, 13.97]
Subtotal (95% CI)	38		38		•	42.86	7.41 [0.85, 13.97]
Test for heterogeneity: not a	oplicable				16730		
Test for overall effect: Z = 2.	21 (P = 0.03)						
D2 Long term							
Cooper 1990	23	-7.21(14.28)	21	-0.82(13.60)	-	39.06	-6.39 [-14.63, 1.85]
Fields 2002	6	-6.30(9.20)	6	-7.70(23.00)	-	18.08	1.40 [-18.42, 21.22]
Subtotal (95% CI)	29		27		•	57.14	-5.24 [-12.85, 2.37]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi² =	0.51, df = 1 (P	= 0.48), I <sup>2</sup> = 0%					
Test for overall effect: Z = 1.	35 (P = 0.18)						
Total (95% CI)	67		65		•	100.00	0.93 [-9.53, 11.39]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi² =	6.60, df = 2 (P	= 0.04), l² = 69.7%			1400		
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0$ .	17 (P = 0.86)						

The combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) indicated a small, but nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of  $TM^{\text{@}}$  (WMD = -1.63, 95% CI, -8.01 to 4.75) (Figure 29). There was evidence of high heterogeneity among the studies regarding the mean change in DBP (p = 0.04,  $I^2$  = 68.8 percent). As noted above, the studies differed in duration. A subgroup

analysis indicated a statistically and clinically significant reduction in DBP in favor of  $TM^{\otimes}$  (WMD = -5.19, 95% CI, -10.24 to -0.13) in the long-term studies (Figure 29).

Figure 29. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> versus NT on DBP

Review: Effects of meditation on physiological and cognitive outcomes

Comparison: 13 TM® vs. NT

Outcome: 08 Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg)

Study or sub-category	N	TM® Mean (SD)	N	NT Mean (SD)	VVMD (random) 95% CI	Weight %	VVMD (random) 95% CI
01 Short term							
De Armond 1996	38	1.47(10.38)	38	-1.30(7.80)	<b>*</b>	41.01	2.77 [-1.36, 6.90]
Subtotal (95% CI)	38		38		•	41.01	2.77 [-1.36, 6.90]
Test for heterogeneity: not ap	plicable				Čs.		
Test for overall effect: $Z = 1.3$	32 (P = 0.19)						
02 Long term							
Cooper 1990	23	-4.66(10.63)	21	2.00(10.05)	-	34.04	-6.66 [-12.77, -0.55]
Fields 2002	6	-7.50(7.80)	6	-5.50(8.10)	-	24.95	-2.00 [-11.00, 7.00]
Subtotal (95% CI)	29		27		•	58.99	-5.19 [-10.24, -0.13]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi <sup>z</sup> =	0.71, df = 1 (P	$= 0.40)$ , $I^2 = 0\%$			20.7		
Test for overall effect: $Z = 2.0$	01 (P = 0.04)						
Total (95% CI)	67		65			100.00	-1.63 [-8.01, 4.75]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi <sup>2</sup> =	6.42, df = 2 (P	$= 0.04$ ), $I^2 = 68.8\%$					STATE OF STA
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.5	18. 15. 16. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19				gc 28 gc		
	- N - SA				100 -50 0 50	100	
					Favors TM® Favors NT		

Cholesterol level. Three studies  $^{282,291,292}$  totaling 132 participants (TM® = 67, Nt = 65) provided data on the effects of TM® on LDL-C levels in healthy populations. The combined estimate of changes in LDL-C level (mg/dL) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) in favor of TM® (WMD = -15.08; 95% CI, -29.03 to -1.14). The results for the trials were homogeneous (p = 0.44,  $I^2$  = 0 percent). However, because of the difference in duration of the studies noted above (two were long-term $^{282,291}$  and one was short-term $^{292}$ ), we conducted a subgroup analysis by duration of study (Figure 30). The long-term studies indicated a statistically significant improvement (reduction) in favor of TM® (WMD = -23.94; 95% CI, -43.87 to -4.00).

Figure 30. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM® versus NT on cholesterol level

Review: Effects of meditation on physiological and cognitive outcomes

Comparison: 13 TM® vs. NT

Outcome: 09 Cholesterol level (mg/dL)

Study or sub-category	N	TM® Mean (SD)	N	NT Mean (SD)	WMD (random) 95% Cl	Weight %	VVMD (random) 95% Cl
01 Short term							
De Armond 1996	38	5.37(41.81)	38	11.97(44.92)	3 <u>- 16</u> -2	51.08	-6.60 [-26.11, 12.91]
Subtotal (95% CI)	38		38		•	51.08	-6.60 [-26.11, 12.91]
Test for heterogeneity: not	applicable				30. <del>4</del>		
Test for overall effect: Z =	0.66 (P = 0.51)						
02 Long term							
Cooper 1990	23	-29.47(35.45)	21	-3.20(41.32)	·	37.24	-26.27 [-49.12, -3.42]
Fields 2002	6	-10.30(38.00)	6	6.20(34.00)	-	11.68	-16.50 [-57.30, 24.30]
Subtotal (95% CI)	29		27		•	48.92	-23.94 [-43.87, -4.00]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi	$^{2}$ = 0.17, df = 1 (F	) = 0.68),  2 = 0%			21/20/4 <del>4</del> 00000		
Test for overall effect: Z =	2.35 (P = 0.02)						
Total (95% CI)	67		65		•	100.00	-15.08 [-29.03, -1.14]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi	$^2$ = 1.65, df = 2 (F	0 = 0.44),  2 = 0%			788 Y <del>38</del> 80		SCOUNTAGE POST CONTINUES CONTINUES
Test for overall effect: Z =	2.12 (P = 0.03)	107-107-701				32	
					-100 -50 0 50	100	
					Favors TM® Favors NT		

*Verbal fluency*. Two studies  $^{279,293}$  totaling 117 participants (TM<sup>®</sup> = 66, NT = 51) provided data on the effects of TM<sup>®</sup> on verbal creativity in healthy populations (Figure 31). The combined estimate of changes in measures of verbal fluency showed a large, significant improvement (increase) in favor of TM<sup>®</sup> (SMD = -0.74; 95% CI, -1.12 to -0.36). The results of the combined studies were homogeneous (p = 0.73, I<sup>2</sup> = 0 percent).

Figure 31. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> versus NT on verbal fluency

Study or sub-category	N	TM® Mean (SD)	N	No intervention Mean (SD)	:	SMD (random) 95% Cl	Weight %	SMD (random) 95% Cl
Alexander 1991	20	-36.87(7.96)	11	-31.79(7.96)			25.41	-0.62 [-1.38, 0.13]
Travis 1990	46	-3.70(9.84)	40	2.70(5.62)		-	74.59	-0.78 [-1.22, -0.34]
Fotal (95% CI) Fest for heterogeneity: Chi² Fest for overall effect: Z = 3			51			•	100.00	-0.74 [-1.12, -0.36]

# TM® (no control)

Blood pressure. Three before-and-after studies  $^{295,311,319}$  totaling 58 participants provided data on the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> on blood pressure (mm Hg) in hypertensive populations (Figure 32). The combined estimate of changes in SBP indicated a statistically and clinically significant improvement (reduction) favoring TM<sup>®</sup> (change from baseline = -10.95; 95% CI, -17.52 to -4.39). There was substantial heterogeneity in the study results (p = 0.16;  $I^2 = 64.1$  percent).

The combined estimate of changes in DBP also indicated a statistically and clinically significant improvement (reduction) favoring TM<sup>®</sup> (change from baseline = -6.86; 95% CI, -

10.54 to -3.19). There was moderate heterogeneity in the study results for DBP (p = 0.16;  $I^2 = 46.3$  percent).

All three studies were of low methodological quality; moreover, the potential biases inherent in the before-and-after design may be responsible for the variability of results. Similar interventions, durations (not reported by Benson<sup>311</sup>), and study populations were used in the three studies. Though all three studies examined hypertensive patients, the baseline measures suggest that the DBP of participants in the Benson<sup>311</sup> study (mean DBP  $94 \pm 9$  mm Hg) was lower upon entrance to the trial than the other two studies (minimum 90 mm Hg).

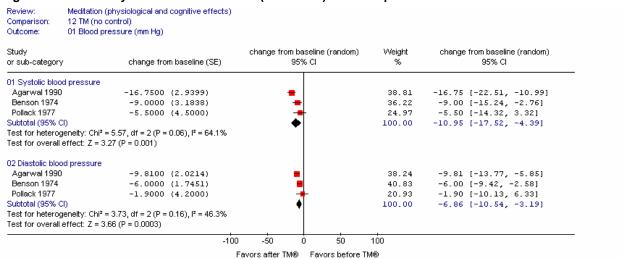


Figure 32. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> (no control) on blood pressure

#### TM® versus WL

Heart rate. Two studies  $^{289,309}$  totaling 70 participants (TM® = 41, WL = 29) provided data on the effects of TM® on heart rate (bpm) in healthy populations (Figure 33). The combined estimate of changes in heart rate showed small, significant improvement (reduction) favoring TM® (WMD = -5.94; 95% CI, -11.54 to -0.35). The trial results were homogeneous (p = 0.73, I² = 0 percent).

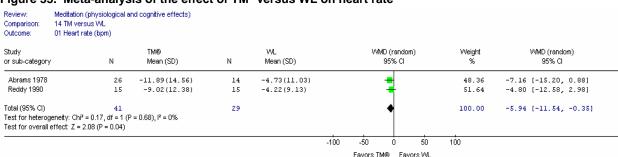


Figure 33. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM® versus WL on heart rate

*Blood pressure*. The same two studies <sup>289,309</sup> provided data on the effects of  $TM^{\$}$  on blood pressure in healthy populations (Figure 34). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) showed a small, significant improvement (reduction) favoring  $TM^{\$}$  (WMD = -8.74; 95% CI, -

17.47 to -0.02). There was moderate heterogeneity in the study results (p = 0.15;  $I^2 = 52.6$  percent). It is unclear what clinical differences among the study participants are responsible for the heterogeneity of this outcome.

The combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) also showed a small, significant improvement (reduction) favoring  $TM^{\$}$  (WMD = -3.61; 95% CI, -6.62 to -0.59). There was little heterogeneity in the study results (p = 0.31;  $I^2$  = 4.6 percent).

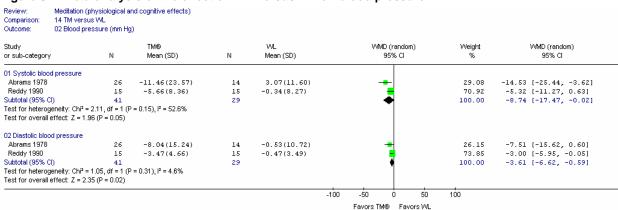


Figure 34. Meta-analysis of the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> versus WL on blood pressure

## **Relaxation Response**

Six studies  $^{191,283,284,288,304,306b}$  assessing the effect of RR on physiological and neuropsychological outcomes were identified for meta-analysis: five RCTs  $^{191,283,284,288,304}$  and one NRCT.  $^{306b}$  Two studies compared RR versus BF  $^{191,306b}$  and four compared RR versus rest.  $^{283,284,288,304}$ 

#### RR versus BF

*Muscle tension*. Two studies  $^{306b,191}$  totaling 48 participants (RR = 24, BF = 24) provided data on the effect of RR on muscle tension (Figure 35). The combined results of changes in muscle tension (microvolts) indicated a small, nonsignificant change favoring RR (WMD = -1.28; 95% CI, -3.23 to 0.68). There was little heterogeneity in the study results (p = 0.29;  $I^2 = 11.7$  percent).

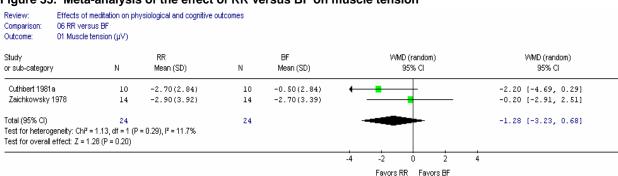


Figure 35. Meta-analysis of the effect of RR versus BF on muscle tension

#### RR versus rest

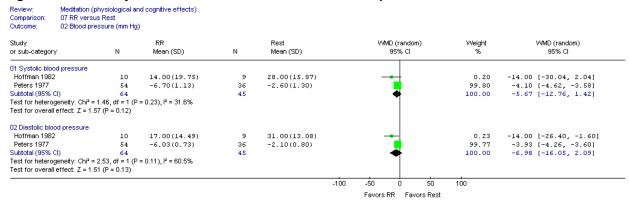
Heart rate. Three trials  $^{283,288,304}$  totaling 99 participants (RR = 45, rest = 44) provided data on the effect of RR on heart rate in healthy populations (Figure 36). The combined estimate of changes in heart rate (bpm) showed a significant improvement (reduction) favoring rest (WMD = 2.56; 95% CI, 1.32 to 3.80). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.70, I<sup>2</sup> = 0 percent).

Figure 36. Meta-analysis of the effect of RR versus rest on heart rate

Study or sub-category	N	RR Mean (SD)	N	Rest Mean (SD)		VVMD (random) 95% Cl	Weight %	VVMD (random) 95% Cl
Hoffman 1982	10	30.00(11.40)	9	31.00(23.43)	-		0.54	-1.00 [-17.86, 15.86]
Bahrke 1978	25	-0.70(2.00)	25	-3.10(2.75)		<del>-</del>	86.85	2.40 [1.07, 3.73]
Pollak 1979	10	-3.40(3.93)	10	-7.20(4.05)			- 12.61	3.80 [0.30, 7.30]
Total (95% CI)	45		44			•	100.00	2.56 [1.32, 3.80]

*Blood pressure*. Two studies  $^{283,284}$  totaling 109 participants (RR = 45, rest = 44) provided data on the effect of RR on blood pressure in healthy populations (Figure 37). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring RR (WMD = -5.67; 95% CI, -12.76 to 1.42). There was evidence of moderate heterogeneity between the study results (p = 0.23;  $I^2 = 31.6$  percent). The combined estimates for DBP showed a small, nonsignificant improvement favoring RR (WMD = -6.98; 95% CI, -16.05 to 2.09). There was evidence of considerable heterogeneity between the study results (p = 0.11;  $I^2 = 60.5$  percent). Both studies were short-term and similar in participant characteristics (proportion of males to females, healthy) and intervention. The most likely source of heterogeneity is study design (RCT<sup>284</sup> versus NRCT<sup>283</sup>).

Figure 37. Meta-analysis of the effect of RR versus rest on blood pressure



# Yoga

Twenty-eight studies assessing the physiological and neuropsychological effect of Yoga were identified for meta-analysis: 8 RCTs, <sup>140,177,204,278,280,281,305,308</sup> 2 NRCTs, <sup>180,181</sup> and 18 before-and-after studies. <sup>83,294,297,298,300-303,310,312-315,318,320-323</sup> Four trials <sup>168,204,305,325</sup> compared Yoga versus NT, two trials <sup>280,281</sup> compared Yoga versus exercise, two <sup>177,181</sup> compared Yoga versus free breathing (FB), two <sup>278,308</sup> compared Yoga versus medication, and two <sup>140,180</sup> compared Yoga (unilateral left nostril breathing [ULNB]) versus another Yoga intervention (unilateral right nostril breathing [URNB]).

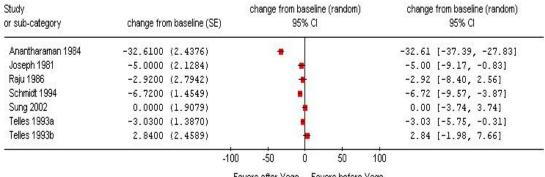
#### Yoga (no control)

Heart rate. Seven before-and-after studies  $^{83,302,310,313,320,322,323}$  (17, 10, 12, 50, 25, 40, and 18 participants, respectively) provided data on the effect of Yoga (no control) on heart rate (bpm) in healthy populations (Figure 38). The substantial heterogeneity among the study results (p < 0.00001;  $I^2 = 95.9$  percent) precluded reporting a combined estimate. Four of the seven studies indicated significant improvements (reduction) after practicing Yoga,  $^{302,310,313,323}$  whereas three did not favor the intervention.  $^{83,320,322}$ 

Figure 38. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on heart rate

Review: Effects of meditation on physiological and cognitive outcomes

Comparison: 18 Yoga (no control)
Outcome: 01 Heart rate (bpm)



Favors after Yoga Favors before Yoga

Possible sources for the observed heterogeneity were explored. Two studies were very short-term and reported study duration in number of sessions (one to six). S3,322 The remaining five studies had a 3-month study period. The studies also differed in the frequency and length of intervention sessions: two studies reported sessions of less than 1 hour, S3,322 two studies reported 1-hour sessions, two studies reported sessions of 4 hours, and one study did not report session length. Five studies were considered to have used composite interventions composite interventions composed of some combination of postures, breathing techniques, cleansing practices, meditation, and lectures. Two studies were considered to have used single interventions; however, the two studies employed different techniques (breathing exercises and Raja meditation).

The age range of participants also varied, with the mean ages ranging from 25<sup>313</sup> to 35 years. Three studies included only men, 83,313,323 one study included only women, 310 two studies

included both men and women in almost equal proportion, <sup>302,320</sup> and one study failed to report the gender of participants. <sup>322</sup>

Two studies  $^{294,303}$  totaling 33 participants provided data on the effect of Yoga on heart rate in hypertensive populations (Figure 39). The combined estimate of changes in heart rate (bpm) showed a small, significant improvement (reduction) favoring Yoga (change from baseline = -6.79; 95% CI, -9.97 to -3.60). There was evidence of moderate heterogeneity among the study results (p = 0.21,  $I^2$  = 35.6 percent). The possible sources of heterogeneity were explored. While the subjects in both studies were similar in mean age, the Vijayalakshmi study  $^{303}$  did not include women, whereas Damodaran  $^{294}$  had a male to female ratio of 1:4. The two studies also differed in quality with Damodaran  $^{294}$  having a study population considered representative of the population of interest, while Vijayalakshmi  $^{303}$  had a nonrepresentative study population.

Review: Meditation (physiological and cognitive effects) Comparison: 18 Yoga (no control) Outcome: 02 Heart rate (bpm) Study change from baseline (random) Weight change from baseline (random) or sub-category change from baseline (SE) 95% CI 95% CI Damodaran 2002 -6.0000 (0.4405) 81.06 -6.00 [-6.86, -5.14] -10.1500 (3.3002) 18.94 -10.15 [-16.62, -3.68] Total (95% CI) 100.00 -6.79 [-9.97, -3.60] Test for heterogeneity: Chi² = 1.55, df = 1 (P = 0.21), l² = 35.6% Test for overall effect: 7 = 4.17 (P < 0.0001)-100 -50 Favors after Yoga Favors before Yoga

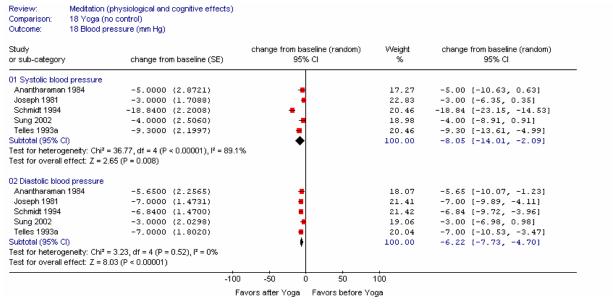
Figure 39. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on heart rate in hypertensive populations

*Blood pressure*. Five studies  $^{302,310,313,322,323}$  totaling 201 participants provided data on the effect of Yoga on blood pressure in healthy populations (Figure 40). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) indicated a small, significant improvement (reduction) favoring Yoga (change from baseline = -8.05; 95% CI, -14.01 to -2.09). There was evidence of substantial heterogeneity among the study results (p = 0.00001;  $I^2 = 89.1$  percent).

The combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) also indicated a small, significant improvement (reduction) favoring Yoga (change from baseline = -6.22; 95% CI, -7.73 to -4.70). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.52;  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

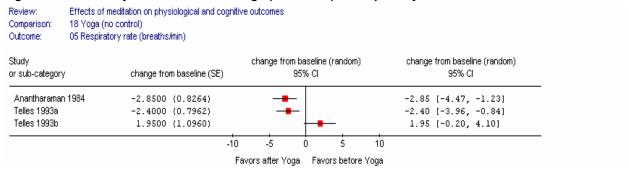
The discrepancy between the measures of heterogeneity found for SBP and DBP is possibly accounted for by the difference in baseline measures. The participants in the Schmidt<sup>302</sup> study had a combined SBP baseline noticeably higher (9 mm Hg from the next highest) than the those of the other studies, and it is unclear what clinical differences may be responsible for this difference in baseline measures. Other than baseline measures, the studies were comparable in study design, duration, and other participant characteristics. The baseline measures of DBP were similar across all groups.

Figure 40. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on blood pressure



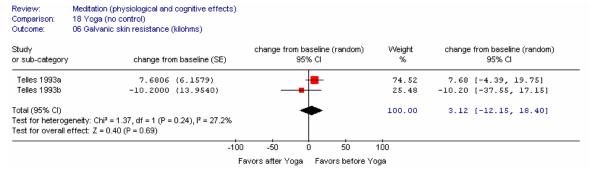
Respiratory rate. Three studies  $^{83,310,323}$  with 17, 40, and 18 participants respectively provided data on the effect of Yoga on respiratory rate in healthy populations (Figure 41). The heterogeneity among study results was substantial (p = 0.0001;  $I^2 = 85.5$  percent) and precluded combining the studies. The Telles study  $^{83}$  differed from the other two studies in duration and the type of yogic practice used. Anantharaman  $^{323}$  and Telles  $^{323}$  were short-term (3-month) studies using postures and breathing exercises. In contrast, Telles  $^{83}$  employed Raja yoga meditation (seated meditation with a fixed gaze) that lasted three sessions (approximately 1 week).

Figure 41. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on respiratory rate



*Galvanic skin resistance*. Two studies  $^{83,323}$  totaling 58 participants provided data on the effect of Yoga on galvanic skin resistance in healthy populations (Figure 42). The combined estimate of changes in skin resistance (kilohms) indicated a nonsignificant difference favoring the "before Yoga" period (change from baseline = 3.12, 95% CI, -12.15 to 18.40). There was evidence of moderate heterogeneity between the study results (p = 0.24,  $I^2$  = 27.2 percent).

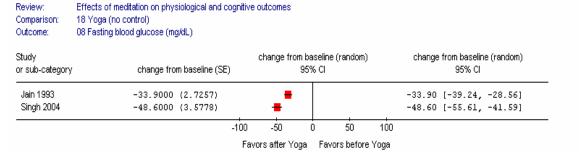
Figure 42. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on galvanic skin resistance



The possible sources of heterogeneity in the outcome of galvanic skin resistance were differences in the intervention, comparison period, and duration of study. One study<sup>323</sup> used a multicomponent intervention that consisted of yogic postures, breathing exercises, meditation, cleansing exercises, and lectures. The comparison period preceded the learning of any yogic techniques, but was not fully described. The outcome measurements were taken at the end of a 3-month period. The second study<sup>83</sup> used a seated meditation technique in which participants fixed their gaze on a light and thought positive thoughts about a universal force. The nonmeditation period involved sitting quietly without targeted thinking; the outcome measures were assessed the day after the baseline measures.

Fasting blood glucose (type II DM). Two studies, <sup>298,321</sup> with 149 and 24 participants respectively, provided data on the effect of Yoga on levels of fasting blood glucose in populations with type II DM (Figure 43). The heterogeneity of the combined study results was too high (p = 0.001; I<sup>2</sup> = 90.6 percent) to report an overall estimate. While both studies employed Yoga postures and breathing techniques, Jain<sup>298</sup> employed two breathing techniques called "kapalbhati" (also described as a cleansing practice and a milder form of bhastrika<sup>119</sup>) and "ujjayi," and a variety of postures and cleansing practices. Singh<sup>321</sup> employed "bhastrika pranayama"(a breathing exercise) and postures, and did not use cleansing practices. In addition, while the Singh study used sessions of about 30 minutes duration, the daily sessions in the Jain study lasted 2.5 hours (1.5 hours in the morning and 1 hour in the evening).

Figure 43. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on fasting blood glucose (type II DM)



Fasting blood glucose (healthy). Two studies<sup>301,313</sup> totaling 30 participants provided data on the effect of Yoga on levels of fasting blood glucose in healthy populations (Figure 44). The study of Manjunatha<sup>301</sup> provided data on the effect of four different sets of two asana techniques. For each of the sets, we pooled the results with the results from the Joseph<sup>313</sup> study. Each of the combined estimates of change in blood glucose level (mg/dL) showed a small, nonsignificant

improvement (reduction) favoring Yoga (change from baseline ranged from -3.64 [95% CI, -7.92 to 0.64] to -3.81 [95% CI, -7.97 to 0.35]). There was no evidence of heterogeneity for any of the pooled results (p-values range from 0.37 to 0.47;  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

Figure 44. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on fasting blood glucose

Review: Effects of meditation on physiological and cognitive outcomes

Comparison: 18 Yoga (no control)

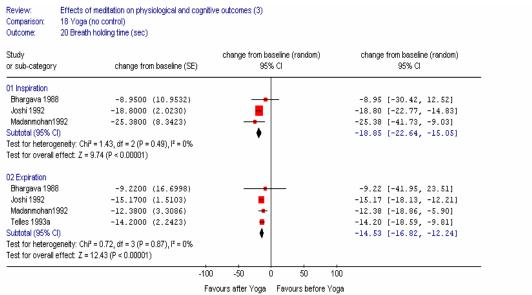
Outcome: 21 Fasting blood glucose (mg/dL)

Study or sub-category	change from baseline (SE)	change from baseline (random) 95% CI	Weight %	change from baseline (random) 95% Cl
01 Set I				
Joseph 1981	-5.0000 (2.6538)	<del></del>	53.85	-5.00 [-10.20, 0.20]
Manjunatha 2005	-2.2000 (2.8664)		46.15	-2.20 [-7.82, 3.42]
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.00	-3.71 [-7.52, 0.11]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi²	= 0.51, df = 1 (P = 0.47), l <sup>2</sup> = 0%	Paradi		
Test for overall effect: Z = 1	.90 (P = 0.06)			
02 Set II				
Joseph 1981	-5.0000 (2.6538)	<del></del>	60.19	-5.00 [-10.20, 0.20]
Manjunatha 2005	-1.9000 (3.2632)		39.81	-1.90 [-8.30, 4.50]
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.00	-3.77 [-7.80, 0.27]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi² Test for overall effect: Z = 1	= 0.54, df = 1 (P = 0.46), l² = 0% .83 (P = 0.07)	6007000-005-01-0007		
03 Set III		AV STANIS		
Joseph 1981	-5.0000 (2.6538)	<del></del>	67.72	-5.00 [-10.20, 0.20]
Manjunatha 2005	-0.8000 (3.8436)	-	32.28	-0.80 [-8.33, 6.73]
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.00	-3.64 [-7.92, 0.64]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi² Test for overall effect: Z = 1	= 0.81, df = 1 (P = 0.37), l <sup>2</sup> = 0% .67 (P = 0.10)	SALES CONTRACTOR CONTR		
04 Set IV Joseph 1981	-5.0000 (2.6538)	· • ·	63.90	-5.00 [-10.20, 0.20]
Manjunatha 2005	-1.7000 (2.6538) -1.7000 (3.5308)		36.10	
Subtotal (95% CI)	-1.7000 (3.5308)		100.00	-1.70 [-8.62, 5.22] -3.81 [-7.97, 0.35]
49 13 00 10 00 00 10 10 00 10 00 10 00 00 00	= 0.56, df = 1 (P = 0.45), l <sup>2</sup> = 0%		100.00	-3.01 [-7.37, 0.35]
Test for neterogeneity. Crim Test for overall effect: Z = 1	0.000 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 10			
restrui overall'effect. Z = 1	.00 (F = 0.01)			

*Breath holding time.* Four studies  $^{300,312,314,323}$  provided data on the effect of Yoga on breath holding time (seconds) in healthy populations. Three studies  $^{300,312,314}$  totaling 112 participants examined breath holding time after inspiration The combined results of changes indicated a large improvement (increase) after practicing Yoga (change from baseline = -18.85; 95% CI, -22.64 to -15.05). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.49;  $I^2 = 0$  percent). Four studies  $^{300,312,314,323}$  totaling 152 participants examined breath holding after exhalation.

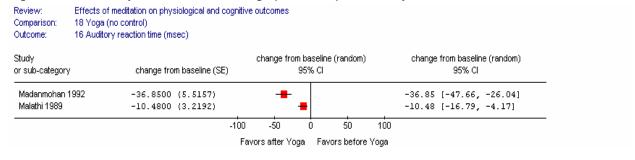
Four studies  $^{300,312,314,323}$  totaling 152 participants examined breath holding after exhalation. The combined results of changes indicated a large improvement (increase) after practicing Yoga (change from baseline = -14.53; 95% CI, -16.82 to -12.24). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.87,  $I^2 = 0$  percent) (Figure 45).

Figure 45. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on breath holding time after inspiration and expiration



Auditory reaction time. Two trials, <sup>300,318</sup> with 27 and 41 participants respectively, provided data on the effect of Yoga on auditory reaction time (milliseconds) (Figure 46). Though both studies found statistically significant results favoring Yoga, the results of the studies were too heterogeneous to report as a combined estimate (p = 0.0001; I<sup>2</sup> = 94.1 percent). Possible sources of heterogeneity include characteristics of study participants and duration of the intervention. Madanmohan included men only with an age range from 18 to 21 years. Malathi included men only with an age range from 30 to 45 years. Both studies were short-term; however, the Madanmohan study had a duration of 12 weeks compared to six weeks for the Malathi study. Finally, participants in the Madanmohan study practiced Yoga for 30 minutes per day; those in the Malathi study practiced 1 hour per day.

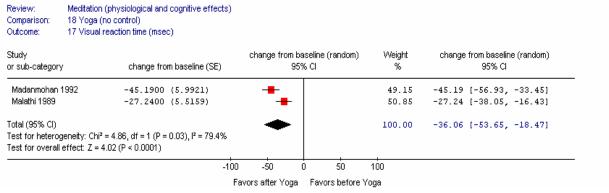
Figure 46. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on auditory reaction time



Visual reaction time. Two studies  $^{300,318}$  totaling 110 participants provided data on the effect of Yoga on visual reaction time (Figure 47). The combined estimate of change in visual reaction time (milliseconds) indicated a small, significant improvement (reduction) favoring Yoga (change from baseline = -36.06; 95% CI, -53.65 to -18.57). There was evidence of substantial heterogeneity between the study results (p = 0.03,  $I^2 = 79.4$  percent). As noted in the previous

section, the observed heterogeneity is possibly accounted for by differences in participant characteristics, study duration, and duration of practice.

Figure 47. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on visual reaction time



Intraocular pressure. Two studies<sup>297,315</sup> totaling 67 participants provided data on the effect of Yoga (unilateral nostril breathing [UNB]) on intraocular pressure in healthy populations (Figure 48). The two studies assessed ipsi- and contralateral eye and nostril combinations. We did not pool the results of the studies because the outcomes were measured under different conditions, which may have resulted in the observed heterogeneity. Chen<sup>297</sup> took before and after measures while the study participants were at rest. Kocer<sup>315</sup> took baseline measures while participants were resting; the "after" measures were taken during exercise. Kocer<sup>315</sup> reported a statistically significant change favoring UNB for all eye/nostril combinations. In contrast, Chen<sup>297</sup> reported a nonsignificant change favoring no UNB for left nostril breathing. For right nostril breathing, the results favored UNB; however, only the right nostril/right eye combination was statistically significant.

Figure 48. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (no control) on intraocular pressure

Review: Effects of meditation on physiological and cognitive outcomes

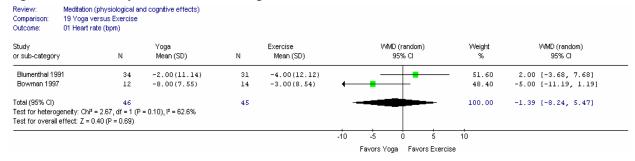
Comparison: 16 Unilateral Nostril Breathing (no control)
Outcome: 05 Intraocular pressure (mm Hg)

Study or sub-category	Change from baseline (SE)	Change from baseline (random) 95% Cl	Change from baseline (random) 95% Cl
01 Right nostril / Right eye			
Chen 2004	-1.3400 (0.4511)	-	-1.34 [-2.22, -0.46]
Kocer 2002	-1.1600 (0.4659)	+	-1.16 [-2.07, -0.25]
02 Right nostril / Left eye			
Chen 2004	-0.8400 (0.5287)	<del></del>	-0.84 [-1.88, 0.20]
Kocer 2002	-1.1400 (0.4626)	+	-1.14 [-2.05, -0.23]
03 Left nostril / Right eye		100	
Chen 2004	1.0700 (0.6961)	<del>                                     </del>	1.07 [-0.29, 2.43]
Kocer 2002	-1.3600 (0.5287)	-	-1.36 [-2.40, -0.32]
04 Left nostril / Left eye		4	
Chen 2004	0.4700 (0.5700)	-	0.47 [-0.65, 1.59]
Kocer 2002	-5.3800 (0.4796)	•	-5.38 [-6.32, -4.44]
and the control of th	-1	0 -5 0 5 1	0
		Favors after UNB Favors before UNB	

## Yoga versus exercise.

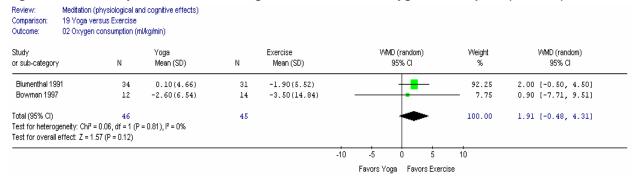
Heart rate. Two trials<sup>280,281</sup> totaling 91 participants provided data on the effect of Yoga on heart rate in healthy populations (Figure 49). The combined estimate of changes in heart rate (bpm) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring Yoga (WMD = -1.39; 95% CI, -8.24, 5.47). There was evidence of high heterogeneity between the study results (p = 0.10,  $I^2 = 62.6\%$ ). The heterogeneity is possibly accounted for by the difference in study duration. Blumenthal<sup>280</sup> was a short-term study (6 weeks) that found statistically nonsignificant results favoring exercise and Bowman<sup>281</sup> was a long-term study (14 months) that found statistically nonsignificant results favoring Yoga.

Figure 49. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus exercise on heart rate



Oxygen consumption. Two studies  $^{280,281}$  totaling 91 patients provided data on the effect of Yoga on oxygen consumption in healthy populations (Figure 50). The combined estimate of changes in VO<sub>2</sub> max (ml/kg/min) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (increase) favoring exercise (WMD = 1.91; 95% CI, -0.48 to 4.31). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.81,  $I^2 = 0\%$ ).

Figure 50. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus exercise on oxygen consumption (VO<sub>2</sub> max)



Yoga versus free breathing.

Effects of meditation on physiological and cognitive outcomes

21 Yoga (unilateral nostril breathing) vs. free breathing

Comparison:

*Verbal ability.* Two studies  $^{177,181}$  totaling 104 participants (Yoga = 52, free breathing = 52) provided data on the effect of Yoga, specifically, unilateral left and right nostril breathing (ULNB, URNB), on verbal ability based on a consonant-vowel matching task (Figure 51). For ULNB, the combined estimate of changes in verbal ability (score) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (increase) favoring free breathing (WMD = 0.26; 95% CI, -1.96 to 2.47). There was evidence of moderate heterogeneity between the study results (p = 0.18;  $I^2$  = 44.8 percent).

For URNB, the combined estimate of changes in verbal ability (score) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (increase) favoring free breathing (WMD = 1.50; 95% CI, -1.37 to 4.37). There was evidence of substantial heterogeneity between the study results (p = 0.10; I<sup>2</sup> = 62.2 percent). A possible source of heterogeneity may be study design. Block<sup>177</sup> used an RCT design while Sanders<sup>181</sup> employed an NRCT design and found statistically nonsignificant results favoring Yoga. Both studies were of low methodological quality. Lack of reporting prevented further exploration of sources of heterogeneity related to participant characteristics, and study duration.

Figure 51. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (ULNB) versus free breathing on verbal ability

Study		Yoga (UNB)		Free breathing	VVMD (random)	Weight	WMD (random)
or sub-category	N	Mean (SD)	N	Mean (SD)	95% CI	%	95% CI
01 Right nostril							
Block 1989	20	-12.15(3.81)	20	-14.95(2.81)		58.78	2.80 [0.73, 4.87]
Sanders 1994	32	-14.15(5.83)	32	-14.00(5.96)		41.22	-0.15 [-3.04, 2.74]
Subtotal (95% CI)	52		52		-	100.00	1.50 [-1.37, 4.37]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi	i <sup>2</sup> = 2.64, df = 1 (F	o = 0.10), I <sup>z</sup> = 62.2%			\$176E		
Test for overall effect: Z =	1.03 (P = 0.30)						
02 Left nostril							
Block 1989	20	-13.75(3.44)	20	-14.95(2.81)	-	58.42	1.20 [-0.75, 3.15]
Sanders 1994	32	-15.10(5.13)	32	-14.00(5.96)	-	41.58	-1.10 [-3.82, 1.62]
Subtotal (95% CI)	52		52			100.00	0.26 [-1.96, 2.47]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi	i <sup>2</sup> = 1.81, df = 1 (F	o = 0.18), I <sup>2</sup> = 44.8%			200		
Test for overall effect: Z =	0.23 (P = 0.82)						
				.4	0 -5 0 5	10	
				83	Favours Yoga Favours Fr	- 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18 - 18	
					rayours roga rayours ri	ee niedili	

Spatial ability. Two studies  $^{177,181}$  totaling 104 participants (Yoga = 52, free breathing = 52) provided data on the effect of Yoga, specifically (ULNB and URNB) on measures of spatial ability (Figure 52). For ULNB, the combined measures of spatial ability (score) indicated a nonsignificant improvement (increase) favoring free breathing (SMD = 0.05; 95% CI, -0.34 to 0.43). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.95;  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

For URNB, the combined estimate of change in measures of spatial ability indicated a nonsignificant improvement (increase) favoring free breathing (SMD = 0.24; 95% CI, - 0.15 to 0.63). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.53;  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

Figure 52. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (ULNB and URNB) versus free breathing on spatial ability

Review:	Effects of meditation on physiological and cognitive outcomes
Comparison:	21 Yoga (unilateral nostril breathing) vs. free breathing
Outcome:	02 Spatial ability

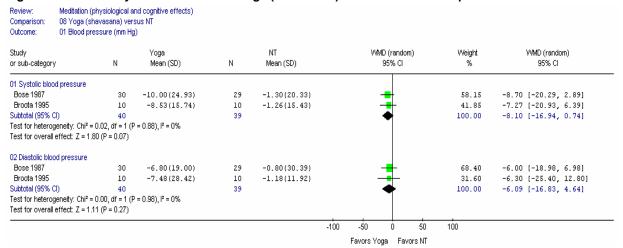
Study		Yoga (UNB)		Free breathing	SMD (random)	Weight	SMD (random)
or sub-category	N	Mean (SD)	N	Mean (SD)	95% CI	%	95% CI
01 Right nostril							
Block 1989	20	-9.05(3.04)	20	-9.15(3.08)	<u> </u>	38.47	0.03 [-0.59, 0.65]
Sanders 1994	32	-8.80(4.72)	32	-9.05(4.14)	-	61.53	0.06 [-0.43, 0.55]
Subtotal (95% CI)	52		52			100.00	0.05 [-0.34, 0.43]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi Test for overall effect: Z = 02 Left nostril							
Block 1989	20	-8.90(2.63)	20	-9.15(3.08)	-	38.80	0.09 [-0.53, 0.71]
Sanders 1994	32	-7.90(2.30)	32	-9.05(4.14)	-	— 61.20	0.34 [-0.15, 0.83]
Subtotal (95% CI)	52		52		-	100.00	0.24 [-0.15, 0.63]
Test for heterogeneity: Chi	i <sup>2</sup> = 0.39, df = 1 (P	= 0.53), I <sup>2</sup> = 0%			1946 <del>- 2</del> 6670		
Test for overall effect: Z =	1.22 (P = 0.22)						
				-1	-0.5 0 0.5	1	
					Favours Yoga Favours Fre	e breath	

#### Yoga versus NT

*Blood pressure*. Two studies  $^{204,305}$  totaling 79 participants (Yoga = 40, NT = 39) provided data on the effect of Yoga (Shavasana) on blood pressure in healthy populations (Figure 53). The combined estimate of change in SBP (mm Hg) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring Yoga (WMD = -8.10; 95% CI, -16.94 to 0.74). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.88;  $I^2$  = 0 percent).

The combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) also indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring Yoga (WMD = -6.09; 95% CI, -16.83 to 4.64). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.98;  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

Figure 53. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (shavasana) versus NT on blood pressure

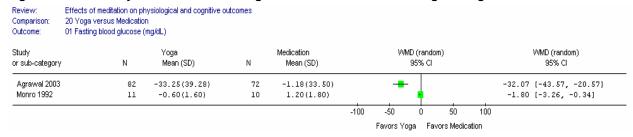


#### Yoga versus medication

Fasting blood glucose. Two studies,  $^{278,308}$  with 154 (Yoga = 82, medication = 72) and 21 (Yoga = 11, medication = 10) participants respectively, provided data on the effect of Yoga on fasting blood glucose in populations with type II DM (Figure 54). The heterogeneity between the results was too high to report a combined result (p < 0.00001;  $I^2$  = 96.2 percent). The results of Agrawal<sup>278</sup> indicated a large, significant improvement (reduction) favoring Yoga (mean difference = -32.07; 95% CI, -43.57 to -20.57). The results of Monro<sup>308</sup> showed a smaller, but still significant improvement (reduction) favoring Yoga (mean difference = -1.80; 95% CI, -3.26 to -0.34).

Possible sources of heterogeneity are differences in the proportion of males and females included in the studies and the complexity of the interventions. Agrawal<sup>278</sup> had a proportion of males to females of approximately 1:1 and Monro<sup>308</sup> had a proportion of approximately 2:1. In addition, the Agrawal study<sup>278</sup> used a complex intervention consisting of Yoga asanas, diet modification, aerobic exercise, and HE, whereas the Monro study<sup>308</sup> used a standard set of postural, breathing, and relaxation exercises.

Figure 54. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga versus medication on fasting blood glucose



#### Yoga (ULNB) versus Yoga (URNB).

Heart rate. Two studies  $^{140,180}$  totaling 74 participants (ULNB = 37, URNB = 37) provided data on the effect of Yoga (ULNB) on heart rate in healthy populations (Figure 55). The combined estimate of changes in heart rate (bpm) showed a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring ULNB (WMD = -2.12; 95% CI, -4.41, 0.17). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.43;  $I^2 = 0$  percent)

Figure 55. Meta-analysis of the effect of Yoga (ULNB) versus URNB on heart rate

Review Meditation (physiological and cognitive effects) Comparison: 01 Yoga (ULNB) versus Unilateral right nostril breathing Outcome: 01 Heart rate (bpm) Study ULNB URNB WMD (random) Weight WMD (random) N Mean (SD) Mean (SD) 95% CI 95% CI or sub-category Mohan 2002 -5.75(7.73) 25 -5.11(7.82) -0.64 [-4.95, 3.67] 25 28.25 Telles 1994 12 3.30(2.82) 12 6.00(3.86) 71.75 -2.70 [-5.40. 0.00] Total (95% CI) 37 100.00 -2.12 [-4.41, 0.17] Test for heterogeneity:  $Chi^2 = 0.63$ , df = 1 (P = 0.43),  $I^2 = 0\%$ Test for overall effect: Z = 1.81 (P = 0.07)-10 10 Favors ULNB Favors URNB

#### Tai Chi

Seven studies assessing the physiological and neuropsychological effect of Tai Chi were identified for meta-analysis: four RCTs, <sup>285-287,307</sup> one NRCT, <sup>290</sup> and two before-and-after studies. <sup>296,317</sup> Four studies compared Tai Chi to NT, <sup>285,286,290,326</sup> and two compared Tai Chi versus exercise. <sup>287,307</sup>

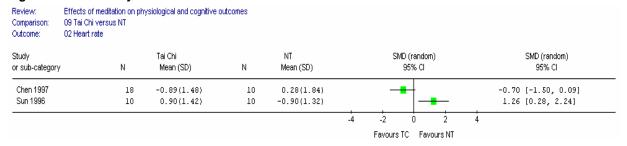
#### Tai Chi versus NT

Heart rate. Two studies,  $^{285,290}$  with 28 (Tai Chi = 18, NT = 10) and 20 (Tai Chi = 10, NT = 10) participants respectively, provided data on the effect of Tai Chi on resting heart rate in healthy, elderly populations (Figure 56). The heterogeneity in the study results was too high to report a combined result (p = 0.002;  $I^2$  = 89.2 percent). The results of Chen<sup>290</sup> indicated a small, nonsignificant change favoring Tai Chi (mean difference

= -0.70; 95% CI, -1.50 to 0.09). In contrast, Sun<sup>285</sup> showed a larger, significant improvement (reduction) favoring NT (mean difference = 1.26; 95% CI, 0.28 to 2.24).

The opposite direction of effect between the two studies is possibly a result of the study design, frequency of practice, or complexity of the intervention. Chen<sup>290</sup> used an NRCT design, while Sun<sup>285</sup> conducted an RCT. In addition, the participants in the Chen study practiced a Tai Chi program of 24 forms for 1 hour twice weekly. The participants in the Sun study<sup>285</sup> practiced 2 hours once a week and incorporated HE and stress management techniques in addition to a Tai Chi program.

Figure 56. Meta-analysis of the effect of Tai Chi versus NT on heart rate



*Blood pressure.* Three studies  $^{285,286,290}$  with 28 (Tai Chi = 18, NT = 10), 20 (Tai Chi = 10, NT = 10), and 34 (Tai Chi = 17, NT = 17) participants respectively provided data on the effect of Tai Chi on blood pressure in healthy populations (Figure 57). The results were too heterogeneous to report as a combined estimate (p = 0.001,  $I^2 = 94.5\%$ ). The results of the Chen  $^{290}$  study showed a

small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring Tai Chi (mean difference = -0.69; 95% CI, -11.72 to 10.34). Sun<sup>285</sup> indicated a moderate, significant improvement (reduction) favoring NT (mean difference = 5.20; 95% CI, 3.73 to 6.67), and the results of Thornton<sup>286</sup> showed a moderate, significant improvement (reduction) favoring Tai Chi (mean difference = -7.70; 95% CI, -11.65 to -3.75).

The heterogeneity in results for changes in DBP (mm Hg) also precluded reporting a combined estimate (p = 0.00001;  $I^2 = 98\%$ ). Chen<sup>290</sup> reported a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring Tai Chi (mean difference = 0.44; 95% CI, -5.03 to 5.91). Sun<sup>285</sup> reported a moderate, significant improvement (reduction) favoring NT (mean difference = 5.20; 95% CI, 4.23 to 6.17), and the results of Thornton<sup>286</sup> showed a moderate, significant improvement (reduction) favoring Tai Chi (mean difference = -8.50; 95% CI, -11.00 to -6.00).

The possible sources of heterogeneity are the age of the study participants and the frequency of practice. While Thornton<sup>286</sup> used healthy volunteers between the ages of 33 to 55 years (mean age 48 years), Sun<sup>285</sup> employed healthy elderly participants over 60 years of age. The Chen<sup>290</sup> study used participants between the ages of 50 and 74 years. The Sun<sup>285</sup> and Thornton<sup>286</sup> studies used a similar frequency and form of Tai Chi intervention (two to three times per week, 108 forms), while the Chen<sup>290</sup> study employed only one Tai Chi session per week and did not describe the number of forms or Tai Chi style used.

Effects of meditation on physiological and cognitive outcomes Review: Comparison: 09 Tai Chi versus NT Outcome: 03 Blood pressure (mm Ha) Tai Chi NT WMD (random) WMD (random) Study or sub-category Mean (SD) Mean (SD) 01 Systolic blood pressure Chen 1997 18 -2.29(15.68) 10 -1.60(13.42) -0.69 [-11.72, 10.34] Sun 1996 10 2.60(1.72) 10 -2.60(1.63)5.20 [3.73, 6.67] Thornton 2004 17 -9.70(5.74) 17 -2.00(6.00) -7.70 [-11.65, -3.75] 02 Diastolic blood pressure Chen 1997 -5.15(8.12) 10 -5.59(6.42) 0.44 [-5.03, 5.91] Sun 1996 10 2.60(1.16) 10 -2.60(1.06) 5.20 [4.23, 6.17] Thornton 2004 17 -7.50(3.82)17 1.00(3.60) -8.50 [-11.00, -6.00] 50

Figure 57. Meta-analysis of the effect of Tai Chi versus NT on blood pressure

## Tai Chi versus exercise

Blood pressure. Two RCTs<sup>287,307</sup> totaling 110 participants (Tai Chi = 55, exercise = 55) provided data on the effect of Tai Chi on blood pressure in healthy populations (Figure 58). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) showed a moderate, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring exercise (WMD = 1.79; 95% CI, -0.82 to 4.41). There was evidence of low heterogeneity between the studies regarding the mean change in SBP (p = 0.28;  $I^2 = 14.7$  percent).

The combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) showed a small, significant improvement (reduction) favoring exercise (WMD = 0.83; 95% CI, 0.18 to 1.48). There was evidence of low heterogeneity between the studies regarding the mean change in DBP (p = 0.32;  $I^2 = 0.8$  percent). The heterogeneity is possibly accounted for by the difference in the ages of the participants, and the frequency and duration of the intervention. Jin<sup>307</sup> used healthy volunteers with a mean age of 36 years; Young<sup>287</sup> used healthy elderly participants with a mean age of 67 years. The Jin study employed two

1-hour Tai Chi sessions, whereas the Young study lasted 12 weeks and had four 30-minute sessions of Tai Chi per week.

Meditation (physiological and cognitive effects) Comparison: 11 Tai Chi versus Exercise Outcome: 01 Blood pressure (mm Ha) WMD (random) Weight VMD (random) or sub-category N Mean (SD) Mean (SD) 95% CI % 95% CI 01 Systolic blood pressure 7.10(16.33) 0.80(14.86) 6.30 [-2.53, 15.13] 1.40 [0.60, 2.20] Young 1999 31 98.73 31 -8.40(1.60) Subtotal (95% CI) 55 55 100.00 1.79 [-0.82, 4.41] Test for heterogeneity: Chi<sup>2</sup> = 1.17, df = 1 (P = 0.28), I<sup>2</sup> = 14.7% Test for overall effect: Z = 1.35 (P = 0.18) 02 Diastolic blood pressure Jin 1992 -0.10710.881 24 -4 40713 111 1.31 4.30 [-2.52, 11.12] Young 1999 0.80 [0.30, 1.30] 31 -2.40(1.00) -3.20(1.00)98.69 31 Subtotal (95% CI) 55 100.00 0.83 [0.18, 1.48] Test for heterogeneity: Chi² = 1.01, df = 1 (P = 0.32), I² = 0.8% Test for overall effect: Z = 2.51 (P = 0.01) 10 Favors TC Favors Exercise

Figure 58. Meta-analysis of the effect of Tai Chi versus exercise on blood pressure

#### Tai Chi (no control)

Heart rate. Two studies  $^{296,317}$  totaling 74 participants provided data on the effect of Tai Chi on heart rate in healthy populations (Figure 59). The combined estimate of changes in heart rate (bpm) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring Tai Chi (change from baseline = -2.34; 95% CI, -5.29 to 0.60). There was evidence of heterogeneity between the studies (p = 0.09,  $I^2$  = 65 percent). A possible source of heterogeneity is the difference in the age of study participants. The mean age of participants in Jones  $^{296}$  was  $53 \pm 10$  years; the mean age of participants in Liu $^{317}$  was  $22 \pm 3$  years. Liu $^{317}$  did not report the frequency or complexity of the intervention used, so the studies could not be compared for these variables.

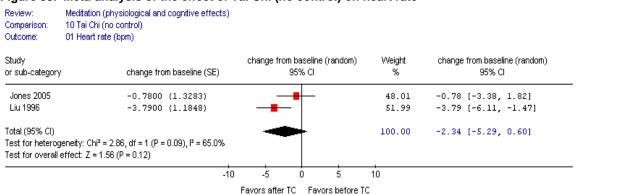


Figure 59. Meta-analysis of the effect of Tai Chi (no control) on heart rate

*Blood pressure*. Two studies  $^{296,317}$  totaling 74 participants provided data on the effect of Tai Chi on blood pressure in healthy populations (Figure 60). The combined estimate of changes in SBP (mm Hg) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring Tai Chi (change from baseline = -3.35; 95% CI, -7.55 to 0.85). There was evidence of heterogeneity between the studies regarding change from baseline (p = 0.12;  $I^2 = 57.7$  percent).

The combined estimate of changes in DBP (mm Hg) also showed a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) favoring Tai Chi (change from baseline = -0.93; 95% CI, -3.31 to 1.44). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.41,  $I^2 = 0$  percent). Though there were differences between the studies regarding the age of participants (mean ages respectively  $53 \pm 10$  years and  $22 \pm 3$  years) and proportion of males to females (1:5 and 1:1), it is unlikely that these are the sources of the discrepancy in the measures of heterogeneity for SBP and DBP results. As a result, it is unclear what clinical differences may be responsible for the discrepancy.

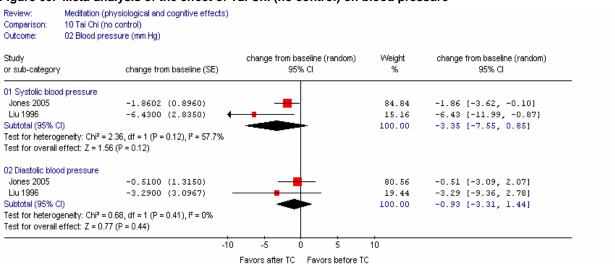


Figure 60. Meta-analysis of the effect of Tai Chi (no control) on blood pressure

# Qi Gong

Two before-and-after studies that assessed the effect of Qi Gong on physiological outcomes were identified. 191,299

#### Oi Gong (no control)

Heart rate. Two studies  $^{191,299}$  totaling 29 participants assessed the effect of Qi Gong on heart rate in healthy populations (Figure 61). The combined estimate in changes in heart rate (bpm) indicated a small, nonsignificant improvement (reduction) after practicing Qi Gong (change from baseline = -1.21; 95% CI, -6.18 to 3.76). The study results were homogeneous (p = 0.79,  $I^2 = 0$  percent).

Figure 61. Meta-analysis of the effect of Qi Gong (no control) on heart rate

Review: Meditation (physiological and cognitive effects) Comparison: 05 Qi Gong (no control) 01 Heart rate (bpm) Outcome: Study Change from baseline (random) Weight Change from baseline (random) 95% CI or sub-category Change from baseline (SE) 95% CI Jones 2001 -2 0000 /3 93991 41 46 -2.00 [-9.72, 5.72] Lim 1993 -0.6500 (3.3157) 58.54 -0.65 [-7.15, 5.85] Total (95% CI) 100.00 -1.21 [-6.18, 3.76] Test for heterogeneity:  $Chi^2 = 0.07$ , df = 1 (P = 0.79),  $I^2 = 0\%$ Test for overall effect: Z = 0.48 (P = 0.63) -10 0 Favors after QG Favors before QG

# **Summary of the Results**

Overall, 311 studies evaluated the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices. The majority of studies used an RCT design (54 percent) and Yoga was the most common intervention (35 percent) that was studied. The overall methodological quality of all studies was low with only one study<sup>168</sup> considered high quality. The majority of studies were of short and medium duration.

Data from 53 studies (20 RCTs, 8 NRCTs, 25 before-and-after) were considered for direct meta-analysis to provide an evaluation of the effects of TM<sup>®</sup>, RR, Yoga, Tai Chi, and Qi Gong. The intervention groups were compared variously against BF, exercise, free breathing, medication, NT, WL, and UNB. Outcomes suitable for meta-analysis included blood pressure (SBP and DBP), heart rate, total cholesterol, respiratory rate, fasting blood glucose, and galvanic skin resistance. The majority of studies used healthy participants (45 studies) as the comparison group; people with type II DM and with essential hypertension comprised the only other study populations (six studies and four studies, respectively). All results below apply to healthy populations unless otherwise indicated.

# **Transcendental Meditation®**

Direct meta-analysis showed that compared to NT, TM® did not produce significantly greater benefits on blood pressure (SBP and DBP). However, there was significant improvement in LDL-C levels and verbal creativity with TM®. When compared to WL, TM® produced significantly greater reduction in SBP and DBP. Before-and-after studies on TM® for patients with essential hypertension indicated a statistically significant reduction in SBP and DBP after practicing TM®. The heterogeneity present for the comparisons evaluating blood pressure changes and cortisol levels suggests that there were important clinical differences among the studies; however, the small number of studies precluded subgroup analyses.

## **Relaxation Response**

The results of meta-analysis showed that compared to BF, RR did not produce significantly greater reduction in muscle tension. When RR was compared to a condition of rest, the rest group showed a significantly greater reduction in heart rate.

# Yoga

When compared to NT, Yoga did not show a significantly greater benefit in lowering SBP or DBP. When compared to exercise, Yoga did not significantly lower heart rate or increase oxygen consumption. Compared to URNB, ULNB showed no significantly greater benefit in reducing heart rate.

When compared to free breathing, Yoga (UNB) showed no statistically or clinically significant benefit in improving verbal or spatial ability test scores. Finally, when examined using a before-and-after design, practicing Yoga did not demonstrate a significant benefit decreasing heart rate. There was also no significant benefit for Yoga in increasing galvanic skin resistance, reduction of intraocular pressure, and reduction of fasting blood glucose in healthy populations. There was varied heterogeneity among studies combined for heart rate, respiratory rate, galvanic skin resistance, and intraocular pressure, suggesting important clinical differences among the studies.

Before-and-after studies showed a significantly greater benefit after practicing Yoga in reducing heart rate in hypertensive populations. In healthy populations, practicing Yoga demonstrated a significant benefit in reducing DBP. There was also indication that Yoga has significantly greater benefit in increasing breath holding time after inspiration and expiration, in decreasing visual reaction time, and in the reduction of intraocular pressure (two of four outcomes). There was varied heterogeneity between studies combined for heart rate in hypertensive patients, SBP, and fasting blood glucose in patients with type II DM, suggesting important clinical differences between the studies. The heterogeneity present in the results examining respiratory rate, auditory reaction time, intraocular pressure (two of four outcomes), and fasting blood glucose prevented calculating an overall estimate of effect and suggested important clinical differences between the studies.

### Tai Chi

The results of studies that compared Tai Chi to NT were too heterogeneous to provide combined estimates for the effect of Tai Chi on heart rate and blood pressure. In addition, the small number of studies precluded a subgroup analysis.

When compared to exercise, Tai Chi showed no significantly greater reduction in SBP, but did indicate a significant benefit in the reduction of DBP. In before-and-after studies, there was no significant reduction in heart rate, SBP and DBP after practicing Tai Chi than before. Substantial heterogeneity was also present in this comparison and, as with NT, a lack of studies prevented a subgroup analysis.

# Qi Gong

Qi Gong did not significantly reduce heart rate in elderly populations, nor did it significantly reduce SBP and DBP in healthy populations.

There were 22 outcome measures on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices for which a combined estimate could be produced with little or no statistical heterogeneity. The comparisons, overall effect estimate, and statistical and clinical significance of each is outcome is summarized in Table 44.

Statistically and clinically significant changes in healthy participants were produced by TM<sup>®</sup> for heart rate, DBP, and LDL-C (TM<sup>®</sup> versus NT), and for SBP and DBP (TM<sup>®</sup> versus WL). The increase in verbal creativity (SMD = 0.74; TM<sup>®</sup> versus WL) is also statistically significant, but it is unlikely that this change would be clinically meaningful. In contrast, the change in SBP (TM<sup>®</sup> versus NT) was not statistically significant; however, the effect estimate suggests a clinically meaningful reduction of 5.24 mm Hg. When compared to rest, RR was more effective at reducing heart rate. However, though statistically significant, the change suggested by the overall effect estimate is unlikely to be clinically meaningful.

Statistically and clinically meaningful changes were produced in healthy participants by the practice of Yoga for breath holding (18 and 14 breaths/minute) and DBP (-6.22 mm Hg). There was a significant reduction in heart rate in hypertensive patients (-7 bpm); however, the clinical significance of this change depends on the baseline measures of the population for which the intervention is being considered. All the changes described above were observed in studies using a before-and-after design, a design that is unable to control for a host of extraneous variables that may bias the study results (e.g., temporal trends, regression to the mean, and sensitivity to design parameters) and potentially overestimate the effect of the intervention. Therefore, any causal claim about the effect of the intervention should be considered in light of these methodological shortcomings and caution should be exercised when interpreting these results.

The overall effects of Yoga based on RCTs and NRCTs indicate that this practice does not produce significant changes in healthy populations in oxygen consumption, spatial ability, SBP, DBP, or fasting glucose.

When Tai Chi was compared to exercise, there was a statistically significant reduction in DBP; however, the change was not clinically significant (0.83 mm Hg). No significant change was observed in SBP. Before-and-after studies on Tai Chi did not indicate a clinically significant change in either SDP or DBP; however, these results should be interpreted in light of the stronger evidence available from the two combined RCTs. Likewise, no statistically or clinically significant changes in heart rate were produced by the practice of Qi Gong. Nevertheless, this result is based on before-and-after studies and the result should be considered carefully in light of the methodological difficulties described previously.

Finally, the low methodological quality of all the studies included in the meta-analysis is an additional cause for interpreting all the results described here with caution.

Table 44. Summary of statistical and clinical significance of physiological outcomes examined in clinical studies on meditation practices

studies on meditar	tion practices		
Comparison	Outcome	Statistical significance	Clinical significance
TM <sup>®</sup> versus NT	SBP	Medium and long term WMD = -5.24; 95% CI, -12.85 to 2.37 TM® no better than NT	Yes
	DBP	Medium and long term WMD = -5.19; 95% CI, -10.24 to -0.13 TM® better than NT	Yes
	LDL-C levels	Long term WMD = -23.94; 95% CI, -43.87 to -4.00 <b>TM</b> <sup>®</sup> <b>better than NT</b>	Potentially, depending on initial LDL level and risk factors
	Verbal creativity	SMD = -0.74; 95% CI, -1.12 to -0.36 <b>TM</b> <sup>®</sup> better than <b>NT</b>	No
TM <sup>®</sup> versus WL	Heart rate	WMD = -5.94; 95% CI, -11.54 to -0.35 <b>TM</b> <sup>®</sup> better than <b>WL</b>	Potentially
	DBP	WMD = -3.61; 95% CI, -6.62 to -0.59 <b>TM</b> <sup>®</sup> better than <b>WL</b>	No

DBP = diastolic blood pressure; LDL-C = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; NT = no treatment; RR = Relaxation Response; SBP = systolic blood pressure; SMD = standardized mean difference; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>; ULNB = unilateral left nostril breathing; URNB = unilateral right nostril breathing; WL = waiting list; WMD = weighted mean difference

Table 44. Summary of statistical and clinical significance of physiological outcomes examined in clinical studies on meditation practices (continued)

Comparison	Outcome		Clinical significance
RR versus rest	Heart rate	WMD = 2.56; 95% CI, 1.32 to 3.80 RR not as good as rest	No
Yoga versus exercise	Oxygen consumption	WMD = 1.91; 95% CI, -0.48 to 4.31 Yoga no better than exercise	No
Yoga versus Free breathing	Spatial ability	Left nostril: SMD = 0.24; 95% CI, -0.34 to 0.43 Right nostril: SMD = 0.05; 95% CI, -0.34 to 0.43 Yoga no better than free breathing	No
Yoga versus NT	SBP	WMD = -8.10; 95% CI, -16.94 to 0.74 Yoga no better than NT	Yes
	DBP	WMD = -6.09; 95% CI, -16.83 to 4.64 Yoga no better than NT	Yes
Yoga (ULNB) versus URNB	Heart rate	WMD = -2.12; 95% CI, -4.41 to 0.17 Yoga (ULNB) no better than URNB	No
Yoga (no control)	Breath holding time after inspiration	Change from baseline = -18.85; 95% CI, -22.64 to – 15.05 Significant change after practicing Yoga	Potentially
	Breath holding time after expiration	Change from baseline = -14.53; 95% CI, -16.82 to - 12.24 Significant change after practicing Yoga	Potentially
	Heart rate (hyperten- sives)	Change from baseline = -6.79; 95% CI, -9.97 to -3.6 Significant change after practicing Yoga	0 No
	Fasting blood glucose (healthy)	I: Change from baseline = -3.71; 95% CI, -7.52 to 0.11  II: Change from baseline = -3.77; 95% CI, -7.80 to 0.27  III: Change from baseline = -3.64; 95% CI, -7.92 to - 0.64  IV: Change from baseline = -3.81; 95% CI, -7.97 to - 0.35  No significant change after practicing Yoga	No
	DBP	Change from baseline = -6.22; 95% CI, -7.73 to - 4.70  Significant change after practicing Yoga	Yes
Tai Chi versus exercise	SBP	(WMD = 1.79; 95% CI, -0.82, 4.41 Tai Chi no better than exercise	No
	DBP	(WMD = 0.83; 95% CI, 0.18 to 1.48) Tai Chi better than exercise	No
Tai Chi (no control)	SBP	Change from baseline = -3.35; 95% CI, -7.55 to 0.85)  No significant change after practicing Tai Chi	No
	DBP	(Change from baseline = -0.93; 95% CI, -3.31 to 1.44)  No significant change after practicing Tai Chi	No
Qi Gong (no control)	Heart rate	Change from baseline = -1.21; 95% CI, -6.18 to 3.76  No significant change after practicing Qi Gong	6 No

# **Chapter 4. Discussion**

## The Practice of Meditation

Five broad categories of meditation practices were identified in the included studies: Mantra meditation (comprising TM<sup>®</sup>, RR, and CSM), Mindfulness meditation (comprising Vipassana, Zen Buddhist meditation, MBSR, and MBCT), Yoga, Tai Chi, and Qi Gong. One of the objectives of this review was to provide a descriptive overview and synthesis of information on meditation practices in terms of their main components, the role of spirituality, training requirements, and criteria for success. It is important to emphasize that the review on Topic I does not constitute a manual for any meditation practice. A more detailed explanation of any specific meditation practice described in this report should be sought in specialized texts or from master practitioners.

Given the variety of the practices and the fact that some are single entities (TM<sup>®</sup>, RR, and CSM, Vipassana) while others are broad categories that encompass a variety of different techniques or combination of practices (Yoga, Tai Chi, Qi Gong, MBSR, and MBCT), it is impossible to select components that might be considered universal or supplemental across practices. Though some statement about the use of breathing is universal among practices, this is not a reflection of a common approach toward breathing. The control of attention is putatively universal; however, there are at least two aspects of attention that might be employed and a wide variety of techniques for anchoring attention. The spiritual or belief component of meditation practices is poorly described in the literature and it is unclear in what way and to what extent spirituality and belief play a role in successful practice. The amount of variation in the described frequency and duration of practice make it difficult to draw generalizations about the training requirements for meditation practices. The criteria for successful meditation have also not been described well in the literature, though this may reflect the attitude that meditation is successful if one simply does it. At a clinical level, it might be argued that meditation is successful if it produces positive outcomes.

#### **Demarcation**

Providing a comprehensive review and summary of the scientific research on meditation practices requires the development of appropriate criteria by which to distinguish meditation practices from nonmeditation practices (what Ross<sup>327</sup> has called a "demarcation criterion"). The development of such criteria is one of the most difficult yet important components of research on meditation practices, <sup>12</sup> yet there is currently no consensus on a definition of meditation <sup>12</sup> or on a way to classify the variety of meditation practices. <sup>12,37</sup> Researchers have attempted to identify the components essential to the practice of meditation and to classify meditation practices in various ways:

• any procedure that uses: (1) a specific, clearly defined technique, i.e., a "recipe" for meditation; (2) muscle relaxation in some moment of the process; (3) "logic relaxation"; (4) a self-induced state; and (5) a "self-focus" skill, or anchor; 9

- a discrete and well defined experience of "thoughtless awareness.<sup>12,125</sup> Techniques that fail to provide the key experience of mental silence or thoughtless awareness, including techniques that use constant repetition of syllables, visualizations, or other thought forms are considered "quasi-meditation;<sup>12</sup>
- techniques that seem to restrict awareness to a single, unchanging source of stimulation for a definite period of time;<sup>328</sup>
- an exercise in which the individual turns attention or awareness to dwell upon a single object, concept, sound, image, or experience, with the intention of gaining greater spiritual or experiential and existential insight, or of achieving improved psychological well-being;<sup>34</sup> and
- a family of self-regulation practices that focus on training attention and awareness in order to bring mental processes under greater voluntary control and thereby foster general mental well-being and development and/or specific capacities such as calm, clarity, and concentration.<sup>10</sup>

Even if most investigators would agree that meditation implies a form of mental training that requires either stilling or emptying the mind to achieve a state of "detached observation," few seem to consider this a sufficient demarcation criterion. Also, the general definitions offered above appear to be too narrow, excluding awareness-based forms of meditation such as Vipassana, MBSR, MBCT, and Zen Buddhist meditation.

Definitions usually focus on the phenomenological aspects of meditation practice and, with the exception of Cardoso et al., are ly describe the necessary practical and physical components in sufficient detail to be translated into an operational definition of meditation. Further, though some investigators believe that research has shown meditation to be clearly distinguished from relaxation, as Manocha notes, there is sufficient evidence to show that "quasi-meditation," techniques that do not cultivate a state of mental silence, do not differ from rest in terms of their physiological effects. Such results, if valid, make the development of clear demarcation even more important. This review has not evaluated whether meditation is indeed different from relaxation.

Whether defining meditation by one criterion or more, most investigators have looked for necessary and sufficient conditions with which to demarcate meditation practices from nonmeditation practices. Surprisingly, despite a persistent lack of consensus and the fact that demarcation criteria need not be bound by this approach, <sup>327</sup> no author has examined alternative approaches to defining meditation despite some well-known developments in methods of demarcation in the philosophy of language <sup>329</sup> and cognitive psychology, <sup>330</sup> and more recent developments in ethics <sup>331</sup> and evolutionary biology. <sup>332,333</sup> Applying some of these techniques to meditation may prove fruitful.

## Classification

To our knowledge, this is the first systematic examination of the components of and training for individual meditation practices. <sup>125</sup> Classification of meditation practices is frequently based on the direction of attention, <sup>334</sup> e.g., "opening up" versus "turning off," <sup>328</sup> positive versus negative, mindful versus concentrative, directive versus nondirective, <sup>335</sup> etc. However, it has been suggested that the concentrative forms should not be viewed as opposites to the mindful or negative forms, but as the first step toward a progressive refinement of attention and

concentration.<sup>335</sup> Several practices in Yoga and Qi Gong will fall into both categories. Meditation practices may also be classified according to their historical origins with Indian and Chinese forms constituting two groups and clinically-based practices another.<sup>334</sup>

We employed consensus techniques to develop an extensive, though not exhaustive, list of 32 common meditation practices. The categories of meditation practices we have employed reflect only those practices identified in the English-language scientific literature and that satisfied the inclusion criteria for this review. There is a noticeable gap in the research that has been conducted on meditation practices—of the 32 practices identified in the Delphi process, only the 10 described here (TM<sup>®</sup>, RR, CSM, Vipassana, Zen Buddhist meditation, MBSR, MBCT, Yoga, Tai Chi, and Qi Gong) have been assessed in trials or using a before-and-after design. It is unlikely that our literature search failed to uncover a broad category of practices, though we may have missed certain practices, for example, techniques purportedly used by indigenous peoples of North America.<sup>34</sup> However, given the comprehensiveness of our literature search strategy, it is unlikely that such practices, if subjected to scientific inquiry, would have been missed.

The categories are only meant to be descriptive and conclusions have not been made on the basis of the broad categories, but at the level of individual practices. Despite this, it may be that we have not sufficiently distinguished between schools of Tai Chi and style of Yoga and that distinct techniques have been subsumed under one category or class of practice. This lack of specificity will have affected the results of our analysis in cases where, for example, two styles of Tai Chi (e.g., Wu and Chang) have been combined. However, this potential limitation should serve to highlight the need for more explicit descriptions of techniques and the need for studies on a wide range of techniques for similar health conditions. 336

The broad categories we have employed can be criticized as being simplistic and as ignoring subtle differences among practices. However, the categorization of practices is a product of the typological divisions one makes. For example, we have chosen to class together TM® and RR, even though some may argue that there are sufficient differences between these two mantra meditation techniques to keep them separate. In addition, though Benson's original formulation of RR clearly falls within the category of mantra meditation, contemporary formulations of the technique are multifaceted and incorporate a body scan, which is a mindfulness meditation technique (Dr. Jeffrey Dusek, personal communication, December 2006). Some may contend that RR and TM® should not be classed together because during TM® one does not try to associate the mantra with the breath, or dissociate the breath from the mantra, but rather the mantra is favored. There may be other subtle differences between practices grouped together in the broad categories. The difficulty in categorizing practices and the dearth of detailed descriptions in the literature reinforce the need for detailed descriptions of all components of the interventions employed in efficacy and effectiveness studies.

# **Universal Components of Meditation Practices**

The results of this review are similar to those of a study by Koshikawa et al.<sup>334</sup> that examined the physical components of 12 different types of meditation practices (excluding Tai Chi and including Christian meditation practices, early Buddhist meditation, Ajikan meditation, and Hotei meditation) in order to determine what similarities, if any, existed among the practices. Using a survey methodology, the investigators questioned 12 experts (one for each type of meditation practice) regarding the environmental conditions required for practice, method of

breathing, postures, body movement, use of mantra, object of attention, diet, and training requirements for mastery of the technique. Their results indicate that, though some meditation practices may share some features in common, no two practices are alike in all features and no features of practice are universal to them.

# Complexity

The complexity of meditation practices makes dissecting components difficult and questionable; components may be synergistic and imperfectly understood if artificially separated from the whole discipline within which they take place. For example, though we have noted that no practice of a meditative technique requires the adoption of a particular belief system, West has questioned the reliance of researchers on clinically standardized forms of meditation practice rather than examining meditation as a practice that may be inextricably bound up with belief systems and expectations and ignoring the use of meditation as a central component of the belief system and of the day-to-day life of the practitioner. Other researchers have noted that the specific components adopted in a given meditation practice depend on the desired outcome, 116,128,129,334 a fact which may make finding the common components across several practices undesirable unless the same outcome can be achieved. In addition, different techniques are reported to have different effects, so even if subjective descriptions of two or more techniques make them appear similar, their similarity must still be rigorously assessed.

In addition, for some of the practices that involve movement (Tai Chi and some yogic and Qi Gong techniques), researchers face additional challenges in designing studies that can separate the effects of exercise from the effects of the meditation practice. As physical activity has been shown to produce beneficial effects in those same physiological and neuropsychological outcomes of interest in trials on meditation practices (e.g., blood pressure, mood, etc.), this type of research is particularly important if the benefits of meditation practices are to be accurately assessed.

#### Criteria of Successful Meditation Practice

No descriptions of meditation practices provided an explicit statement of the criteria for successful meditation practice beyond reference to the internal states of the practitioner. The criteria have generally been inferred from descriptions of the practice. For example, in TM® the practitioner attends a series of checkup meetings in which their technique is examined, implying that the adequacy of the technique is judged by an experienced practitioner. However, there is no statement that individual practitioners cannot assess the correctness of their technique themselves and no list of the components that an experienced teacher may be attending to in assessing the practice. The same is true of Zen Buddhist meditation. Because of this method, there may be some inconsistencies in the criteria for successful practice. However, this does not change the fact that there is a dearth of information on the determination of successful meditation practice and that this is an area in which future studies may improve.

# **Training**

Some overviews of meditation practices<sup>328</sup> have provided descriptions of the training requirements for meditation. However, these descriptions have focused mainly on TM<sup>®</sup>, Zen Buddhist meditation, and some yogic practices, and they fail to capture the wide range of training practices suggested by our literature review. In addition, poor descriptions of the physical aspects of the meditation techniques and the requisite training hinder identifying the components that may be similar across practices and limit the proper construction of and comparison between studies on the effectiveness of specific meditation practices. Without a detailed knowledge of, for example, an adequate training period for a particular Hatha yoga technique versus that for a Tai Chi technique, such studies are already confounded by factors pertaining to the learning of a technique and not the effects of the technique per se. In addition, some investigators<sup>334</sup> have found that if, as Naranjo<sup>335</sup> has observed, the development of the attitude specific to meditation is essential and the hardest part of meditation to attain and this can only be realized through practice, then proper instruction seems paramount and a description of the proper duration and frequency of any given technique is crucial to designing and appraising such studies.

# State of Research on the Therapeutic Use of Meditation Practices in Healthcare

We have summarized a vast body of evidence regarding a broad group of practices categorized under the umbrella term "meditation". Some may argue that addressing a research question regarding the effects of "meditation on healthcare" would be as challenging as reporting on the effects of "medication on healthcare" (Personal communication, David Shannahoff Khalsa, May 2007). There were substantial variations among the studies in the description of the practices of meditation, the type of controls, the type of populations, and the outcomes reported.

The field of scientific research on meditation practices does not appear to be organized under a shared theoretical framework, but instead consists of distinct groups of investigators working within different approaches of treatment theory (e.g., physiological, cognitive, behavioral, and cognitive-behavioral) that fail to engage each other meaningfully.

The majority of studies on meditation practices identified in this review have been conducted in Western countries and published as journal articles within the past 15 years. The majority of research in meditation practices has been conducted as intervention studies (67 percent), with 49 percent being RCTs or NRCTs. A similar bibliometric analysis on the clinical application of Yoga has revealed an increase in publication frequency over the past three decades with a substantial and growing use of RCTs. <sup>337</sup>

We identified and excluded from the review a considerable number of multiple publications (n=108). In some instances, the same study was published in two separate journal articles without full cross reference, a practice of redundant publication that has been considered scientific misconduct. <sup>338-340</sup> Including redundant publications in systematic reviews and meta-analyses increases the risk of overestimating the effect size. The problem of redundant publications has not yet been sufficiently explored in the scientific literature; therefore, it is unknown how the proportion of redundant publications in meditation research compares to other

areas of scientific inquiry. Authors of future studies on meditation should avoid redundant publications and must adhere to guidelines for good publication practices.<sup>340</sup>

# **Quality of the Evidence**

Overall, we found the methodological quality of meditation research to be poor, with significant threats to validity in every major category of quality regardless of study design. Observational studies accounted for 33 percent of all the studies in the review. This type of study is open to several forms of systematic error such as selection bias, detection bias, and attrition bias. Intervention studies that used designs with pre-post treatment comparisons within the same group (known as single group before-and-after studies or uncontrolled trials) are not as rigorous as designs that use between-group comparisons because they do not allow investigators to determine whether the results are due to the meditation practice or to other factors. Studies with stronger designs such as RCTs and NRCTs allow a greater sense of confidence in study results; however, we found the quality of reporting to be poor for most of the intervention studies included in the review. This finding is not unique to the area of meditation research, and quality of reporting is a frequent problem in other areas of complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) research.<sup>341</sup>

The publication of the Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT)<sup>342</sup> statement in 1996 was aimed at the improvement of the quality of research reports of RCTs. It is unknown how the quality of reporting of RCTs of meditation practices has changed after the dissemination of CONSORT in the CAM community, but it is noteworthy that only 20 percent of the RCTs identified in the review described how the randomization was carried out, 8 percent were described as double-blind, and 4 percent described how they concealed the allocation.

The lack of double-blind RCTs has been a controversial topic not only in meditation research, but also in other areas of CAM,<sup>343</sup> surgical interventions,<sup>344</sup> and behavioral treatments.<sup>345</sup> Some authors have called for a "paradigm shift," suggesting that the quality of CAM research should be evaluated by other methodological standards. Some commentators have argued that the placebo-controlled trial is not a valid or fair method for evaluating CAM treatments.<sup>346-348</sup> Specifically, it is claimed that the scientific techniques of treatment protocols, randomization, double-blind conditions, and use of placebo controls distort the "holistic" therapeutic milieu of CAM. However, the notion of "holistic" interventions as opposed to "conventional medicine" may be an artificial misconception. Just as CAM does, traditional interventions provide treatments within a symbolic healing context by using "nonspecific" therapeutic attention and expectations.<sup>349</sup>

There is little argument against the idea that RCTs provide the least biased method for finding a reliable answer on the effectiveness of any therapeutic intervention, including CAM practices such as meditation. Based on empirical evidence and theoretical considerations, there are some basic characteristics that should always be considered when evaluating the quality of an RCT: randomization, blinding, handling of patient attrition in the analysis, and allocation concealment. 40,42,350,351

Some authors have supported the idea that "those who insist that the evidence to support complementary and alternative medicine can legitimately be softer than in mainstream medicine will have to reconsider their position. Double standards in medicine existed for many years; undoubtedly they still exist today, but hopefully their days are numbered."<sup>352</sup>

Double-blinding of the instructor and participant to treatment in meditation studies is often infeasible, a consequence of the fact that instructors must apply a specially learned skill in a particular therapeutic context (e.g., with clinically depressed patients). However, double blinding is still possible because the difficulties in blinding the experimenter can be circumvented by blinding the participants using a sham procedure such as similar attention control intervention or a placebo with a different mode of administration (as it has been done in psychotherapy research) and by blinding them to the hypothesis, and by blinding the outcome assessors to the nature of the intervention and the hypothesis. In cases where the comparison is an active treatment and blinding of participants to the treatment is impossible, it may still be possible to blind participants to the research hypothesis to minimize expectancy bias. Therefore, research on CAM should adhere to the same methodological requirements for all clinical research, and randomized, placebo-controlled clinical trials should be used for assessing the efficacy of CAM treatments whenever feasible and ethically justifiable. 353

When double blinding was assessed using an individual components approach, we found that, although the vast majority did not use double blinding to hide the identity of the assigned interventions (97 percent), a small but promising percentage reported the use of double-blind procedures. The idea that it is possible to design high-quality trials in meditation and implement double-blind procedures by selecting appropriate control groups is gaining support in meditation research. We agree with other researchers that the implementation of these trials in any area of CAM research, including meditation, require much more preparation than trials of pharmacological interventions, and components such as blinding procedures, selection of credible placebos, and consistency of inherently individualized interventions are challenging issues that need extensive evaluation. 343

Our conclusion here is that the idea that "due to the nature of meditation, it is impossible to double blind meditation practices" has been used as an excuse to justify the overall low quality of research that characterizes this body of evidence. However, the over emphasis of the "double-blinding" issue does not hide the fact that 95 percent of the studies failed to describe how they concealed the allocation to the interventions under study or the fact that overall, only 20 percent of the trials described the procedures of randomization, and that only half described study dropouts.

Therefore, syntheses of the results from studies included in this review should be interpreted with caution due to the serious threats to the internal validity of the included studies.

# **Types of Interventions**

Although a relatively small group of meditation practices have been studied in the scientific literature, they vary in many respects. There was a remarkable heterogeneity across the studies regarding the description of the characteristics and implementation of the practice even within the same type of meditation. Differences in theoretical assumptions underlying the practices of meditation may explain why studies conducted on similar meditation practices often differed in the potential benefits that were assessed. Some authors have declared that meditation poses a considerable challenge for the principles of evidence-based medicine. Meditation is a complex and multifaceted intervention, difficult to standardize, and for which specific effects are hard to distinguish. It is important, therefore, that investigators make an effort to avoid the excessive

heterogeneity that characterizes this field, by clearly defining and reporting the intervention procedures of the meditation practice under scrutiny.

# **Types of Control Groups**

Control groups are essential for the valid evaluation of the effects of meditation practices; however, the problem of the inadequacy of control groups in meditation research is not new. Almost half of the RCTs and NRCTs have used WL or no treatment approaches for the control group rather than a comparator that would more fully control for the variety of influences that may bias the results including expectancy effects, social interactions, attention given by instructors, and time spent in the practice. Some authors have argued that the use of WL as a control group is clearly inappropriate as no one expects to improve while they are waiting to begin treatment. This situation may create a negative expectation of improvement that may spuriously amplify the difference in treatment effect between the intervention and the control. Therefore, caution should be exercised when interpreting studies comparing the effectiveness of meditation practices to no treatment or WL.

A wide array of active control groups were used in the intervention studies on meditation practices. Active controls included exercise and other physical activities, states of rest and relaxation, educational activities, PMR, cognitive behavioral techniques, pharmacological interventions, psychotherapy, biofeedback techniques, reading, hypnosis, therapeutic massage, acupuncture, and other meditation techniques.

The results of this review show that the control groups employed in meditation research are many and various, and it is unknown how comparable they are across studies. Meditation practices are disparate with regard to specific components, and there is the potential for well-designed studies to employ disparate control groups. Authors of future studies need to design control groups with a clear vision of the research question and the hypothesized mechanism and full consideration of how threats to validity may be best addressed for a given meditation practice.

# **Types of Study Populations**

The vast majority of studies on the effects of meditation practices have been conducted in healthy populations as compared to clinical populations. It can be argued that studies of healthy individuals are useful to assess how meditation practices prevent certain clinical conditions and enhance wellness and well-being. However, studying the therapeutic effects of meditation practices in a healthy population does not provide a clear picture of their effectiveness as therapeutic interventions in healthcare. Clinical studies of meditation practices have addressed conditions with high mortality and morbidity rates, or burden of disease including hypertension, cardiovascular disorders, substance abuse, anxiety disorders, cancer, asthma, chronic pain, type II DM, and fibromyalgia. The first three conditions were among the six leading sources of premature death and disability in the United States in the mid-1900s and are projected to continue to be so to the year 2020, as measured by disability-adjusted life years (DALYs).

# **Types of Outcome Measures**

Studies varied widely in their use of outcome measures. Outcomes of physiological functions, particularly cardiovascular measures, were the most frequently studied. Psychosocial outcomes (i.e., psychiatric and psychological symptoms, measures of personality and positive outcomes) and outcomes related with clinical events were also frequently assessed. Compared to physiological and psychosocial outcomes, little has been explored on cognitive and neuropsychological functions. Some authors have argued that relatively gross outcomes such as physiological measures have taken prominence in meditation research.<sup>354</sup> However, considering that the close interdependence of the mind and body should be taken into account when evaluating the responses to meditation practices, more subjective and experiential variables<sup>354</sup> are paramount to evaluate the effects of these mind-body techniques.

# **Evidence on the Efficacy and Effectiveness of Meditation Practices**

We have summarized the evidence regarding the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices for the three most studied conditions in the scientific literature: hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, and substance abuse.

We conducted a series of direct and indirect meta-analyses comparing a variety of meditation practices versus a comparison group in hypertensive patients. We provided pooled estimates for the following comparisons: TM<sup>®</sup> versus HE, TM<sup>®</sup> versus PMR, RR versus BF, Qi Gong versus WL, Yoga versus NT, Yoga versus HE, and Zen Buddhist meditation versus blood pressure checks.

A few studies of poor methodological quality were available for each comparison, mostly reporting nonsignificant results (TM® had no advantages over HE to improve measures of SBP, DBP, body weight, heart rate, stress, anger, self-efficacy, cholesterol, dietary intake, and level of physical activity in hypertensive patients; RR was not shown to be superior to BF in reducing blood pressure in hypertensive patients; Yoga did not produce clinical or statistically significant effects in blood pressure when compared to NT; Zen Buddhist meditation was not better than blood pressure checks to reduce SBP in hypertensive patients; Yoga was not better than physical exercise to reduce body weight in patients with cardiovascular disorder. When indirect meta-analysis was used, we did not find differences between MBSR and Yoga to control anxiety symptoms in cardiovascular patients. It is unknown whether these are truly "negative findings" (i.e., one cannot say that there is evidence of no effect) or if there is a lack of power to detect a statistically significant result due to the low number of studies included in the meta-analyses (i.e., we can say that there is no evidence of effect).

A few statistically significant results favoring meditation practices were found: both TM<sup>®</sup> versus PMR, and Qi Gong versus WL for DBP and SBP, Zen Buddhist meditation versus blood pressure checks for DBP, and Yoga versus HE to reduce stress. The positive results from these meta-analyses need to be interpreted with caution, as biases, such as expectancy bias, cannot be excluded.

For the majority of the comparisons, meta-analyses were derived from only two open-label trials; therefore, performance bias and detection bias may have contributed to an overestimate of

the treatment effect. In some instances, the appropriateness of the comparison group was questionable (e.g., Qi Gong versus WL)

Other reviews have summarized the evidence on the effects of Tai Chi in hypertension, and on TM<sup>®</sup> for hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, and substance abuse. Differences in selection criteria and review methods preclude a direct comparison of the results among the reviews.

Wang et al.<sup>29</sup> assessed the evidence on the effects of Tai Chi in hypertension and concluded that Tai Chi produces benefits in cardiovascular function. The review included evidence from two studies published in the non-English literature, and another study in a population of normal elderly, not individuals diagnosed with hypertension. Differences in the selection criteria of study participants and language of publication may explain the differences in the findings between Wang et al.<sup>29</sup> and our review.

Walton et al. 357 reviewed the literature on the effectiveness of TM® in the treatment or prevention of cardiovascular diseases and concluded that TM® produced reductions in blood pressure, carotid artery intima-media thickness, myocardial ischemia, left ventricular hypertrophy, mortality, and other relevant outcomes. The authors adopted a qualitative approach for the synthesis of the evidence. The Walton review 357 did not report on the use of systematic literature searches or on the assessment of the methodological quality of the evidence, but adopted a methodological approach where significant findings were emphasized within studies. Differences between Walton's conclusions and the results reported in our review may be due to differences in the methodological approaches to synthesize the evidence. We conducted comprehensive searches of the scientific literature and assessed the methodological quality of the trials. Our synthesis of the evidence combined a qualitative approach with quantitative meta-analytic methods that assessed mean treatment effects in relation to the between-study variability of treatment effects. Furthermore, differences in the selection criteria (i.e., type of participants, diagnostic criteria, publication year) for the inclusion of studies may also explain differences in the conclusions of the reviews.

Canter et al.<sup>25</sup> conducted a systematic review on the effects of TM<sup>®</sup> for blood pressure. Six trials were identified but only one evaluated the effect of TM<sup>®</sup> in hypertensive individuals, whereas the others were conducted in adults with normal blood pressure and adolescent populations. The authors concluded that there was insufficient good quality evidence to conclude whether or not TM<sup>®</sup> has a positive effect on blood pressure.

Evidence on the effects of TM<sup>®</sup> on substance abuse has been summarized in two reviews. <sup>22,358</sup> Alexander et al. <sup>358</sup> conducted a meta-analysis of 19 studies to provide a single estimate of treatment effect. The review included a variety of study designs such as cross-sectional studies, "retrospective studies," "longitudinal studies," and "experiments with random assignment." <sup>358</sup> Effect sizes across studies were provided for categories of study designs ("well-designed" studies, cross sectional studies, and general population studies). Gelderloos et al. <sup>22</sup> conducted a review of 24 studies of TM<sup>®</sup> for preventing and treating substance abuse. The authors concluded that "taken together", the studies demonstrate an improvement in psychosocial outcomes. The review did not use a systematic approach to select and appraise the literature and made no distinctions among the variety of study designs that were considered.

Other systematic reviews have synthesized the evidence on the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices for conditions other than hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, and substance abuse. However, it was beyond the scope of this report to examine conditions other than hypertension, cardiovascular diseases and substance abuse. Other systematic reviews have examined the effects of Tai Chi for a variety of medical diseases, 359 chronic conditions, 29

rheumatoid arthritis,<sup>360</sup> improvement of aerobic capacity,<sup>361</sup> and elderly populations.<sup>362</sup> Studies on the effects of Yoga in depression<sup>145</sup> and anxiety,<sup>363</sup> and MBSR on health status measures<sup>18</sup> and a variety of medical conditions<sup>7</sup> have been also reviewed. Finally, other reviews have assessed the effects of a variety of meditation practices such as Qi Gong in Chinese cancer patients,<sup>364</sup> RR in adult patients,<sup>365</sup> meditation therapy programs for anxiety disorders,<sup>19</sup> and the effects of TM<sup>®</sup> on cognitive function<sup>23</sup> and psychological health.<sup>366</sup>

It is expected that systematic reviews have heterogeneity in their results when they bring together studies that are both clinically and methodologically diverse. Statistical and clinical heterogeneity constituted a frequent and considerable problem when pooling the results, and, in some cases, it precluded an effort to summarize data across the studies. Clinical heterogeneity was due to differences across the trials in the characteristics of study populations, the implementation of the meditation practice, outcome measurement, and followup period. Clinical heterogeneity may have explained why trials with different types of participants, interventions, or outcomes showed different effects. When statistical heterogeneity exists, pooled results are uncertain or conditional. Measurements

The poor methodological quality of the trials limits the strength of inference regarding the observed treatment effects reported in this review and constitutes a possible shortcoming of the meta-analysis.<sup>367</sup> The lack of description of the methods of allocation concealment, randomization, description of withdrawals and dropouts per treatment group, the absence of double blinding the interventions, and the use of incompatible or inappropriate control groups undermine the results of many clinical studies. Therefore, researchers are advised against making firm statements regarding treatment effects based on the quantitative summaries reported in this review.

Some factors have impeded the scientific progress regarding the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices in healthcare. Few studies have described the meditation practices or control procedures in sufficient detail, which prevents a sensible analysis of the observed differences in treatment effects for some classes of meditation practices. Other limitations include insufficient information regarding the characteristics of the trainer's competence and experience, the lack of an accurate assessment of participants' expectancy, compliance and motivation, and the paucity of descriptions of the statistical power of the intervention effect.

# Evidence on the Role of Effect Modifiers for the Practice of Meditation

The role of effect modifiers in the practice of meditation is a topic that has so far been neglected in the scientific literature. Evidence from RCTs and NRCTs regarding the interaction of meditation practices with other variables in populations of patients with hypertension, cardiovascular disorders, or substance abuse is scarce. A few studies conducted exploratory post hoc analyses (i.e., a subgroup analysis, multiple regression, or analysis of variance) that were intended to be hypothesis generating. Due to the small sample sizes in the studies, there were small numbers of subjects in each of the variable subgroups, lowering the power to detect any relationship with the outcomes produced by the practice of meditation. The lack of evidence on the role of effect modifiers has been pointed out by other authors. <sup>17,354</sup> Variables that may be important for the therapeutic effect of meditation practices include individual characteristics of

the meditator, characteristics and training experience of the instructor, and the role of motivation and expectancy. 17,354

# Evidence on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices

We have summarized the evidence from RCTs, NRCTs and before-and-after studies regarding the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices. Our meta-analysis revealed that the most consistent and strongest physiological effects of meditation practices in healthy populations occur in the reduction of heart rate, blood pressure, and LDL-C. The strongest neuropsychological effect is in the increase of verbal creativity. There is also some evidence from before-and-after studies to support the hypothesis that certain meditation techniques decrease visual reaction time, intraocular pressure, and increase breath holding time. Though over half of the combined effect estimates are not statistically significant, the potential clinical significance of these estimates must be carefully considered. However, all of the studies included in the meta-analyses were of low methodological quality and, for this reason, the results should be interpreted cautiously.

Of the 311 studies reporting physiological and neuropsychological outcomes, only 53 (17 percent) were eligible for meta-analysis. Though small, this proportion is even smaller when one considers the 813 studies pertaining to research on the therapeutic use of meditation practices included in topic II. Some investigators have claimed that there are many empirical studies that have shown that meditation practices are effective at treating stress-related states, including reducing heart rate, breathing, and blood pressure. In addition, previous literature reviews have noted the seemingly large number of research papers that purport to show the therapeutic benefit of meditation practices. This review has shown that there are startlingly few scientific studies that could be statistically combined to provide evidence on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices. While other investigators have noted the need for rigorous meta-analyses of the therapeutic use of meditation practices, 3369 to our knowledge there are only two previous English-language meta-analyses that examine the physiological effects of meditation practices and none examining the cognitive or neuropsychological effects. However, the two meta-analyses cover neither the range of meditation practices examined here nor the breadth of outcomes.

The clinical and methodological diversity of the studies make estimating the effects of meditation practices difficult. This difficulty is reinforced when one considers that 25 of the 44 (57 percent) outcome measures examined in the analyses had levels of heterogeneity that suggest important clinical differences between the studies. In addition, 8 of these 25 (32 percent) had heterogeneity measures greater than 80 percent, making overall effect estimates unwise because the implied clinical among study populations would render the overall estimates spurious.

The overall low methodological quality of the studies indicates that most suffered from methodological problems that may produce overestimations of the treatment effects or compromise the generalizability of the study results. Empirical evidence has demonstrated that trials "that were not double blinded yielded larger estimates of treatment effects compared with trials in which authors reported double blinding (odds ratios exaggerated, on average, by 17 percent)". <sup>40,370</sup> Though difficult to do in studies on meditation practices, appropriate blinding is a

special source of concern where an expectation of the efficacy of the practice under study on the part of the subject and assessor may bias outcome measures.

The low rate of reporting of withdrawals and dropouts and the reasons for dropping out are also of concern because this makes the assessment of the comparability between the intervention and control groups difficult. An additional concern is that patients who drop out may differ in important ways from those who complete the meditation regimen (e.g., being favorably predisposed to meditation practice), but, without adequate reporting, these differences remain hidden and their effects on outcomes remain unknown.

Regarding the predominant use of healthy subjects in the included studies, though of benefit for ascertaining the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices in this group, the use of healthy subjects limits the generalizability of the findings and provides information that is unlikely to be of use to clinicians who normally treat patients with specific health conditions.

Finally, the results of this meta-analysis indicate that research on the effects of meditation practices has been hindered by the use of weak study designs, specifically before-and-after studies (also known as single group pretest-postest designs and uncontrolled trials). Although the before-and-after study is simple and practical, it has been argued that results from such study designs be considered circumstantial evidence, <sup>371</sup> that is, hypothesis generating for further research using more rigorous study designs. The lack of a concurrent control group and the resulting inability to control for temporal trends, regression to the mean, and sensitivity to methodological features make it difficult to ascertain the true causal effect of a meditation practice. Clinical outcomes—whether good or bad—may be a result of factors other than the practice of meditation. For this reason, the estimates of the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices that are made on the basis of single-group studies should be considered carefully.

# **Strengths and Limitations**

This evidence report is a systematic and comprehensive review of the indexed scientific literature available on the effectiveness of meditation practices supplemented by a search for relevant gray literature, abstracts from scientific meetings, dissertations and theses, reference lists, and trial registries. As noted previously, the need for rigorous meta-analyses of the therapeutic use of meditation practices has been recognized by other researchers. To our knowledge, there has been no other meta-analysis of the effectiveness of meditation practices that covers the range of meditation techniques examined here or the breadth of health outcomes. In addition, the relatively large number of included studies reported in dissertations (10 percent of all studies) may have reduced the potential effects of publication bias (i.e., the tendency for studies with positive outcomes to be published more frequently). We were also able to identify and exclude from the review a significant number of multiple publications that may have also affected the results of our meta-analyses and their conclusions.

The assessment of the methodological quality for all study designs is also a strength of this review. Methodological quality may be defined in various ways.<sup>372</sup> Our approach to the methodological quality of the studies on meditation practices focused on an assessment of the internal validity of the studies, as recommended by several researchers.<sup>42,373-375</sup> Various criteria to assess methodological quality of studies are available in the scientific literature,<sup>376</sup> and there is

no consensus on which quality assessment tool can be recommended without reservation.<sup>50</sup> For the assessment of the methodological quality of RCTs, we have chosen two assessment tools that have well-established face validity, and for which a relationship with bias has been proven in empirical studies.<sup>40,350</sup> The selection of the Jadad scale has relative merit since it uses a simple and easy to understand approach that incorporates the most important individual components of internal validity: randomization, blinding, and handling of patient attrition. Based on empirical evidence and theoretical considerations, these aspects should always be assessed when evaluating the quality of an RCT.<sup>350</sup>

The most important dimension of methodological quality is internal validity, defined as the confidence that the design, performance, and report of a trial prevent or reduce bias in the outcomes. The have not addressed in our approach other important aspects of good research practice—those contributing to studies' external validity and adherence to ethical procedures. Although such factors are important and help to put study findings in context, they may not be directly related to internal validity, but may contribute indirectly to it. It is unknown how factors related with external validity may bias study results, and, therefore, research syntheses' findings. Certainly, the external validity of a trial is a very important concept that it is worthy of consideration in future reviews; however, it was not covered in our methodological assessment.

We have adopted a model for quality assessment of research on meditation based on stringent criteria of research methodology. Evaluation of CAM treatments, including meditation, requires a stringent and systematic approach. The Jadad scale is the most commonly used quality scale for RCTs in pharmacological and nonpharmacological reviews. The decision to use both the Jadad scale and the concealment of allocation approach reflects our emphasis on using the same methodological standards to assess the quality of research in meditation as applied to other areas of CAM research.

We did not make any decisions in terms of inclusion or exclusion of studies in the review or in the meta-analyses based on the overall Jadad score. We also analyzed the methodological quality of the RCTs by the individual components of the scale (i.e., percentage of studies that satisfied the Jadad criteria).

Though no reliable and valid instruments have been developed for the assessment of observational studies and before-and-after studies, the instruments used here serve to indicate important potential methodological weaknesses, tempering the conclusions that may be drawn, and highlighting areas in which future research might improve.

Despite its strength, the use of nonstandardized quality assessment instruments may be questioned. However, the assessment criteria were not used to produce an overall quality score or to exclude studies from the review, but only to draw out commonalities in potential methodological problems. Because of the potential methodological weaknesses of the studies and the use of weak study designs, the question of how meditation achieves its effects remains almost as open to debate as it did over 25 years ago. 379

It is unlikely that all of the meditation research meeting our inclusion criteria has been identified and acquired. In particular, a number of Indian journals have not been indexed and are difficult to acquire, particularly Yoga specialty journals. We did not contact either any religious/spiritual organization to acquire information regarding unpublished studies. Nevertheless, it is likely that the vast majority of publications that satisfy our inclusion criteria have been examined and that the general trends reported in this review are sufficiently representative of the research on meditation practices.<sup>337</sup>

Peer reviewers have provided references to potentially relevant studies that were not identified during the development of this report. To increase the transparency of this report, we have collated the references of these studies following the "References and Included Studies" section. Despite the comprehensiveness of our search strategies for the literature search, there are inevitable gaps in literature retrieval, especially with respect to gray literature when conducting systematic reviews. The impact of the potentially relevant studies identified by the peer reviewers should be weighed against the number of studies that were actually retrieved and included.

The restriction of included studies to English-language publications is of special concern in this topic because of the origin of many of these techniques in non-English speaking countries. In light of a recent bibliometric study on Yoga that reported that there is a large amount of research by Indian researchers, <sup>337</sup>it is possible that there is a substantial evidence base on Yoga that remains untapped. In addition, it is likely that a significant amount of the research on Tai Chi<sup>29</sup> and Qi Gong has been published in the Chinese language. However, despite this potential weakness, some research has shown that compared to language inclusive meta-analyses, language restricted meta-analyses did not differ with respect to the estimate of benefit of the effectiveness of an intervention, and there is no evidence that language restricted meta-analyses lead to biased estimates of intervention effectiveness. <sup>380</sup>

This review may be also be criticized for ignoring important differences between meditation practices and techniques by using categories for studies using "single entity" practices, e.g., TM<sup>®</sup>, RR, and CSM, and for those practices that are made up of a broad array of techniques, e.g., Yoga, Tai Chi, and Qi Gong. Thus while the meta-analytic techniques used here may be appropriate for standardized "single entity" practices, such an approach, when used to combine complex interventions, may produce spurious or misleading results. For example, one of the problems of combining the results of studies that use different yogic techniques is that "fine grained" descriptions of many of these techniques are not reported. This lack of reporting increases the possibility of pooling the results for yogic practices that were putatively designed to have different effects.

To address this potential problem, we have used measures of heterogeneity to help identify those groups of studies that may differ in important clinical characteristics as well as examining the descriptions of the techniques employed in the studies. The combining of results was based on these "fine grained" descriptions; however, poor reporting of meditation practices employed in studies leaves open the possibility that such combinations may have occurred. In addition, caution should be taken in concluding that the effects of complex or composite interventions are due to the practice of meditation rather than to other main components of the treatment such as physical exercise.

The approach adopted here of combining the results of only two studies may be considered inappropriate by some researchers because it is unlikely that only two studies provide strong evidence with respect to the general direction or effect size of the intervention. Also, if the results of two studies differ in direction of effect, at least one more study is needed to help strengthen the evidence regarding the true direction of the effect. However, it must be remembered that one of the principal reasons for conducting a meta-analysis is not only for summarizing the discrepant results of a large number of studies but also for overcoming the imprecision resulting from small sample sizes. By combining several studies with small samples, the overall estimate provides a more precise estimate of effect than either of the studies on their

own. Thus, combining only two studies can provide an informative picture of the likely effect of an intervention.

Finally, a main weakness of this report is the lack of assessment of the appropriateness of controls. The need for appropriate controls, described by some researchers as the most difficult conundrum for designing research trials in meditation, second related to the difficulties in designing rigorous double-blind meditation trials. Though some controls may be adequate to compare the relative effectiveness of two different interventions (e.g., rest meditation versus quiet rest), such controls may not be adequate placebo controls needed to assess the effects of meditation interventions. Though we are unaware of assessment tools developed to specifically address this issue as it pertains to meditation practices, the comprehensive categorization given in this report of the kinds of controls used in meditation research provides future researchers with a starting point for examining the appropriateness of controls for various therapeutic meditation practices.

#### **Future Research**

Future research in practices of meditation has several challenges. First, there is a need to develop a consensus on a working definition of meditation applicable to a heterogeneous group of practices. The application of consensus techniques, such as the Delphi method used in this report, is one approach to refine operational criteria and to standardize terms with the goal of achieving consistency among the characterizations of meditation practices. The validity and reliability of any operational definition applied to diverse meditation practices should be thoroughly investigated. Another area of future inquiry consists of systematically comparing the effects of different meditation practices that research shows have promise.

We have assessed the quality of meditation research from studies that have been published between 1956 and 2005. Half of them have been published after 1994. We did not set any restrictions in terms of the year of publication of the included studies, and it is possible that the standard for a rigorous study in the earlier years of research might be different before 1994 than that of the past 15 years. Future reviews should examine how the quality of studies on meditation practices has evolved over time and particularly whether guidelines such as CONSORT have improved the reporting of RCTs.

We have analyzed the evidence of the therapeutic effects of meditation practices for the three most studied conditions identified in the scientific literature. Evidence of the effects of meditation practices for other conditions frequently reported in the scientific literature (i.e., a variety of mental health problems such as anxiety disorders and depression, and musculoskeletal conditions such as fibromyalgia and chronic pain)) should be evaluated in systematic reviews in the near future. Further reviews should address the effects of meditation practices as strategies to enhance wellness and well-being in healthy population.

In light of the few intervention studies that provided direct comparisons of meditation practices or that used similar control groups, special attention should be paid to developing studies that provide a more accurate assessment of the efficacy and effectiveness of meditation practices, both against standard therapies and against each other. The appropriate selection of controls is also paramount if progress is to be made with respect to determining the effects of meditation practices. Future research should be directed toward investigating the unique challenges that the studies on meditation practices present in designing appropriate controls. In

addition, more research should be done on the "dose response" of meditation practices to determine what may be effective study durations and to help standardize courses of therapeutic meditation.

As noted earlier, blinded allocation to meditation treatments may be difficult, but it is not impossible. There are many ways in which to circumvent the difficulties in blinding the experimenter many of which rely on "creative" (i.e., nonstandard methods). These suggestions follow other proposed modifications of the traditional double-blind methodology such as the "dual-blinding" approach (a methodology where the subject and an external evaluator, but not the practitioner, are blind to treatment) <sup>382</sup> Given the strength of the RCTdesign in providing estimates of effectiveness, it appears important to develop research in this domain instead of trying to change the instruments with which the quality of research is assessed.

NCCAM is striving to elevate CAM research to a higher standard, and we think that creative solutions to the difficulties of conducting randomized, double-blind controlled trials should be applied to meditation research.

Key methodological issues in the study of meditation using an evidence-based approach should be further explored through the analysis of important factors such as the impact of publication bias in meditation research (e.g., positive outcome bias, time to publication bias, empirical evidence of relationships between study quality and effect estimates in meditation research, the impact of language bias in systematic reviews of meditation practices, the impact of year of publication of primary studies on pooled estimates in meditation research, trends of quality of primary studies and systematic reviews in meditation, and use of quality assessment tools in meditation research). The effect of report of funding and disclosure of conflict of interest and positive outcomes also merits formal evaluation.

Because of the difficulty of determining causation using uncontrolled before-and-after designs, it is recommended that these study designs be avoided in future research on the effectiveness of meditation practices. Researchers should aim to employ designs and analytic strategies that optimize the ability to make causal inferences (in some cases this may require the use of uncontrolled before-and-after designs). Although it is important to suggest conducting more high quality studies based on the standards for RCTs, it is also important to develop alternative study designs and analytic tools that can incorporate the special features of meditation practices to fully investigate the possible effects of these practices. As well, future studies would benefit from having larger samples with concurrent controlled designs, using disease-specific measures and providing clearer descriptions of intervention components. The quality of reporting of meditation research would be improved by a wider dissemination and stricter enforcement of the CONSORT guidelines within the CAM community.

# **Conclusions**

The field of research on meditation techniques and their therapeutic applications has been clouded by confusion over what constitutes meditation and by a lack of methodological rigor in much of the research. Further research needs to be directed toward distinguishing the effects and characteristics of the many different techniques falling under the rubric "meditation." The single and multimodality meditation practices included in this report were categorized for pragmatic reasons, but specific attention must be paid to developing definitions for these techniques that are both conceptually and operationally useful. Such definitions are a prerequisite for scientific

research of the highest quality. Research of higher quality is vital to respond appropriately to the many persistent questions in this area. The dearth of high-quality evidence highlights the need for greater care in defining and choosing the interventions and in choosing controls, populations, and outcomes that permit comparison of studies across techniques regarding their therapeutic effects. More care in these choices will allow effects to be estimated with greater reliability and validity. More randomized trials that draw on the experience of investigators or consultants with a strong background in clinical and basic research should be conducted. As a whole, firm conclusions on the effects of meditation practices in healthcare cannot be drawn based on the available evidence. However, the results analyzed from methodologically stronger research include findings sufficiently favorable to emphasize the value of further research in this field. It is imperative that future studies on meditation practices be more rigorous in design, execution, and analysis, and in the reporting of the results. Greater importance should be placed on the reporting of study methods and providing detailed descriptions of the training of the participants, qualifications of meditation instructors, and on reporting the criteria and methods used to determine a successful meditation practice.

### **References and Included Studies**

- Walters JD. The art and science of Raja yoga: fourteen steps to higher awareness. Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass Publishers; 2002.
- West MA. The psychosomatics of meditation. J Psychosom Res 1980;24(5):265-73.
- Perez de Albeniz A, Holmes J. Meditation: concepts, effects and uses in therapy. Int J Psychother 2000;5(1):49-58.
- Pollard I. Meditation and brain function: a review. Eubios J Asian Int Bioethics 2004;14:28-34.
- Deurr M. A powerful silence: the role of meditation and other contemplative practices in American life and work. Northampton, MA: Center for Contemplative Mind in Society; 2004.
- Salmon PG, Santorelli SF, Kabat-Zinn J.
   Intervention elements promoting adherence to mindfulness-based stress reduction programs in the clinical behavioral medicine setting. In: Shumaker SA, Schron EB, Ockene JK, et al., eds. The handbook of health behavior change. 2nd ed. New York: Springer Publishing Co.; 1998. p. 239-68.
- 7. Baer RA. Mindfulness training as a clinical intervention: a conceptual and empirical review. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2003;10(2):125-43.
- Andresen J. Meditation meets behavioural medicine: the story of experimental research on meditation. J Consciousness Stud 2000;7(11-12):17-73.
- Cardoso R, De Souza E, Camano L, et al. Meditation in health: an operational definition. Brain Res Brain Res Protoc 2004;14(1):58-60.
- Walsh R, Shapiro SL. The meeting of meditative disciplines and Western psychology: a mutually enriching dialogue. Am Psychol 2006;61(3):227-39.
- Craven JL. Meditation and psychotherapy. Can J Psychiatry 1989;34(7):648-53.
- 12. Manocha R. Why meditation? Aust Fam Physician 2000;29(12):1135-8.

- Kokoszka A. Axiological aspects of comparing psychotherapy and meditation. Int J Psychosom 1990;37(1-4):78-81.
- Delmonte MM. Meditation and anxiety reduction: a literature review. Clin Psychol Rev 1985;5(2):91-102.
- Rutschman JR. Effects of techniques of receptive meditation and relaxation on attentional processing. Can Undergraduate J Cogn Sci 2004;7:6-16.
- Bonadonna R. Meditation's impact on chronic illness. Holist Nurs Pract 2003;17(6):309-19.
- Caspi O, Burleson KO. Methodological challenges in meditation research. Adv Mind Body Med 2005;21(1):4-11.
- Grossman P, Niemann L, Schmidt S, et al. Mindfulness-based stress reduction and health benefits: a meta-analysis. J Psychosom Res 2004;57(1):35-43.
- Krisanaprakornkit T, Piyavhatkul N, Krisanaprakornkit W, et al. Meditation therapy for anxiety disorders. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2004;(4).
- Bishop SR. What do we really know about mindfulness-based stress reduction? Psychosom Med 2002;64(1):71-83.
- 21. Swinyard CA, Chaube S, Sutton DB.
  Neurological and behavioral aspects of
  Transcendental Meditation relevant to
  alcoholism: a review. Ann N Y Acad Sci
  1974;233:162-73.
- 22. Gelderloos P, Walton KG, Orme-Johnson DW, et al. Effectiveness of the Transcendental Meditation program in preventing and treating substance misuse: a review. Int J Addict 1991:26(3):293-325.
- Canter PH, Ernst E. The cumulative effects of Transcendental Meditation on cognitive function

   a systematic review of randomised controlled trials. Wien Klin Wochenschr 2003;115(21-22):758-66.
- Barnes VA, Schneider RH, Alexander CN, et al. Stress, stress reduction, and hypertension in African Americans: an updated review. J Natl Med Assoc 1997;89(7):464-76.

- Canter PH, Ernst E. Insufficient evidence to conclude whether or not Transcendental Meditation decreases blood pressure: results of a systematic review of randomized clinical trials. J Hypertens 2004;22(11):2049-54.
- King MS, Carr T, D'Cruz C. Transcendental Meditation, hypertension and heart disease. Aust Fam Physician 2002;31(2):164-8.
- Astin JA, Shapiro SL, Eisenberg DM, et al. Mind-body medicine: state of the science, implications for practice. J Am Board Fam Med 2003;16(2):131-47.
- Astin JA. Mind-body therapies for the management of pain. Clin J Pain 2004;20(1):27-32.
- Wang C, Collet JP, Lau J. The effect of tai chi on health outcomes in patients with chronic conditions: a systematic review. Arch Intern Med 2004;164(5):493-501.
- Bilkis MR, Mark KA. Mind-body medicine. Practical applications in dermatology. Arch Dermatol 1998;134(11):1437-41.
- Coker KH. Meditation and prostate cancer: integrating a mind/body intervention with traditional therapies. Semin Urol Oncol 1999;17(2):111-8.
- Woolfolk RL. Psychophysiological correlates of meditation. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1975;32(10):1326-33.
- Delmonte MM. Physiological concomitants of meditation practice. Int J Psychosom 1984;31(4):23-36.
- 34. West MA, ed. The psychology of meditation. New York: Oxford University Press; 1987.
- 35. Bogart G. The use of meditation in psychotherapy: a review of the literature. Am J Psychiatry 1991;45(3):383-412.
- Hasson F, Keeney S, McKenna H. Research guidelines for the Delphi survey technique. Adv Nurs 2000;32:1008-15.
- 37. Crisp J, Pelletier D, Duffield C, et al. The Delphi method? Nurs Res 1997;46:116-8.
- 38. Landis JR, Koch GG. The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. Biometrics 1977;33:159-74.

- Seigel DG, Podgor MJ, Remaley NA. Acceptable values of kappa for comparison of two groups. Am J Epidemiol 1992;135:571-8.
- Schulz KF, Chalmers I, Hayes RJ, et al. Empirical evidence of bias: dimensions of methodological quality associated with estimates of treatment effects in controlled trials. JAMA 1995;273:408-12.
- 41. Altman D, Schulz K. Concealing treatment allocation in randomised trials. BMJ 2001;326:446-47.
- 42. Jadad AR, Moore RA, Carroll D, et al. Assessing the quality of reports of randomized clinical trials: is blinding necessary? Control Clin Trials 1996;17:1-12.
- Moher D, Pham B, Jones A, et al. Does quality of reports of randomised trials affect estimates of intervention efficacy reported in meta-analyses? Lancet 1998;352:609-13.
- 44. Wells GA, Shea B, O'Connell D, et al. The Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) for assessing the quality of nonrandomised studies in meta-analyses [web page]. Available at: Ottawa Health Research Institute. Research Programs. http://www.ohri.ca/programs/clinical\_epidemiology/oxford.htm. Accessed Aug 15, 2005.
- 45. Juni P, Witschi A, Bloch R, et al. The hazards of scoring the quality of clinical trials for meta-analysis. JAMA 1999;282:1054-60.
- Cho MK, Bero LA. The quality of drug studies published in symposium proceedings. Ann Intern Med 1996;124:485-9.
- 47. Gunaratana H. Mindfulness in plain English. Boston: Wisdom Publications; 1993.
- 48. Kabat-Zinn J. Full catastrophe living: using the wisdom of your body and mind to face stress, pain, and illness. New York: Dell Publishing; 1990.
- 49. Thomson RF. Zazen and psychotherapeutic presence. Am J Psychiatry 2000;54(4):531-48.
- Higgins JPT, Green S, eds. Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions 4.2.6 [updated September 2006]. In: The Cochrane Library. Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.; 2006.

- Deeks JJ, Altman DG, Bradburn MJ. Statistical methods for examining heterogeneity and combining results from several studies in metaanalysis. In: Egger M, Smith GD, Altman DG, eds. Systematic reviews in health care: metaanalysis in context. 3rd ed. London: BMJ Publishing Group; 2001. p. 285-312.
- Deeks J. Systematic reviews of evaluations of diagnostic and screening tests studies. In: Egger M, Smith GD, Altman D, eds. Systematic reviews in health care: meta-analysis in context. London: BMJ Books; 2001. p. 264-9.
- Sutton AJ, Abrams KR, Jones DR, et al. Methods for meta-analysis in medical research. London: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.; 2000.
- Hedges LV, Olkin I. Statistical methods for metaanalysis. London: Academic Press; 1985.
- Song F, Altman DG, Glenny AM, et al. Validity
  of indirect comparison for estimating efficacy of
  competing interventions: empirical evidence from
  published meta-analyses. BMJ
  2003;326(7387):472-76.
- Lu G, Ades AE. Combination of direct and indirect evidence in mixed treatment comparisons. Stat Med 2004;23(2020):3105-24.
- Gilks WR, Richardson S, Spiegelhalter DJ.
   Markov chain Monte Carlo in practice. London: Chapman & Hall; 1996.
- 58. Higgins JPT, Thompson SG. Quantifying heterogeneity in a meta-analysis. Stat Med 2002;21(11):1539-58.
- Greenland S. A critical look at some popular meta-analysis methods. Am J Epidemiol 1994;140:290-6.
- Dwyer T, Couper D, Walter SD. Sources of heterogeneity in the meta-analysis of observational studies: the example of SUDS and sleeping position. J Clin Epidemiol 2001;54:440-7.
- 61. Clarke M, Oxman AD. Cochrane reviewers' handbook 4.1 [web page]. Jun 2000; Available at: Cochrane Collaboration. http://www.cochrane.dk/cochrane/handbook/handbook.htm. Accessed May 5, 2005.
- Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. Kundalini yoga meditation: techniques specific for psychiatric disorders, couples therapy, and personal growth. New York: W.W. Norton & Co.; 2007.

- Duval S, Tweedie R. A non-parametric "trim and fill" method of accounting for publication bias in meta-analysis. JAMA 2000;95:89-98.
- 64. Carrington P. Freedom in meditation. Garden City, NY: Anchor Press/Doubleday; 1977.
- 65. Kaplan S. Meditation, restoration, and the management of mental fatigue. Environ Behav 2001;33(4):480-506.
- Chang JC, Chiung W. Effect of meditation on music performance anxiety [dissertation]. New York: Columbia University; 2001.
- 67. Wang HM. Length and frequency of practice of Zen meditation and personality for meditators in Taiwan (China) [dissertation]. College Station, TX: Texas A & M University; 2000.
- 68. Benson H. The relaxation response. New York: William Morrow and Company, Inc.; 1975.
- 69. Holmes DS. Meditation and somatic arousal reduction: a review of the experimental evidence. Am Psychol 1984;39(1):1-10.
- Tloczynski J , Tantriella M. A comparison of the effects of Zen breath meditation or relaxation on college adjustment. Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1998;41(1):32-43.
- Sri Swami Sivinanda. Concentration and meditation. 5th ed. Himalayas: The Divine Life Society; 1975.
- Sagula DA. Varying treatment duration in a mindfulness meditation stress reduction program for chronic pain patients [dissertation]. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University; 2000.
- 73. Graves LA. A theoretical framework for the use of mindfulness meditation in the practice of pastoral counseling from the perspectives of transpersonal psychology and process theology [dissertation]. Claremont, CA: Claremont School of Theology; 1999.
- Kuna DJ. Meditation and work. Vocational Guidance Q 1975;23(4):342-6.
- 75. Rios RJ. The effect of hypnosis and meditation on state and trait anxiety and locus of control [dissertation]. College Station, TX: Texas A & M University; 1979.
- Alexander CN. Transcendental Meditation. In: Corsini RJ, ed. Encyclopedia of psychology. 2nd ed. Vol. 3. New York: John Wiley and Sons; 1994. p. 545-6.

- Delmonte MM. Personality characteristics and regularity of meditation. Psychol Rep 1980;46(3 Pt 1):703-12.
- 78. Yucel HG. The effects of the practice of the Transcendental Meditation technique and exercise on cognitive and psychophysiological measures in the elderly [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 2001.
- Schneider RH, Castillo-Richmond A, Alexander CN. Behavioral treatment of hypertensive heart disease in African Americans: rationale and design of a randomized controlled trial. Behav Med 2001;27(2):83-95.
- Farrow JT, Hebert JR. Breath suspension during the Transcendental Meditation technique. Psychosom Med 1982;44(2):133-53.
- 81. Maharishi Mahesh Yogi. Transcendental Meditation (originally titled: The science of being and art of living). New York: Penguin; 2001.
- Maharishi Mahesh Yogi. On the Bhagavad-Gita.
   A new translation and commentary: chapters 1-6.
   Baltimore: Penguin; 1967.
- 83. Telles S, Desiraju T. Autonomic changes in brahmakumaris raja yoga meditation. Int J Psychophysiol 1993;15(2):147-52.
- 84. Ferguson PC. The psychobiology of Transcendental Meditation: a review. J Altered States Consciousness 1975;2(1):15-36.
- Schneider RH, Alexander CN, Salerno JW, et al. Disease prevention and health promotion in the aging with a traditional system of natural medicine: Maharishi vedic medicine. J Aging Health 2002;14(1):57-78.
- 86. Broome JRN. Stress management and organisation development: effects of Transcendental Meditation on psychological, physiological, and organisational variables at the worksite [dissertation]. Cape Town, South Africa: University of Cape Town; 1995.
- 87. Jedrczak A, Miller D, Antoniou M. Transcendental Meditation and health: an overview of experimental research and clinical experience. Health Promot 1987;2(4):369-76.
- Morse DR. An exploratory study of the use of meditation alone and in combination with hypnosis in clinical dentistry. J Am Soc Psychosom Dent Med 1977;24(4):113-20.

- 89. Benson H. The relaxation response: its subjective and objective historical precedents and physiology. Trends Neurosci 1983;6(7):281-4.
- 90. Keable D. Relaxation training techniques: a review: I what is relaxation? Br J Occup Ther 1985;48(4):99-102.
- 91. Mandle CL. The use of the relaxation response with patients during femoral arteriograms [dissertation]. Newton Centre, MA: Boston College; 1988.
- 92. Lutz SJ. The effect of relaxation training on sleep, state anxiety, and sick call in a jail population. J Prison Jail Health 1990;9(1):55-71.
- 93. Zastrow C. Using relaxation techniques with individuals and with groups. J Independent Soc Work 1987;2(1):83-95.
- Dusek JA, Chang BH, Zaki J. Increased nitric oxide (NO) production during the relaxation response. In: Neuroscience 2005: Society for Neuroscience 35th Annual Meeting; Washington, DC.; 2005. Program No. 57.10.
- 95. Bench SA. The therapeutic impact of therapist enthusiasm and scientific credibility on the relaxation response [dissertation]. Hempstead, NY: Hofstra University; 2000.
- Greene PB. Stress reactivity, health, and meditation: a path analytic approach [dissertation]. Boston: Boston University; 2004.
- Norton GR, Rhodes L, Hauch J. Characteristics of subjects experiencing relaxation and relaxation-induced anxiety. J Behav Ther Exp Psychiatry 1985;16(3):211-6.
- 98. Bishop SR, Lau M, Shapiro S, et al. Mindfulness: a proposed operational definition. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2004;11(3):230-41.
- Salmon PG, Sephton SE, Weissbecker I, et al. Mindfulness meditation in clinical practice. Cogn Behav Pract 2004;11(4):434-46.
- Ahir DC, ed. Vipassana: a universal Buddhist meditation technique. New Delhi: Sri Satguru Publications; 1999.
- Thera N. The heart of Buddhist meditation (satipa.t.thana). 3rd ed. London: Rider & Co.; 1962.

- Glickman M. Beyond the breath: extraordinary mindfulness through whole-body Vipassana meditation. 1st ed. Boston: Journey Editions; 2002.
- 103. Kit WK. The complete book of Zen. Boston: Tuttle Publishing; 2001.
- Omori Sogen. An introduction to Zen training: a translation of Sanzen Nyumon. Boston: Tuttle Publishing; 2001.
- 105. Lesko TM. The long-term effects of Zen meditation (zazen): living in the present moment and having an inner sense of direction [dissertation]. San Francisco: California School of Professional Psychology; 1999.
- Sudsuang R, Chentanez V, Veluvan K. Effect of Buddhist meditation on serum cortisol and total protein levels, blood pressure, pulse rate, lung volume and reaction time. Physiol Behav 1991;50(3):543-8.
- Kabat-Zinn J. Mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR). Constructivism Hum Sci 2003;8(2):73-107
- 108. Segal ZJ, Williams MG, Teasdale JD. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for depression: a new approach to preventing relapse. New York: Guilford Press; 2002.
- Feuerstein G. The yoga tradition: its history, literature, philosophy, and practice. New Delhi: Bhavana Books; 2002.
- Brown RP, Gerbarg PL. Sudarshan kriya yogic breathing in the treatment of stress, anxiety, and depression: part I-neurophysiologic model. J Altern Complement Med 2005;11(1):189-201.
- Baker MA. The effects of hatha yoga and selfrecording on trait anxiety and locus of control [dissertation]. San Diego, CA: United States International University; 1979.
- Lohman R. Yoga techniques applicable within drug and alcohol rehabilitation programmes.
   Therap Communities: Int J Therap Support Organ 1999;20(1):61-72.
- Arias AJ, Steinberg K, Banga A, et al. Systematic review of the efficacy of meditation techniques as treatments for medical illness. J Altern Complement Med 2006;12(8):817-32.
- 114. Collins C. Yoga: intuition, preventive medicine, and treatment. JOGN Nurs 1998;27(5):563-8.

- 115. Bhagavatheeswaran R, Divarakan J, Govindan M, et al. A pilot study of a yoga meditation protocol for patients with medically refractory epilepsy. J Altern Complement Med 2006;12(4):367-71.
- 116. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. Patient perspectives: kundalini yoga meditation techniques for psychooncology and as potential therapies for cancer. Integr Cancer Ther 2005;4(1): 87-100.
- 117. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. Kundalini yoga meditation: techniques specific for psychiatric disorders, couples therapy, and personal growth. New York: W. W. Norton & Company; 2006.
- 118. Williams KA, Petronis J, Smith D, et al. Effect of iyengar yoga therapy for chronic low back pain. Pain 2005;115(1-2):107-17.
- Iyengar BKS. Light on pranayama: the yogic art of breathing. New York: Crossroad Publishing Company; 1981.
- 120. Cohen L, Warneke C, Fouladi RT, et al. Psychological adjustment and sleep quality in a randomized trial of the effects of a Tibetan yoga intervention in patients with lymphoma. Cancer 2004;100(10):2253-60.
- Swami Vishnudevananda. The complete illustrated book of Yoga. New York: Bell Publishing, Inc.; 1960.
- Wood CJ. Mood change and perceptions of vitality: a comparison of the effects of relaxation, visualization and yoga. J R Coll Gen Pract 1993;86(5):254-8.
- Krishna-Rao PV. Yoga: its scientific and applied aspects. Indian J Psychol 1995;13(2):1-12.
- 124. Bower JE, Woolery A, Sternlieb B, et al. Yoga for cancer patients and survivors. Cancer Control 2005;12(3):165-71.
- Swami Vishnu Devananda. Meditation and mantras. New York: OM Lotus Publishing; 1981.
- 126. Baldwin MC. Psychological and physiological influences of hatha yoga training on healthy, exercising adults (yoga, stress, wellness) [dissertation]. Boston: Boston University; 1999.
- Cowen VS, Adams TB. Physical and perceptual benefits of yoga asana practice: results of a pilot study. J Bodywork Movement Ther 2005;9:211-9.

- 128. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. An introduction to kundalini yoga meditation techniques that are specific for the treatment of psychiatric disorders. J Altern Complement Med 2004;10(1):91-101.
- Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. Unilateral forced nostril breathing: basic science, clinical trials, and selected advanced techniques. Subtle Energies & Energy Med J 2001;12(2):79-106.
- Lee GW. The subjective well-being of beginning vs advanced hatha yoga practitioners [dissertation]. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii; 2004.
- Ramaratnam S, Sridharan K. Yoga for epilepsy. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2000;(3):CD001524.
- 132. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. Stress technology medicine: a new paradigm for stress and considerations for self-regulation. In: Brown M, Rivier C, Koob G, eds. Stress: neurobiology and neuroendocrinology. New York: Marcel Dekker, Inc.; 1991. p. 647-86.
- 133. Telles S, Joseph C, Venkatesh S. Alterations of auditory middle latency evoked potentials during yogic consciously regulated breathing and attentive state of mind. Int J Psychophysiol 1993;14(3):189-98.
- 134. Fieldstone A. Respiration as a mediator of body temperature [dissertation]. Columbus, OH: Ohio State University; 2000.
- Singh V, Wisniewski A, Britton J, et al. Effect of yoga breathing exercises (pranayama) on airway reactivity in subjects with asthma. Lancet 1990;335(8702):1381-3.
- Feuerstein GA. The essence of yoga: a contribution to the psychohistory of Indian civilisation. London: Rider and Company; 1974.
- Sharma H, Sen S, Singh A. Sudarshan kriya practitioners exhibit better antioxidant status and lower blood lactate levels. Biol Psychol 2003;63(3):281-91.
- 138. Janakiramaiah N, Gangadhar BN, Naga Venkatesha Murthy PJ. Antidepressant efficacy of sudarshan kriya yoga (SKY) in melancholia: a randomized comparison with electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) and imipramine. J Affect Disord 2000;57(1-3):255-9.
- Iyengar BKS. Light on yoga. London: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd.; 1966.

- Telles S, Nagarathna R, Nagendra HR. Breathing through a particular nostril can alter metabolism and autonomic activities. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1994;38(2):133-7.
- Moy M. An investigation of the effectiveness of yoga and meditation upon anxiety and its implications for education [dissertation]. South Orange, NJ: Seton Hall University; 1996.
- Sridevi K, Sitamma M, Krishna-Rao PV.
   Perceptual organisation and yoga training. Indian J Psychol 1995;13(2):21-7.
- 143. Watts FN. Psychological research questions about yoga. Ment Health Religion Cult 2000;3(1):71-83.
- Werner K. Yoga and Indian philosophy. New Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass; 1977.
- 145. Pilkington K, Kirkwood G, Rampes H, et al. Yoga for depression: the research evidence. J Affect Disord 2005;89(1-3):13-24.
- 146. Aftanas LI, Golosheykin S. Impact of regular meditation practice on EEG activity at rest and during evoked negative emotions. Int J Neurosci 2005;115(6):893-909.
- 147. Fasko D Jr, Grueninger RW. T'ai chi ch'uan and physical and psychological health: a review. Clin Kinesiology: J Am Kinesiotherapy Assoc 2001;55(1):4-12.
- 148. Li F, Fisher KJ, Harmer P, et al. A simpler eightform easy tai chi for elderly adults. J Aging Phys Act 2003;11(2):206-18.
- 149. Yalden J, Chung L. Tai chi: towards an exercise program for the older person. Aust J Holist Nurs 2001;8(1):4-13.
- 150. Hendlin SJ. T'ai chi chaun and gestalt therapy. J Contemp Psychother 1978;10(1):25-31.
- Lee YH. Discovering the essential power of t'ai chi ch'uan: the yin and yang of leadership [dissertation]. San Antonia TX: University of the Incarnate Word: 2002.
- 152. Barker L. The perceived efficacy of the mind/body fitness therapy taijiquan in improving the level of transitory feelings of anxiety [dissertation]. Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina; 2000.
- 153. Koh TC. Tai chi chuan. Am J Chin Med 1981;9(1):15-22.

- Lan C, Lai JS, Chen SY. Tai chi chuan an ancient wisdom on exercise and health promotion. Sports Med 2002;32(4):217-24.
- 155. Bonifonte P. T'ai Chi for seniors: how to gain flexibility, strength, and inner peace. Franklin Lakes, NJ: The Career Press, Inc.; 2004.
- 156. Ai AL, Peterson C, Gillespie B, et al. Designing clinical trials on energy healing: ancient art encounters medical science. Altern Ther Health Med 2001;7(4):83-90.
- Sancier KM. Therapeutic benefits of qigong exercises in combination with drugs. J Altern Complement Med 1999;5(4):383-9.
- 158. Sancier KM. Medical applications of qigong. Altern Ther Health Med 1996;2(1):40-6.
- Ng BY. Qigong-induced mental disorders: a review. Aust N Z J Psychiatry 1999;33(2):197-206.
- Aung SKH. A brief introduction to the theory and practice of qigong. Am J Acupunct 1994;22(4):335-48.
- Pan W, Zhang L, Xia Y. The difference in EEG theta waves between concentrative and nonconcentrative qigong states—a power spectrum and topographic mapping study. J Tradit Chin Med 1994;14(3):212-8.
- Chen KW. An analytic review of studies on measuring effects of external QI in China. Altern Ther Health Med 2004;10(4):38-50.
- 163. Ai AL. Assessing mental health in clinical study on qigong: between scientific investigation and holistic perspectives. Semin Integrative Med 2003;1(2):112-21.
- 164. Wang C, Yuan XY, Xu DD, et al. Brief introduction to the keep-fit qigong exercise. J Tradit Chin Med 1986;6(4):239-42.
- 165. The problem of multiple publication. Bandolier 2001;91:91-6.
- 166. Tramer MR, Reynolds DJM, Moore RA, et al. Impact of covert duplicate publication on metaanalysis: a case study. BMJ 1997;315:635-40.
- 167. Jackson K. A randomised controlled trial to evaluate the effectiveness of a mindfulness based stress reduction (MBSR) intervention as an adjunct therapy in moderate to severe psoriasis (pilot study) [unpublished data]. United Kingdom; 2004.

- 168. Sabina AB, Williams AL, Wall HK. Yoga intervention for adults with mild-to-moderate asthma: a pilot study. Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol 2005;94(5):543-8.
- Manocha R, Zollo M, Malhi GS. A randomized, double-blind controlled trial of meditation for work stress [unpublished data]. Randwick, UK; 2005.
- 170. Vahia NS, Doongaji DR, Jeste DV, et al. Psychophysiologic therapy based on the concepts of Patanjali. Am J Psychother 1973;27:557-65.
- 171. Curtin TG. The relationship between
  Transcendental Meditation and adaptive
  regression. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G,
  Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on
  Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TMSidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2.
  Switzerland: Maharishi European Research
  University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1022-9.
- 172. Rani NJ, Rao PVK. Body awareness and yoga training. Percept Mot Skills 1994;79(3 Pt 1):1103-6.
- 173. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Food and Drug Administration, Center for Drug Evaluation and Research (CDER), et al. Guidance for industry: E 10 choice of control group and related issues in clinical trials. Rockville, MD: ICH, 2001.
- 174. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS, Ray LE, Levine S. Randomized controlled trial of yogic meditation techniques for patients with obsessive-compulsive disorder. CNS Spectr 1999;4(12):34-47.
- 175. Bunk BE. Effects of hatha yoga and mantra meditation on the psychological health and behavior of incarcerated males [dissertation]. Dallas, TX: University of Texas Health Science Center; 1979.
- 176. Backon J, Matamoros N, Ticho U. Changes in intraocular pressure induced by differential forced unilateral nostril breathing, a technique that affects both brain hemisphericity and autonomic activity: a pilot study. Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophtalmol 1989;227(6):575-7.
- 177. Block RA, Arnott DP, Quigley B, et al. Unilateral nostril breathing influences lateralized cognitive performance. Brain Cogn 1989;9(2): 181-90.
- Jella SA, Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. The effects of unilateral forced nostril breathing on cognitive performance. Int J Neurosci 1993;73(1-2):61-8.

- Mohan SM, Reddy S, Wei LY. Modulation of intraocular pressure by unilateral and forced unilateral nostril breathing in young healthy subjects. Int Ophthalmol 2001;24:305-11.
- Mohan SM, Wei LY. Modulation of pulse rate by unilateral nostril breathing. Indian J Psychol 2002;20(1):32-7.
- Sanders B, Lattimore C, Smith K. Forced singlenostril breathing and cognition. Percept Mot Skills 1994;79(3 Pt 2):1499-506.
- Saucier DM, Tessem FK, Sheerin AH. Unilateral forced nostril breathing affects dichotic listening for emotional tones. Brain Cogn 2004;55(2):403-5.
- Stancak A Jr, Honig J, Wackermann J. Effects of unilateral nostril breathing on respiration, hearth rhythm and brain electrical activity. Neurosciences 1991;17:409-17.
- 184. Rohini-Vangala-Pandey-Ravi S, Janakiramaiah N. A comparative study of full and partial sudarshan kriya yoga (SKY) in major depressive disorder. NIMHANS Journal 2000;18(1-2):53-7.
- 185. Hafner RJ. Psychological treatment of essential hypertension: a controlled comparison of meditation and meditation plus biofeedback. Biofeedback Self Regul 1982;7(3):305-16.
- Dick LD. A study of meditation in the service of counseling [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1974;34(8B):4037.
- 187. Ferguson PC , Gowan J. TM: some preliminary findings. J Hum Psychol 1976;16(3):51-60.
- 188. Orme-Johnson DW, Moore RM. Section II: Original research on rehabilitation first prison study using the Transcendental Meditation program: La Tuna Federal Penitentiary, 1971. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):89-95.
- Busby K, de Koninck J. Short-term effects of strategies for self-regulation on personality dimensions and dream content. Percept Mot Skills 1980;50(3 Pt 1):751-65.
- Puente AE. Psychophysiological investigations on Transcendental Meditation. Biofeedback Self Regul 1981;6(3):327-42.
- Zaichkowsky LD, Kamen R. Biofeedback and meditation: effects on muscle tension and locus of control. Percept Mot Skills 1978;46(3 Pt 1):955-8.

- 192. Daltroy LH, Morlino CI, Eaton HM, et al. Preoperative education for total hip and knee replacement patients. Arthritis Care Res 1998;11(6):469-78.
- 193. Carrington P, Collings GH Jr, Benson H, et al. The use of meditation—relaxation techniques for the management of stress in a working population. J Occup Med 1980;22(4): 221-31.
- Couture RT, Singh M, Lee W, et al. The effect of mental training on the performance of military endurance tasks in the Canadian infantry. Int J Sport Psychol 1994;25(2):144-57.
- 195. Kabat-Zinn J, Wheeler E, Light T, et al. Part II: Influence of a mindfulness meditation-based stress reduction intervention on rates of skin clearing in patients with moderate to severe psoriasis undergoing phototherapy (UVB) and photochemo-therapy (PUVA). Constructivism Hum Sci 2003;8(2):85-106.
- 196. Wilson HB. The specific effects model: relaxation and meditation effects on cognitive and somatic anxiety [dissertation]. Columbus, OH: Ohio State University; 2000.
- 197. Cort DA. A comparison of compliance to group meditation, individual meditation and didactic group training in a program to help lower blood pressure in black adults [dissertation]. Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University; 1988.
- 198. Morse DR, Schacterle GR, Furst ML. Stress, relaxation, and saliva: a pilot study involving endodontic patients. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol 1981;52(3):308-13.
- Zeier H. Arousal reduction with biofeedbacksupported respiratory meditation. Biofeedback Self Regul 1984;9(4):497-508.
- Lee MS, Huh HJ, Kim BG. Effects of qi-training on heart rate variability. Am J Chin Med 2002;30(4):463-70.
- 201. Ryu H, Lee MS, Jeong SM. Modulation of neuroendocrinological function by psychosomatic training: acute effect of chundosunbup qi-training on growth hormone, insulin-like growth factor (Igf)-I, and insulin-like growth factor binding protein (Igfbp)-3 in men. Psychoneuroendocrinology 2000;25(5):439-51.
- 202. Peng CK, Mietus JE, Liu Y. Exaggerated heart rate oscillations during two meditation techniques. Int J Cardiol 1999;70(2):101-7.

- Aivazyan TA, Zaitsev VP, Salenko BB, et al. Efficacy of relaxation techniques in hypertensive patients. Health Psychol 1988;7(Suppl):193-200.
- Broota A, Varma R, Singh A. Role of relaxation in hypertension. J Indian Acad Appl Psychol 1995;21(1):29-36.
- 205. Calderon R Jr. Effects of nonpharmacological approaches on cholesterol levels in mild hypertensive African Americans: a pilot study of the Transcendental Meditation program and a health education program [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 2000.
- Castillo-Richmond A, Schneider RH, Alexander CN, et al. Effects of stress reduction on carotid atherosclerosis in hypertensive African Americans. Stroke 2000;31(3):568-73.
- Cheung BMY, Lo JLF, Fong DYT, et al. Randomised controlled trial of qigong in the treatment of mild essential hypertension. J Hum Hypertens 2005;19(9):697-704.
- Cohen J, Sedlacek K. Attention and autonomic self-regulation. Psychosom Med 1983;45(3):243-57.
- Hager JL, Surwit RS. Hypertension self-control with a portable feedback unit or meditationrelaxation. Biofeedback Self Regul 1978;3(3): 269-76.
- 210. Kondwani KA. Nonpharmacologic treatment of hypertensive heart disease in African Americans: a trial of the Transcendental Meditation program and a health education program [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi University of Management; 1998.
- Kuang AK, Wang CX, Li G. Effect of qigong therapy on plasma 18-OH-DOC level in hypertensives. J Tradit Chin Med 1987;(7):169-70.
- 212. Latha DR, Kaliappan KV. Yoga, pranayama, thermal biofeedback techniques in the management of stress and high blood pressure. Indian J Psychol 1991;9(1-2):36-46.
- 213. Lee MS, Lee MS, Kim HJ. Effects of qigong on blood pressure, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol and other lipid levels in essential hypertension patients. Int J Neurosci 2004;114(7):777-86.

- Lee MS, Lee MS, Kim HJ. Qigong reduced blood pressure and catecholamine levels of patients with essential hypertension. Int J Neurosci 2003;113(12):1691-701.
- Manikonda P , Stoerk S, Toegel S. Influence of non-pharmacological treatment (contemplative meditation and breathing technique) on stress induced hypertension—a randomized controlled study. Am J Hypertens 2005;18(5):89A-90A.
- McCaffrey R, Ruknui P, Hatthakit U. The effects of yoga on hypertensive persons in Thailand. Holist Nurs Pract 2005;19(4):173-80.
- Murugesan R , Govindarajulu N, Bera TK. Effect of selected yogic practices on the management of hypertension. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2000;44(2):207-10.
- Patel CH, Marmot MG, Terry DJ. Trial of relaxation in reducing coronary risk: four year follow up. BMJ (Clin Res Ed) 1985;290(6475):1103-6.
- 219. Patel CH, North WR. Randomised controlled trial of yoga and bio-feedback in management of hypertension. Lancet 1975;2(7925):93-5.
- Schneider RH, Alexander CN, Staggers F. A randomized controlled trial of stress reduction in African Americans treated for hypertension for over one year. Am J Hypertens 2005;18(1):88-98.
- Schneider RH, Staggers F, Alexander CN. A randomised controlled trial of stress reduction for hypertension in older African Americans. Hypertension 1995;26(5):820-7.
- Seer P, Raeburn JM. Meditation training and essential hypertension: a methodological study. J Behav Med 1980;3(1):59-71.
- 223. Tsai JC, Wang WH, Chan P, et al. The beneficial effects of tai chi chuan on blood pressure and lipid profile and anxiety status in a randomized controlled trial. J Altern Complement Med 2003;9(5):747-54.
- 224. Van Montfrans GA, Karemaker JM, Wieling W, et al. Relaxation therapy and continuous ambulatory blood pressure in mild hypertension: a controlled study. BMJ 1990;300(6736):1368-72
- Yen LL, Patrick WK, Chie WC. Comparison of relaxation techniques, routine blood pressure measurements, and self-learning packages in hypertension control. Prev Med 1996;25(3):339-45.

- Selvamurthy W, Sridharan K, Ray US. A new physiological approach to control essential hypertension. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1998;42(2):205-13.
- Stone RA, DeLeo J. Psychotherapeutic control of hypertension. N Engl J Med 1976;294(2):80-4.
- 228. Surwit RS, Shapiro D, Good MI. Comparison of cardiovascular biofeedback, neuromuscular biofeedback, and meditation in the treatment of borderline essential hypertension. J Consult Clin Psychol 1978;46(2):252-63.
- 229. Kondwani K, Schneider RH, Alexander CN, et al. Left ventricular mass regression with the Transcendental Meditation technique and a health education program in hypertensive African Americans. J Soc Behav Pers 2005;17(1):181-200.
- Lee MS, Lee MS, Choi ES. Effects of qigong on blood pressure, blood pressure determinants and ventilatory function in middle-aged patients with essential hypertension. Am J Chin Med 2003;31(3):489-97.
- 231. Lee MS, Lim HJ, Lee MS. Impact of qigong exercise on self-efficacy and other cognitive perceptual variables in patients with essential hypertension. J Altern Complement Med 2004;10(4):675-80.
- 232. Alexander CN, Schneider RH, Staggers F, et al. Trial of stress reduction for hypertension in older African Americans II: sex and risk subgroup analysis. Hypertension 1996;28(2):228-37.
- 233. Ades PA, Savage PD, Brochu M, et al. Resistance training increases total daily energy expenditure in disabled older women with coronary heart disease. J Appl Physiol 2005;98(4):1280-5.
- Chang BH, Hendricks A, Zhao Y, et al. A relaxation response randomized trial on patients with chronic heart failure. J Cardiopulm Rehabil 2005;25(3):149-57.
- Channer KS, Barrow D, Barrow R, et al. Changes in haemodynamic parameters following tai chi chuan and aerobic exercise in patients recovering from acute myocardial infarction. Postgrad Med J 1996;72(848):349-51.
- 236. Curiati JA, Bocchi E, Freire JO, et al. Meditation reduces sympathetic activation and improves the quality of life in elderly patients with optimally treated heart failure: a prospective randomized study. J Altern Complement Med 2005;11(3):465-72.

- 237. Friedman NL. Zen breath meditation awareness improves heart rate variability in patients with coronary artery disease [dissertation]. San Diego, CA: California School of Professional Psychology; 2002.
- 238. Jatuporn S, Sangwatanaroj S, Saengsiri AO, et al. Short-term effects of an intensive lifestyle modification program on lipid peroxidation and antioxidant systems in patients with coronary artery disease. Clin Hemorheol Microcirc 2003;29(3-4):429-36.
- Mahajan AS, Reddy KS, Sachdeva U. Lipid profile of coronary risk subjects following yogic lifestyle intervention. Indian Heart J 1999;51(1):37-40.
- Manchanda SC, Narang R, Reddy KS.
   Retardation of coronary atherosclerosis with yoga lifestyle intervention. J Assoc Physicians India 2000;48(7):687-94.
- Pool JI. Cognitive restructuring and meditation training as stress management intervention in post-cardiac adjustment [dissertation].
   Bethlehem, PA: Lehigh University; 1995.
- 242. Quillian-Wolever RE, Gaudet T, Liebowitz R. Use of mindfulness in an integrative model of health: RCT for coronary risk prevention [abstract]. In: Society of Behavioral Medicine Annual Meeting; Boston.; 2005. p. S108.
- Stenlund T, Lindstrom B, Granlund M. Cardiac rehabilitation for the elderly: qi gong and group discussions. Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehabil 2005;12(1):5-11.
- 244. Tacon AM, McComb JJR, Caldera YM.
  Mindfulness meditation, anxiety reduction, and
  heart disease: a pilot study. Fam Community
  Health 2003;26(1):25-33.
- 245. Williams KA, Kolar MM, Larkin KT, et al. Predictors of improvement in psychosocial factors in patients with coronary artery disease after participation in the mindfulness-based stress reduction program. Psychosom Med 2001;63(1):179-80.
- 246. Yeh GY, Wood MJ, Lorell BH, et al. Effects of tai chi mind-body movement therapy on functional status and exercise capacity in patients with chronic heart failure: a randomized controlled trial. Am J Med 2004;117(8):541-8.
- Hipp A, Heitkamp HC, Rocker K, et al. Effects of yoga on lipid metabolism in patients with coronary artery disease. Int J Sports Med 1998;19:S7.

- 248. Lan C, Chen SY, Lai JS. The effect of tai chi on cardiorespiratory function in patients with coronary artery bypass surgery. Med Sci Sports 1999;31(5):634-8.
- Tsai SL. Audio-visual relaxation training for anxiety, sleep, and relaxation among Chinese adults with cardiac disease. Res Nurs Health 2004;27(6):458-68.
- 250. Yogendra J, Yogendra HJ, Ambardekar S, et al. Beneficial effects of yoga lifestyle on reversibility of ischaemic heart disease: caring heart project of International Board of Yoga. J Assoc Physicians India 2004;52:283-9.
- 251. Young JW. Effects of a yoga intervention on symptoms of stress in individuals recovering from heart disease. Ann Ther Recreation 2001;10:13-22, 84-5, 88.
- 252. Zamarra JW, Schneider RH, Besseghini I, et al. Usefulness of the Transcendental Meditation program in the treatment of patients with coronary artery disease. Am J Cardiol 1996;77(10):867-70.
- Ades PA, Savage PD, Cress ME, et al. Resistance training on physical performance in disabled older female cardiac patients. Med Sci Sports 2003;35(8):1265-70.
- 254. Mandle CL, Domar AD, Harrington DP. Relaxation response in femoral angiography. Radiology 1990;174(3 Pt 1):737-9.
- 255. McComb JJR, Tacon AM, Randolph PD. A pilot study to examine the effects of a mindfulnessbased stress-reduction and relaxation program on levels of stress hormones, physical functioning, and submaximal exercise responses. J Altern Complement Med 2004;10(5):819-27.
- 256. Yeh GY, Eisenberg DM, Wood MJ, et al. Tai chi as an adjunctive intervention for patients with heart failure: a pilot study. J Gen Intern Med 2003;18(1 Suppl):161.
- 257. Zamarra JW, Besseghini I, Wittenberg S. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on the exercise performance of patients with angina pectoris. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 270-8.
- Alterman AI , Koppenhaver JM, Mulholland E, et al. Pilot trial of effectiveness of mindfulness meditation for substance abuse patients. J Subst Use 2004;9(6):259-68.

- 259. Ballou D. The Transcendental Meditation program at Still Water prison. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 569-76
- Barton MJ. The effects of meditation on relaxation and spirituality on recovering alcoholics [dissertation]. Sarasota, FL: Argosy University; 2004.
- 261. Brautigam E. Effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on drug abusers: a prospective study. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 506-14.
- 262. Li M, Chen K, Mo Z. Use of qigong therapy in the detoxification of heroin addicts. Altern Ther Health Med 1956;8(1):50-4.
- 263. Murphy R. The effects of mindfulness meditation vs progressive relaxation training on stress egocentrism anger and impulsiveness among inmates [dissertation]. Hempstead, NY: Hofstra University; 1995.
- Murphy TJ, Pagano RR, Marlatt GA. Lifestyle modification with heavy alcohol drinkers: effects of aerobic exercise and meditation. Addict Behav 1986;11(2):175-86.
- 265. Parker JC, Gilbert GS. Anxiety management in alcoholics: a study of generalized effects of relaxation techniques. Addict Behav 1978;3(2): 123-7.
- Raina N, Chakraborty PK, Basit MA. Evaluation of yoga therapy in alcohol dependence syndrome. Indian J Psychiatr 2001;43(2):171-4.
- 267. Ramirez J. The Transcendental Meditation program as a possible treatment modality for drug offenders: evaluation of a pilot project at Milan Federal Correctional Institution. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1118-34.

- 268. Rohsenow DJ, Smith RE, Johnson S. Stress management training as a prevention program for heavy social drinkers: cognitions, affect, drinking, and individual differences. Addict Behav 1985;10(1):45-54.
- Shaffer HJ, LaSalvia TA, Stein JP. Comparing hatha yoga with dynamic group psychotherapy for enhancing methadone maintenance treatment: a randomized clinical trial. Altern Ther Health Med 1997;3(4):57-66.
- 270. Taub E, Steiner SS, Weingarten E. Effectiveness of broad spectrum approaches to relapse prevention in severe alcoholism: a long-term, randomized, controlled trial of Transcendental Meditation, EMG biofeedback and electronic neurotherapy. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(1-2):187-220
- Kline KS, Docherty EM, Farley FH.
   Transcendental Meditation, self/actualization, and global personality. J Gen Psychol 1982;106(1):3-8.
- Marcus MT, Fine PM, Kouzekanani K.
   Mindfulness-based meditation in a therapeutic community. J Subst Use 2001;5(4):305-11.
- Subrahmanyam S, Satyanarayana M, Rajeswari KR. Alcoholism: newer methods of management. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1986;30(1):43-54.
- Wong MR, Brochin NB, Gendron KL. Effects of meditation on anxiety and chemical dependency. J Drug Educ 1981;11(2):91-105.
- 275. Marcus MT, Fine PM, Moeller FG. Change in stress levels following mindfulness-based stress reduction in a therapeutic community. Addict Disord Their Treat 2003;2(3):63-8.
- Gilbert GS, Parker JC, Claiborn CD. Differential mood changes in alcoholics as a function of anxiety management strategies. J Clin Psychol 1978;34(1):229-32.
- 277. Parker JC, Gilbert GS, Thoreson RW. Reduction of autonomic arousal in alcoholics: a comparison of relaxation and meditation techniques. J Consult Clin Psychol 1978;46(5):879-86.
- 278. Agrawal RP, Aradhana HS, Beniwal R, et al. Influence of yogic treatment on quality life outcomes, glycemic control and risk factors in diabetes mellitus. Int J Diab Dev Countries 2003;23:130-4.

- 279. Alexander CN, Davies JL, Newman RI, et al. The effects of Transcendental Meditation on cognitive and behavioral flexibility, health and longevity in the elderly: an experimental comparison of the Transcendental Meditation program, mindfulness training, and relaxation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1991. p. 2295-312.
- Blumenthal JA, Emery CF, Madden DJ, et al. Long-term effects of exercise on psychological functioning in older men and women. J Gerontol 1991;46(6):352-61.
- 281. Bowman AJ, Clayton RH, Murray A, et al. Effects of aerobic exercise training and yoga on the baroreflex in healthy elderly persons. Eur J Clin Invest 1997;27(5):443-9.
- 282. Fields JZ, Walton KG, Schneider RH, et al. Effect of a multimodality natural medicine program on carotid atherosclerosis in older subjects: a pilot trial of Maharishi vedic medicine. Am J Cardiol 2002;89(8):952-8.
- 283. Hoffman JW, Benson H, Arns PA, et al. Reduced sympathetic nervous system responsivity associated with the relaxation response. Science 1982;215(4529):190-2.
- 284. Peters RK, Benson H, Porter D. Daily relaxation response breaks in a working population: I effects on self-reported measures of health, performance, and well-being. Am J Pub Health 1977;67(10):946-53.
- Sun WY, Dosch M, Gilmore GD. Effects of a tai chi chuan program on Hmong American older adults. Educ Gerontol 1996;22(2):161-7.
- 286. Thornton EW, Sykes KS, Tang WK. Health benefits of tai chi exercise: improved balance and blood pressure in middle-aged women. Health Promot Int 2004;19(1):33-8.
- 287. Young DR, Appel LJ, Jee S, et al. The effects of aerobic exercise and t'ai chi on blood pressure in older people: results of a randomized trial. J Am Geriatr Soc 1999;47(3):277-84.
- 288. Pollak MH, Zeiner AR. Physiological correlates of an experimental relaxation procedure with comparisons to uninstructed relaxation and sitting. Biol Psychol Bull 1979;5(4):161-70.

- 289. Abrams AI, Siegel LM. The Transcendental Meditation program and rehabilitation at Folsom State Prison: a cross-validation study. Crim Justice Behav 1978;5(1):3-20.
- 290. Chen WW, Sun WY. Tai chi chuan, an alternative form of exercise for health promotion and disease prevention for older adults in the community. Int Q Community Health Educ 1997;16(4):333-9.
- 291. Cooper MJ, Aygen MM. Effect of Transcendental Meditation on serum cholesterol and blood pressure. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1787-91.
- 292. De Armond DL. Effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on psychological, physiological, behavioral and organizational consequences of stress in managers and executives [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1996.
- 293. Travis FT. Creative thinking and the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1972-7.
- 294. Damodaran A, Malathi A, Patil N, et al. Therapeutic potential of yoga practices in modifying cardiovascular risk profile in middle aged men and women. J Assoc Physicians India 2002;50(5):633-40.
- 295. Agarwal BL, Kharbanda A. Effect of Transcendental Meditation on mild and moderate hypertension. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1815-9.
- Jones AY, Dean E, Scudds RJ. Effectiveness of a community-based tai chi program and implications for public health initiatives. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2005;86(4):619-25.
- Chen JC, Brown B, Schmid KL. Effect of unilateral forced nostril breathing on tonic accommodation and intraocular pressure. Clin Auton Res 2004;14(6):396-400.

- 298. Jain SC, Uppal A, Bhatnagar SO. A study of response pattern of non-insulin dependent diabetics to yoga therapy. Diabetes Res Clin Pract 1993;19(1):69-74.
- Jones BM. Changes in cytokine production in healthy subjects practicing guolin qigong: a pilot study. BMC Complement Altern Med 2001;1(1):8.
- 300. Madanmohan, Thombre DP, Balakumar B. Effect of yoga training on reaction time, respiratory endurance and muscle strength. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1992;36(4):229-33.
- 301. Manjunatha S, Vempati RP, Ghosh D. An investigation into the acute and long-term effects of selected yogic postures on fasting and postprandial glycemia and insulinemia in healthy young subjects. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2005;49(3):319-24.
- Schmidt TFH, Wijga AH, Robra BP et al. Yoga training and vegetarian nutrition reduce cardiovascular risk factors in healthy Europeans. Homeost Health Dis 1994;35(4-5):209-25.
- 303. Vijayalakshmi P, Madanmohan, Bhavanani AB, et al. Modulation of stress induced by isometric handgrip test in hypertensive patients following yogic relaxation training. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2004;48(1):59-64.
- 304. Bahrke MS, Morgan WP. Anxiety reduction following exercise and meditation. Cognit Ther Res 1978;2(4):323-33.
- Bose S, Etta KM, Balagangadharan S. The effect of relaxing exercise 'shavasan'. J Assoc Physicians India 1987;35(5):365-6.
- 306. Cuthbert B, Kristeller JL, Simons R, et al. Strategies of arousal control: biofeedback, meditation, and motivation. J Exp Psychol Gen 1981;110(4):518-46.
- 307. Jin P. Efficacy of tai chi, brisk walking, meditation, and reading in reducing mental and emotional stress. J Psychosom Res 1992;36(4):361-70.
- Monro R, Power J, Coumar A. Yoga therapy for NIDDM: a controlled trial. Complement Med Res 1992;(6):66-8.

- 309. Reddy KM. The role of the Transcendental Meditation programme in the promotion of athletic excellence: long- and short-term effects and their relation to activation theory. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 907-49.
- 310. Anantharaman RN, Kabir R. A study of yoga. J Psychol Res 1984;28(2):97-101.
- Benson H, Rosner BA, Marzetta BR, et al. Decreased blood pressure in borderline hypertensive subjects who practiced meditation. J Chronic Dis 1974;27(3):163-9.
- Bhargava R, Gogate MG, Mascarenhas JF. Autonomic responses to breath holding and its variations following pranayama. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1988;32(4):257-64.
- 313. Joseph S, Sridharan K, Patil SK, et al. Study of some physiological and biochemical parameters in subjects undergoing yogic training. Indian J Med Res 1981;74:120-4.
- Joshi LN, Joshi VD, Gokhale LV. Effect of short term 'pranayam' practice on breathing rate and ventilatory functions of lung. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1992;36(2):105-8.
- Kocer I, Dane S, Demirel S. Unilateral nostril breathing in intraocular pressure of right-handed healthy subjects. Percept Mot Skills 2002;95:491-6.
- 316. Lim YA, Boone T, Flarity JR. Effects of qigong on cardiorespiratory changes: a preliminary study. Am J Chin Med 1993;21(1):1-6.
- 317. Liu S. The effects of taijiquan training on cardiorespiratory fitness, blood cholesterol, glucose and stress control in college men and women [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1996;56(9B):4764.
- 318. Malathi A, Parulkar VG. Effect of yogasanas on the visual and auditory reaction time. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1989;33(2):110-2.
- Pollack AA, Case DB, Weber MA. Limitations of Transcendental Meditation in the treatment of essential hypertension. Lancet 1977;1(8002):71-

- 320. Raju PS, Kumar KA, Reddy SS. Effect of yoga on exercise tolerance in normal healthy volunteers. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1986;30(2):121-32.
- Singh S, Malhotra V, Singh KP. Role of yoga in modifying certain cardiovascular functions in type 2 diabetic patients. J Assoc Physicians India 2004;52:203-6.
- 322. Sung BH, Nagubandi MK, Wilson MF. Yoga breathing improves large and small artery compliance [abstract]. In: 60th Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; Barcelona, Spain.; 2002. No. 1176.
- 323. Telles S, Nagarathna R, Nagendra HR. Physiological changes in sports teachers following 3 months of training in yoga. Indian J Med Sci 1993;47(10):235-8.
- 324. Fuson JW. The effect of the Transcendental Meditation program on sleeping and dreaming patterns. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 880-96.
- 325. Vedanthan PK, Kesavalu LN, Murthy KC, et al. Clinical study of yoga techniques in university students with asthma: a controlled study. Allergy Asthma Proc 1998;19(1):3-9.
- 326. Lan C, Lai JS, Chen SY. 12-month tai chi training in the elderly: its effect on health fitness. Med Sci Sports 1998;30(3):345-51.
- 327. Ross PA. Sorting out the concept disorder. Theoret Med Bioeth 2005;26:115-40.
- 328. Orenstein RE. The techniques of meditation and their implications for modern psychology. In: Naranjo C, Orenstein RE, eds. On the psychology of meditation. New York: Viking Press; 1971.
- 329. Wittgenstein L. Philosophical investigations. Oxford: Basil Blackwell; 1968.
- 330. Rosch EH. Natural categories. Cognit Psychol 1973;4:328-50.
- Boyd R. How to be a moral realist. In: Sayre-McCord G, ed. Essays on moral realism. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press; 1988. p. 180-228.

- Boyd R. Homeostasis, species, and higher taxa.
   In: Wilson RA, ed. Species: new interdisciplinary essays. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press; 1999. p. 141-85.
- 333. Wilson RA. Realism, essence, and kind: resuscitating species essentialism? In: Wilson RA, ed. Species: new interdisciplinary essays. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press; 1999. p. 187-207.
- 334. Koshikawa F, Ichii M. An experiment on classification methods of meditation methods: on procedures, goals and effects. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon; 1996. p. 213-24.
- Naranjo C. Meditation: its spirit and techniques.
   In: Naranjo C, Orenstein RE, ed. On the psychology of meditation. New York: Viking Press; 1971. p. 2-132.
- Haruki Y, Ishii I, Suzuli M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996.
- 337. Khalsa SB. Yoga as a therapeutic intervention: a bibliometric analysis of published research studies. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2004;48(3):269-85.
- Gotzsche P. Multiple publication of reports of drug trials. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 1989;36:429-32.
- 339. Kassirer JP, Angell M. Redundant publication: a reminder. NEJM 1995;333(7):449-50.
- 340. Committee on publication ethics (COPE). Guidelines on good publication practice: the COPE report 2003. Indian J Pharmacol 2005;37(3):199-203.
- 341. Linde K, Jonas WB, Melchart D, et al. The methodological quality of randomised controlled trials of homeopathy, herbal medicine and acupuncture. Int J Epidemiol 2001;30:526-31.
- Begg C, Cho M, Eastwood S, et al. Improving the quality of reporting of randomized controlled trials: the CONSORT statement. JAMA 1996;276(8):637-9.
- Nahin R, Strauss SE. Research into complementary and alternative medicine: problems and potential. BMJ 2001;322(7279):161-4.

- 344. Brown MB. Control groups appropriate for surgical interventions: ethical and practical issues. Gastroenterology 2004;126(1):S164-8.
- 345. Whitehead WE. Control groups appropriate for behavioral interventions . Gastroenterology 2004;126(1):S159-63.
- 346. Walach H. The efficacy paradox in randomized controlled trials of CAM and elsewhere: beware of the placebo trap. J Altern Complement Med 2001;7(3):213-18.
- Thorne S, Best A, Balon J, et al. Ethical dimensions in the borderland between conventional and complementary/alternative medicine. J Altern Complement Med 2002;8(6):907-15.
- 348. Fabrega H. Medical validity in eastern and western traditions. Perspect BioI Med 2002;45(3):395-415.
- 349. Moerman DE, Jonas WB. Deconstructing the placebo effect and finding the meaning response. Ann Intern Med 2002;136(6):471-6.
- 350. Juni P, Altman DG, Egger M. Assessing the quality of randomized controlled trials. Egger M, Smith GD, Altman DG, ed. Systematic reviews in health care. Meta-analysis in context. London: BMJ Publishing Group; 2001. p. 87-109.
- 351. Juni P, Altman DG, Egger M. Systematic reviews in health care: Assessing the quality of controlled clinical trials . BMJ 2001;323(7303):42-6.
- 352. Ernst E. The role of complementary and alternative medicine. BMJ 2000;321(7269):1133-5.
- 353. Miller FG, Emanuel EJ, Rosenstein DL, et al. Ethical issues concerning research in complementary and alternative medicine. JAMA 2004;291(5):599-604.
- Walsh RN. Meditation research: an introduction and review. J Transpersonal Psychol 1979;11(2):161-74.
- 355. Murray CJL, Lopez A. The Global Burden of Disease: a comprehensive assessment of mortality and disability from diseases, injuries, and risk factors in 1990 and projected to 2020. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press; 1996.
- 356. Michaud CC, McKeena MT, Begg S, et al. The burden of disease and injury in the United States. Popul Health Metr 2004;4:11.

- 357. Walton KG, Schneider RH, Nidich SI, et al. Psychosocial stress and cardiovascular disease part 2: effectiveness of the Transcendental Meditation program in treatment and prevention. Behav Med 2002;28(3):106-23.
- 358. Alexander CN, Robinson P, Rainforth M.
  Treating and preventing alcohol, nicotine, and drug abuse through Transcendental Meditation: a review and statistical meta-analysis. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(1-2):13-87.
- Klein PJ, Adams WD. Comprehensive therapeutic benefits of taiji: a critical review. Am J Phys Med Rehabil 2004;83(9):735-45.
- Han A, Robinson V, Judd M, et al. Tai chi for treating rheumatoid arthritis. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2004;(3):CD004849.
- Taylor-Piliae RE, Froelicher ES. Effectiveness of tai chi exercise in improving aerobic capacity: a meta-analysis. J Cardiovasc Nurs 2004;19(1):48-57.
- 362. Verhagen AP, Immink M, van der Meulen A, et al. The efficacy of tai chi chuan in older adults: a systematic review. Fam Pract 2004;21(1):107-13.
- 363. Kirkwood G, Rampes H, Tuffrey V, et al. Yoga for anxiety: a systematic review of the research evidence. Br J Sports Med 2005;39:884-91.
- 364. Chen K, Yeung R. A review of Qigong therapy for cancer treatment . J Int Soc Life Info Sci (ISLIS) 2002;20(2):532-42.
- Mandle, Jacobs SC, Arcari PM, et al. The efficacy of relaxation response interventions with adult patients: a review of the literature. J Cardiovasc Nurs 1996;10(3):4-26.
- 366. Alexander CN, Rainforth MV, Gelderloos P. Transcendental Meditation, self-actualization, and psychological health: a conceptual overview and statistical meta-analysis. J Soc Behav Pers 1991;6(5):189-248.
- Higgins JPT, Thompson SG, Deeks JJ.
   Measuring inconsistency in meta-analyses. BMJ 2003;327:557-60.
- Herbert RD, Bo K. Analysis of quality of interventions in systematic reviews. BMJ 2005;331:507-9.
- 369. Kuchera MM. The effectiveness of meditation techniques to reduce blood pressure levels: a meta-analysis [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;47(11B):4639.

- 370. Schultz KF. Assessing allocation concealment and blinding in randomised controlled trials: why bother. Evid Based Ment Health 2000;3(11):4-5.
- 371. ACP Online. A primer on before/after studies: evaluating a report of a "successful intervention" [web page]. Sep 1999-31 Oct 1999; Available at: http://www.acponline.org/journals/ecp/primers/se poct99.htm. Accessed Jan 28, 2007.
- 372. Assendelft WJ, Scholten RJ, van Eijk JT, et al. [The practice of systematic reviews. III. Evaluation of methodological quality of research studies]. Ned Tijdschr Geneeskd 1999;143(14):714-19.
- Cook DJ, Sackett DL, Spitzer WO. Methodologic guidelines for systematic reviews of randomized control trials in health care from the Potsdam Consultation on Meta-Analysis. J Clin Epidemiol 1995;48(1):167-71.
- 374. Lohr KN, Carey TS. Assessing 'best evidence': issues in grading the quality of studies for systematic reviews. Joint Commission Journal On Quality Improvement 1999;25(9):470-9.
- 375. Moher D, Pham B, Jones A, et al. Does the quality of reports of randomised trials affect estimates of intervention efficacy reported in meta-analyses? Lancet 1998;352(9139):609-13.
- 376. Moher D, Jadad AR, Nichol G, et al. Assessing the quality of randomized controlled trials: an annotated bibliography of scales and checklists. Control Clin Trials 1995;16(1):62-73.
- 377. Vickers A, Cassileth B, Ernst E, et al. How should we research unconventional therapies? A report from the conference on complementary and alternative medicine research methodology, National Institute of Health. Int J Technol Assess Health Care 1997;13(1):111-21.
- Moja LP, Telaro E, D'Amico R, et al. Assessment of methodological quality of primary studies by systematic reviews: results of the metaquality cross sectional study. BMJ 2005;330(7499):1053-7.
- 379. West MA. Meditation and the EEG. Psychol Med 1980;10(2):369-75.
- 380. Moher D, Pham, Klassen T, et al. What contributions do languages other than English make on the results of meta-analysis? J Clin Epidemiol 2000;53(9):964-72.

- Arias A, Steinberg K, Banga A, et al. Systematic review of the efficacy of meditation techniques as treatments for medical illness. J Altern Complement Med 2006;12(8):817-32.
- 382. Caspi O, Millen C, Sechrest L. Integrity and research: introducing the concept of dual blindness. How blind are double-blind clinical trials in alternative medicine? J Altern Complement Med 2000;6(6):493-8.
- 383. Rowe G, Wright G, Bolger F. Delphi: a reevaluation of research and theory. Technol Forecast Soc 1991;39:235-51.
- 384. Anderson VL, Levinson EM, Barker W, et al. The effects of meditation on teacher perceived occupational stress, state and trait anxiety, and burnout. Sch Psychol Q 1999;14(1):3-25.
- Barnes VA, Treiber FA, Turner JR, et al. Acute effects of Transcendental Meditation on hemodynamic functioning in middle-aged adults. Psychosom Med 1999;61(4):525-31.
- 386. Speca M, Carlson LE, Goodey E. A randomized, wait-list controlled clinical trial: the effect of a mindfulness meditation-based stress reduction program on mood and symptoms of stress in cancer outpatients. Psychosom Med 2000;62(5):613-22.
- Chang JC, Midlarsky E, Lin P. Effects of meditation on music performance anxiety. Med Probl Perform Art 2003;18(3):126-30.
- 388. Chen K. The effects of tai chi on the well-being of community-dwelling elders in Taiwan [dissertation]. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota; 2000.
- Cusumano JA, Robinson SE. The short-term psychophysiological effects of hatha yoga and progressive relaxation on female Japanese students. Appl Psychol: Int Rev 1993;42(1):77-90.
- Daubenmier JJ. A comparison of hatha yoga and aerobic exercise on women's body satisfaction [dissertation]. Berkeley, CA: University of California; 2002.
- Mustian KM. Breast cancer, tai chi chuan, and self-esteem: a randomized trial [dissertation]. Greensboro, NC: The University of North Carolina: 2003.
- Delmonte MM. Physiological responses during meditation and rest. Biofeedback Self Regul 1984;9(2):181-200.

- 393. Delmonte MM. Suggestibility and meditation. Psychol Rep 1981;48(3):727-37.
- 394. Berger BG, Friedmann E, Eaton M. Comparison of jogging, the relaxation response, and group interaction for stress reduction. J Sport Exerc Psychol 1988;10(4):431-47.
- 395. Gaston L, Crombez JC, Lassonde M, et al. Psychological stress and psoriasis: experimental and prospective correlational studies. Acta Der Venerol Suppl 1991;156:37-43.
- 396. Goodale IL, Domar AD, Benson H. Alleviation of premenstrual syndrome symptoms with the relaxation response. Obstet Gynecol 1990;75(4):649-55.
- 397. Wolf SL, Sattin RW, O'Grady M, et al. A study design to investigate the effect of intense tai chi in reducing falls among older adults transitioning to frailty. Control Clin Trials 2001;22(6):689-704.
- 398. Irwin MR, Pike JL, Cole JC, et al. Effects of a behavioral intervention, tai chi chih, on varicellazoster virus specific immunity and health functioning in older adults. Psychosom Med 2003;65(5):824-30.
- Jevning RA, Wilson AF, O'Halloran JP. Forearm blood flow and metabolsim during stylized and unstylized states of decreased activation. Am J Physiol 1983;245:R110-6.
- 400. Jevning RA, Wilson AF, Smith WR. Transcendental Meditation technique, adrenocortical activity, and implications for stress. Experientia 1978;34(5):618-9.
- 401. Jevning RA, Wilson AF, Smith WR. Redistribution of blood flow in acute hypermetabolic behavior. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1548-54.
- Gross CR, Kreitzer MJ, Russas V, et al. Mindfulness meditation to reduce symptoms after organ transplant: a pilot study. Adv Mind Body Med 2004;20(2):20-9.
- 403. Kristeller JL, Quillian-Wolever RE, Sheets V. Mindfulness-based eating awareness training (MB-EAT): an innovative treatment for compulsive eating and obesity [abstract]. In: Society of Behavioral Medicine Annual Meeting; Boston.; 2005. p. S108.

- 404. Latha DR, Kaliappan KV. Efficacy of yoga therapy in the management of headaches. Indian J Psychol 1992;10(1-2):41-7.
- Lee MS, Huh HJ, Jeong SM. Effects of qigong on immune cells. Am J Chin Med 2003;31(2):327-35.
- Lee SW, Mancuso CA, Charlson ME.
   Prospective study of new participants in a community-based mind-body training program. J Gen Intern Med 2004;19(7):760-5.
- 407. MacLean CR, Walton KG, Wenneberg SR. Effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on adaptive mechanisms: changes in hormone levels and responses to stress after 4 months of practice. Psychoneuroendocrinology 1997;22(4):277-95.
- Li F, Harmer P, Chaumeton NR. Tai chi as a means to enhance self-esteem: a randomized controlled trial. J Appl Gerontol 2002;21(1):70-89.
- 409. Li F, Harmer P, Fisher KJ. Tai chi and fall reductions in older adults: a randomized controlled trial. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 2005;60(2):187-94.
- Lukoff DG, Wallace CJ, Liberman RP. A holistic program for chronic schizophrenic patients. Schizophr Bull 1986;12(2):274-82.
- Malathi A, Damodaran A, Shah N. Selfactualization and practice of yoga. NIMHANS Journal 1999;17(1):39-44.
- Mason LI. Electrophysiological correlates of higher states of consciousness during sleep [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1995.
- 413. McGibbon CA, Krebs DE, Parker SW. Tai chi and vestibular rehabilitation improve vestibulopathic gait via different neuromuscular mechanisms: preliminary report. BMC Neurol 2005;5(3).
- Nakao M, Myers P, Fricchione GL. Somatization and symptom reduction through a behavioral medicine intervention in a mind/body medicine clinic. Behav Med 2001;26(4):169-76.
- 415. Narendran S , Nagarathna R, Narendran V. Efficacy of yoga on pregnancy outcome. J Altern Complement Med 2005;11(2):237-44.

- 416. O'Halloran JP, Jevning RA, Wilson AF. Hormonal control in a state of decreased activation: potentiation of arginine vasopressin secretion. Physiol Behav 1985;35(4):591-5.
- 417. Panjwani U, Selvamurthy W, Singh SH. Effect of sahaja yoga meditation on auditory evoked potentials (AEP) and visual contrast sensitivity (VCS) in epileptics. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 2000;25(1):1-12.
- 418. Pelletier KR. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on perceptual style: increased field independence. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 337-45.
- 419. Robinson FP, Mathews HL, Witek-Janusek L. Psycho-endocrine-immune response to mindfulness-based stress reduction in individuals infected with the human immunodeficiency virus: a quasiexperimental study. J Altern Complement Med 2003;9(5):683-94.
- 420. Sagula DA, Rice KG. The effectiveness of mindfulness training on the grieving process and emotional well-being of chronic pain patients. J Clin Psychol Med Settings 2004;11(4):333-42.
- 421. Lynch GV. Patient variables associated with treatment completion in a mindfulness meditation-based stress reduction (MBSR) treatment for fibromyalgia: implications for prescriptive matching and participation enhancement [dissertation]. Louisville, KY: University of Lousiville; 2004.
- 422. Shafil M, Lavely R, Jaffe R. Meditation and the prevention of alcohol abuse. Am J Psychiatry 1975;132(9):942-5.
- 423. Shapiro SL. Mindfulness-based stress reduction and breast cancer [dissertation]. Tempe, AZ: University of Arizona; 2002.
- 424. Smith JC. Personality correlates of continuation and outcome in meditation and erect sitting control treatments. J Consult Clin Psychol 1978:46(2):272-9.
- 425. Taggart HM. Effects of tai chi exercise on balance, functional mobility, and fear of falling among older women. Appl Nurs Res 2002;15(4):235-42.

- 426. Murata T, Takahashi T, Hamada T. Individual trait anxiety levels characterizing the properties of Zen meditation. Neuropsychobiology 2004;50(2):189-94.
- Teasdale JD, Segal ZV, Williams JM. Prevention of relapse/recurrence in major depression by mindfulness-based cognitive therapy. J Consult Clin Psychol 2000;68(4):615-23.
- Tebecis AK. A controlled study of the EEG during Transcendental Meditation: comparison with hypnosis. Folia Psychiatr Neurol Jpn 1975;29(4):305-13.
- Throll DA. Transcendental Meditation and progressive relaxation: their physiological effects. J Clin Psychol 1982;38(3):522-30.
- 430. Tiefenthaler T, Grossman P. Buddhist psychology's potential contribution to psychosomatic medicine: evidence from a mindfulness program for fibromyalgia [abstract]. In: 60th Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; Barcelona, Spain.; 2002. No. 1636.
- 431. Wagstaff GF, Brunas-Wagstaff J, Cole J, et al. Facilitating memory with hypnosis, focused meditation, and eye closure. Int J Clin Exp Hypn 2004;52(4):434-55.
- 432. Wang JS, Lan C, Chen SY, et al. Tai chi chuan training is associated with enhanced endothelium-dependent dilation in skin vasculature of healthy older men. J Am Geriatr Soc 2002;50(6):1024-30.
- 433. Maclean CRK. Mechanisms relating stress reduction and health: changes in neuroendocrine responses to laboratory stress after four months of Transcendental Meditation [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1995.
- 434. Wolf DB, Abell N. Examining the effects of meditation techniques on psychosocial functioning. Res Soc Work Pract 2003;13(1):27-42.
- 435. Yan JH. Tai chi practice improves senior citizens' balance and arm movement control. J Aging Phys Act 1998;6(3):271-84.
- 436. Abrams AI. Paired-associate learning and recall: a pilot study of the Transcendental Meditation program. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 377-81.

- 437. Adler P, Good M, Roberts B, et al. The effects of Tai Chi on older adults with chronic arthritis pain. J Nurs Scholarship 2000;32(4):377.
- 438. Alexander CN. Ego development, personality and behavioral change in inmates practicing the Transcendental Meditation technique or participating in other programs: a cross-sectional and longitudinal study [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1982;43(2B):539.
- 439. Alexander CN, Orme-Johnson DW. Walpole study of the Transcendental Meditation program in maximum security prisoners II: longitudinal study of development and psychopathology. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):127-60.
- 440. Alexander CN, Swanson GC, Rainforth MV, et al. Effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on stress reduction, health, and employee development: a prospective study in two occupational settings. Anxiety Stress Coping: Int J 1993;6(3):245-62.
- Alexander CN, Walton KG, Goodman RS.
   Walpole study of the Transcendental Meditation program in maximum security prisoners I: cross-sectional differences in development and psychopathology. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):97-125.
- 442. Altman KER. A brief therapy model to reduce stress by practicing breathing exercises, mindful meditation, and yoga stretching [dissertation]. Chicago: Capella University; 2000.
- Andersen DT. Empathy, attachment, meditation, and mental health [dissertation]. Garden City, NY: Adelphi University; 2000.
- 444. Arcari PM. Efficacy of a workplace smoking cessation program: mindfulness meditation vs cognitive-behavioral interventions [dissertation]. Boston: Boston University; 1996.
- 445. Armstrong WJ, Smedley JMS. Effects of a homebased yoga exercise program on flexibility in older women. Clin Kinesiology: J Am Kinesiotherapy Assoc 2003;57(1):1-6.
- 446. Aron EN, Aron A. Transcendental Meditation program and marital adjustment. Psychol Rep 1982;51(3 Pt 1):887-90.
- 447. Astin JA. Stress reduction through mindfulness meditation: effects on psychological symptomatology, sense of control, and spiritual experiences. Psychother Psychosom 1997;66(2):97-106.

- 448. Astin JA, Berman BM, Bausell B, et al. The efficacy of mindfulness meditation plus qigong movement therapy in the treatment of fibromyalgia: a randomized controlled trial. J Rheumatol 2003;30(10):2257-62.
- 449. Badawi K, Wallace RK, Orme-Johnson DW, et al. Electrophysiologic characteristics of respiratory suspension periods occurring during the practice of the Transcendental Meditation program. Psychosom Med 1984;46(3):267-76.
- 450. Banquet JP, Haynes CT, Hebert JR. Analysis of sleep in altered states of consciousness by classical EEG and coherence spectra. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 835-6.
- 451. Banquet JP, Haynes CT, Hebert JR. Sleep and dream in altered states of consciousness. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 836-40.
- 452. Banquet JP, Sailhan M. Quantified EEG spectral analysis of sleep and Transcendental Meditation. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 182-6.
- 453. Barnes VA. Reduced cardiovascular and allcause mortality in older African Americans practicing the Transcendental Meditation [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1996.
- Beauchamp-Turner DL, Levinson DM. Effects of meditation on stress, health, and affect. Med Psychother: Int J 1992;5:123-31.
- 455. Becht AC. The effectiveness of deep muscle relaxation with positive imagery and cognitive meditative therapy in treatment of stress resulting from subjective continuous tinnitus in hearing adults [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1982;43(6B):1968.
- Becker DE, Shapiro D. Physiological responses to clicks during Zen, yoga, and TM meditation. Psychophysiology 1981;18(6):694-9.

- 457. Beddoe AE, Murphy SO. Does mindfulness decrease stress and foster empathy among nursing students? J Nurs Educ 2004;43(7):305-12
- Bennett JE, Trinder J. Hemispheric laterality and cognitive style associated with Transcendental Meditation. Psychophysiology 1977;14(3):293-6.
- 459. Benson H, Alexander S, Feldman CL. Decreased premature ventricular contractions through use of the relaxation response in patients with stable ischaemic heart-disease. Lancet 1975;2(7931):380-2.
- 460. Benson H, Frankel FH, Apfel R, et al. Treatment of anxiety: a comparison of the usefulness of selfhypnosis and a meditational relaxation technique: an overview. Psychother Psychosom 1978;30(3-4):229-42.
- Berger BG, Owen DR. Mood alteration with yoga and swimming: aerobic exercise may not be necessary. Percept Mot Skills 1992;75(3 Pt 2):1331-43.
- 462. Berger BG, Owen DR. Stress reduction and mood enhancement in four exercise modes: swimming, body conditioning, hatha yoga, and fencing. Res Q Exerc Sport 1988;59(2):148-59.
- 463. Berker E. Stability of skin resistance responses one week after instruction in the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977 . p. 243-
- 464. Berman BM, Singh BB. Chronic low back pain: an outcome analysis of a mind-body intervention. Complement Ther Med 1997;5(1):29-35.
- 465. Bernardi L, Passino C, Wilmerding V, et al. Breathing patterns and cardiovascular autonomic modulation during hypoxia induced by simulated altitude. J Hypertens 2001;19(5):947-58.
- 466. Berrettini RB. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on short-term recall performance. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 975-82.

- 467. Bhatti T, Gillin J, Atkinson J, et al. T'ai chi chih as a treatment for chronic low back pain: a randomized, controlled study. Altern Ther 1998;4(2):90-1.
- Birkel DA, Edgren L. Hatha yoga: improved vital capacity of college students. Altern Ther Health Med 2000;6(6):55-63.
- 469. Boes R. Mothers' adjustment after childbirth: examining effects of the mother baby program of Maharishi vedic approach to health on maternal postpartum health and recovery (Maharishi vedic science) [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1999.
- 470. Bond DS, Lyle RM, Tappe MK, et al. Moderate aerobic exercise, t'ai chi, and social problemsolving ability in relation to psychological stress. Int J Stress Manage 2002;9(4):329-43.
- 471. Bosmajian LS. Role of expectancy and pretreatment personality in subjects' self-actualizing changes while practicing Transcendental Meditation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1099-107.
- Boswell PC, Murray EJ. Effects of meditation on psychological and physiological measures of anxiety. J Consult Clin Psychol 1979;47(3):606-7.
- 473. Boyle CA, Sayers SP, Jensen BE, et al. The effects of yoga training and a single bout of yoga on delayed onset muscle soreness in the lower extremity. J Strength Cond Res 2004;18(4):723-9.
- 474. Brach AW. Clinical applications of meditation: a treatment outcome evaluation study of an intervention for binge eating among the obese that combines formal meditation and contingent formal and informal meditation [dissertation]. Santa Barbara, CA: The Fielding Graduate Institute; 1990.
- 475. Bradley BW, McCanne TR. Autonomic responses to stress: the effects of progressive relaxation, the relaxation response, and expectancy of relief. Biofeedback Self Regul 1981;6(2):235-51.
- Brandon JE, Eason RL, Warren B, et al. Training meditation and behavioral relaxation techniques. Health Values Achieving High Level Wellness 1986;10(2):3-8.

- 477. Brandon JE, Poppen R. A comparison of behaviorial, meditation, and placebo control relaxation training procedures. Health Educ 1985;16(5):42-6,33.
- Brooks JS, Scarano T. Transcendental Meditation in the treatment of post-Vietnam adjustment. J Couns Dev 1985;64(3):212-5.
- 479. Brown D, Forte M, Dysart M. Differences in visual sensitivity among mindfulness meditators and non-meditators. Percept Mot Skills 1984;58(3):727-33.
- 480. Brown DR, Wang Y, Ward A, et al. Chronic psychological effects of exercise and exercise plus cognitive strategies. Med Sci Sports 1995;27(5):765-75.
- 481. Brown LL, Robinson SE. The relationship between meditation and/or exercise and three measures of self-actualization. J Ment Health Counc 1993;15(1):85-93.
- 482. Bruckstein DC. Effects of acceptance-based and cognitive behavioral interventions on chronic pain management [dissertation]. Hempstead, NY: Hofstra University; 1999.
- 483. Bruning NS, Frew DR. Effects of exercise, relaxation, and management skills training on physiological stress indicators: a field experiment. J Appl Psychol 1987;72(4):515-21.
- Carr-Kaffashan L, Woolfolk RL. Active and placebo effects in treatment of moderate and severe insomnia. J Consult Clin Psychol 1979;47(6):1072-80.
- 485. Carson JW, Carson KM, Gil KM, et al. Mindfulness-based relationship enhancement. Behav Ther 2004;35(3):471-94.
- 486. Cartwright R, Butters E, Weinstein M, et al. The effects of presleep stimuli of different sources and types on REM sleep. Psychophysiology 1977;14(4):388-92.
- 487. Chandler HM. Transcendental Meditation and awakening wisdom: a 10-year longitudinal study of self-development [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1990.
- 488. Chang VY, Palesh O, Caldwell R, et al. The effects of a mindfulness-based stress reduction program on stress, mindfulness self-efficacy, and positive states of mind. Stress Health 2004;20(3):141-7.

- 489. Christou EA, Yang Y, Rosengren KS. Taiji training improves knee extensor strength and force control in older adults. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 2003;58(8):763-6.
- Clancy CP. Coping with intrusive thoughts and worries: what strategies work best? [dissertation]. Greensboro, NC: University of North Carolina; 2003
- Clay CC, Lloyd UK, Walker JL, et al. The metabolic cost of hatha yoga. J Strength Cond Res 2005;19(3):604-10.
- Cohen J. A preliminary investigation on time perception and autonomic self-regulation. Biofeedback Self Regul 1981;6(3):289-93.
- 493. Cohen-Katz J, Wiley SD, Capuano T, et al. The effects of mindfulness-based stress reduction on nurse stress and burnout, part II: a quantitative and qualitative study. Holist Nurs Pract 2005;19(1):26-35. Erratum in: Holist Nurs Pract 2005 Mar-Apr;19(2):78.
- 494. Colby F. An analogue study of the initial carryover effects of meditation, hypnosis, and relaxation using native college students.Biofeedback Self Regul 1991;16(2):157-65.
- Compton WC, Becker GM. Self-actualizations and experience with Zen meditation: is a learning period necessary for meditation? J Clin Psychol 1983;39(6):925-9.
- 496. Connell DM. The relationship between siddha meditation and stress in psychotherapists: a transcriptional perspective [dissertation]. Santa Barbara, CA: Fielding Graduate Institute; 1996.
- 497. Cooper AE. An investigation of the relationships among spirituality, prayer and meditation, and aspects of stress and coping [dissertation]. Berkeley, CA: Wright Institute; 2003.
- Corby JC, Roth WT, Zarcone VP Jr, et al. Psychophysiological correlates of the practice of tantric yoga meditation. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1978;35(5):571-7.
- 499. Corey PW. Airway conductance and oxygen consumption changes associated with practice of the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 94-107.

- Cowger EL, Torrance EP. Further examination of the quality of changes in creative functioning resulting from meditation (zazen) training. Creative Child Adult Q 1982;7(4):211-7.
- Cranson RW, Orme-Johnson DW, Gackenbach J, et al. Transcendental Meditation and improved performance on intelligence-related measures: a longitudinal study. Pers Individ Dif 1991;12(10):1105-16.
- 502. Creamer P, Singh BB, Hochberg MC, et al. Sustained improvement produced by nonpharmacologic intervention in fibromyalgia: results of a pilot study. Arthritis Care Res 2000;13(4):198-204.
- 503. Credidio SG. Comparative effectiveness of patterned biofeedback vs meditation training on EMG and skin temperature changes. Behav Res Ther 1982;20(3):233-41.
- Crowe RL. Time perception and hassles appraisal in beginning meditators and non-meditators [dissertation]. New York: New York University; 1989.
- 505. Cunningham M, Koch W. The Transcendental Meditation program and rehabilitation: a pilot project at the federal correctional institution at Lompoc, California. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 562-7.
- 506. Currey MD III. Meditation, cognitive appraisal, and coping: a study of the influence of meditation on stress [dissertation]. Santa Babara, CA: Fielding Graduate Institute; 1993.
- 507. Curry NA, Kasser T. Can coloring mandalas reduce anxiety? Art Ther 2005;22(2):81-5.
- Curtis WD, Wessberg HW. A comparison of heart rate, respiration, and galvanic skin response among meditators, relaxers, and controls. J Altered States Consciousness 1975-1976;2(4):319-24.
- 509. Daniels D. Comparison of the Transcendental Meditation technique to various relaxation procedures. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 864-8.

- 510. Datey KK, Deshmukh SN, Dalvi CP, et al. "Shavasan": a yogic exercise in the management of hypertension. Angiology 1969;20(6):325-33.
- Davidson RJ, Goleman DJ, Schwartz GE. Attentional and affective concomitants of meditation: a cross-sectional study. J Abnorm Psychol 1976;85(2):235-8.
- Davidson RJ, Kabat-Zinn J, Schumacher J, et al. Alterations in brain and immune function produced by mindfulness meditation. Psychosom Med 2003;65(4):564-70.
- Dayton T, Boles DB. No difference in cerebral hemispheric asymmetry of meditators as opposed to nonmeditators. Bull Psychon Soc 1990;28(3):211-4.
- 514. de Lone ST. The psychological effect of movement meditation as a self-control strategy for stress management [dissertation].
   Philadelphia: Temple University; 1985.
- 515. Deckro GR, Ballinger KM, Hoyt M, et al. The evaluation of a mind/body intervention to reduce psychological distress and perceived stress in college students. J Am Coll Health 2002;50(6):281-7.
- 516. DeMayo W, Singh BB, Duryea B, et al. Hatha yoga and meditation in patients with post-polio syndrome. Altern Ther Health Med 2004;10(2):24-5.
- Diebold JC. Mindfulness in the machine: a mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for the reduction of driving anger [dissertation]. Hempstead, NY: Hofstra University; 2003.
- 518. Dillbeck MC. Meditation and flexibility of visual perception and verbal problem solving. Mem Cognit 1982;10(3):207-15.
- Dillbeck MC, Bronson EC. Short-term longitudinal effects of the Transcendental Meditation technique on EEG power and coherence. Int J Neurosci 1981;14(3-4):147-51.
- Dillbeck MC, Vesely SA. Participation in the Transcendental Meditation program and frontal EEG coherence during concept learning. Int J Neurosci 1986;29(1-2):45-55.
- 521. Domar AD, Noe JM, Benson H. The preoperative use of the relaxation response with ambulatory surgery patients. Hosp Top 1987;65(4):30-5.

- 522. Domino G. Transcendental Meditation and creativity: an empirical investigation. J Appl Psychol 1977;62(3):358-62.
- Duncan L, Weissenburger D. Effects of a brief meditation program on well-being and loneliness. TCA Journal 2003;31(1):4-14.
- 524. Eisen AR, Rapee RM, Barlow DH. The effects of breathing rate and pCO-sub-2 levels on relaxation and anxiety in a non-clinical population. J Anxiety Disord 1990;4(3):183-90.
- 525. Eisenberg DM, Landsberg L, Allred EN, et al. Inability to demonstrate physiologic correlates of subjective improvement among patients taught the relaxation response. J Gen Intern Med 1991;6(1):64-70.
- 526. Elson BD, Hauri P, Cunis D. Physiological changes in yoga meditation. Psychophysiology 1977;14(1):52-7.
- Engelman SR, Clance PR, Imes S. Self and body-cathexis change in therapy and yoga groups. J Am Soc Psychosom Dent Med 1982;29(3):77-88.
- English EH, Baker TB. Relaxation training and cardiovascular response to experimental stressors. Health Psychol 1983;2(3):239-59.
- 529. Farge EJ, Hartung GH, Borland CM. Runners and meditators: a comparison of personality profiles. J Pers Assess 1979;43(5):501-3.
- 530. Fasko D, Hall G, Osborne MR, et al. Comeditation—an exploratory study of pulse and respiration rates and anxiety. Percept Mot Skills 1992;74(3):895-904.
- 531. Fee RA, Girdano DA. The relative effectiveness of three techniques to induce the trophotropic response. Biofeedback Self Regul 1978;3(2): 145-57.
- 532. Fehrer FC. The awareness response: a transpersonal approach to reducing maladaptive emotional reactivity [dissertation]. Palo Alto, CA: Institute of Transpersonal Psychology; 2002.
- 533. Ferguson RE. The Transcendental Meditation program at Massachusetts Correctional Institution Walpole: an evaluaton report. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1146-52.

- 534. Fergusson LC. Field independence, Transcendental Meditation, and achievement in college art: a reexamination. Percept Mot Skills 1993;77(3 Pt 2):1104-6.
- Fergusson LC. Field independence and art achievement in meditating and nonmeditating college students. Percept Mot Skills 1992;75(3 Pt 2):1171-5.
- Fiedler N, Vivona VE, Gochfeld M. Evaluation of a work site relaxation training program using ambulatory blood pressure monitoring. J Occup Med 1989;31(7):595-602.
- Fling S, Thomas A, Gallaher M. Participant characteristics and the effects of two types of meditation vs quiet sitting. J Clin Psychol 1981;37(4):784-90.
- 538. Floyd WT III, Haynes J. The influence of Transcendental Meditation on anxiety. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1037-9.
- Kindlon DJ. Comparison of use of meditation and rest in treatment of test anxiety. Psychol Rep 1983;53(3 Pt 1):931-8.
- 540. Frumkin LR, Pagano RR. The effect of Transcendental Meditation on iconic memory. Biofeedback Self Regul 1979;4(4):313-22.
- 541. Galantino MLA. Blending traditional and alternative strategies for rehabilitation: measuring functional outcomes and quality of life issues in an AIDS population [dissertation]. Philadelphia: Temple University; 1997.
- 542. Galantino MLA, Bzdewka TM, Eissler-Russo JL, et al. The impact of modified hatha yoga on chronic low back pain: a pilot study. Altern Ther Health Med 2004;10(2):56-9.
- 543. Garfinkel MS, Schumacher HR Jr, Husain A, et al. Evaluation of a yoga based regimen for treatment of osteoarthritis of the hands. J Rheumatol 1994;21(12):2341-3.
- 544. Garfinkel MS, Singhal A, Katz WA, et al. Yogabased intervention for carpal tunnel syndrome: a randomized trial. JAMA 1998;280(18):1601-3.

- 545. Gaylord C, Orme-Johnson DW, Travis FT. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation technique and progressive muscle relaxation on EEG coherence, stress reactivity, and mental health in black adults. Int J Neurosci 1989;46(1-2):77-86.
- 546. Gelderloos P, Beto ZH. The Transcendental Meditation and TM-sidhi program and reported experiences of transcendental consciousness. Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1989;32(2):91-103.
- 547. Gelderloos P, Goddard PH, Ahlstrom HH, et al. Cognitive orientation toward positive values in advanced participants of the TM and TM-sidhi program. Percept Mot Skills 1987;64(3 Pt 1):1003-12.
- 548. Gelderloos P, Hermans HJ, Ahlscrom HH, et al. Transcendence and psychological health: studies with long-term participants of the Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi program. J Psychol 1990;124(2):177-97.
- 549. Ghoncheh S, Smith JC. Progressive muscle relaxation, yoga stretching, and ABC relaxation theory. J Clin Psychol 2004;60(1):131-6.
- 550. Gillani NB, Smith JC. Zen meditation and ABC relaxation theory: an exploration of relaxation states, beliefs, dispositions, and motivations. J Clin Psychol 2001;57(6):839-46.
- 551. Glaser JL, Brind JL, Vogelman JH, et al. Elevated serum dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate levels in practitioners of the Transcendental Meditation (TM) and TM-sidhi programs. J Behav Med 1992;15(4):327-41.
- 552. Goddard PH. Transcendental Meditation as an intervention in the aging of neurocognitive function: reduced age-related declines of P300 latencies in elderly practitioners [ dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1992.
- 553. Goldenberg DL, Kaplan KH, Nadeau MG, et al. A controlled study of a stress-reduction, cognitive-behavioral treatment program in fibromyalgia. J Musculoskeletal Pain 1994;2(2):53-66.
- Goldman BL, Dormitor PJ, Murray EJ. Effects of Zen meditation on anxiety reduction and perceptual functioning. J Consult Clin Psychol 1979;47(3):551-6.
- 555. Goleman DJ, Schwartz GE. Meditation as an intervention in stress reactivity. J Consult Clin Psychol 1976;44(3):456-66.

- 556. Goodman M, Owens J, Plews-Ogan ML, et al. Treating chronic pain: a randomized trial of mindfulness based stress reduction, massage and usual care. J Gen Intern Med 2004;19(1 Suppl):229.
- 557. Gore SW, Abrams AI, Ellis GA. The effect of statewide implementation of the Maharishi technology of the unified field in the Vermont Department of Corrections. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1991. p. 2453-64.
- Green RG, Green ML. Relaxation increases salivary immunoglobulin A. Psychol Rep 1987;61(2):623-9.
- 559. Greendale GA, McDivit A, Carpenter A, et al. Yoga for women with hyperkyphosis: results of a pilot study. Am J Pub Health 2002;92(10):1611-4
- 560. Griggs ST. A preliminary study into the effect of Transcendental Meditation on empathy. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1051-7.
- Gupta NC. Effects of Transcendental Meditation on anxiety and self-concept. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1046-50.
- 562. Haber D. Yoga as a preventive health care program for white and black elders: an exploratory study. Int J Aging Hum Dev 1983;17(3):169-76.
- 563. Hahn HR, Whalen TE. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on levels of hostility, anxiety, and depression. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1030-6.

- Hain TC, Fuller L, Weil L, et al. Effects of t'ai chi on balance. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 1999;125(11):1191-5.
- 565. Hakim RM, DiCicco J, Burke JL, et al. Differences in balance related measures among older adults participating in tai chi, structured exercise, or no exercise. J Geriatr Phys Ther 2004;27(1):11-5.
- 566. Hakim RM, Newton RA, Segal J, et al. A group intervention to reduce fall risk factors in community-dwelling older adults. Phys Occup Ther Geriatr 2003;22(1):1-20.
- 567. Hall JM. The relaxation response as an inoculation to arousal and a facilitator of decision-making [dissertation]. Hempstead, NY: Hofstra University; 2003.
- 568. Handmacher BH. Length of time spent in the practice of Transcendental Meditation and sex differences related to intrapersonal and interpersonal orientation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 2020-7.
- 569. Hankins KM. Comparison of the effects of two relaxation programs on the anxiety of freshmen and sophomore college students [dissertation]. Waco, TX: Baylor University; 1985.
- Hanley CP, Spates JL. Transcendental Meditation and social psychological attitudes. J Psychol Interdisciplinary Appl 1978;99(2):121-7.
- 571. Harrison SD, Pagano R, Warrenburg WS. Meditation and right hemispheric functioning—spatial localization. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 973-4.
- 572. Hart DE, Means JR. Effects of meditation vs professional reading on students' perceptions of paraprofessional counselors' effectiveness. Psychol Rep 1982;51(2):479-82.
- 573. Hartman CA, Manos TM, Winter C, et al. Effects of t'ai chi training on function and quality of life indicators in older adults with osteoarthritis. J Am Geriatr Soc 2000;48(12):1553-9.

- 574. Harvey JR. The effect of yogic breathing exercises on mood. J Am Soc Psychosom Dent Med 1983;30(2):39-48.
- 575. Hebert JR, Ebbeling CB, Olendzki BC, et al. Change in women's diet and body mass following intensive intervention for early-stage breast cancer. J Am Diet Assoc 2001;101(4):421-31.
- Heide FJ. Psychophysiological responsiveness to auditory stimulation during Transcendental Meditation. Psychophysiology 1986;23(1):71-5.
- Heide FJ, Borkovec TD. Relaxation-induced anxiety: paradoxical anxiety enhancement due to relaxation training. J Consult Clin Psychol 1983;51(2):171-82.
- Helene B, Ford P. Mind-body innovations—an integrative care approach. Psychiatr Q 2000;71(1):47-58.
- 579. Hellman CJ, Budd M, Borysenko JZ, et al. A study of the effectiveness of two group behavioral medicine interventions for patients with psychosomatic complaints. Behav Med 1990;16(4):165-73.
- Hewitt J, Miller R. Relative effects of meditation vs other activities on ratings of relaxation and enjoyment of others. Psychol Rep 1981;48(2):395-8.
- 581. Hill DA. Beta-adrenergic receptor sensitivity, autonomic balance and serotonergic activity in practitioners of Transcendental Meditation [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1989.
- Hjelle LA. Transcendental Meditation and psychological health. Percept Mot Skills 1974;39(1 Pt 2):623-8.
- 583. Holeman R, Seiler G. Effects of sensitivity training and Transcendental Meditation on perception of others. Percept Mot Skills 1979;49(1):270.
- 584. Holmer ML. The effects of yoga on symptoms and psychosocial adjustment in fibromyalgia syndrome patients [dissertation]. San Diego, CA: California School of Professional Psychology; 2004.
- 585. Holmes DS, Solomon S, Cappo BM, et al. Effect of Transcendental Meditation versus resting on physiological and subjective arousal. J Pers Soc Psychol 1983;44(6):1245-52.

- Holt WR, Caruso JL, Riley JB. Transcendental Meditation vs pseudo-meditation on visual choice reaction time. Percept Mot Skills 1978;46(3 Pt 1):726.
- 587. Honsberger RW, Wilson AF. The effect of Transcendental Meditation upon bronchial asthma. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 279.
- 588. Hugel K, Sciandra T. The effects of a 12-week tai chi program on thoracolumbar, hip, and knee flexion in adults 50 years and older. Issues on Aging 2000;23(3):15-8.
- Humphrey CW. A stress management intervention with forgiveness as the goal (meditation, mind-body medicine) [dissertation]. Cincinnati, OH: Union Institute and University; 1999.
- 590. Husted C, Pham L, Hekking A, et al. Improving quality of life for people with chronic conditions: the example of t'ai chi and multiple sclerosis. Altern Ther Health Med 1999;5(5):70-4.
- 591. Huynh LN. The effects of mantra meditation and religious orientation on psychological distress and self-actualization among Vietnamese American Buddhists [dissertation]. Los Angeles: California School of Professional Psychology; 2004.
- Irvin JH, Domar AD, Clark C, et al. The effects of relaxation response training on menopausal symptoms. J Psychosom Obstet Gynaecol 1996;17(4):202-7.
- 593. Jacobs BJ. The influence of a mindfulness-based stress reduction program on perceived quality of life [dissertation]. Albuquerque, NM: University of New Mexico; 2001.
- 594. Jacobs GD, Benson H, Friedman R. Topographic EEG mapping of the relaxation response. Biofeedback Self Regul 1996;21(2):121-9.
- 595. Jacobson BH, Chen HC, Cashel C. The effect of t'ai chi chuan training on balance, kinesthetic sense, and strength. Percept Mot Skills 1997;84(1):27-33.
- 596. Janer E, Valeriano J, Aziz NM, et al. Effect of tai-chi on bone mineral density: a clinical investigation. Arthritis Rheum 1996;39(6 Suppl):R21.

- Janowiak JJ, Hackman R. Meditation and college students' self-actualization and rated stress. Psychol Rep 1994;75(2):1007-10.
- Jevning RA, Anand R, Biedebach M. Effects on regional cerebral blood flow of Transcendental Meditation. Physiol Behav 1996;59(3):399-402.
- Jevning RA, Pirkle HC, Wilson AF. Behavioral alteration of plasma phenylalanine concentration. Physiol Behav 1977;19(5):611-4.
- Jevning RA, Smith R, Wilson AF. Alterations in blood-flow during Transcendental Meditation. Clin Res 1976;24(2):A139.
- Jevning RA, Wilson AF, VanderLaan EF. Plasma prolactin and growth hormone during meditation. Psychosom Med 1978;40(4):329-3.
- 602. Jones JT. A growth curve analysis study examining the relationship between a meditationbased stress reduction program and components of subjective well-being [dissertation]. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois; 1999.
- Judge JO, Lindsey C, Underwood M. Balance improvements in older women: effects of exercise training. Phys Ther 1993;73(4):254-62; discussion 263-5.
- 604. Kabat-Zinn J. An outpatient program in behavioral medicine for chronic pain patients based on the practice of mindfulness meditation: theoretical considerations and preliminary results. Gen Hosp Psychiatry 1982;4(1):33-47.
- Kabat-Zinn J, Lipworth L, Burney R. The clinical use of mindfulness meditation for the selfregulation of chronic pain. J Behav Med 1985;8(2):163-90.
- 606. Kabat-Zinn J, Massion AO, Kristeller JL, et al. Effectiveness of a meditation-based stress reduction program in the treatment of anxiety disorders. Am J Psychiatry 1992;149(7):936-43.
- Kanas N, Horowitz MJ. Reactions of transcendental meditators and nonmeditators to stress films: a cognitive study. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1977;34(12):1431-6.
- Kaplan H, Brooks R, Cassone P, et al. The effects of tai-chi on seniors with developmental disabilities. Phys Occup Ther Geriatr 2003;21(4):41-51.

- 609. Kaplan KH, Goldenberg DL, Galvin-Nadeau M. The impact of a meditation-based stress reduction program on fibromyalgia. Gen Hosp Psychiatry 1993;15(5):284-9.
- 610. Keefer L, Blanchard EB. The effects of relaxation response meditation on the symptoms of irritable bowel syndrome: results of a controlled treatment study. Behav Res Ther 2001;39(7):801-11.
- Kennedy JE, Abbott RA, Rosenberg BS. Changes in spirituality and well-being in a retreat program for cardiac patients. Altern Ther Health Med 1968;8(4):64-6.
- Kesterson JB, Clinch NF. Metabolic rate, respiratory exchange ratio, and apneas during meditation. Am J Physiol 1989;256(3 Pt 2):R632-8.
- 613. Khalsa SB. Treatment of chronic insomnia with yoga: a preliminary study with sleep-wake diaries. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 2004;29(4):269-78.
- 614. Khalsa SK. Effects of two types of meditation on self-esteem of introverts and extraverts [ dissertation]. Berkeley, CA: University of California; 1990.
- Khasky AD, Smith JC. Stress, relaxation states, and creativity. Percept Mot Skills 1999;88(2):409-16.
- Kirkland K, Hollandsworth JG. Effective test taking: skills-acquisition versus anxiety-reduction techniques. J Consult Clin Psychol 1980;48(4):431-9.
- 617. Kirsteins AE, Dietz F, Hwang SM. Evaluating the safety and potential use of a weight-bearing exercise, tai-chi chuan, for rheumatoid arthritis patients. Am J Phys Med Rehabil 1991;70(3):136-41.
- 618. Klein MH, Greist JH, Gurman AS, et al. A comparative outcome study of group psychotherapy vs exercise treatments for depression. Int J Ment Health 1984-1985;13(3-4):148-77.
- 619. Klemons IM. Changes in inflammation in persons practicing the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 287-91.

- Kristeller JL, Hallett CB. An exploratory study of a meditation-based intervention for binge eating disorder. J Health Psychol 1999;4(3):357-63.
- 621. Kutz I et al. Meditation as an adjunct to psychotherapy: an outcome study. Psychother Psychosom 1985;43(4):209-18.
- Lavey R, Sherman T, Mueser KT. The effects of yoga on mood in psychiatric inpatients. Psychiatr Rehabil J 2005;28(4):399-402.
- 623. Lawson KL, Horneffer KJ. Roots and wings: a pilot of a mind-body-spirit program. J Holist Nurs 2002;20(3):250-63.
- 624. Lazar Z, Farwell L, Farrow JT. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on anxiety, drug abuse, cigarette smoking, and alcohol consumption. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977, p. 524-35.
- 625. Lehmann JW, Goodale IL, Benson H. Reduced pupillary sensitivity to topical phenylephrine associated with the relaxation response. J Hum Stress 1986;12(3):101-4.
- 626. Lehrer PM et al. Progressive relaxation and meditation: a study of psychophysiological and therapeutic differences between two techniques. Behav Res Ther 1983;21(6):651-62.
- 627. Lehrer PM, Schoicket SL, Carrington P. Psychophysiological and cognitive responses to stressful stimuli in subjects practicing progressive relaxation and clinically standardized meditation. Behav Res Ther 1980;18(4):293-303.
- 628. Lepuschitz JK, Hartman VL. Meditation and psychosocial adaptation: an exploratory study. Curr Psychol: Dev Learning Pers Soc 1996;15(3):215-22.
- Lesh TV. Zen meditation and the development of empathy in counselors. J Hum Psychol 1970;10(1):39-74.
- Levy AS. An exploration into the psychoanalytic treatment of the meditating patient [dissertation]. Cincinnati, OH: Union Institute and University; 1985
- 631. Li F, Fisher KJ, Harmer P. Tai chi and self-rated quality of sleep and daytime sleepiness in older adults: a randomized controlled trial. J Am Geriatr Soc 2004;52(6):892-900.

- 632. Li QZ, Li P, Garcia GE. Genomic profiling of neutrophil transcripts in Asian qigong practitioners: a pilot study in gene regulation by mind-body interaction. J Altern Complement Med 2005;11(1):29-39.
- Lintel AG III. Physiological anxiety responses in transcendental meditators and nonmeditators.
   Percept Mot Skills 1980;50(1):295-300.
- Liu GL, Cui RQ, Li GZ. Changes in brainstem and cortical auditory potentials during qi-gong meditation. Am J Chin Med 1990;18(3-4):95-103.
- 635. Lundgren JD. A mindfulness-based behavioral treatment for weight loss [dissertation]. Albany, NY: State University of New York; 2003.
- 636. Lutz A, Greischar LL, Rawlings NB. Long-term meditators self-induce high-amplitude gamma synchrony during mental practice. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2004;101(46):16369-73.
- 637. Maddi SR, Kahn S, Maddi KL. The effectiveness of hardiness training. Consult Psychol J: Pract Res 1998;50(2):78-86.
- 638. Madsen WC. Transcendental Meditation and the flexibility of constructions of reality. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1073-86.
- Malec J, Sipprelle CN. Physiological and subjective effects of Zen meditation and demand characteristics. J Consult Clin Psychol 1977;45(2):339-40.
- 640. Martinetti RF. Influence of Transcendental Meditation of perceptual illusion: a pilot study. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 949-50.
- Massion AO, Teas J, Hebert JR. Meditation, melatonin and breast/prostate cancer: hypothesis and preliminary data. Med Hypotheses 1995;44(1):39-46.
- 642. McCain NL, Zeller JM, Cella DF. The influence of stress management training in HIV disease. Nurs Res 1996;45(4):246-53.

- 643. Michaels RR, Huber MJ, McCann DS. Evaluation of Transcendental Meditation as a method of reducing stress. Science 1976;192(4245):1242-4.
- Michaels RR, Parra J, McCann DS. Renin, cortisol, and aldosterone during Transcendental Meditation. Psychosom Med 1979;41(1):50-4.
- 645. Mihay L, Iltzsche E, Tribby A. Balance and perceived confidence with performance of instrumental activities of daily living: a pilot study of tai chi inspired exercise with elderly retirement-community dwellers. Phys Occup Ther Geriatr 2003;21(3):75-86.
- 646. Mills PJ, Schneider RH, Hill DA. Betaadrenergic receptor sensitivity in subjects practicing Transcendental Meditation. J Psychosom Res 1990;34(1):29-33.
- 647. Mills WW, Farrow JT. The Transcendental Meditation technique and acute experimental pain. Psychosom Med 1981;43(2):157-64.
- 648. Miskiman DE. Performance on a learning task by subjects who practice the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 382-4.
- 649. Monahan RJ. Secondary prevention of drug dependence through the Transcendental Meditation program in metropolitan Philadelphia. Int J Addict 1977;12(6):729-54.
- 650. Monk-Turner E. The benefits of meditation: experimental findings. Soc Sci J 2003;40(3):465-70.
- Morrell EM, Hollandsworth JG Jr.
   Norepinephrine alterations under stress conditions following the regular practice of meditation. Psychosom Med 1986;48(3-4):270-7.
- 652. Morse DR, Cohen L, Furst ML. A physiological evaluation of the yoga concept of respiratory control of autonomic nervous system activity. Int J Psychosom 1984;31(1):3-19.
- 653. Morse DR, Schacterie GR, Furst ML, et al. The effects of stress and relaxation on oral digestion of a complex carbohydrate food. Int J Psychosom 1985;32(3):20-7.

- 654. Morse DR, Schacterie GR, Furst ML, et al. The effect of stress and meditation on salivary protein and bacteria: a review and pilot study. J Hum Stress 1982;8(4):31-9.
- 655. Morse DR, Martin JS, Furst ML. A physiological and subjective evaluation of meditation, hypnosis, and relaxation. Psychosom Med 1977;39(5):304-24.
- 656. Moss SB. The effects of cognitive behavior therapy, meditation, and yoga on self-ratings of stress and psychological functioning in college students [dissertation]. Hattiesburg, MI: University of Southern Mississippi; 2003.
- 657. Murphy L, Riley D, Rodgers J. Effects of tai chi on balance, mobility, and strength among older persons participating in an osteoporosis prevention and education program. Explore: J Sci Healing 2005;1(3):192-3.
- 658. Muskatel N, Woolfolk RL, Carrington P. Effect of meditation training on aspects of coronaryprone behavior. Percept Mot Skills 1984;58(2):515-8.
- 659. Nidich SI. Effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on state-trait anxiety. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 2063-5.
- 660. Nidich SI. The science of creative intelligence and the Transcendental Meditation program: reduction of drug and alcohol consumption. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 2115-23.
- 661. Nidich SI, Nidich RJ. The Transcendental Meditation and TM-sidhi program and moral development. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 2034-7.
- Nidich SI, Seeman W, Dreskin T. Influence of Transcendental Meditation: a replication. J Couns Psychol 1973;20(6):565-6.

- 663. Nidich SI, Seeman W, Seibert M. Influence of the Transcendental Meditation program on state anxiety. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 434-6.
- Nielsen HL. Emotion experience and physiology in response to masked and non-masked presentations of emotional pictures [dissertation]. Tempe, AZ: University of Arizona; 2003.
- 665. Nowalk MP, Prendergast JM, Bayles CM. A randomized trial of exercise programs among older individuals living in two long-term care facilities: the FallsFREE program. J Am Geriatr Soc 2001:49(7):859-65.
- Oken BS, Kishiyama S, Zajdel D. Randomized controlled trial of yoga and exercise in multiple sclerosis. Neurology 2004;62(11):2058-64.
- Oleshansky MB. The effects of hatha yoga on stress and coping [dissertation]. Los Angeles: California School of Professional Psychology; 2004.
- Orme-Johnson DW. Autonomic stability and Transcendental Meditation. Psychosom Med 1973;35(4):341-9.
- Orme-Johnson DW. Medical care utilization and the Transcendental Meditation program.
   Psychosom Med 1987;49(5):493-507. Erratum in: Psychosom Med 1987 Nov-Dec;49(6):637.
- 670. Orme-Johnson DW, Arthur GK, Franklin L. The Transcendental Meditation technique and drug abuse counselors. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 597-9.
- 671. Orme-Johnson DW, Duck B. Psychological testing of MIU students: first report. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 470-5.
- 672. Orme-Johnson DW, Kolb K, Hebert JR. An experimental analysis of the effects of the Transcendental Meditation technique on reaction time. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 316-25.

- 673. Ospina-Kammerer V, Figley CR. An evaluation of the respiratory one method (ROM) in reducing emotional exhaustion among family physician residents. Int J Emerg Ment Health 2003;5(1):29-32
- 674. Ottens AJ. The effect of Transcendental Meditation upon modifying the cigarette smoking habit. J Sch Health 1975;45(10):577-83.
- 675. Pagano RR, Frumkin LR. The effect of Transcendental Meditation on right hemispheric functioning. Biofeedback Self Regul 1977;2(4): 407-15.
- Pearl JH, Carlozzi AF. Effect of meditation on empathy and anxiety. Percept Mot Skills 1994;78(1):297-8.
- 677. Puente AE, Beiman I. The effects of behavior therapy, self-relaxation, and Transcendental Meditation on cardiovascular stress response. J Clin Psychol 1980;36(1):291-5.
- 678. Puente AE, Peacock LA. Effects of relaxation response training on attentional deficits in schizophrenics. Percept Mot Skills 1988;66(3):789-90.
- 679. Punyaniyama N. Temporal awareness and hassles appraisal: a comparison of working adults who practice full awareness of breathing meditation with those who practice waking dream imagery [dissertation]. New York: New York University; 1996.
- 680. Puryear HB, Cayce CT, Thurston MA. Anxiety reduction associated with meditation: home study. Percept Mot Skills 1976;42(43):527-31.
- 681. Ramel W, Goldin PR, Carmona PE. The effects of mindfulness meditation on cognitive processes and affect in patients with past depression. Cognit Ther Res 2004;28(4):433-55.
- 682. Randolph PD, Caldera YM, Tacone AM. The long-term combined effects of medical treatment and a mindfulness-based behavioral program for the multidisciplinary management of chronic pain in west Texas. Pain Digest 1999;9(2):103-12.
- 683. Raskin M, Bali LR, Peeke HV. Muscle biofeedback and Transcendental Meditation: a controlled evaluation of efficacy in the treatment of chronic anxiety. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1980;37(1):93-7.

- 684. Reibel DK, Greeson JM, Brainard GC. Mindfulness-based stress reduction and health-related quality of life in a heterogeneous patient population. Gen Hosp Psychiatry 2001;23(4):183-92.
- 685. Rimol AGP. The Transcendental Meditation technique and its effects on sensory-motor performance. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 326-34.
- 686. Robertson DW, Peterson JW. Change in cardiac output during Transcendental Meditation as measured by noninvasive impedance plethysmography. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1596-8.
- 687. Rocheleau AE. Mindfulness-based intervention as an adjunctive treatment for enhancing outcomes obtained with traditional parent training for conduct problem children [dissertation]. Durham, NC: Duke University; 2002.
- Rogers CA, Livingston DD. Accumulative effects of periodic relaxation. Percept Mot Skills 1977;44(3 Pt 1):690.
- 689. Rosenzweig S, Reibel DK, Greeson JM. Mindfulness-based stress reduction lowers psychological distress in medical students. Teach Learn Med 2003;15(2):88-92.
- 690. Ross MC, Bohannon AS, Davis DC. The effects of a short-term exercise program on movement, pain, and mood in the elderly: results of a pilot study. J Holist Nurs 1999;17(2):139-47.
- 691. Roth B, Robbins D. Mindfulness-based stress reduction and health-related quality of life: findings from a bilingual inner-city patient population. Psychosom Med 2004;66(1):113-23.
- 692. Roth B, Stanley TW. Mindfulness-based stress reduction and healthcare utilization in the inner city: preliminary findings. Altern Ther Health Med 1964;8(1):60-2.

- 693. Routt TJ. Low normal heart and respirator rates in individuals practicing the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 256-60.
- 694. Rowe K, Neuschatz JS, Nidich SI. Effect of the Transcendental Meditation and TM-sidhi program on reaction time. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1938-42.
- 695. Royer-Bounouar PA. The Transcendental Meditation technique: a new direction for smoking cessation programs [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1989.
- 696. Sanderlin MA. The effects of open focus meditation versus progressive muscle relaxation on blood pressure, heart rate, and peripheral skin temperature [dissertation]. Manhattan, KS: Kansas State University; 1991.
- 697. Saxe GA, Hebert JR, Carmody JF. Can diet in conjunction with stress reduction affect the rate of increase in prostate specific antigen after biochemical recurrence of prostate cancer? J Urol 2001;166(6):2202-7.
- Schaller KJ. Tai chi chih: an exercise option for older adults. J Gerontol Nurs 1996;22(10):12-7.
- 699. Schneider D , Leung R. Metabolic and cardiorespiratory responses to the performance of wing chun and t'ai chi chuan exercise. Int J Sports Med 1991;12(3):319-23.
- 700. Schneider RH, Mills PJ, Schramm W. Differential endocrine responses to stress in meditating and non-meditating type a subjects—a reflection of differences in central serotonergic tone. Neuro Endocrinol Lett 1987;9(3):181.
- Schneider RH, Nidich SI, Salerno JW. Lower lipid peroxide levels in practitioners of the Transcendental Meditation program. Psychosom Med 1998;60(1):38-41.
- Schoicket SL, Bertelson AD, Lacks P. Is sleep hygiene a sufficient treatment for sleepmaintenance insomnia? Behav Ther 1988;19(2):183-90.

- 703. Schwartz E. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on strength of the nervous system, perceptual reactance, reaction time, and auditory threshold. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1991. p. 2317-41.
- 704. Schwartz GE, Davidson RJ, Goleman DJ. Patterning of cognitive and somatic processes in the self-regulation of anxiety: effects of meditation versus exercise. Psychosom Med 1978;40(4):321-8.
- Seeman W, Nidich SI, Banta T. Influence of Transcendental Meditation on a measure of selfactualization. J Couns Psychol 1972;19(3):184-7.
- Severtsen B , Bruya MA. Effects of meditation and aerobic exercise on EEG patterns. J Neurosci Nurs 1986;18(4):206-10.
- Shapiro D, Cline K. Mood changes associated with iyengar yoga practices: a pilot study. Int J Yoga Ther 2004;14:35-44.
- Shapiro DH. A mode of control and self-control profile for long term meditators. Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1992;35(1):1-11.
- 709. Shapiro J. The relationship of the Transcendental Meditation program to self-actualization and negative personality characteristics. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 462-7.
- Shapiro SL, Astin JA, Bishop SR. Mindfulness-based stress reduction for health care professionals: results from a randomized trial. Int J Stress Manage 2005;12(2):164-76.
- Shapiro SL, Schwartz GE, Bonner G. Effects of mindfulness-based stress reduction on medical and premedical students. J Behav Med 1998;21(6):581-99.
- 712. Shaw R, Kolb R. Reaction time following the transcedental meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 309-11.

- Shen CL, Williams JK, Chyu MC. Comparison of effects of resistance training and tai chi on bone metabolism of the elderly. Med Sci Sports Exerc 2004;36(5 Suppl):S290.
- 714. Sheppard WD II, Staggers FJ Jr, John L. The effects of a stress-management program in a high security government agency. Anxiety Stress Coping: Int J 1997;10(4):341-50.
- Shih J. Basic beijing twenty-four forms of t'ai chi exercise and average velocity of sway. Percept Mot Skills 1997;84(1):287-90.
- Singh BB, Berman BM, Hadhazy VA. A pilot study of cognitive behavioral therapy in fibromyalgia. Altern Ther Health Med 1998;4(2):67-70.
- 717. Smith DE, Dillbeck MC, Sharma HM. Erythrocyte sedimentation rate and Transcendental Meditation. Altern Ther in Clin Pract 1997;4(2):35-7.
- 718. Smith TR. The Transcendental Meditation technique and skin resistance response to loud tones. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 248-50.
- 719. Smith WP, Compton WC, West WB. Meditation as an adjunct to a happiness enhancement program. J Clin Psychol 1995;51(2):269-73.
- Solberg EE, Ingjer F, Ekberg O. Blood pressure and heart rate during meditation. J Psychosom Res 2000;48(3):283.
- 721. Stehle R. Ventilation, heart rate and respiratory partial pressures of athletes practising the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 794-802.
- 722. Suarez VW. The relationship of the practice of Transcendental Meditation to subjective evaluations of marital satisfaction and adjustment. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1184-99.

- 723. Sultan SE. A study of the ability of individuals trained in Transcendental Meditation to achieve and maintain levels of physiological relaxation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 855-64.
- 724. Tacon AM, Caldera YM, Ronaghan C. Mindfulness-based stress reduction in women with breast cancer. Fam Syst Health 2004;22(2):193-203.
- Taggart HM, Arslanian CL, Bae S. Effects of t'ai chi exercise on fibromyalgia symptoms and health-related quality of life. Orthop Nurs 2003;22(5):353-60.
- 726. Targ EF, Levine EG. The efficacy of a mindbody-spirit group for women with breast cancer: a randomized controlled trial. Gen Hosp Psychiatry 2002;24(4):238-48.
- 727. Tate DB. Mindfulness meditation group training: effects on medical and psychological symptoms and positive psychological characteristics [dissertation]. Provo, UT: Brigham Young University; 1994.
- Tloczynski J. A preliminary study of opening-up meditation college adjustment, and selfactualization. Psychol Rep 1994;75(1 Pt 2):449-50.
- Tloczynski J, Santucci A, Astor-Stetson E. Perception of visual illusions by novice and longer-term meditators. Percept Mot Skills 2000;91(3 Pt 1):1021-6.
- 730. Traver MM. Efficacy of short term meditation as therapy for symptoms of stress [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1990;50(12B Pt 1):5897.
- 731. Travis FT, Orme Johnson DW. EEG coherence and power during yogic flying. Int J Neurosci 1990;54(1-2):1-12.
- 732. Travis FT, Tecce JJ, Guttman J. Cortical plasticity, contingent negative variation, and transcendent experiences during practice of the Transcendental Meditation technique. Biol Psychol 2000;55(1):41-55.
- 733. Travis FT, Wallace RK. Autonomic and EEG patterns during eyes-closed rest and Transcendental Meditation (TM) practice: the basis for a neural model of TM practice. Conscious Cogn 1999;8(3):302-18.

- 734. Travis TA, Kondo CY, Knott JR. Heart rate, muscle tension, and alpha production of transcendental meditators and relaxation controls. Biofeedback Self Regul 1976;1(4):387-94.
- 735. Tse SK, Bailey DM. T'ai chi and postural control in the well elderly. Am J Occup Ther 1992;46(4):295-300.
- 736. Van Dalfsen PJ. Initial treatment response to relaxation and meditation procedures: the contribution of individual differences in anxiety [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;47(10B):4317.
- 737. Vegors S. Transcendental Meditation and individual differences in mental capacity [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1995.
- 738. Vroom PS. Meditation as a moderator of the effect of optimism on positive coping for cancer patients [dissertation]. New York: Columbia University; 2002.
- Waelde LC, Thompson L, Gallagher TD. A pilot study of a yoga and meditation intervention for dementia caregiver stress. J Clin Psychol 2004;60(6):677-87.
- 740. Wallace RK, Dillbeck MC, Jacobe E, et al. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation and TMsidhi program on the aging process. Int J Neurosci 1982;16(1):53-8.
- Walrath LC, Hamilton DW. Autonomic correlates of meditation and hypnosis. Am J Clin Hypn 1975;17(3):190-7.
- 742. Walsh R. Can synaesthesia be cultivated? Indications from surveys of meditators. J Consciousness Stud 2005;12(4-5):5-17.
- 743. Walton KG, Fields JZ, Levitsky DK, et al. Lowering cortisol and CVD risk in postmenopausal women: a pilot study using the Transcendental Meditation program. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2004;1032:211-5.
- 744. Walton KG, Pugh ND, Gelderloos P, et al. Stress reduction and preventing hypertension: preliminary support for a psychoneuroendocrine mechanism. J Altern Complement Med 1995;1(3):263-83.

- 745. Wandhoeffer A, Kobal G, Plattig KH. Shortening of latencies of human auditory evoked brain potentials during the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 824-9.
- 746. Wang C, Roubenoff R, Lau J, et al. Effect of tai chi in adults with rheumatoid arthritis. Rheumatology 2005;44(5):685-7.
- Wang YT, Taylor L, Pearl M, et al. Effects of tai chi exercise on physical and mental health of college students. Am J Chin Med 2004;32(3):453-9.
- 748. Warrenburg WS, Pagano R. Meditation and hemispheric specialization I: absorbed attention in long-term adherence. Imagination Cogn Pers 1982-1983;2(3):211-29.
- 749. Warrenburg WS, Pagano RR, Woods M, et al. A comparison of somatic relaxation and EEG activity in classical progressive relaxation and Transcendental Meditation. J Behav Med 1980;3(1):73-93.
- 750. Warshal D. Effects of the Transcendental Meditation technique on normal and Jendrassik reflex time. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1756-8.
- 751. Weinstein M, Smith JC. Isometric squeeze relaxation (progressive relaxation) vs meditation: absorption and focusing as predictors of state effects. Percept Mot Skills 1992;75(3 Pt 2):1263-71.
- 752. Weiss M, Nordlie JW, Siegel EP. Mindfulness-based stress reduction as an adjunct to outpatient psychotherapy. Psychother Psychosom 2005;74(2):108-12.
- 753. Weiss T, Cheatle MD, Rubin SI, et al. Effects of repeated ambulatory ECG monitoring and relaxation practice on premature ventricular contractions. Psychosom Med 1985;47(5):446-50.
- Wenk-Sormaz H. Meditation can reduce habitual responding. Altern Ther Health Med 2005;11(2):42-58.

- 755. West J, Otte C, Geher K, et al. Effects of hatha yoga and African dance on perceived stress, affect, and salivary cortisol. Ann Behav Med 2004;28(2):114-8.
- 756. Williams KA, Kolar MM, Reger BE, et al. Evaluation of a wellness-based mindfulness stress reduction intervention: a controlled trial. Am J Health Promot 2001;15(6):422-32.
- Williams LR, Vickerman BL. Effects of Transcendental Meditation on fine motor skill. Percept Mot Skills 1976;42(43):607-13.
- 758. Willis C. Transcendental Meditation and its influence on the self-concept. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1040-4.
- Wilson AF, Honsberger RW, Chiu JT, et al. Transcendental Meditation and asthma. Respiration 1975;32(1):74-80.
- 760. Wilson AF, Jevning RA, Guich S. Marked reduction of forearm carbon dioxide production during states of decreased metabolism. Physiol Behav 1987;41(4):347-52.
- 761. Winzelberg AJ, Luskin FM. The effect of a meditation training in stress levels in secondary school teachers. Stress Med 1999;15(2):69-77.
- 762. Wolanin AT. Mindfulness-acceptance-commitment (MAC) based performance enhancement for division I collegiate athletes: a preliminary investigation [dissertation]. Philadelphia: La Salle University; 2004.
- 763. Wood CJ. Evaluation of meditation and relaxation on physiological response during the performance of fine motor and gross motor tasks. Percept Mot Skills 1986;62(1):91-8.
- 764. Woolery A, Myers H, Sternlieb B, et al. A yoga intervention for young adults with elevated symptoms of depression. Altern Ther Health Med 2004;10(2):60-3.
- Woolfolk RL, Carr-Kaffashan L, McNulty TF, et al. Meditation training as a treatment for insomnia. Behav Ther 1976;7(3):359-65.
- 766. Wu G, Liu W, Hitt J, et al. Spatial, temporal and muscle action patterns of tai chi gait. J Electromyogr Kinesiol 2004;14(3):343-54.

- Wu WH, Bandilla E, Ciccone DS, et al. Effects of qigong on late-stage complex regional pain syndrome. Altern Ther Health Med 1999;5(1): 45-54.
- Yalom ID, Bond G, Bloch S, et al. The impact of a weekend group experience on individual therapy. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1977;34(4):399-415.
- 769. Zuroff DC, Schwarz JC. Effects of Transcendental Meditation and muscle relaxation on trait anxiety, maladjustment, locus of control, and drug use. J Consult Clin Psychol 1978;46(2):264-71.
- 770. Bedard M, Felteau M, Mazmanian D, et al. Pilot evaluation of a mindfulness-based intervention to improve quality of life among individuals who sustained traumatic brain injuries. Disabil Rehabil 2003;25(13):722-31.
- 771. Chenard JR. A controlled study of the influence of Transcendental Meditation on a specific value of the H-reflex (Hoffman reflex) recruitment curve and the surface EMG. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1660-5.
- 772. Dhanaraj VH, Singh M. Reduction in metabolic rate during the practice of the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 137-9
- 773. Ferren DJ. The clinical use of mindfulness meditation within an intensive psychotherapy program for clients diagnosed with a personality disorder [dissertation]. Toronto, ON: University of Toronto: 2003.
- 774. Grace GD. Effects of meditation on personality and values. J Clin Psychol 1976;32(4):809-13.
- Greene YN, Hiebert B. A comparison of mindfulness meditation and cognitive selfobservation. Can J Counc 1988;22(1):25-34.
- 776. Herron RE, Hillis SL. The impact of the Transcendental Meditation program on government payments to physicians in Quebec: an update. Am J Health Promot 2000;14(5):284-91

- Keller S, Seraganian P. Physical fitness level and autonomic reactivity to psychosocial stress. J Psychosom Res 1984;28(4):279-87.
- 778. Leung Y, Singhal A. An examination of the relationship between qigong meditation and personality. Soc Behav Pers 2004;32(4):313-20.
- 779. Meissner J, Pirot M. Unbiasing the brain: the effects of meditation upon the cerebral hemispheres. Soc Behav Pers 1983;11(1):65-76.
- 780. Miskiman DE. The treatment of insomnia by the Transcendental Meditation program. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers . Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 296-8.
- 781. Miskiman DE. The effect of the Transcendental Meditation program on compensatory paradoxical sleep. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 292-5.
- 782. Miskiman DE. The effect of the Transcendental Meditation program on the organization of thinking and recall (secondary organization). In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 385-92.
- 783. Moritz S. Does a spirituality programme on psychological well-being, quality of life and spirituality levels in distressed individuals—a randomized controlled trial. FACT 2003;9(4):523.
- Moustgaard AK. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy (MBCT) for stroke survivors: an application of a novel intervention [dissertation]. Thunder Bay, ON: Lakehead University; 2004.
- 785. Murphy T, Persinger MA. Complex partial epileptic-like experiences in university students and practitioners of dharmakaya in Thailand: comparison with Canadian university students. Psychol Rep 2001;89(1):199-206.
- 786. O'Haire TD, Marcia JE. Some personality characteristics associated with ananda marga meditators: a pilot study. Percept Mot Skills 1980;51(2):447-52.

- 787. Royer A. The role of the Transcendental Meditation technique in promoting smoking cessation: a longitudinal study. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(1-2):221-39.
- Schiff BB, Rump SA. Asymmetrical hemispheric activation and emotion: the effects of unilateral forced nostril breathing. Brain Cogn 1995;29(3):217-31.
- 789. Slater J, Hunt HT. Postural-vestibular integration and forms of dreaming: a preliminary report on the effects of brief t'ai chi chuan training. Percept Mot Skills 1997;85(1):97-8.
- 790. Spanos NP, Steggles S, Radtke-Bodorik HL. Nonanalytic attending, hypnotic susceptibility, and psychological well-being in trained meditators and nonmeditators. J Abnorm Psychol 1979;88(1):85-7.
- Spanos-Nicholas P, Gottlieb J, Rivers SM. The effects of short-term meditation practice on hypnotic responsivity. Psychol Rec 1980;30(3):343-8.
- Wolkove N, Kreisman H, Darragh D, et al. Effect of Transcendental Meditation on breathing and respiratory control. J Appl Physiol 1984;56(3):607-12.
- Yuille JC, Sereda L. Positive effects of meditation: a limited generalization? J Appl Psychol 1980;65(3):333-40.
- 794. Agte VV, Tarwadi K. Sudarshan kriya yoga for treating type 2 diabetes: a preliminary study. Altern Complement Ther 2004;10(4):220-2.
- Ahmad S, Ahmad H, Sumboo SS. Personality study of individuals regularly practicing Transcendental Meditation technique. J Pers Clin Stud 1988;4(1):89-92.
- Bagga OP, Gandhi A. A comparative study of the effect of Transcendental Meditation (TM) and shavasana practice on cardiovascular system. Indian Heart J 1983;35(1):39-45.
- Behera D. Yoga therapy in chronic bronchitis. J Assoc Physicians India 1998;46(2):207-8.
- 798. Bhatia M, Kumar KA, Kumar N, et al. Electrophysiologic evaluation of sudarshan kriya: an EEG, BAER, P300 study. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2003;47(2):157-63.

- Bhattacharya S, Pandey US, Verma NS. Improvement in oxidative status with yogic breathing in young healthy males. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2002;46(3):349-54.
- Bhushan S, Sinha P. Yoganidra and management of anxiety and hostility. Indian J Psychol 2001;19(1-2):44-9.
- 801. Bijlani RL, Vempati RP, Yadav RK, et al. A brief but comprehensive lifestyle education program based on yoga reduces risk factors for cardiovascular disease and diabetes mellitus. J Altern Complement Med 2005;11(2):267-74.
- Bose S, Belapurkar N, Mishra U. Specific chiroglyphic, bronchial asthma and yoga. J Assoc Physicians India 1992;40(4):279.
- 803. Dash M, Telles S. Yoga training and motor speed based on a finger tapping task. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1999;43(4):458-62.
- 804. Dash M, Telles S. Improvement in hand grip strength in normal volunteers and rheumatoid arthritis patients following yoga training. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2001;45(3):355-60.
- Deepak KK, Manchanda SK, Maheshwari MC. Meditation improves clinicoelectroencephalographic measures in drugresistant epileptics. Biofeedback Self Regul 1994;19(1):25-40.
- 806. Devi SK, Chansauria JPN, Udupa KN. Mental depression and kundalini yoga. Ancient Sci Life 1986;6(2):112-8.
- 807. Dhume RR, Dhume RA. A comparative study of the driving effects of dextroamphetamine and yogic meditation on muscle control for the performance of balance on balance board. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1991;35(3):191-4.
- 808. Ganguli HC. Meditation subculture and drug use. Hum Relat 1985;38(10):953-62.
- Grover P, Varma VK, Verma SK, et al. Factors influencing treatment acceptance in neurotic patients referred for yoga therapy: an exploratory study. Indian J Psychiatr 1989;31(3):250-7.
- 810. Grover P, Varma VK, Verma SK, et al. Relationship between the patient's attitude towards yoga and the treatment outcome. Indian J Psychiatr 1987;29(3):253-8.

- 811. Harinath K, Malhotra AS, Pal K, et al. Effects of hatha yoga and omkar meditation on cardiorespiratory performance, psychologic profile, and melatonin secretion. J Altern Complement Med 2004;10(2):261-8.
- Jain S. Effect of preksha meditation on anxiety and operational efficiency of young convicts. Psychol Rep 2003;48(3):82-7.
- 813. Jain SC, Talukdar B. Evaluation of yoga therapy programme for patients of bronchial asthma. Singapore Med J 1993;34(4):306-8.
- Jangid RK, Vays JN, Shukla TR. Effect of Transcendental Meditation in cases of anxiety neurosis. Indian J Clin Psychol 1988;15(2):77-9.
- Jangid RK, Vyas JN, Shukla TR. The effect of the Transcendental Meditation programme on the normal individuals. J Pers Clin Stud 1988;4(2):145-9.
- Joseph CD. Psychological supportive therapy for cancer patients. Indian J Cancer 1983;20(5):268-70.
- 817. Khare KC, Nigam SK. A study of electroencephalogram in meditators. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2000;44(2):173-8.
- Khare KC, Sanghvi VC, Bhatnagar AD. Effect of yoga in treatment of bronchial asthma. Indian Pract 1991;44(1):23-7.
- Khumar SS, Kaur P, Kaur S. Effectiveness of shavasana on depression among university students. J Clin Psychol 1993;20(2):82-7.
- 820. Kolsawalla MB. An experimental investigation into the effectiveness of some yogic variables as a mechanism of change in the value-attitude system. Indian J Psychol 1978;1(1): 59-68.
- 821. Latha DR. Nature of work and fatigue: role of yoga training. Indian J Psychol 2003;21(1):54-61.
- Madanmohan, Udupa K, Bhavanani AB.
   Modulation of cold pressor-induced stress by shavasan in normal adult volunteers. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2002;46(3):307-12.
- Malathi A, Damodaran A. Stress due to exams in medical students—role of yoga. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1999;43(2):218-24.
- 824. Malhotra V, Singh S, Tandon OP. Effect of yoga asanas on nerve conduction in type 2 diabetes. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2002;46(3):298-306.

- 825. Manjunath NK, Telles S. Influence of yoga & ayurveda on self-rated sleep in a geriatic population. Indian J Med Res 2005;121(5):683-00
- 826. Manjunath NK, Telles S. Factors influencing changes in tweezer dexterity scores following yoga training. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1999;43(2):225-9.
- Mishra M, Sinha RK. Effect of yogic practices on depression and anxiety. J Projective Psychol Ment Health 2001;8(1):23-7.
- 828. Murthy CV, Rao TR. A study on the effect of japayoga on reactions to frustration- and personality dimensions. Indian J Behav 1987;11(1):24-8.
- 829. Nagarathna R, Nagendra HR. Yoga for bronchial asthma: a controlled study. BMJ Clin Res Ed 1985;291(6502):1077-9.
- 830. Naga-Venkatesha-Murthy PJ, Janakiramaiah N, Gangadhar BN. P300 amplitude and antidepressant response to sudarshan kriya yoga (SKY). J Affect Disord 1998;50(1):45-8.
- 831. Patel CH. Yoga and bio-feedback in the management of hypertension. Lancet 1973;2(7837):1053-5.
- 832. Prakasamma M, Bhaduri A. A study of yoga as a nursing intervention in the care of patients with pleural effusion. J Adv Nurs 1984;9(2):127-33.
- Raghuraj P, Telles S. Improvement in spatial and temporal measures of visual perception following yoga training. Indian J Psychol 2002;20(1):23-31.
- Raju PS, Madhavi S, Prasad KV. Comparison of effects of yoga & physical exercise in athletes. Indian J Med Res 1994;100:81-6.
- Rani NJ, Rao PVK. Effects of meditation on attention processes. Indian J Psychol 2000;18(1-2):52-60.
- 836. Rawal SB, Singh MV, Tyagi AK. Effect of yogic exercises on thyroid function in subjects resident at sea level upon exposure to high altitude. Int J Biometeorol 1994;38(1):44-7.
- 837. Ray US, Hegde KS, Selvamurthy W. Improvement in muscular efficiency as related to a standard task after yogic exercises in middle aged men. Indian J Med Res 1986;83:343-8.

- 838. Ray US, Mukhopadhyay S, Purkayastha SS. Effect of yogic exercises on physical and mental health of young fellowship course trainees. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2001;45(1):37-53.
- 839. Ray US, Sinha B, Tomer OS. Aerobic capacity and perceived exertion after practice of hatha yogic exercises. Indian J Med Res 2001;114:215-21.
- Sahajpal P, Ralte R. Impact of induced yogic relaxation training (IYRT) on stress-level, selfconcept and quality of sleep among minority group individuals. Indian J Psychol 2000;18(1-2):66-73.
- Sahasi G, Mohan D, Kacker C. Effectiveness of yogic techniques in the management of anxiety. J Pers Clin Stud 1989;5(1):51-5.
- Salgar DC, Bisen VS, Jinturkar MJ. Effect of padmasana—a yogic exercise on muscular efficiency. Indian J Med Res 1975;63(6):768-72.
- 843. Sathyaprabha TN, Murthy H, Murthy BT. Efficacy of naturopathy and yoga in bronchial asthma—a self controlled matched scientific study. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2001;45(1):80-6.
- 844. Selvamurthy W, Ray US, Hegde KS. Physiological-responses to cold (10-degrees-C) in men after 6 months practice of yoga exercises. Int J Biometeorol 1988;32(3):188-93.
- Sharma AK, Singh RH, Shettiwar RM. Use of some hatha yogic practices in the management of certain chronic rheumatic diseases. Rheumatism 1987;22(3):53-60.
- Sharma I, Azmi SA, Settiwar RM. Evaluation of the effect of pranayama in anxiety state. Altern Med 1991;3(4):227-35.
- 847. Sharma MP, Kumaraiah V, Mishra H. Therapeutic effects of vipassana meditation in tension headache. J Pers Clin Stud 1990;6(2):201-6.
- 848. Sinha SN, Prasad SC, Sharma KN. An experimental study of cognitive control and arousal processes during meditation.
  Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1978;21(4):227-30.
- 849. Sridevi K, Krishna-Rao PV. Yoga practice and menstrual distress. J Indian Acad Appl Psychol 1996;22(1-2):47-54.

- 850. Subrahmanyam S, Porkodi K. Neurohumoral correlates of Transcendental Meditation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1598-604.
- Sundar S, Agrawal SK, Singh VP. Role of yoga in management of essential hypertension. Acta Cardiol 1984;39(3):203-8.
- 852. Taneja I, Deepak KK, Poojary G. Yogic versus conventional treatment in diarrhea-predominant irritable bowel syndrome: a randomized control study. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 2004;29(1):19-33.
- 853. Telles S, Desiraju T. Recording of auditory middle latency evoked potentials during the practice of meditation with the syllable 'OM'. Indian J Med Res 1993;98:237-9.
- 854. Telles S, Hanumanthaiah BH, Nagarathna R. Plasticity of motor control systems demonstrated by yoga training. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1994;38(2):143-4.
- 855. Telles S, Joshi M, Dash M. An evaluation of the ability to voluntarily reduce the heart rate after a month of yoga practice. Integr Physiol Behav Sci 2004;39(2):119-25.
- 856. Telles S, Nagarathna R, Nagendra HR.
  Autonomic changes while mentally repeating two syllables—one meaningful and the other neutral.
  Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1998;42(1):57-63.
- 857. Telles S, Nagarathna R, Nagendra HR. Improvement in visual perception following yoga training. Indian J Psychol 1995;13(1):30-2.
- 858. Telles S, Nagarathna R, Nagendra HR.
  Physiological measures of right nostril breathing.
  J Altern Complement Med 1996;2(4):479-84.
- 859. Telles S, Nagarathna R, Nagendra HR.
  Alterations in auditory middle latency evoked potentials during meditation on a meaningful symbol—"Om". Int J Neurosci 1994;76(1-2):87-93.
- 860. Telles S, Nagarathna R, Vani PR. A combination of focusing and defocusing through yoga reduces optical illusion more than focusing alone. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1997;41(2):179-82.

- Telles S, Vani PR. Increase in voluntary pulse rate reduction achieved following yoga training. Int J Stress Manage 2002;9(3):236-9.
- 862. Udupa KN, Singh RH, Settiwar RM. Physiological and biochemical studies on the effect of yogic and certain other exercises. Indian J Med Res 1975;63(4):620-4.
- 863. Udupa KN, Singh RH, Yadav RA. Certain studies on psychological and biochemical responses to the practice in hatha yoga in young normal volunteers. Indian J Med Res 1973;61(2):237-44.
- 864. Vani PR, Nagarathna R, Nagendra HR, et al. Progressive increase in critical flicker fusion frequency following yoga training. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1997;41(1):71-4.
- 865. Venkatesh S , Pal M, Negi BS, et al. A comparative study of yoga practitioners and controls on certain psychological variables. Indian J Clin Psychol 1994;21(1):22-7.
- 866. Vijayalakshmi S, Satyanarayana M, Krishna-Rao PV, et al. Combined effect of yoga and psychotherapy on management of asthma: a preliminary study. Indian J Psychol 1988;7(2):32-9.
- Vishal, Singh A, Madhu SV. A study of the effect of yogic practices on certain psychological parameters. Indian J Clin Psychol 1987;14(2):80-3.
- 868. Visweswaraiah NK, Telles S. Randomized trial of yoga as a complementary therapy for pulmonary tuberculosis. Respirology 2004;9(1):96-101.
- Vyas R, Dikshit N. Effect of meditation on respiratory system, cardiovascular system and lipid profile. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2002;46(4):487-91.
- 870. Yadav RK, Ray RB, Vempati RP, et al. Effect of a comprehensive yoga-based lifestyle modification program on lipid peroxidation. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2005;49(3):358-62.
- Chou KL, Lee PW, Yu EC, et al. Effect of tai chi on depressive symptoms amongst Chinese older patients with depressive disorders: a randomized clinical trial. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry 2004;19(11):1105-7.

- 872. Jin W. Can tai chi exercise as a primary treatment prevent osteoporosis and improve health fitness in seniors? J Bone Miner Res 2004;19(1 Suppl):S317.
- 873. Kuang AK, Wang CX, Zhao GS, et al. Long-term observation on qigong in prevention of stroke—follow-up of 244 hypertensive patients for 18-22 years. J Tradit Chin Med 1986;6(4):235-8.
- 874. Lai JS, Lan C, Wong MK. Two-year trends in cardiorespiratory function among older tai chi chuan practitioners and sedentary subjects. J Am Geriatr Soc 1995;43(11):1222-7.
- 875. Liang YJ, Cai YY, Wang ZX. The effects of Chinese traditional breathing training on the exercise test, resistance breathing and quality of life in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease patients. Chin Med J 1998;111(4):318.
- 876. Lin YC, Wong AM, Chou SW. The effects of tai chi chuan on postural stability in the elderly: preliminary report. Chang Gung Med J 2000;23(4):197-204.
- 877. Qin L, Au S, Choy W, et al. Regular tai chi chuan exercise may retard bone loss in postmenopausal women: a case-control study. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2002;83(10):1355-9.
- 878. Tsang WWN, Hui-Chan CWY. Effect of 4- and 8-wk intensive tai chi training on balance control in the elderly. Med Sci Sports 2004;36(4):648-57.
- 879. Tsang WWN, Hui-Chan CWY. Effects of exercise on joint sense and balance in elderly men: tai chi versus golf. Med Sci Sports 2004;36(4):658-67.
- 880. Tsang WWN, Hui-Chan CWY. Effects of tai chi on joint proprioception and stability limits in elderly subjects. Med Sci Sports 2003;35(12):1962-71.
- 881. Wu G, Zhao F, Zhou X, et al. Improvement of isokinetic knee extensor strength and reduction of postural sway in the elderly from long-term tai chi exercise. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2002;83(10):1364-9.
- 882. Xu DH. The effects of tai chi exercise on proprioception and neuromuscular responses in the elderly people [dissertation]. People's Republic of China: Chinese University of Hong Kong; 2003.

- 883. Yeung D, Ng G, Wong RWS, et al. Rehabilitation of patients with rheumatoid arthritis by tai chi chuen training. Arthritis Rheum 2001;44(9 Suppl):S210.
- 884. Zhang W, Zheng R, Zhang B, et al. An observation on flash evoked cortical potentials and qigong meditation. Am J Chin Med 1993;21(3-4):243-9.
- 885. Choi JH, Moon J, Song R. Effects of sun-style tai chi exercise on physical fitness and fall prevention in fall-prone older adults. J Adv Nurs 2005;51(2):150-7.
- Kim DH, Moon YS, Kim HS, et al. Effect of Zen meditation on serum nitric oxide activity and lipid peroxidation. Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry 2005;29(2):327-31.
- 887. Lee MS, Jeong SM, Kim BG. A Minnesota multiphasic personality inventory profile of chundosunbup qi-trainees: a preliminary study. Am J Chin Med 1999;27(3-4):307-13.
- 888. Lee MS, Jeong SM, Oh SW. Effects of chundosunbup qi-training on psychological adjustments: a cross-sectional study. Am J Chin Med 1998;26(2):223-30.
- 889. Lee MS, Kang CW, Shin YS. Acute effects of chundosunbup qi-training on blood concentrations of TSH, calcitonin, PTH and thyroid hormones in elderly subjects. Am J Chin Med 1998;26(3-4):275-82.
- 890. Lee MS, Ryu H, Chung HT. Stress management by psychosomatic training: effects of chundosunbup qi-training on symptoms of stress: a cross-sectional study. Stress Med 2000;16(3):161-6.
- 891. Lee MS, Ryu H, Song J. Effects of qi-training (qigong) on forearm blood gas concentrations. Int J Neurosci 2004;114(11):1503-10.
- 892. Ryu H, Jun CD, Lee BS. Effect of qigong training on proportions of T lymphocyte subsets in human peripheral blood. Am J Chin Med 1995;23(1):27-36.
- 893. Ryu H, Mo HY, Mo GD. Delayed cutaneous hypersensitivity reactions in qigong (chun do sun bup) trainees by multitest cell mediated immunity. Am J Chin Med 1995;23(2):139-44.

- 894. Song R, Lee EO, Lam P. Effects of tai chi exercise on pain, balance, muscle strength, and perceived difficulties in physical functioning in older women with osteoarthritis: a randomized clinical trial. J Rheumatol 2003;30(9):2039-44.
- 895. Chan K, Qin L, Lau M, et al. A randomized, prospective study of the effects of tai chi chun exercise on bone mineral density in postmenopausal women. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2004;85(5):717-22.
- 896. Hong Y, Li JX, Robinson PD. Balance control, flexibility, and cardiorespiratory fitness among older tai chi practitioners. Br J Sports Med 2000;34(1):29-34.
- 897. Ling KW, Wong FSY, Chan WK. Effect of a home exercise program based on tai chi in patients with end-stage renal disease. Perit Dial Int 2003;23(2 Suppl):S99-S103.
- 898. Mak MK, Ng PL. Mediolateral sway in single-leg stance is the best discriminator of balance performance for tai-chi practitioners. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2003;84(5):683-6.
- 899. Qin L, Choy W, Leung K, et al. Beneficial effects of regular tai chi exercise on musculoskeletal system. J Bone Miner Metab 2005;23(2):186-90.
- 900. Tsang HWH, Mok CK, Au-Yeung YT, et al. The effect of qigong on general and psychosocial health of elderly with chronic physical illnesses: a randomized clinical trial. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry 2003;18(5):441-9.
- Tsang WWN, Hui Chan CWY. Comparison of muscle torque, balance, and confidence in older tai chi and healthy adults. Med Sci Sports 2005;37(2):280-9.
- Tsang WWN, Wong VS, Fu SN, et al. Tai chi improves standing balance control under reduced or conflicting sensory conditions. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2004;85(1):129-37.
- Xu DH, Hong Y, Li J, et al. Effect of tai chi exercise on proprioception of ankle and knee joints in old people. Br J Sports Med 2004;38(1):50-4.
- 904. Yip VYB, Sit JWH, Wong DYS. A quasiexperimental study on improving arthritis selfmanagement for residents of an aged people's home in Hong Kong. Psychol Health Med 2004;9(2):235-46.

- Lai JS, Wong MK, Lan C. Cardiorespiratory responses of tai chi chuan practitioners and sedentary subjects during cycle ergometry. J Formos Med Assoc 1993;92(10):894-9.
- Lan C, Chen SY, Lai JS. Relative exercise intensity of tai chi chuan is similar in different ages and gender. Am J Chin Med 2004;32(1):151-60.
- Lan C, Chou SW, Chen SY. The aerobic capacity and ventilatory efficiency during exercise in qigong and tai chi chuan practitioners. Am J Chin Med 2004;32(1):141-50.
- Lan C, Lai JS, Wong MK. Cardiorespiratory function, flexibility, and body composition among geriatric tai chi chuan practitioners. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 1996;77(6):612-6.
- 909. Lu WA, Kuo CD. The effect of tai chi chuan on the autonomic nervous modulation in older persons. Med Sci Sports 2003;35(12):1972-6.
- 910. Tsai SL, Crockett MS. Effects of relaxation training, combining imagery, and meditation on the stress level of Chinese nurses working in modern hospitals in Taiwan. Issues Ment Health Nurs 1993;14(1):51-66.
- 911. Wong AM, Lin YC, Chou SW, et al. Coordination exercise and postural stability in elderly people: effect of tai chi chuan. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2001;82(5):608-12.
- 912. Hiraoka A, Kobayashi H, Shimono F, et al. Effects of kai-gou (air-ball handling), a qi-gong strategy, on the biofeedback training for enhancement of the electroencephalographic alpha-activity. Jpn J Biofeedback Res 1997;24:74-8.
- 913. Ikemi A. Psychophysiological effects of selfregulation method: EEG frequency analysis and contingent negative variations. Psychother Psychosom 1988;49(3-4):230-9.
- 914. Iwao M, Kajiyama S, Mori H. Effects of qigong walking on diabetic patients: a pilot study. J Altern Complement Med 1999;5(4):353-8.
- 915. Kubose SK. An experimental investigation of psychological aspects of meditation. Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1976;19(1):1-10.
- 916. Kubota Y, Sato W, Toichi M, et al. Frontal midline theta rhythm is correlated with cardiac autonomic activities during the performance of an attention demanding meditation procedure. Brain Res Cogn Brain Res 2001;11(2):281-7.

- 917. Murata T, Koshino Y, Omori M. Quantitative EEG study on Zen meditation (zazen). Jpn J Psychiatry Neurol 1994;48(4):881-90.
- 918. Shiomi K. Respiratory and EEG changes by cotention of trigant burrow. Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1969;12(1):24-8.
- 919. Tsujiuchi T, Kumano H, Yoshiuchi K, et al. The effect of qi-gong relaxation exercise on the control of type 2 diabetes mellitus: a randomized controlled trial. Diabetes Care 2002;25(1):241-2.
- Disayavanish P. The effect of buddhist insight meditation on stress and anxiety [dissertation].
   Normal, IL: Illinois State University; 1994.
- 921. Emavardhana T, Tori CD. Changes in selfconcept, ego defense mechanisms, and religiosity following seven-day vipassana meditation retreats. J Sci Study Relig 1997;36(2):194-206.
- 922. Chadwick P, Taylor KN, Abba N. Mindfulness groups for people with psychosis. Behav Cogn Psychother 2005;33(3):351-9.
- 923. Fenwick PBC, Donaldson S, Gillis L, et al. Metabolic and EEG changes during Transcendental Meditation: an explanation. Biol Psychol 1977;5(2):101-18.
- 924. Haimerl CJ, Valentine ER. The effect of contemplative practice of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and transpersonal dimensions of the self-concept. J Transpersonal Psychol 2001;33(1):37-52.
- 925. Haslock I, Monro R, Nagarathna R, et al. Measuring the effects of yoga in rheumatoid arthritis. Br J Rheumatol 1994;33(8):787-8.
- 926. Kerr D, Gillam E, Ryder J. An Eastern art form for a Western disease: randomised controlled trial of yoga in patients with poorly controlled insulintreated diabetes. Pract Diabetes Int 2002;19(6):164-6.
- 927. Kras DJ. The Transcendental Meditation technique and EEG alpha activity. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 173-81.

- 928. Laurie G. An investigation into the changes in skin resistance during the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 216-23.
- Ma SH, Teasdale JD. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for depression: replication and exploration of differential relapse prevention effects. J Consult Clin Psychol 2004;72(1):31-40.
- 930. McMillan T, Robertson IH, Brock D. Brief mindfulness training for attentional problems after traumatic brain injury: a randomised control treatment trial. Neuropsychol Rehabil 2002;12(2):117-25.
- 931. Okoli U, Dehaney M, Hillman A. Can we get away with anything less? Evaluating health promotion interventions: a tai chi exercise programme for older people. Public Health Med 2002;4(1):10-3.
- 932. Sawada Y, Steptoe A. The effects of brief meditation training on cardiovascular stress responses. J Psychophysiol 1988;2(4):249-57.
- 933. Steptoe A, Kearsley N. Cognitive and somatic anxiety. Behav Res Ther 1990;28(1):75-81.
- 934. Surawy C, Roberts J, Silver A. The effect of mindfulness training on mood and measures of fatigue, activity, and quality of life in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome on a hospital waiting list: a series of exploratory studies. Behav Cogn Psychother 2005;33(1):103-9.
- Szabo A, Mesko A, Caputo A. Examination of exercise-induced feeling states in four modes of exercise. Int J Sport Psychol 1998;29(4):376-90.
- Turnbull MJ, Norris H. Effects of Transcendental Meditation on self-identity indices and personality. Br J Psychol 1982;73(1):57-68.
- 937. Valentine ER, Sweet PLG. Meditation and attention: a comparison of the effects of concentrative and mindfulness meditation on sustained attention. Ment Health Religion Cult 1999;2(1):59-70.
- 938. West MA. Physiological effects of meditation: a longitudinal study. Br J Soc Clin Psychol 1979;18(2):219-26.

- 939. Westcott M. Hemispheric symmetry of the EEG during the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 160-4.
- 940. Williams JMG, Teasdale JD, Segal ZV, et al. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy reduces overgeneral autobiographical memory in formerly depressed patients. J Abnorm Psychol 2000;109(1):150-5.
- 941. Williams P, West MA. EEG responses to photic stimulation in persons experienced at meditation. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1975;39(5):519-22.
- 942. Fehr T. A longitudinal study of the effect of the Transcendental Meditation program on changes in personality. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 476-83.
- 943. Fluge T, Richter J, Wagner TOF, et al. Respiratory physiotherapy versus yoga in the treatment of asthma. Am Rev Respir Dis 1993;147(4 Suppl):A587.
- Friedrichs E, Pfistner B, Aldridge D. Qigong yangsheng—traditional Chinese medicine exercises for migraine and tension headache. Cephalalgia 2003;23(7):755.
- 945. Kniffki C. Transcendental Meditation and autogenic training: a comparison. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 2049-53.
- 946. Kroner-Herwig B, Hebing G, van Rijn-Kalkmann U. The management of chronic tinnitus—comparison of a cognitive-behavioural group training with yoga. J Psychosom Res 1995;39(2):153-65.
- 947. Majumdar M, Grossman P, Dietz-Waschkowski B. Does mindfulness meditation contribute to health? Outcome evaluation of a German sample. J Altern Complement Med 2002;8(6):719-30; discussion 731-5.

- 948. Schell FJ, Allolio B, Schonecke OW. Physiological and psychological effects of hathayoga exercise in healthy women. Int J Psychosom 1994;41(1-4):46-52.
- 949. Schmidt T, Wijga AH, Von Zur Muhlen A. Changes in cardiovascular risk factors and hormones during a comprehensive residential three month kriya yoga training and vegetarian nutrition. Acta Physiol Scand Suppl 1997;640:158-62.
- 950. Torber S, Mertesdorf F, Hiesel E. Effects of Transcendental Meditation on mood, and bodily sensations. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1991. p. 2391-407.
- Ahlstrom HH. Transcendental Meditation, adaptation mechanisms and valuations [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1991.
- Barmark SM, Gaunitz SC. Transcendental Meditation and heterohypnosis as altered states of consciousness. Int J Clin Exp Hypn 1979;27(3):227-39.
- 953. Mannerkorpi K, Arndorw M. Efficacy and feasibility of a combination of body awareness therapy and qigong in patients with fibromyalgia: a pilot study. J Rehabil Med 2004;36(6):279-81.
- 954. Wenneberg SR, Gunnarsson LG, Ahlstrom G. Using a novel exercise programme for patients with muscular dystrophy part II: a quantitative study. Disabil Rehabil 2004;26(10):595-602.
- 955. Wiholm C, Arnetz B, Berg M. The impact of stress management on computer-related skin problems. Stress Med 2000;16(5):279-85.
- 956. Oktedalen O, Solberg EE, Hauger AH. The influence of physical and mental training on plasma beta-endorphin level and pain perception after intensive physical exercise. Stress Health 2001;17(2):121-7.
- Solberg EE, Ekeberg O, Holen A. Hemodynamic changes during long meditation. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 2004;29(3):213-21.
- 958. Solberg EE, Halvorsen R, Holen A. Effect of meditation on immune cells. Stress Med 2000;16(3):185-90.

- Solberg EE, Halvorsen R, Sundgot-Borgen J. Meditation: a modulator of the immune response to physical stress? A brief report. Br J Sports Med 1995;29(4):255-7.
- Solberg EE, Holen A, Ekeberg O. The effects of long meditation on plasma melatonin and blood serotonin. Med Sci Monit 2004;10(3):CR96-101.
- Solberg EE, Ingjer F, Holen A. Stress reactivity to and recovery from a standardised exercise bout: a study of 31 runners practising relaxation techniques. Br J Sports Med 2000;34(4):268-72.
- Uhlig T, Larsson C, Hjorth AG, et al. No improvement in a pilot study of tai chi exercise in rheumatoid arthritis. Ann Rheum Dis 2005;64(3):507-9.
- 963. Delmonte MM. Factors influencing the regularity of meditation practice in a clinical population. Br J Med Psychol 1984;57(3):275-8.
- 964. Delmonte MM. Anxiety, defensiveness and physiological responsivity in novice and experienced meditators. J Integrative Eclectic Psychother 1985;4(1-2):1-13.
- 965. Delmonte MM. Pilot study of conditioned relaxation during stimulation meditation. Psychol Rep 1979;45(1):169-70.
- Bernardi L, Sleight P, Bandinelli G, et al. Effect of rosary prayer and yoga mantras on autonomic cardiovascular rhythms: comparative study. BMJ 2001;323(7327):1446-9.
- 967. Fabbro F, Muzur A, Bellen R, et al. Effects of praying and a working memory task in participants trained in meditation and controls on the occurrence of spontaneous thoughts. Percept Mot Skills 1999;88(3 Pt 1):765-70.
- 968. Spicuzza L, Gabutti A, Porta C. Yoga and chemoreflex response to hypoxia and hypercapnia. Lancet 2000;356(9240):1495-6. Erratum in: Lancet 2000 Nov 4;356(9241):1612.
- 969. Timio M, Verdecchia P, Venanzi S. Age and blood pressure changes: a 20-year follow-up study in nuns in a secluded order. Hypertension 1988;12(4):457-61.
- 970. Hebert JR, Lehmann D. Theta bursts: An EEG pattern in normal subjects practising the Transcendental Meditation technique. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1977;42(3):397-405.

- 971. Koller A. Psychological effects of yoga [vervielfältigte lizentiatsarbeit]. Lausanne, Switzerland: Universität Freiburg; 2004.
- 972. Rouzere AM, Badawi K, Hartmann R. High amplitude fronto-central alpha and theta activity during the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1655-9.
- 973. Van den Berg WP, Mulder B. Psychological research on the effects of the Transcendental Meditation technique on a number of personality variables. Gedrag: Tijdschrift voor Psychologie 1976;4(4):206-18.
- 974. Hawkins MA, Alexander CN, Travis FT, et al. Consciousness-based rehabilitation of inmates in the Netherlands Antilles: psychosocial and cognitive changes. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):205-28.
- Infante JR, Peran F, Martinez M, et al. ACTH and beta-endorphin in Transcendental Meditation. Physiol Behav 1998;64(3):311-5.
- 976. Infante JR, Torres-Avisbal M, Pinel P, et al. Catecholamine levels in practitioners of the Transcendental Meditation technique. Physiol Behav 2001;72(1-2):141-6.
- 977. Manzaneque JM, Vera FM, Maldonado EF. Assessment of immunological parameters following a qigong training program. Med Sci Monit 2004;10(6):CR264-70.
- Bujatti M, Riederer P. Serotonin, noradrenaline, dopamine metabolites in Transcendental Meditation-technique. J Neural Transm 1976;39(3):257-67.
- 979. Lepicovska V, Dostalek C, Kovarova M. The influence of hathayogic exercise jalandhara bandha upon the cardiovascular system. Act Nerv Super (Praha) 1988;30(2):147-9.
- 980. Banquet JP, Lesevre N. Event-related potentials in altered states of consciousness. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1921-5.

- Villien F, Yu M, Barthelemy P, et al. Training to yoga respiration selectively increases respiratory sensation in healthy man. Respir Physiol Neurobiol 2005;146(1):85-96.
- 982. Dane S, Caliskan E, Karasen M, et al. Effects of unilateral nostril breathing on blood pressure and heart rate in right-handed healthy subjects. Int J Neurosci 2002;112(1):97-102.
- 983. Stigsby B, Rodenberg JC, Moth HB.
  Electroencephalographic findings during mantra meditation (Transcendental Meditation) a controlled, quantitative study of experienced meditators. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1981;51(4):434-42.
- 984. Zolnierczyk D. Perceived job stressors and mindfulness-based cognitive stress management intervention: The role of type A and reactivity. Polish Psychol Bull 2004;35(1):25-33.
- Stanescu DC, Nemery B, Veriter C. Pattern of breathing and ventilatory response to CO2 in subjects practicing hatha-yoga. J Appl Physiol 1981;51(6):1625-9.
- 986. Davies JL. The Transcendental Meditation program and progressive relaxation: comparative effects on trait anxiety and self-actualization. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 449-52.
- Dua JK, Swinden ML. Effectiveness of negativethought-reduction, meditation and placebo training treatment in reducing anger. Scand J Psychol 1992;33(2):135-46.
- 988. Gill S, Kolt GS, Keating J. Examining the multiprocess theory: an investigation of the effects of two relaxation techniques on state anxiety. J Bodywork Movement Ther 2004;8(4):288-96.
- 989. Harte JL, Eifert GH, Smith R. The effects of running and meditation on beta-endorphin, corticotropin-releasing hormone and cortisol in plasma, and on mood. Biol Psychol 1995;40(3):251-65.
- 990. Hood MA. Psychophysiological differences between meditators and non-meditators during anticipatory stress [dissertation]. Hobart, Tasmania: University of Tasmania; 1998.
- 991. Manocha R, Marks GB, Kenchington P. Sahaja yoga in the management of moderate to severe asthma: a randomised controlled trial. Thorax 2002;57(2):110-5.

- McIver S, O'Halloran JP, McGartland M. The impact of hatha yoga on smoking behavior. Altern Ther Health Med 2004;10(2):22-3.
- Nystul MS, Garde M. Comparison of selfconcepts of transcendental meditators and nonmeditators. Psychol Rep 1977;41(1):303-6.
- Nystul MS, Garde M. The self-concepts of regular transcendental meditators, dropout meditators, and nonmeditators. J Psychol 1979;103(1):15-8.
- Pollard G, Ashton R. Heart rate decrease: a comparison of feedback modalities and biofeedback with other procedures. Biol Psychol 1982;14(3-4):245-57.
- Shaw RM, Dettmar DM. Monitoring behavioural stress control using a craniomandibular index. Aust Dent J 1990;35(2):147-51.
- Singh BS. Ventilatory response to CO2 II: studies in neurotic psychiatric patients and practitioners of Transcendental Meditation. Psychosom Med 1984;46(4):347-62.
- 998. Tandon MK. Adjunct treatment with yoga in chronic severe airways obstruction. Thorax 1978;33(4):514-7.
- 999. Tsang T, Orr R, Lam P, et al. Health benefits of tai chi for older adults with type 2 diabetes. J Am Geriatr Soc 2005;53(4 Suppl):S174-5.
- 1000. Wilcox GG. Autonomic functioning in subjects practicing the Transcendental Meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 239-42.
- 1001. Xu H, Lawson D, Kras A. A study on tai ji exercise and traditional Chinese medical modalities in relation to bone structure, bone function and menopausal symptoms. Am J Chin Med 2004;74:10-4.
- 1002. Lovell-Smith DH, Dickie A, Robinson J. Blood pressure and plasma cholesterol levels before and after learning Transcendental Meditation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 872-4.

- 1003. Williams LR, Herbert PG. Transcendental Meditation and fine perceptual-motor skill. Percept Mot Skills 1976;43(1):303-9.
- 1004. Williams LR, Lodge B, Reddish PS. Effects of Transcendental Meditation on rotary pursuit skill. Res Q 1977;48(1):196-201.
- 1005. Zika B. The effects of hypnosis and meditation on a measure of self-actualization. Aust J Clin Exp Hypn 1987;15(1):21-8.
- 1006. Hart J, Kanner H, Gilboa-Mayo R, et al. Tai chi chuan practice in community-dwelling persons after stroke. Int J Rehabil Res 2004;27(4):303-4.
- 1007. Netz Y, Lidor R. Mood alterations in mindful versus aerobic exercise modes. J Psychol 2003;137(5):405-19.
- 1008. Cooper R, Joffe BI, Lamprey JM, et al. Hormonal and biochemical responses to Transcendental Meditation. Postgrad Med J 1985;61(714):301-4.
- 1009. Faber PA, Saayman GS, Touyz SW. Meditation and archetypal content of nocturnal dreams. J Anal Psychol 1978;23(1):1-22.
- 1010. Barros RML, Leite MRR, Brenzikofer R. Respiratory pattern changes in elderly yoga practitioners. J Hum Movement Stud 2003;44(5):387-400.
- 1011. Flanzbaum N, Divita A, Notrica J, et al. Influence of mindfulness meditation on assisted reproduction treatment programmes. Hum Reprod 2003;18(1 Suppl):207-8.
- 1012. Levitsky DK. Effects of the "Transcendental Meditation" program on neuroendocrine indicators of chronic stress [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1998.
- 1013. Detsky AS, Naylor CD, O'Rourke K, et al. Incorporating variations in the quality of individual randomized trials into meta-analysis . J Clin Epidemiol 1992;45(3):255-65.
- 1014. Dillbeck MC, Orme-Johnson DW. Physiological differences between Transcendental Meditation and rest. Am Psychol 1987;42(9):879-81.
- 1015. Paul GL, Trimble RW. Recorded vs "live" relaxation training and hypnotic suggestion: comparative effectiveness for reducing physiological arousal and inhibiting stress response. Behav Ther 1970;1(3):285-302.

- 1016. Riddle AG. Effects of selected elements of meditation on self-actualization, locus of control, and trait anxiety [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1980;40(7B):3419.
- 1017. Smith JC. Psychotherapeutic effects of Transcendental Meditation with controls for expectation of relief and daily sitting. J Consult Clin Psychol 1976;44(4):630-7.
- 1018. Bevan AJW. Endocrine changes in Transcendental Meditation. Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol 1980;7(1):75-6.
- 1019. Werner OR, Wallace RK, Charles BM, et al. Long-term endocrinologic changes in subjects practicing the Transcendental Meditation and TM-sidhi program. Psychosom Med 1986;48(1-2):59-66.
- 1020. Jevning RA, Wells I, Wilson AF. Plasma thyroid hormones, thyroid stimulating hormone, and insulin during acute hypometabolic states in man. Physiol Behav 1987;40(5):603-6.
- 1021. Tooley GA, Armstrong SM, Norman TR, et al. Acute increases in night-time plasma melatonin levels following a period of meditation. Biol Psychol 2000;53(1):69-78.
- 1022. Jevning RA, Wilson AF, Pirkle HC. Modulation of red cell metabolism by states of decreased activation: comparison between states. Physiol Behav 1985;35(5):679-82.
- 1023. Murphy MB. Theta bursts and rhythmical theta trains in the Transcendental Meditation technique and TM-Sidhi program: a qualitative and quantitative analysis of EEG theta activity [dissertation]. Melbourne, FL: Florida Institute of Technology; 1984.
- 1024. Pelletier KR. Influence of Transcendental Meditation upon autokinetic perception. Percept Mot Skills 1974;39(3):1031-4.
- 1025. So KT, Orme-Johnson DW. Three randomized experiments on the longitudinal effects of the Transcendental Meditation technique on cognition. Intelligence 2001;29(5):419-40.

- 1026. Dillbeck MC, Assimakis PD, Raimondi D, et al. Longitudinal effects on the Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi program on cognitive ability and cognitive style. Percept Mot Skills 1986;62(3):731-8.
- 1027. Reddy MK, Ath D, Bai AJL. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on athletic performance. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 346-58.
- 1028. Kember P. The Transcendental Meditation technique and academic performance: a short report on a controlled longitudinal pilot study. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1991. p. 2384.
- 1029. Heaton DP, Orme-Johnson DW. The Transcendental Meditation program and academic achievement. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 396-9.
- 1030. Aron A, Orme-Johnson DW, Brubaker P. The Transcendental Meditation program in the college curriculum: a 4-year longitudinal study on effects on cognitive and affective functioning. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1977-82.
- 1031. Eppley KR, Abrams AI, Shear J. Differential effects of relaxation techniques on trait anxiety: a meta-analysis. J Clin Psychol 1989;45(6):957-74.

# List of Studies Potentially Relevant to the Review

The following studies were not retrieved through the formal literature search and were identified by peer reviewers as potentially relevant to this review. (n = 17). More detailed examination of these studies is required to determine which, if any, of the research topics they may help to address.

Alexander CN, Swanson GC, Rainforth M, et al. The Transcendental Meditation program and business: a prospective study. In: Wallace RK, Orme-Johnson DW, Dillbeck MC, eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi program: collected papers. Vol. 5. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University Press; 1990. p.3141-9.

Backon J, Matamoros, Ramirez M, et al. A functional vagotomy induced by unilateral forced right nostril breathing decreases intraocular pressure in open and closed angle glaucoma. Br J Ophthalmol 1990; 74:607-9.

Bassette, JE, Blanchard EB. Effects of instructional-expectancy sets on relaxation training with prisoners. J Community Psychol 1977;5(2):166-70.

Cranson R. Increased general intelligence through the Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi program. In: Wallace RK, Orme-Johnson DW, Dillbeck MC, eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi program: collected papers. Vol. 5. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University Press; 1990. p.3078.

Fergusson LF, Bonshek AJ, Le Masson, G. Vedic Science based education and nonverbal intelligence: a preliminary longitudinal study in Cambodia. Higher Education Research and Development 1995;15: 73-82.

Garnier D, Cazabat A, Thebault P; et al. An experimental study: pulmonary ventilation during the Transcendental Meditation technique—applications in preventive medicine. Est-Médicine 1984:4(76): 867–70.

Gelderloos P. Psychological health and development of students at Maharishi International University: a controlled longitudinal study. In: Wallace RK, Orme-Johnson DW, Dillbeck MC, eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi Program: collected papers. Vol. 5. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University Press; 1990. p.3097-3106.

Haratani T, Hemmi T. Effects of Transcendental Meditation on the mental health of industrial workers. Japanese Journal of Industrial Health 1990;32(7): 656.

Hill DA, Wallace RD, Walton KG, Meyerson LR. Acute decreased platelet serotonin and attenuation of autonomic activity in the Transcendental Meditation program (TM) [abstract]. Soc Neurosci 1989;15:1281.

Jevning R, Wilson AF, Pirkle H, et al. Modulation of red cell metabolism by states of decreased activation: comparison between states. In: Wallace RK, Orme-Johnson DW, Dillbeck MC, eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi Program: collected papers. Vol. 5. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University Press; 1990. p.2988-92.

Jevning R, Wells I, Wilson AF, Guich S. Plasma thyroid hormones, thyroid stimulating hormone, and insulin during acute hypometabolic states in man. In: Wallace RK, Orme-Johnson DW, Dillbeck MC, eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi program: collected papers. Vol. 5. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University Press; 1990. p.2999-3002.

Luparello TJ, Leist N, Lourie CH, Sweet P. The interaction of psychologic stimuli and pharmacologic agents on airway reactivity in asthmatic subjects. Psychosom Med 1970;32(5):509-13.

MacLean C, Schneider R, Wenneberg S, Levitsky D, Walton K.. Reactivity of plasma serotonin to psychological stress. Trans Amer Soc Neurochem 1992;23:223.

Schneider RH, Mills PJ, Schramm W, et al. Luteinizing hormone: a marker for type A behavior and its modification by the Transcendental Meditation program? In: Wallace RK, Orme-Johnson DW, Dillbeck MC, eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi Program: collected papers. Vol. 5. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University Press; 1990. p. 3011.

Tjoa A. Some evidence that the Transcendental Meditation program increases intelligence and reduces neuroticism as measured by psychological tests. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific Research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi program: collected papers. Vol.1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University – MVU Press; 1977. p.363-7.

Travis F. Development along an integration scale: longitudinal transformation in brain dynamics with regular Transcendental Meditation practice. Psychophysiology 2002;39: S81

Walton KG, Gelderloos P, Pugh NDC, Macrae P, Goddard P, MacLean C, Levitsky D. Stress as the cause of serotonergic dysfunction in mental disorders: support from correlates of serotonin turnover in normal subjects [abstract]. Soc. Neurosci. 1989;15:1282.

#### **Abbreviations**

## Abbreviation Description

AA Alcoholics Anonymous ACF adrenocortical functioning

Ach acetylcholine

AEI artery elasticity index

AHM antihypertensive medication

AHRQ Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality

AI alpha index

AMI acute myocardial infarction

APO-A1 apolipoprotein A1 AT autogenic training

ATN attention

BC blood composition
BDT bone density test
BE breathing exercises

BF biofeedback

BGM blood gass measurement
BHT borderline hypertension
BHt breath holding time

BL blood lactate

BM blood measurement BMI body mass index

BNP B-type natriuretic peptide

BP blood pressure
BR breathing rate
bpm beats per minute
BS blood sugar
Ca calcium

CABS coronary artery bypass surgery cAMP cyclic adenosine monophosphate

CF cognitive function CHD chronic heart disease

ChE cholinesterase

cIMT carotid intima media thickness
CM carbohydrate metabolism

CMBT contemplative meditation with breathing techniques

CNS-H central nervous system hormone

CO cardiac output

COG/N cognitive/neuropsychological

COPD chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

CPR cold pressor response

Cr creatinine

CRT cognitive restructuring training
CSM Clinically Standardized Meditation

CTY creativity CV cardiovascular

CVF cardiovascular functioning

d day(s)

DBH dopamine beta hydroxylase DBP diastolic blood pressure DHEAS dehydroepiandrosterone

DIG digestive

DM diabetes mellitus DPV digital pulse volume

E/A ratio early filling divided by atrial constriction

ECG electrocardiography
EEG electroencephalogram
EMG electromyography

EPC Evidence-based Practice Center

EPI epinephrine

ESR erythrocyte sedimentation rate

FBS fasting blood sugar

FEV1 forced expiratory volume in one second

FPA finger plethysmogram amplitude

FVC forced vital capacity
GH growth hormone

Glc glucose

GLH glycosylated hemoglobine

GSH glutathione

GSR galvanic skin response

Hb hemoglobin Hb-A1c hemoglobin A1c

HDL-C high-density lipoprotein cholesterol

HE health education HI humoral immunity

HIV human immunodeficiency virus

HR heart rate

HRQL health-related quality of life

HRV heart rate variability
HT hypertension
HVA homovanillic acid
IQR interquartile range

ITT intention-to-treat
IVST intraventricular septal thickness

K potassium

JNC 7

LDL-C low-density lipoprotein cholesterol

Joint National Committee 7

LDH lactate dehydrogenase

LFPMF low frequency pulsed magnetic field

LIP lipoproteins

LLM lowering lipid medication LSD lysergic acid diethylamide

Lt left

LVDIS left ventricular internal dimension at systole LVDDi left ventricular end diastolic volume index

LVEF left ventricular ejection fraction

LVIDD left ventricular internal dimension at diastole

LVMI left ventricular mass index

MBCT mindfulness-based cognitive therapy
MBSR mindfulness-based stress reduction

MEM memory

MEP maximum expiratory volume

Mg magnesium

MHPG 3-methoxy-4-hydroxyphenylglycol

MI myocardial infarction

MIP maximum inspiratory pressure

MM mindfulness meditation

mo. month(s)
MSK musculoskeletal

MANA

MVV maximal voluntary ventilation

Na sodium

NA not applicable

NCCAM National Center for Complementary and Alternative Medicine

ND not described NE norepinephrine

NER nervous

NHS National Health System

NIDDM noninsulin dependent diabetes mellitus

N/M nutrition/metabolism
NOS Newcastle-Ottawa Scales

NR not reported

NRCT nonrandomized controlled clinical trial

NS not specified NT no treatment

NYHA New York Heart Association OGTT oral glucose tolerance test OH-DOC hydroxydeoxycorticosterone

OR odds ratio

PAA peak aortic acceleration PaO<sub>2</sub> pressure of oxygen PBI protein bound iodine

PEF (25-75) peak expiratory flow at piddle portion of expiration

PEFR peak expiratory flow rate

PER perception

PFT pulmonary function test PIFR peak inspiratory flow rate

PLB placebo

P-MDA plasma malondialdehyde PMR progressive muscle relaxation

PO<sub>2</sub> pressure of oxygen PP pulse pressure

PPT physical performance test PRA plasma renin activity

PR pulse rate

PWT posterior wall thickness

RA renin activity

RCT randomized controlled clinical trial

RER respiratory exchange ratio

RES respiratory

Res-v respiratory variability
RFT renal function test
RPP rate pressure product
RR relaxation Response

RSG reasoning RT reaction time

Rt right

SA spatial ability
SAO<sub>2</sub> saturated oxygen
SBP systolic blood pressure

S-Ca serum calcium

SCL skin conductance level SD standard deviation

se session
SEN sensory
SI serum insulin

SMD standardized mean difference

S-Mg serum magnesium SMF sensory motor function

SPSS Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

SRL skin resistance level

SRS Systematic Review Software SVR systemic vascular resistance

TC total cholesterol

TEE total energy expenditure

TG triglycerides

TEP technical expert panel THR thermoregulatory

TM<sup>®</sup> Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>

TOO Task Order Officer

TSH thyroid stimulating hormone

TV tidal volume

UAEPC University of Alberta Evidence-based Practice Center

UC usual care

UE urinary/excretory

UFNB unilateral forced nostril breathing

UL urine lactate

ULNB unilateral left nostril breathing
UNB unilateral nostril breathing
URNB unilateral right nostril breathing

VA verbal ability

VCO<sub>2</sub> carbon dioxide production

Ve minute ventilation

VE/VCO<sub>2</sub> rate of increase of ventilation per unit of increase of carbon

dioxide production

VLDL-C very low density lipoprotein cholesterol

VMA vanillylmandelic acid VO<sub>2</sub> oxygen consumption

VO<sub>2</sub> max maximum oxygen consumption

WBC white blood cell

wk week(s)
WL waiting list
WR work rate

WMD weighted mean difference

yr year(s) Zn zinc

5-HIAA 5-hydroxyindole acetic acid

17-KS 17-ketosteroids

95% CI 95% confidence interval

# Appendix A. Technical Experts and Peer Reviewers

## **Technical Expert Panel**

In designing the study questions and methodology at the outset of this report, the EPC consulted several technical and content experts. Broad expertise and perspectives are sought. Divergent and conflicted opinions are common and perceived as health scientific discourse that results in a thoughtful, relevant systematic review. Therefore, in the end, study questions, design and/or methodologic approaches do not necessarily represent the views of individual technical and content experts.

Name	Institution		
John Astin, Ph.D.	California Pacific Medical Center, San Francisco, CA, United States		
Ruth Baer, Ph.D.	University of Kentucky, Lexington, KT, United States		
Vernon Barnes, Ph.D.	Medical College of Georgia, Augusta, GA, United States		
Linda Carlson, Ph.D, C.Psych.	University of Calgary, Calgary, AB, Canada		
Jeffery Dusek, Ph.D.	Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, United States		
Thierry Lacaze-Masmonteil, M.D., Ph.D., F.R.C.P.C.	University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB, Canada		
Badri Rickhi, M.D., Ph.D.	Canadian Institute of Natural and Integrative Medicine (CINIM) Calgary, AB, Canada		
David Shannahoff-Khalsa, B.A.	University of California at San Diego, San Diego, CA, United States		

#### **Peer Reviewers**

Peer reviewer comments on a preliminary draft of this report were considered by the EPC in preparation of this final report. Synthesis of the scientific literature presented here does not necessarily represent the views of individual reviewers.

Name	Institution
Kirk Warren Brown, Ph.D.	Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, United States
Bei-Hung Chang, Sc.D.	Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, MA, United States
Thawatchai Krisanaprakornkit, M.D.	Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand
T. M. Srinivasan, Ph.D.	The International Society for the Study of Subtle Energies and Energy Medicine, Madras (Chennai), India
Harald Walach, Ph.D.	The University of Northampton, Northampton, United Kingdom
Ken Walton, Ph.D.	Maharishi University of Management, Fairfield, IA, United States
Gloria Yeh, M.D., M.P.H.	Osher Institute at Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, United States

# **Appendix B. Development of Consensus on a Set of Criteria for an Operational Definition of Meditation**

A consensus definition of meditation has not been established. The rationale for developing a consensus definition for meditation was to guide an unbiased selection of studies to be included in the review. We sought to develop consensus among a panel of experts on a set of criteria for a working definition of meditation; the relative importance of these criteria in defining a practice as meditation; and on a classification of practices as meditation or not meditation.

#### **Methods**

## **Study Design**

A five-round modified Delphi study was conducted from August to December 2006. The Delphi technique is a research tool designed to address complex problems with a high level of uncertainty that are not suited to statistical methods or open deliberation. Its goal is to obtain the most reliable consensus among a group of experts on a particular topic. The technique involves recruiting a group of experts to participate in an iterative process of answering questionnaire, receiving feedback regarding group responses, and revising their opinions in light of this feedback. The distinguishing characteristics of the Delphi technique are anonymity, iteration (processes occur in rounds), controlled feedback, (showing the distribution of the group's response) and statistical group response (expressing judgment using summary measures of the full group response). This method was chosen over other consensus techniques due to its ability to allow all group members equal participation and influence, even when separated geographically.

## **Study Participants**

Participants were seven individuals who acted as members of the Technical Expert Panel (TEP) for a report on the state of the research of meditation practices in healthcare. Each member lived in the United States or Canada and had expertise and training in meditation practices.

## **Development of Questionnaires**

An initial list of potential criteria for an operational definition of meditation was generated from a preliminary list of key articles. <sup>9,98</sup> Similarly, a list of potential meditation practices was developed based on an initial review of the literature.. The items were refined through an iterative review process, until a set of nine criteria to define meditation was found. The first-round questionnaire consisted of two parts. In the first part of the survey, participants were asked to rate the importance of the nine criteria as "not important at all," "important but not essential," or "essential. They were also asked to suggest any other criteria that they felt were essential for a working definition of meditation. In the second part of the questionnaire, participants were given a list of 41 interventions and were asked to indicate which interventions qualified as meditation practices based on the essential criteria rated in the first part of the questionnaire. The

participants were also asked to indicate any other intervention that they believed involved meditation but that was not represented in the list.

In round two, feedback was provided on the group responses from round one. The participants were asked to reflect on their responses from the first round in light of the peer responses and to either confirm or change their responses accordingly. Based on round one comments, the wording of some criteria was modified, and three practices were added to the list of interventions. The second-round process was repeated until consensus was reached in round five. Round three helped to establish consensus on items for which disagreement persisted. Round four aimed to determine if the criteria considered "essential" to meditation in previous rounds were, in fact, a necessary part of the practices. Participants were asked to indicate which of the "essential" and "important but not essential" criteria applied to each potential intervention. The list of potential meditation practices was refined until consensus was reached.

#### **Study Procedures**

The TEP members received a personalized letter describing the Delphi process, and the expectations regarding their participation. The questionnaires were sent electronically. Participants were given up to 1 week to respond to each questionnaire, and nonresponders were sent one reminder. Although participants were aware of the identity of other responders, they were blind to individual responses, ensuring anonymity throughout the process.

#### **Data Analysis**

Data from electronic questionnaires were exported into Microsoft Excel<sup>™</sup> (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA) spreadsheets and analyzed with Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for Windows (SPSS<sup>™</sup> version 14.1, SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL). Categorical data were collected from each survey round and expressed as frequencies. The frequency of endorsement was tabulated for each criteria and practice. A priori, it was established that a frequency of endorsement of five out of seven would be considered consensus.

## Results

The response rate in all rounds of the survey was 100 percent. Table B1 shows the experts' final-round responses regarding the importance of various criteria for a working definition of meditation. Participants in the Delphi study agreed that a meditation practice (1) uses a defined technique, (2) involves logic relaxation, and (3) involves a self-induced state/mode. These criteria were considered essential. Participants also agreed that a meditation practice may (1) involve a state of psychophysical relaxation somewhere in the process; (2) use a self-focus skill or anchor; (3) involve an altered state/mode of consciousness, mystic experience, enlightenment or suspension of logical thought processes; (4) be embedded in a religious/spiritual/philosophical context; or (5) involve an experience of mental silence. After round four, participants did not reach consensus on whether bringing about mental calmness and physical relaxation by suspending the stream of thoughts would be essential or important to define an intervention as meditation.

Table B1. Final responses for the importance of various criteria for an operational definition of meditation

Criteria	Not important at all	Important but not essential	Essential	Don't know
1. It uses a defined technique	0	0	7	0
<ol><li>It involves logic relaxation: not "to intend" to analyze the possible psychophysical effects, not "to intend" to judge the possible results, not "to intend" to create any type of expectation regarding the process</li></ol>	0	0	7	0
It involves a state of psychophysical relaxation installed somewhere during the process	1	5	1	0
4. It involves a self-induced state/mode. It refers to a therapeutic method that can be taught by an instructor, but self-applied by the individual him/herself. It must, for instance, be feasible to be done at home, without the presence of the instructor. There must not be any relationship of dependence	0	1	6	0
<ol> <li>It uses a self-focus skill or "anchor. A concentration ("positive anchor") or a turning off ("negative anchor") focus is used, in order to avoid sequels of undesirable thinking, torpor, sleep</li> </ol>	0	5	2	0
It involves altered states/modes of consciousness, mystic experiences,     "enlightenment" or suspension of logical thought processes	1	5	1	0
7. It is embedded in a religious/ spiritual/philosophical context	0	7	0	0
8. It involves an experience of mental silence	0	5	1	1
9. It involves a self-paced systematic desensitization	6	1	0	0
It brings about mental calmness and physical relaxation by suspending the stream of thoughts that normally occupy the mind	0	3	4	0

Table B2 shows the experts' final responses regarding the interventions that can be considered as meditation practices or practices involving a meditative component. The experts agreed that 32 out of 41 potential interventions were meditation or involved a meditative component in the practice; therefore, these 32 practices were considered for inclusion in the review.

Table B2. Final responses for interventions considered meditation practices or practices involving a meditative component

Intervention	Yes	No	Don't know
1. Vipassana	7	0	0
2. Dhyana	7	0	0
3. Zen Budhhist meditation (Zazen)	7	0	0
4. Kinemantra meditation (KM)	7	0	0
5. Anapana sati	6	1	0
6. Mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR)	7	0	0
7. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy (MBCT)	7	0	0
8. Transcendental Meditation® technique (TM®)	7	0	0
9. Mindfulness meditation (MM)	7	0	0
10. Relaxation response (RR)	7	0	0
11. Progressive muscle relaxation (PMR)	0	7	0

Table B2. Final responses for interventions considered as meditation practices or practices involving a meditative component (continued)

Intervention	Yes	No	Do not know
12. Unilateral forced nostril breathing	6	1	0
13. Yoga (any)	6	1	0
14. Kundalini yoga	7	0	0
15. Raja yoga	7	0	0
16. Hatha yoga	5	2	0
17. Sudarshan kriya yoga	6	1	0
18. Yogic breathing	6	11	0
19. Pranayama	6	1	0
20. Kapalabhati	6	1	0
21. Centering prayer	6	1	0
22. Qigong	5	1	1
23. Tai chi	5	2	0
24. Samadhi	7	0	0
25. Visual imagery	0	7	0
26. Guided imagery	1	5	1
27. Guided visualization	1	6	0
28. Creative visualization	1	6	0
29. Mantra	7	0	0
30. Pratyahara	6	1	0
31. Dharana	7	0	0
32. Tae eul ju	5	1	1
33. Hesychasm	5	2	0
34. Lectio divina	2	5	0
35. Silva method	1	6	0
36. Naam	5	2	0
37. Dialectical behavior therapy	1	6	0
38. Autogenic training	0	7	0
39. Clinically standardized meditation	5	2	0
40. Sound chanting	5	2	0
41. Sufic practices	7	0	0

This study was undertaken to develop a working definition of meditation that could be used to clearly differentiate meditation practices from those that are not meditation. These criteria formed part of a multicomponent approach to study selection in the report on the state of research of meditation practices for healthcare. The results of this study provide valuable insight into the problem of defining meditation and pontribute with a preliminary set of criteria with which to judge potential meditation practices.

# **Appendix C. Exact Search Strings**

#### Table C1. MEDLINE®—Ovid version

Years/issue searched: 1966 to August 2005, week 5

Search date: September 8, 2005

- 1. exp meditation/
- 2. exp yoga/
- 3. meditat\$.mp.
- 4. cogitat\$.ti,ab.
- 5. Pranayam\$.mp.
- 6. kapalabhati.ti,ab.
- 7. (yoga or yogic\$).mp.
- 8. mindful\$.mp.
- 9. zen.ti,ab,sh.
- 10. transcendental.ti,ab.
- 11. TM-Sidhi.mp.
- 12. mahayana.ti,ab.
- 13. hiniyana.ti,ab.
- 14. theravada\$.ti,ab.
- 15. vajrayana.ti,ab.
- 16. (vipissana or vipashyana).ti,ab.
- 17. (dhyana or dyana).ti,ab.
- 18. dharana.ti,ab.
- 19. zazen.ti,ab.
- 20. (kinemantra or KM).ti,ab.
- 21. (mantra or mantras).mp.
- 22. (samadhi or samatha).ti,ab.
- 23. pratyahara.ti,ab.
- 24. purusha.ti,ab.
- 25. prakruti.ti,ab.
- 26. ((Visual or guided) adj5 imagery).mp.
- 27. ((guided or creative or vivid) adj visualization).ti.ab.
- 28. pray\$.mp.
- 29. Hesychasm.ti,ab.
- 30. "lectio divina".ti,ab.
- 31. bonadona.ti,ab.
- 32. (qigong or qi gong).mp.
- 33. ch'i kung.ti,ab.
- 34. "Tae Eul Ju".ti,ab.
- "mind-body and relaxation techniques"/ or "mind-body relations (metaphysics)"/
- 36. tai ji/
- 37. (tai chi or tai ji).mp.
- 38. Taijiquan.ti,ab.
- 39. "open awareness".mp.
- 40. "focused awareness".mp.
- 41. "relaxation response".mp.
- 42. "progressive muscle relaxation".ti,ab.
- 43. progressive relaxation.ti,ab.
- 44. "forced nostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 45. "Uninostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 46. "unilateral breathing".ti,ab.
- 47. (Khundalini or Kundalini).mp.
- 48. raja.ti,ab.
- 49. hatha.ti,ab.
- 50. "sudarshan kriya".ti,ab.
- 51. RRMM.ti,ab.
- 52. MBSR.ti,ab.
- 53. MBCT.ti,ab.

- 54. "Wide-angle lens attention".ti,ab.
- 55. ("Anapana Sati" or anapanasati).mp.
- 56. kabat-zinn.ab.
- 57. or/1-56
- 58. RANDOMIZED CONTROLLED TRIAL.pt.
- 59. CONTROLLED CLINICAL TRIAL.pt.
- 60. RANDOMIZED CONTROLLED TRIALS 61. RANDOM ALLOCATION/
- 62. DOUBLE BLIND METHOD/
- 63. SINGLE-BLIND METHOD/
- 64. or/58-63
- 65. ANIMAL/ not HUMAN/
- 66, 64 not 65
- 67. CLINICAL TRIAL.pt.
- 68. exp CLINICAL TRIALS/
- 69. (clin\$ adj25 (trial\$ or study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- ((singl\$ or doubl\$ or trebl\$ or tripl\$) adj25 (blind\$ or mask\$)).ti,ab.
- 71. PLACEBOS/
- 72. placebo\$.ti,ab.
- 73. random\$.ti,ab.
- 74. RESEARCH DESIGN/
- 75. or/67-74
- 76. 75 not 65
- 77. 76 not 66
- 78. COMPARATIVE STUDY/
- 79. exp EVALUATION STUDIES/
- 80. FOLLOW UP STUDIES/
- 81. (Follow up adj5 (study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 82. PROSPECTIVE STUDIES/
- 83. exp COHORT STUDIES/
- 84. CROSS-SECTIONAL STUDIES/
- 85. exp CASE-CONTROL STUDIES/
- 86. Epidemiologic studies/
- 87. Epidemiological factors/
- 88. exp Causality/
- 89. Age factors/
- 90. Comorbidity/
- 91. Odds ratio/
- 92. exp Risk/
- 93. Probability/
- 94. ((Allocat\$ or control\$ or assign\$ or treatment or compar\$ or interven\$ or experiment\$) and (group or groups)).mp.
- 95. (group or groups).ti,ab.
- 96. (control\$ or prospectiv\$ or retrospectiv\$ or volunteer\$ or participant\$ or compar\$).mp. and (trial\$ or study or studies or design).ti,ab,sh.
- 97. cohort\$.ti,ab.
- 98. case-control\$.ti,ab.
- 99. Cross sectional.ti,ab.

#### Table C1. MEDLINE®—Ovid version (continued)

- 100. (observational adj5 (study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 101. Longitudinal.mp.
- 102. Retrospective.ti,ab.
- 103. Relative risk.ti,ab.
- 104. Odds ratio.ti,ab.
- 105. (case adj (comparison or referent)).ti,ab.
- 106. (Causation or causal\$).ti,ab.
- 107. (Analytic adj (study or studies)).ti,ab.
- 108. or/78-107
- 109, 108 not 65
- 110. 109 not (66 or 77)
- 111. 66 or 77 or 109
- 112. 57 and 111
- 113. limit 112 to (humans and english language)
- 114. limit 113 to "all adult (19 plus years)"
- 115. 113 not 114
- 116. limit 115 to "all child (0 to 18 years)"
- 117. 115 not 116
- 118. 114 or 117
- 119. remove duplicates from 118
- 120. systematic review\$.mp.
- 121. systematic literature review\$.mp.
- 122. meta-analysis.sh.
- 123. (meta-analys?s or metaanalys?s).ti.
- 124, evidence-based medicine.mp.
- 125. quantitative review\$.ti.ab.
- 126. quantitative overview\$.ti,ab.
- 127. quantitative synthes?s.ti.
- 128. quantitative analys?s.ti,ab.
- 129. (evidence-based adj (guideline\$ or recommendation\$)).mp.
- 130. health planning guideline\$.mp.
- 131. cochrane database of systematic reviews.mp.
- 132. cdsr.mp.
- 133. acp journal club.mp.
- 134. (health tech\$ assess\$ or hta).mp.
- 135. technolog\$ assess\$.mp.
- 136. evidence based nursing.mp.
- 137. evidence based mental health.mp.
- 138. clinical evidence.mp.
- 139. biomedical technology assessment.sh.
- 140. evidence report\$.mp.
- 141. or/120-140
- 142. systematic\$.mp.
- 143. critical.mp.
- 144. (study and selection).ti,ab.
- 145. ((predetermined or inclusion) and criteri\$).mp.
- 146. exclusion criteri\$.mp.
- 147. main outcome measure\$.mp.
- 148. "standard\$ of care".mp.
- 149. or/142-148
- 150. (survey\$ or overview\$ or review or reviews or search\$ or handsearch\$).mp.
- 151. (analys?s or critique or appraisal).mp.
- 152. (reduction and risk and (death or occurrence)).mp.
- 153. or/150-152
- 154. (literature or article\$ or publication\$ or bibliograph\$ or published or unpublished or

- ciation\$ or database\$ or internet or reference\$ or textbook\$ or trial\$).mp.
- 155. meta-analysis.sh.
  - 156. (medline or medlars or pubmed or embase or index medicus or cochrane or scisearch or web of science or psychinfo or psychlit or cinahl or experta medica or science citation index or sciences citation index or biological abstracts).mp.
- 157. (clinical and studies).mp.
- 158. (treatment outcome or combine\$ or combining or peto or der simonian or dersimonian or fixed effect\$ or pooled or pooling or mantel haenszel).mp.
- 159. or/154-157
- 160, 149 and 153 and 159
- 161, 141 or 160
- 162. case report.ti.sh.
- 163. editorial.ti,pt.
- 164. letter.pt.
- 165. note.pt.
- 166. or/162-165
- 167. 161 not 166
- 168. 167 and 57
- 169, 168 not 119
- 170. meta-analysis.pt.
- 171. (meta-anal\$ or metaanal\$).mp.
- 172. (((quantitativ\$ adj3 review\$1) or quantitativ\$) adj3 overview\$).mp.
- 173. (((systematic adj3 review\$1) or systematic) adj3 overview\$1).mp.
- 174. (((methodologic adj3 review\$1) or methodologic) adj3 overview\$).mp.
- 175. (integrat\$ adj5 research).mp.
- 176. (quantitativ\$ adj3 synthes\$).mp.
- 177. or/170-176
- 178. review.pt. or (review\$ or overview\$).mp.
- 179. (medline or medlars or pubmed or index medicus or embase or cochrane).mp.
- 180. (scisearch or web of science or psycinfo or psychinfo or cinhal) or cinhal).mp.
- 181. (excerpta medica or psychlit or psyclit or current contents or science citation index or sciences citation index).mp.
- 182. (hand search\$ or manual search\$).mp.
- 183. ((((electronic adj3 database\$) or bibliographic) adj3 database\$) or periodical index\$).mp.
- 184. (pooling or pooled or mantel haenszel).mp.
- 185. (peto or der simonian or dersimonian or fixed effect\$).mp.
- 186. ((combines or combining) adj5 (data or trial or trials or studies or study or result or results)).mp.
- 187. or/179-186
- 188. 178 and 187
- 189. 177 or 188

#### Table C1. MEDLINE®—Ovid version (continued)

190. (hta\$ or health technology assessment\$ or biomedical technology assessment\$).mp. 191. technology assessment, biomedical/ or biomedical technology assessment/ 192. 190 or 191

193. 189 or 192

194. 119 and 193

195. 57 and 193

196. 119 or 195

#### Table C2. EMBASE—Ovid version

Years/issue searched: 1988 to 2005, week 36

Search date: September 8, 2005

- 1. exp meditation/
- 2. Transcendental meditation/
- 3. exp yoga/
- 4. meditat\$.mp.
- 5. cogitat\$.ti,ab.
- 6. Pranayam\$.mp.
- 7. kapalabhati.ti,ab.
- 8. (yoga or yogic\$).mp.
- 9. mindful\$.mp.
- 10. zen.ti,ab,sh.
- 11. transcendental.ti,ab.
- 12. TM-Sidhi.mp.
- 13. mahayana.ti,ab.
- 14. hiniyana.ti,ab.
- 15. theravada\$.ti,ab.
- 16. vajrayana.ti,ab.
- 17. (vipissana or vipashyana).ti,ab.
- 18. (dhyana or dyana).ti,ab.
- 19. dharana.ti,ab.
- 20. zazen.ti,ab.
- 21. (kinemantra or KM).ti,ab.
- 22. (mantra or mantras).mp.
- 23. (samadhi or samatha).ti,ab.
- 24. pratyahara.ti,ab.
- 25. purusha.ti,ab.
- 26. prakruti.ti.ab.
- 27. ((Visual or guided) adj5 imagery).mp.
- 28. ((guided or creative or vivid) adj visualization).ti,ab.
- 29. pray\$.mp.
- 30. Hesychasm.ti,ab.
- 31. lectio divina.ti,ab.
- 32. bonadona.ti,ab.
- 33. (qigong or qi gong).mp.
- 34. ch'i kung.ti,ab.
- 35. "Tae Eul Ju".ti,ab.
- relaxation training/ and (Psychophysiology/ or Breathing Exercise/)
- 37. "Mental Concentration"/ and (Breathing Exercise/ or relaxation training/)
- 38. (mind adj body).ti,ab.
- 39. brain mind relationship/
- 40. exp Tai Chi/
- 41. (tai chi or tai ji).mp.
- 42. Taijiquan.ti,ab.
- 43. "open awareness".mp.
- 44. "focused awareness".mp.
- 45. "relaxation response".mp.
- 46. "progressive muscle relaxation".ti,ab.
- 47. progressive relaxation.ti,ab.
- 48. "forced nostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 49. "Uninostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 50. "unilateral breathing".ti,ab.
- 51. (Khundalini or Kundalini).mp.
- 52. raja.ti,ab.
- 53. hatha.ti,ab.
- 54. "sudarshan kriya".ti,ab.
- 55. RRMM.ti,ab.

- 56. MBSR.ti,ab.
- 57. MBCT.ti.ab.
- 58. "zoom lens attention".ti,ab.
- 59. "Wide-angle lens attention".ti,ab.
- 60. ("Anapana Sati" or anapanasati).mp.
- 61. kabat-zinn.ab.
- 62. or/1-61
- 63. Randomized Controlled Trial/
- 64. exp Randomization/
- 65. Double Blind Procedure/
- 66. Single Blind Procedure/
- 67. or/63-66
- 68. Clinical Trial/
- 69. (clin\$ adj25 (trial\$ or study or studies or design)).mp.
- 70. ((singl\$ or doubl\$ or trebl\$ or tripl\$) adj25 (blind\$ or mask\$)).mp.
- 71. exp Placebo/
- 72. (placebo\$ or random\$).mp.
- 73. exp Methodology/
- 74. exp Comparative Study/
- 75. exp Evaluation/
- 76. exp Follow Up/
- 77. exp Prospective Study/
- 78. clinical study/
- 79. case control study/
- 80. family study/
- 81. longitudinal study/
- 82. retrospective study/
- 83. cohort analysis/
- 84. exp Risk/
- 85. ((allocat\$ or compar\$ or assign\$ or treatment or control\$ or interven\$ or experiment\$) and (group or groups)).mp.
- 86. (group or groups).ti,ab.
- 87. ((control\$ or prospectiv\$ or retrospectiv\$ or volunteer\$ or participant\$ or compar\$) and (trial\$ or study or studies or design)).ti,ab,sh.
- 88. cohort\$.ti,ab.
- 89. "case-control".ti,ab.
- 90. "Cross sectional".ti,ab.
- 91. (observational adj5 (study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 92. Longitudinal.mp.
- 93. Retrospective.ti,ab.
- 94. "Relative risk".ti,ab.
- 95. "Odds ratio".ti,ab.
- 96. (Follow up adj5 (study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 97. (case adj (comparison or referent)).ti,ab.
- 98. (Causation or causal\$).ti,ab.
- 99. (Analytic adj (study or studies)).ti,ab.
- 100. (epidemiologic\$ adj (study or studies)).ti,ab.
- 101. or/68-99
- 102. 67 or 101

#### Table C2. EMBASE—Ovid version (continued)

103. limit 102 to human

104. Nonhuman/

105. 103 not 104

106. 62 and 105

107. limit 106 to english language

108. limit 107 to (adult <18 to 64 years> or aged <65+ years>)

109. 107 not 108

110. limit 109 to (embryo or infant or child or

preschool child <1 to 6 years> or school child <7 to 12 years>)

111, 109 not 110

112, 108 or 111

113. remove duplicates from 112

114. systematic review\$.mp.

115. systematic literature review\$.mp.

116. meta-analysis.sh.

117. (meta-analys?s or metaanalys?s).ti.

118. evidence-based medicine.mp.

119. quantitative review\$.ti,ab.

120. quantitative overview\$.ti,ab.

121. quantitative synthes?s.ti.

122. quantitative analys?s.ti,ab.

123. (evidence-based adj (guideline\$ or

recommendation\$)).mp.

124. health planning guideline\$.mp.

125. cochrane database of systematic reviews.mp.

126. cdsr.mp.

127. acp journal club.mp.

128. (health tech\$ assess\$ or hta).mp.

129. technolog\$ assess\$.mp.

130. evidence based nursing.mp.

131. evidence based mental health.mp.

132. clinical evidence.mp.

133. biomedical technology assessment.sh.

134. evidence report\$.mp.

135. or/114-134

136. systematic\$.mp.

137. critical.mp.

138. (study and selection).ti,ab.

139. ((predetermined or inclusion) and criteri\$).mp.

140. exclusion criteri\$.mp.

141. main outcome measure\$.mp.

142. "standard\$ of care".mp.

143. or/136-142

144. (survey\$ or overview\$ or reviews or search\$ or handsearch\$).mp.

145. (analys?s or critique or appraisal).mp.

146. (reduction and risk and (death or

occurrence)).mp.

147. or/144-146

148. (literature or article\$ or publication\$ or bibliograph\$ or published or unpublished or ciation\$ or database\$ or internet or reference\$ or textbook\$ or trial\$).mp.

149. meta-analysis.sh.

150. (medline or medlars or pubmed or embase or index medicus or cochrane or scisearch or web of science or psychinfo or psychlit or cinahl or experta medica or science citation index or sciences citation index or biological abstracts).mp.

151. (clinical and studies).mp.

152. (treatment outcome or combine\$ or combining or peto or der simonian or dersimonian or fixed effect\$ or pooled or pooling or mantel haenszel).mp.

153. or/148-151

154. 143 and 147 and 153

155, 135 or 154

156. case report.ti,sh.

157. editorial.ti,pt.

158. letter.pt.

159. note.pt.

160. or/156-159

161, 155 not 160

162. meta-analysis.pt.

163. (meta-anal\$ or metaanal\$).mp.

164. (((quantitativ\$ adj3 review\$1) or quantitativ\$)

adj3 overview\$).mp.

165. (((systematic adj3 review\$1) or systematic) adj3 overview\$1).mp.

166. (((methodologic adj3 review\$1) or methodologic) adj3 overview\$).mp.

167. (integrat\$ adj5 research).mp.

168. (quantitativ\$ adj3 synthes\$).mp.

169. or/162-168

170. review.pt. or (review\$ or overview\$).mp.

171. (medline or medlars or pubmed or index medicus or embase or cochrane).mp.

172. (scisearch or web of science or psycinfo or psychinfo or cinahl or cinhal).mp.

173. (excerpta medica or psychlit or psyclit or current contents or science citation index or sciences citation index).mp.

174. (hand search\$) or manual search\$).mp.

175. ((((electronic adj3 database\$) or bibliographic)

adj3 database\$) or periodical index\$).mp.

176. (pooling or pooled or mantel haenszel).mp.

177. (peto or der simonian or dersimonian or fixed effect\$).mp.

178. ((combine\$ or combining) adj5 (data or trial or trials or studies or study or result or results)).mp.

179. or/171-178

180, 170 and 179

181, 169 or 180

182. (hta\$ or health technology assessment\$ or biomedical technology assessment\$).mp.

183. technology assessment, biomedical/ or biomedical technology asssessment/

184, 182 or 183

185. 181 or 184

186. 161 or 185

187, 186 and 62

188. limit 187 to (human and english language)

189. limit 188 to (adult <18 to 64 years> or aged <65+ vears>)

190. 188 not 189

191. limit 190 to (embryo or infant or child or

preschool child <1 to 6 years> or school child <7 to 12 years> or adolescent <13 to 17 years>)

192. 190 not 191

193, 189 or 192

194. remove duplicates from 193

#### Table C2. EMBASE—Ovid version (continued)

195. 113 or 194

Table C3. Central (EBM Reviews-Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials)—Ovid version

Years/issue searched: 3rd Quarter 2005

Search date: August 4, 2005

- 1. exp meditation/
- 2. exp yoga/
- 3. meditat\$.mp.
- 4. cogitat\$.ti,ab.
- 5. Pranayam\$.mp.
- 6. kapalabhati.ti,ab.
- 7. (yoga or yogic\$).mp.
- 8. mindful\$.mp.
- 9. zen.ti,ab,sh.
- 10. transcendental.ti,ab.
- 11. TM-Sidhi.mp.
- 12. mahayana.ti,ab.
- 13. hiniyana.ti,ab.
- 14. theravada\$.ti,ab.
- 15. vajrayana.ti,ab.
- 16. (vipissana or vipashyana).ti,ab.
- 17. (dhyana or dyana).ti,ab.
- 18. dharana.ti,ab.
- 19. zazen.ti.ab.
- 20. (kinemantra or KM).ti,ab.
- 21. (mantra or mantras).mp.
- 22. (samadhi or samatha).ti,ab.
- 23. pratyahara.ti,ab.
- 24. purusha.ti,ab.
- 25. prakruti.ti,ab.
- 26. ((Visual or guided) adj5 imagery).mp.
- 27. ((guided or creative or vivid) adj visualization).ti,ab.
- 28. pray\$.mp.
- 29. Hesychasm.ti,ab.
- 30. "lectio divina".ti,ab.
- 31. bonadona.ti,ab.
- 32. (qigong or qi gong).mp.
- 33. ch'i kung.ti,ab.
- 34. "Tae Eul Ju".ti,ab.
- 35. "mind-body and relaxation techniques"/ or "mindbody relations (metaphysics)"/
- 36. tai ji/
- 37. (tai chi or tai ji).mp.
- 38. Taijiquan.ti,ab.
- 39. "open awareness".mp.
- 40. "focused awareness".mp.
- 41. "relaxation response".mp.
- 42. "progressive muscle relaxation".ti,ab.
- 43. progressive relaxation.ti,ab.
- 44. "forced nostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 45. "Uninostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 46. "unilateral breathing".ti,ab.
- 47. (Khundalini or Kundalini).mp.
- 48. raja.ti,ab.
- 49. hatha.ti,ab.
- 50. "sudarshan kriya".ti,ab.
- 51. RRMM.ti,ab.
- 52. MBSR.ti,ab.
- 53. MBCT.ti,ab.
- 54. "zoom lens attention".ti,ab.
- 55. "Wide-angle lens attention".ti,ab.
- 56. ("Anapana Sati" or anapanasati).mp.
- 57. kabat-zinn.ab.

- 58. or/1-57
- 59. adult.mp.
- 60. elderly.mp.
- 61. middle-age\$.mp.
- 62. aged.hw. or aged.kw. or aged.sh. or "aged 80 and over".sh.
- 63. or/59-62
- 64. 58 and 63
- 65. 58 not 64
- 66. child\$.hw. 67. adolescen\$.hw.
- 68. infan\$.hw.
- 69. minors.hw.
- 70. neonat\$.hw.
- 71. pediatric\$.hw.
- 72. (nurseries or nursery).hw.
- 73. or/66-72
- 74. child\$.mp.
- 75. paediatric\$.mp.
- 76. pediatric\$.mp.
- 77. (neonat\$ or perinat\$).mp.
- 78. newborn\$.mp.
- 79. infan\$.mp.
- 80. preemie\$.mp.
- 81. (baby or babies).mp.
- 82. (nursery or nurseries).mp.
- 83. toddler\$.mp.
- 84. boy\$.mp.
- 85. girl\$.mp.
- 86. (schoolage\$ or (school adj1 age\$)).mp.
- 87. (preschool\$ or (pre adj1 school\$)).mp.
- 88. nursery school\$.mp.
- 89. kindergar?en\$.mp.
- 90. (schoolchild\$ or (school adj1 child\$)).mp.
- 91. primary school\$.mp.
- 92. elementary school\$.mp.
- 93. (prepubescen\$ or postpubescen\$ or (pre adi1 pubescen\$) or (post adj1 pubescen\$)).mp.
- 94. secondary school\$.mp.
- 95. (pubescen\$ or pubert\$).mp.
- 96. adolescen\$.mp.
- 97. juvenil\$.mp.
- 98. underage\$.mp.
- 99. (teen or teens).mp.
- 100. teenage\$.mp.
- 101. (youth or youths).mp.
- 102. (highschool\$ or (high adj1 school\$)).mp.
- 103. kid\$1.mp.
- 104. offspring.mp.
- 105. or/74-104
- 106. infan\$.jw.
- 107. (neonat\$ or perinat\$).jw.
- 108. child\$.jw.
- 109. pediatric\$.jw.

Table C3. Central (EBM Reviews-Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials)—Ovid version (continued)

- 110. paediatric\$.jw.
  111. adolescen\$.jw.
- 112. youth\$.jw.
- 113. school\$.jw.
- 114. or/106-113
- 115. or/105,114
- 116. 65 and 115
- 117. 65 not 116
- 118. 65 not 115
- 119. 118 or 64
- 120. exp meditation/
- 121. Transcendental meditation/
- 122. exp yoga/
- 123. meditat\$.mp.
- 124. cogitat\$.ti,ab.
- 125. Pranayam\$.mp.
- 126. kapalabhati.ti,ab.
- 127. (yoga or yogic\$).mp.
- 128. mindful\$.mp.
- 129. zen.ti,ab,sh.
- 130. transcendental.ti,ab.
- 131. TM-Sidhi.mp.
- 132. mahayana.ti,ab.
- 133. hiniyana.ti,ab.
- 134. theravada\$.ti,ab.
- 135. vajrayana.ti,ab.
- 136. (vipissana or vipashyana).ti,ab.
- 137. (dhyana or dyana).ti,ab.
- 138. dharana.ti,ab.
- 139. zazen.ti,ab.
- 140. (kinemantra or KM).ti,ab.
- 141. (mantra or mantras).mp.
- 142. (samadhi or samatha).ti,ab.
- 143. pratyahara.ti,ab.
- 144. purusha.ti,ab.
- 145. prakruti.ti,ab.
- 146. ((Visual or guided) adj5 imagery).mp.
- 147. ((guided or creative or vivid) adj visualization).ti,ab.
- 148. pray\$.mp.
- 149. Hesychasm.ti,ab.
- 150. lectio divina.ti,ab.
- 151. bonadona.ti,ab.
- 152. (qigong or qi gong).mp.
- 153. ch'i kung.ti,ab.
- 154. "Tae Eul Ju".ti,ab.
- 155. relaxation training/ and (Psychophysiology/ or Breathing Exercise/)
- 156. "Mental Concentration"/ and (Breathing Exercise/ or relaxation training/)
- 157. (mind adi body).ti.ab.
- 158. brain mind relationship/
- 159. exp Tai Chi/
- 160. (tai chi or tai ji).mp.
- 161. Taijiquan.ti,ab.
- 162. "open awareness".mp.
- 163. "focused awareness".mp.
- 164. "relaxation response".mp.
- 165. "progressive muscle relaxation".ti,ab.
- 166. progressive relaxation.ti,ab.
- 167. "forced nostril breathing".ti,ab.

- 168. "Uninostril breathing".ti.ab.
- 169. "unilateral breathing".ti,ab.
- 170. (Khundalini or Kundalini).mp.
- 171. raja.ti,ab.
- 172. hatha.ti,ab.
- 173. "sudarshan kriya".ti,ab.
- 174. RRMM.ti,ab.
- 175. MBSR.ti,ab.
- 176. MBCT.ti,ab.
- 177. "zoom lens attention".ti,ab.
- 178. "Wide-angle lens attention".ti,ab.
- 179. ("Anapana Sati" or anapanasati).mp.
- 180. kabat-zinn.ab.
- 181. or/120-180
- 182. 181 or 58
- 183. 182 not 58
- 184, 119 or 183

## Table C4. PsycINFO®—Ovid version

Years/issue searched: 1872 to August 2005, week 4

Search date: September 9, 2005

- 1. exp meditation/
- 2. exp yoga/
- 3. exp Guided Imagery/
- 4. exp Prayer/
- 5. Autogenic Training/
- 6. meditat\$.mp.
- 7. cogitat\$.ti,ab.
- 8. Pranayam\$.mp.
- 9. kapalabhati.ti,ab.
- 10. (yoga or yogic\$).mp.
- 11. mindful\$.mp.
- 12. zen.ti,ab,sh.
- 13. transcendental.ti,ab.
- 14. TM-Sidhi.mp.
- 15. mahayana.ti,ab.
- 16. hiniyana.ti,ab.
- 17. theravada\$.ti,ab.
- 18. vajrayana.ti,ab.
- 19. (vipissana or vipashyana).ti,ab.
- 20. (dhyana or dyana).ti,ab.
- 21. dharana.ti,ab.
- 22. zazen.ti.ab.
- 23. (kinemantra or KM).ti,ab.
- 24. (mantra or mantras).mp.
- 25. (samadhi or samatha).ti,ab.
- 26. pratyahara.ti,ab.
- 27. purusha.ti,ab.
- 28. prakruti.ti.ab.
- 29. (((Visual or guided) adj3 imagery) and (therap\$ or treat\$ or interven\$)).mp.
- 30. imagery/ and relaxation therapy/
- 31. ((guided or creative or vivid) adj visualization).ti,ab.
- 32. pray\$.mp.
- 33. Hesychasm.ti,ab.
- 34. lectio divina.ti.ab.
- 35. bonadona.ti,ab.
- 36. (gigong or gi gong).mp.
- 37. ch'i kung.ti,ab.
- 38. "Tae Eul Ju".ti,ab.
- 39. relaxation therapy/ and mind.ti,ab.
- 40. Progressive relaxation therapy/
- 41. ((mind adj body) and (therap\$ or treat\$ or interven\$ or aware\$ or breath\$ or relax\$ or conscious\$)).ti,ab.
- 42. (tai chi or tai ji).mp.
- 43. Taijiquan.ti,ab.
- 44. "open awareness".mp.
- 45. "focused awareness".mp.
- 46. "relaxation response".mp.
- 47. "progressive muscle relaxation".ti,ab.
- 48. progressive relaxation.ti,ab.
- 49. "forced nostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 50. "Uninostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 51. "unilateral breathing".ti,ab.
- 52. (Khundalini or Kundalini).mp.
- 53. raja.ti,ab.
- 54. hatha.ti,ab.
- 55. "sudarshan kriya".ti,ab.

- 56. RRMM.ti,ab.
- 57. MBSR.ti.ab.
- 58. MBCT.ti,ab.
- 59. "zoom lens attention".ti,ab.
- 60. "Wide-angle lens attention".ti,ab.
- 61. ("Anapana Sati" or anapanasati).mp.
- 62. kabat-zinn.ab.
- 63. or/1-61
- 64. exp CLINICAL TRIALS/
- 65. control group/
- 66. random\$.mp.
- 67. "sampling (experimental)"/ or Biased Sampling/ or Random Sampling/
- 68. ((singl\$ or doubl\$ or tripl\$ or trebl\$) adj10 (blind\$ or mask\$)).mp.
- 69. (cross?over or placebo\$ or control\$ or factorial or sham\$).mp.
- 70. double dummy.mp.
- ((clin\$ or intervention\$ or compar\$ or experiment\$ or preventive or therap\$) adj10 (trial\$ or study or studies)).mp.
- 72. Experimental Subjects/ or Experiment volunteers/ or Experiment controls/ or Experimental Replication/
- 73. clinical research.mp. or exp Treatment Effectiveness Evaluation/
- 74. Treatment Outcomes/ or Psychotherapeutic outcomes/
- 75. (outcome\$ adj assessment).mp.
- 76. (longitudinal study or meta analysis or program evaluation or prospective study or retrospective study or treatment outcome study or empirical study or experimental replication or followup study).fc.
- 77. clinical case report.fc.
- 78. (clin\$ adj25 (trial\$ or study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 79. ((singl\$ or doubl\$ or trebl\$ or tripl\$) adj25 (blind\$ or mask\$)).ti,ab.
- 80. (efficacy or effective\$ or findings or results).mp.
- 81. RESEARCH DESIGN/
- 82. FOLLOW-UP STUDIES/
- 83. (Follow up adj5 (study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 84. PROSPECTIVE STUDIES/
- 85. LONGITUDINAL STUDIES/
- 86. Comorbidity/
- 87. exp Probability/
- 88. ((Allocat\$ or control\$ or assign\$ or treatment or compar\$ or interven\$ or experiment\$) and (group or groups)).mp.
- 89. (group or groups).ti,ab.
- ((control\$ or multicenter or prospectiv\$ or retrospectiv\$ or evaluation or outcome\$ or volunteer\$ or subjects or participant\$ or compar\$) and (trial\$ or study or studies or design)).mp.
- 91. Ss.ab.
- 92. cohort\$.ti,ab.
- 93. case-control\$.ti,ab.

## Table C4. PsycINFO® - Ovid Version (continued)

- 94. Cross sectional.ti.ab.
- 95. (observational adj5 (study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 96. Longitudinal.mp.
- 97. Retrospective.ti,ab.
- 98. risk.ti,ab.
- 99. Odds ratio.ti,ab.
- 100. (case adj (comparison or referent)).ti,ab.
- 101. (Causation or causal\$).ti,ab.
- 102. (Analytic adj (study or studies)).ti,ab.
- 103. exp Placebo/
- 104. exp Empirical Methods/
- 105. Repeated Measures/
- 106. Between Groups Design/
- 107. exp Evaluation/
- 108. cohort analysis/
- 109. or/64-108
- 110, 63 and 109
- 111. limit 110 to (human and english language)
- 112. limit 111 to adulthood <18+ years>
- 113. 111 not 112
- 114. limit 113 to (childhood or adolescence <13 to 17 years>)
- 115. 113 not 114
- 116. 112 or 115
- 117. limit 116 to (chapter or journal or peer reviewed journal or dissertation abstract or report or "review")
- 118. remove duplicates from 117
- 119. meta analysis/ or statistical analysis/ or "literature review"/
- 120. systematic review\$.mp.
- 121. systematic literature review\$.mp.
- 122. meta-analysis.sh.
- 123. (meta-analys?s or metaanalys?s).ti.
- 124. evidence-based medicine.mp.
- 125. quantitative review\$.ti,ab.
- 126. quantitative overview\$.ti,ab.
- 127. quantitative synthes?s.ti.
- 128. quantitative analys?s.ti,ab.
- 129. (evidence-based adj (guideline\$ or recommendation\$)).mp.
- 130. health planning guideline\$.mp.
- 131. cochrane database of systematic reviews.mp.
- 132. cdsr.mp.
- 133. acp journal club.mp.
- 134. (health tech\$ assess\$ or hta).mp.
- 135. technolog\$ assess\$.mp.
- 136. evidence based nursing.mp.
- 137. evidence based mental health.mp.
- 138. clinical evidence.mp.
- 139. biomedical technology assessment.sh.
- 140. evidence report\$.mp.
- 141. or/120-140
- 142. systematic\$.mp.
- 143. critical.mp.
- 144. (study and selection).ti,ab.
- 145. ((predetermined or inclusion) and criteri\$).mp.
- 146. exclusion criteri\$.mp.
- 147. main outcome measure\$.mp.
- 148. "standard\$ of care".mp.

- 149. or/142-148
- 150. (survey\$ or overview\$ or reviews or search\$ or handsearch\$).mp.
- 151. (analys?s or critique or appraisal).mp.
- 152. (reduction and risk and (death or occurrence)).mp.
- 153. or/150-152
- 154. (literature or article\$ or publication\$ or bibliograph\$ or published or unpublished or ciation\$ or database\$ or internet or reference\$ or textbook\$ or trial\$).mp.
- 155. meta-analysis.sh.
- 156. (medline or medlars or pubmed or embase or index medicus or cochrane or scisearch or web of science or psychinfo or psychlit or cinahl or experta medica or science citation index or sciences citation index or biological abstracts).mp.
- 157. (clinical and studies).mp.
- 158. (treatment outcome or combines or combining or peto or der simonian or dersimonian or fixed effects or pooled or pooling or mantel haenszel).mp.
- 159. or/154-157
- 160, 149 and 153 and 159
- 161, 141 or 160
- 162. case report.ti,sh.
- 163. editorial.ti,pt.
- 164. letter.pt.
- 165. note.pt.
- 166. or/162-165
- 167. 161 not 166
- 168. systematic review\$.mp.
- 169. systematic literature review\$.mp.
- 170. meta-analysis.pt.
- 171. (meta-analys?s or metaanalys?s).ti.
- 172. evidence-based medicine.mp.
- 173. quantitative review\$.ti,ab.
- 174. quantitative overview\$.ti,ab.
- 175. quantitative synthes?s.ti.
- 176. quantitative analys?s.ti,ab.
- 177. (evidence-based adj (guideline\$ or recommendation\$)).mp.
- 178. consensus development conference.pt.
- 179. health planning guideline\$.mp.
- 180. guideline.pt.
- 181. cochrane database of systematic reviews.mp.
- 182. cdsr.mp.
- 183. acp journal club.mp.
- 184. health tech\$ assess\$.mp.
- 185. hta.mp.
- 186. evidence based nursing.mp.
- 187. evidence based mental health.mp.
- 188. clinical evidence.mp.
- 189. technolog\$ assess\$.mp.
- 190. evidence report\$.mp.
- 191. or/168-190
- 192. systematic\$.mp.
- 193. critical.mp.
- 194. (study and selection).ti,ab.
- 195. ((predetermined or inclusion) and criteri\$).mp.

## Table C4. PsycINFO® - Ovid Version (continued)

- 196, exclusion criteri\$.mp.
- 197. main outcome measure\$.mp.
- 198. "standard\$ of care".mp.
- 199. or/192-198
- 200. (survey\$ or overview\$ or review or reviews or search\$ or handsearch\$).mp.
- 201. (analys?s or critique or appraisal).mp.
- 202. (reduction and risk and (death or
- occurrence)).mp.
- 203. or/200-202
- 204. (literature or article\$ or publication\$ or bibliograph\$ or published or unpublished or ciation\$ or database\$ or internet or reference\$ or textbook\$ or trial\$).mp.
- 205. meta-analysis.sh.
- 206. (medline or medlars or pubmed or embase or index medicus or cochrane or scisearch or web of science or psychinfo or psychlit or cinahl or experta medica or science citation index or sciences citation index or biological abstracts).mp.
- 207. (clinical and studies).mp.
- 208. (treatment outcome or combine\$ or combining or peto or der simonian or dersimonian or fixed effect\$ or pooled or pooling or mantel haenszel).mp.
- 209. or/204-207
- 210. 199 and 203 and 209
- 211. 191 or 210
- 212. case report.ti,sh.
- 213. editorial.ti,pt.
- 214. letter.pt.
- 215. newspaper article.pt.
- 216. comment.pt.
- 217. or/212-216
- 218. 211 not 217
- 219. meta-analysis.pt.
- 220. (meta-anal\$ or metaanal\$).mp.
- 221. (((quantitativ\$ adj3 review\$1) or quantitativ\$) adj3 overview\$).mp.
- 222. (((systematic adj3 review\$1) or systematic) adj3 overview\$1).mp.
- 223. (((methodologic adj3 review\$1) or methodologic) adj3 overview\$).mp.
- 224. (integrat\$ adj5 research).mp.
- 225. (quantitativ\$ adj3 synthes\$).mp.
- 226. or/219-225
- 227. review.pt. or (review\$ or overview\$).mp.
- 228. (medline or medlars or pubmed or index medicus or embase or cochrane).mp.
- 229. (scisearch or web of science or psycinfo or psychinfo or cinhal) or cinhal).mp.
- 230. (excerpta medica or psychlit or psyclit or current contents or science citation index or sciences citation index).mp.
- 231. (hand search\$) or manual search\$).mp.
- 232. ((((electronic adj3 database\$) or bibliographic) adj3 database\$) or periodical index\$).mp.
- 233. (pooling or pooled or mantel haenszel).mp.
- (peto or der simonian or dersimonian or fixed effect\$).mp.

- 235. ((combine\$ or combining) adj5 (data or trial or trials or studies or study or result or results)).mp.
- 236. or/228-235
- 237. 227 and 236
- 238. 226 or 237
- 239. (hta\$ or health technology assessment\$ or biomedical technology assessment\$).mp.
- 240. technology assessment, biomedical/ or biomedical technology assessment/
- 241. 239 or 240
- 242, 238 or 241
- 243. 63 and (119 or 167 or 218 or 242)
- 244. 243 not 118
- 245. limit 244 to (100 childhood or 200 adolescence)
- 246. 244 not 245
- 247. limit 246 to (human and english language)
- 248. remove duplicates from 247
- 249. 118 or 248

#### Table C5. AMED (Allied and Complementary Medicine)—Ovid version

Years/issue searched: 1985 to September 2005

Search date: September 30, 2005

- 1. exp meditation/
- 2. exp yoga/
- 3. meditat\$.mp.
- 4. cogitat\$.ti,ab.
- 5. Pranayam\$.mp.
- 6. kapalabhati.ti,ab.
- 7. (yoga or yogic\$).mp.
- 8. mindful\$.mp.
- 9. zen.ti,ab,sh.
- 10. transcendental.ti,ab.
- 11. TM-Sidhi.mp.
- 12. mahayana.ti,ab.
- 13. hiniyana.ti,ab.
- 14. theravada\$.ti,ab.
- 15. vajrayana.ti,ab.
- 16. (vipissana or vipashyana).ti,ab.
- 17. (dhyana or dyana).ti,ab.
- 18. dharana.ti,ab.
- 19. zazen.ti,ab.
- 20. (kinemantra or KM).ti,ab.
- 21. (mantra or mantras).mp.
- 22. (samadhi or samatha).ti,ab.
- 23. pratyahara.ti,ab.
- 24. purusha.ti,ab.
- 25. prakruti.ti,ab.
- 26. visualization/
- 27. ((Visual or guided) adj5 imagery).mp.
- 28. ((guided or creative or vivid) adj visualization).ti,ab.
- 29. pray\$.mp.
- 30. Hesychasm.ti,ab.
- 31. "lectio divina".ti,ab.
- 32. bonadona.ti,ab.
- 33. (qigong or qi gong).mp.
- 34. ch'i kung.ti,ab.
- 35. "Tae Eul Ju".ti,ab.
- 36. "mind body medicine"/
- 37. tai chi/
- 38. (tai chi or tai ji).mp.
- 39. Taijiquan.ti,ab.
- 40. "open awareness".mp.
- 41. "focused awareness".mp.
- 42. relaxation/
- 43. "relaxation response".mp.
- 44. "progressive muscle relaxation".ti,ab.
- 45. progressive relaxation.ti,ab.
- 46. breathing therapies/
- 47. "forced nostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 48. "Uninostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 49. "unilateral breathing".ti,ab.
- 50. (Khundalini or Kundalini).mp.
- 51. raja.ti,ab.
- 52. hatha.ti,ab.
- 53. "sudarshan kriya".ti,ab.
- 54. RRMM.ti,ab.
- 55. MBSR.ti,ab.
- 56. MBCT.ti,ab.
- 57. "Wide-angle lens attention".ti,ab.
- 58. ("Anapana Sati" or anapanasati).mp.

- 59. or/1-58
- 60. limit 59 to english
- 61. ((singl\$ or doubl\$ or trebl\$ or tripl\$) and (blind\$ or mask\$)).mp.
- 62. PLACEBOS/ or placebo\$.mp.
- 63. random\$.mp.
- 64. RESEARCH DESIGN/
- 65. (control\$ or prospectiv\$ or volunteer\$).ti,ab.
- 66. "control (research)".mp.
- 67. (cross?over or factorial or sham\$).mp.
- 68. (meta?analy\$ or systematic review\$).mp.
- 69. exp research/
- 70. exp CLINICAL TRIALS/
- 71. (cross?over or placebo\$ or control\$ or factorial or sham\$).mp.
- 72. double dummy.mp.
- 73. ((clin\$ or intervention\$ or compar\$ or experiment\$ or preventive or therap\$) adj10 (trial\$ or study or studies)).mp.
- 74. (outcome\$ adj assessment).mp.
- 75. (efficacy or effective\$ or findings or results).mp.
- 76. RESEARCH DESIGN/
- 77. FOLLOW-UP STUDIES/
- 78. (Follow up adj5 (study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 79. PROSPECTIVE STUDIES/
- 80. LONGITUDINAL STUDIES/
- 81. Comorbidity/
- 82. exp Probability/
- 83. ((Allocat\$ or control\$ or assign\$ or treatment or compar\$ or interven\$ or experiment\$) and (group or groups)).mp.
- 84. (group or groups).ti,ab.
- 85. ((control\$ or multicenter or prospectiv\$ or retrospectiv\$ or evaluation or outcome\$ or volunteer\$ or subjects or participant\$ or compar\$) and (trial\$ or study or studies or design)).mp.
- 86. Ss.ab.
- 87. cohort\$.ti,ab.
- 88. case-control\$.ti,ab.
- 89. Cross sectional.ti,ab.
- 90. (observational adj5 (study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 91. Longitudinal.mp.
- 92. Retrospective.ti,ab.
- 93. risk.ti.ab.
- 94. Odds ratio.ti,ab.
- 95. (case adj (comparison or referent)).ti,ab.
- 96. (Causation or causal\$).ti,ab.
- 97. (Analytic adj (study or studies)).ti,ab.
- 98. RANDOMIZED CONTROLLED TRIAL.pt.
- 99. CONTROLLED CLINICAL TRIAL.pt.
- 100. RANDOMIZED CONTROLLED TRIALS/
- 101. RANDOM ALLOCATION/

#### Table C5. AMED (Allied and Complementary Medicine)—Ovid version (continued)

- 102. DOUBLE BLIND METHOD/
- 103. SINGLE-BLIND METHOD/
- 104. CLINICAL TRIAL.pt.
- 105. COMPARATIVE STUDY/
- 106. exp COHORT STUDIES/
- 107. Age factors/
- 108. Comorbidity/
- 109. exp Risk/
- 110. (therapy or treat\$).mp.
- 111. (epidemiologic\$ adj (study or studies)).ti,ab.
- 112. clinical research.mp.
- 113. or/61-112
- 114, 113 and 60
- 115. meta-analysis.pt.
- 116. (meta-anal\$ or metaanal\$).mp.
- 117. (((quantitativ\$ adj3 review\$1) or quantitativ\$) adj3 overview\$).mp.
- 118. (((systematic adj3 review\$1) or systematic) adj3 overview\$1).mp.
- 119. (((methodologic adj3 review\$1) or methodologic) adj3 overview\$).mp.
- 120. (integrat\$ adj5 research).mp.
- 121. (quantitativ\$ adj3 synthes\$).mp.
- 122. or/115-121
- 123. review.pt. or (review\$ or overview\$).mp.
- 124. (medline or medlars or pubmed or index medicus or embase or cochrane).mp.
- 125. (scisearch or web of science or psycinfo or psychinfo or cinhal).mp.
- 126. (excerpta medica or psychlit or psyclit or current contents or science citation index or sciences citation index).mp.
- 127. (hand search\$ or manual search\$).mp.
- 128. ((((electronic adj3 database\$) or bibliographic) adj3 database\$) or periodical index\$).mp.
- 129. (pooling or pooled or mantel haenszel).mp.
- 130. (peto or der simonian or dersimonian or fixed effect\$).mp.
- ((combine\$ or combining) adj5 (data or trial or trials or studies or study or result or results)).mp.
- 132. or/124-131
- 133, 123 and 132
- 134. 122 or 133
- 135. (hta\$ or health technology assessment\$ or biomedical technology assessment\$).mp.
- 136. technology assessment, biomedical/ or biomedical technology assessment/
- 137, 135 or 136
- 138. 134 or 137
- 139, 60 and 138
- 140. 114 or 139

## Table C6. CINAHL® (Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature)—Ovid Version

Years/issue searched: 1982 to September 2005, week 5

Search date: October 4, 2005

- exp "MEDITATION (IOWA NIC)"/ or exp MEDITATION/
- 2. yoga/ or mind body techniques/
- 3. exp Guided Imagery/
- 4. exp Prayer/
- 5. exp Tai Chi/
- 6. exp Relaxation Techniques/
- 7. exp "progressive muscle relaxation (iowa nic)"/
- 8. exp "AUTOGENIC TRAINING (IOWA NIC)"/
- 9. meditat\$.mp.
- 10. cogitat\$.ti,ab.
- 11. Pranayam\$.mp.
- 12. kapalabhati.ti,ab.
- 13. (yoga or yogic\$).mp.
- 14. mindful\$.mp.
- 15. zen.ti,ab,sh.
- 16. transcendental.ti,ab.
- 17. TM-Sidhi.mp.
- 18. mahayana.ti,ab.
- 19. hiniyana.ti,ab.
- 20. theravada\$.ti,ab.
- 21. vajrayana.ti,ab.
- 22. (vipissana or vipashyana).ti,ab.
- 23. (dhyana or dyana).ti,ab.
- 24. dharana.ti,ab.
- 25. zazen.ti,ab.
- 26. (kinemantra or KM).ti,ab.
- 27. (mantra or mantras).mp.
- 28. (samadhi or samatha).ti,ab.
- 29. pratyahara.ti,ab.
- 30. purusha.ti,ab.
- 31. prakruti.ti,ab.
- 32. ((Visual or guided) adj5 imagery).mp.
- 33. ((guided or creative or vivid) adj visualization).ti,ab.
- 34. pray\$.mp.
- 35. Hesychasm.ti,ab.
- 36. "lectio divina".ti,ab.
- 37. bonadona.ti,ab.
- 38. (qigong or qi gong).mp.
- 39. ch'i kung.ti,ab.
- 40. "Tae Eul Ju".ti,ab.
- 41. (tai chi or tai ji).mp.
- 42. Taijiquan.ti,ab.
- 43. "open awareness".mp.
- 44. "focused awareness".mp.
- 45. "relaxation response".mp.
- 46. "progressive muscle relaxation".ti,ab.
- 47. progressive relaxation.ti,ab.
- 48. "forced nostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 49. "Uninostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 50. "unilateral breathing".ti,ab.
- 51. (Khundalini or Kundalini).mp. [mp=title, subject heading word, abstract, instrumentation]
- 52. raja.ti,ab.
- 53. hatha.ti,ab.
- 54. "sudarshan kriya".ti,ab.
- 55. RRMM.ti,ab.
- 56. MBSR.ti,ab.

- 57. MBCT.ti,ab.
- 58. "Wide-angle lens attention".ti,ab.
- ("Anapana Sati" or anapanasati).mp. [mp=title, subject heading word, abstract, instrumentation]
- 60. or/1-59
- 61. random assignment/
- 62. exp random sample/
- 63. crossover design/
- 64. exp clinical trials/
- 65. exp comparative studies/
- 66. "control (research)".mp.
- 67. control group/
- 68. factorial design/
- 69. quasi-experimental studies/
- 70. nonrandomized trials/
- 71. placebos/
- 72. meta analysis/
- 73. clinical nursing research.mp. or clinical research/
- 74. community trials/ or experimental studies/ or oneshot case study/ or pretest-posttest design/ or solomon four-group design/ or static group comparison/ or study design/
- 75. (clinical trial or systematic review).pt.
- 76. random\$.mp.
- 77. ((singl\$ or doubl\$ or tripl\$ or trebl\$) adj25 (blind\$ or mask\$ or dummy)).mp.
- (cross?over or placebo\$ or control\$ or factorial or sham\$).mp.
- 79. ((clin\$ or intervention\$ or compar\$ or experiment\$ or preventive or therapeutic) adj10 trial\$).mp.
- 80. (meta?analy\$ or systematic review\$).mp.
- 81. convenience sample/ or sample size/
- 82. exp research, allied health/ or research, medical/ or research, nursing/
- 83. research question/
- 84. nursing practice, research-based/
- 85. exp research methodology/
- 86. exp evaluation research/
- 87. concurrent prospective studies/ or prospective studies/
- 88. (nursing interventions or research or review or proceedings or "tables/charts" or protocol).pt.
- 89. (Follow up adj5 (study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 90. exp COHORT STUDIES/
- 91. exp CROSS SECTIONAL STUDIES/
- 92. exp CASE CONTROL STUDIES/
- 93. Epidemiologic research/
- 94. Seroprevalence studies/
- 95. exp Causal Attribution/
- 96. Reproducibility of results/
- 97. Correlational Study/

## Table C6. CINAHL® (Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature)—Ovid version (continued)

- 98. Age factors/
- 99. Comorbidity/
- 100. Odds ratio/
- 101. Relative Risk/ or Risk Assessment/
- 102. Probability/
- 103. Patient Selection/
- 104. ((Allocat\$ or control\$ or assign\$ or treatment or compar\$ or interven\$ or experiment\$) and (group or groups)).mp. [mp=title, subject heading word, abstract, instrumentation]
- 105. (group or groups).ti,ab.
- 106. (control\$ or prospectiv\$ or retrospectiv\$ or volunteer\$ or participant\$ or compar\$).mp. and (trial\$ or study or studies or design).ti,ab,sh. [mp=title, subject heading word, abstract, instrumentation]
- 107. cohort\$.ti.ab.
- 108. case-control\$.ti.ab.
- 109. Cross sectional.ti,ab.
- 110. (observational adj5 (study or studies or design)).ti,ab.
- 111. Longitudinal.mp.
- 112. Retrospective.ti,ab.
- 113. Relative risk.ti,ab.
- 114. Odds ratio.ti,ab.
- 115. (case adj (comparison or referent)).ti,ab.
- 116. (Causation or causal\$).ti,ab.
- 117. (Analytic adj (study or studies)).ti,ab.
- 118. or/61-117
- 119.60 and 118
- 120. limit 119 to english
- 121. limit 120 to (adult <19 to 44 years> or middle age <45 to 64 years> or aged <65 to 79 years> or "aged <80 and over>")
- 122. 120 not 121
- 123. limit 122 to (fetus or newborn infant or infant <1 to 23 months> or preschool child <2 to 5 years> or child <6 to 12 years> or adolescence <13 to 18 years>)
- 124. 122 not 123
- 125. 121 or 124
- 126. meta-analysis.pt.
- 127. (meta-anal\$ or metaanal\$).mp.
- 128. (((quantitativ\$ adj3 review\$1) or quantitativ\$) adj3 overview\$).mp.
- 129. (((systematic adj3 review\$1) or systematic) adj3 overview\$1).mp.
- 130. (((methodologic adj3 review\$1) or methodologic) adj3 overview\$).mp.
- 131. (integrat\$ adj5 research).mp.
- 132. (quantitativ\$ adj3 synthes\$).mp.
- 133. or/126-132
- 134. review.pt. or (review\$ or overview\$).mp.
- 135. (medline or medlars or pubmed or index medicus or embase or cochrane).mp.
- 136. (scisearch or web of science or psycinfo or psychinfo or cinhal) mp.
- 137. (excerpta medica or psychlit or psyclit or current contents or science citation index or sciences citation index).mp.
- 138. (hand search\$ or manual search\$).mp.

- 139. ((((electronic adj3 database\$) or bibliographic) adj3 database\$) or periodical index\$).mp.
- 140. (pooling or pooled or mantel haenszel).mp.
- 141. (peto or der simonian or dersimonian or fixed effect\$).mp.
- 142. ((combine\$ or combining) adj5 (data or trial or trials or studies or study or result or results)).mp.
- 143. or/135-142
- 144. 134 and 143
- 145. 133 or 144
- 146. (hta\$ or health technology assessment\$ or biomedical technology assessment\$).mp.
- 147. technology assessment, biomedical/ or biomedical technology assessment/
- 148. 146 or 147
- 149. 145 or 148
- 150. 60 and 149
- 151. limit 150 to english
- 152. limit 151 to (adult <19 to 44 years> or middle age <45 to 64 years> or aged <65 to 79 years> or "aged <80 and over>")
- 153, 151 not 152
- 154. limit 153 to (fetus or newborn infant or infant <1 to 23 months> or preschool child <2 to 5 years> or child <6 to 12 years> or adolescence <13 to 18 years>)
- 155. 153 not 154
- 156. 152 or 155
- 157. 125 or 156

### Table C7. Web of Science®-Institute for Scientific Information—The Thomson Corporation

Years/issue searched: 1900 to 2005 Search date: September 21, 2005

#1 TS=meditat\* OR TS=yoga OR TS=yogic OR TS=(tai chi) OR TS=(tai ji) OR TS=(qi gong) OR TS=qigong OR TS=pray\* OR TS=mantra\* OR TS=(progressive muscle relaxation) OR TS=(relaxation response) OR TS=unilateral W/1 breath\* OR TS=(guided imagery) OR TS=transcendental OR TS=zen OR TS=rrmm OR TS=mbsr OR TS=mbsr OR TS=(unilateral forced) OR TS=(forced nostril) OR TS=(progressive relaxation) OR TS=mindful\*

#2 TS=psychotherap\* OR TS=sympt\* OR TS=clinic\* OR TS=illness\* OR TS=rehab\* OR TS=heal OR TS=healing OR TS=health OR TS=medicin\* OR TS=medical\* OR TS=therap\* OR TS=counsel\* OR TS=interven\* OR TS=physiol\* OR TS=heart\* OR TS=cardiac OR TS=stress\* OR TS=analges\* OR TS=anxiety OR TS=stress\* OR TS=cancer\* OR TS=psychol\* OR TS=metabol\* OR TS=respirat\* OR TS=neuro\* OR TS=participants OR TS=patients OR TS=(control group\*)

#3 SO=psychotherap\* OR SO=sympt\* OR SO=clinic\* OR SO=illness\* OR SO=rehab\* OR SO=heal OR SO=healing OR SO=health OR SO=medicin\* OR SO=medical\* OR SO=therap\* OR SO=counsel\* OR SO=interven\* OR SO=physiol\* OR SO=heart\* OR SO=cardiac OR SO=stress\* OR SO=analges\* OR SO=anxiety OR SO=stress\* OR SO=cancer\* OR SO=psychol\* OR SO=metabol\* OR SO=respirat\* OR SO=neuro\*

#4 #2 OR #3

#5 #1 AND #4

#6 #5

DocType=All document types; Language=English; Databases=SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI; Timespan=1900-2005

#7 #5

DocType=Art Exhibit Review OR Biographical-Item OR Book Review OR Dance Performance Review OR Database Review OR Fiction, Creative Prose OR Film Review OR Hardware Review OR Music Performance Review OR Music Score OR Music Score Review OR News Item OR Poetry OR Script OR Software Review OR TV Review, Radio Review OR Theater Review; Language=All languages; Databases=SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI; Timespan=1900-2005

#8 #6 NOT #7

#### Table C8. CSA Neurosciences Abstracts—CSA Illumina

Years/issue searched: 1982 to 2005

Search date: August 4, 2005

(((meditat\* or yoga or yogic) or ((tai chi) or (tai ji) or (qi gong)) or (qigong or pray\* or mantra\*) or ((progressive muscle relaxation) or (relaxation response) or (unilateral breath\*)) or ((guided imagery) or transcendental or zen) or AB=(rrmm or mbsr or mbct) or ((forced nostril breath\*) or (progressive relaxation) or mindful\*) or AB=(pmr or cogitat\*)) and (PT=bibliography or PT=(book monograph) or PT=conference or PT=dissertation or PT=(journal article) or PT=report or PT=review or PT=(training manual))) not ((rat or rats or mantis\* or pigeon\*) or ((mice or mouse) or sheep or pig or pigs))

# Table C9. Cochrane Complementary Medicine Trials Register and CAMPAIN (Complementary and Alternative Medicine and Pain Database)

Years/issue searched: 1983 to 2003 Search date: October 25, 2005

Meditation or meditate or meditating or mindful or mindfulness or qigong or qi gong or tai chi or taiji or yoga or yogic or relaxation response or autogenic or kundalini or pranayama or pranayam or samahdi or imagery or visualization or mantra or cogitation or mbsr or kinemantra or dyana or dhyana or naam or anapanasati or mbct or hatha or raja or vipashyana or vipassana

#### Table C10. CDSR- (EBM Reviews-Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews)—Ovid version

58. or/1-57

Years/issue searched: 3rd Quarter 2005

Search date: September 9, 2005

- 1. exp meditation/
- 2. exp yoga/
- 3. meditat\$.mp.
- 4. cogitat\$.ti,ab.
- 5. Pranayam\$.mp.
- 6. kapalabhati.ti,ab.
- 7. (yoga or yogic\$).mp.
- 8. mindful\$.mp.
- 9. zen.ti,ab,sh.
- 10. transcendental.ti,ab.
- 11. TM-Sidhi.mp.
- 12. mahayana.ti,ab.
- 13. hiniyana.ti,ab.
- 14. theravada\$.ti,ab.
- 15. vajrayana.ti,ab.
- 16. (vipissana or vipashyana).ti,ab.
- 17. (dhyana or dyana).ti,ab.
- 18. dharana.ti,ab.
- 19. zazen.ti.ab.
- 20. (kinemantra or KM).ti,ab.
- 21. (mantra or mantras).mp.
- 22. (samadhi or samatha).ti,ab.
- 23. pratyahara.ti,ab.
- 24. purusha.ti,ab.
- 25. prakruti.ti,ab.
- 26. ((Visual or guided) adj5 imagery).mp.
- 27. ((guided or creative or vivid) adj visualization).ti,ab.
- 28. pray\$.mp.
- 29. Hesychasm.ti,ab.
- 30. "lectio divina".ti,ab.
- 31. bonadona.ti,ab.
- 32. (qigong or qi gong).mp.
- 33. ch'i kung.ti,ab.
- 34. "Tae Eul Ju".ti,ab.
- 35. "mind-body and relaxation techniques"/ or "mind-body relations (metaphysics)"/
- 36. tai ji/
- 37. (tai chi or tai ji).mp.
- 38. Taijiquan.ti,ab.
- 39. "open awareness".mp.
- 40. "focused awareness".mp.
- 41. "relaxation response".mp.
- 42. "progressive muscle relaxation".ti,ab.
- 43. progressive relaxation.ti,ab.
- 44. "forced nostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 45. "Uninostril breathing".ti,ab.
- 46. "unilateral breathing".ti,ab.
- 47. (Khundalini or Kundalini).mp.
- 48. raja.ti,ab.
- 49. hatha.ti,ab.
- 50. "sudarshan kriya".ti,ab.
- 51. RRMM.ti,ab.
- 52. MBSR.ti,ab.
- 53. MBCT.ti,ab.
- 54. "zoom lens attention".ti,ab.
- 55. "Wide-angle lens attention".ti,ab.
- 56. ("Anapana Sati" or anapanasati).mp.
- 57. kabat-zinn.ab.

#### Table C11. OCLC Article First and OCLC Proceedings First—OCLC First Search

Years/issue searched: 1993 to 2005 Search date: September 22, 2005

(kw: meditat\* OR kw: yoga OR kw: yogic OR (kw: tai and kw: chi) OR (kw: tai and kw: ji) OR (kw: qi and kw: gong) OR kw: qigong OR kw: pray\* OR kw: mantra\* OR (kw: progressive and kw: muscle and kw: relaxation) OR (kw: relaxation and kw: response) OR ((kw: unilateral and kw: W/1 and kw: breath\*) OR (kw: guided and kw: imagery)) OR kw: transcendental OR kw: zen OR kw: rrmm OR kw: mbsr OR kw: mbct OR (kw: unilateral and kw: forced) OR (kw: forced and kw: nostril) OR (kw: progressive and kw: relaxation) OR kw: mindful\*) and ((kw: psychotherap\* OR kw: sympt\* OR kw: clinic\* OR kw: illness\* OR kw: rehab\* OR kw: heal OR kw: healing) or (kw: health OR kw: medicin\* OR kw: medical\* OR kw: therap\* OR kw: counsel\* OR kw: interven\* OR kw: physiol\*) or (kw: heart\* OR kw: cardiac OR kw: stress\* OR kw: analges\* OR kw: anxiety OR kw: stress\* OR kw: cancer\* OR kw: psychol\*) or (kw: metabol\* OR kw: respirat\*) or (kw: neurosci\* OR kw: neurol\* OR kw: neuron+) or (kw: participant+ OR kw: patient+ OR kw: control w group\*)).

#### Table C12. NLM Gateway-National Library of Medicine

Years/issue searched: 1950 to 2005 Search date: October 25, 2005

meditation or yoga or tai chi or qigong

## Table C13. Current Clinical Trials—Biomed Central

Years/issue searched: 1998 to 2005 Search date: October 24, 2005

imagery OR mindful\* OR "tai chi" OR qigong OR yoga OR 'qi gong' OR meditation

#### Table C14. National Research Register

Years/issue searched: 2000 to 2005 Search date: October 24, 2005

imagery OR mindful\* OR "tai chi" OR qigong OR yoga OR 'qi gong' OR meditation

#### Table C15. CRISP (Computer Retrieval of Information on Scientific Projects)

Years/issue searched: 2005 to 2006 Search date: February 21, 2006

\$(meditate | meditation | meditating | mindful | mindfulness | yoga | qigong

## Appendix D. Review Forms

## D1. Title and abstract screening form

For screening, the criteria will be suitably broad to exclude only those articles that are obviously irrelevant to the descriptive overview (topic I); the review of evidence on the state of the research literature (topic II); and the effects, efficacy and effectiveness of meditation (topics III to V).

For each title/abstract, go through the five rejection criteria R1 to R5, in any order. Any article must clearly satisfy one of the criteria below in order to be considered clearly irrelevant. Stop at the first "Yes" and classify the study as "Do not retrieve article". Otherwise, classify it as "Retrieve article". If it is unclear whether an article meets any of the criteria below, the article will be considered eligible for retrieval and further review.

Reference ID #:	Reviewer ID #:			
Author(s):	Year of Publication:			
Criteria of Irrelevance:				
		Yes	No	Unsure
R1: Non-English study				
R2: Study participants clearly < 18 years old				
R3: Clearly not on meditation				
R4: Case report/case series/editorial/letter/lay press				
R5: Total study population clearly < 10				
Decisions:  Retrieve article  Do not retrieve article				

Specific instructions:

R2: Primary studies that clearly indicate that only pediatric populations (< 18 years) were studied will be considered irrelevant.

R3: An article will be considered irrelevant if: 1) the main topic of the article does not include the word meditation or a synonym, 2) the article does not include any of the specific terms listed in the list of potentially relevant techniques, or 3) it is clear that the topic is not related to meditation or any of the meditation practices.

## D2. Inclusion and exclusion form

Reference ID #:	Re	viewer ID #:				
Author(s):	hor(s): Year of Publicat					
1. TOPIC/INTERVENTION						
a. Primary research evaluating the effects of medita	ation		Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
b. Secondary research on practice of meditation			Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
c. Do the authors of the study explicitly describe the meditation or as involving a meditative component?		ention as	Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
d. Does the TEP consider the intervention as a med involving a meditative component?	ditation <sub>l</sub>	practice or	Yes 🗌	No 🗆	Unsure 🗌	
e. Does the intervention satisfy the operational crite consensus?	ria deve	eloped by	Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
2. DESIGN						
Does the study satisfy any of the following designs?	?		Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
a. Narrative/systematic review			Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
b. RCT/NRCT			Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure	
c. Prospective cohort study with concurrent control	group		Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
d. Prospective cohort study with historical control gr	roup		Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
e. Retrospective cohort study with control group (ar	ny type)		Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
f. Case-control study		Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌		
g. Cross-sectional study with controls	Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌			
h. Before-and-after study	Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌			
3. CONTROLS						
a. Does the study provide a comparison or control of which to compare the intervention group?	condition	n population with	Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
4. PARTICIPANTS						
<ul> <li>a. Does the study population consist of adults (i.e, 18 years of age), or</li> <li>Does the study population include a subgroup of acdata can be analyzed?</li> </ul>		Yes 🗌	No 🗆	Unsure 🗌		
b. Study population is ≥10?			Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure 🗌	
5. OUTCOMES						
a. Study reports numeric data on at least one health	n-related	d outcome?	Yes 🗌	No 🗌	Unsure	
REVIEWER'S DECISION:						
TO INCLUDE IN Q1	Q2					
Meets 1b	ts 1a					
Meets at least two of 1c, 1d, or 1e			1c, 1d, or 1e			
Meets 2a      Meets any     Meets all 1						
INCLUDE Q1 Yes No Unsu	INCLUDE Q2 Yes No Unsure					
TEP TO VERIFY INTERVENTION [	Useful background information (TO FLAG):					

## **Intervention Studies**

## Jadad scale—RCTs

ITEMS	YES	NO
1. Was the study described as randomized (this includes the use of words such as randomly, random and randomization)?	1	0
2. Was the study described as double-blind?	1	0
3. Was there a description of withdrawals and drop-outs?	1	0
4. Method to generate the sequence of randomization was described and was appropriate (e.g. table of random numbers, computer generated, coin tossing, etc.)	1	0
5. Method of double-blinding described and appropriate (identical placebo, active placebo, or dummy)?	1	0
6. Method of randomization described and it was inappropriate (allocated alternately, according to date of birth, hospital number, etc.)?	-1	0
7. Method of double-blinding described but it was inappropriate (comparison of tablet vs. injection with no double dummy)?	-1	0
injection with no double duminy:		

## OVERALL SCORE (Maximum 5)

## Schultz concealment of treatment allocation—RCTs

Concealment of treatment allocation		Adequate Inadequate Unclear			
Adequate:	Central randomization; numbered/coded containers; drugs prepared by pharmacy; serially numbered, opaque, sealed envelopes				
Inadequate:	uate: Alternation, use of case record numbers, dates of birth or day of week; open lists				
Unclear:	Allocation concealment approach not reported or fits neither above category				

## Jadad Scale (modified)—NRCTs

ITEMS	YES	NO
2. Was the study described as double-blind?	1	0
3. Was there a description of withdrawals and drop-outs?	1	0
5. Method of double-blinding described and appropriate (identical placebo, active placebo, dummy)?	1	0
6. Method of randomization described and it was <b>in</b> appropriate (allocated alternately, according to date of birth, hospital number, etc.)?	-1	0
7. Method of double-blinding described but it was <b>in</b> appropriate (comparison of tablet vs. injection with no double dummy)?	-1	0
OVERALL SCORE (Maximum 3)		

## Questions for quality assessment for before-and-after studies

Was the study population representative of the target population?	YES	NO
2. Was the method of outcome assessment the same for the pre- and post- intervention periods for all participants?	YES	NO
3. Were outcome assessors blind to intervention and assessment period?	YES	NO
4. Did the study report the number of and reasons for study withdrawals?	YES	NO

## **Observational Analytical Studies**

#### Newcastle-Ottawa Scale for case-control studies

Note: A study can be awarded a maximum of one star for each numbered item within the Selection and Exposure categories. A maximum of two stars can be given for Comparability.

### Selection 1) Is the case definition adequate? a) Yes, with independent validation \* (1) b) Yes, e.g. record linkage or based on self reports (0) c) No description (0) 2) Representativeness of the cases a) Consecutive or obviously representative series of cases \* (1) b) Potential for selection biases or not stated (0) 3) Selection of Controls a) Community controls \* (1) b) Hospital controls (0) c) No description (0) 4) Definition of Controls a) No history of disease (endpoint) \* (1) b) No description of source (0) Comparability 1) Comparability of cases and controls on the basis of the design or analysis Study controls for (select the most important factor.) \* (1) Study controls for any additional factor \* (this criteria could be modified to indicate specific control for a second important factor.) (1) **Exposure** 1) Ascertainment of exposure a) Secure record (e.g. surgical records) \* (1) b) Structured interview where blind to case/control status \* (1) c) Interview not blinded to case/control status (0) d) Written self report or medical record only (0) e) No description (0) 2) Same method of ascertainment for cases and controls a) Yes \* (1) b) No (0) 3) Nonresponse rate a) Same rate for both groups \* (1) b) Non respondents described (0) c) Rate different and no designation (0)

## **Newcastle-Ottawa Scale for cohort studies**

Note: A study can be awarded a maximum of one star for each numbered item within the Selection and Outcome categories. A maximum of two stars can be given for Comparability

Selection  1) Representativeness of the exposed cohort  a) Truly representative of the average
Comparability  5) Comparability of cohorts on the basis of the design or analysis  a) Study controls for (select the most important factor) * (1)  b) Study controls for any additional factor * (this criteria could be modified to indicate specific control for a second important factor) (1)
Outcome  6) Assessment of outcome  a) Independent blind assessment * (1)  b) Record linkage * (1)  c) Self report  d) No description  7) Was follow-up long enough for outcomes to occur  a) Yes (select an adequate follow up period for outcome of interest) * (1)  b) No  8) Adequacy of followup of cohorts  a) Complete follow up - all subjects accounted for * (1)  b) Subjects lost to follow up unlikely to introduce bias - small number lost - > % (select an adequate %) follow up, or description provided of those lost) * (1)  c) Follow up rate < % (select an adequate %) and no description of those lost  d) No statement

## Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (modified) for cross-sectional studies

Note: A study can be awarded a maximum of one star for each numbered item within the Selection and Outcome categories. A maximum of two stars can be given for Comparability

Selection  1) Representativeness of the study group  a) Truly representative of the average
Comparability  5) Comparability of cohorts on the basis of the design or analysis  a) Study controls for (select the most important factor) * (1)  b) Study controls for any additional factor * (this criteria could be modified to indicate specific control for a second important factor) (1)
Outcome 6) Assessment of outcome a) Independent blind assessment * (1) b) Record linkage * (1) c) Self report d) No description

## 1. GENERAL INFORMATION

Reference ID:			Reviewer ID				Verifier ID	
First author				Year				
Country			Publication type					
Specify source of funding: (Check all that apply)								
Pharmaceutical industry		Industry, other than pharmaceutical		Govern agency			Foundation/charity	
Internal funds		Professional organizations		Other		Specify:		

## 2. SPECIFIC INFORMATION

## Study characteristics

Study Setting					
Acute care hospital	Community		Compleme	ntary Medicine practice	
University	Primary care/outpa	Primary care/outpatient service   Extended care facility			
Other	Specify:				
		Study design	1		
RCT NRCT	Cross-sectional	Cohort	Case-control	Before-and-after	
Aim(s) of the study:					

## Population characteristics:

Target population					Type of prin problem/condit (desc	ion/population
Clinical population only \( \square\)	Normals	s only 🔲	Both normal and clinic	al 🗌		
If health problem, specify body	system	/problem invo	olved (Check all that app	ly)	Selection criteria for	or participation in
					<u>stu</u>	<u>dy</u>
Circulatory/Cardio-vascular		Musculos	skeletal		<u>Inclusion</u>	<u>Exclusion</u>
Dermatological		Neuropsychiatric (addictions,				
		stress, depression, etc)				
Endocrine		Oncology	1			
Gastrointestinal		Respiratory/Pulmonary				
Genitourinary		Rheumatologic				
Gynecological		Other				
Head/eyes/ears/nose/throat		Specify:				
Hematological						

## D4. Data extraction form (continued)

Note: Add as many columns as study groups

Total enrolled (or randomized, if applicable):	Group 1:		
Total efficied (of fandomized, if applicable).	Group 2:		
Total analyzed:	Group 1		
Total allalyzeu.	Group 2		
Losses to follow up:	Group 1		
	Group 2		

## <u>Characteristics of participants:</u> Note: Add as many columns as study groups

	GROUP 1 (n = )		GROUP 2 (n = )		TOTAL (N = )	
Gender	Female n =	Male n =	Female n =	Male n =	Female n =	Male n =
Age	Mean =	SD =	Mean =	SD =	Mean =	SD =
Ethnicity (n)						
Education (n)						
Principal health problem, condition or diagnosis (n)						
Stage/severity of problem/illness (n)						
Duration of disease described (time)						
Comorbidities/other health problem/s (if relevant) (specify) (n)						
Other relevant social/demographic info						
Cointerventions						

## Intervention characteristics: Note: Add as many columns as study groups

	Intervention (Group 1)	Control (Group 2)
Name		
Description of intervention		
Frequency (how many times per week/day?)		
Duration (total time = # sessions x length of time in min)		
Intensity (time per session)		
Details of the trainers (a) Who delivered the intervention?; b) number of providers; c) training of providers		
Details of the trainees		
Co-interventions (list)		

## D4. Data extraction form (continued)

Outcomes Outcome characteristics

Outcome	Instrument/units	Timing of outcome assessment					
	mstrumentrumts	< 3 months	3 to 6 months	> 6 months			
1.							
2.							
3.							
4.							
5.							
6.							
7.							
8.							
9.							
10.							

## **Results**

## For continuous outcomes

Note: Add as many columns as study groups

Outcome	Ir	Intervention (Group 1)			Control (Group 2)				
	Base	Baseline		Final		Baseline		Final	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1.									
2.									
3.									
4.									
5.									
6.									
7.									
8.									
9.									
10.									

## D4. Data extraction form (continued)

For categorical outcomes Note: Add as many columns as study groups

	Interventio	n (Group 1)	Control (Group 2) Final		
Outcome	Fir	nal			
	n	N	n	N	
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					
9.					
10.					

n = # events; N = total # subjects per group

#### **GENERAL GUIDELINES:**

- Please, do not leave empty spaces. Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.
- Double check with a senior member of the research team if you have <u>any doubts</u> about the correct data that should be extracted.

#### **1. GENERAL INFORMATION**

#### # 1. Data extracted by:

Choose your name from the available list.

#### # 2. Data verified by:

- Complete this field ONLY if you are doing data verification. You do not have to answer this question if you
  are doing data extraction.
- · Choose your name from the available list.

#### #3. Country:

- Enter country where the study took place.
- If not reported, enter NR (not reported).

Note: If the article does not specify in the background/method sections where the study took place, enter the corresponding author's country (and specify this in brackets: "CAC").

#### #4. Study source:

- Abstract: The study is reported only in abstract form.
- **Journal article:** The study is published as full text in a journal.
- Conference proceeding: The study comes from a conference book.
- Other, specify: Click here if the study is reported in any other form. Describe the source (book chapter, web-info).

#### # 5. Source of funding:

- Check all that apply if more than one option is applicable. Check "None reported" if no source of funding is reported.
- If the source of funding is "academic/from university", report it under "Other" and specify as "Academic".

#### 2. SPECIFIC INFORMATION

#### **Study characteristics**

## # 6. Population source:

- It refers to where the study population comes from.
- Check all that applies if more than one population source is cited in the study (i.e. cases from hospitals, controls from community).

#### #7. Number of centres:

- Single centre: If study was conducted in ONE centre.
- Multicentre: If the study was conducted in MORE THAN ONE centre.
- Unclear/not reported: If no information is provided regarding the number of centres, or if it is hard to identify how many centres participated in the study.
- For studies other than RCTs and NRCTs, a multicenter study is a study where more than one source of
  population is used: For example: cases come from more than one facility/hospital, and controls come from
  more than one community. Therefore, a single center study collects cases from ONE hospital/facility, and
  controls from ONE community.

#### #8. Study design:

- RCT: A planned experiment or research study in which subjects are allocated to intervention or control
  groups using a random method, and between-group comparisons are made for the outcomes of interest.
- NRCT: Subjects are allocated to intervention or control groups using a quasi-random or nonrandom method and the outcomes are compared.
- Prospective cohort study with concurrent control group: A type of analytical observational study where a group of subjects with a specific characteristic or exposure (e.g., being meditators) are followed over a period of time to assess outcomes. Comparisons are made with a concurrent control group. No interventions are normally applied to the participants. It is important to note that: 1) They are longitudinal and go forward over time, 2) Compare exposed vs. nonexposed persons, 3) Start with a defined group of people (defined by exposure). 4) Participants are followed through time for occurrence of disease/outcome of interest.
- Prospective cohort study with historical control group: A type of analytical observational study where a group of subjects with a specific characteristic or exposure (e.g., being meditators) are followed over a period of time to assess outcomes. Comparisons are made with a historical control group (e.g. nonmeditators). Retrospective cohort study with control group (any type): A type of observational investigation in which medical/other records of groups of individuals who are alike in many ways but differ by a certain characteristic (for example, exposure status to meditation) are compared for a particular outcome. Also called a historic cohort study.
- Case-control study: A case-control study is an observational investigation in which people with a condition ("cases") are identified, suitable comparison subjects ("controls") are identified, and the two groups are compared with respect to prior exposure to certain factors (e.g. meditation). Thus, subjects are sampled by disease status. It is important to note that: 1) They are generally retrospective. 2) Start with disease of interest (cases), 3) Compare people with a condition to people without the the condition, 4) Compare frequency of the exposure of interest between cases and controls.
- Cross-sectional study with controls: A study where a group of individuals defined by a certain characteristic of interest (e.g. being meditators) are compared at a single point in time cross-sectionally with a control group without that characteristic (nonmeditators) on certain characteristics/outcomes of interest.
- **Before-and-after study:** A nonexperimental study design where data are collected before and after the intervention is implemented. Participants act as their own controls based on previous baseline data.

#### #9. Design source:

- Reported by authors: The authors clearly report the type of study design (and the designation is correct).
   Use this category when you agree with what the author's report.
- Classified by reviewer: The reviewer used the criteria in #8 to classify the study design. Use this category
  when you disagree with the author's design classification, or when the authors failed to provide a clear
  statement regarding the study design.
- Unclear: It is hard to identify the study design.

#### # 10. Aims of study:

- Enter as reported in the study.
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### **Population characteristics**

- # 11. <u>Target population:</u> Clinical population only: The study population consists ENTIRELY of participants with a clinical condition/disorder.
  - Normal population only: The study population consists ENTIRELY of "healthy"/normal participants (e.g. students, community members, and/or people without clinical conditions/disorders).
  - Both normal and clinical population: The study combines both participants with a clinical condition/disorder and "healthy"/normal participants.
  - Not reported: The study does not provide a description of the participants in terms of the type of population.

#### # 12. Type of primary health problem/condition/population:

- Enter the type of health problem/condition/population as reported in the study.
- If the study participants are **normals**, enter the specific type of population, if available (e.g., university students, workers, etc).
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), if required.

#### D5. Guidelines for data extraction (continued)

#### # 13. If health problem, specify body system involved:

- Choose the corresponding category of response according to the health problems of the study population.
- Check all that apply if more than one health problem/condition/population is relevant.
- If health problem is "None" (e.g. normals), enter this information in the OTHER category and specify "None".

#### # 14. Are the inclusion/exclusion criteria for participation in the study specified?

- Yes: The study provides data on the set of inclusion and/or exclusion criteria.
- No: The study does not FORMALLY provide data on the set of inclusion and/or exclusion criteria.
- Don't make assumptions regarding I/E based on the description of characteristics of participants. The study authors <u>must</u> provide a description of the inclusion/exclusion criteria.

#### # 15. Specify INCLUSION criteria and

### # 16. Specify **EXCLUSION** criteria:

- Enter as reported in the study.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), if required.

#### Characteristics of participants

<u>General remarks:</u> This section should be adapted according to the design of the study (e.g. cohort, case-control, cross sectional).

- If it is an RCT/NRCT, Group 1 refers to the group receiving the active intervention of interest in the study. Group 2 and the others, refer to the comparators. If it is not clearly stated what intervention is the main intervention of interest in the study, it does not matter what you choose to be Group 1 or Group 2, but it is important to be consistent with reporting throughout the form.
- For all other designs, the groups with the exposure of interest (e.g., being meditators) are Group 1, and the comparators are Group 2, 3 etc.

#### Specify 'N' values for each group

- Complete for all comparison/intervention groups.
- Ideally, the population characteristics refer to those participants who entered the study (not only completers). Otherwise, enter as reported in the study.
- If it is a before-and-after study (within-subject design), enter data only for Group 1.
- For RCTs/NRCTs: The INTERVENTION group (Group 1) comprises individuals receiving the treatment that the study is aimed to evaluate.

#### # 17. Total N:

- Enter the total number of study participants in each group (raw numbers).
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### # 18. Female N:

- Enter the number of females in each group (raw numbers).
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### # 19. Male N:

- Enter the number of males in each group (raw numbers).
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### Specify age variables

• If reported by gender, enter: M = xxxx; F = xxxxx; T = xxxxx

#### # 20. Age range:

- Enter the age range of study participants in years (per group and total), when reported. Ex: 18 65 years.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### # 21. Mean age:

- Enter the mean age of study participants in years (per group and total), when reported. Ex: 26.3 years.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### D5. Guidelines for data extraction (continued)

#### # 22. Median age:

- Enter the median age of study participants in years (per group and total), when reported. Ex: 26.3 years.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### # 23. Standard deviation:

- Enter the standard deviation of mean age of study participants (per group and total), when reported. Ex: SD = 3
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### # 24. Standard error of the mean:

- Enter the standard error of the mean age of study participants (per group and total), when reported. Ex:
   SFM = 3.
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### # 25. Age groups (%) as reported:

- If the ages of study participants are reported according to age groups, describe the distribution of percentages across these age groups (n and % per group and total). Ex: 18 35 years: 20% (20/100); 36 50: 25% (25/100), and so on.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### Other Characteristics of Participants:

- When reported, enter the distribution of study participants (n and % per group and total) according to other characteristics as described below:
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### # 26. Ethnicity:

- Enter the distribution of study participants (n and % per group and total) according to ethnicity, if reported.
- Ex: White: 20% (20/100); Black: 25% (25/100), etc.
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### #27. Education:

- Enter as reported in the study
- Enter the distribution of study participants (n and % per group and total) according to education level, if reported.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### # 28. Principal health problem, condition or diagnosis:

- Enter as reported in the study.
- Enter the distribution of study participants (n and % per group and total) according to the principal health problem, condition or diagnosis (if more than one).
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### # 29. Stage/severity of problem/illness:

- Enter as reported in the study
- Enter the distribution of study participants (n and % per group and total) according to stage/severity of the problem. if reported.
- The stage/severity of problem can be also reported as a mean score on a certain scale. In that case, specify measure used to grade the level of severity, if available.
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### #30. Duration of disease:

- Enter as reported in the study (in years or months)
- Enter the distribution of study participants (n and % per group and total) according to duration of the problem, if reported.
- The duration of the problem/disease can be also reported as a mean value (years or months).
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### D5. Guidelines for data extraction (continued)

#### # 31. Comorbidities/other health problems

- Enter as reported in the study.
- Enter the distribution of study participants (n and % per group and total) according to the presence of any co-morbidities or health problems other than the main condition of interest.
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### # 32. Other social/demographic details (eg. literacy or reading level, income, employment status, marital status):

- Enter as reported in the study.
- Specify the social/demographic variable. Enter the distribution of study participants (n and % per group and total) according to this variable.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### Intervention characteristics:

#### # 33. Specify the type of intervention:

- Single intervention: When meditation comprises a single set of techniques.
- Composite intervention: When a meditation practice is combined with other techniques (they can be other meditation techniques or other interventions).

#### # 34. Is meditation used as a control group for a nonmeditation intervention under study?

- This mainly applies when meditation is not the main focus of the study.
- YES: Meditation is used only as a control group for other "active" intervention (other than meditation), or intervention of interest under study.
- If the study compares two different meditation techniques, enter NO.

#### #35. Sample size:

- Enter the number of participants (per group and total) that were enrolled in the study, and that completed the study.
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

### # 36. Name of the intervention(s)/control:

- Enter the name of the intervention(s)/control as reported in the study.
- If the study is other than RCT/NRCT, describe the intervention that was used to classify participants into Group 1.

#### # 37. Description of interventions/control:

- Enter as described in the study protocol/description of procedures.
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### # 38. Frequency:

- Enter how many times per week/day the intervention was practiced.
- Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

#### #39. Duration:

- Enter the total time = #sessions x length of time in minutes
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### # 40. Intensity (Time per session):

- Enter the duration of each session in minutes, if available.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

# # 41. <u>Trainer details (who delivered intervention; number of providers; training of providers for delivery of intervention):</u>

- Enter as reported in the study.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### D5. Guidelines for data extraction (continued)

#### # 42. Trainee details:

- Enter as reported in the study.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### # 43. Cointerventions:

- List any intervention that was co-administered for any of the groups.
- Enter "None" if no interventions were co-administered.
- Enter either NA (not applicable) or NR (not reported), as required.

#### Outcome characteristics (#44 and others)

The following information should be completed for each reported outcome. Enter either **NA** (not applicable) or **NR** (not reported), as required.

- NAME: Name of the outcome, as reported in the study.
- CATEGORY OF OUTCOME: Classify according to:
  - 1 = Physiological markers (e.g., cardiovascular, respiratory, brain, immune, etc).
  - **2** = Disease/functional outcomes (any outcome reporting either the incidence of discrete events or scores on questionnaires/ tests other than physiological).
  - **3** = Health care utilization (e.g., frequency and type of healthcare visits, use of medication, cost-effectiveness data).
  - **4** = Other outcomes (e.g., outcomes difficult to classify in any of the categories above).
- MEASUREMENT TOOL/UNITS:

Enter the name of the assessment tool (if scales or questionnaires) that was used to evaluate the outcome. Report the measure units, if applicable.

- METHODS OF ASSESSING OUTCOME MEASURES: Enter
  - **P** = Patient (if the measure is self-rated),
  - A = assessor (if the measure is assessed by a second person: clinician, family),
  - L = laboratory rated (if the measure is assessed using instruments/lab equipment),
  - **NR** = Not reported.
- VALIDITY and/or RELIABILITY: (Applicable for scales and questionnaires)
  - Yes: Validity and/or reliability of measurement tool known or described.
  - **No**: Validity and/or reliability of measurement tool unknown.
  - **NA** = Not applicable.
  - **NR** = Not reported.

**Note:** The important issue here is whether the scale properties have been published, not the quality of reporting of these characteristics. If the study reports that a "checklist" was developed for the study purposes, it is likely that the instrument has not been validated. In that case, enter "**No**". On the other hand, if the study uses for example, a scale that it is likely to have reliability and/or validity data available from other sources (e.g. Beck questionnaire for depression), but the study does not mention this, enter "**NR**". What is important is to know whether the scale properties have been published, or are known, not the reporting of specific details on validity and reliability.

- TIMING OF OUTCOME ASSESSMENT/FOLLOWUP MEASURES: Enter
  - 1 = Short term: outcome is assessed in the period less or equal to 3 months.
  - 2 = Medium term: outcome is assessed in the period greater than three but equal to 6 months.
  - **3** = Long-term: outcome is assessed for more than 6 months.
  - **4** = If timing of outcome assessment is not reported.

**Note:** Baseline measures are not included for timing of outcome assessment.

Thank you for agreeing to review the draft of this evidence-based report. We are relying on your expertise to address the questions below and provide insight that will assist us in improving the content and format of the report. This is still in the draft stages and a thorough copy edit will take place before the publication of the final report. Please remember that the information in this manuscript is confidential.

When assessing the report, please consider the following points:

#### **Problem Formulation**

Are the review questions well formulated with specified key components?

#### **Study Identification**

- Is there a comprehensive search for relevant data using appropriate resources?
- Are there unbiased explicit searching strategies that are appropriately matched to the research question?

#### **Study Selection**

- Are appropriate inclusion and exclusion criteria used to select articles?
- Are selection criteria applied in a manner that limits bias?
- Are efforts made to identify unpublished data, if this is appropriate?
- Are major changes in selection criteria avoided during the review process?
- Are reasons for excluding studies from the report stated?

#### **Appraisal of Studies**

- Is the validity of individual studies addressed in a reliable manner?
- Are important parameters (e.g., setting, study population, study design) that could affect study results systematically addressed?

#### **Data Collection**

- Is there a minimal amount of missing information regarding outcomes and other variables considered key to interpretation of results?
- Are efforts made to reduce bias in the data collection process?

#### **Data Synthesis**

- Are important parameters, such as study designs, considered in the synthesis?
- Are reasonable decisions made concerning whether and how to combine the data?
- Are results sensitive to changes in the way the analysis was done?
- Is precision of results reported?

#### **Discussion**

- Are the discussion and conclusions well balanced and adequately supported by the data?
- Are limitations and inconsistencies of studies stated?
- Are limitations of the review process stated?
- Are review finding integrated within the context of relevant indirect evidence?
- · Are implications for research discussed
- Are implications for practice discussed?

#### **Conclusions**

- Are conclusions supported by the data reviewed?
- Are plausible competing explanations of observed effects addressed?
- Is evidence appropriately interpreted as inconclusive (no evidence of effect) or as showing a particular strategy did not work (evidence of no effect)?

- Are important considerations for decision makers identified, including values and contextual factors that might influence decisions?
- Is a summary of pertinent findings provided?
- Is the writing acceptable?

Please make your review as constructive and detailed as possible in your comments so that we have the opportunity to overcome any serious deficiencies that you find and please also divide your comments into the following categories:

**Discretionary Revisions.** Recommendations for improvement but which the author can choose to ignore.

**Minor Essential Revisions.** E.g., missing labels on figures, or the wrong use of a term, which the author can be trusted to correct.

**Major Compulsory Revisions.** Revisions that the author must respond to before a decision on publication can be reached.

# **Appendix E. Excluded Studies and Nonobtained Studies**

For the questions on the state of research on the therapeutic use of meditation in healthcare (topic II), 1,374 studies were excluded. The reasons for exclusion are as follows: (1) the study was not primary research on meditation (n=909), (2) the study did not have a control group (n=280), (3) the study did not report adequately on any measurable data for health related outcomes relevant to the review (n=170), (4) the study did not examine an adult population (n=9), and (5) the study sample included less than 10 participants (n=6).

## **Excluded: Not Primary Research on Meditation (N = 909)**

The following studies were excluded because they were not relevant to the review topic.

- Abbey SE. Mindfulness based stress reduction for oncology patients. Psychooncology 1999;8(6 Suppl):53.
- Abbot NC. Yoga-based intervention for carpal tunnel syndrome. Focus Altern Complement Ther 1999;4(2):81-2.
- Abdullah S. Use of biofeedback in meditation technique: innovative combination in psychotherapy. J Contemp Psychother 1973;5(2):101-6.
- Abdullah S, Schucman H. Cerebral lateralization, bimodal consciousness, and related developments in psychiatry. Res Commun Psychol Psychiatr Behav 1976;1(5-6):671-9.
- Achterberg J, Kenner C, Lawlis GF. Severe burn injury: a comparison of relaxation, imagery and biofeedback for pain management. J Ment Imagery 1988;12(1):71-87.
- Adair L, Jean F. Structural integration and change in body experience [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1981;41(7B):2741.
- 7. Ader R. Much ado about nothing. Adv Mind Body Med 2001;17(4):293-5.
- 8. Ades PA, Wu G. Benefits of tai chi in chronic heart failure: body or mind? Am J Med 2004;117(8):611-2.
- Adler SS. Seeking stillness in motion: an introduction to tai chi for seniors. Activ Adapt Aging 1983;3(4):1-14.
- Aerthayil J. Jesus prayer and stillness of heart. J Dharma 2003;28(4):529-42.

- Ai AL. Assessing mental health in clinical study on qigong: between scientific investigation and holistic perspectives. Semin Integrative Med 2003;1(2):112-21.
- 12. Ai AL, Bolling SF, Peterson C. The use of prayer by coronary artery bypass patients. Int J Psychol Relig 2000;10(4):205-20.
- Ai AL, Dunkle RE, Peterson C, et al. The role of private prayer in psychological recovery among midlife and aged patients following cardiac surgery. Gerontologist 1998;38(5):591-601.
- Ai AL, Dunkle RE, Peterson C, et al. Spiritual well-being, private prayer, and adjustment of older cardiac patients. In: Thorson JA, ed. Perspectives on spiritual well-being and aging. Springfield (IL): Thomas; 2000. p. 98-119.
- Ai AL, Peterson C, Bolling SF. Psychological recovery from coronary artery bypass graft surgery: the use of complementary therapies. J Altern Complement Med 1997;3(4):343-53.
- Ai AL, Peterson C, Gillespie B, et al. Designing clinical trials on energy healing: ancient art encounters medical science. Altern Ther Health Med 2001;7(4):83-90.
- 17. Alexander CN, Alexander VK, Boyer RW, et al. The subjective experience of higher states of consciousness and the Maharashi technology of the unified field: personality, cognitive, perceptual, and physiological correlates of growth to enlightenment. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol. 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1991, p. 2423-42.

- Alexander CN, Heaton DP, Chandler HM. Advanced human development in the vedic psychology of Maharishi mahesh yogi: theory and research. In: Miller M, Cook-Greuter S, eds. Transcendence and mature thought in adulthood. Lanham (MD): Rowman and Littlefield; 1994. p. 39-70.
- Alexander CN, Rainforth MV, Gelderloos P. Transcendental meditation, self-actualization, and psychological health: a conceptual overview and statistical meta-analysis. J Soc Behav Pers 1991;6(5):189-248.
- Alexander CN, Robinson P, Orme-Johnson DW, et al. The effects of transcendental meditation compared to other methods of relaxation and meditation in reducing risk factors, morbidity, and mortality. Homeost Health Dis 1994;35(4-5):243-63. Erratum in: Homeost Health Dis 1995;36(4):240.
- Alexander CN, Robinson P, Rainforth M.
   Treating and preventing alcohol, nicotine, and drug abuse through transcendental meditation: a review and statistical meta-analysis. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(1-2):13-87. Erratum in: Alcohol Treat Q 1995;13(4):97.
- Alpher VS, Blanton RL. Motivational processes and behavioral inhibition in breath holding. J Psychol 1991;125(1):71-81.
- Amarosa TB, Tapp JT, Carida RV. Stress management through relaxation and imagery in the treatment of angina pectoris. J Cardiopulm Rehabil 1989;9(9):348-55.
- Amodei N, Nelson RO, Jarrett RB, et al. Psychological treatments of dysmenorrhea: differential effectiveness for spasmodics and congestives. J Behav Ther Exp Psychiatry 1987;18(2):95-103.
- 25. Anderson EZ. Energy therapies for physical and occupational therapists working with older adults. Phys Occup Ther Geriatr 2001;18(4):35-49.
- 26. Andersson G, Melin L, Hagnebo C, et al. A review of psychological treatment approaches for patients suffering from tinnitus. Ann Behav Med 1995;17(4):357-66.
- Andresen J. Meditation meets behavioural medicine: the story of experimental research on meditation. J Consciousness Stud 2000;7(11-12):17-73.

- Ang DC, Ibrahim SA, Burant CJ, et al. Ethnic differences in the perception of prayer and consideration of joint arthroplasty. Med Care 2002;40(6):471-6.
- Anklesaria FK, King MS. A community based sentencing program for probationers: the enlightened sentencing project: a judicial innovation. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):35-46
- Anklesaria FK, King MS. Section IV: Transcendental meditation in prisons and prison systems the transcendental meditation program in the Senegalese penitentiary system. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):303-18.
- Antoni MH. Session 3: automatic thoughts and cognitive distortions. In: Antoni MH, ed. Stress management intervention for women with breast cancer: participant's workbook. Washington DC: American Psychological Association; 2003. p. 21-31.
- Antoni MH. Stress management and psychoneuroimmunology in HIV infection. CNS Spectr 2003;8(1):40-51.
- Aron A, Aron EN. The transcendental meditation program's effect on addictive behavior. Addict Behav 1980;5(1):3-12.
- Aron EN, Aron A. The transcendental meditation program for the reduction of stress related conditions. J Chronic Dis Ther Res 1979;3(9):11-21
- 35. Arpita HJ. Physiological and psychological effects of hatha-yoga: a review of the literature. Int J Yoga Ther 1990;1:1-28.
- 36. Arora SS. Personal experience of an ex-patient of asthma. In: Sharma SK, Rai L, eds. Yoga therapy in bronchial asthma: proceedings of the first national conference on yoga therapy for asthma and other respiratory diseases; 1993 March 17-19; New Delhi, India. Central Research Institute for Yoga; 1993. p. 152-3.
- 37. Ashby JS, Lenhart RS. Prayer as a coping strategy for chronic pain patients. Rehabil Psychol 1994;39(3):205-9.
- Ashok KM. Yoga and healing: scientific connection. Science and Religion: Global Perspectives. Philadelphia: Metanexus Institute; 2005.

- Astin JA. Mind-body therapies for the management of pain. Clin J Pain 2004;20(1):27-32.
- Astin JA, Beyerstein BL, Frenkel M, et al. Complementary and alternative medicine and the need for evidence-based criticism. Acad Med 2002;77(9):864-75.
- Astin JA, Forys KL. Psychosocial determinants of health and illness: integrating mind, body, and spirit. Adv Mind Body Med 2004;20(4):14-21.
- Astin JA, Shapiro SL, Eisenberg DM, et al. Mind-body medicine: state of the science, implications for practice. J Am Board Fam Med 2003;16(2):131-47.
- Astin JA, Shapiro SL, Schwartz GE. Meditation: Applications in medicine and health care. In: Novey D, ed. A clinician's rapid access guide to complementary and alternative medicine. St. Louis (MO): Mosby; 2000.
- Atkinson RP, Earl H. Enhanced vigilance in guided meditation: implications of altered consciousness. Cambridge (MA): MIT Press; 1998.
- 45. Aung SKH. A brief introduction to the theory and practice of qigong. Am J Acupunct 1994;22(4):335-48.
- 46. Austin TK. Stress management. J Orthomolecular Psychiatry 1982;11(3):193-7.
- 47. Bachman JE. The effects of relaxation plus imaginal flooding versus relaxation only on panic attacks in veterans with posttraumatic stress disorder [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1992;52(11B):6074-5.
- 48. Baer RA. Mindfulness training as a clinical intervention: a conceptual and empirical review. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2003;10(2):125-43.
- Bahrke MS. Exercise, meditation and anxiety reduction: a review. Am Correct Ther J 1979;33(2):41-4.
- Baker DH. Lectio divina: toward a psychology of contemplation [dissertation]. Carpinteria, CA: Pacifica Graduate Institute; 2002.
- Ballou SF. An existential-phenomenological historical inquiry into the awareness of silence as a transpersonal paradigm [dissertation].
   Cincinnati: Union Institute and University; 1996.

- 52. Balodhi JP. Perspective of Rajayoga in its application to mental health. NIMHANS Journal 1986;4(2):133-8.
- Balodhi JP, Mishra H. Patanjala yoga and behavior therapy. Behav Therapist 1983;6(10):196-7.
- Bankart CP. A Western psychologist's inquiry into the nature of right effort. Constructivism Hum Sci 2003;8(2):63-72.
- Bankart CP, Koshikawa F, Nedate K, et al. When West meets East: contributions of Eastern traditions to the future of psychotherapy. Psychother: Theory Res Pract Training 1992;29(1):141-9.
- Barbieri P. Confronting stress: integrating control theory and mindfulness to cultivate our inner resources through mind/body health methods. J Reality Ther 1996;15(2):3-13.
- 57. Barclay A. Studying the efficacy of prayer. Med Today 2002;3(11):89-9.
- 58. Barker P. Zen and the art of losing your self. Nurs Times 2000;96(26):23.
- Barnes VA. EEG, hypometabolism, and ketosis during transcendental meditation indicate it does not increase epilepsy risk. Med Hypotheses 2005;65(1):202-3.
- Barnes VA, Schneider RH, Alexander CN, et al. Stress, stress reduction, and hypertension in African Americans: an updated review. J Natl Med Assoc 1997;89(7):464-76.
- 61. Barrett S. Psychoneuroimmunology: the bridge between science and spirit. In: Kane B, Millay J, Brown D, eds. Silver threads: 25 years of parapsychology research. Westport (CT): Praeger; 1993. Chapter 12.
- 62. Baxter ES. The growth process inventory: a validation study. Eugene: University of Oregon; 1982.
- 63. Bell JA, Saltikov JB. Mitchell's relaxation technique: is it effective? Physiotherapy 2000;86(9):473-8.
- Bellarosa C, Chen PY. The effectiveness and practicality of occupational stress management interventions: a survey of subject matter expert opinions. J Occup Health Psychol 1997;2(3):247-62.

65.

- Bench SA. The therapeutic impact of therapist enthusiasm and scientific credibility on the relaxation response [dissertation]. Hempstead, NY: Hofstra University; 2000.
- 67. Benson H. The relaxation response and norepinephrine: a new study illuminates mechanisms. Integr Psychiatry 1983;1(1):15-8.
- Benson H. The relaxation response: its subjective and objective historical precedents and physiology. Trends Neurosci 1983;6(7):281-4.
- Benson H. Systemic hypertension and the relaxation response. N Engl J Med 1977;296(20):1152-6.
- Benson H, Greenwood MM, Klemchuk HM. The relaxation response: psychophysiologic aspects and clinical applications. Int J Psychiatry Med 1975;6(1-2):87-98.
- Benson H, Kotch JB, Crassweller KD, et al. Historical and clinical considerations of the relaxation response. Am Sci 1977;65(4):441-5.
- 72. Berry GC. Discriminating groups of hypnotized and meditating subjects from normal subjects with the altered states of consciousness inventory (ASCI) [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1982;43(5B):1594.
- Bi Y, Cao Z. Treatment of upper respiratory tract infection by qigong. J Tradit Chin Med 1990;10(3):235-9.
- Birnbaum L, Birnbaum A. In search of inner wisdom: guided mindfulness meditation in the context of suicide. ScientificWorldJournal 2004;4:216-27.
- 75. Bishop RJ. Bodywork as mediation: using structural integration as a pathway. Massage Bodywork 2005;20(4):52-63.
- Bishop SR. What do we really know about mindfulness-based stress reduction? Psychosom Med 2002;64(1):71-83. Erratum in: Psychosom Med 2002;64(3):449.
- 77. Bishop SR, Lau M, Shapiro S, et al. Mindfulness: a proposed operational definition. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2004;11(3):230-41.
- Bitner R, Hillman L, Victor B, et al. Subjective effects of antidepressants: a pilot study of the varieties of antidepressant-induced experiences in meditators. J Nerv Ment Dis 2003;191(10):660-7.

- Blanchard EB, Appelbaum KA, Radnitz CL, et al. Placebo-controlled evaluation of abbreviated progressive muscle relaxation and of relaxation combined with cognitive therapy in the treatment of tension headache. J Consult Clin Psychol 1990;58(2):210-5.
- Blanchard EB, Appelbaum KA, Radnitz CL, et al. A controlled evaluation of thermal biofeedback and thermal biofeedback combined with cognitive therapy in the treatment of vascular headache. J Consult Clin Psychol 1990;58(2):216-24.
- 81. Blanchard EB, Young LD. Self-control of cardiac functioning: a promise as yet unfulfilled. Psychol Bull 1973;79(3):145-63.
- 82. Blanton PG. The use of Christian meditation with religious couples: a collaborative language systems perspective. J Fam Psychother 2002;13(3-4):291-307.
- 83. Blows MW. Yoga meditation: history and philosophy of the wisdom traditions and practical contemporary clinical applications. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 35-48.
- Boals GF. Toward a cognitive reconceptualization of meditation. J Transpersonal Psychol 1978;10(2):143-82.
- 85. Body temperature changes during the practice of g tum-mo yoga. Nature 1982;298(5872):402.
- 86. Boerstler RW, Kornfeld HS. Meditation as a clinical intervention. J Psychosoc Nurs Ment Health Serv 1987;25(6):29-32.
- 87. Bogart G. The use of meditation in psychotherapy: a review of the literature. Am J Psychiatry 1991;45(3):383-412.
- 88. Bolen JS. Meditation and psychotherapy in the treatment of cancer. Psychic 1973;4(6):19-22.
- 89. Bonadonna R. Meditation's impact on chronic illness. Holist Nurs Pract 2003;17(6):309-19.
- Borrie RA. The use of restricted environmental stimulation therapy in treating addictive behaviors. Int J Addict 1990-1991;25(7A-8A):995-1015.

- 91. Bourne A. Colour breathing for healing: the integration of colours and breathing for meditation, relaxation and healing. Positive Health 2002;(73):9-11.
- 92. Bower JE, Woolery A, Sternlieb B, et al. Yoga for cancer patients and survivors. Cancer Control 2005;12(3):165-71.
- 93. Braud WG. Meditation and psychokinesis. Parapsychology Rev 1990;21(1):9-11.
- Breslin FC, Zack M, McMain S. An informationprocessing analysis of mindfulness: implications for relapse prevention in the treatment of substance abuse. Clin Psych: Sci Pract 2002;9(3):275-99.
- Broderick MA. A certain doubleness: reflexive thought and mindful experience as tools for transformative learning in the stress reduction clinic [dissertation]. Boston: Harvard University; 1996.
- Broota A, Dhir R. Efficacy of two relaxation techniques in depression. J Pers Clin Stud 1990:6(1):83-90.
- Broota A, Sanghvi VC. Efficacy of two relaxation techniques in examination anxiety. J Pers Clin Stud 1994;10(1-2):29-35.
- 98. Brown D. The path of meditation: affective development and psychological well-being. In: Ablon SL, Brown D, Khantzian EJ, et al., eds. Human Feelings: explorations in affect development and meaning. Hillsdale (NJ): Analytic Press, Inc; 1993. p. 373-402.
- Brown DP, Engler J. The stages of mindfulness meditation: a validation study. J Transpersonal Psychol 1980;12(2):143-92.
- 100. Brown KW, Ryan RM. The benefits of being present: mindfulness and its role in psychological well-being. J Pers Soc Psychol 2003;84(4):822-48
- 101. Brown KW, Ryan RM. Perils and promise in defining and measuring mindfulness: observations from experience. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2004;11(3):242-8.

- 102. Brown M. Higher education for higher consciousness: a study of students at Maharishi International University. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 985-1000.
- 103. Brown RP, Gerbarg PL. Sudarshan kriya yogic breathing in the treatment of stress, anxiety, and depression: part I: neurophysiologic model. J Altern Complement Med 2005;11(1):189-201. Erratum in: J Altern Complement Med 2005;11(2):383-4.
- 104. Brown-Saltzman K. Replenishing the spirit by meditative prayer and guided imagery. Semin Oncol Nurs 1997;13(4):255-9.
- 105. Bruner RL. The reduction of anxiety and tension states through learning the relaxation response: a theoretical study with clinical applications [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1978;39(1B):370-1.
- 106. Bruton A, Lewith GT. The Buteyko breathing technique for asthma: a review. Complement Ther Med 2005;13(1):41-6.
- Burnard P. Meditation: uses and methods in psychiatric nurse education. Nurse Educ Today 1987;7(4):187-91.
- 108. Butler MH, Stout JA, Gardner BC. Prayer as a conflict resolution ritual: clinical implications of religious couples' report of relationship softening, healing perspective, and change responsibility. Am J Fam Ther 2002;30(1):19-37.
- Calajoe A. Yoga as a therapeutic component in treating chemical dependency. Alcohol Treat Q 1986;3(4):33-46.
- 110. Cambach W, Chadwick-Straver RV, Wagenaar RC, et al. The effects of a community-based pulmonary rehabilitation programme on exercise tolerance and quality of life: a randomized controlled trial. Eur Respir J 1997;10(1):104-13.
- 111. Candelent T, Candelent G. Teaching transcendental meditation in a psychiatric setting. Hosp Community Psychiatry 1975;26(3):156-9.
- 112. Canter PH. The therapeutic effects of meditation. BMJ 2003;326(7398):1049-50.

- 113. Canter PH, Ernst E. The cumulative effects of transcendental meditation on cognitive functiona systematic review of randomised controlled trials. Wien Klin Wochenschr 2003;115(21-22):758-66.
- 114. Canter PH, Ernst E. Insufficient evidence to conclude whether or not transcendental meditation decreases blood pressure: results of a systematic review of randomized clinical trials. J Hypertens 2004;22(11):2049-54.
- 115. Cardoso R, De Souza E, Camano L, et al. Meditation in health: an operational definition. Brain Res Protoc 2004;14(1):58-60.
- 116. Carey MP. Providing relaxation training to cancer chemotherapy patients: a comparison of three delivery strategies [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;47(4B):1714.
- 117. Carlson LE, Brown KW. Validation of the mindful attention awareness scale in a cancer population. J Psychosom Res 2005;58(1):29-33.
- 118. Carmen JE. Yoga and singing: natural partners. J Singing 2004;60(5):433-41.
- 119. Carmody JF, Hebert J. Mindfulness meditation as a support in dietary change. In: Proceedings of the 2005 SBM Annual Meeting; 2005 Apr 13-16; Boston (MA) [cited 2005 Oct 10]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/meeting/2005/pag eS001-S215.pdf. Symposium #11A.
- 120. Carrington P. Freedom in meditation. Garden City, NY: Anchor Press/Doubleday; 1997.
- 121. Carruthers ME. Voluntary control of the involuntary nervous system: comparison of autogenic training and siddha meditation. Exp Clin Psychiatry 1981;6:171-81.
- 122. Carter J. Yoga adjunct to psychiatric treatment and preventive intervention. Aust N Z J Psychiatry 2002;36(6):A5.
- 123. Casler L. A simple verbal procedure for reducing the rates of psychosomatic enfeeblement and death in an aged population. Death Stud 1985;9(3-4):295-307.
- 124. Caspi O, Burleson KO. Methodological challenges in meditation research. Adv Mind Body Med 2005;21(1):4-11.
- 125. Cassel RN. Basic fundamentals of mind control and transcendental meditation. Psychology: J Hum Behav 1974;11(2):26-33.

- 126. Cassel RN. Fostering transcendental meditation using bio-feedback eliminates hoax and restores creditability to art. Psychology: J Hum Behav 1976;13(2):58-64.
- 127. Cassel RN. Fundamentals involved in the scientific process of transcendental meditation. J Instructional Psychol 1976;3(3):2-11.
- 128. Caudill MA, Friedman R, Benson H. Relaxation therapy in the control of blood pressure. Bibl Cardiol 1987;41:106-19.
- 129. Chalif RP. An exploration of the interface between countertransference phenomena and the practice of vipassana meditation [dissertation]. Boston: Massachusetts School of Professional Psychology; 2001.
- Chalmers RA. Transcendental meditation does not predispose to epilepsy. Med Hypotheses 2005;65(3):624-5.
- 131. Chan DW. Introducing the chinese hexiangzhuang (flying crane) qigong therapy. Int J Psychosom 1987;34(4):28-34.
- 132. Chan TH. The use of prayer as a coping strategy in dealing with state-trait anxiety [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1995;55(12B):5562.
- 133. Chan WW, Bartlett DJ. Effectiveness of tai chi as a therapeutic exercise in improving balance and postural control. Phys Occup Ther Geriatr 2000;17(3):1-22.
- 134. Chandra FA. Respiratory practices in yoga. In: Timmons B, Ley R, eds. Behavioral and psychological approaches to breathing disorders. New York: Plenum Press; 1994. p. 221-32.
- 135. Chen K, He B, Rihacek G, et al. A pilot trial of external qigong therapy for arthritis pain. J Clin Rheumatol 2003;9(5):332-5.
- 136. Chen K, Yeung R. Exploratory studies of qigong therapy for cancer in China. Integr Cancer Ther 2002:1(4):345-70.
- 137. Chen KM, Snyder M. A research-based use of tai chi/movement therapy as a nursing intervention. J Holist Nurs 1999;17(3):267-79.
- 138. Chen KM, Snyder M, Krichbaum K. Clinical use of tai chi in elderly populations. Geriatr Nurs 2001;22(4):198-200.

- 139. Chen KM, Snyder M, Krichbaum K. Facilitators and barriers to elders' practice of t'ai chi: a mind-body, low-intensity exercise. J Holist Nurs 2001;19(3):238-55.
- 140. Chen KW. An analytic review of studies on measuring effects of external qi in China. Altern Ther Health Med 2004;10(4):38-50.
- 141. Chen KW, Liu T. Effects of qigong therapy on arthritis: a review and report of a pilot trial. Med Paradigm 2004;1(1):36-48.
- 142. Cheng J. Tai chi chuan: a slow dance for health. Phys Sportsmed 1999;27(6):109-10.
- 143. Cheshire CA. Spirituality and religiousness scales: their relationship to locus of control [dissertation]. Nashville: Tennessee State University; 2003.
- 144. Clark BJ. Group interventions for memory complaints, memory impairment, and depression in the able elderly [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1995;56(3B):1694.
- 145. Clemens JG. Tae kwon do as a treatment for adult depression: a program design [dissertation]. Keene (NH): Antioch New England Graduate School: 2005.
- 146. Clements G, Krenner L, Molk W. The use of the transcendental meditation programme in the prevention of drug abuse and in the treatment of drug-addicted persons. Bull Narc 1988;40(1):51-6.
- 147. Cohen K. Ken Cohen, MA, MSTh healing through ancient traditions: qigong and Native American medicine interview by Bonnie Horrigan. Altern Ther Health Med 2003;9(3):82-01
- 148. Cohen-Katz J, Wiley SD, Capuano T, et al. The effects of mindfulness-based stress reduction on nurse stress and burnout: a quantitative and qualitative study. Holist Nurs Pract 2004;18(6):302-8.
- 149. Cohen MH. Regulation, religious experience, and epilepsy: a lens on complementary therapies. Epilepsy Behav 2003;4(6):602-6.
- 150. Coker KH. Meditation and prostate cancer: integrating a mind/body intervention with traditional therapies. Semin Urol Oncol 1999;17(2):111-8.
- Collings GH. Stress containment through meditation. Prev Hum Serv 1989;6(2):141-50.

- 152. Collins C. Yoga: intuition, preventive medicine, and treatment. JOGN Nurs 1998;27(5):563-8.
- 153. Collins FC. The use of prayer and the self-reported anxiety and depression of retired adults [dissertation]. Minneapolis: Walden University; 2003
- 154. Collipp PJ. The efficacy of prayer: a triple-blind study. Med Times 1969;97(5):201-4.
- 155. Compton WC. On the validity of the East-West questionnaire. Psychol Rep 1983;52(1):117-8.
- 156. Cooper SE, Oborne J, Newton S, et al. Effect of two breathing exercises (Buteyko and pranayama) in asthma: a randomised controlled trial. Thorax 2003;58(8):674-9.
- 157. Cooper SE, Oborne J, Newton S, et al. The effect of two breathing exercises (Buteyko and pranayama) on the ability to reduce inhaled corticosteroids in asthma: a randomised controlled trial. Program and abstracts of the American Thoracic Society 99th International Conference; 2003 May 16-21; Seattle, WA: B023 Poster 924.
- 158. Corliss R. The power of yoga. Time 2001;157(16):54-63.
- 159. Craven JL. Meditation and psychotherapy. Can J Psychiatry 1989;34(7):648-53.
- 160. Crook J. Zen: the challenge to dependency. In: Watson G, Batchelor S, Claxton G, eds. The psychology of awakening. London: Rider; 1999. p. 197-214.
- D'Souza RF, Rodrigo A. Spiritually augmented cognitive behavioural therapy. Australas Psychiatry 2004;12(2):148-52.
- 162. Dalal AS, Barber TX. Yoga, "yoga feats," and hypnosis in the light of empirical research. Am J Clin Hypn 1969;11(3):155-66.
- 163. Danusantoso H, Heijnen L. Tai chi chuan for people with haemophilia. Haemophilia 2001;7(4):437-9.
- 164. Davidson JM. The physiology of meditation and mystical states of consciousness. Perspect Biol Med 1976;19(3):345-79.
- 165. Davison GC, Williams ME, Nezami E, et al. Relaxation, reduction in angry articulated thoughts, and improvements in borderline hypertension and heart rate. J Behav Med 1991;14(5):453-68.

- 166. Day P, O'Haver H, Deutsch S. Using mindfulness-based therapeutic interventions in psychiatric nursing practice-part I: description and empirical support for mindfulness-based interventions. Arch Psychiatr Nurs 2004;18(5):164-9.
- 167. Day P, O'Haver H, Deutsch S. Using mindfulness-based therapeutic interventions in psychiatric nursing practice part II: mindfulnessbased approaches for all phases of psychotherapy-clinical case study. Arch Psychiatr Nurs 2004;18(5):170-7.
- 168. De Felice MG. Mindfulness meditation: a new tool for understanding and regulating musical performance anxiety an affective neuroscientific perspective [dissertation]. Coral Gables, FL: University of Miami; 2004.
- 169. De Silva P. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for depression: a new approach to preventing relapse. Behav Res Ther 2003;41(5):629-30.
- 170. De Silva P. Early Buddhist meditation and mental health. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 25-34.
- 171. DeBerry S. The effects of meditation-relaxation on anxiety and depression in a geriatric population. Psychother: Theory Res Pract 1982;19(4):512-21.
- 172. DeBerry S, Davis S, Reinhard KE. A comparison of meditationelaxation and cognitive/behavioral techniques for reducing anxiety and depression in a geriatric population. J Geriatr Psychiatry 1989;22(2):231-47.
- 173. Decker TW, Cline EJ, Gallagher M. Relaxation therapy as an adjunct in radiation oncology. J Clin Psychol 1992;48(3):388-93.
- 174. Dedert EA, Studts JL, Weissbecker I, et al. Religiosity may help preserve the cortisol rhythm in women with stress-related illness. Int J Psychiatry Med 2004;34(1):61-77 Erratum in: Int J Psychiatry Med 2004;34(3):287.
- 175. Deepak KK. Neurophysiological mechanisms of induction of meditation: a hypothetico-deductive approach. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2002;46(2):136-58.
- 176. Deikman AJ. A functional approach to mysticism. J Consciousness Stud 2000;7(11-12):75-91.

- 177. Delmonte MM. Biochemical indices associated with meditation practice: a literature review. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 1985;9(4):557-61.
- 178. Delmonte MM. The effects of meditation on drug usage: a literature review. Gedrag: Tijdschrift Voor Psychologie 1985;13(2):36-48.
- 179. Delmonte MM. Electrocortical activity and related phenomena associated with meditation practice: a literature review. Int J Neurosci 1984;24(3-4):217-31.
- 180. Delmonte MM. Mantras and meditation: a literature review. Percept Mot Skills 1983;57(1):64-6.
- 181. Delmonte MM. Meditation and anxiety reduction: a literature review. Clin Psychol Rev 1985;5(2):91-102.
- 182. Delmonte MM. Meditation and change: mindfulness versus repression. Aust J Clin Hypnotherapy Hypn 1990;11(2):57-63.
- 183. Delmonte MM. Meditation as a clinical intervention strategy: a brief review. Int J Psychosom 1986;33(3):9-12.
- 184. Delmonte MM. Meditation in the Christian tradition. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 121-30.
- 185. Delmonte MM. Meditation practice as related to occupational stress, health, and productivity. Percept Mot Skills 1984;59(2):581-2.
- Delmonte MM. Meditation, the unconscious, and psychosomatic disorders. Int J Psychosom 1989;36(1-4):45-52.
- 187. Delmonte MM. Personality and meditation. In: West MA, ed. The psychology of meditation. Oxford, UK: Clarendon; 1987. p. 118-32.
- 188. Delmonte MM. Personality characteristics and regularity of meditation. Psychol Rep 1980;46(3 Pt 1):703-12.
- 189. Delmonte MM. Personality correlates of meditation practice frequency and dropout in an outpatient population. J Behav Med 1988;11(6):593-7.
- Delmonte MM. Physiological concomitants of meditation practice. Int J Psychosom 1984;31(4):23-36.

- 191. Delmonte MM. Psychometric scores and meditation practice: a literature review. Pers Individ Dif 1984;5(5):559-63.
- 192. Delmonte MM. The relevance of meditation to clinical practice: an overview. Appl Psychol: Int Rev 1990;39(3):331-54.
- 193. Delmonte MM. Response to meditation in terms of physiological, behavioural and self-report measures: a brief summary. Psychol Rep 1985;56(1):9-10.
- 194. Delmonte MM. Silence and emptiness in the service of healing: lessons from meditation. Br J Psychother 1995;11(3):368-78.
- 195. Delmonte MM. Some cognitive aspects of meditation practice. Percept Mot Skills 1983;57(3 Pt 2):1160-2.
- 196. Delmonte MM. Therapeutic aspects of meditation. Int J Psychol 1992;27(3-4):446.
- 197. Delmonte MM, Kenny V. Conceptual models and functions of meditation in psychotherapy. J Contemp Psychother 1987;17(1):38-59.
- 198. Delmonte MM, Kenny V. An overview of the therapeutic effects of meditation. Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1985;28(4):189-202.
- 199. Devaki P. Yoga as neuropsychological modifier. Int J Psychol 2004;39(5-6 Suppl):297-8.
- 200. Dikshit CS. Anatomical basis of yogic asanas. Clinician 1978;42(1):18-21.
- 201. Dillbeck MC. The application of the transcendental meditation program to corrections. Int J Comp Appl Criminal Justice 1987;1(11):111-32.
- 202. Dillbeck MC. Testing the vedic psychology of the bhagavad-gita. Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1983;26(4):232-40.
- 203. Dillbeck MC, Orme-Johnson DW. Physiological differences between transcendental meditation and rest. Am Psychol 1987;42(9):879-81.
- 204. Dillbeck MC, Orme-Johnson DW. The use of the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program in rehabilitation and crime-prevention. Bull Br Psychol Soc 1982;35:A94.

- 205. Dillbeck MC, Raimondi D, Assimakis PD, et al. The longitudinal effects of the MIU curriculum on intelligence and field independence. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol. 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1991. p. 2385-6.
- 206. Dimidjian S, Linehan MM. Defining an agenda for future research on the clinical application of mindfulness practice. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2003;10(2):166-71.
- 207. DiPietro L, Seeman TE, Stachenfeld NS, et al. Moderate-intensity aerobic training improves glucose tolerance in aging independent of abdominal adiposity. J Am Geriatr Soc 1998;46(7):875-9.
- 208. Dixit SP, Agrawal A, Dubey GP. Management of essential hypertension by using biofeedback technique. Pharmacopsychoecologia 1994;7(1):17-9.
- 209. Domar AD. The use of the relaxation response with skin cancer patients [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;47(11B):4681.
- 210. Dorcas A. Chinese qigong research: an overview. In: Kao HSR, Sinha D, eds. Asian perspectives on psychology. Thousand Oaks: Sage; 1997. p. 309-32.
- 211. Dorcas A, Yung P. Qigong: harmonising the breath, the body and the mind. Complement Ther Nurs Midwifery 2003;9(4):198-202.
- 212. Dosh SA. The treatment of adults with essential hypertension. J Fam Pract 2002;51(1):74-80.
- 213. Dostalek C. Physiological bases of yoga techniques in the prevention of diseases. Homeost Health Dis 1994;35(4-5):205-8.
- 214. Dostalek C. Psychophysiology of hatha-yoga and its use in prevention therapy of life-style related diseases. Int J Psychophysiol 1989;7(2-4):185-6.
- 215. Dougherty AM, Deck MD. Helping teachers to help children cope with stress. J Hum Counc Educ Dev 1984;23(1):36-44.
- 216. Downey N. Mindfulness training: the effect of process and outcome instructions on the experience of control and the level of mindfulness among older women. Educ Gerontol 1991;17(2):97-109.

- 217. Dreher H. Cancer and the mind: current concepts in psycho-oncology. Advances 1987;4(3):27-43.
- 218. Drettner B. Patophysiological relationship between the upper and lower airways. Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol 1970;79(3):499-505.
- 219. Driskill JD. Meditation as a therapeutic technique. Pastoral Psychol 1989;38(2):83-103.
- 220. Dua JK. A technique of meditation based on yoga philosophy and cognitive-behavioural theory. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 185-204.
- 221. Dubin W. The use of meditative techniques in psychotherapy supervision. J Transpersonal Psychol 1991;23(1):65-80.
- 222. Dubs G. Psycho-spiritual development in Zen Buddhism: a study of resistance in meditation. J Transpersonal Psychol 1987;19(1):19-86.
- 223. Dusek JA, Astin JA, Hibberd PL, et al. Healing prayer outcomes studies: consensus recommendations. Altern Ther Health Med 2003;9(3 Suppl):A44-53.
- 224. Dwivedi KN. Freedom from the self sufism, meditation and psychotherapy. Group Analysis 1989;22(4):434-6.
- 225. Earle JB. Cerebral laterality and meditation: a review of the literature. J Transpersonal Psychol 1981;13(2):155-73.
- 226. Echenhofer FG, Coombs MM. A brief review of research and controversies in EEG biofeedback and meditation. J Transpersonal Psychol 1987;19(2):161-71.
- 227. Edwards DL. A meta-analysis of the effects of meditation and hypnosis on measures of anxiety [dissertation]. College Station, TX: Texas A & M University; 1990.
- 228. Edwards L. Meditation as medicine. Benefits go beyond relaxation. Adv Nurse Pract 2003;11(5):49-52.
- 229. Edwards LA. Use of hypnosis and non-ordinary states of consciousness in facilitating significant psychotherapeutic change. Aust J Clin Hypnotherapy Hypn 1999;20(2):86-107.

- 230. Eifert GH, Heffner M. The effects of acceptance versus control contexts on avoidance of panic-related symptoms. J Behav Ther Exp Psychiatry 2003;34(3-4):293-312.
- 231. Ekkekakis P, Hall EE, Vanlanduyt LM, et al. Walking in (affective) circles: can short walks enhance affect? J Behav Med 2000;23(3):245-75.
- 232. Elder C. Ayurveda for diabetes mellitus: a review of the biomedical literature. Altern Ther Health Med 2004;10(1):44-50.
- 233. Elias AN, Guich S, Wilson AF. Ketosis with enhanced gabaergic tone promotes physiological changes in transcendental meditation. Med Hypotheses 2000;54(4):660-2.
- 234. Elias AN, Wilson AF. Serum hormonal concentrations following transcendentalmeditation: potential role of gammaaminobutyric acid. Med Hypotheses 1995;44(4):287-91.
- 235. Elkins D, Anchor KN, Sandler HM. Physiological effects of relaxation training. Am J Clin Biofeedback 1978;1(1):30.
- 236. Elkins D, Anchor KN, Sandler HM. Relaxation training and prayer behavior as tension reduction techniques. Behav Eng 1979;5(3):81-7.
- 237. Ellis GA, Corum P. Removing the motivator: a holistic solution to substance abuse. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(3-4):271-96.
- 238. Elzayat SG. Microsurgical lumbar-disk removal (elzayat approach) with Islamic prayer therapy. Sao Paulo Med J 1989;10(3):221-2.
- 239. Eppley K, Rice D. Double-blind comparison of raimondi technique and relaxation in prophylaxis of migraine headache. Headache Q Curr Treatment Res 1996;7(1):54-7.
- 240. Eppley KR, Abrams AI, Shear J. Differential effects of relaxation techniques on trait anxiety: a meta-analysis. J Clin Psychol 1989;45(6):957-74.
- 241. Epstein RM. Mindful practice. J Am Med Assoc 1999;282(9):833-9.
- 242. Ernst E. Breathing techniques: adjunctive treatment modalities for asthma? A systematic review. Eur Respir J 2000;15(5):969-72.
- 243. Ernst E. A primer of complementary and alternative medicine commonly used by cancer patients. Aust Med Rec J 2001;174(2):88-92.

- 244. Ernst E. A systematic review of tai chi studies. Focus Altern Complement Ther 2004;9(4):307-8.
- 245. Esch T, Fricchione GL, Stefano GB. The therapeutic use of the relaxation response in stress-related diseases. Med Sci Monit 2003;9:RA23-34.
- 246. Ethan S. Spirituality vs. psychoanalysis: the example of Zen Buddhism. Issues Psychoanalytic Psychol 1999;21(1-2):33-44.
- 247. Evans RP. Vividness of imagery as a factor in pain management [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1990;51(2B):982.
- 248. Everly GS Jr, Benson H. Disorders of arousal and the relaxation response: speculations on the nature and treatment of stress-related diseases. Int J Psychosom 1989;36(1-4):15-21.
- 249. Everly GS Jr, Lating JM. Neurologic desensitization in the treatment of posttraumatic stress. In: Everly GSJr, Lating JM, eds. Personality-guided therapy for posttraumatic stress disorder. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association; 2004. p. 161-76.
- 250. Fasko D Jr, Grueninger RW. T'ai chi ch'uan and physical and psychological health: a review. Clin Kinesiology: J Am Kinesiotherapy Assoc 2001;55(1):4-12.
- 251. Ferguson PC. An integrative meta-analysis of psychological studies investigating the treatment outcomes of meditation techniques [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1981;42(4A):1547.
- 252. Ferguson PC. The psychobiology of transcendental meditation: a review. J Altered States Consciousness 1975;2(1):15-36.
- 253. Ferguson PC. Transcendental meditation and its potential application in the field of special education. J Spec Educ 1976;10(2):211-20.
- 254. Ferrari M. Influence of expertise on the intentional transfer of motor skill. J Mot Behav 1999;31(1):79-85.
- 255. Fey SG, Lindholm E. Biofeedback and progressive relaxation: effects on systolic and diastolic blood pressure and heart rate. Psychophysiology 1978;15(3):239-47.
- 256. Finney JR, Malony HN. Contemplative prayer and its use in psychotherapy: a theoretical model. J Psychol Theol 1985;13(3):172-81.

- 257. Fontana D. Mind, senses and self. In: Claxton G, ed. Beyond therapy: the impact of Eastern religions on psychological theory and practices. London: Wisdom; 1996. p. 33-48.
- 258. Fox DA. Meditation and reality: a critical review. Atlanta (GA): John Knox Press; 1986.
- 259. Frank ED. Breathing training as a self-regulatory stress reduction method for asthma prone individuals [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;47(11A):3980.
- 260. Frederick AN, Barber TX. Yoga, hypnosis, and self-control of cardiovascular functions. Proc Annu Convention Am Psychol Assoc 1972;(7 Pt 2):859-60.
- 261. Fredrickson WC. A program of teaching the practice of Christian meditation/contemplative prayer to HIV positive clients [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1993;53(12A):4367.
- 262. Freed S. Induced specific immunological unresponsiveness and conditioned behavioral reflexes, in functional isomorphism-meditation and conditioned specific unresponsiveness. Int J Neurosci 1989;44(3-4):275-81.
- 263. Freeman MT. Enlivening veda in consciousness and physiology by reading the vedic literature in conjunction with the experience of the transcendental meditation (TM) and TM-Sidhi [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1997.
- 264. Friedman H, Taub HA. Brief psychological training procedures in migraine treatment. Am J Clin Hypn 1984;26(3):187-200.
- 265. Friedman EH, Coats AJS. Neurobiology of exaggerated heart rate oscillations during two meditative techniques. Int J Cardiol 2000;73(2):199.
- 266. Friedman R, Steinman M, Benson H. The relaxation response: physiological effects and medical applications. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 205-12.
- 267. Fromm E. Primary and secondary process in waking and in altered states of consciousness. Acad Psychol Bull 1981;3(1):29-45.

- 268. Fromm GH. Neurophysiological speculations on Zen enlightenment. J Mind Behav 1992;13(2):163-9.
- 269. Frumkin K, Nathan RJ, Prout MF, et al. Nonpharmacologic control of essential hypertension in man: a critical review of the experimental literature. Psychosom Med 1978;40(4):294-320.
- 270. Funderburk J. Science studies yoga: a review of physiological data. Oxford, England: Himalayan International Institute of Yoga Science and Philosophy; 1977.
- 271. Furian TC, Wanger D, Ritthaler F. Influence of tai chi training device on physical performance, ventilatory parameters and balance. Int J Sports Med 1999;20:S58-9.
- 272. Furlow L, O'Quinn JL. Does prayer really help? J Christ Nurs 2002;19(2):31-4.
- 273. Gaik FV. Merging east and west: a preliminary study applying spring forest qigong to depression as an alternative and complementary treatment [dissertation]. Chicago (IL): Alder School of Professional Psychology; 2003.
- 274. Galantino MLA. Influence of yoga, walking, and mindfulness meditation on fatigue and body mass index in women living with breast cancer. Semin Integrative Med 2003;1(3):151-7.
- 275. Garfield E. Meditation, learning, and creativity part 1. The practice and physiologic effects of meditation. Curr Contents Clin Med 1985;(29):3-11.
- 276. Garfinkel MS, Schumacher HR Jr. Yoga. Rheum Dis Clin North Am 2000;26(1):125-32.
- 277. Garrison J, Scott PA. A group self-care approach to stress management. J Psychiatr Nurs Ment Health Serv 1979;17(6):9-14.
- 278. Garssen B, de Ruiter C, Van Dyck R. Breathing retraining: a rational placebo? Clin Psychol Rev 1992;12(2):141-53.
- 279. Gawler I. Imagery and meditation: how to balance active and passive forms of meditation. First Annual International Conference: Mind, Immunity and Health; 1995; Lorne, Australia. Yarra Junction, Australia: Gawler Foundation; 1995. p. 89-100.
- Gazella KA. David Simon, MD practicing mindbody-soul medicine. Altern Ther Health Med 2004;10(6):63-8.

- 281. Gelderloos P, Ahlstrom HH, Orme-Johnson DW, et al. Influence of a Maharishi ayur-vedic herbal preparation on age-related visual discrimination. Int J Psychosom 1990;37(1-4):25-9.
- 282. Gelderloos P, Walton KG, Orme-Johnson DW, et al. Effectiveness of the transcendental meditation program in preventing and treating substance misuse: a review. Int J Addict 1991;26(3):293-325
- 283. Geller SM. Becoming whole: a collaboration between experiential psychotherapies and mindfulness meditation. Pers Cent Experiential Psychother 2003;2(4):258-73.
- 284. Germer CK. Mindfulness: what is it? What does it matter? In: Germer CK, Siegel RD, Fulton PR, eds. Mindfulness and Psychotherapy. New York: Guilford Publications; 2005. p. 3-27.
- 285. Gerrity ET, Solomon SD. The treatment of PTSD and related stress disorders: current research and clinical knowledge. In: Marsella AJ, Friedman MJ, Gerrity ET, et al., eds. Ethnocultural aspects of posttraumatic stress disorder: issues, research and clinical applications. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association Books; 2001. Chapter 3.
- 286. Giardini F. The conscious and unconscious mind in prayer. J Psychol Christianity 1987;6(1):5-20.
- 287. Gilbert C. Yoga and breathing. J Bodywork Movement Ther 1999;3(1):44-54.
- 288. Gimbel MA. Yoga, meditation, and imagery: clinical applications. Nurse Pract Forum 1998;9(4):243-55.
- 289. Glueck BC, Stroebel CF. Biofeedback and meditation in the treatment of psychiatric illnesses. Compr Psychiatry 1975;16(4):303-21.
- 290. Goldberg B. Slowing down the aging process through the use of altered states of consciousness: a review of the medical literature. Psychology: J Hum Behav 1995;32(2):19-21.
- 291. Goldberg RJ. Anxiety reduction by self-regulation: theory, practice, and evaluation. Ann Intern Med 1982;96(4):483-7.
- 292. Goleman DJ. Meditation and consciousness: an Asian approach to mental health. Am J Psychiatry 1976;30(1):41-54.

- 293. Gong LS, Wang CX, Qian JA, et al. Cardiovascular effects of taijiquan and qigong exercises. New Horizons Prev Cardiovasc Dis 1989:163-7.
- 294. Goodman N. The application of Kundalini yoga practices in the clinical-psychology context. Int J Psychol 1992;27(3-4):474.
- 295. Goodman RS, Walton KG, Orme-Johnson DW, et al. Introduction and overview: the transcendental meditation program: a consciousness-based developmental. In: Alexander CN, Walton KG, Orme-Johnson DW, et al., eds. Transcendental Meditation in Criminal Rehabilitation and Crime Prevention. Binghamton, NY: The Haworth Press Inc; 2003. p. 1-33.
- 296. Goyeche JRM. Yoga as therapy in psychosomatic medicine. Psychother Psychosom 1979;31(1-4):373-81.
- 297. Goyeche JRM, Abo Y, Ikemi Y. Asthma: the yoga perspective part II: yoga therapy in the treatment of asthma. J Asthma 1982;19(3):189-201.
- Grant JA, Rainville P. Hypnosis and meditation: similar experiential changes and shared brain mechanisms. Med Hypotheses 2005;65(3):625-6.
- 299. Graves LA. A theoretical framework for the use of mindfulness meditation in the practice of pastoral counseling from the perspectives of transpersonal psychology and process theology [dissertation]. Claremont, CA: Claremont School of Theology; 1999.
- 300. Graves N, Krepcho M, Mayo HG. Does yoga speed healing for patients with low back pain? J Fam Pract 2004;53(8):661-2.
- 301. Greene KB, Berger J, Reeves C, et al. Most frequently used alternative and complementary therapies and activities by participants in the AMCOA study. J Assoc Nurses AIDS Care 1999;10(3):60-73.
- 302. Greenspan M, Schneider S. Therapeutic touch and healing meditation: a threesome with education. Int J Adolesc Youth 1994;5(1-2):115-25.
- Greenspan MR. Helping meditation: creative growth in education. Early Child Dev Care 1995;110:113-22.

- 304. Greenwood MM, Benson H. The efficacy of progressive relaxation in systematic desensitization and a proposal for an alternative competitive response: the relaxation response. Behav Res Ther 1977;15(4):337-43.
- 305. Greyson B. Some neuropsychological correlates of the physio-kundalini syndrome. J Transpersonal Psychol 2000;32(2):123-34.
- 306. Griegel LE. Breathing retraining in panic disorder: physiological mechanisms or perceived controllability [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1995;55(9B):4120.
- 307. Grossman P, Niemann L, Schmidt S, et al. Mindfulness-based stress reduction and health benefits: a meta-analysis. In: Proceedings of the 61st Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; 2003 March 13-16; Phoenix (AR) [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/events/search2006/showkeysearch.cfm?authorsearch=1. Abstract 1436.
- 308. Grossman P, Niemann L, Schmidt S, et al. Mindfulness-based stress reduction and health benefits: a meta-analysis. J Psychosom Res 2004;57(1):35-43.
- 309. Gruber BL, Hall NR, Hersh SP, et al. Immunesystem changes in breast-cancer patients given relaxation, guided imagery, and biofeedback training. Biofeedback Self Regul 1989;14(2):142-3.
- 310. Gruber RG. The comparative effectiveness of similarly, dissimilarly, self and non-modeled covert imagery with and without relaxation with snake phobic females [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1984;44(12B):3933.
- 311. Guo HZ, Zhang SX, Jing BS, et al. A preliminary report on a new anti-g maneuver. Aviat Space Environ Med 1988;59(10):968-72.
- 312. Gura TS. Yoga for stress reduction and injury prevention at work. Work 2002;19(1):3-7.
- 313. Haartman K. Watching and praying: a psychoanalytic view of personality change in 18th-century British methodism [dissertation]. Toronto: University of Toronto; 2000.
- 314. Haber D. A health promotion program in ten nursing homes. Activ Adapt Aging 1988;11(1):75-84.

- 315. Hackett G, Horan JJ. Stress inoculation for pain: what's really going on? J Couns Psychol 1980:27(2):107-16.
- 316. Hainsworth T. The role of exercise in falls prevention for older patients. Nurs Times 2004;100(18):28-9.
- 317. Haley KC, Koenig HG, Bruchett BM. Relationship between private religious activity and physical functioning in older adults. J Relig Health 2001;40(2):305-12.
- 318. Hall H, Papas A, Tosi M, et al. Directional changes in neutrophil adherence following passive resting versus active imagery. Int J Neurosci 1996;85(3-4):185-94.
- 319. Hall NRS, O'Grady MP. Psychosocial interventions and immune function. 2nd ed. Boston: Academic Press; 1991. p. 1067-79.
- 320. Han A, Robinson V, Judd M, et al. Tai chi for treating rheumatoid arthritis. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2004;(3):CD004849.
- 321. Hankey DA. The awakening of full human potential through Maharishi mahesh yogi's vedic science: research on the experience of reading the vedic literature [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 2000.
- 322. Hanna PB, Berry ZM, Bennett T, et al. Stress as a diagnostic challenge for postconcussive symptoms: sequelae of mild traumatic brain injury or physiological stress response.

  Neuropsychol Dev Cogn Section D Clin Neuropsychol 2001;15(3):289-304.
- 323. Hanna T. The project of somatology. J Hum Psychol 1973;13(3):3-14.
- 324. Harari SS. What's the matter: your energy or your matter? an exploratory study examining bodymind-spirit correlates of Tibetans and Caucasian Americans for multicultural holistic health practice intake [dissertation]. Chicago: Chicago School of Professional Psychology; 2002.
- 325. Haridas NV. Physiological and philosophical aspects of yoga. In: Murali TS, editor. Sixth World Congress on Holistic Life and Medicine; 1996 Jan; Calicut, India. Kottakkal: Arya Vaidya Sala; 1998. p. 141-4.
- 326. Harmon RL, Myers MA. Prayer and meditation as medical therapies. Phys Med Rehabil Clin N Am 1999;10(3):651-62.

- 327. Harris AH, Thoresen CE, McCullough ME, et al. Spiritually and religiously oriented health interventions. J Health Psychol 1999;4(3):413-33.
- 328. Haruki Y, Ishii I, Suzuli M. Some aspects of meditation. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the Third Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 3-12.
- Hassan-Schwarz Galle S. Hypnosis, yoga, and psychotherapy. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press; 1999.
- 330. Hassed CS. To be or not to be. Evidence in support of contemplative practices: part 1. Aust Fam Physician 2000;29(9):883-4.
- 331. Hassed CS. To be or not to be. The practical aspects of contemplative practices: part 2. Aust Fam Physician 2000;29(10):985-7.
- 332. Hauser W, Biewer W. Pain management in patients with chronic rheumatic pain: a model for primary medical care. Schmerz 1997;11(2):116-9.
- 333. Hawkins MA. Effectiveness of the transcendental meditation program in criminal rehabilitation. In: Alexander CN, Walton KG, Orme-Johnson DW, et al., eds. Transcendental Meditation in Criminal Rehabilitation and Crime Prevention. Binghamton, NY: The Haworth Press Inc; 2003. p. 47-65.
- 334. Hawkins MA. Section I: Theory and review effectiveness of the transcendental meditation program in criminal rehabilitation and substance abuse recovery: a review of the research. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):47-65.
- 335. Hawks SR, Hull ML, Thalman RL, et al. Review of spiritual health: definition, role, and intervention strategies in health promotion. Am J Health Promot 1995;9(5):371-8.
- 336. Hayashi K. Integrated body control method with image, breath, intention, consciousness, cognition, qi and healing to make oneself healthy. J Int Soc Life Inf Sci 2005;23(1):16-23.
- 337. Hayes AM, Feldman G. Clarifying the construct of mindfulness in the context of emotion regulation and the process of change in therapy. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2004;11(3):255-62.

- 338. Hayes SC. Acceptance and commitment therapy and the new behavior therapies: mindfulness, acceptance, and relationship. In: Hayes SCE, Follette VME, Linehan MME. Mindfulness and acceptance: expanding the cognitive-behavioral tradition. New York: Guilford Press; 2004. p. 1-29
- 339. Hayes SC, Shenk C. Operationalizing mindfulness without unnecessary attachments. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2004;11(3):249-54.
- 340. Hayes SC, Wilson KG. Mindfulness: method and process. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2003;10(2):161-5
- Hayward J. A rDzogs-chen Buddhist interpretation of the sense of self. J Consciousness Stud 1998;5(5-6):611-26.
- 342. He D. Qigong: special psychotherapy. Int J Psychol 1996;31(3-4):354-65.
- 343. Heaman D. The quieting response (QR): a modality for reduction of psychophysiologic stress in nursing students. J Nurs Educ 1995;34(1):5-10.
- 344. Heilbronn FS. The use of hatha yoga as a strategy for coping with stress in management development. Manage Educ Dev 1992;23(2):131-9.
- 345. Helm-Estabrooks N. The times they are a-changin': nontraditional treatment approaches to communications disorders. Semin Speech Lang 2004;25(2):117-8.
- 346. Helm HM, Hays JC, Flint EP, et al. Does private religious activity prolong survival? A six-year follow-up study of 3,851 older adults. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 2000;55(7):400-5.
- 347. Helminiak DA. Meditation: psychologically and theologically considered. Pastoral Psychol 1981;30(1):6-20.
- 348. Hendlin SJ. T'ai chi chaun and gestalt therapy. J Contemp Psychother 1978;10(1):25-31.
- Henry JP. Relaxation methods and the control of blood pressure. Psychosom Med 1978;40(4):273 .
- 350. Henry JR. The effects of brief ruminating, distracting, and mindfulness interventions on public speaking anxiety [dissertation].

  Greensboro: University of North Carolina; 2003.

- 351. Hernandez NE, Kolb S. Effects of relaxation on anxiety in primary caregivers of chronically ill children. Pediatr Nurs 1998;24(1):51-6.
- 352. Herriott EM. Elements of entrepreneurial success: the links among inner competencies, inner development and success [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 2000.
- 353. Herron WJ. A questionnaire study comparing mystical experience among Zen, yoga, Christian, and non-spiritual groups [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1993;54(4B):2179.
- 354. Heslet L. Effects of relaxation and diaphragmatic breathing on respiratory sinus arrhythmia: implications for cardiovascular disease [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1996;56(10B):5754.
- 355. Hill RD, Sheikh JI, Yesavage JA. Pretraining enhances mnemonic training in elderly adults. Exp Aging Res 1989;14(4):207-11.
- 356. Hirota A, Hirai H. Effects of relaxation-responseor arousal-response-oriented training on psychophysiological responses during fear imagery. Jpn Psychol Res 1990;32(1):26-35.
- 357. Hohn T. Christian meditation paths?

  Development of a questionnaire for Christian contemplation based on descriptions of Master Eckhart and Teresa of Avila. J Medit Medit Res 2003;3:7-20.
- 358. Holl RM. What is prayer? Alernat Health Pract 1998;4(2):109-14.
- 359. Holland D. Integrating mindfulness meditation and somatic awareness into a public educational setting. J Hum Psychol 2004;44(4):468-84.
- 360. Holmes DS. The influence of meditation versus rest on physiological arousal: a second examination. Oxford: Clarendon Press; 1987. p. 81-103.
- 361. Holmes DS. Meditation and somatic arousal reduction: a review of the experimental evidence. Am Psychol 1984;39(1):1-10.
- 362. Holmes DS. Self-control of somatic arousal: an examination of the effects of meditation and biofeedback. Am Behav Sci 1985;28(4):486-96.
- 363. Holmes DS, McCaul KD, Solomon S. Control of respiration as a means of controlling responses to threat. J Pers Soc Psychol 1978;36(2):198-204.

- 364. Holroyd J. The science of meditation and the state of hypnosis. Am J Clin Hypn 2003;46(2):109-28.
- 365. Hopper C, Kolt GS, McConville JC. Feldenkrais awareness through movement on hamstring length, flexibility, and perceived exertion. J Bodywork Movement Ther 1999;3(4):238-47.
- 366. Horrigan B. Pamela Miles reiki vibrational healing. Altern Ther Health Med 2003;9(4):75-83
- 367. Hosaka T, Sugiyama Y, Tokuda Y, et al. Persistent effects of a structured psychiatric intervention on breast cancer patients' emotions. Psychiatry Clin Neurosci 2000;54(5):559-63.
- 368. Hoshmand LT, Helmes E, Kazarian S, et al. Evaluation of two relaxation training programs under medication and no-medication conditions. J Clin Psychol 1985;41(1):22-9.
- 369. Huang BH. Exploring oriental wisdom: selftranscendence and psychological well-being of adulthood in Taiwan [dissertation]. Madison: University of Wisconsin; 1999.
- 370. Huber HP, Gramer M. Psychophysiological response patterns in relaxation processes. German J Psychol 1990;14(2):98-106.
- 371. Hunt HT, Gervais A, Shearing-Johns S, et al. Transpersonal experiences in childhood: an exploratory empirical study of selected adult groups. Percept Mot Skills 1992;75(3 Pt 2):1135-53
- 372. Ikemi Y, Ishikawa H, Goyeche JRM, et al. Positive and negative aspects of the altered states of consciousness induced by autogenic training, Zen and yoga. Psychosom Med 1978;30(3-4):170-8.
- 373. Irvin JHA. The effects of relaxation response training on the frequency and intensity of menopausal hot flash symptoms [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1994;55(6B): 2391.
- 374. Irwin MR, Pike JL, Oxman MN. Shingles immunity and health functioning in the elderly: tai chi chih as a behavioral treatment. Evid Based Complement Alternat Med 2004;1(3):223-32.
- 375. Ishikawa H. Scientific evaluation of oriental approaches from the viewpoint of cybernetics. Indian J Psychol 1981;3(2):37-40.
- 376. Jacka J. Meditation: the most natural therapy. Melbourne, Australia: Lothian; 1990.

- 377. Jacobs GD. Clinical applications of the relaxation response and mind-body interventions. J Altern Complement Med 2001;7(1 Suppl):S93-101.
- 378. Jacobs GD. A controlled, longitudinal analysis of the effects of autogenic training and the relaxation response on central nervous system activity using computerized spectral analysis of EEG activity [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1988;48(11B):3445-6.
- 379. Jacobs GD, Benson H, Friedman R. Home-based central nervous system assessment of a multifactor behavioral intervention for chronic sleep-onset insomnia. Behav Ther 1993;24(1):159-74.
- 380. Jacobs GD, Heilbronner RL, Stanley JM. The effects of short term flotation REST on relaxation: a controlled study. Health Psychol 1984;3(2):99-112.
- 381. Jacobs GD, Rosenberg PA, Friedman R, et al. Multifactor behavioral treatment of chronic sleep-onset insomnia using stimulus control and the relaxation response: a preliminary study. Behav Modif 1993;17(4):498-509.
- 382. Jain S, Janssen K, DeCelle S. Alexander technique and feldenkrais method: a critical overview. Phys Med Rehabil Clin N Am 2004;15(4):811-25.
- 383. Jakubczak M. The philosophical foundations of yoga therapy. In: Tymieniecka AT, Zalewski Z, eds. Life: the human being between life and death. Dordrecht, Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers; 2000. p. 145-51.
- 384. James M, Kolt GS, McConville JC, et al. The effects of a Feldenkrais program and relaxation procedures on hamstring length. Aust J Physiother 1998;44(1):49-54.
- 385. Jancewicz A. Tai chi chuan's role in maintaining independence in ageing people with chronic disease. J Bodywork Movement Ther 2001;5(1):70-7.
- 386. Jang HS, Lee MS. Effects of qi therapy (external qigong) on premenstrual syndrome: a randomized placebo-controlled study. J Altern Complement Med 2004;10(3):456-62.
- 387. Jang HS, Lee MS, Kim MJ, et al. Effects of qi therapy on premenstrual syndrome. Int J Neurosci 2004;114(8):909-21.
- 388. Janisse M. The therapeutic use of yoga. Orthop Phys Ther Pract 2002;14(1):7-12.

- 389. Jaseja H. Meditation may predispose to epilepsy: an insight into the alteration in brain environment induced by meditation. Med Hypotheses 2005;64(3):464-7.
- 390. Jayasinghe SR. Yoga in cardiac health. Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehabil 2004;11(5):369-75.
- 391. Jedrczak A, Miller D, Antoniou M. Transcendental meditation and health: an overview of experimental research and clinical experience. Health Promot 1987;2(4):369-76.
- 392. Jeon J. Death anxiety and religious affiliation: a comparative study of military personnel [dissertation]. Tulsa (OK): School of Theology and Missions Oral Roberts University; 1996.
- 393. Jevning RA, Wallace RK, Beidebach M. The physiology of meditation: a review: a wakeful hypometabolic integrated response. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 1992;16(3):415-24.
- 394. Jin P. Theoretical perspectives on a form of physical and cognitive exercise tai chi. Carlton, Victoria: Australian Psychological Society Ltd; 1994. p. 135-53.
- 395. Jonas WB, Chez RA. Recommendations regarding definitions and standards in healing research. J Altern Complement Med 2004;10(1):171-81.
- 396. Jonte PD. The swami and the Rorschach: spiritual practice, religious experience, and perception.
  Amsterdam: New York: Rodapi; 2003.
- 397. Jorm AF, Christensen H, Griffiths KM, et al. Effectiveness of complementary and self-help treatments for anxiety disorders. Aust Med Rec J 2004;181(7 Suppl):S29-46.
- 398. Juhan A. Open floor: dance, therapy, and transformation through the 5 rhythms [dissertation]. Cincinnati, OH: Union Institute and University; 2004.
- Kabat-Zinn J. Mindfulness-based interventions in context: past, present, and future. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2003;10(2):144-56.
- Kabat-Zinn J. Mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR). Constructivism Hum Sci 2003;8(2):73-107.

- 401. Kabat-Zinn J. Mindfulness meditation what it is, what it isn't, and its role in health care and medicine. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 161-70.
- 402. Kabat-Zinn J, Hosmer D. Response to the comments of Drs Relman and Riley. Advances 2001;17(1):70-6.
- 403. Kamilar S. A Buddhist psychology. Binghamton, NY: The Haworth Press; 2002.
- 404. Kang D. Psychoneuroimmunology in nursing research: a biobehavioral model. Res Nurs Health 2003;26(6):421-3.
- 405. Kaplan S. Meditation, restoration, and the management of mental fatigue. Environ Behav 2001;33(4):480-506.
- 406. Keable D. Relaxation training techniques: a review: I what is relaxation? Br J Occup Ther 1985;48(4):99-102.
- 407. Kelley PL. Stress management strategies in the workplace: a meta-analysis of stress intervention techniques [dissertation]. State College (PA): Pennsylvania State University; 1995.
- 408. Kelly R. Sacred sound therapy for healing, spiritual growth and meditation. Positive Health 2003;(93):13-6.
- 409. Kemp CA. Qigong as a therapeutic intervention with older adults. J Holist Nurs 2004;22(4):351-73.
- 410. Kennedy JE. Yoga breathing techniques: implications for stress management, health, and psychophysiological research [unpublished manuscript]. 1990; Available at: http://jeksite.org/yoga/resp.pdf.
- 411. Kenney EA, Rejeski WJ, Messier SP. Managing exercise distress: the effect of broad spectrum intervention on affect, RPE, and running efficiency. Can J Sport Sci 1987;12(2):97-105.
- 412. Kerr GA, Kotynia F, Kolt GS. Feldenkraiss awareness through movement and state anxiety. J Bodywork Movement Ther 2002;6(2):102-7.
- 413. Kerr K. Relaxation techniques: a critical review. Crit Rev Phys Rehabil Med 2000;12(1):51-89.

- 414. Kessler RS, Patterson DR, Dane J. Hypnosis and relaxation with pain patients: evidence for effectiveness. Semin Pain Med 2003;1(2):67-78.
- 415. Khalsa DS. Long deep breathing. J Back Musculoskeletal Rehabil 1998;11(2):153-6.
- 416. Khalsa SB. Yoga as a therapeutic intervention: a bibliometric analysis of published research studies. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2004;48(3):269-85.
- 417. Kim SD, Kim HS. Effects of a relaxation breathing exercise on anxiety, depression, and leukocyte in hemopoietic stem cell transplantation patients. Cancer Nurs 2005;28(1):79-83.
- 418. Kimura H, Nagao F, Tanaka Y, et al. Beneficial effects of the nishino breathing method on immune activity and stress level. J Altern Complement Med 2005;11(2):285-91.
- 419. Kindlon DJ. Comparison of use of meditation and rest in treatment of test anxiety. Psychol Rep 1983;53(3 Pt 1):931-8.
- 420. King MS, Carr T, D'Cruz C. Transcendental meditation, hypertension and heart disease. Aust Fam Physician 2002;31(2):164-8.
- 421. Kishiyama S, Carlsen J, Lawrence J, et al. Yoga as an experimental intervention for cognition in multiple sclerosis. Int J Yoga Ther 2002;12(57-62).
- 422. Kita T, Yokode M, Kume N, et al. The concentration of serum lipids in Zen monks and control males in Japan. Jpn Circ J 1988;52(2):99-104
- 423. Klein PJ, Adams WD. Comprehensive therapeutic benefits of taiji: a critical review. Am J Phys Med Rehabil 2004;83(9):735-45.
- 424. Kleinschnitz KW. An investigation into field effects of consciousness from the perspectives of Maharishi's vedic science and physics [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1997.
- 425. Knight S. Use of transcendental mediation to relieve stress and promote health. Br J Nurs 1995;4(6):315-8.
- 426. Knox SS. Effect of passive concentration as instructional set for training enhancement of EEG alpha. Percept Mot Skills 1980;51(3 Pt 1):767-75.

- 427. Koh TC. Tai chi chuan. Am J Chin Med 1981;9(1):15-22.
- 428. Kokinakis CL. Teaching professional standards: training yoga therapists in loving presence [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1996;57(2A):0588.
- 429. Kokoszka A. Relaxation as an altered state of consciousness: a rationale for a general theory of relaxation. Int J Psychosom 1992;39(1-4):4-9.
- 430. Kolt GS, McConville JC. The effects of a feldenkrais awareness through movement program on state anxiety. J Bodywork Movement Ther 2000;4(3):216-20.
- 431. Kondwani KA, Lollis CM. Is there a role for stress management in reducing hypertension in African Americans? Ethn Dis 2001;11(4):788-92.
- 432. Konzak B, Boudreau F. Martial arts training and mental health: an exercise in self-help. Can Ment Health 1984;32(4):2-8.
- 433. Kornfield JM, Walsh R. Meditation: royal road to the transpersonal. Los Angeles, CA: Jeremy P. Tarcher/Perigee; 1993.
- 434. Krasner M. Mindfulness-based interventions: a coming of age? Fam Syst Health 2004;22(2):207-12.
- 435. Krippner S, Maliszewski M. Meditation and the creative process. Indian J Psychol 1978;1(1):40-58
- 436. Krisanaprakornkit T, Piyavhatkul N, Krisanaprakornkit W, et al. Meditation therapy for anxiety disorders. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2004;(4):CD004998.
- 437. Krishna G. Understanding transformation of consciousness. Fields Within Fields 1974;11:12-28.
- 438. Krishna-Rao PV. Yoga: its scientific and applied aspects. Indian J Psychol 1995;13(2):1-12.
- 439. Kristeller JL. Meditation: multiple effects, a unitary process? In: Blows M, Haruki Y, Bankart, et al. The relevance of the wisdom traditions in contemporary society: the challenge to psychology. Delft: Eburon Academic Publishers; 2004.
- 440. Kristeller JL, Johnson T. Science looks at spirituality: cultivating loving kindness: a two stage model of the effects of meditation on empathy, compassion, and altruism. Zygon 2005;40(2):391-407.

- 441. Kristof M, Servit Z, Manas K. Activating effect of nasal air flow on epileptic electrographic abnormalities in the human EEG: evidence for the reflex origin of the phenomenon. Physiol Bohemoslov 1981;30(1):73-7.
- 442. Kron J. Meditation. J Complement Med 2004;3(2):32-6.
- 443. Krucoff MW, Crater SW, Green CL, et al. Integrative noetic therapies as adjuncts to percutaneous intervention during unstable coronary syndromes: monitoring and actualization of noetic training (MANTRA) feasibility pilot. Am Heart J 2001;142(5):760-9.
- 444. Krucoff MW, Crater SW, Green CL, et al. Novel applications of ECG monitoring for the quantification of noetic phenomena. J Electrocardiol 1999;32(Suppl):22.
- 445. Kuang AK, Wang C, Xu DH, et al. Research on "anti-aging" effect of qigong. J Tradit Chin Med 1991;11(2):153-8.
- 446. Kuchera MM. The effectiveness of meditation techniques to reduce blood pressure levels: a meta-analysis [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;47(11B):4639.
- 447. Kuna DJ. Meditation and work. Vocational Guidance Q 1975;23(4):342-6.
- 448. Kurtz R. Foundations of Hakomi therapy. Hakomi Forum 1985;3-7.
- 449. Kurtz R. On the uniqueness of Hakomi. Hakomi Forum 1987;(5):2-8.
- 450. Kurup J. Role of yoga vasthi in the treatment of gridhrasi. Rheumatism 1989;25(1):52-4.
- 451. Kutz I, Borysenko JZ, Benson H. Meditation and psychotherapy: a rationale for the integration of dynamic psychotherapy, the relaxation response, and mindfulness meditation. Am J Psychiatry 1985;142(1):1-8.
- 452. La Flamme DM. Holotropic breathwork and altered states of consciousness [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1994;55(2B):597.
- 453. La Forge R. Mind-body fitness: encouraging prospects for primary and secondary prevention. J Cardiovasc Nurs 1997;11(3):53-65.
- 454. Ladd KL, Spilka B. Inward, outward, and upward: cognitive aspects of prayer. J Sci Study Relig 2002;41(3):475-84.

- 455. Laird SP. A preliminary investigation into the role of prayer as a coping technique for adult patients with arthritis [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1993;54(1B):476.
- 456. Laird SP, Snyder CR, Rapoff MA, et al. Measuring private prayer: development, validation, and clinical application of the multidimensional prayer inventory. Int J Psychol Relig 2004;14(4):251-72.
- 457. Lake J. Qigong. In: Shannon S, ed. Handbook of complementary and alternative medicines in mental health. San Diego, CA: Academic Press; 2001.
- 458. Lan C, Lai JS, Chen SY. Tai chi chuan: an ancient wisdom on exercise and health promotion. Sports Med 2002;32(4):217-24.
- 459. Landsman-Dijkstra JJA, Van Wijck R, Groothoff JW, et al. The short-term effects of a body awareness program: better self-management of health problems for individuals with chronic aspecific psychosomatic symptoms. Patient Educ Couns 2004;55(2):155-67.
- 460. Langer EJ, Piper A. Television from a mindful/mindless perspective. Appl Soc Psychol Ann 1988;8:247-60.
- 461. Lantz MS, Buchalter EN, McBee L. The wellness group: a novel intervention for coping with disruptive behavior among elderly nursing home residents. Gerontologist 1997;37(4):551-6. Erratum in: Gerontologist 1997;37(5):687.
- 462. Larkin M. Meditation may reduce heart attack and stroke risk. Lancet 2000;355(9206):812.
- 463. Lasater J. Down in the back: poses for lower back pain. Altern Ther Health Med 1995;1(5):72-82.
- 464. Lavery LL, Studenski SA. Tai chi, falls, and the heritage of JAGS. J Am Geriatr Soc 2003;51(12):1804-5.
- 465. Lazarus AA. Psychiatric problems precipitated by transcendental meditation. Psychol Rep 1976;39(2):601-2.
- 466. Lee M. Phoenix rising yoga therapy: a bridge from body to soul. Deerfield Beach, FL: Health Communications Inc; 1997.

- 467. Lee MS, Huh HJ, Hong SS, et al. Psychoneuroimmunological effects of qi-therapy: preliminary study on the changes of level of anxiety, mood, cortisol and melatonin and cellular function of neutrophil and natural killer cells. Stress Health 2001;17(1):17-24.
- 468. Lee MS, Jang JW, Jang HS, et al. Effects of qitherapy on blood pressure, pain and psychological symptoms in the elderly: a randomized controlled pilot trial. Complement Ther Med 2003;11(3):159-64.
- 469. Lee MS, Rim YH, Kang CW. Effects of external qi-therapy on emotions, electroencephalograms, and plasma cortisol. Int J Neurosci 2004;114(11):1493-502.
- 470. Lee Y, Hu PC. The effect of Chinese qi-gong exercises and therapy on diseases and health. Indian J Psychol 1993;11(1-2):9-18.
- 471. Lee YH. Discovering the essential power of t'ai chi ch'uan: the yin and yang of leadership [dissertation]. San Antonia, TX: University of the Incarnate Word; 2002.
- 472. Lehrer PM, Hochron SM, Mayne T, et al. Relationship between changes in EMG and respiratory sinus arrhythmia in a study of relaxation therapy for asthma. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 1997;22(3):183-91.
- 473. Lekander M, Furst CJ, Rotstein S, et al. Immune effects of relaxation during chemotherapy for ovarian cancer. Psychother Psychosom 1997;66(4):185-91.
- 474. Lepicovska V, Dostalek C, Vlcek M. Vasomotor changes effected by breathing manoeuvres. Act Nerv Super (Praha) 1983;25(3):195-6.
- 475. Lerner M. Choices in healing: integrating the best of conventional and complementary approaches to cancer. Cambridge (MA): MIT Press; 1994.
- 476. Leserman J, Stuart EM, Mamish ME, et al. The efficacy of the relaxation response in preparing for cardiac surgery. Behav Med 1989;15(3):111-7
- 477. Lester D. Transcendental meditation in correctional settings: a review and discussion. Correct Soc Psych J Behav Tech Methods Ther 1982;28(2):63-4.
- 478. Levin JS. How prayer heals: a theoretical model. Altern Ther Health Med 1996;2(1):66-73.

- 479. Lewis DE. T'ai chi ch'uan. Complement Ther Nurs Midwifery 2000;(4):204-6.
- 480. Li F, Fisher KJ, Harmer P, et al. A simpler eightform easy tai chi for elderly adults. J Aging Phys Act 2003;11(2):206-18.
- 481. Li JX, Hong Y, Chan KM. Tai chi: physiological characteristics and beneficial effects on health. Br J Sports Med 2001;35(3):148-56.
- 482. Lichstein K, English. Clinical relaxation strategies. Oxford, England: John Wiley & Sons; 1988.
- 483. Lilie JK, Rosenberg RP. Behavioral treatment of insomnia. Prog Behav Modif 1990;25:152-77.
- 484. Lindsay WR, Richardson I, Michie AM. Shortterm generalised effects of relaxation training on adults with moderate and severe mental handicaps. Ment Handicap Res 1989;2(2):197-206.
- 485. Lipinski B. Biological significance of piezoelectricity in relation to acupuncture, hathayoga, osteopathic medicine and action of air ions. Med Hypotheses 1977;3(1):9-12.
- 486. Lo PC, Leu JS. Adaptive baseline correction of meditation EGG. Am J Electroneurodiagnostic Technol 2001;41(2):142-55.
- 487. Loew TH, Tritt K, Siegfried W, et al. Efficacy of 'functional relaxation' in comparison to terbutaline and a 'placebo relaxation' method in patients with acute asthma: a randomized, prospective, placebo-controlled, crossover experimental investigation. Psychother Psychosom 2001;70(3):151-7.
- 488. Logsdon-Conradsen S. Using mindfulness meditation to promote holistic health in individuals with HIV/AIDS. Cogn Behav Pract 2002;9(1):67-72.
- 489. Lohman R. Yoga techniques applicable within drug and alcohol rehabilitation programmes. Therap Communities: Int J Therap Support Organ 1999;20(1):61-72.
- 490. Loveland MT, Sikkink DMDJ, Radcliff B. Private prayer and civic involvement. J Sci Study Relig 2005;44(1):1-14.
- 491. Lowenstein KG. Meditation and self-regulatory techniques. In: Shannon S, ed. Handbook of complementary and alternative therapies in mental health. San Diego, CA: Academic Press; 2002. p. 159-80.

- 492. Lundh LG. An integrative model for the analysis and treatment of insomnia. Scandinavian J Behav Ther 2000;29(3-4):118-26.
- 493. Luskin F. Transformative practices for integrating mind-body-spirit. J Altern Complement Med 2004;10(1 Suppl):S15-23.
- 494. Luskin FM, Newell KA, Griffith M, et al. A review of mind-body therapies in the treatment of cardiovascular disease part 1: implications for the elderly. Altern Ther Health Med 1998;4(3):46-61.
- 495. Lyttle TSK. The feldenkrais method: application, practice and principles. J Bodywork Movement Ther 1997;1(5):262-9.
- 496. Machacova H. Psychological control of stress: relaxation--activation method. Homeost Health Dis 1997;38(2):83-4.
- 497. MacIntosh A, Ball K. The effects of a short program of detoxification in disease-free individuals. Altern Ther Health Med 2000;6(4):70-6.
- 498. Maex E, Zoeteman M, Remie M, et al. Meditation as supportive therapy. Psychooncology 1999;8(6 Suppl):41.
- 499. Magarey C. Healing and meditation in medicalpractice. Aust Med Rec J 1981;1(7):338.
- 500. Magill DL. Cost savings from teaching the transcendental meditation program in prisons. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):319-31.
- 501. Mahal AS, Ramu NG, Chaturvedi DD, et al. Double blind controlled study of brahmyadiyoga and tagara in the management of various types of unmada (schizophrenia). Indian J Psychiatry 1976;18(4):283-92.
- Maier-Lorentz MM. The importance of prayer for mind/body healing. Nurs Forum 2004;39(3):23-32.
- 503. Malmgren-Olsson E, Armelius B, Armelius K. A comparative outcome study of body awareness therapy, feldenkrais, and conventional physiotherapy for patients with nonspecific musculoskeletal disorders: changes in psychological symptoms, pain, and self-image. Physiother Theory Pract 2001;17(2):77-95.
- 504. Maltby J. Personality, prayer, and church attendance among US female adults. J Soc Psychol 1995;135(4):529-31.

- 505. Mamtani R, Cimino A. A primer of complementary and alternative medicine and its relevance in the treatment of mental health problems. Psychiatr Q 2002;73(4):367-81.
- 506. Mamtani R, Mamtani R. Ayurveda and yoga in cardiovascular diseases. Cardiol Rev 2005;13(3):155-62.
- 507. Mancini J, Lavecchia C, Clegg R. Graduate nursing students and stress. J Nurs Educ 1983;22(8):329-34.
- 508. Mandle CL, Jacobs SC, Arcari PM, et al. The efficacy of relaxation response interventions with adult patients: a review of the literature. J Cardiovasc Nurs 1996;10(3):4-26.
- 509. Manley HJ, Bailie GR, Grabe DW. Comparing meditation use in two hemodialysis units against national dialysis databases. Am J Health Syst Pharm 2000;57(9):902-6.
- 510. Mann GV. Dietary intake, the first law of thermodynamics, and the properties of yoga. JAMA 1986;255(9):1136-7.
- Mannerkorpi K. Exercise in fibromyalgia. Curr Opin Rheumatol 2005;17(2):190-4.
- 512. Manocha R. Why meditation? Aust Fam Physician 2000;29(12):1135-8.
- 513. Marcus DA, Scharff L, Turk DC. Nonpharmacological management of headaches during pregnancy. Psychosom Med 1995;57(6):527-35.
- 514. Marcus JB. Transcendental meditation: a new method of reducing drug abuse. Drug Forum 1974;3(2):113-36.
- 515. Marcus JB. Transcendental meditation: consciousness expansion as a rehabilitation technique. J Psychedelic Drugs 1975;7(2):169-79.
- 516. Marks I, Dar R. Fear reduction by psychotherapies: recent findings, future directions. Br J Psychiatry 2000;176:507-11.
- 517. Markula P. "Tuning into one's self": foucault's technologies of the self and mindful fitness. Sociol Sport J 2004;21(3):302-21.
- 518. Marlatt GA, Kristeller JL. Mindfulness and meditation. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association Books; 1999.

- 519. Marlatt GA, Witkiewitz K, Dillworth TM, et al. Vipassana meditation as a treatment for alcohol and drug use disorders. In: Hayes SCE, Follette VH, Linehan MM, eds. Mindfulness and acceptance: expanding the cognitive-behavioral tradition. New York: Guilford Press; 2004. Chapter 12.
- 520. Marler JD. Description of response, relaxation training, and directed imagery as adjuncts to biofeedback training: effects on subsequent hand temperature control [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1978;39(4B):1963.
- 521. Martin JE, Carlson CR. Spiritual dimensions of health psychology. In: Miller WR, Martin JE, eds. Behavior therapy and religion: integrating spiritual and behavioral approaches to change. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Press; 1988. p. 57-110.
- 522. Matsumoto M, Smith JC. Progressive muscle relaxation, breathing exercises, and ABC relaxation theory. J Clin Psychol 2001;57(12):1551-7.
- 523. Mayer M. Qigong and hypertension: a critique of research. J Altern Complement Med 1999;5(4):371-82.
- 524. McCaffrey R, Fowler NL. Qigong practice: a pathway to health and healing. Holist Nurs Pract 2003;17(2):110-6.
- 525. McCarberg B, Wolf J. Chronic pain management in a health maintenance organization. Clin J Pain 1999;15(1):50-7.
- 526. McCarthy M. Yoga in the heartland. Lancet 1993;342(8867):357-8.
- 527. McClernon FJ, Westman EC, Rose JE. The effects of controlled deep breathing on smoking withdrawal symptoms in dependent smokers. Addict Behav 2004;29(4):765-72.
- 528. McCormack GL. The therapeutic benefits of the relaxation response. Occup Ther Pract 1992;4(1):51-60.
- 529. McCracken LM, Carson JW, Eccleston C, et al. Acceptance and change in the context of chronic pain. Pain 2004;109(1-2):4-7.
- 530. McCullough ME, Larson DB. Prayer. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association Books; 1999.
- 531. McDowell B. Mind body medicine: from the relaxation response to mindfulness. Altern Complement Ther 1995;1(2):80-7.

- 532. McKenna M. The application of tai chi chuan in rehabilitation and preventive care of the geriatric population. Phys Occup Ther Geriatr 2001;18(4):23-34.
- 533. McPeake JD, Kennedy BP, Gordon SM. Altered states of consciousness therapy a mission component in alcohol and drug rehabilitation treatment. J Subst Abuse Treat 1991;8(1-2):75-82.
- 534. Meares A. A form of intensive meditation associated with the regression of cancer. Am J Clin Hypn 1983;25(2-3):114-21.
- 535. Meares A. Regression of osteogenic sarcoma metastases associated with intensive meditation. Aust Med Rec J 1978;2(9):433.
- 536. Meares A. Relief of cancer by meditation. Aust Med Rec J 1975;2(17):689.
- 537. Meares A. Stress, meditation and the regression of cancer. Practitioner 1982;226(1371):1607-9.
- 538. Medicate and meditate. Pharm J 2003;270(7256):28.
- 539. Mees PD. Yoga participation surges: exploring the clinical implications. Phys Sportsmed 2005;33(5):12-5.
- 540. Meier D. Imagine that. Train Dev J 1984;38(5):26-9.
- 541. Melmed RN, Roth D, Weinstock-Rosin M, et al. The influence of emotional state on the mobilization of marginal pool leukocytes after insulin-induced hypoglycemia: a possible role for eicosanoids as major mediators of psychosomatic processes. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1987;496:467-76.
- 542. Merrill C, Andersen S. Person centred expressive therapy: an outcome study. In: Brazier D, ed. Beyond Carl Rogers. London: Constable & Robinson; 1993. p. 109-28.
- 543. Meuhlman M. Transcendental meditation. N Engl J Med 1977;297(9):513.
- 544. Mihailescu V, Mihailescu G, Perlman AI, et al. Evolving approaches to management of osteoarthritis. Drug Benefit Trends 2004;16(Suppl C):29-35.

- 545. Mikulas W. Behaviors of the mind, meditation, and health. In: Haruki Y, Kaku KT, eds. Meditation as Health Promotion: A Lifestyle Modification Approach. Proceedings of the 6th Conference; 2000 Jul 20-21; Noordwijkerhout, The Netherlands. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 2000. p. 32-49.
- 546. Miller D. The effects of relaxation training on the frequency of binge episodes. In: Proceedings of the 58th Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; 2000 March 1-4; Savannah, GA [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/events/search2006/showkeysearch.cfm?authorsearch=1. Abstract 1183
- 547. Mitchell JL III. Martin Heidegger's meditative thinking and theravada Buddhist mindfulness: going towards a psychological interface (theravada Buddhism) [dissertation]. San Francisco: California Institute of Integral Studies; 2003.
- 548. Mitchell KR, White RG. Self-management of severe predormital insomnia. J Behav Ther Exp Psychiatry 1977;8(1):57-63.
- 549. Mohan J. Stress management and yoga. Int J Psychol 1996;31(3-4):1818.
- 550. Mohan SM. Svara (nostril dominance) and bilateral volar GSR. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1996;40(1):58-64. Erratum in: Indian J Physiol Pharacol 1996 Oct;40(4):391.
- 551. Molassiotis A, Maneesakorn S. Quality of life, coping and psychological status of Thai people living with AIDS. Psychol Health Med 2004;9(3):350-61.
- 552. Monro R. Yoga therapy. J Bodywork Movement Ther 1997;1(4):215-8.
- 553. Moriconi CB. A systemic treatment program of mindfulness meditation for fibromyalgia patients and their partners [dissertation]. Philadelphia, PA: La Salle University; 2003.
- 554. Morris EL. The relationship of spirituality to coronary heart disease. Altern Ther Health Med 2001;7(5):96-8.
- 555. Morse DR. An exploratory study of the use of meditation alone and in combination with hypnosis in clinical dentistry. J Am Soc Psychosom Dent Med 1977;24(4):113-20.

- 556. Moss D, O'Niell B. Just another technique? Possibilities and paradoxes in working with mindfulness. Clin Psychol 2003;31:29-33.
- 557. Moyer L. The context for Hakomi in the treatment of eating disorders. Hakomi Forum 1986;(4):33-41.
- 558. Mueller D. Yoga therapy. ACSMS Health Fitness J 2002;6(1):18-24.
- 559. Mueller KM. The psychological effects of a "meditative therapy". Int J Psychol 1996;31(3-4):45438.
- 560. Mullen K. Pleasing to behold: healing and the visualized body. Ment Health Religion Cult 2001;4(2):119-32.
- 561. Murakawa H. Phenomenology of the experience of qigong: a preliminary research design for the intentional bodily practices [dissertation]. San Francisco: California Institute for Integral Studies; 2002.
- 562. Muramoto S. Buddhism, religion and psychotherapy in the world today. In: Young-Eisendrath P, Muramoto S, eds. Awakening and insight: Zen Buddhism and psychotherapy. New York: Taylor & Francis Group/Brunner-Routledge; 2002. p. 15-29.
- 563. Murase T, Johnson F. Naikan, Morita, and Western psychotherapy: a comparison. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1974;31(1):121-8.
- 564. Murphy LR. Occupational stress management: a review and appraisal. J Occup Psychol 1984;57(1):1-15.
- 565. Murray JB. What is meditation? Does it help? Genet Psychol Monogr 1982;106(1):85-115.
- 566. Myers MJ. Psychological and other scientific perspectives of the new paradigm providing a rationale for meditation techniques in consciousness development [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;46(6A):1553.
- 567. Naga-Venkatesha-Murthy PJ, Gangadhar BN, Janakiramaiah N, et al. Normalization of P300 amplitude following treatment in dysthymia. Biol Psychiatry 1997;42(8):740-3.
- 568. Narayanan J, Krishnan VR. Impact of sativa and rajas gunas on transformational leadership and karma yoga. Indian J Psychol 2003;21(2):1-11.

- 569. Nash JM. Psychologic and behavioral management of tension-type headache: treatment procedures. Curr Pain Headache Rep 2003;7(6):475-81.
- 570. Nathan JH. Sitting, laboring, and changing: a critical examination of the indigenous Japanese psychotherapies. Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1990;33(3):163-70.
- 571. Naveen KV. Yoga and psychosis: risks and therapeutic potential. Indian J Psychol 2003;21(1):34-7.
- 572. Naveen KV, Telles S. Sensory perception during sleep and meditation: common features and differences. Percept Mot Skills 2003;96(3 Pt 1):810-1.
- 573. Nayak NN, Shankar K. Yoga: a therapeutic approach. Phys Med Rehabil Clin N Am 2004;15(4):783-98, vi.
- 574. Nelson MO, Jarratt K. Spiritual and mental health care of persons with AIDS. Individual Psychol: J Adlerian Theory Res Pract 1987;43(4):479-89.
- 575. Nespor K. The combination of psychiatric treatment and yoga. Int J Psychosom 1985;32(2):24-7.
- 576. Nespor K. Pain management and yoga. Int J Psychosom 1991;38(1-4):76-81.
- 577. Nespor K. Psychosomatics of back pain and the use of yoga. Int J Psychosom 1989;36(1-4):72-8.
- 578. Nespor K. Yoga in addictive diseases: practical experience. Alcologia 2001;13(1):21-5.
- 579. Neuberg A. Bridging secular and spiritual approaches to neurotic misery and everyday unhappiness: a dialogue between psychoanalysis and Jewish and Zen Buddhist mystical traditions [dissertation]. New York: New York University; 2003
- 580. Newberg AB. The neuropsychology of ritual and meditative states. Psyche En Geloof 2002;13(4):174-84.
- 581. Newberg AB, Iversen J. The neural basis of the complex mental task of meditation: neurotransmitter and neurochemical considerations. Med Hypotheses 2003;61(2):282-91
- 582. Newman BY. Meditation as therapy. Optometry 2000;71(9):555.

- 583. Ng BY. Qigong-induced mental disorders: a review. Aust N Z J Psychiatry 1999;33(2):197-206
- 584. Nicholas PK, Webster A. A behavioral medicine intervention in persons with HIV. Clin Nurs Res 1996;5(4):391-406.
- 585. Nicolson DJ, Dickinson HO, Campbell F, et al. Relaxation therapies for the management of essential hypertension in adults. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews. 2004(3): CD004935.
- 586. Nidich SI, Nidich RJ, Alexander CN. Moral development and higher states of consciousness. J Adult Dev 2000;7(4):217-25.
- 587. Noe A. Self psychology, buddhism, and mindfulness meditation: an integrated conceptualization and treatment approach for women experiencing post-abortion distress [dissertation]. Chicago (IL): Chicago School of Professional Psychology; 2004.
- 588. Nonsurgical treatment is effective for carpal tunnel syndrome. J Fam Pract 2004;53(9):685.
- 589. Norton GR, Johnson WE. A comparison of two relaxation procedures for reducing cognitive and somatic anxiety. J Behav Ther Exp Psychiatry 1983;14(3):209-14.
- 590. Novick PK. A phenomenological inquiry into the experience and sources of meaning-perspective shift among participants in a ten-session holistic health program [dissertation]. Cincinnati: Union Institute University; 1994.
- 591. O'Connell DF, Alexander CN. Introduction: recovery from addictions using transcendental meditation and Maharishi ayur-veda. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(1-2):1-10.
- 592. O'Connor D, Marshall S, Massy-Westropp N. Non-surgical treatment (other than steroid injection) for carpal tunnel syndrome. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2003;(1):CD003219.
- 593. O'Connor PJ, Pronk NP, Tan A, et al. Characteristics of adults who use prayer as an alternative therapy. Am J Health Promot 2005;19(5):369-75.
- 594. O'Hara DP. Is there a role for prayer and spirituality in health care? Med Clin North Am 2002;86(1):33-46.

- 595. O'Murchu D. Spirituality, recovery, and transcendental meditation. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(1-2):169-84.
- 596. O'Neill LM, Barnier AJ, McConkey K. Treating anxiety with self-hypnosis and relaxation. Contemp Hypn 1999;16(2):68-80.
- 597. Oman D, Beddoe AE. Health interventions combining meditation with learning from spiritual exemplars: conceptualization and review. In: Proceedings of the 2005 SBM Annual Meeting; 2005 Apr 13-16; Boston (MA) [cited 2005 Oct 10]. Available at: http://www.sbm.org/meeting/2005/SBM\_fp05.pd f. Society of Behavioral Medicine Annual Meeting. Paper Session #25.
- 598. Oman D, Driskill JD. Holy name repetition as a spiritual exercise and therapeutic technique. J Psychol Christianity 2003;22(1):5-19.
- 599. Omura Y. Storing of qi gong energy in various materials and drugs (qi gongnization): its clinical application for treatment of pain, circulatory disturbance, bacterial or viral infections, heavy metal deposits, and related intractable medical problems by selectively enhancing circulation and drug uptake. Acupunct Electrother Res 1990;15(2):137-57.
- 600. Opat AJ, Cohen MM, Bailey MJ, et al. A clinical trial of the Buteyko breathing technique in asthma as taught by a video. J Asthma 2000;37(7):557-64.
- 601. Orme-Johnson DW. An overview of Charles Alexander's contribution to psychology: developing higher states of consciousness in the individual and the society. J Adult Dev 2000;7(4):199-215.
- 602. Orme-Johnson DW. Preventing crime through the Maharishi Effect. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):257-81.
- 603. Orme-Johnson DW. Transcendental meditation as an epidemiological approach to drug and alcohol abuse: theory, research, and financial impact evaluation. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(1-2):119-68.
- 604. Orme-Johnson DW. Transcendental meditation does not predispose to epilepsy. Med Hypotheses 2005;65(1):201-2.
- 605. Orme-Johnson DW, Herron RE. An innovative approach to reducing medical care utilization and expenditures. Am J Manag Care 1997;3(1):135-44.

- 606. Orme-Johnson DW, Zimmerman E, Hawkins MA. Maharishi's vedic psychology: the science of the cosmic psyche. In: Kao HSR, Sinha D, ed. Asian perspectives on psychology. New Delhi, India: Sage Publications; 1997. p. 282-308.
- 607. Ormrod J, Budd R. A comparison of 2 treatment interventions aimed at lowering anxiety levels and alcohol-consumption amongst alcohol abusers. Drug Alcohol Depend 1991;27(3):233-43
- 608. Osowiec DA. Yogic breathwork and ultradian hypnosis. In: Leskowitz ED, ed. Transpersonal hypnosis: gateway to body, mind and spirit. Boca Raton, LA: CRC Press; 2000. p. 71-84.
- 609. Ost LG. Applied relaxation in the treatment of panic disorder. Scandinavian J Behav Ther 1988;17(2):111-24.
- 610. Ost LG. Applied relaxation vs progressive relaxation in the treatment of panic disorder. Behav Res Ther 1988;26(1):13-22.
- 611. Otani A. Eastern meditative techniques and hypnosis: a new synthesis. Am J Clin Hypn 2003;46(2):97-108.
- 612. Ott MJ. Mindfulness meditation: a path of transformation and healing. J Psychosoc Nurs Ment Health Serv 2004;42(7):22-9.
- 613. Owoeye IO. Samadhi tank: a floatcell for enhancement of learning and management of stress and some painful conditions. J Nigeria Soc of Physiother 1994;12(2):46-59.
- 614. Oyao DA. Implementation of yoga therapy for peak athletic performance training. J Sports Chiropractic Rehabil 1996;10(3):123-9.
- 615. Paradarami D. Yoga as neuropsychological modifier. Int J Psychol 2004;39(5-6 Suppl):377.
- 616. Paranjpe AC. Parapsychology and patanjali's yoga. Indian J Psychol 1985;4(2):13-20.
- 617. Parati G, Steptoe A. Stress reduction and blood pressure control in hypertension: a role for transcendental meditation? J Hypertens 2004;22(11):2057-60.
- 618. Park M, Park Y, Chang S, et al. Effects of qigong on the concentration of free radicals in blood. J Int Soc Life Inf Sci 2000;18(2):358-60.
- 619. Parshad O. Role of yoga in stress management. West Indian Med J 2004;53(3):191-4.

- 620. Patel CH. 12-month follow-up of yoga and biofeedback in the management of hypertension. Lancet 1975;1(7898):62-4.
- 621. Patel CH. Yoga and biofeedback in the management of hypertension. J Psychosom Res 1975;19(5-6):355-60.
- 622. Patel CH, Carruthers ME. Coronary risk factor reduction through biofeedback-aided relaxation and meditation. J R Coll Gen Pract 1977;27(180):401-5.
- 623. Patel CH, Datey KK. Relaxation and biofeedback techniques in the management of hypertension. Angiology 1976;27(2):106-13.
- 624. Pathak MP, Mishra LS. Rehabilitation of mentally retarded through yoga therapy. Child Psychiatry Q 1984;17(4):153-8.
- 625. Paul GL, Trimble RW. Recorded vs. "live" relaxation training and hypnotic suggestion: comparative effectiveness for reducing physiological arousal and inhibiting stress response. Behav Ther 1970;1(3):285-302.
- 626. Pearl JH. The effects of TM-Sidhi meditation on nearby, non-meditating subjects. Indian J Psychol 1986;5(1):24-31.
- 627. Pearson CA. The supreme awakening:
  Maharishi's model of higher states of
  consciousness applied to the experiences of
  individuals through history (Maharishi Mahesh
  Yogi) [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi
  International University; 2002.
- 628. Pekala RJ. The phenomenology of meditation. In: West MA, ed. The psychology of meditation. Oxford: Clarendon Press; 1990. p. 59-80.
- 629. Pekala RJ, Forbes EJ. Subjective effects of several stress management strategies: with reference to attention. Behav Med 1990;16(1):39-43.
- 630. Pekala RJ, Levine RL. Quantifying states of consciousness via an empiricalphenomenological approach. Imagination Cogn Pers 1983;2(1):51-71.
- 631. Pekala RJ, Wenger CF, Levine RL. Individual differences in phenomenological experience: states of consciousness as a function of absorption. J Pers Soc Psychol 1985;48(1):125-32.

- 632. Perez de Albeniz A, Holmes J. Meditation: concepts, effects and uses in therapy. Int J Psychother 2000;5(1):49-58.
- 633. Perry GH. The effects of breathing exercises and progressive relaxation on anxiety among newly-abstinent alcoholics [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;46(5A):1196.
- 634. Peterson C, Monti DA. Mindfulness-mased art therapy (Mbat) for persons with cancer. Psychooncology 2005;14(1 Suppl):S24-5.
- 635. Pettinati PM. Meditation, yoga, and guided imagery. Nurs Clin North Am 2001;36(1):47-56.
- 636. Piazza-Waggoner CA, Cohen LL, Kohli K, et al. Stress management for dental students performing their first pediatric restorative procedure. J Dent Educ 2003;67(5):542-8.
- 637. Piggins D, Morgan D. Note upon steady visual fixation and repeated auditory stimulation in meditation and the laboratory. Percept Mot Skills 1977;44(2):357-8.
- 638. Pilkington K, Kirkwood G, Rampes H, et al. Yoga for depression: the research evidence. J Affect Disord 2005;89(1-3):13-24.
- 639. Plummer JP. Acupuncture and homeostasis: physiological, physical (postural) and psychological. Am J Chin Med 1981;9(1):1-14.
- 640. Pollard I. Meditation and brain function: a review. Eubios J Asian Int Bioethics 2004;14:28-34.
- 641. Poloma MM, Pendleton BF. The effects of prayer and prayer experiences on measures of general well-being. J Psychol Theol 1991;19(1):71-83.
- 642. Pookayaporn J. Wisdom and compassion in action: theravada Buddhist nuns as facilitators of healing [dissertation]. San Francisco: California Institute for Integral Studies; 2002.
- 643. Poppen R, Wu JH. Physiological and psychological effects of tai chi practice. Biofeedback Self Regul 1996;21(4):380.
- 644. Potts SG, Lewin R, Fox KAA, et al. Group psychological treatment for chest pain with normal coronary arteries. Qjm: Monthly J Assoc Physicians 1999;92(2):81-6.
- 645. Prestwood K, Petrovic K, Kerins G. Complementary and alternative medicine for older adults with intellectual disabilities. Conn Med 2004;68(8):505-6.

- 646. Proulx K. Integrating mindfulness-based stress reduction. Holist Nurs Pract 2003;17(4):201-8.
- 647. Purdy M. Spiritual variations: developing a death perspective and its effects on quality of life [dissertation]. Reno: University of Nevada; 2004.
- 648. Qian M. Taijiquan, human mental activity and health. In: Haruki Y, Kaku KT, eds. Meditation as Health Promotion: A Lifestyle Modification Approach. Proceedings of the 6th Conference; 2000 Jul 20-21; Noordwijkerhout, The Netherlands. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 2000. p. 50-64.
- 649. Rachman AW. Clinical meditation in groups. Psychother: Theory Res Pract 1981;18(2):252-8.
- 650. Radford J. What can we learn from Zen? a review and some speculations. Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1976;19(2):57-66.
- 651. Raghuraj P, Telles S. Effect of yoga-based and forced uninostril breathing on the autonomic nervous system. Percept Mot Skills 2003;96(1):79-80.
- 652. Rainforth M, Schneider RH, Nidich SI, et al. Meditation in the prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease: a review of controlled clinical research on the transcendental meditation program. In: Proceedings of the 60th Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; 2002 March 13-16; Barcelona, Spain [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/events/search2006/showkeysearch.cfm?authorsearch=1. Abstract 1774.
- 653. Rajagopal D, Mackenzie E, Bailey C, et al. The effectiveness of a spiritually-based intervention to alleviate subsyndromal anxiety and minor depression among older adults. J Relig Health 2002;41(2):153-66.
- 654. Rajeswari KR, Satyanarayana M, Narayan PV, et al. Effect of extremely low frequency magnetic field on serum cholinesterase in humans and animals. Indian J Exp Biol 1985;23(4):194-7.
- 655. Rajski P. Finding God in the silence: contemplative prayer and therapy. J Relig Health 2003;42(3):181-90.
- 656. Ram FS, Holloway EA, Jones PW. Breathing retraining for asthma. Respir Med 2003;97(5):501-7.

- 657. Ramachandran NP, Vijayan NP, Bhagavathy-Amma KC, et al. Action of sahacharadi yoga in khanja and pangu. Ancient Sci Life 1984;4(1):20-7
- 658. Ramaratnam S. Yoga for epilepsy: methodological issues. Seizure 2001;10(1):3-6.
- 659. Ramaratnam S, Sridharan K. Yoga for epilepsy. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2000;(3):CD001524.
- 660. Ramberg JBT. The effects of reading the Vedic literature on personal evolution in the light of Maharishi Vedic science and technology [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Marharishi International University; 1999.
- 661. Rao A. Supporting Australians with cancer: a critical review of complementary therapies in oncology. Cancer Forum 2004;28(2):88-91.
- 662. Rao KR. Meditation: secular and sacred: a review and assessment of some recent research. J Indian Acad Appl Psychol 1989;15(2):51-74.
- 663. Rasmussen LB. Medical effects of transcendental meditation. Tidsskr Nor Laegeforen 2002;122(2):220.
- 664. Raub JA. Psychophysiologic effects of hatha yoga on musculoskeletal and cardiopulmonary function: a literature review. J Altern Complement Med 2002;8(6):797-812.
- 665. Rawson JR, Bhatnagar NS, Schneider HG. Initial relaxation response: personality and treatment factors. Psychol Rep 1985;57(3 Pt 1):827-30.
- 666. Ray TK. Hatha yoga: an exercise in biofeedback for youthful health. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 2002;27(4):316.
- 667. Reed H. Improved dream recall associated with meditation. J Clin Psychol 1978;34(1):150-6.
- 668. Regner VA. Reexamining Christian conversion experiences: considering kundalini awakenings and spiritual emergencies [dissertation]. Claremont, CA: Claremont School of Theology; 1998
- 669. Reinecke MA, Davison MR. Comparative treatments of depression: entering the Zen garden. In: Reinecke MA, Davison MR, eds. Comparative treatments of depression. New York: Springer Publishing; 2002. p. 453-63.

- 670. Reinemann D. ROM dance: a treatment for symptoms of depression and anxiety in adults with mental retardation [dissertation]. DeKalb, IL: Northern Illinois University; 1999.
- 671. Reza MF, Urakami Y, Mano Y. Evaluation of a new physical exercise taken from salat (prayer) as a short-duration and frequent physical activity in the rehabilitation of geriatric and disabled patients. Ann Saudi Med 2002;22(3-4):177-80.
- 672. Rickard HC, Thrasher KA, Elkins PD. Responses of persons who are mentally retarded to four components of relaxation instruction. Ment Retard 1984;22(5):248-52.
- 673. Riley D. Hatha yoga and the treatment of illness. Altern Ther Health Med 2004;10(2):20-1.
- 674. Ritz T. Relaxation therapy in adult asthma: is there new evidence for its effectiveness? Behav Modif 2001;25(4):640-66.
- 675. Rohsenow DJ, Monti PM, Martin RA, et al. Motivational enhancement and coping skills training for cocaine abusers: effects on substance use outcomes. Addiction 2004;99(7):862-74.
- 676. Rohsenow DJ, Monti PM, Martin RA, et al. Brief coping skills treatment for cocaine abuse: 12month substance use outcomes. J Consult Clin Psychol 2000;68(3):515-20.
- 677. Rohsenow DJ, Monti PM, Rubonis AV, et al. Cue exposure with coping skills training and communication skills training for alcohol dependence: 6- and 12-month outcomes. Addiction 2001;96(8):1161-74.
- 678. Roney-Dougal SM. On a possible psychophysiology of the yogic chakra system. Indian J Psychol 1999;17(2):18-40.
- 679. Roscoe SS. Mind-body conversations: hypnosis, meditation, and poetry [dissertation]. Fort Lauderdale-Davie, FL: Nova Southeastern University; 1997.
- 680. Rosen AS, Nordquist TA. Ego developmental level and values in yogic community. J Pers Soc Psychol 1980;39(1-6):1152-60.
- 681. Rosengren KS, Christou EA, Yang Y, et al. Quantification of taiji learning in older adults. J Am Geriatr Soc 2003;51(8):1186-7.
- 682. Rossi EL. From mind to molecule: a statedependent memory, learning, and behavior theory of mind body healing. Advances 1987;4(2):46-60.

- 683. Roth B. Mindfulness-based stress reduction in the inner city. Advances 1997;13(4):50-8.
- 684. Roth B, Creaser T. Mindfulness meditation-based stress reduction: experience with a bilingual inner-city program. Nurse Pract 1997 Mar;22(3):150-2,154,157. Erratum in: Nurse Pract 1997 May;22(5):215.
- 685. Roy D. Stress management: some Indian concepts. Abhigyan 2000;18(1):1-7.
- 686. Rubottom RL. The differences and similarities of Zen, autogenic training, hypnosis and acupuncture. J Am Inst of Hypn 14(5):226-7.
- 687. Rutledge JC, Hyson DA, Garduno D, et al. Lifestyle modification program in management of patients with coronary artery disease: the clinical experience in a tertiary care hospital. J Cardiopulm Rehabil 1999;19(4):226-34.
- 688. Ryan PL. A personal account: Eastern meditation group. In: Langone MD, ed. Recovery from cults. New York: WW Norton; 1993. p.129-39.
- 689. Rybarczyk B, DeMarco G, DeLaCruz M, et al. Comparing mind-body wellness interventions for older adults with chronic illness: classroom versus home instruction. Behav Med 1999;24(4):181-90.
- 690. Rybarczyk B, DeMarco G, DeLaCruz M, et al. A classroom mind/body wellness intervention for older adults with chronic illness: comparing immediate and 1-year benefits. Behav Med 2001;27(1):15-27.
- 691. Sager DE, Sager WG. SANCTUS Marriage enrichment. Fam J: Counc Ther Couples Fam 2005;13(2):212-8.
- 692. Sakin-Wolf S. Adler: east, west, and beyond. J Individ Psychol 2003;59(1):72-83.
- 693. Salmon PG, Santorelli SF, Kabat-Zinn J. Intervention elements promoting adherence to mindfulness-based stress reduction programs in the clinical behavioral medicine setting. Shumaker SAE, Schron EBE, Ockene JKE, et al., eds. The handbook of health behavior change. 2nd ed. New York: Springer Publishing Co.; 1998. p. 239-68.
- 694. Salmon PG, Sephton SE, Weissbecker I, et al. Mindfulness meditation in clinical practice. Cogn Behav Pract 2004;11(4):434-46.

- 695. Samano ES, Goldenstein PT, Ribeiro LdeM, et al. Praying correlates with higher quality of life: results from a survey on complementary/alternative medicine use among a group of Brazilian cancer patients. Sao Paulo Med J 2004;122(2):60-3.
- 696. Sancier KM. Electrodermal measurements for monitoring the effects of a qigong workshop. J Altern Complement Med 2003;9(2):235-41.
- 697. Sancier KM. Medical applications of qigong. Altern Ther Health Med 1996;2(1):40-6.
- 698. Sancier KM. Therapeutic benefits of qigong exercises in combination with drugs. J Altern Complement Med 1999;5(4):383-9.
- 699. Sandlund ES, Norlander T. The effects of tai chi chuan relaxation and exercise on stress responses and well-being: an overview of research. Int J Stress Manage 2000;7(2):139-49.
- 700. Saraswati A. Yoga, a holistic approach to mentalhealth. J Dharma 1995;20(3):287-96.
- 701. Save-Mundra J. The contextual, theoretical, and procedural basis of mantra meditation and guidelines for its integration in standard psychotherapy practice [dissertation]. West Hartford, CT: University of Hartford; 2002.
- 702. Sheng WJ. Chinese qigong and qigong psychology In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 77-94.
- 703. Scherer-Dickson N. Current developments of metacognitive concepts and their clinical implications: mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for depression. Couns Psychol Q 2004;17(2):223-34.
- 704. Scheufele PM. The effects of progressive relaxation and music on attention, relaxation, and stress responses: an investigation of the cognitive-behavioral model of relaxation [dissertation]. Bethesda, MD: Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences; 1999.
- 705. Schmidt TFH, Wijga AH, Robra BP, et al. Yoga training and vegetarian nutrition reduce cardiovascular risk factors in healthy Europeans. [erratum] Homeost Health Dis 1995;36(2-3):66.

- 706. Schmidt-Wilk J, Alexander CN, Swanson GC. Developing consciousness in organizations: the transcendental meditation program in business. J Bus Psychol 1996;10(4):429-44.
- 707. Schneider RH, Alexander CN, Salerno JW, et al. Disease prevention and health promotion in the aging with a traditional system of natural medicine: Maharishi vedic medicine. J Aging Health 2002;14(1):57-78.
- 708. Schneider RH, Alexander CN, Staggers F, et al. Long-term effects of stress reduction on mortality in persons > or = 55 years of age with systemic hypertension. Am J Cardiol 2005;95(9):1060-4.
- 709. Schneider RH, Alexander CN, Wallace RK. In search of an optimal behavioral treatment for hypertension: a review and focus on transcendental meditation. In: Johnson EH, Gentry WD, Julius S, eds. Personality, elevated blood pressure, and essential hypertension. Washington, DC: Hemisphere Publishing Corp; 1992. p. 291-316.
- 710. Schneider RH, Cavanaugh KL, Kasture HS, et al. Health promotion with a traditional system of natural health care: Maharishi ayur-veda. J Soc Behav Pers 1990;5(3):1-27.
- 711. Schneider RH, Rainforth M, Nidich SI, et al. Meditation in the prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease: a review of controlled clinical research on the transcendental meditation program. Psychosom Med 2002;64(1):155.
- 712. Schulte HJ, Abhyanker VV. Yogic breathing and psychologic states. Ariz Med 1979;36(9):681-3.
- 713. Schuster DH. Preliminary evaluation of PAMFA: psychological assist to medical first aid. J Clin Psychol 1975;31(1):97-100.
- 714. Scott DW, Donahue DC, Mastrovito RC, et al. The antiemetic effect of clinical relaxation: report of an exploratory pilot study. J Psychosoc Oncol 1983;1(1):71-84.
- 715. Secheny S. Regression of cancer of the rectum after intensive meditation. Aust Med Rec J 1980;1(3):136-7.
- 716. Seeman TE, Dubin LF, Seeman M. Religiosity/spirituality and health: a critical review of the evidence for biological pathways. Am Psychol 2003;58(1):53-63.

- 717. Seer P. Psychological control of essential hypertension: review of the literature and methodological critique. Psychol Bull 1979;86(5):1015-43.
- 718. Segal ZV, Teasdale JD, Williams JMr. The mindfulness-based cognitive therapy adherence scale: inter-rater reliability, adherence to protocol and treatment distinctiveness. Clin Psychol Psychother 2002;9(2):131-8.
- 719. Segal ZV, Teasdale JD, Williams JMG. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy: theoretical rationale and empirical status. In: Hayes SC, Follette V, Linehan MM, eds. Mindfulness and acceptance: expanding the cognitive-behavioral tradition. New York: Guilford Publications; 2004.
- 720. Segal ZV, Williams JMG, Teasdale JD. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for depression: a new approach to preventing relapse. New York: Guilford Press; 2002.
- Selvamurthy W. Application of yoga and ayurveda in stress management: scientific perspectives. Int J Psychol 2000;35(3-4):186.
- 722. Sequeira W. Yoga in treatment of carpal-tunnel syndrome. Lancet 1999;353(9154):689-90.
- 723. Servit Z, Kristof M, Strejekova A. Activating effect of nasal and oral hyperventilation on epileptic electrographic phenomena: reflex mechanisms of nasal origin. Epilepsia 1981;22(3):321-9.
- 724. Shan G, Daniels D, Gu R. Artificial neural networks and center-of-pressure modeling: a practical method for sensorimotor-degradation assessment. J Aging Phys Act 2004;12(1):75-89.
- 725. Shan H. Culture-bound psychiatric disorders associated with qigong practice in China. Hong Kong J Psychiatry 2000;10(4):12-4.
- 726. Shang C. Emerging paradigms in mind-body medicine. J Altern Complement Med 2001;7(1):83-91.
- 727. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. Complementary healthcare practices stress management for gastrointestinal disorders: the use of Kundalini yoga meditation techniques. Gastroenterol Nurs 2002;25(3):126-9.
- 728. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. An introduction to Kundalini yoga meditation techniques that are specific for the treatment of psychiatric disorders. J Altern Complement Med 2004;10(1):91-101.

- 729. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. Kundalini yoga meditation techniques for the treatment of obsessive-compulsive and OC spectrum disorders. Brief Treatment Crisis Intervent 2003;3(3):369-82.
- 730. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. Patient perspectives: kundalini yoga meditation techniques for psychooncology and as potential therapies for cancer. Integr Cancer Ther 2005;4(1):87-100.
- 731. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. Unilateral forced nostril breathing: basic science, clinical trials, and selected advanced techniques. Subtle Energies Energy Med J 2001;12(2):79-106.
- 732. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS, Bhajan Y. The healing power of sound: techniques from yogic medicine. In: Spintge R, Droh R, eds. Fourth International MUSICMEDICINE symposium 1989; Rancho Mirage, CA. St. Louis: MMB Music; 1992. p. 179-93.
- 733. Shannon JH. The aesthetics of spiritual practice and the creation of moral and musical subjectivities in Aleppo, Syria. Ethnology 2004;43(4):381-91.
- 734. Shannon S, ed. Handbook of complementary and alternative therapies in mental health. San Diego, CA: Academic Press; 2002.
- 735. Shapiro DA. Implications of psychotherapy research for the study of meditation. In: West MA, ed. The psychology of meditation. New York: Clarendon Press/Oxford University Press; 1987. p.173-188.
- 736. Shapiro DH. Examining the content and context of meditation: a challenge for psychology in the areas of stress management, psychotherapy, and religion values. J Hum Psychol 1994;34(4):101-35.
- 737. Shapiro DH. Instructions for a training package combining formal and informal Zen meditation with behavioral self-control strategies.
  Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1978;21(2):70-6.
- 738. Shapiro DH. Meditation as an altered state of consciousness: contributions of Western behavioral science. J Transpersonal Psychol 1983;15(1):61-81.
- 739. Shapiro DH. Meditation: clinical and health-related applications. West J Med 1981;134(2):141-2.

- 740. Shapiro DH. Overview: clinical and physiological comparison of meditation with other self-control strategies. Am J Psychiatry 1982;139(3):267-74.
- 741. Shapiro DH, Zifferblatt SM. Zen meditation and behavior self-control: similarities, differences, and clinical applications. Am Psychol 1976;31(7):519-32.
- 742. Shapiro DH Jr, Giber D. Meditation and psychotherapeutic effects self-regulation strategy and altered state of consciousness. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1978;35(3):294-302.
- 743. Shapiro SL, Walsh R. An analysis of recent meditation research and suggestions for future directions. Hum Psychol 2003;31(2-3):86-114.
- 744. Shapiro SL, Walsh R, Britton WB. An analysis of recent meditation research and suggestions for future directions. J Medit Medit Res 2003;3:69-90
- 745. Sharma AR. Psychotherapy with Hindus. In: Richards S, Bergin AE, eds. Handbook of psychotherapy and religious diversity. Washington DC: American Psychological Association; 2000. Chapter 14.
- 746. Sharma HM, Dillbeck MC, Dillbeck SL. Implementation of the transcendental meditation program and Maharishi ayur-veda to prevent alcohol and drug abuse among juveniles at risk. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(3-4):429-57.
- 747. Sharma I, Singh P. Treatment of neurotic illnesses by yogic techniques. Indian J Med Sci 1989;43(3):76-9.
- 748. Shastri MS. Pranayama in Patanjala yoga sutras. In: Murali TS, ed. Sixth World congress on Holistic Life and Medicine; 1996 Jan; Calicut, India. Kottakkal, India: Arya Vaidya Sala; 1998. p. 129-36.
- 749. Shealy CN, Cady RK, Cox RH. Pain, stress and depression: psychoneurophysiology and therapy. Stress Med 1995;11(2):75-7.
- 750. Sheppard JL. Relaxation and meditation as techniques for stress reduction. In: Sheppard JL, ed. Advances in Behavioural Medicine. Sydney, Australia: Cumberland College of Health Sciences; 1989. p. 137-58.
- 751. Sierpina VS, Carter R. Alternative and integrative treatment of fibromyalgia and chronic fatigue syndrome. Clin Fam Pract 2002;4(4):853-72.

- 752. Siganga WW, Dastani HB. An overview of four nonpharmacologic complementary and alternative medicine modalities. J Pharm Technol 2002;18(4):171-7.
- 753. Sigdell JE. An alternative to the artificial kidney and an ancient procedure of kriya yoga. Ancient Sci Life 1984;4(1):6-8.
- 754. Singh R. Role of yogic exercises/meditation in aircrew stress management. Aviat Space Environ Med 1999;70(9):939.
- 755. Singh RG, Bajpai HS, Udupa KN, et al. Effect of yogic practices on patients of cardiac neurosis. J Mol Cell Cardiol 1978;10(1 Suppl):106.
- 756. Singh RH. Evaluation of some Indian traditional methods of promotion of mental health. Act Nerv Super (Praha) 1986;28(1):67-9.
- 757. Singh V. Effect of respiratory exercises on asthma the pink city lung exerciser. J Asthma 1987;24(6):355-9.
- 758. Singh V, Wisniewski A, Britton J, et al. Effect of yoga breathing exercises (pranayama) on airway reactivity in subjects with asthma. Lancet 1990;335(8702):1381-3.
- 759. Siripoon M. Effect of the relaxation response in patients with essential hypertension [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;47(2B):575.
- 760. Slavit MR. The effects of assessing and utilizing preferred sensory modality: an experiment with relaxation training [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1984;44(9B):2907.
- Smith A. Clinical uses of mindfulness training for older people. Behav Cogn Psychother 2004;32(4):423-30.
- 762. Smith JC. Meditation as psychotherapy: a review of the literature. Psychol Bull 1975;82(4):558-64.
- 763. Smith JC. Meditation, biofeedback, and the relaxation controversy: a cognitive-behavioral perspective. Am Psychol 1986;41(9):1007-9.
- 764. Smith JC, McDuffie SR, Ritchie T, et al. Ethnic and racial differences in relaxation states for recalled relaxation activities. In: Smith JC, ed. Advances in ABC relaxation Training. New York: Springer; 2001. p. 115-6.
- 765. Smith JG. The luminas (TM) mind-body-spirit program: a clinical model of spiritual care for cancer patients [dissertation]. Cincinnati: Union Institute University; 2004.

- 766. Smith PJ. An empirically derived patient-centred behavioural procedure for reducing clinical anxiety. J Integrative Eclectic Psychother 1983;2(2):44-59.
- Snaith P. Meditation and psychotherapy. Br J Psychiatry 1998;179:193-5.
- 768. Snaith P, Owens D, Kennedy E. An outcome study of a brief anxiety management programme: anxiety control training. Ir J Psychol Med 1992;9(2):111-4.
- 769. Snyder M. Relaxation. Annu Rev Nurs Res 1988;6:111-28.
- 770. Sobel DS. Mind matters, money matters: the cost-effectiveness of mind/body medicine. JAMA 2000;284(13):1705.
- 771. Solloway SG. Teachers as contemplative practitioners: presence, meditation, and mindfulness as a classroom practice [dissertation]. Edmond: Oklahoma State University; 1999.
- 772. Solomon EG, Bumpus AK. The running meditation response: an adjunct to psychotherapy. Am J Psychiatry 1978;32(4):583-92.
- 773. Sommer SJ, Hassed CS. Meditation-based stress management for doctors and students. Aust Med Rec J 1995;163(2):112.
- 774. Sothers K, Anchor KN. Prevention and treatment of essential hypertension with meditationrelaxation methods. Med Psychother: Int J 1989;2:137-56.
- 775. Spencer J, Shanor K. Mind-body medicine. In: Shanor KN, ed. The emerging mind. Los Angeles: Reinassance Books; 1999. Chapter 5.
- 776. Srinivasan TM. Pranayama and brain correlates. Ancient Sci Life 1991;11(1-2):1-6.
- 777. Srinivasan S. Vipassana meditation as taught in the meditation centres initiated by S.N. Goenka. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 49-56.
- 778. Stainbrook GL, Hoffman JW, Benson H. Behavioral therapies of hypertension: psychotherapy, biofeedback, and relaxation/meditation. Int Rev Appl Psychol 1983;32(2):119-35.

- 779. Stearns V. Management of hot flashes in breast cancer survivors and men with prostate cancer. Curr Oncol Rep 2004;6(4):285-90.
- 780. Steptoe A. The processes underlying long-term blood pressure reductions in essential hypertensives following behavioural therapy. In: Elbert T, Langosch W, Steptoe A, et al., eds. Behavioral medicine in cardiovascular disorders. New York: Wiley; 1988. p. 139-48.
- 781. Stevens LC. Programs and metaprograms for the control of diabetic symptomatology: a comparative treatment study [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1984;44(11B):3567.
- 782. Stevinson C. Preliminary results suggest that yoga can alleviate depression. Focus Altern Complement Ther 2001;6(1):27-8.
- 783. Stewart RA. Self-realization as the basis of psychotherapy: a look at two Eastern-based practices, transcendental meditation and alpha brain wave biofeedback. Soc Behav Pers 1974;2(2):191-200.
- 784. Stolley JM, Buckwalter KC, Koenig HG. Prayer and religious coping for caregivers of persons with Alzheimer's disease and related disorders. Am J Alzheimers Dis Other Demen 1999;14(3):181-91.
- 785. Storer JH, Frate DA, Banahan BF, et al. Adapting relaxation techniques to rural populations: implications for high blood pressure therapy. J Rural Health 1989;5(1):13-8.
- 786. Stoyva JM. Stress management: what can we learn from the meditative disciplines? In: Kenny DT, Carlson J, McGuigan FJ, et al., eds. Stress and health: research and clinical applications. Amsterdam: Harwood Academic; 2000. p. 179-94.
- 787. Strawbridge WJ, Shema SJ, Cohen RD, et al. Religiosity buffers effects of some stressors on depression but exacerbates others. J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci 1998;53(3):118-26.
- 788. Stuart EM. The efficacy of eliciting the relaxation response in preparing for cardiac surgery [abstract]. Circ Suppl 1988;78(4):II614.
- Subramanian P. Meditation for prevention of disease. Indian J Med Sci 1998;52(3):114-8.
- 790. Suler JR. The tai chi images: a Taoist model of psychotherapeutic change. Psychologia 1991;34(1):18-27.

- 791. Sullivan MJ, Johnson DE, Wood L, et al. A comprehensive mindfulness based psychoeducational intervention for patients with chronic heart failure. Institute for Healing in Society and Medicine, Chapel Hill (NC); 2004. [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.healinginmedicine.org/download/Procedure%20Paper.pdf.
- 792. Susman MP. Regression of metastases associated with intensive meditation. Aust Med Rec J 1979;1(2):59.
- 793. Sutorius D. The transforming force of laughter, with the focus on the laughing meditation. Patient Educ Couns 1995;26(1-3):367-71.
- 794. Svatmarama YS. Hatha yoga pradipika. Woodstock, NY: YogaVidya; 2000.
- 795. Swinyard CA, Chaube S, Sutton DB.

  Neurological and behavioral aspects of transcendental meditation relevant to alcoholism: a review. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1974;233:162-73.
- 796. Syrjala KL, Donaldson GW, Davis MW, et al. Relaxation and imagery and cognitive-behavioral training reduce pain during cancer treatment: a controlled clinical trial. Pain 1995;63(2):189-98.
- 797. Taams MK, Kwee MGT. Transcultural clinical meditation: a new direction in clinical psychology. Int J Psychol 2004;39(5-6 Suppl):112.
- 798. Tacon AM. Meditation as a complementary therapy in cancer. Fam Community Health 2003;26(1):64-73.
- 799. Taggart HM. Self-reported benefits of t'ai chi practice by older women. J Holist Nurs 2001;19(3):223-32;quiz 233-7.
- 800. Takeichi M, Sato T. Studies on the psychosomatic functioning of ill-health according to eastern and western medicine 7 psychoimmuno-endocrinological changes induced by kampo medication and relaxation training. Am J Chin Heath 2001;29(3-4):411-22.
- 801. Tang KC. Qigong therapy: its effectiveness and regulation. Am J Chin Med 1994;22(3-4):235-42.
- 802. Targ R, Katra J. The scentific and spiritual implications of psychic abilities. Altern Ther Health Med 2001;7(3):143-9.

- 803. Taylor DN. Effects of a behavioral stress-management program on anxiety, mood, self-esteem, and T-cell count in HIV positive men. Psychol Rep 1995;76(2):451-7.
- 804. Taylor MJ. Yoga therapeutics: an ancient, dynamic systems theory. Techniques Orthop 2003;18(1):115-25.
- 805. Taylor MJ, Majundmar M. Incorporating yoga therapeutics into orthopaedic physical therapy. Orthop Phys Ther Clin N Am 2000;9(3):341-59.
- 806. Taylor-Piliae RE. Tai chi as an adjunct to cardiac rehabilitation exercise training. J Cardiopulm Rehabil 2003;23(2):90-6.
- 807. Taylor-Piliae RE, Froelicher ES. Effectiveness of tai chi exercise in improving aerobic capacity: a meta-analysis. J Cardiovasc Nurs 2004;19(1):48-57.
- 808. Taylor-Piliae RE, Froelicher ES. Measurement properties of tai chi exercise self-efficacy among ethnic Chinese with coronary heart disease risk factors: a pilot study. Eur J Cardiovasc Nurs 2004;3(4):287-94.
- 809. Taylor SK. Tai chi for chronic pain and arthritis. Techniques Orthop 2003;18(1):110-4.
- 810. Teasdale JD. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy. In: Segal ZV, Williams JMG, Teasdale JD, eds. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for depression: a new approach for preventing relapse. New York: Guildford Publications; 2001. Part II.
- 811. Teasdale JD, Segal ZV, Williams JG. Mindfulness training and problem formulation. Clin Psychol: Sci Pract 2003;10(2):157-60.
- 812. Teasdale JD, Segal ZV, Williams JMG. How does cognitive therapy prevent depressive relapse and why should attentional control (mindfulness) training help? Behav Res Ther 1995;33(1):25-39.
- 813. Telles S, Naveen KV. Yoga for rehabilitation: an overview. Indian J Med Sci 1997;51(4):123-7.
- 814. Thomson RF. Zazen and psychotherapeutic presence. Am J Psychiatry 2000;54(4):531-48.
- 815. Thoresen CE, Oman D, Harris AH. The effects of religious practices: a focus on health. In: Miller WR, Delaney HD. Judeo-Christian perspectives on psychology: Human nature, motivation, and change. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association; 2005. p. 205-26.

- 816. Timio M, Verdecchia P, Ronconi M, et al. Blood pressure changes over 20 years in nuns in a secluded order. J Hypertens Suppl 1985;3(3):S387-8.
- 817. Titlebaum H. Relaxation. In: Zahourek RP, ed. Relaxation and imagery: tools for therapeutic communication and intervention. Philadelphia: WB Saunders; 1988. p. 28-52.
- 818. Todd C. Meditation, mystical and therapeutic. Bull Br Psychol Soc 1981;34:101-2.
- 819. Toivanen H, Lansimies E, Jokela V, et al. Sympathovagal interaction in stress and relaxation heart rate variability in home elps. J Psychophysiol 1994;8(1):11-21.
- 820. Torbert WR, Cook-Greuter SR. Cultivating postformal adult development: higher stages and contrasting interventions. In: Miller M, ed. Transcendence and mature thought in adulthood. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield; 1994. p. 186-201.
- 821. Torneke N. Book review: mindfulness and acceptance; expanding the cognitive-behavioral tradition. Cogn Behav Ther 2005;34(2):124-5.
- 822. Toseland RW, Kabat D, Kemp K. Evaluation of a smoking-cessation group treatment program. Soc Work Res Abstr 1983;19(1):12-9.
- 823. Totton CA. Meditation and altered states: a phenomenological and clinical synthesis [dissertation]. Malibu, CA: Pepperdine University; 1999.
- 824. Travis FT, Arenander A. EEG asymmetry and mindfulness meditation. Psychosom Med 2004;66(1):147.
- 825. Treesak C, Ye X, Sakthong P, et al. Performance of the Sf-12 and rand-12 physical and mental health summary scores in people practicing meditation. Value Health 2003;6(3):361.
- 826. Trunnell EP. Mindfulness and people with stomas. J Wound Ostomy Continence Nurs 1996;23(1):38-45.
- 827. Tsang HWH. Qigong and suicide prevention. Br J Psychiatry 2003;182:266-7.
- 828. Tsang HWH, Cheung L, Lak DCC. Qigong as a psychosocial intervention for depressed elderly with chronic physical illnesses. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry 2002;17(12):1146-54.

- 829. Tseng RK. Qigong: an approach to health and longevity [dissertation]. Cincinnati: Union Institution University; 1998.
- 830. Tyni-Lenne R, Stryjan S, Eriksson B, et al. Beneficial therapeutic effects of physical training and relaxation therapy in women with coronary syndrome X. Physiother Res Int 2002;7(1):35-43.
- 831. Udani JK, Ofman JJ. Tai chi for the prevention of falls in the elderly. Integr Med 1998;1(4):167-9.
- 832. Udupa KN, Singh RH. The scientific basis of yoga. JAMA 1972;220(10):1365.
- 833. Urbanowski FB, Miller JJ. Trauma, psychotherapy, and meditation. J Transpersonal Psychol 1996;28(1):31-48.
- 834. Usandivaras RJ. Therapeutic use of regression in group analysis. Group Analysis 1989;22(2):171-5.
- 835. Van der Lans JM. Frame of reference as a prerequisite for the induction of religious experience through meditation: an experimental study. In: Brown LB, ed. Advances in the Psychology of Religion. Oxford: Pergamon Press; 1985. p. 127-34.
- 836. Van der Lans JM. The value of Sunden's roletheory demonstrated and tested with respect to religious experiences in meditation. J Sci Study Relig 1987;26(3):401-12.
- 837. Van Deusen J, Harlowe D. The efficacy of the ROM dance program for adults with rheumatoid arthritis. Am J Occup Ther 1987;41(2):90-5.
- 838. Van Dixhoorn J. Cardiorespiratory effects of breathing and relaxation instruction in myocardial infarction patients. Biol Psychol 1998;49(1-2):123-35.
- 839. Van Dixhoorn J, Duivenvoorden HJ, Staal HA, et al. Physical training and relaxation therapy in cardiac rehabilitation assessed through a composite criterion for training outcome. Am Heart J 1989;118(3):545-52.
- 840. Varela FJ, Depraz N. Wisdom traditions and the ways of reduction. In: Varela FJ, Depraz N, Vermersch P, eds. On becoming aware: a pragmatics of experiencing. Philadelphia (VA): John Benjamins Publishing Company; 2003. p. 205-31.

- 841. Vasilos JG. Skin temperature control: a comparison of direct instruction, autogenic suggestion, relaxation, and biofeedback training [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1977;38(3B):1427-8.
- 842. Vasilos JG, Hughes HH. Skin temperature control: a comparison of direct instruction, autogenic suggestion, relaxation, and biofeedback training in male prisoners. Correct Soc Psych J Behav Tech Methods Ther 1979;25(4):119-22.
- 843. Velikonja D, Weiss D, Corning WC. The relationship of cortical activation to alternating autonomic activity. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1993;87(1):38-45.
- 844. Verhagen AP, Immink M, van der Meulen A, et al. The efficacy of tai chi chuan in older adults: a systematic review. Fam Pract 2004;21(1):107-13.
- 845. Verma SK, Rao AS. Recent trends in clinical psychological intervention (methods based on other than behaviour therapy). NIMHANS Journal 1996;14(4):307-14.
- 846. Verman M, Shapiro DH. Jewish meditation: context and content historical background, types, purpose. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 95-120.
- 847. Vickers A, Zollman C. ABC of complementary medicine: hypnosis and relaxation therapies. BMJ 1999;319:1346-9.
- 848. Vinck J, Arickx M, Hongenaert M. Predicting interindividual differences in blood-pressure response to relaxation training in normotensives. J Behav Med 1987;10(4):395-410.
- 849. Vitale MS. Use of relaxation training with mentally retarded adults [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1984;44(8B):2572.
- 850. Vrolijk A. Transcendental meditation and dianetics. Gedrag: Tijdschrift Voor Psychologie 1978;6(3-4):181-206.
- 851. Wadden TA, de la Torre CS. Relaxation therapy as an adjunct treatment for essential hypertension. J Fam Pract 1980;11(6):901-8.
- 852. Waelde LC. Dissociation and meditation. J Trauma Dissociation 2004;5(2):147-62.
- 853. Walia IJ, Mehra P, Grover P, et al. Health status of nurses and yoga II: subjects with and withouthealth problems. Nurs J India 1989;80(10):256-8.

- 854. Walker LG. Immunological effects of relaxation training and guided imagery in women with locally advanced breast cancer. Psychooncology 1996;5(3 Suppl):16.
- 855. Wallace JM. Stress, relaxation and meditation. Br Dent J 1982;153(1):29-30.
- 856. Wallace RK, Orme Johnson DW, Mills PJ, et al. Academic achievement and the paired Hoffman reflex in students practicing meditation. Int J Neurosci 1984;24(3-4):261-6.
- 857. Walsh R. Meditation practice and research. J Hum Psychol 1983;23(1):18-50.
- 858. Walsh R. The original goals of meditation. Am J Psychiatry 1982;139(11):1525-6.
- 859. Walsh R. Shamanic experiences: a developmental analysis. J Hum Psychol 2001;41(3):31-52.
- 860. Walsh RN. Asian contemplative disciplines: common practices, clinical applications, and research findings. J Transpersonal Psychol 1999;31(2):83-107.
- 861. Walsh RN. Meditation research: an introduction and review. J Transpersonal Psychol 1979;11(2):161-74.
- 862. Walsh RN. A model for viewing meditation research. J Transpersonal Psychol 1982;14(1):69-84
- 863. Walton KG, Levitsky DK. Effects of the transcendental meditation program on neuroendocrine abnormalities associated with aggression and crime. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):67-87.
- 864. Walton KG, Levitsky DK. A neuroendocrine mechanism for the reduction of drug use and addictions by transcendental meditation. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(1-2):89-117.
- 865. Walton KG, Schneider RH, Nidich SI. Review of controlled research on the transcendental meditation program and cardiovascular disease: risk factors, morbidity, mortality. Cardiol Rev 2004:12(5):262-6.
- 866. Walton KG, Schneider RH, Nidich SI, et al. Psychosocial stress and cardiovascular disease part 2: effectiveness of the transcendental meditation program in treatment and prevention. Behav Med 2003;28(3):106-23.

- 867. Walton KG, Schneider RH, Salerno JW, et al. Psychosocial stress and cardiovascular disease part 3: clinical and policy implications of research on the transcendental meditation program. Behav Med 2005;30(4):173-83.
- 868. Wang C, Collet JP, Lau J. The effect of tai chi on health outcomes in patients with chronic conditions: a systematic review. Arch Intern Med 2004;164(5):493-501.
- 869. Wang C, Yuan XY, Xu DD, et al. Brief introduction to the keep-fit qigong exercise. J Tradit Chin Med 1986;6(4):239-42.
- 870. Wang X. Combination of acupuncture, qigong and herbs in the treatment of parkinsonism. Int J Clin Acupunct 1993;4(1):1-7.
- 871. Watson CG, Tuorila JR, Vickers KS, et al. The efficacies of three relaxation regimens in the treatment of PTSD in Vietnam War veterans. J Clin Psychol 1997;53(8):917-23.
- 872. Watts FN. Psychological research questions about yoga. Ment Health Religion Cult 2000;3(1):71-83.
- 873. Wayne PM, Krebs DE, Wolf SL, et al. Can tai chi improve vestibulopathic postural control? Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2004;85(1):142-52.
- 874. Weber S. The effects of relaxation exercises on anxiety levels in psychiatric inpatients. J Holist Nurs 1996;14(3):196-205.
- 875. Weller KR. Dynamical analysis of human EEG: a comparative study of different states of wakefulness [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1993.
- 876. Wenneberg SR, Schneider RH, Walton KG, et al. Anger expression correlates with platelet aggregation. Behav Med 1997;22(4):174-7.
- 877. West MA. Meditation. Br J Psychiatry 1979;135:457-67.
- 878. West MA. Meditation and the EEG. Psychol Med 1980;10(2):369-75.
- 879. West MA. Meditation: psychology and human experience. In: Claxton G, ed. Beyond therapy: the impact of Eastern religions and psychological theory and practice. London: Wisdom Publications; 1986. p. 245-67.
- 880. West MA. The psychosomatics of meditation. J Psychosom Res 1980;24(5):265-73.

- 881. West MA ed. The psychology of meditation. New York: Oxford University Press; 1987.
- 882. Whitcher-Chenkin SB. Effects of imagery versus relaxation on white blood cell activity [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;46(12B Pt 1):4418.
- 883. Wilbur ME. Zen at work: the use of meditation in nursing practice. Gastroenterol Nurs 2003;26(4):168-9.
- 884. Wilcox JD. Kundalini: a study of spiritual awakening and movement toward the self [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;46(1B):292.
- 885. Williams JMG. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for depression: a new approach to preventing relapse. Eur Psychiatry 2004;19(1 Suppl):76S.
- 886. Williams JMG, Swales M. The use of mindfulness-based approaches for suicidal patients. Arch Suicide Res 2004;8(4):315-29.
- 887. Willis RJ. Meditation to fit the person: psychology and the meditative way. J Relig Health 1979;18(2):93-119.
- 888. Wilson SR, Spencer RC. Intense personal experiences: subjective effects, interpretations, and after-effects. J Clin Psychol 1990;46(5):565-73
- 889. Witte D, Dundes L. Harnessing life energy or wishful thinking? Reiki, placebo reiki, meditation, and music. Altern Complement Ther 2001;7(5):304-9.
- 890. Wittrock DA, Blanchard EB, McCoy GC, et al. The relationship of expectancies to outcome in stress management treatment of essential hypertension: results from the joint USSR-USA behavioral hypertension project. Biofeedback Self Regul 1995;20(1):51-68.
- 891. Wolf SL, Coogler CE, Xu T. Exploring the basis for tai chi chuan as a therapeutic exercise approach. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 1997;78(8):886-92.
- 892. Wolfson L, Whipple R, Derby C, et al. Balance and strength training in older adults: intervention gains and tai chi maintenance. J Am Geriatr Soc 1996;44(5):498-506.
- 893. Wong SS, Nahin RL. National center for complementary and alternative medicine perspectives for complementary and alternative medicine research in cardiovascular diseases. Cardiol Rev 2003;11(2):94-8.

- 894. Woolfolk RL. Psychophysiological correlates of meditation. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1975;32(10):1326-33.
- 895. Wu G. Evaluation of the effectiveness of tai chi for improving balance and preventing falls in the older population: a review. J Am Geriatr Soc 2002;50(4):746-54.
- 896. Yalden J, Chung L. Tai chi: towards an exercise program for the older person. Aust J Holist Nurs 2001;8(1):4-13.
- 897. Yamasaki T. Ajikan meditation of Shingon Buddhism. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 67-76.
- 898. Yan JH, Downing JH. Tai chi: an alternative exercise form for seniors. J Aging Phys Act 1998;6(4):350-62.
- 899. Yang KH, Kim YH, Lee MS. Efficacy of qitherapy (external qigong) for elderly people with chronic pain. Int J Neurosci 2005;115(7):949-63.
- 900. Yardi N. Yoga for control of epilepsy. Seizure 2001;10(1):7-12.
- 901. Young JDE, Taylor E. Meditation as a voluntary hypometabolic state of biological estivation. News Physiol Sci 1998;13:149-53.
- 902. Zabel D, Haynes A. Meditation and health: an annotated bibliography. Reference User Serv Q 2004;44(1):18-25.
- 903. Zabora JR, Loscalzo M, Brintzenhofezoc K, et al. Part X: Interventions. In: Holland JC, ed. Psychooncology. New York: Oxford University Press; 1998. p. 653-836.
- 904. Zachariae R, Hansen JB, Andersen M, et al. Changes in cellular immune function after immune specific guided imagery and relaxation in high and low hypnotizable healthy subjects. Psychother Psychosom 1994;61(1-2):74-92.
- 905. Zachariae R, Jorgensen MM, Christensen S, et al. Effects of relaxation on the delayed-type hypersensitivity (DTH) reaction to diphenylcyclopropenone (DCP). Allergy 1997;52(7):760-4.
- Zachariae R, Oster H, Bjerring P, et al. Effects of psychologic intervention on psoriasis: a preliminary report. J Am Acad Dermatol 1996;34(6):1008-15.

- 907. Zarrilli PB. Three bodies of practice in a traditional South Indian martial art. Soc Sci Med 1989;28(12):1289-309.
- 908. Zastrow C. Using relaxation techniques with individuals and with groups. J Independent Soc Work 1987;2(1):83-95.
- 909. Zika B. Meditation and altered states of consciousness: a psychodynamic interpretation. J Psychol Christianity 1984;3(3):65-72.
- 910. Zwick D, Rochelle A, Choksi A, et al. Evaluation and treatment of balance in the elderly: a review of the efficacy of the berg balance test and tai chi quan. NeuroRehabilitation 2000;15(1):49-56.

## **Excluded: Design—No Control (N = 280)**

The following studies were excluded because they did not have a control group.

- 1. Abbey SE. Mindfulness-based stress reduction groups. J Psychosom Res 2003;55(2):115.
- Abrams AI. A follow-up study of the effects of the transcendental meditation program on inmates at Folsom prison. 1990;3:2108-12.
- Adashko R, Alyson D. The experience of yoga during the transition to motherhood [dissertation]. Cincinnati: Union Institute and University; 2003.
- Aftanas LI, Golocheikine SA. Changes in cortical activity in altered states of consciousness: the study of meditation by high-resolution EEG. Hum Physiol 2003;29(2):143-51.
- Aftanas LI, Golocheikine SA. Human anterior and frontal midline theta and lower alpha reflect emotionally positive state and internalized attention: high-resolution EEG investigation of meditation. Neurosci Lett 2001;310(1):57-60.
- Aftanas LI, Golocheikine SA. Non-linear dynamic complexity of the human EEG during meditation. Neurosci Lett 2002;330(2):143-6.
- Agran JL. The effects of relaxation-meditation procedures on federal supervisors: a case study [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1989;49(9B):4062.
- Akers TK, Tucker DM, Roth RS, et al. Personality correlates of EEG change during meditation. Psychol Rep 1977;40(2):439-42.
- Allison J. Respiratory changes during transcendental meditation. Lancet 1970;1(7651):833.
- Altner N. Mindfulness practice and smoking cessation: the Essen hospital smoking cessation study (EASY). J Medit Medit Res 2002;2:9-18.
- Anderson DJ. Transcendental meditation as an alternative to heroin abuse in servicemen. Am J Psychiatry 1977;134(11):1308-9.
- 12. Aron A, Orme-Johnson DW, Brubaker P. The transcendental meditation program in the college curriculum: a 4-year longitudinal study on effects on cognitive and affective functioning. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1977-82.

- Aron EN, Aron A. The patterns of reduction of drug and alcohol use among transcendental meditation participants. Bull Soc Psychol Addict Behav 1983;2(1):28-33.
- Assimakis PD. Change in the quality of life in Canada: intervention studies of the effect of the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1989.
- Assimakis PD, Dillbeck MC. Time series analysis
  of improved quality of life in Canada: social
  change, collective consciousness, and the TM-Sidhi
  program. Psychol Rep 1995;76(3 Pt 2):1171-93.
- Bache CM. On the emergence of perinatal symptoms in Buddhist meditation. J Sci Study Relig 1981;20(4):339-50.
- Backon J, Kullok S. Effect of forced unilateral nostril breathing on blink rates: relevance to hemispheric lateralization of dopamine. Int J Neurosci 1989;46:53-9.
- Baerentsen KB, Hartvig NV, Stokilde-Jorgensen H, Mammen J. Onset of meditation explored with fMRI. Neuroimage 2001;13(6):S297.
- Baglio S, Bucolo M, Fortuna L, et al. MEG signals spatial power distribution and gamma band activity in yoga breathing exercises. In: Proceedings of the 24th Annual International Conference of the IEEE Engineering in Medicine and Biology Society; 2002 Oct; Houston, TX: IEEE; 2002. p. 175-6.
- 20. Banquet JP, Sailhan M, Carette F, et al. EEG analysis of spontaneous and induced states of consciousness. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 165-72.
- Bastille JV, Gill-Body KM. The effects of a yogabased exercise program on individuals with chronic post-stroke hemiparesis: platform & poster presentations for CSM 2003. Neurol Rep 2002;26(4):203.
- Baum C, Gessert A. Mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR) classes as a tool to decrease the anxiety of cancer patients. Psychooncology 2004;13(1 Suppl):S13.

- Bedard M, Felteau M, Gibbons C, et al. A mindfulness-based intervention to improve quality of life among individuals who sustained traumatic brain injuries: one-year follow-up. J Clin Psychol Med Settings 2005;23(1):8-13.
- Benson H. Decreased alcohol intake associated with the practice of meditation: a retrospective investigation. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1974;233:174-7.
- Benson H, Malvea BP, Graham JR. Physiologic correlates of meditation and their clinical effects in headache: ongoing investigation. Headache 1973;13(1):23-4.
- Benson H, Steinert RF, Greenwood MM, et al. Continuous measurement of O2 consumption and CO2 elimination during a wakeful hypometabolic state. J Hum Stress 1975;1(1):37-44.
- Benson H, Wilcher M, Greenberg B, et al. Academic performance among middle-school students after exposure to a relaxation response curriculum. J Res Dev Educ 2000;33(3):156-65.
- Bentler SE, Hartz AJ, Kuhn EM. Prospective observational study of treatments for unexplained chronic fatigue. J Clin Psychiatry 2005;66(5):625-32.
- 29. Beresford M, Clements G. Real time EEG coherence analysis of the transcendental meditation and the TM-Sidhi programme. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1738-42.
- Bevan AJW. Endocrine changes in transcendental meditation. Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol 1980;7(1):75-6.
- Blasdell KS. Acute immunoreactivity modified by psychosocial factors: type A/B behavior, transcendental meditation and lymphocyte transformation [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1989.
- Bleick CR. Case histories: using the transcendental meditation program with alcoholics and addicts. Alcohol Treat Q 1994;11(3-4):243-69.
- Bonadies V. A yoga therapy program for AIDSrelated pain and anxiety: implications for therapeutic recreation. Ther Recreation J 2004;38(2):148-66.

- Bormann JE, Becker S, Gershwin M, et al. Mantra repetition for managing stress in veterans. Commun Nurs Res 2004;37:340.
- 35. Britton WB, Shapiro SL, Penn PE, et al. Treating insomnia with mindfulness-based stress reduction. Sleep 2003;26:A309-10.
- Brown D, Forte M, Dysart M. Visual sensitivity and mindfulness meditation. Percept Mot Skills 1984;58(3):775-84.
- 37. Brown DD, Mucci WG, Hetzler RK, et al. Cardiovascular and ventilatory responses during formalized tai chi chuan exercise. Res Q Exerc Sport 1989;60(3):246-50.
- 38. Capurro A, Diambra L, Malta CP. Model for the respiratory modulation of the heart beat-to-beat time interval series. Phys Stat Mech Appl 2005;355(2-4):439-60.
- Carlson LE, Garland S, Speca M. Improvements in sleep quality in cancer outpatients participating in mindfulness-based stress reduction. Psychooncology 2004;13(8 Suppl):S137-8.
- 40. Carter R, Meyer JE. The use of the transcendental meditation (TM) technique with severely disturbed psychiatric inpatients. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 2112-5.
- 41. Cernovsky Z. Es scale level and correlates of MMPI elevation: alcohol abuse vs MMPI scores in treated alcoholics. J Clin Psychol 1984;40(6):1502-9.
- 42. Chan SP, Luk TC, Hong Y. Kinematic and electromyographic analysis of the push movement in tai chi. Br J Sports Med 2003;37(4):339-44.
- 43. Chao YF, Chen SY, Lan C, et al. The cardiorespiratory response and energy expenditure of tai-chi-qui-gong. Am J Chin Med 2002;30(4):451-61.
- Chaudhary AK, Bhatnagar HN, Bhatnagar LK, et al. Comparative study of the effect of drugs and relaxation exercise (yoga shavasan) in hypertension. J Assoc Physicians India 1988;36(12):721-3.
- Chen KM, Chen WT, Wang JJ, et al. Frail elders' views of tai chi. J Nurs Res 2005;13(1):11-20.

- 46. Chen ME. A comparative study of dimensions of healthy functioning between families practicing the TM program for five years or for less than a year [dissertation]. Tallahassee: Florida State University; 1988
- Cheng-Kuo T, Ho FM, Lin CW. Physiological changes associated with neigang qigong. J Health Sci 2003;49:278-84.
- 48. Chihara T. Zen meditation and time-experience. Psychologia 1989;32(4):211-20.
- Christensen RE. Developing and evaluating a meditation and self-help group based on perceptual control theory [dissertation]. Alameda: California School of Professional Psychology; 1999.
- Cohen-Katz J, Wiley SD, Capuano T, et al. The effects of mindfulness-based stress reduction on nurse stress and burnout: a qualitative and quantitative study, part III. Holist Nurs Pract 2005;19(2):78-86.
- Compton WC. Self-report of attainment in experienced Zen meditators: a cautionary note on objective measurement. Psychologia: Int J Psychol Orient 1991;34(1):15-7.
- Cox RJ. Relating different types of christian prayer to religious and psychological measures of wellbeing [dissertation]. Boston: Boston University; 2000.
- Crumpler CA. Sufi practices, emotional state and DNA repair: implications for breast cancer [dissertation]. Berkeley: University of California; 1999.
- 54. Cummings RL. The phenomenology of meditation experiences: a developmental perspective [dissertation]. Athens: University of Georgia; 1994.
- Davis J. Ego development of Buddhist meditators: a qualitative study [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;48(5B):1527-8.
- 56. Dhanaraj VH. The influence of transcendental meditation on cessation of drug use: some preliminary findings. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1159-60.

- 57. Dillbeck MC. Test of a field theory of consciousness and social change: time series analysis of participation in the TM-Sidhi program and reduction of violent death in the US. Soc Indic Res 1990;22(4):399-418.
- 58. Dillbeck MC, Assimakis PD, Raimondi D, et al. Longitudinal effects on the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program on cognitive ability and cognitive style. Percept Mot Skills 1986;62(3):731-8.
- Dillbeck MC, Banus CB, Polanzi C, et al. Test of a field model of consciousness and social change: the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program and decreased urban crime. J Mind Behav 1988;9(4):457-85.
- Dillbeck MC, Cavanaugh KL, Glenn T, et al. Consciousness as a field: the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program and changes in social indicators. J Mind Behav 1987;8(1):67-103.
- 61. Dillbeck MC, Orme Johnson DW, Wallace RK. Frontal EEG coherence, H-reflex recovery, concept learning, and the TM-Sidhi program. Int J Neurosci 1981;15(3):151-7.
- Dimsdale JE, Mills PJ. An unanticipated effect of meditation on cardiovascular pharmacology and physiology. Am J Cardiol 2002;90(8):908-9.
- 63. Edwards LR. Psychological change and spiritual growth through the practice of siddha yoga [dissertation]. Philadelphia (PA): Temple University; 1986.
- 64. Fehr T, Nerstheimer U, Törber S. Study of personality changes resulting from the transcendental meditation program: freiburger personality inventory. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 420-4.
- Fergusson LC, Bonshek AJ, Boudigues M. Transcendental meditation and five factors relevant to higher education in Cambodia. Coll Stud J 1994;28(1):103-7.
- 66. Fischer S, Huss D, Baer RA, et al. Mindfulness based cognitive therapy for binge eating disorder: an uncontrolled pilot study. Int J Eat Disord 2004;35(4):478.
- 67. Fontana JA, Colella C, Baas LS, et al. T'ai chi chih as an intervention for heart failure. Nurs Clin North Am 2000;35(4):1031-46.

- 68. Fontana JA, Colella C, Wilson BR, et al. The energy costs of a modified form of t'ai chi exercise. Nurs Res 2000;49(2):91-6 Erratum in: Nurs Res 2000;49(3):145.
- 69. France R. An investigation into the effects of transcendental meditation upon hearing threshold. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1991. p. 2342-6.
- Frew DR. Transcendental meditation and productivity. Acad Manage J 1974;17(2):362-8.
- Gardner FL, Moore ZE. A mindfulness-acceptancecommitment-based approach to athletic performance enhancement: theoretical considerations. Behav Ther 2004;35(4):707-23.
- Ghista DN, Nandagopal D, Mukherji A, et al. Physiological characterization of meditative state during intuitional practice (ananda-marga system of meditation) and its therapeutic value. Med Biol Eng 1976;14(2):209-14.
- Gifford MD, Thompson NL. "Deep states" of meditation: phenomenological reports of experience. J Transpersonal Psychol 1994;26(2):117-38.
- Gillispie Z, Sherman A, Koran J, et al. Anxiety as a predictor of improvement following a yoga/meditation Intervention with dementia family caregivers. Gerontologist 2003;43(1):325.
- 75. Greene PB. A path analytic approach to the relationship between meditation, stress, and health. In: Proceedings of the 2005 SBM Annual Meeting; 2005 Apr 13-16; Boston (MA) [cited 2005 Oct 10]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/meeting/2005/pageS 001-S215.pdf. Paper Session #25.
- Greene PB. Stress reactivity, health, and meditation: a path analytic approach [dissertation]. Boston: Boston University; 2004.
- Hagelin JS, Rainforth MV, Orme-Johnson DW, et al. Effects of group practice of the transcendental meditation program on preventing violent crime in Washington, DC: results of the National Demonstration Project, June-July 1993. Soc Indic Res 1999;47(2):153-201.

- 78. Hardesty MJ. The effect of transcendental meditation on reaction time. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 904-7.
- 79. Harding SD. The effects of transcendental meditation on an auditory temporal discrimination task. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1949-53.
- Harrison LJ, Manocha R, Rubia K. Sahaja yoga meditation as a family treatment programme for children with attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder. Clin Child Psychol Psychiatry 2004:9(4):479-97.
- 81. Hatchard GD, Deans AJ, Cavanaugh KL, et al. The Maharishi effect: a model for social improvement time series analysis of a phase transition to reduced crime in Merseyside metropolitan area. Psychol Crime Law 1996;2(3):165-74.
- 82. Hayward CD. Physiologic effects of Benson's relaxation response during submaximal aerobic exercise in coronary artery disease patients [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;47(9A):3354.
- 83. Hebert JR. Periodic suspension of respiration during the transcendental meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 134-6.
- Herron RE. The impact of transcendental meditation practice on medical expenditures [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1993.
- 85. Herron RE, Hillis SL, Mandarino JV, et al. The impact of the transcendental meditation program on government payments to physicians in Quebec. Am J Health Promot 1996;10(3):208-16.
- 86. Hershfield NB, Kubryn W, Sutherland LR. Meditation training as adjunct therapy in the management of crohns-disease: a pilot-study. Can J Gastroenterol 1993;7(8):613-5.
- 87. Heyes AD. Blindness and yoga. New Outlook Blind 1974;68(9):385-93.
- 88. Huang GZ. Physiological effects during relaxation qigong exercise. Psychosom Med 1991;53(2):228.

- Ikemi A, Tomita S, Kuroda M, et al. Self-regulation method: psychological, physiological and clinical considerations: an overview. Psychother Psychosom 1986;46(4):184-95.
- Jain SC, Rai L, Valecha A, et al. Effect of yoga training on exercise tolerance in adolescents with childhood asthma. J Asthma 1991;28(6):437-42.
- Janakiramaiah N, Gangadhar BN, Vedamurthachar A. Enhancing wellbeing through yoga: a potential strategy for positive mental health. Aust N Z J Psychiatry 2000;34(Suppl):A33.
- 92. Jedrczak A. The TM-Sidhi programme and agerelated psychological variables. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1954-9.
- Jedrczak A, Beresford M, Clements G. The TM-Sidhi program, pure consciousness, creativity and intelligence. J Creat Behav 1985;19(4):270-5.
- Jedrczak A, Clements G. The TM-Sidhi programme and field independence. Percept Mot Skills 1984;59(3):999-1000.
- Jedrczak A, Toomey M, Clements G. The TM-Sidhi programme, age, and brief tests of perceptual-motor speed and nonverbal intelligence. J Clin Psychol 1986;42(1):161-4.
- 96. Jevning RA, Wilson AF, O'Halloran JP. Muscle and skin blood flow and metabolism during states of decreased activation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1633-9.
- 97. Jevning RA, Wilson AF, Pirkle HC. Behavioral control of red blood cell metabolism. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1605-9.
- Jevning RA, Wilson AF, Pirkle HC, et al. Metabolic control in a state of decreased activation: modulation of red cell metabolism. Am J Physiol 1983;245(5 Pt 1):C457-61.

- Jevning RA, Wilson AF, Smith WR. Plasma amino acids during the transcendental meditation technique: comparison to sleep. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 145-7.
- 100. Jin P. Changes in heart rate, noradrenaline, cortisol and mood during tai chi. J Psychosom Res 1989;33(2):197-206.
- 101. Kaldor P, Francis LJ, Fisher JW. Personality and spirituality: Christian prayer and Eastern meditation are not the same. Pastoral Psychol 2002;50(3):165-72.
- 102. Kasamatsu A, Hirai T. An electroencephalographic study on the Zen meditation (Zazen). J Am Inst of Hypn 1973;14(3):107-14.
- 103. Kaye VG. An innovative treatment modality for elderly residents of a nursing home. Clin Gerontol 1985;3(4):45-51.
- 104. Keefer L, Blanchard EB. A one year follow-up of relaxation response meditation as a treatment for irritable bowel syndrome. Behav Res Ther 2002;40(5):541-6.
- 105. Kenny M, Bernier R, DeMartini C. Chant and be happy: the effects of chanting on respiratory function and general well-being in individuals diagnosed with depression. Int J Yoga Ther 2005:15:61-4.
- 106. Kirschner S. Zen meditators: a clinical study [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1976;36(7B):3613-4.
- 107. Kjaer TW, Bertelsen C, Piccini P, et al. Increased dopamine tone during meditation-induced change of consciousness. Brain Res Cogn Brain Res 2002;13(2):255-9.
- 108. Klein R, Pilon D, Prosser S, et al. Nasal airflow asymmetries and human performance. Biol Psychol 1986;23(2):127-37.
- 109. Koar WH. Correlates of meditation, depression, anxiety and t cell counts in HIV positive patients [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1996;56(9B):5174.
- 110. Kohr RL. Dimensionality in meditative experience: a replication. J Transpersonal Psychol 1977;9(2):193-203.
- 111. Kornfield JM. The psychology of mindfulness meditation [dissertation]. San Francisco: Saybrook Graduate School; 1977.

- 112. Kristal AR, Littman AJ, Benitez D, et al. Yoga practice is associated with attenuated weight gain in healthy, middle-aged men and women. Altern Ther Health Med 2005;11(4):28-33.
- 113. Kustner U. Effectiveness of a meditative method of therapy based on Buddhist psychology and practices: a pilot study. J Medit Medit Res 2002;2:31-47.
- 114. Lan C, Chen SY, Lai JS, et al. Heart rate responses and oxygen consumption during tai chi chuan practice. Am J Chin Med 2001;29(3-4):403-10.
- 115. Lang R, Dehof K, Meurer KA, et al. Sympathetic activity and transcendental meditation. J Neural Transm Gen Sect 1979;44(1-2):117-35.
- 116. Lawrance WS. Psychotherapeutic factors of naturally occurring long-term meditation [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1993;54(6A):2056.
- 117. Lazar SW, Bush G, Gollub RL, et al. Functional brain mapping of the relaxation response and meditation. NeuroReport 2000;11(7):1581-5.
- 118. Lee GW. The subjective well-being of beginning vs. advanced hatha yoga practitioners [dissertation]. Honolulu: University of Hawaii; 2004.
- 119. Lee MS, Bae BH, Ryu H, et al. Changes in alpha wave and state anxiety during chundosunbup qitraining in trainees with open eyes. Am J Chin Med 1997;25(3-4):289-99.
- 120. Lee MS, Kim BG, Huh HJ, et al. Effect of qitraining on blood pressure, heart rate and respiration rate. Clin Physiol 2000;20(3):173-6.
- 121. Lee MS, Kim MK, Ryu H. Qi-training (qigong) enhanced immune functions: what is the underlying mechanism? Int J Neurosci 2005;115(8):1099-104.
- 122. Lee MS, Ryu H. Qi-training enhances neutrophil function by increasing growth hormone levels in elderly men. Int J Neurosci 2004;114(10):1313-22.
- 123. Leffler DR. A vedic approach to military defense: reducing collective stress through the field effects of consciousness [dissertation]. Cincinnati, OH: Union Institute and University; 1997.
- 124. Lehmann D, Faber PL, Achermann P, et al. Brain sources of EEG gamma frequency during volitionally meditation-enduced, altered states of consciousness, and experience of the self. Psychiatry Res 2001;108(2):111-21.
- 125. Lehrer PM, Sasaki Y, Saito Y. Zazen and cardiac variability. Psychosom Med 1999;61(6):812-21.

- 126. Lepicovska V, Dostalek C, Kovarova M. Hatha yogic exercise jalandhara bandha in its effect on cardiovascular response to apnoea. Act Nerv Super (Praha) 1990;32(2):99-114.
- 127. Leserman J, Stuart EM, Mamish ME, et al. Nonpharmacologic intervention for hypertension: long-term follow-up. J Cardiopulm Rehabil 1989;9(8):316-24.
- 128. Li Q, Matsuura Y, Tsubouchi S, et al. Changes of oxygen metabolism in the cerebrum during shaolin internal qigong. Journal of ISLIS 2002;20(1):155-65.
- 129. Li Q, Matsuura Y, Tsubouchi S, Li Q, et al. A study on physiological changes in shaolin internal qigong. Journal of ISLIS 2001;19(1):302-12.
- 130. Liu GL, Ciu R, Li G. Neural mechanisms of qigong state: an experimental study by the method of auditory evoked responses. J Tradit Chin Med 1987;7(2):123-6.
- 131. Liu Y, Mimura K, Wang L, et al. Physiological benefits of 24-style taijiquan exercise in middleaged women. J Physiol Anthropol Appl Human Sci 2003;22(5):219-25.
- 132. Loliger SA. Relationship between subjective bliss, 5-hydroxy-3-indoleacetic acid and the collective practice of Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi program [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1990.
- 133. Lou HC, Kjaer TW, Friberg L, et al. A super(15)O-H sub(2)O PET study of meditation and the resting state of normal consciousness. Hum Brain Mapp 1999;7(2):98-105.
- 134. Luk TC. Exploring the biomechanical characteristics of tai chi exercise and the postural balance of practitioners [dissertation]. People's Republic of China: Chinese University of Hong Kong; 2003.
- Luzzatto P, Payne D. Creative arts and meditation retreat reduces psychological distress in cancer survivors. Psychooncology 2004;13(1 Suppl):S11.
- 136. MacCallum MJ. The transcendental meditation program and creativity. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 410-4.
- 137. MacPhillamy DJ. Some personality effects of longterm Zen monasticism and religious understanding. J Sci Study Relig 1986;25(3):304-19.

- 138. Manjunath NK, Telles S. Effects of sirsasana (headstand) practice on autonomic and respiratory variables. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2003;47(1):34-42.
- 139. Maquet J. Meditation in contemporary Sri Lanka: idea and practice. J Transpersonal Psychol 1975;7(2):182-96.
- 140. Maras ML, Rinke WJ, Stephens CR, et al. Effect of meditation on insulin dependent diabetes mellitus. Diabetes Educ 1984;10(1):22-5.
- 141. Margid S. Meditation, creativity, and the composing process of student writers [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;46(9A):2603.
- 142. McDowell AR. Faithwalk (TM): a psychospiritual approach to transformation [dissertation]. Cincinnati: Union Institute University; 2000.
- 143. Mcnaughton RD. The use of meditation and intuition in decision-making: reports from executive meditators [dissertation]. Santa Barbara, CA: Fielding Graduate Institute; 2003.
- 144. Miller JJ, Fletcher KE, Kabat-Zinn J. Three-year follow-up and clinical implications of a mindfulness meditation-based stress reduction intervention in the treatment of anxiety disorders. Gen Hosp Psychiatry 1995;17(3):192-200.
- 145. Mills N, Allen J, Carey-Morgan S. Does tai chi/qi gong help patients with multiple sclerosis? J Bodywork Movement Ther 2000;4(1):39-48.
- 146. Mills PJ, Wallace RK. The effect of the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program on the paired Hoffman reflex. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1752-5.
- 147. Minvaleev RS, Nozdrachev AD, Kiryanova VV, et al. Postural influences on the hormone level in healthy subjects. Communication I. The cobra posture and steroid hormones. Hum Physiol 2004;30(4):452-6.
- 148. Mishra SP, Singh RH. Effect of certain yogic asanas on the pelvic congestion and it's anatomy. Ancient Sci Life 1984;4(2):127-8.

- 149. Miszczak J, Achimowicz J. Hyprid analysis of spontaneous brain activity in different states of conscious experience. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1991. p. 2267-77.
- 150. Moane FM. The effect of yoga, in comparison to aerobic exercise, on anxiety and mood in a workplace setting [dissertation]. Chicago: Chicago School of Professional Psychology; 2003.
- 151. Morse DR. Use of meditative state for hypnotic induction in the practice of endodontics. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol 1976;41(5):664-72.
- 152. Morse DR, Martin JS, Furst ML, et al. A physiological and subjective evaluation of neutral and emotionally-charged words for meditation part I. J Am Soc Psychosom Dent Med 1979;26(1):31-8.
- 153. Motajova J, Vicenik K. Effect of hatha yoga on heart activity in exercising women. Act Nerv Super (Praha) 1980;22(2):125-6.
- 154. Motajova J, Vicenik K. Some relations between respiratory and heart-rate observed during yoga course. Int J Psychophysiol 1989;7(2-4):320-1.
- 155. Murphy MB. Theta bursts and rhythmical theta trains in the transcendental meditation technique and TM-Sidhi program: a qualitative and quantitative analysis of EEG theta activity [dissertation]. Melbourne, FL: Florida Institute of Technology; 1984.
- 156. Mustafa S, Cooper L, Langrick N, et al. The effect of a tai chi exercise program on quality of life in patients on peritoneal dialysis: a pilot study. Perit Dial Int 2005;25(3):291-4.
- 157. Nagendra HR, Nagarathna R. An integrated approach of yoga therapy for bronchial asthma: a 3-54-month prospective study. J Asthma 1986;23(3):123-37.
- 158. Nidich RJ, Nidich SI, Schneider RH. The transcendental meditation program and quality of life in breast cancer patients: a feasibility study. J Psychosom Res 2003;55(2):153.

- 159. Nidich SI, Abrams AI, Jones C, et al. Neurophysiological entry characteristics: correlation between EEG coherence and math achievement with subjects practicing the TM program. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1720-3.
- 160. Nidich SI, Nidich RJ, Abrams AI, et al. Frontal lobe functioning: EEG coherence as a predictor of highly pro-social behavior with subjects practicing the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1991. p. 2277-82.
- 161. Noyes L, Wong R. Demonstrating the benefits of physical therapy and tai chi for people with dementia. Gerontologist 2004;44:95.
- 162. Orme-Johnson DW, Alexander CN, Davies JL, et al. International peace project in the Middle East: the effects of the Maharishi technology of the unified field. J Conflict Resolut 1988;32(4):776-812.
- 163. Orme-Johnson DW, Clements G, Haynes CT, et al. Higher states of consciousness: EEG coherence, creativity, and experiences of the Sidhis. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 705-12.
- 164. Orme-Johnson DW, Dillbeck MC, Alexander CN. Preventing terrorism and international conflict: effects of large assemblies of participants in the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi programs. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):283-302.
- 165. Orme-Johnson DW, Dillbeck MC, Wallace RK, et al. Intersubject EEG coherence: is consciousness a field? Int J Neurosci 1982;16(3-4):203-9.
- 166. Orme-Johnson DW, Gelderloos P. Topographic EEG brain mapping during yogic flying. Int J Neurosci 1988;38(3-4):427-34.

- 167. Orme-Johnson DW, Haynes CT. EEG phase coherence, pure consciousness, creativity, and TM-Sidhi experiences. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1687-94.
- 168. Orme Johnson DW, Wallace RK, Dillbeck MC. Longitudinal effects of the TM-Sidhi program on EEG phase coherence. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1678-86.
- 169. Orme-Johnson DW, Wallace RK, Dillbeck MC, et al. Improved functional organization in the brain through the Maharishi technology of the unified field as indicated by changes in EEG coherence and its cognitive correlates: a proposed model of higher states of consciousness. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1991. p. 2245-66.
- 170. Ornish D, Gotto AM, Miller RR, et al. Effects of a vegetarian diet and selected yoga techniques in the treatment of coronary heart disease. Clin Res 1979;27(4):A720.
- 171. Osis K, Bokert E. ESP and changed states of consciousness induced by meditation. J Am Soc for Psychical Res 1971;65(1):17-65.
- 172. Paty J, Vincent JD, Faure JMA. CNV studies during meditation. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1977;43(4):341.
- 173. Peng CK, Henry IC, Mietus JE, et al. Heart rate dynamics during three forms of meditation. Int J Cardiol 2004;95(1):19-27.
- 174. Penner WJ, Zingle HW, Dyke R, et al. Does an indepth transcendental meditation course effect change in the personalities of the participants? West Psychol 1973;4(4):104-11.
- 175. Peper E, Kawakami M, Sata M, et al. Physiological correlates of very slow yogic breathing. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 2002;27(4):317-8.
- 176. Persinger MA. Enhanced incidence of "the sensed presence" in people who have learned to meditate: support for the right hemispheric intrusion hypothesis. Percept Mot Skills 1992;75(3 Pt 2):1308-10.

- 177. Persinger MA. Transcendental meditationsuper(TM) and general meditation are associated with enhanced complex partial epileptic-like signs: evidence for "cognitive" kindling? Percept Mot Skills 1993;76(1):80-2.
- 178. Piron H. Meditation depth, mental health, and personal development. J Medit Medit Res 2003;3:45-58.
- 179. Plasse BR. A stress reduction and self-care group for homeless and addicted women: meditation, relaxation and cognitive methods. Soc Work Groups 2001;24(3-4):117-33.
- 180. Pradhan N, Dutt ND. An analysis of dimensional complexity of brain electrical activity during meditation. In: Proceedings of the First Regional Conference of the Biomedical Engineering Society of India; 1995 Feb 15-18; New Delhi, India. New Delhi, India: IEEE; 1995. p. 92-3.
- 181. Raghuraj P, Ramakrishnan AG, Nagendra HR, et al. Effect of two selected yogic breathing techniques of heart rate variability. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1998;42(4):467-72.
- 182. Raghuraj P, Telles S. Right uninostril yoga breathing influences ipsilateral components of middle latency auditory evoked potentials. Neurol Sci 2004;25(5):274-80.
- 183. Rai L, Ram K. Energy expenditure and ventilatory responses during virasana, a yogic standing posture. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1993;37(1):45-50.
- 184. Rai L, Ram K, Kant U, et al. Energy expenditure and ventilatory responses during siddhasana, a yogic seated posture. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1994;38(1):29-33.
- 185. Rai PS. Ayurveda and yoga treatment for rheumatoid arthritis. Rheumatism 1987;22(2):38-41.
- 186. Ramakrishna RK, Dukhan H, Krishna-Rao PV. Yogic meditation and psi scoring in forced-choice and free-response tests. Indian J Psychol 1978;1(2):160-75.
- 187. Rao KR, Dukhan H, Rao PVK. Yogic meditation and psi scoring in forced-choice and free-response tests. In: Rao KR, ed. Basic research in parapsychology. 2nd ed. Jefferson (NC): McFarland & Co.; 2001.
- 188. Rao KR, Puri I. Subsensory perception (SSP), extrasensory perception (ESP) and transcendental meditation (TM). Indian J Psychol 1978;1(1):69-74.

- 189. Ritskes R, Ritskes H, Merel S, et al. MRI Scanning during Zen meditation: the picture of enlightenment? Constructivism Hum Sci 2003;8(1):85-90.
- 190. Rivers SM, Spanos NP. Personal variables predicting voluntary participation in and attrition from a meditation program. Psychol Rep 1981;49(3):795-801.
- 191. Rodrigues MR, Carvalho C, Resende MBD, et al. Yoga breathing exercises improve the respiratory function in duchenne dystrophy. Neuromuscul Disord 2004;14(8-9):583.
- 192. Roldan E, Los J, Dostalek C, et al. Frequency characteristics, distribution and dominance of the EEG during rest and a yogic breathing exercise, Kapalabhati. Act Nerv Super (Praha) 1983;25(3):197.
- 193. Ryu H, Lee HS, Shin YS, et al. Acute effect of qigong training on stress hormonal levels in man. Am J Chin Med 1996;24(2):193-8.
- 194. Sabel BA. Transcendental meditation and concentration ability. Percept Mot Skills 1980;50(3 Pt 1):799-802.
- 195. Sachdeva U. The effect of yogic lifestyle on hypertension. Homeost Health Dis 1994;35(4-5):264.
- 196. Sageman S. Breaking through the despair: spiritually oriented group therapy as a means of healing women with severe mental illness. J Am Acad Psychoanal Dyn Psychiatry 2004;32(1):125-41
- 197. Salman D. Attentional control and the deconstruction of the schemas underlying the perception of pain (New York City, somatic monitoring, cognitive flexibility) [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1999;60(6B):2976.
- 198. Sancier KM. The effect of qigong on therapeutic balancing measured by electroacupuncture according to Voll (EAV): a preliminary study. Acupunct Electrother Res 1994;19(2-3):119-27.
- 199. Sandahl FP. The effect of the practice of TM on the degree of neuroticism as measured by the defense mechanism test. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 2028-33.

- 200. Schenkluhn H, Nat R, Geisler M. A longitudinal study of the influence of the transcendental meditation program on drug abuse. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 544-55.
- 201. Shannahoff-Khalsa DS, Boyle MR, Buebel ME. The effects of unilateral forced nostril breathing on cognition. Int J Neurosci 1991;57(3-4):239-49.
- 202. Shapiro DH. A preliminary study of long-term meditators: goals, effects, religious orientation, cognitions. J Transpersonal Psychol 1992;24(1):23-39.
- 203. Shapiro DH, Zifferblatt SM. Applied clinical combination of Zen meditation and behavioral selfmanagement techniques: reducing methadone dosage in drug-addiction. Behav Ther 1976;7(5):694-5.
- 204. Shapiro DH Jr. Adverse effects of meditation: a preliminary investigation of long-term meditators. Int J Psychosom 1992;39(1-4):62-7.
- 205. Sharma HM, Stephens RE, Singh NP, et al. Physiological-response to transcendental meditation (TM) and TM-Sidhi program. Fed Proc 1986;45(3):173.
- 206. Singh LN, Endo M, Yamaguchi K, et al. Imaging analysis of the brain state after performing hatha yoga: a PET study. J Cereb Blood Metab 2001;21(Suppl 1):S35.
- 207. Singh R. Meditative intonation increases melatonin and positive psychophysiological effects: implications for cancer, longevity and consciousness studies. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 1998;23(2):129.
- 208. Singh R, Oberhummer I. Behavior-therapy within a setting of karma yoga. J Behav Ther Exp Psychiatry 1980;11(2):135-41.
- 209. Sinha B, Ray US, Pathak A, et al. Energy cost and cardiorespiratory changes during the practice of surya namaskar. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2004;48(2):184-90.
- 210. Smith JC, Amutio A, Anderson JP, et al. Relaxation: mapping an uncharted world. Biofeedback Self Regul 1996;21(1):63-90.
- 211. Soskis DA, Orne EC, Orne MT, et al. Self-hypnosis and meditation for stress a 6-month follow-up. Int J Clin Exp Hypn 1986;34(3):272.

- 212. Spence NE. Following the "self" home: psychospiritual journeys of western women on Asian meditative paths [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1994;55(5B):1995.
- 213. Spira JL, Kotay A. The influence of Zen meditation and stress on very low, low, and high frequency heart rate variability. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 2004;29(4):305.
- 214. Stancak A Jr, Kuna M. EEG changes during forced alternate nostril breathing. Int J Psychophysiol 1994;18(1):75-9.
- 215. Stancak A Jr, Kuna M, Novak P, et al. Observations on respiratory and cardiovascular rhythmicities during yogic high-frequency respiration. Physiol Res 1991;40(3):345-55.
- 216. Stancak A Jr, Kuna M, Srinivasan DC, et al. Kapalabhati: yogic cleansing exercise II: EEG topography analysis. Homeost Health Dis 1991;33(4):182-9.
- 217. Stancak A Jr, Kuna M, Srinivasan VS, et al. Kapalabhati: yogic cleansing exercise I: cardiovascular and respiratory changes. Homeost Health Dis 1991;33(3):126-34.
- 218. Stück M, Meyer K, Rigotti T, et al. Evaluation of a yoga-based stress management training for teachers: effects on immunoglobulin A secretion and subjective relaxation. J Medit Medit Res 2003;3:59-68.
- 219. Sung BE, Roussanov OA, Golden L. The effectiveness of relaxation techniques in the reversal of hemodynamic changes associated with mental stress. In: Proceedings of the 58th Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; 2000 March 1-4; Savannah (GA) [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/events/search2006/s howkeysearch.cfm?authorsearch=1. Abstract 1256.
- 220. Tan G. Qigong and stress management a preliminary inquiry. Biofeedback Self Regul 1995;20(3):299.
- 221. Taneli B, Krahne W. EEG changes of transcendental meditation practitioners. Recent Adv Biol Psychiatry 1987;16:41-71.
- 222. Taylor ME. Meditation as treatment for performance anxiety in singers [dissertation]. Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama; 2001.
- 223. Telles S, Desiraju T. Heart rate alterations in different types of pranayamas. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1992;36(4):287-8.

- 224. Telles S, Desiraju T. Heart rate and respiratory changes accompanying yogic conditions of single thought and thoughtless states. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1992;36(4):293-4.
- 225. Telles S, Desiraju T. Oxygen consumption during pranayamic type of very slow-rate breathing. Indian J Med Res 1991;94:357-63.
- 226. Telles S, Naveen KV. Changes in middle latency auditory evoked potentials during meditation. Psychol Rep 2004;94(2):398-400.
- 227. Telles S, Reddy SK, Nagendra HR. Oxygen consumption and respiration following two yoga relaxation techniques. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 2000;25(4):221-7.
- 228. Throll DA, Throll LA. The effect of a three-month residence course upon the personalities of experienced meditators. J Clin Psychol 1990;2:1057-65.
- 229. Tjoa AS. Meditation, neuroticism and intelligence: a follow-up. Gedrag: Tijdschrift Voor Psychologie 1975;3(3):167-82.
- 230. Tooley GA, Armstrong SM, Norman TR, et al. Acute increases in night-time plasma melatonin levels following a period of meditation. Biol Psychol 2000;53(1):69-78.
- 231. Toomey M, Chalmers RA, Clements G. The transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi programme and reversal of the ageing process: a longitudinal study. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1878-84.
- 232. Toomey M, Pennington B, Chalmers RA, et al. The practice of the transcendental meditation and the TM-Sidhi programme reverses the physiological ageing process. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1871-7.
- 233. Tory PB. A mindfulness-based stress reduction program for the treatment of anxiety [dissertation]. Hempstread, NY: Hofstra University; 2004.
- 234. Travis FT. Autonomic and EEG patterns distinguish transcending from other experiences during transcendental meditation practice. Int J Psychophysiol 2001;42(1):1-9.

- 235. Travis FT. Testing the field paradigm of Maharishi's vedic psychology: EEG coherence and power as indices of states of consciousness and field effects. Farifield, IA: Mahrishi International University; 1989.
- 236. Travis FT, Olson T, Egenes T, et al. Physiological patterns during practice of the transcendental meditation technique compared with patterns while reading Sanskrit and a modern language. Int J Neurosci 2001;109(1-2):71-80.
- 237. Travis FT, Pearson CA. Pure consciousness: distinct phenomenological and physiological correlates of "consciousness itself". Int J Neurosci 2000;100(1-4):77-89.
- 238. Travis FT, Tecce JJ, Arenander A, et al. Patterns of EEG coherence, power, and contingent negative variation characterize the integration of transcendental and waking states. Biol Psychol 2002;61(3):293-319.
- 239. Travis FT, Wallace RK. Autonomic patterns during respiratory suspensions: possible markers of transcendental consciousness. Psychophysiology 1997;34(1):39-46.
- 240. Treesak C. Mindfulness meditation as a health behavior and its relationships with health related quality of life and drug use [dissertation].

  Minneapolis: University of Minnisota; 2003.
- 241. Tsao WY, Ratliff RA. Energy-cost of performing tai-chi. Med Sci Sports Exerc 1982;14(2):174.
- 242. Udupa KN, Singh RH, Dwivedi KN, et al. Comparative biochemical studies on meditation. Indian J Med Res 1975;63(12):1676-9.
- 243. Udupa KN, Singh RH, Settiwar RM. A comparative study on the effect of some individual yogic practices in normal persons. Indian J Med Res 1975;63(8):1066-71.
- 244. Vaananen J, Xusheng S, Wang S, et al. Taichiquan acutely increases heart rate variability. Clin Physiol Funct Imaging 2002;22(1):2-3.
- 245. Van Nuys D. Meditation, attention, and hypnotic susceptibility: a correlational study. Int J Clin Exp Hypn 1973;21(2):59-69.
- 246. Van Nuys D. A novel technique for studying attention during meditation. J Transpersonal Psychol 1971;3(2):125-33.
- 247. Vempati RP, Telles S. Yoga-based guided relaxation reduces sympathetic activity judged from baseline levels. Psychol Rep 2002;90(2):487-94.

- 248. Vempati RP, Telles S. Yoga based isometric relaxation versus supine rest: a study of oxygen consumption, breath rate and volume and autonomic measures. Indian J Psychol 1999;17(2):46-52.
- 249. Venkatesh S, Raju TR, Shivani Y, et al. A study of structure of phenomenology of consciousness in meditative and non-meditative states. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1997;41(2):149-53.
- 250. Vicenik K, Motajova J. Study of the heart rhythm variability during hatha yoga exercises. Act Nerv Super (Praha) 1982;24(3):175-6.
- 251. Wachholtz AB, Div M, Pargament K. Effect of spirituality on cardiac activity during pain and stress. Mindfulness-based stress reduction for hot flashes. In: Proceedings of the 2005 SBM Annual Meeting; 2005 Apr 13-16; Boston (MA) [cited 2005 Oct 10]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/meeting/2005/pageS 001-S215.pdf. Paper Session #4.
- 252. Walia IJ, Mehra P, Grover P, et al. Health status of nurses and yoga: baseline data part 1. Nurs J India 1989;80(9):235-7.
- 253. Walker CA. Treating chemical dependency using the 12-steps, buddhism, and complementary therapies [dissertation]. Carpinteria, CA: Pacifica Graduate Institute; 2004.
- 254. Wallace RK. The physiologic effects of transcendental meditation: a proposed fourth major state of consciousness. In: Orme-Johnson DW,Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 43-78.
- 255. Wallace RK. Physiological effects of transcendental meditation. Science 1970;167(3926):1751.
- 256. Wallace RK, Benson H. The physiology of meditation. Sci Am 1972;226(2):84-90.
- 257. Wallace RK, Benson H, Wilson AF. A wakeful hypometabolic physiologic state. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 79-85.
- 258. Wallace RK, Mills PJ, Orme Johnson DW, et al. Modification of the paired H reflex through the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program. Exp Neurol 1983;79(1):77-86.

- 259. Wallace RK, Orme-Johnson DW, Mills PJ, et al. The relationship between the paired Hoffman reflez and academic achievement in participants of the transcendental meditation (TM) program. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1772-5.
- 260. Wallace RK, Silver J, Mills PJ, et al. Systolic blood pressure and long-term practice of the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program: effects of TM on systolic blood pressure. Psychosom Med 1983;45(1):41-6.
- 261. Wang HM. Length and frequency of practice of Zen meditation and personality for meditators in Taiwan (China) [dissertation]. College Station: Texas A & M University; 2000.
- 262. Weathers RS. Meditation, altered states, and unpleasant experiences: a structural-development analysis [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;46(10B):3620-1.
- 263. Weldon JT, Aron A. The transcendental meditation program and normalization of weight. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 301-6.
- 264. Werner OR, Wallace RK, Charles BM, et al. Endocrine balance and the TM-Sidhi programme. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1626-32.
- 265. Werner OR, Wallace RK, Charles BM, et al. Long-term endocrinologic changes in subjects practicing the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program. Psychosom Med 1986;48(1-2):59-66.
- 266. Werntz DA, Bickford RG, Shannahoff-Khalsa DS. Selective hemispheric stimulation by unilateral forced nostril breathing. Hum Neurobiol 1987;6(3):165-71.
- 267. West MA. Changes in skin resistance in subjects resting, reading, listening to music or practicing the transcendental meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 224-9.

- 268. West MA. Meditation, personality and arousal. Pers Individ Dif 1980;1(2):135-42.
- 269. Williams AP. The effects of yoga training on concentration and selected psychological variables in young adults [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1993;53(7B):3801.
- 270. Windquist WT. The transcendental meditation program and drug abusers: a retrospective study. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 494-7.
- 271. Winters TH, Kabat-Zinn J. Awareness meditation for patients who have anxiety and chronic pain in the primary care unit. Clin Res 1981;29(2):A642.
- 272. Woolfolk RL, Rooney AJ. The effect of explicit expectations on initial meditation experiences. Biofeedback Self Regul 1981;6(4):483-91.
- 273. Wrycza P. Some effects of the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi programme on artistic creativity and appreciation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1991. p. 2378-83.
- 274. Wu PL. Zen meditation, self-awareness, and autonomy [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1992;53(6B):3174.
- 275. Yadav RK, Das S. Effect of yogic practice on pulmonary functions in young females. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2001;45(4):493-6.
- 276. Yin J, Levanon D, Chen JD. Inhibitory effects of stress on postprandial gastric myoelectrical activity and vagal tone in healthy subjects. Neurogastroenterol Motil 2004;16(6):737-44.
- 277. Young RP. The experiences of cancer patients practicing mindfulness meditation [dissertation]. San Francisco: Saybrook Graduate School; 1999.
- 278. Zakutney MA. An investigation of the transcendental meditation technique as a positive health action: why people start and continue the practice [dissertation]. Salt Lake City: University of Utah; 1990.
- 279. Zetaruk MN, Violan MA, Zurakowski D, et al. Injuries in martial arts: a comparison of five styles. Br J Sports Med 2005;39(1):29-33.

280. Zhang JZ, Zhao J, He QN. EEG findings during special psychical state (qi gong state) by means of compressed spectral array and topographic mapping. Comput Biol Med 1988;18(6):455-63.

### Excluded: Outcomes—Inadequate Reporting (N = 170)

The following studies were excluded because data relevant to the outcomes of interest were inadequately reported.

- Albert IB, McNeece B. The reported sleep characteristics of meditators and nonmeditators. Bull Psychon Soc 1974;3(1B):73-4.
- Alexander CN, Grant JD, Von Stadte C. The effects
  of the transcendental meditation technique on
  recidivism: a retrospective archival analysis. In:
  Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al.,
  eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation
  TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 3.
  Switzerland: Maharishi European Research
  University MVU Press; 1990. p. 2135-51.
- Alexander CN, Rainforth MV, Frank PR, et al. Walpole study of the transcendental meditation program in maximum security prisoners III: reduced recidivism. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):161-80.
- 4. Allen CP. Effects of transcendental meditation, electromyographic (EMG) biofeedback relaxation, and conventional relaxation on vasoconstriction, muscle tension, and stuttering: a quantitative comparison. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G,,Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1991. p. 2287-9.
- Anderson DA. Meditation as a treatment for primary dysmenorrhea among women with high and low absorption scores [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1984;45(1B):341.
- Anthony W. An evaluation of meditation as a stress reduction technique for persons with spinal cord injury [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;46(11A):3251.
- Balzano JM, Burke JL, Hoy TW, et al. A comparative study of balance measures among elderly persons participating in tai chi or structured exercise programs. J Geriatr Phys Ther 2002;25(3):44.
- 8. Banquet JP. Spectral analysis of the EEG in meditation. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1973;35(2):143-51.

- Bevan AJW, Young PM, Wellby ML, et al. Endocrine changes in relaxation procedures. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 803.
- Bleick CR. Influence of the transcendental meditation program on criminal recidivism. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 3. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 2151-8.
- Bleick CR, Abrams AI. The transcendental meditation program and criminal recidivism in California. J Crim Justice 1987:15(3):211-30.
- 12. Bond DS, Lyle RM, Tappe MK, et al. An evaluation of the importance of moderate aerobic exercise, tai chi, and problem-solving ability in relation to psychological stress. Res Q Exerc Sport 1999;70(1 Suppl):A36.
- 13. Brandon JE. A comparative evaluation of three relaxation training procedures. Diss Abstr Int 1983;43(7A):2279.
- 14. Breda ML, Gevirtz R, Spira JL, et al. A controlled clinical trial of the effects of yoga on health status in fibromyalgia patients In: Proceedings of the 63rd Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; 2005 March 2-5; Vancouver (BC) [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/events/search2006/s howkeysearch.cfm?authorsearch=1#. Abstract 1683
- 15. Bridgewater MJ. The relative efficacy of meditation in reducing an induced anxiety reaction [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1979;40(2B):903-4.
- Burrows CH. The effects of meditation on counselor candidates' self-actualization [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1984;45(3A):749.
- Campbell JF, Stenstrom RJ, Bertrand D. Systematic changes in perceptual reactance induced by physical fitness training. Percept Mot Skills 1985;61(1):279-84.

- 18. Carlson LE, Culos-Reed SN, Daroux LM. The effects of therapeutic yoga on salivary cortisol, stress symptoms, quality of life and mood states in cancer outpatients: a randomized controlled study. In: Proceedings of the 63rd Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; 2005 March 2-5; Vancouver (BC) [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.sbm.org/events/search2006/showkeysea rch.cfm?authorsearch=1#. Abstract 1342.
- Carmody J, Crawford SL, Kelsey JL. Mindfulness-based stress reduction for hot flashes. In:
   Proceedings of the 2005 SBM Annual Meeting;
   2005 Apr 13-16; Boston (MA) [cited 2005 Oct 10].
   Available at:
   <a href="http://www.psychosomatic.org/meeting/2005/pageS001-S215.pdf">http://www.psychosomatic.org/meeting/2005/pageS001-S215.pdf</a>. Symposium 5-C.
- Carrieri-Kohlmann V, Stulbarg S. Yoga for treating shortness of breath in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). Bethesda (MD): National Library of Medicine (US). c2003 [updated 2006 Jul 25; cited 2006 Aug 7]. Available at: http://clinicaltrials.gov/ct/show/NCT00051792.
- Carsello CJ, Creaser JW. Does transcendental meditation training affect grades? J Appl Psychol 1978;63(5):644-5.
- Carsello CJ, Creaser JW. Does transcendental meditation training affect grades? J Appl Psychol 1978;63(4):527-8.
- Carson JW. Mindfulness meditation-based treatment for relationship enhancement [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 2003;63(8B):3906.
- Carson JW, Keefe FF, Carson KM. Loving-kindness meditation for chronic low back pain. In: Proceedings of the 2005 SBM Annual Meeting; 2005 Apr 13-16; Boston (MA) [2005 Oct 10]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/meeting/2005/pageS 001-S215.pdf. Paper Session #25.
- Cauthen NR, Prymak CA. Meditation versus relaxation: an examination of the physiological effects of relaxation training and of different levels of experience with transcendental meditation. J Consult Clin Psychol 1977;45(3):496-7.
- Cerpa H. The effects of clinically standardized meditation on type II diabetics [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1989;49(8B):3432.
- Chandiramani K, Jena R, Verma SK. Human figure drawings of prisoners and vipassana. J Projective Psychol Ment Health 1995;2(2):153-8.

- Chang BH, Jones D, Hendricks A, et al. Relaxation response for Veterans Affairs patients with congestive heart failure: results from a qualitative study within a clinical trial. Prev Cardiol 2004;7(2):64-70.
- Clark VL. Absorption as a mediator of the effect of mediation on attention and anxiety [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1984;44(8B):2549.
- Cohen L, Warneke C, Fouladi RT, et al. A Tibetan yoga program for cancer patients. In: Proceedings of the 61st Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; 2003 March 13-16; Phoenix (AR) [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/events/search2006/s howkeysearch.cfm?authorsearch=1. Abstract 1234.
- 31. Colby F. The effects of three procedures designed to produce alternate states of consciousness upon self-reports of memory and current awareness [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;47(8B):3513.
- Collins LA. Stress management and yoga [abstract].
   Diss Abstr Int 1984;45(1A):116.
- Couture RT. Effects of mental training on the performance of military endurance and precision tasks in the Canadian forces [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1992;53(2A):440.
- 34. Cummings VT. The effects of endurance training and progressive relaxation-meditation on the physiological response to stress [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1984;45(2A):451.
- de Santis JJ. Effects of the intensive Zen Buddhist meditation retreat on Rogerian congruence as realself/ideal-self disparity on the California Q-Sort [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;46(8B):2801.
- DeWolfe EJF III. Personal growth in the Maitri Space Awareness program [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1994;55(2B):576.
- 37. Dice ML. The effectiveness of meditation on selected measures of self-actualization [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1979;40(5A):2534.
- 38. Diefenbach K, Doig D, Mccaul A, et al. Short-term assessment of yoga or electromyographic (EMG) biofeedback (BF) in primary hypertension (PH). Clin Res 1976;24(5):A647.

- Ditto B, Eclache M, Goldman N. Short-term autonomic and cardiovascular effects of mindfulness meditation. In: Proceedings of the 2005 SBM Annual Meeting; 2005 Apr 13-16; Boston (MA) [cited 2005 Oct 10]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/meeting/2005/pageS 001-S215.pdf. B32.
- Dua JK. Effect of meditation and progressive relaxation training on reported relaxation and on blood pressure [abstract]. Aust Psychol 1984;19(1):71.
- Easterlin BL. Buddhist vipassana meditation and daily living: effect on cognitive style, awareness, affect and acceptance [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1994;54(8B):4369.
- Engel K. Meditative experience and different paths: data based analyses. J Medit Medit Res 2001;1:35-54.
- Esonis SS. The relative efficacy of the relaxation response, the self-control triad and food sensitivity intervention in the treatment of hypertension [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;47(6B):2613.
- 44. Fabick SD. The relative effectiveness of systematic desensitization, cognitive modification, and mantra meditation in the reduction of test anxiety [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1977;37(8A):4862.
- 45. Fehr T. The role of simplicity (effortlessness) as a prerequisite for the experience of pure consciousness the non-dual state of oneness: "turiya", "samadhi" in meditation. J Medit Medit Res 2002;2:49-77.
- Fiebert MS, Mead TM. Meditation and academic performance. Percept Mot Skills 1981;53(2):447-50.
- Flarity JR. A physiological evaluation of two relaxation protocols on the elicitation of the relaxation response during treadmill walking exercise [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1991;52(2B):688.
- 48. Francis TL. Meditation, flow, and heavy social alcohol use among college students [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1993;54(2A):425.
- Frank MR. Transactional analysis and meditation training as interventions in teacher education: an exploratory study [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1978;39(2A):823-4.
- Friskey LM. Effects of a combined relaxation and meditation training program on hypertensive patients [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;46(1B):300.

- 51. Fritz G. The effects of meditation upon peer counselor effectiveness [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1980;40(11A):5730-1.
- Fulton MA. The effects of relaxation training and meditation on stress, anxiety, and subjective experience in college students [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1990;51(2A):414-5.
- 53. Furedy JJ, Wright C. Effects of yoga training on sympathetic and parasympathetic reactions to relaxation instructions and cognitive stress: joint use of heart-rate and T-wave amplitude. Psychophysiology 1988;25(4):448-9.
- 54. Garfinkel MS. The effect of yoga and relaxation techniques on outcome variables associated with osteoarthritis of the hands and finger joints [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1992;53(5A):1408.
- Gaughan AM. Pain perception following regular practice of meditation, progressive muscle relaxation and sitting [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1991;52(4B):2295.
- 56. Gillis MW. A study of the effect of the relaxation response on women undergoing assisted reproductive technology [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1992;53(5B):2530.
- Gilmore JV. Relative effectiveness of meditation and autogenic training for the self-regulation of anxiety [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;45(8B):2686.
- Gitiban K. Anxiety reduction through muscular relaxation and meditation [dissertation]. Diss Abstr Int 1983;44(2B):607.
- Glanz RS. The effect of the relaxation response on complex cognitive processes [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1991;53(4B):2088.
- Goldberg LS, Meltzer G. Arrow-dot scores of drugaddicts selecting general or yoga therapy. Percept Mot Skills 1975;40(3):726.
- 61. Goldman BL. The efficacy of meditation in the reduction of reported anxiety with controls for expectancy [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1978;38(12B):6152-3.
- 62. Greeson JM, Rosenzweig S, Vogel W, et al. Mindfulness meditation and stress physiology in medical students. Psychosom Med 2001;63(1):158.

- Hall EG, Hardy CJ. Ready, aim, fire: relaxation strategies for enhancing pistol marksmanship. Percept Mot Skills 1991;72(3 Pt 1):775-86.
- 64. Heaton DP, Orme-Johnson DW. The transcendental meditation program and academic achievement. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 396-9.
- 65. Herzberger HG. Voice quality and Maharishi's transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi program: vocal acoustics in health and higher states of awareness [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1992;53(6B):3190.
- 66. Higuchi AA. Effects of self-induced relaxation on autonomic responses and subjective distress of high and low-neuroticism scorers to aversive baby cries [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1977;37(8B):4142-3.
- Holmer ML, Gevirtz R, Spira JL, et al. The effects of yoga on symptoms and psychosocial adjustment in fibromyalgia syndrome patients. Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback 2004;29(4):302.
- 68. Howorka K, Pumpria J, Heger G, et al. Computerised assessment of autonomic influences of yoga using spectral analysis of heart rate variability. In: Proceedings of the First Regional Conference of the Biomedical Engineering Society of India; 1995 Feb 15-18; New Delhi, India. New Delhi, India: IEEE; 1995. p. 61-2.
- Hsiao-Wecksler ET, Ramachandran AK, Yang Y, et al. Tai chi affects gait and obstacle crossing behaviors. Med Sci Sports Exerc 2004;36(5 Suppl):S46.
- Hungerman PW. The effectiveness of the relaxation response in reducing anxiety and promoting selfactualization in counselor trainees [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;46(4B):1324.
- 71. Irwin MR. Effects of a behavioral intervention, tai chi chih, on elevated plasma levels of interleukin-6 in older adults. In: Proceedings of the 63rd Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; 2005 March 2-5; Vancouver (BC) [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/events/search2006/s howkeysearch.cfm?authorsearch=1#. Abstract 1248.
- Janowiak JJ. The effects of meditation on college students' self-actualization and stress management [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1993;53(10A):3449-50.

- 73. Jevning RA, Smith R, Wilson AF, et al. Alterations of blood flow during transcendental meditation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 786.
- 74. Jevning RA, Wilson AF. Altered red cell metabolism in TM. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 814.
- 75. Jewell HA. The effects of meditation and progressive relaxation upon heroin addicts during methadone-aided detoxification [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1984;45(1B):354.
- Johnson EM. Anxiety, drug consumption, and personality correlates of yoga and progressive muscle relaxation [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1983;44(6B):1962.
- 77. Johnson TA, Kristeller JL, Sheets V, et al. A comparison of meditation, psychoeducational, and control groups on eating self-efficacy in an obese binge eating population. Int J Eat Disord 2004;35(4):483-4.
- Keating TM, Lightbody J, Adams D. Comparison of self-selected versus investigator-assigned mantras on the physiologic responses to breathing meditation. Res Q Exerc Sport 2005;76(1 Suppl):A40-1.
- 79. Kember P. The transcendental meditation technique and academic performance: a short report on a controlled longitudinal pilot study. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1991. p. 2384.
- Kember P. The transcendental meditation technique and postgraduate academic performance. Br J Educ Psychol 1985;55(2):164-6.
- 81. Kesterson JB. Changes in respiratory patterns and control during the practice of the transcendental meditation technique [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;47(10B):4337-8.
- 82. Kindler HS. The influence of a meditation-relaxation technique on group problem-solving effectiveness [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1979;39(7A):4370-1.

- Kirsch I, Henry D. Self-desensitization and meditation in the reduction of public speaking anxiety. J Consult Clin Psychol 1979;47(3):536-41.
- 84. Kobal G, Wandhoeffer A, Plattig KH. EEG power spectra and auditory evoked potentials in transcendental meditation (TM). In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 823-4.
- Kolbell RM. Effects of stress management intervention on health and cognitive function: children's services division workers [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1993;53(8A):2691.
- 86. Kristeller JL, Quillian-Wolever RE. The use of mindfulness meditation techniques in treatment of binge eating disorder. Abstracts at the 2003 International Conference On Eating Disorders Clinical And Scientific Challenges: The Interface Between Eating Disorders And Obesity; 2003 May 29-31; Denver, CO. Abstract 005. Available at: http://www3.interscience.wiley.com/cgibin/fulltext/104533973/PDFSTART.
- 87. Landrith GS III, Dillbeck MC. The growth of coherence in society through the Maharishi effect: reduced rates of suicides and auto accidents. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1991. p. 2479-86.
- Lang D. Integrating a stress management minicourse into a personal health course. Education Resources Information Center (ERIC). Lanham, MD. ED228179; 1982.
- 89. Lee EO, Song R, Bae SC. Effects of 12-week tai chi exercise on pain, balance, muscle strength, and physical functioning in older patients with osteoarthritis: randomized trial. Arthritis Rheum 2001; 44(9 Suppl):S393.
- Lee EO, Song R, Bae SC. Effects of a sun-style tai chi exercise on motivation and the performance of health behaviors in older women with osteoarthritis. Arthritis Rheum 2003;48(9 Suppl):S689.
- Lehrer PM, Woolfolk RL. Psychophysiological effects of progressive relaxation and mantra meditation. Biol Psychol 1980;11:269.
- 92. Lesser DP. Yoga asana and self actualization: a Western psychological perspective [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;46(10A):2972.

- 93. Lev D. Focused attention: the impact of concentrative meditation on cognitive control and altered states of consciousness [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1995;55(8B):3618.
- 94. Levine PH, Hebert JR, Haynes CT, et al. EEG coherence during the transcendental meditation technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1977. p. 187-207.
- Li F, Fisher J. A tai chi intervention to improve balance: an examination of change in activityrelated balance confidence and fear of falling. Gerontologist 2002;42:222.
- 96. Li W, Xing Z, Pi D, et al. Influence of qi-gong on plasma TXB2 and 6-keto-PGF1 alpha in two TCM types of essential hypertension. Hunan Yi Ke Da Xue Xue Bao 1997;22(6):497-9.
- 97. Li W, Xing Z, Pi D, et al. The efficacy of qigong training in patients with various TCM types of hypertension. Hunan Yi Ke Da Xue Xue Bao 1996;21(2):123-6.
- 98. Lin PS. The effects of three-month tai-chi-chuan exercise program on health promotion for the community dwelling elderly. J Am Geriatr Soc 2000;48(8):S74.
- 99. Maher MF. Movement exploration and Zazen meditation: a comparison of two methods of personal-growth-group approaches on the self-actualization potential of counselor candidates [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1979;39(9A):5329.
- 100. Maldonado EF, Manzaneque JM, Vera FM, et al. Effects of a qigong meditation program on plasmatic lipid concentrations, cardiovascular function, and anxiety levels. J Psychophysiol 2003;17(1):49.
- 101. Mandle CL, Domar AD, Harrington DP, et al. The relaxation response in patients undergoing femoral arteriograms. Circulation 1988;78(4 Suppl 2):II615.
- 102. Moadel AB, Shah C, Shelov D, et al. Effects of yoga on quality of life among breast cancer patients in Bronx, New York. Psychooncology 2004;13(8 Suppl):S107-8.
- 103. Moles EA. Zen meditation: a study of regression in service of the ego [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1977;38(6B):2871-2.

- 104. Moscoso MS, Reheiser EC, Hann DA. Effects of a brief mindfulness-based stress reduction intervention on cancer patients. Psychooncology 2004;13(1 Suppl):S12.
- 105. Moscoso MS, Reheiser EC, Hann DA. Effects of a brief mindfulness meditation intervention in cancer patients. Psychooncology 2004;13(8 Suppl):S108.
- 106. Motivala SJ, Irwin MR. A behavioral practice, tai chi, induces acute decreases in sympathetic nervous system activation in older adults In: Proceedings of the 63rd Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; 2005 March 2-5; Vancouver (BC) [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/events/search2006/showkeysearch.cfm?authorsearch=1#. Abstract 1454.
- 107. Naifeh KH. Meditation, rest, and sleep onset: a comparison of EEG and respiration changes [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1993;53(12B):6608.
- 108. Newman JA. Affective empathy training with senior citizens using Zazen (Zen) meditation [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1994;55(5A):1193.
- 109. Nidich SI, Schneider RH, Fields J, et al. Effects of the transcendental meditation program on emotional wellbeing in elderly breast cancer patients: preliminary results from a randomized controlled study. J Psychosom Res 2003;55(2):153-4.
- 110. Niederman R. The effects of chi-kung on spirituality and alcohol/other drug dependency recovery. Alcohol Treat Q 2003;21(1):79-87.
- 111. Nielsen HL, Kaszniak AW. Emotion experience and heartbeat detection in long-term meditators. Psychophysiology 2002;39(1 Suppl):S62.
- 112. North AC, Hargreaves DJ. Responses to music in aerobic exercise and yogic relaxation classes. Br J Psychol 1996;87(4):535-47.
- 113. O'Grady M, Wolf SL, Barnhart HX, et al. Tai chi effect on falls in frail older adults. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 1997;178:1028.
- 114. Oken BS, Kishiyama S, Zajdel D, et al. Randomized controlled trial of exercise and yoga in healthy seniors. Neurology 2004;62(7 Suppl 5):A130.
- 115. Otis LS. The facts on transcendental meditation: III if well-integrated but anxious, try TM. Psychol Today 1974;7(11):45-6.

- 116. Ottens AJ. The effect of transcendental meditation upon modifying the cigarette smoking habit [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1975;35(11A):7131.
- 117. Pickersgill MJ, White W. The physiological and psychological states of subjects practicing Transcendental Meditation. Bull Eur Physiopathol Respir 1984;20(1):94-9.
- 118. Polowniak WA. The meditation-encounter-growth group [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1973;34(4B):1732.
- 119. Rainforth MV, Alexander CN, Cavanaugh KL. Effects of the transcendental meditation program on recidivism among former inmates of Folsom Prison: survival analysis of 15-year follow-up data. J Offender Rehabil 2003;36(1-4):181-203.
- 120. Ramsey MK. A comparative study of the effectiveness of the relaxation response and personalized relaxation tapes in medical technology students. Health Educ 1986;17(5):22-5.
- 121. Ramsey MK. A comparative study of the effectiveness of the relaxation response and personalized relaxation tapes in medical technology students [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;45(11A):3285.
- 122. Regan L, Murray ML, Quirk SW. Efficacy of meditation in the remediation of alexithymic characteristics. In: Proceedings of the 60th Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; 2002 March 13-16; Barcelona, Spain [cited 2005 Oct 9]. Available at: http://www.psychosomatic.org/events/search2006/s howkeysearch.cfm?authorsearch=1. Abstract 1176.
- 123. Reiman JW. The impact of meditative attentional training on measures of select attentional parameters and on measure of client perceived counselor empathy [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;46(6A):1569.
- 124. Ricci L. The effect of forced nostril breathing on verbal and spatial processing and on the duration of the spiral aftereffect in different visual half fields [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;46(2B):657.
- 125. Rice S, Cucci III L, Williams J. Practice variables as predictors of stress and relaxation dispositions for yoga and meditation. In: Smith JC, ed. Advances in ABC relaxation. New York: Springer; 2001. p. 193-6.
- 126. Riddle AG. Effects of selected elements of meditation on self-actualization, locus of control, and trait anxiety [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1980;40(7B):3419.

- 127. Riedesel BC. Meditation and empathic behavior: a study of clinically standardized meditation and affective sensitivity [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1983;43(10A):3274.
- 128. Riley TG. A study of the attentional characteristics of long-term Zen meditators [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1990;51(4B):2049.
- 129. Rios RJ. The effect of hypnosis and meditation on state and trait anxiety and locus of control. Int J Clin Exp Hypn 1982;30(2):200.
- 130. Rosenthal JM. The effect of the transcendental meditation program on self-actualization, selfconcept. and hypnotic susceptibility In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1036.
- 131. Rudolph SG. The effect on the self concept of female college students of participation in hatha yoga and effective interpersonal relationship development classes [dissertation]. Manhattan (KS): Kansas State University; 1991.
- 132. Russie RE. The influence of transcendental meditation on positive mental health and self-actualization; and the role of expectation, rigidity, and self-control in the achievement of these benefits [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1976;36(11B):5816.
- 133. Rutschman JR. Effects of techniques of receptive meditation and relaxation on attentional processing. Can Undergraduate J Cogn Sci: CJUCS 2004;7:6-16.
- 134. Salmon PG, Chmiel J, Christmas B, et al. The effect of brief physical activity and relaxation/meditation sessions on positive and negative affect. Med Sci Sports Exerc 2004;36(5 Suppl):S286.
- 135. Saltzman AP, Fisk S, Shoor SM. Randomized controlled trial of the clinical and cost-effectiveness of mindfulness meditation in the treatment of chronic illness and chronic pain. Psychosom Med 1995;57(1):89.
- 136. Schlesiger H. The effectiveness of anxiety reduction techniques in the foreign language classroom [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1996;57(1A):139.
- 137. Schoicket SL. Meditation training and stimulus control as treatments for sleep-maintenance insomnia [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;47(11B):4664.

- 138. Schuster L. The effects of brief relaxation techniques and sedative music on levels of tension [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1982;43(6B):2002.
- 139. Sephton SE, Lynch G, Weissbecker I, et al. Effects of a meditation program on symptoms of illness and neuroendocrine responses in women with fibromyalgia. Psychosom Med 2001;63(1):91-2.
- 140. Shaw PH. Relaxation training in anxiety and stress management: differential effects of an audible vs imaginal meditational focus [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;47(11B):4664.
- 141. Shellman HF. Efficacy of electromyographic biofeedback and the relaxation response in the treatment of situation-specific anxiety [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1980;40(12B Pt 1):5831-2.
- 142. Siddall YR. An experiment comparing the effects of two techniques that elicit the relaxation response on stress reduction and cognitive functioning in first year law students at Southern Illinois University at Carbondale [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;46(11A):3299.
- 143. Siebert JR. Meditation, absorption, and anxiety: predisposition and training effects [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1994;55(3B):1193.
- 144. Sime W. A comparison of exercise and meditation in reducing physiological responses to stress. Med Sports Sci 1977;9:55.
- 145. Slaughter EJ. Hypertension: a comparative study of self-regulation strategies [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1984;45(2B):687.
- 146. Slobodin P. A comparison of the effectiveness of progressive relaxation training and the relaxation response technique as a function of perceived locus of control of reinforcement in tension reduction [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1979;39(12B):6167.
- 147. Smith JC. ABC relaxation theory and yoga, meditation, and prayer: relaxation dispositions, motivations, beliefs, and practice patterns. In: Smith JC, ed. Advances in ABC relaxation. New York: Springer; 2001. p. 197-201.
- 148. Smith JC, Goc NL, Kinzer DJ. Initial trial of the Smith intercentering inventory: progressive muscle relaxation versus yoga stretching versus breathing relaxation In: Smith JC, ed. Advances in ABC relaxation. New York: Springer; 2001. p. 212-24.
- 149. Solberg EE, Berglund KA, Engen O, et al. The effect of meditation on shooting performance. Br J Sports Med 1996;30(4):342-6.

- 150. Soskis DA, Orne EC, Orne MT, et al. Self-hypnosis and meditation for stress management. Int J Clin Exp Hypn 1989;37(4):285-9.
- 151. Spanos NP, Stam HJ, Rivers SM, et al. Meditation, expectation and performance on indices of nonanalytic attending. Int J Clin Exp Hypn 1980;28(3):244-51.
- 152. Steinmiller GA. The relaxation response as a stress coping strategy for student teachers [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;46(6A):1601-2.
- 153. Sterling SK. Affective change following a ten day vipassana meditation retreat [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1996;57(6B):4044.
- 154. Tandon MK. Adjunct therapy with yoga in chronic severe airways obstruction. Aust N Z J Med 1977;7(1):96.
- 155. Tercilla E. Efficacy of relaxation techniques in the attenuation of cognitive versus somatic anxiety [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1981;41(7B):2783.
- 156. Thomas BL. Self-esteem and life satisfaction in noninstitutionalized elderly black females: effects of meditation/relaxation training [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1987;48(4B):1180.
- 157. Tsang HWH, Mok CK, Yeung YTA, et al. The effect of qigong on general and psychosocial health of depressed elderly with chronic physical illnesses: a randomized clinical trial. Int Psychogeriatr 2003;15(2 Suppl):189-90.
- 158. Val Marcus S. The influence of the transcendental meditation technique on the marital dyad. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1991. p. 2477-8.
- 159. Vedanthan PK, Murthy KC, Duvall K, et al. Clinical trial of yoga techniques in university students with asthma: a controlled study. J Allergy Clin Immunol 1992;89(1):344.
- 160. Volweider FH. A comparison of short-term yoga and buddy-oriented groups with chronic psychiatric patients [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1982;42(8B):3448.
- 161. Walder JM. The effects on a measure of selfactualization of adding a meditation exercise to a sensitivity group-group facilitator training program [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1976;36(10A):6533-4.

- 162. Warrenburg WS. Meditation and hemispheric specialization [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1979;40(6B):2892-3.
- 163. Williams RD. The effects of shamatha meditation on attentional and imaginal variables [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;46(1B):319-20.
- 164. Wolf SL, Kutner NG, Green RC, et al. The Atlanta FICSIT study: two exercise interventions to reduce frailty in elders. J Am Geriatr Soc 1993;41(3):329-32.
- 165. Wolfson L, Whipple R, Judge JO, et al. Training balance and strength in the elderly to improve function. J Am Geriatr Soc 1993;41(3):341-3.
- 166. Wood CJ. Meditation and relaxation and their effect upon the pattern of physiological response during the performance of a fine motor and gross motor task [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1983;44(5A):1378.
- 167. Woolfolk RL, Lehrer PM, McCann BS, et al. Effects of progressive relaxation and meditation on cognitive and somatic manifestations of daily stress. Behav Res Ther 1982;20(5):461-7.
- 168. Zhang JZ, Li JZ, He QN. Statistical brain topographic mapping analysis for EEGs recorded during qi gong state. Int J Neurosci 1988;38(3-4):415-25.
- 169. Zimmerman JD. The influence of attentional focus on mood, memory, and state self-consciousness following exercise and meditation [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1986;47(4B):1751.
- 170. Zuroff DC, Schwarz JC. Transcendental meditation versus muscle relaxation: two-year follow-up of a controlled experiment. Am J Psychiatry 1980;137(10):1229-2.

## Excluded: Population—Non-Adult (N = 9)

The following studies were excluded because they did not examine an adult population

.

- Barnes VA, Treiber FDH. Impact of transcendental meditation on cardiovascular function at rest and during acute stress in adolescents with high normal blood pressure. J Psychosom Res 2001;51(4):597-605.
- 2. Borker AS, Pednekar JR. Effect of pranayam on visual and auditory reaction time. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2003;47(2):229-30.
- 3. Gharote ML. Effect of yoga exercises on failures on the Kraus-Weber tests. Percept Mot Skills 1976;43(2):654.
- Kumar KG, Ali MH. Meditation: a harbinger of subjective well-being. J Pers Clin Stud 2003;19(1):93-102
- Lee M. A comparison of transpersonal and physical stress reduction techniques in preparing students for entrance examinations in a Taiwan school [dissertation]. Palo Alto, CA: Institute of Transpersonal Psychology; 2000.
- Pal GK, Velkumary S, Madanmohan. Effect of shortterm practice of breathing exercises on autonomic functions in normal human volunteers. Indian J Med Res 2004;120(2):115-21.
- So KT. Testing and developing holistic intelligence in Chinese culture with Maharishi's vedic psychology: three experimental replications using transcendental meditation [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1995.
- 8. So KT, Orme-Johnson DW. Three randomized experiments on the longitudinal effects of the transcendental meditation technique on cognition. Intelligence 2001;29(5):419-40.
- Verma IC, Jayashankarappa BS, Palani M. Effect of transcendental meditation on the performance of some cognitive psychological tests. Indian J Med Res 1982;76(Suppl):136-43.

## Excluded: Population—Sample Size Less Than 10 (N = 6)

The following studies were excluded because the study sample included less than 10 participants

1. Cimei T, Youjun G. Effects of qigong on reducing response to stress. Int J Psychol 1992;27(3-4):607.

- Fenwick PBC, Donaldson S, Bushman J, et al. EEG and metabolic changes during transcendental meditation. Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1975;39(2):220-1.
- 3. Galantino MLA, Capito L, Kane RJ, et al. The effects of tai chi and walking on fatigue and body mass index in women living with breast cancer: a pilot study. Rehabil Oncol 2003;21(1):17-22.
- 4. Hustad P, Carnes J. The effectiveness of walking meditation on EMG readings in chronic pain patients. Biofeedback Self Regul 1988;13(1):69.
- Reuther I, Aldridge D. Qigong yangsheng as a complementary therapy in the management of asthma: a single-case appraisal. J Altern Complement Med 1998;4(2):173-83.
- Saletu B. Brain function during hypnosis, acupuncture and transcendental meditation: quantitative EEG studies. Recent Adv Biol Psychiatry 1987;16:18-40.

### **Nonobtained Studies (N = 81)**

The following studies were not included in the review due to limitations in our library and retrieval resources.

- Arita H, Sato SI, Fumoto M, et al. Rhythmic behavior of Zen meditation produced appearance of high-frequency alpha band in EEG via activation of serotonergic neurons. Fifty-sixth Annual meeting of the Japan Society of Neurovegetative Research. Vol. 41. Japan Society of Neurovegetative Research; 2004. p. 338-42.
- Arnhold E, Charles BM, Gandhi JS, et al.
   Endocrinological changes following instruction in
   the TM-Sidhi programme. In: Chalmers RA,
   Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res
   Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi
   Programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland:
   Maharishi European Research University MVU
   Press, 1990. p. 1555.
- Aslan UB, Livanelioglu A. Effects of hatha yoga training on aerobic power and anaerobic power in healthy young adults. Fizyoterapi Rehabilitasyon 2002;13(1):24-30.
- Bharshankar JR, Bharshankar RN, Deshpande VN, et al. Effect of yoga on cardiovascular system in subjects above 40 years. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2003;47(2):202-6.
- Bhatnagar OP, Anantharaman V. Effect of yoga training on neuromuscular excitability and muscular relaxation. Neurol India 1977;25(4):230-2.
- Campbell DE, Moore KA. Yoga as a preventative and treatment for depression, anxiety, and stress. Int J Yoga Ther 2004;14:53-8.
- Carlson CR, Bacaseta PE, Simanton DA. A controlled evaluation of devotional meditation and progressive relaxation. J Psychol Theol 1988;16(4):362-8.
- Carlson LE, Speca M, Patel KD, et al. The effects of a mindfulness meditation intervention on psychological parameters, quality of life and immune, endocrine and autonomic functioning in breast and prostate cancer patients. Psychooncology 2003;12(4 Suppl):S105.
- Cilmore RSC. The effects of yoga asanas on blood pressure. Int J Yoga Ther 2002;12.
- Cohen L, Warneke C, Fouladi RT, et al. A Tibetan yoga intervention for cancer patients. Psychooncology 2003;12(4 Suppl):S132-3.

- Cooper SE, Oborne J, Newton S, et al. Do breathing exercises (Buteyko and pranayama) help to control asthma: a randomised controlled trial. Eur Respir J 2002;20(38 Suppl):307s.
- Daroux LM, Culos-Reed SN, Carlson LE. Yoga and cancer: an examination of the physical and psychological benefits. Psychooncology 2003;12(4 Suppl):S231-2.
- Dillbeck MC. The effect of the transcendental meditation technique on anxiety level. J Clin Psychol 1977;33(4):1076-8.
- Eide P, Blank S, Haberman M, et al. Beneficial outcomes of Iyengar yoga practice for breast cancer survivors. Commun Nurs Res 2004;37:448.
- Finney JR. Contemplative prayer as an adjunct to psychotherapy [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1985;46(4B):1334.
- Finney JR, Malony HN. An empirical study of contemplative prayer as an adjunct to psychotherapy. J Psychol Theol 1985;13(4):284-90.
- Flynn AP, Speca M. Being and doing: mindfulness meditation and dance improvisation: creative responses to serious illness. Psychooncology 2003;12(4 Suppl):S166.
- 18. Gopinath KS, Rao R, Raghuram N, et al. Evaluation of yoga therapy as a psychotherapeutic intervention in breast cancer patients on conventional combined modality of treatment. Proceedings of the 39th Annual Meeting of the American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO); 2003 May 31-Jun 3; Chicago, IL. p. 26.
- Griffiths TJ, Steel DH, Vaccaro P, et al. The effects of relaxation techniques on anxiety and underwater performance. Int J Sport Psychol 1981;12(3):176-82.
- Gupta HL, Dudani U, Singh SH, et al. Sahaja yoga in the management of intractable epileptics. J Assoc Physicians India 1991;39(8):649.
- Hebert JR, Tan G. Quantitative EEG phase evaluation of transcendental meditation. J Neurother 2004;8(2):120-1.

- Higuchi Y, Kotani Y, Hayashi Y, et al. Immune responses during zhang method qigong. Human Potential Science International Forum; 2002, Aug 22-27; Makuhari, Japan. ISLIS 2002;(20):449-52.
- Hoffman K, Clarke J. A comparative study of the cardiac response to bhastrika: a yogic breathing exercise and the exercise tolerance test. Int J Yoga Ther 1996;7:35-42.
- Ito M, Singh LN, Yamaguchi K, et al. How does yoga affect the brain? Human Potential Science International Forum; 2002, Aug 22-27; Makuhari, Japan. ISLIS 2002(20):473-9.
- Janakiramaiah N, Gangadhar BN, Naga-Venkatesha-Murthy PJ, et al. Therapeutic efficacy of sudarshan kriya yoga (Sky) in dysthymic disorder. Nimhans Journal 1998;16(1):21-8.
- 26. Jedrczak A, Cox D, Cunningham C. Pilot testing of subjects practising the transcendental meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: neuroticism, anxiety, well-being, and the capacity for absorbing experiences. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol. 4. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1991. p. 2414-17.
- 27. Jevning RA, Wilson AF. Behavioral increase on cerebral blood flow. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1990. p. 1554-5.
- 28. Jevning RA, Wilson AF, VanderLaan EF, et al. Plasma prolactin and cortisol during transcendental meditation. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Sci Res Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation TM-Sidhi Programme: collected papers. Vol 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 143-4.
- Kawano K, Yamamoto M, Kokubo H, et al. Characteristics of EEG during various meditations. Human Potential Science International Forum; 2002, Aug 22-27; Makuhari, Japan. ISLIS 2002(20):512-6.
- Kido M. Application of a single square voltage pulse method. J Int Soc Life Inf Sci 1997;15(1):60-70.
- 31. King R, Brownstone A. Neurophysiology of yoga meditation. Int J Yoga Ther 1999;9:9-17.

- 32. Koshii H, Liu C, Machi Y. A comparative study of physiological changes while playing a wind instrument and doing internal qigong. Proceedings of the 17th Symposium on Life Information Science; 2004, March 13-14; Tokyo, Japan. ISLIS 2004;22:41-8.
- 33. Koshikawa F, Ichii M. An experiment on classifications of meditation methods on procedures, goals and effects. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 213-24.
- 34. Kotake J, Chen W, Parkhomtchouk D, et al. Comparison of the physiology between qigong and relaxation states. Human Potential Science International Forum; 2002 Aug 22-27; Makuhari, Japan. ISLIS 2002(20):606-9.
- Kristeller JL, Quillian-Wolever RE. Meditationbased treatment for binge-eating disorder. Clin Trials 2003. Available at: http://clinicaltrials.gov/ct/show/NCT00032760.
- Kulik A, Szewczyk L. Sense of meaning of life and the emotional reaction among young people pursuing different types of meditation. Stud Psychol 2002;44(2):155-66.
- Kwee MGT, Taams MK. Neozen: Buddhist meditation and the empirical evidence on health enhancement. Int J Psychol 2004;39(5-6 Suppl):384.
- 38. Lee KK, Leung E, Wong S, et al. The effects of qigong and conventional exercise on type 2 diabetic patients. Diabetes 2002;51(2 Suppl):A245.
- Leung PC. Comparative effects of training in external and internal concentration on two counseling behaviors. J Couns Psychol 1973;20(3):227-34.
- Li Q, Matsuura Y, Tsubouchi S, et al. Influence of level of skill on physiological reaction in shaolin internal qigong. Proceedings of the 15th Symposium on Life Information Science; 2003, Mar 15-16; Tokyo, Japan. ISLIS 2003;(21):120.
- 41. Lindemann U, Hammer W, Muche R, et al. Postural control in the elderly: effect of a twelve week tai chi-qigong intervention in healthy elderly. Eur J Geriatr 2003;5(4):182-6.

- Liu C, Machi Y. Measurement of abdominal respiration patterns with indexes and the pulse delay time of physiological results in regimen qigong. Human Potential Science International Forum; 2002, Aug 22-27; Makuhari, Japan. ISLIS 2002;(20):570-7.
- 43. Liu C, Machi Y. The physiological effect of controlled respiration and the meaning of respiration method in qigong therapy. Proceedings of the 11th Symposium on Life Information Science, 2001, March 23-24; Tokyo, Japan. ISLIS 2001;(19):90-9.
- Longo DJ. A psychophysiological comparison of three relaxation techniques and some implications in treating cardiovascular syndromes. Proceedings of the 1984 SBM Annual Meeting; 1984 May 23-26; Philadelphia, PA.
- Lu LJ. Ninety two patients with cervical spondylopathy treated by massage and qigong. J Zhejiang Coll of Tradit Chin Med 1996;20(1):39-40.
- 46. Mannerkorpi K, Arndorw M. Can body awareness therapy and qi gong improve movement harmony in patients with fibromyalgia: a pilot study. Proceedings of Myopain 2004: 6th World Congress on myofascial pain and fibromyalgia, 2004 July 18-22, Munich, Germany. HMP 2004;(12):60.
- 47. Mehling WE, Hamel KA, Acree M, et al. Randomized, controlled trial of breath therapy for patients with chronic low-back pain. Altern Ther Health Med 2005;11(4):44-52.
- Menon A, Krishnan VR. Transformational leadership and follower's karma-yoga: role of follower's gender. Indian J Psychol 2004;22(2):50-62.
- 49. Moadel AB, Shah C, Patel S, et al. Randomized controlled trial of yoga for symptom management during breast cancer treatment. Proceedings of the 39th Annual Meeting of the American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO); 2003 May 31-Jun 3; Chicago, IL. p. 726.
- Morse DR, Furst ML. Meditation: an in depth study. J Am Soc Psychosom Dent Med 1982;29(5):96.
- 51. Murphy MJ. Explorations in the use of group meditation with persons in psychotherapy [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1973;33:6089.
- Nimmagadda J. Mental health promotion and stress management through yoga; effects of sudarshan kriya. Int J Psychol 2000;35(3-4):77.

- Palmer J, Khamashta K, Israelson K. An ESP ganzfeld experiment with transcendental meditators. J Am Soc for Psychical Res 1979;73(4):333-8.
- 54. Payne D, Luzzatto P. Meditation and arts therapies: a mini retreat. Psychooncology 2003;12(4 Suppl):S218.
- Piggins D, Morgan D. Perceptual phenomena resulting from steady visual fixation and repeated auditory input under experimental conditions and in meditation. J Altered States Consciousness 1978;3(3):197-203.
- 56. Ritter C, Aldridge D. Qigong yangsheng as a therapeutic approach for the treatment of essential hypertension in comparison with a western muscle relaxation therapy: a randomised, controlled pilot study. Chinesische Medizin 2001;16(2):48-63.
- Rosdahl DRL. The effect of mindfulness meditation on tension headaches and secretory immunoglobulin A in saliva [dissertation]. Tucson: University of Arizona; 2003.
- Ross K, Adams K, Donner B. Mindfulness for inpatients? Clin Psychol 2005;47:13-5.
- 59. Sakairi Y. Application of the meditative method in psychotherapy with an emphasis on transcendental meditation and autogenic training. In: Haruki Y, Ishii Y, Suzuki M, eds. Comparative and psychological study on meditation. Proceedings of the 3rd Conference; 1993 Aug 30-Sept 2; Makuhari, Japan. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 1996. p. 171-84.
- 60. Sawada Y. Is meditation efficacious as a stress reduction intervention? A cardiovascular hemodynamic approach. In: Haruki Y, Kaku KT, eds. Meditation as Health Promotion: A Lifestyle Modification Approach. Proceedings of the 6th Conference; 2000 Jul 20-21; Noordwijkerhout, The Netherlands. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 2000. p. 132-51.
- Shafil M, Lavely R, Jaffe R. Meditation and the prevention of alcohol abuse. Alcohol Health Res World 1976 Sum:18-21.
- 62. Shapiro DH, Shapiro J, Walsh RN, et al. Effects of intensive meditation on sex-role identification: implications for a control model of psychological health. Psychol Rep 1982;51(1):44-6.
- Sharma M. Pilot test of a Kundalinî-yoga intervention for developing the mind-body connection. Int J Yoga Ther 2001;11:85-91.

- Sharma NR, Yadava A, Hooda D. Effect of yoga on psycho-physical functions. Indian J Psychol 2005;23(1):37-42.
- 65. Silva GD, Lage LV. Effects of stretching and relaxing yoga exercises versus stretching and relaxing yoga exercises induced through touch in fibromyalgia patients. Ann Rheum Dis 2005;64(3 Suppl):347.
- Spanos NP, Rivers SM, Gottlieb J. Hypnotic responsivity, meditation, and laterality of eye movements. J Abnorm Psychol 1978;87(5):566-9.
- Sridevi K, Rao PVK. Temporal effects of meditation on cognitive style. Indian J Psychol 2003;21(1):38-51.
- Stephan K, Payne R. Iyengar yoga and neuromuscular therapy. Massage Bodywork 2000;15(4):34-46.
- Talukdar B, Verma S, Jain SC, et al. Effect of yoga training on plasma lipid profile, RBC membrane lipid peroxidation and Na+K+ ATPase activity in patients of essential hypertension. Indian J Clin Biochem 1996;11(2):129-33.
- Tanaka M, Kokubo H, Kokado T, et al. Physiological measurements during qigong training (II). Proceedings of the 10th Symposium on Life Information Science. ISLIS 2000;18:383-94.
- Teasdale JD. Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy in the prevention of relapse and recurrence in major depression. In: Haruki Y, Kaku KT, eds. Meditation as Health Promotion: A Lifestyle Modification Approach. Proceedings of the 6th Conference; 2000 Jul 20-21; Noordwijkerhout, The Netherlands. Delft, Netherlands: Eburon Publishers; 2000. p. 3-18
- Thomas D, Abbas KA. Comparison of transcendental meditation and progressive relaxation in reducing anxiety. BMJ 1978;2(6154):1749.
- Vedanthan PK. Yoga breathing techniques (YBT) in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD): a preliminary study. In: Program and Abstracts of

- the 94th International Conference of the American Thoracic Society; 1998 Apr 23-28; San Diego, CA. Poster A132.
- 74. Vedanthan PK, Raghuram NB. Yoga breathing techniques (YBTs) in exercise induced asthma: a pilot study. Int J Yoga Ther 2003;13.
- 75. Watanabe E, Fukuda S, Hara H, et al. Altered responses of saliva cortisol and mood status by long-period special yoga exercise mixed with meditation and guided imagery. J Int Soc Life Inf Sci 2002;20(2):585-7.
- Watanabe E, Fukuda S, Hara H, et al. The psychoneuro-endocrinological effects of yoga exercise, meditation and guided imagery. Human Potential Science International Forum; 2002 Aug 22-27; Makuhari, Japan. ISLIS 2002;(20):585-9.
- 77. Yoshida K, Yoshihuku Y, Aoki T, et al. The effect of the qigong exercise suwaishou from the viewpoint of the sway of the center of gravity. Human Potential Science International Forum; 2002 Aug 22-27; Makuhari, Japan. ISLIS 2002;(20):563-9.
- 78. Yoshihuku Y, Yoshida K. The effects of various kinds of yoga exercises on grip strength of experienced and inexperienced people. Human Potential Science International Forum; 2002 Aug 22-27; Makuhari, Japan. ISLIS 2002;(20):578-84.
- 79. Zhang T, Chen W, Fukuda N, et al. Correlations between cardiac variability and alpha/theta activities of EEG during qigong task. Proceedings of the 15th Symposium on Life Information Science; 2003 Mar 15-16; Tokyo, Japan. ISLIS 2003;(21):278-84.
- Zhang T, Chen W, Yoichi H, et al. Human Potential Science International Forum; 2002 Aug 22-27; Makuhari, Japan. ISLIS 2002;(20):517-25.
- Zhang T, Sakaida H, Kawano K, et al. An experiment on cerebral activity during visual imagery. J Int Soc Life Inf Sci 2000;18(2):400-3.

# **Appendix F. References of Multiple Publications** (Topics II to V)

From 911 included articles, 108 were identified as multiple publications, that is, cases in which the same study was published more than once, available in another format, or part of data from an original report was republished. The multiple publications were not considered to be unique studies and any information that they provided was included with the data reported in the main study. The report that was published first was regarded as the main study.

- Ades PA, Savage PD, Cress ME, et al. Resistance training on physical performance in disabled older female cardiac patients. Med Sci Sports 2003;35(8):1265-70. Associated publication of 233
- Alexander CN, Langer EJ, Newman RI, et al.
   Transcendental Meditation, mindfulness, and longevity: an experimental study with the elderly. J Pers Soc Psychol 1989;57(6):950-64. Associated publication of 279
- 3. Alexander CN, Schneider RH, Staggers F, et al. Trial of stress reduction for hypertension in older African Americans II: sex and risk subgroup analysis. Hypertension 1996;28(2):228-37. **Associated publication of 221**
- 4. Anderson VL. The effects of meditation on teacher perceived occupational stress and trait anxiety [dissertation]. Indiana, PA: Indiana University of Pennsylvania; 1996. Associated publication of 384
- 5.Barnes VA, Treiber FA, Turner JR, et al. Acute effects of Transcendental Meditation on hemodynamic functioning in middle aged adults [abstract]. In: 57th Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; Vancouver, BC; 1999. No. 1209. Associated publication of 385
- 6.Blumenthal JA, Emery CF, Madden DJ, et al. Effects of exercise training on cardiorespiratory function in men and women older than 60 years of age. Am J Cardiol 1991;67(7):633-9. Associated publication of 280
- 7.Blumenthal JA, Emery CF, Madden DJ, et al. Cardiovascular and behavioral effects of aerobic exercise training in healthy older men and women. J Gerontol 1989;44(5):147-57. **Associated publication** of 280
- 8.Blumenthal JA, Emery CF, Madden DJ, et al. Effects of exercise training on bone density in older men and women. J Am Geriatr Soc 1991;39(11):1065-70.
   Associated publication of 280

- 9.Bowman AJ. Effects of aerobic exercise training and yoga on cardiac and lymphocyte beta-adrenergic responses in sedentary elderly subjects. J Am Geriatr Soc 1995;43(9):SA78. Associated publication of 281
- Carlson LE, Speca M, Patel KD, et al. Mindfulness-based stress reduction in relation to quality of life, mood, symptoms of stress and levels of cortisol, dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate (DHEAS) and melatonin in breast and prostate cancer outpatients. Psychoneuroendocrinology 2004;29(4):448-74.
   Associated publication of 386
- Carlson LE, Speca M, Patel KD, et al. Mindfulness-based stress reduction in relation to quality of life, mood, symptoms of stress, and immune parameters in breast and prostate cancer outpatients.
   Psychosom Med 2003;65(4):571-81. Associated publication of 386
- 12. Carlson LE, Ursuliak Z, Goodey E, et al. The effects of a mindfulness meditation-based stress reduction program on mood and symptoms of stress in cancer outpatients: 6-month follow-up. Support Care Cancer 2001;9(2):112-23. **Associated publication of 386**
- Chang JC, Chiung W. Effect of meditation on music performance anxiety [dissertation]. New York: Columbia University; 2001. Associated publication of 387
- Chen KM, Snyder M, Krichbaum K. Tai chi and well-being of Taiwanese community-dwelling elders. Clin Gerontol 2001;24(3-4):137-56.
   Associated publication of 388
- Cohen L, Thornton B, Chanmdwani K. A randomized trial of a Tibetan yoga intervention for breast cancer patients [abstract]. In: 63rd Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; Vancouver, BC; 2005. No. 1607. Associated publication of 120

- Cooper MJ, Aygen MM. A relaxation technique in the management of hypercholesterolemia. J Hum Stress 1979;5(4):24-7. Associated publication of 291
- 17. Cusumano JA. The short-term psychophysiological effects of hatha yoga and progressive relaxation on female Japanese students [dissertation]. Tempe, AZ: Arizona State University; 1991. **Associated publication of 389**
- Daubenmier JJ. The relationship of yoga, body awareness, and body responsiveness to self objectification and disordered eating. Psychol Women Q 2005;29(2):207-19. Associated publication of 390
- Davis PG, Mustian KM, Katula JA, et al. Tai chi chuan and insulin-like growth factor-I (Igf-I) in breast cancer survivors. Med Sci Sports Exerc 2004;36(5 Suppl):S97-8. Associated publication of 391
- Delmonte MM. Effects of expectancy on physiological responsivity in novice meditators. Biol Psychol 1985;21(2):107-21. Associated publication of 392
- Delmonte MM. Expectancy and response to meditation. Int J Psychosom 1986;33(2):28-34.
   Associated publication of 393
- 22. Delmonte MM. Expectation and meditation. Psychol Rep 1981;49(3):699-709. **Associated publication of 393**
- Delmonte MM. Response to meditation in terms of physiological, behavioral and self-report measures. Int J Psychosom 1984;31(2):3-17. Associated publication of 392
- Emery CF, Blumenthal JA. Perceived change among participants in an exercise program for older adults. Gerontologist 1990;30(4):516-21.
   Associated publication of 280
- 25. Friedman E, Berger BG. Influence of gender, masculinity, and femininity on the effectiveness of three stress reduction techniques: jogging, relaxation response, and group interaction. J Appl Sport Psychol 1991;3(1):61-86. Associated publication of 394
- Gaston L, Crombez JC, Joly J, et al. Efficacy of imagery and meditation techniques in treating psoriasis. Imagination Cogn Pers 1988-1989:8(1):25-38. Associated publication of 395

- Gilbert GS, Parker JC, Claiborn CD. Differential mood changes in alcoholics as a function of anxiety management strategies. J Clin Psychol 1978;34(1):229-32. Associated publication of 265
- Goodale IL. The effects of the relaxation response on premenstrual syndrome [abstract]. Diss Abstr Int 1990;50(8B):3731. Associated publication of 396
- Hass CJ, Gregor RJ, Waddell DE, et al. The influence of tai chi training on the center of pressure trajectory during gait initiation in older adults. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2004;85(10):1593-8. Associated publication of 397
- Irwin MR, Pike JL, Cole JC, et al. Effects of a behavioral intervention, tai chi chih, on varicellazoster virus. Specific immunity and health functioning in older adults. Psychosom Med 2003;65:824-30. Associated publication of 398
- 31. Jevning RA, Wells I, Wilson AF. Plasma thyroid hormones, thyroid stimulating hormone, and insulin during acute hypometabolic states in man. Physiol Behav 1987;40(5):603-6. **Associated publication of 399**
- 32. Jevning RA, Wilson AF. Acute decline in adrenocortical activity during Transcendental Meditation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 811. Associated publication of 400
- Jevning RA, Wilson AF, Davidson JM. Adrenocortical activity during meditation. Horm Behav 1978;10(1):54-60. Associated publication of 400
- 34. Jevning RA, Wilson AF, Pirkle HC. Modulation of red cell metabolism by states of decreased activation: comparison between states. Physiol Behav 1985;35(5):679-82. **Associated publication of 399**
- 35. Jevning RA, Wilson AF, Smith WR. Redistribution of blood flow in Transcendental Meditation. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G, Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM-Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 2. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University MVU Press; 1990. p. 787. Associated publication of 401

- 36. Kabat-Zinn J, Wheeler E, Light T, et al. Influence of a mindfulness meditation-based stress reduction intervention on rates of skin clearing in patients with moderate to severe psoriasis undergoing phototherapy (UVB) and photochemotherapy (PUVA). Psychosom Med 1998;60(5):625-32. Associated publication of 195
- 37. Kondwani K, Schneider RH, Alexander CN, et al. Left ventricular mass regression with the Transcendental Meditation technique and a health education program in hypertensive African Americans. J Soc Behav Pers 2005;17(1):181-200. Associated publication of 210
- Kreitzer MJ, Gross CR, Ye X. Longitudinal impact of mindfulness meditation on illness burden in solid-organ transplant recipients. Prog Transplant 2005;15(2):166-72. Associated publication of 402
- Kristeller JL, Quillian-Wolever RE, Sheets V. Mindfulness meditation in treating binge eating disorder: a randomized clinical trial. Int J Eat Disord 2004;35(4):453. Associated publication of 403
- Kutner NG, Barnhart HX, Wolf SL. Self-report benefits of tai chi practice by older adults. J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci 1997;52(5):242-6.
   Associated publication of 397
- Lan C, Lai JS, Chen SY. Tai chi chuan to improve muscular strength and endurance in elderly individuals: a pilot study. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2000;81(5):604-7. Associated publication of 326
- Latha DR, Kaliappan KV. The efficacy of yoga therapy in the treatment of migraine and tension headaches. J Indian Acad Appl Psychol 1987;13(2):95-100. Associated publication of 404
- 43. Lee MS, Kang CW, Lim HJ. Effects of qi-training on anxiety and plasma concentrations of cortisol, acth, and aldosterone: a randomized placebocontrolled pilot dtudy. Stress Health 2004;20(5):243-8. Associated publication of 405
- Lee MS, Kang CW, Ryu H. Acute effect of qitraining on natural killer cell subsets and cytotoxic activity. Int J Neurosci 2005;115(2):285-97.
   Associated publication of 405
- Lee MS, Kang CW, Ryu H. Endocrine and immune effects of qi-training. Int J Neurosci 2004;114(4):529-37. Associated publication of 405

- Lee MS, Lee MS, Choi ES. Effects of qigong on blood pressure, blood pressure determinants and ventilatory function in middle-aged patients with essential hypertension. Am J Chin Med 2003;31(3):489-97. Associated publication of 214
- 47. Lee MS, Lim HJ, Lee MS. Impact of qigong exercise on self-efficacy and other cognitive perceptual variables in patients with essential hypertension. J Altern Complement Med 2004;10(4):675-80. Associated publication of 213
- 48. Lee SW, Charlson ME, Mancuso CA. Practice of energy-yoga is associated with improvements in health-related quality of life. J Gen Intern Med 2003;18(1 Suppl):267-8. **Associated publication of 406**
- 49. Levitsky DK. Effects of the "Transcendental Meditation" (TM®) program on neuroendocrine indicators of chronic stress [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1998.
  Associated publication of 407
- Li F, Fisher KJ, Harmer P. Delineating the impact of tai chi training on physical function among the elderly. Am J Prev Med 2002;23(2 Suppl):92-7.
   Associated publication of 408
- 51. Li F, Fisher KJ, Harmer P. Falls self-efficacy as a mediator of fear of falling in an exercise intervention for older adults. J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci 2005;60(1):34-40. **Associated publication of 409**
- Li F, Harmer P, Fisher KJ. Tai chi: improving functional balance and predicting subsequent falls in older persons. Med Sci Sports 2004;36(12):2046-52. Associated publication of 409
- 53. Li F, Harmer P, Mcauley E. An evaluation of the effects of tai chi exercise on physical function among older persons: a randomized contolled trial. Ann Behav Med 2001;23(2):139-46. Associated publication of 408
- 54. Li F, Harmer P, Mcauley E. Tai chi, self-efficacy, and physical function in the elderly. Prev Sci 2001;2(4):229-39. **Associated publication of 408**
- Li F, Mcauley E, Harmer P. Tai chi enhances selfefficacy and exercise behavior in older adults. J Aging Phys Act 2001;9(2):161-71. Associated publication of 408
- Lukoff DG. Comparison of a holistic and a social skills training program for schizophrenics [dissertation]. Chicago: Loyola University; 1980.
   Associated publication of 410

- 57. MacLean CR, Walton KG, Wenneberg SR. Altered responses of cortisol, GH, TSH and testosterone to acute stress after four months' practice of Transcendental Meditation (TM). Ann N Y Acad Sci 1994;746:381-4. Associated publication of 407
- 58. Madden DJ, Blumenthal JA, Allen PA. Improving aerobic capacity in healthy older adults does not necessarily lead to improved cognitive performance. Psychol Aging 1989;4(3):307-20.

  Associated publication of 280
- Malathi A, Damodaran A, Shah N. Effect of yogic practices on subjective well being. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2000;44(2):202-6. Associated publication of 411
- Malhotra V, Singh S, Singh KP. Study of yoga asanas in assessment of pulmonary function in NIDDM patients. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 2002;46(3):313-20. Associated publication of 321
- Mandle CL, Domar AD, Harrington DP. Relaxation response in femoral angiography. Radiology 1990;174(3 Pt 1):737-9. Associated publication of 91
- 62. Marcus MT, Fine PM, Moeller FG. Change in stress levels following mindfulness-based stress reduction in a therapeutic community. Addict Disord Their Treat 2003;2(3):63-8. **Associated publication of 272**
- 63. Mason LI, Alexander CN, Travis FT.
  Electrophysiological correlates of higher states of consciousness during sleep in long-term practitioners of the Transcendental Meditation program. Sleep 1997;20(2):102-10. Associated publication of 412
- 64. McComb JJR, Tacon AM, Randolph PD. A pilot study to examine the effects of a mindfulness-based stress-reduction and relaxation program on levels of stress hormones, physical functioning, and submaximal exercise responses. J Altern Complement Med 2004;10(5):819-27. Associated publication of 244
- McGibbon CA, Krebs DE, Wolf SL. Tai chi and vestibular rehabilitation effects on gaze and wholebody stability. J Vestib Res 2004;14(6):467-78.
   Associated publication of 413
- Mustian KM, Katula JA, Gill DL. Tai chi chuan, health-related quality of life and self-esteem: a randomized trial with breast cancer survivors. Support Care Cancer 2004;12(12):871-6.
   Associated publication of 391

- 67. Mustian KM, Katula JA, Roscoe JA. The influence of tai chi (Tc) and support therapy (St) on fatigue and quality of life (Qol) in women with breast cancer (Bc). Am J Clin Oncol 2004;22(14 Suppl):764S. Associated publication of 391
- 68. Nakao M, Fricchione GL, Myers P. Anxiety is a good indicator for somatic symptom reduction through behavioral medicine intervention in a mind/body medicine clinic. Psychother Psychosom 2001;70(1):50-7. Associated publication of 414
- Narendran S, Nagarathna R, Gunasheela S. Efficacy of yoga in pregnant women with abnormal doppler study of umbilical and uterine arteries. J Indian Med Assoc 2005;103(1):12-4. Associated publication of 415
- O'Halloran JP, Jevning RA, Wilson AF.
   Behaviorally induced secretion of arginine
   vasopressin. In: Chalmers RA, Clements G,
   Schenkluhn H, et al., eds. Scientific research on
   Maharishi's Transcendental Meditation and TM Sidhi programme: collected papers. Vol. 3.
   Switzerland: Maharishi European Research
   University MVU Press; 1990. p. 1640-5.
   Associated publication of 416
- Orme-Johnson DW, Kiehlbauch J, Moore RG.
  Personality and autonomic changes in prisoners
  practicing the Transcendental Meditation
  technique. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds.
  Scientific research on the Transcendental
  Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1.
  Switzerland: Maharishi European Research
  University MVU Press; 1977. p. 556-68.
  Associated publication of 188
- Panjwani U, Gupta HL, Singh SH. Effect of sahaja yoga practice on stress management in patients of epilepsy. Indian J Physiol Pharmacol 1995;39(2):111-6. Associated publication of 417
- Panjwani U, Selvamurthy W, Singh SH. Effect of sahaja yoga practice on seizure control and EEG changes in patients of epilepsy. Indian J Med Res 1996;103:165-72. Associated publication of 417
- 74. Parker JC, Gilbert GS, Thoreson RW. Reduction of autonomic arousal in alcoholics: a comparison of relaxation and meditation techniques. J Consult Clin Psychol 1978;46(5):879-86. Associated publication of 265
- Patel CH. Yoga and biofeedback in the management of 'stress' in hypertensive patients. Clin Sci Mol Med Suppl 1975;2:171-4. Associated publication of 219

- Pelletier KR. Influence of Transcendental Meditation upon autokinetic perception. Percept Mot Skills 1974;39(3):1031-4. Associated publication of 418
- Peters RK, Benson H, Peters JM. Daily relaxation response breaks in a working population: II effects on blood pressure. Am J Pub Health 1977;67(10):954-9. Associated publication of 284
- Rani NJ, Rao PVK. Self-ideal disparity and yoga training. Indian J Psychol 1992;10(1-2):35-40.
   Associated publication of 172
- Reddy MK, Ath D, Bai AJL. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on athletic performance. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1.
   Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 346-58.
   Associated publication of 309
- Robinson FP. Psycho-endocrine-immune response to mindfulness-based stress reduction in HIVinfected individuals [dissertation]. Chicago: Loyola University; 2002. Associated publication of 419
- Sagula DA. Varying treatment duration in a mindfulness meditation stress reduction program for chronic pain patients [dissertation]. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University; 2000.
   Associated publication of 420
- Schneider RH, Castillo-Richmond A, Alexander CN. Behavioral treatment of hypertensive heart disease in African Americans: rationale and design of a randomized controlled trial. Behav Med 2001;27(2):83-95. Associated publication of 221
- 83. Sephton SE, Lynch G, Weissbecker I. Effects of a meditation program on symptoms of illness and neuroendocrine responses in women with fibromyalgia [abstract]. In: 59th Annual Scientific Conference of the American Psychosomatic Society; Monterey, CA; 2001. No. 1456. Associated publication of 421
- Shafii M, Lavely R, Jaffe R. Meditation and marijuana. Am J Psychiatry 1974;131(1):60-3.
   Associated publication of 422
- 85. Shapiro SL, Bootzin RR, Figueredo AJ. The efficacy of mindfulness-based stress reduction in the treatment of sleep disturbance in women with breast cancer: an exploratory study. J Psychosom Res 2003;54(1):85-91. Associated publication of 423

- 86. Smith JC. Psychotherapeutic effects of Transcendental Meditation with controls for expectation of relief and daily sitting. J Consult Clin Psychol 1976;44(4):630-7. **Associated publication of 424**
- Taggart HM. Tai chi, balance, functional mobility, fear of falling, and health perception among older women [dissertation]. Birmingham, AL: University of Alabama; 2000. Associated publication of 425
- 88. Takahashi T, Murata T, Hamada T. Changes in EEG and autonomic nervous activity during meditation and their association with personality traits. Int J Psychophysiol 2005;55(2):199-207. Associated publication of 426
- Teasdale JD, Moore RG, Hayhurst H.
   Metacognitive awareness and prevention of relapse in depression: empirical evidence. J Consult Clin Psychol 2002;70(2):275-87. Associated publication of 427
- Tebecis AK. Eye movements during Transcendental Meditation. Folia Psychiatr Neurol Jpn 1976;30(4):487-93. Associated publication of 428
- Throll DA. Transcendental Meditation and progressive relaxation: their psychological effects. J Clin Psychol 1981;37(4):776-81. Associated publication of 429
- Tiefenthaler U, Grossman P. Buddhist psychology's potential contribution to psychosomatic medicine: evidence from a mindfulness program for fibromyalgia. Psychosom Med 2002;64(1):141.
   Associated publication of 430
- Travis FT. The Transcendental Meditation technique and creativity: a longitudinal study of Cornell University undergraduates. J Creat Behav 1979;13(3):169-80. Associated publication of 293
- 94. Vahia NS, Doongali DR, Jeste DV, et al. Further experience with the therapy based upon concepts of Patanjali in the treatment of psychiatric disorders. Indian J Psychiatr 1973;15:32-7. Associated publication of 170
- Wagstaff GF, Brunas-Wagstaff J, Cole J, et al. New directions in forensic hypnosis: facilitating memory with a focused meditation technique. Contemp Hypn 2004;21(1):14-27. Associated publication of 431
- Wang JS, Lan C, Wong MK. Tai chi chuan training to enhance microcirculatory function in healthy elderly men. Arch Phys Med Rehabil 2001;82(9):1176-80. Associated publication of 432

- Weissbecker I, Salmon PG, Studts JL, et al. Mindfulness-based stress reduction and sense of coherence among women with fibromyalgia. J Clin Psychol Med Settings 2002;9(4):297-307.
   Associated publication of 421
- 98. Wenneberg SR. The effects of Transcendental Meditation on ambulatory blood pressure, cardiovascular reactivity, anger/hostility, and platelet aggregation [dissertation]. Fairfield, IA: Maharishi International University; 1994.

  Associated publication of 433
- Wenneberg SR, Schneider RH, Walton KG, et al. A controlled study of the effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on cardiovascular reactivity and ambulatory blood pressure. Int J Neurosci 1997;89(1-2):15-28.
   Associated publication of 433
- 100. Williams KA, Steinberg L, Petronis J. Therapeutic application of iyengar yoga for healing chronic low back pain. Int J of Yoga Ther 2003;13:55-67. Associated publication of 118
- 101.Wolf DB. Effects of the hare krsna maha mantra on stress, depression, and the three gunas (spirituality, yoga) [dissertation]. Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University; 1999. Associated publication of 434
- 102. Wolf SL, Barnhart HX, Ellison GL, et al. The effect of tai chi quan and computerized balance training on postural stability in older subjects Atlanta FICSIT group frailty and injuries: cooperative studies on intervention techniques. Phys Ther 1997;77(4):371-81; discussion 382-4. Associated publication of 397
- 103. Wolf SL, Barnhart HX, Kutner NG, et al. Reducing frailty and falls in older persons: an investigation of tai chi and computerized balance training Atlanta FICSIT group frailty and injuries: cooperative studies of intervention techniques. J Am Geriatr Soc 1996;44(5):489-97. Associated publication of 397
- 104. Wolf SL, Barnhart HX, Kutner NG, et al. Selected as the best paper in the 1990s: reducing frailty and falls in older persons: an investigation of tai chi and computerized balance training. J Am Geriatr Soc 2003;51(12):1794-803. Associated publication of 397
- 105. Wolf SL, Sattin RW, Kutner M, et al. Intense tai chi exercise training and fall occurrences in older, transitionally frail adults: a randomized, controlled trial. J Am Geriatr Soc 2003;51(12):1693-701.
  Associated publication of 397

- 106. Yan JH. Tai chi practice reduces movement force variability for seniors. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 1999;54(12):M629-34. **Associated publication of 435**
- 107. Yeh GY, Eisenberg DM, Wood MJ, et al. Tai chi as an adjunctive intervention for patients with heart failure: a pilot study. J Gen Intern Med 2003;18(1 Suppl):161. Associated publication of <sup>246</sup>

Zamarra JW, Besseghini I, Wittenberg S. The effects of the Transcendental Meditation program on the exercise performance of patients with angina pectoris. In: Orme-Johnson DW, Farrow JT, eds. Scientific research on the Transcendental Meditation program: collected papers. Vol. 1. Switzerland: Maharishi European Research University - MVU Press; 1977. p. 270-8. Associated publication of <sup>252</sup>

## **Appendix G. Summary Tables for Topic II**

Table G1. Country of study

	Country	N	References
North America	United States	462	111,120,126,152,175,177,193,205,206,208,233,234,258-260,279,280,289,290,304,311,384,385,387,394,436-494a494b127,171,197,306,495-508a306b192,509b509a80,94,134,186,187,237,282,292,324,390,510-547a547b548-552a552b209,396,402,553-571b571a178,195,210,271,398-401,403,572 624a624b70,75,78,91,92,105,118,141,168,174,181,188,190,191,196,198,202,220,221,227,228,241,242,244-246,251,252,263-265,267-270,272,274,284,285,287,288,293,309,316,317,319,322,325,391,397,406-410,412,414,416,418-425,433-435,625-769
	Canada	32	97,182,189,194,296,386,395,413,770-793
Asia	India	115	83,133,137,138,140,142,170,172,184,204,212,217,226,239,240,250,266,273,278,294,295,298,300,301,303,305,310,312-314,318,320,321,323,404,411,415,417,794-870
	China	19	161,211,225,249,262,871-884
	South Korea	15	200,201,213,214,405,885-894
	Hong Kong	13	207,286,299,895-904
	Taiwan	12	223,248,326,388,432,905-911
	Japan	10	389,426,912-919
	Thailand	5	106,216,238,920,921
	Malaysia	2	179,180
Europe	United Kingdom	31	122,167,185,218,219,235,281,283,308,427,431,922-941
	Germany	12	215,247,942-950a950b
	Sweden	9	951a951b243,261,302,962-955
	Norway	7	956-962
	Ireland	5	392,393,963-965
	Italy	4	966-969
	Switzerland	4	199,970-972
	Netherlands	4	973a973b224,974
	Spain	3	975-977
	Austria	2	430,978
	Czech Republic	2	183,979
	France	2	980,981
	Russia	2	146,203
	Turkey	2	315,982

Table G1. Country of study (continued)

Country		N	References
Europe (continued)	Denmark	1	983
	Poland	1	984
	Belgium	1	985
Australasia	Australia	20	169,297,307,428,986-1001
	New Zealand	6	222,429,1002-1005
Other	Israel	4	176,291,1006,1007
	South Africa	3	86,1008,1009
	Brazil	2	236,1010
	Argentina	1	1011
	Netherlands Antilles	1	974

Table G2. Study design

	Study design	N	References
Intervention studies	RCTs	286	86,111,120,176,177,189,193,203-208,233-235,258-261,278-281,304,305,384,387,394,437,444,445,447,448,455,460,467,472,474-478,480,483-485,490,493,494,796,871,885,895b127,194,236,306,389,503,504,507a70,75,78,91,92,94,97,118,134,138,140,167-170,174,182,184-186,190-192,195,196,209-225,237-246,262-270,282-288,307-309,325,386,391,392,395-398,403-405,407-409,413,417,418,421,423,424,427,431,433,434,512,514,515,519,521,528,530,531,536,537,539,541-545,549,554,556-558,562,567,569,572,573,575,579,584,589,592,594,597,603,610,615,616,618,625-627,631,637,651,658,665,666,674,676,677,680,683,687,702,706,710,711,714,719,726,736,738,746,751,754-756,759,761,764,765,767-769,777,782,783,791,793,805,811,819,823,825,829,832,836-839,841,844,852,858,868,882,894,900,910,919,920,926,929,930,932,934,940,943,945,946,953,954,956,959,961,965,971,977,984,987,988,991,998,999,1005,1006,1011
	NRCTs	114	126,175,289,290,440,461-463,482,489,494,794,799a197,291,306,500b106,122,137,178-181,183,187,188,199,226-228,247-252,271- 274,292,293,326,415,419,420,429,430,435,518,523,532,538,553,566,577,587,593,595,596,602,617,629,639,642,645,650,656,659,662,673,678,679,681,689,691,696,698,705,713,728, 730,752,758,762,773,787,789,804,806,809,816,818,824,826,834,846,854,860,864,866,878,904,915,925,938,955,974,981,986,1001,1007
	Before-and-after	147	Controlled (2) 171,172 Uncontrolled (145) 83,133,152,294-303,310- 324,393,402,406,411,414,425,426,442,457,459,464,468,471,488,491,502,505,510,516,517,524,525,533,559,561,564,578,580,588,590,604,606,608,609,611,613,620-623,634,635,652- 654,657,682,684,690,692,697,707,709,715,716,724,725,727,733,739,747,750,753,766,770,780,784,797,800-802,808,810,812- 815,821,822,827,830,831,840,843,845,847,848,850,851,856,862,863,867,870,872,875,883,889,891,897,906,913,914,916,922,931,942,944,947,962,963,966,979,982,992,996,1002
Observational analytical studies	Cohort studies with controls	149	400,422,439,450,452,453,487,492,600,601,624,669,771,776,873,949,970a624b80,105,141,142,161,200-202,385,399,401,416,428,436,449,456,458,466,469,479,486,498,499,501,508,520,522,526,527,540,548,550,555,563,574,576,581,583,585,586,598,599,605,607,612,614,619,630,633,644,647,655,663,668,670,672,675,685,686,688,693,695,699,700,703,708,712,720,721,723,772,779,781,788,790,803,807,817,820,833,835,853,855,857,861,874,877,886,907,909,912,917,921,923,927,928,935,948,950,952,958,960,964,967,969,972,983,985,989,994,995,997,1008,1009a950b731,734,936,973a973b741,745,749,755,757,760,763,792,939,1003
	Cross-sectional studies with controls	117	412,509,529,546,582,591,704,732,740,748,786b571b441,534,535,551,646,649,701,722,737,743,744,859,937,941,951,957,975,976a951b552a552b513,547,795,828a547b438,446,451,568 ,570,571,640,660,661,694,717,978,980,993,1004a509,560,638,648,671,718,1000a146,388,390,432,443,454,465,470,473,481,495-497,506,511,565,628,632,636,641,664,667,729,735,742,778,785,798,842,849,865,869,876,879-881,884,887,888,890,892,893,896,898,899,901-903,905,908,911,918,924,933,968,990,1010

Type of publication	N	References
Journal article	701	120,146,176,177,189,193,203,204,206-208,233-235,258,259,261,278-281,289,290,295,297,304,305,310-312,384,385,387,394,436-440,445-452,454,456-466,468,470-473,475-481,483-486,488,489,491-494,770,771,794-802,871,885,895,922,952,966,978,980,1010a494b127,171,194,236,291,306,389,495,498-503,505,507,508,1008a306b192,294,509,982b509a80,187,282,324,392,393,395,510-513,515,516,518-531,533-540,542-547,772,803-808,921,923,942,963-965,967,986,987,1009a547b185,209,396,402,548-551,553-555,557-566,568,570,571,774,775,809-811,924,988b571a138,178,195,211,212,238,248,271,283,296,298,299,307,313-315,326,398-401,404,572-580,582,583,585,586,588,590,592,594,595,597-599,601,603-613,615-624,776,777,812-821,873,874,886,896,905-908,912-916,926-928,945,946,970,975,976,989,1006a624b92,97,161,168,172,179-182,184,188,190,198,200-202,213,214,216-222,226,239,240,262,264-269,272,284,288,300-302,308,309,316,318-320,405-411,413-420,422,426,625-629,631-634,636-655,657-663,665,666,668-678,680-686,688-694,697-699,701,702,704-706,778-782,785-788,822-844,876,877,887-893,897-899,909,917,929-932,947-949,953,956,972,974,977,979,991-995,1002,1007,174,707,708,709,710,711,845,137,846,847,712,996,714,715,918,716,997,321,848,789,717,424,718,719,957,958,959,960,961,894,790,791,386,849,142,183,985,721,243-933,983,227,722,850,273,106,723,285,851,934,228,935,724,244,425,725,998,852,726,270,427,428,853,83,854,133,855,856,857,858,140,859,323,860,861,286,429,969,728,729,70,950-8,950,937,731,732,733,734,223,249,910,900,901,878,879,809,902,735,936,862,863,962,170,937,973a,973b,224,864,325,865,303,866,981,867,868,869,739,431,740,741,742,743,744,745,746,432,747,748,749,750,751,752,753,754,954,755,938,939,955,1000,940,756,118,1003,1004,757,941,758,759,760,761,434,397,792,911,274,122,763,764,765,766,881,767,903,10-01,870,768,435,246,225,904,250,287,251,793,191,252,199,884,1005,984,769
Thesis/Dissertation	79	951a951b86,111,126,134,152,175,197,205,237,260,292,388,390,442- 444,453,455,469,474,482,487,490,496,497,504,506,514,517,532,541,552,773,920a552b75,78,91,105,141,196,210,241,263,391,412,421,423,433,567,569,581,584,589,591,593,602,614, 630,635,656,664,667,679,687,695,696,703,727,736-738,762,784,882,971,990
Abstract	25	94,215,242,245,247,317,322,403,430,467,556,587,596,600,700,713,720,730,872,875,883,943,944,999,1011
Unpublished	3	167,169,783
Research letter	3	919,925,968
Book chapter	2	186,441

#### Table G4. Methodological quality—intervention studies

RCTs that obtained Jadad scores lower than 3 (n = 246)  $\frac{111,176,177,203,204,233,259-261,278-281,304,305,384,394,437,444,445,447,448,455,460,467,472,474-478,480,796}{111,176,177,203,204,233,259-261,278-281,304,305,384,394,437,444,445,447,448,455,460,467,472,474-478,480,796}$ 186,189,192-194,205-208,235,236,306,387,389,392,483-485,490,493,494,503,507,512,514,515,519,805,871,895,920,965,987 94,134,185,209,237,395,396,528,530,531,536,537,539,543,545,549,554,556-219,239,240,263,264,308,407,410,413,417,433,637,651,658,665,666,674,676,782,823,825,829,929,930,953,956,977 70,78,118,140,170,182,184,190,191,196,222-225,241-246,267-2 270,285,286,288,309,325,397,418,423,427,431,434,677,680,683,687,702,706,710,711,714,719,726,736,746,751,754,756,759,761,764,765,767-769,791,793,832,836-746,751,754,756,759,761,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,754,756,759,761,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,754,756,759,761,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,751,764,765,767,769,791,793,832,836-746,761,764,765,761,764,761,764,765,761,764,761,

838,841,844,852,858,868,882,900,910,919,932,934,940,954,959,961,984,998,1005

RCTs that obtained Jadad scores greater than 3 (n = 40) <sup>75,86,91,120,127,167-</sup> 169,174,220,221,234,258,265,266,282,284,391,398,409,421,504,521,541,542,544,579,589,592,631,783,839,885,991 287,386,424,738,894,999

#### RCTs-Jadad scale

RCTs describing the methods of randomization (n = 60) Appropriate (n = 45)  $^{86,120,127,167,206,234,258,260,282,398,448,504,521,541,542,544,569,573,579,589,592,631,811,885}$   $^{91,265,266,284,308,391,409,421,783,825}$   $^{75,168,174,220,221,287,386,738,839,894,910}$ 

Inappropriate (n = 15)  $^{134,212,213,262,404,408,478,484,545,584,761,841,868,920,971}$ 

RCTs described as double-blind (n = 8)

RCTs describing withdrawals/dropouts (n = 145) 86,111,120,189,193,203,207,234,258,278-26 169,174,185,196,210,213,214,216,218-224,236,238,241,243,244,246,263-266,282-287,325,386,391,395,398,408-

769,777,783,791,793,829,839,841,852,868,882,894,920,926,929,930,940,945,946,953,954,971,977,984,991,998,999

#### RCTs-Concealment of treatment allocation

168,169,246,418,476,521,544,589,631,894,926,991 RCTs with adequate report of methods for concealment of allocation (n = 12)

RCTs with inadequate report of methods for concealment of allocation (n = 2)

86,111,176,177,203,204,233,258-261,278-

485,490,493,494,871,885,895b127,194,236,306,389,503,504,507a192,512,514,515,805 94,134,185,186,237,282,392,395,396,519,528,530,531,536,537,539,541-543,549,554,556

839,956 75,174,182,184,220-222,243,244,268-270,285,386,423,424,687,702,706,710,711,714,719,726,791,841,844,852,932,934,959,961,998 70,78,118,140,170,191,196,223

225,245,286,287,325,397,427,431,434,736,738,746,751,754,756,759,761,764,765,767-769,793,858,882,900,910,919,940,954,984,999,1005

#### RCTs - Funding

Funding reported (n = (118)

769,774,777,783,793,825,839,852,868,894,900,930,934,940,953,954,961,991,999

#### NRCTs—Jadad scale

NRCTs describing withdrawals/dropouts (n = 52) <sup>126,175,289,290,440,461,462,482,494a197</sup>, <sup>252,271,293,326,419,420,435,602,617,642,645,650,679,681,691,728,762,787,816,846,866,878,904,938,955,1007</sup>

NRCT = nonrandomized controlled trials; RCT = randomized controlled trials

#### Table G4. Methodological quality—intervention studies (continued)

Before-and-after studies with study population representative of the target population (n = 23) <sup>294,414,425,464,502,564,590,604,606,609,613,621-623,682,692,697,716,724,808,810,847,962</sup>

Before-and-after studies in which the method of outcome assessment was the same for the pre- and post-intervention periods for all participants (n = 140) <sup>83,133,152,171,172,294-298,300-303,310,312-324,393,402,406,411,414,425,426,442,459,464,468,471,488,491,502,505,510,516,517,524,525,533,559,561,564,578,580,588,590,604,606,608,609,613,620-623,634,635,652-654,657,682,684,690,692,707,709,715,716,724,725,727,733,739,747,750,753,766,770,780,784,797,800-802,808,810,812-815,821,822,827,830,831,840,843,845,847,848,850,851,856,862,863,867,870,872,875,883,889,891,897,906,913,914,922,931,942,944,947,962,963,979,982,992,996,1002

Before-and-after studies in which outcome assessors were blind to intervention and assessment period (n = 3) <sup>654,753,962</sup>

Before-and-after studies that reported the number of study withdrawals (n = 45) <sup>295,296,402,406,411,414,425,442,457,471,488,502,525,533,559,561,564,604,609,611,613,620-623,635,684,690,709,716,725,727,733,739,753,770,784,797,801,814,851,897,922,942,996}

Before-and-after studies that reported the reasons for study withdrawal (n = 20) <sup>411,442,471,502,525,559,561,564,609,613,623,635,684,690,725,727,733,739,801,897</sup>

Before-and-after studies that reported source of funding (n = 41) <sup>133,294,296,303,402,406,411,459,488,502,516,533,559,606,613,623,634,684,697,753,766,770,800,822,830,831,843,848,850,862,863,883,889,944</sup></sup></sup>

## Table G5. Methodological quality—observational analytical studies

Cohort studies describing representative samples of the target population (n = 55) 80,439,449,453,456,466,469,479,487,492,501,520,522,548,550,555,563,605,607,612,619,624,776,803,874,921,970,8624,5142,161,422,428,655,669,675,695,708,835,855,861,877,935,949,950,958,969,972,994,997 a950b973a741.755.760.792 Cohort studies describing nonexposed cohorts drawn from the same community as the exposed cohort (n = 56) 80,400,401,436,439,449,453,458,466,486,520,522,527,540,548,563,599,605,614,624,772,807,873,874,907,912,921a624b142,416,663,668,670,685,693,695,699,703,708,712,781,788,790,857,877,935,950,958, 969a950b973a741,749,755,757,1003 141,439,456,458,668,776,835,949,969,973a Cohort studies that reported reliable methods for ascertainment of exposure (n = 10)80,453,466,469,605,619,630,695,958,1009 Cohort studies that reported reliable methods for ascertainment of outcome (n = 10)Cohort studies— NOS scale 8,520,526,563,576,581,644,647,695,700,712,720,731,734,741,745,749,755,757,763,776,792,807,817,835,855,857,861,874,877,886,907,921,939,948,958,960,967,969,985,989,995,1003,1008,100980,161,200-202,385,399-Cohort studies that reported reliable methods for outcome assessment (n = 109) 401,416,428,439,449,450,452,456,458,466,479,486,498,499,501,508,520,526,540,555,576,581,585,586,598-907,909,912,917,923,927,928,939,948,949,952,958,960,964,967,969,970,972,983,985,989,995,997,1003,1008,1009 Cohort studies reporting length of followup enough for outcomes to occur (n = 44)
439,453,456,469,487,492,501,522,548,563,574,583,599,605,614,619,624,776,820,873,874a624b105,141,142,422,630,663,669,670,688,695,708,833,855,861,877,949,950,969,994a950b936,973a Cohort studies reporting adequate followup of cohorts (n = 29) 141.439.469.487.501.522.548.599.605.614.619.630.669.670.708.855.857.861.873.874.877.921.949.950.969.994a950b936.973a Cohort studies that reported source of funding (n = 41) 161,200,201,385,399,416,422,439,453,456,486,492,498,555,585,605,607,644,734,745,755,757,760,776,788,792,807,833,874,877,886,909,912,949,960,967,989,997,1003,1008,1009 Cross sectional studies-NOS 1.976.990 scale Cross sectional studies describing that comparison groups were drawn from the same community as the study group (n = 24) 951a951b388,390,441,446,454,481,497,570,582,591,628,646,648,660,701,722,737,740,778,849,899,924 Cross sectional studies that reported reliable methods for ascertainment of exposure (n = 0)Cross sectional studies that adjusted for important confounding factors in the design or analysis  $(n=63)^{146,951a951b388,390,438,441,443,446,470,473,495-497,506,511,529,546,551,552,795,798,980a552b412,560,568,570,591,638,640,641,646,661,664,667,701,717,722,732,735,740,743,744,748,778,849,865,876,880,884,887,888,890,892,899,901,905,911,924,93$ 3,976,990 Cross sectional studies that reported reliable methods for outcome assessment (n = 62)
146,451,465,509,798,978,980,1010a513,551,552a552b432,565,632,636,640,641,646,648,664,667,694,701,717,718,729,732,735,737,740,743,744,842,859,869,876,879-881,884,892,893,896,898,899,901-903,905,908,911,918,937,941,957,968,975,976,990,1000,1004

Cross sectional studies that reported source of funding (n = 27) 388,432,438,473,511,632,636,641,646,649,704,744,778,798,876,879,880,888,893,896,901-903,905,908,957,1010

Table G6. Studies on meditation practices examined in clinical trials and observational studies

Category of meditation practice	Meditation practice	N	Study design and associated references
Mantra meditation	ACEM meditation	7	RCT (3); <sup>956,959,961</sup> Cohort (3); <sup>720,958,960</sup> Cross sectional (1) <sup>957</sup>
(337)	Ananda marga	3	Cohort (2); <sup>498,526</sup> Cross sectional (1) <sup>786</sup>
	Cayce's meditation	1	RCT (1) <sup>680</sup>
	CSM	11	RCT (11) 97,193,264,384,410,536,537,627,658,676,702
	SRELAX (technique modeled after TM <sup>®</sup>	1	RCT (1) <sup>222</sup>
	Concentrative/ rosary prayer	2	Before-and-after (1); 966 Cohort (1) 969
	Mantra meditation	31	RCT (17); <sup>194,203,260,434,472,483,503,531,597,626,706,719,736,761,777,805,965</sup> NRCT (3); <sup>494,577,650a</sup> Before-and-after (6); <sup>393,652-654,856,963</sup> Cohort (1); <sup>853</sup> Cross sectional (4); <sup>591,828,859,937</sup>
	RR	51	RCT (40); <sup>208,234,236,304,306,394,460,475</sup> - 477,480,504a75,91,92,94,191,192,209,218,265,268,283,284,288,396,515,521,530,558,567,569,572,592,594,610,616,625,637,988 NRCT (5); <sup>306b228,673,678,938</sup> Before-and-after (5); <sup>414,459,524,525,753</sup> Cohort (1) <sup>492</sup>
	TM®	230	RCT (38); 86,186,189,190,205,206,210,220,221,259,261,267,279,282,309,392,407,418,433,478,519,528,545,557,674,677,683,782,796,945 78,270,424,714,759,769,793,1005 NRCT (22); 187,188,271,289,291,292,429,440,463,518,538,587,659,662,705,787,816,974,986,293,758,252 Before-and-after (19); 171,295,311,319,324,471,505,533,561,709,733,750,780,814,815,850,942,996,1002 Cohort (97); 80,385,399-401,436,439,449,450,452,453,458,466,469,487,499,501,508,520,522,540,548,555,563,576,581,583,585,586,598-601,607,612,619,624,771,772,776,817,923,927,928,952,964,970,1008a624b416,422,428,633,643,644,647,655,663,668-670,672,675,685,686,688,693,695,700,703,712,721,723,779,781,790,835,950,972,983,994,997a950b731,734,936,973a973b741,745,749,757,760,763,792,939,1003 Cross sectional (54) 951a951b438,441,446,451,509,795,978,980a509b513,529,534,535,546,547a547b551,552a552b560,568,570,571a571b412,582,638,640,646,648,649,660,661,671,694,701,70 4,717,718,722,732,737,740,743,744,748,941,975,976,993,1000,1004
Mindfulness meditation (127)	MBSR	49	RCT (22); 167,195,196,244,245,263,421,423,485,493,512,556,575,579,589,687,710,711,754,756,930,934; NRCT (11) 272,419,420,482,593,602,681,689,691,752,773 Before-and-after (16) 402,457,488,517,606,609,620,622,635,682,684,692,697,724,770,947

CSM = Clinically Standardized Meditation; MBCT = mindfulness-based cognitive therapy; MM = mindfulness meditation; ND = not described; NS = not specified; RR = Relaxation Response; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>

G-9

Table G6. Studies on on meditation practices examined in clinical trials and observational studies (continued)

Category of meditation practice		N	Study design and associated references	
Mindfulness meditation (continued)	MM (NS)	37	RCT (16); <sup>241,242,258,386,395,403,444,447,448,474,490,738,751,775,932,1011</sup> NRCT (8); <sup>106,249,430,523,532,696,728,762</sup> Before-and-after (6); <sup>442,464,604,716,727,922</sup> Cohort (4); <sup>479,486,605,614</sup> Cross sectional (3) <sup>497,511,641</sup>	
	Zen Buddhist meditation	28	RCT (7); <sup>70,225,237,554,765,774,920</sup> NRCT (5); <sup>197,227,500,629,639</sup> Cohort (6); <sup>105,456,550,886,917,995</sup> Cross sectional (7); <sup>443,495,636,729,742,918,924</sup> Before-and-after (3) <sup>426,913,916</sup>	
MBCT 7 RCT (5); <sup>427</sup>		7	RCT (5); <sup>427,455,929,940,984</sup> NRCT (1); <sup>553</sup> Before-and-after (1) <sup>784</sup>	
		6	e-and-after (2) <sup>847,848;</sup> Cohort (2) <sup>708,921;</sup> Cross sectional (2) <sup>664,990</sup>	
Meditation practices (ND)		21	RCT (11); <sup>387,484,494b215,431,514,539,651,783,910,987</sup> NRCT (6); <sup>198,199,274,656,730,915</sup> Before-and-after (2); <sup>580,808</sup> Cohort (1); <sup>630</sup> Cross sectional (1) <sup>481</sup>	
Miscellaneous r	meditation	11	RCT (3); <sup>507,726,791</sup> Before-and-after (3); <sup>621,623,801</sup> Cohort (2); <sup>935,967</sup> Cross sectional (3) <sup>454,628,933</sup>	
Qi Gong		37	RCT (13); <sup>207,211,213,214,243,262,405,767,900,919,953,954,977</sup> Before-and-after (9); <sup>299,316,502,634,875,889,891,914,944</sup> Cohort (7); <sup>161,200-</sup> 202,873,907,912 Cross sectional (8); <sup>632,778,884,887,888,890,892,893</sup>	
Tai Chi		88	RCT (29); <sup>235</sup> , <sup>285</sup> , <sup>286</sup> , <sup>307</sup> , <sup>391</sup> , <sup>398</sup> , <sup>408</sup> , <sup>409</sup> , <sup>413</sup> , <sup>437</sup> , <sup>467</sup> , <sup>541</sup> , <sup>573</sup> , <sup>603</sup> , <sup>631</sup> , <sup>665</sup> , <sup>871</sup> , <sup>885</sup> , <sup>894</sup> , <sup>895</sup> , <sup>1006</sup> , <sup>223</sup> , <sup>999</sup> , <sup>746</sup> , <sup>397</sup> , <sup>882</sup> , <sup>768</sup> , <sup>246</sup> , <sup>287</sup> NRCT(17); <sup>248</sup> , <sup>290</sup> , <sup>326</sup> , <sup>435</sup> , <sup>489</sup> , <sup>566</sup> , <sup>595</sup> , <sup>596</sup> , <sup>617</sup> , <sup>645</sup> , <sup>698</sup> , <sup>713</sup> , <sup>789</sup> , <sup>878</sup> , <sup>904</sup> , <sup>955</sup> , <sup>1001</sup> Before-and-after (20); <sup>152</sup> , <sup>296</sup> , <sup>317</sup> , <sup>425</sup> , <sup>564</sup> , <sup>588</sup> , <sup>590</sup> , <sup>608</sup> , <sup>657</sup> , <sup>690</sup> , <sup>715</sup> , <sup>725</sup> , <sup>747</sup> , <sup>766</sup> , <sup>872</sup> , <sup>883</sup> , <sup>897</sup> , <sup>906</sup> , <sup>931</sup> , <sup>962</sup> Cohort (4); <sup>699</sup> , <sup>874</sup> , <sup>877</sup> , <sup>909</sup> Cross sectional (18) <sup>388</sup> , <sup>432</sup> , <sup>470</sup> , <sup>565</sup> , <sup>735</sup> , <sup>876</sup> , <sup>879</sup> - <sup>881</sup> , <sup>896</sup> , <sup>898</sup> , <sup>899</sup> , <sup>901</sup> - <sup>903</sup> , <sup>905</sup> , <sup>908</sup> , <sup>911</sup>	
Yoga		192	RCT (69); 111,118,120,127,134,138,140,168-170,174,176,177,182,184,185,204,212,216,217,219,224,233,238-240,266,269,278,280,281,305,308,325,389,404,417,445,542-544,549,562,584,615,618,666,764,811,819,823,825,829,832,836-839,841,844,852,858,868,926,943,946,971,991,998 NRCT (36); 122,126,137,175,178-181,183,226,247,250,251,273,415,461,462,642,679,794,799,804,806,809,818,824,826,834,846,854,860,864,866,925,981,1007 Before-and-after (54); 83,133,172,294,297,298,300-303,310,312-315,318,320-323,406,411,468,491,510,516,559,578,611,613,707,739,797,800,802,810,812,813,821,822,827,830,831,840,843,845,851,862,863,867,870,979,982,992 Cohort (18); 141,142,527,574,755,788,803,807,820,833,855,857,861,948,949,985,989,1009 Cross-sectional (15)	

Table G7. Type of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices

Type or control gr		N groups	N studies	References
Placebo/sham		18 18		Mantra meditation (9 groups, 9 studies)  TM® (3); 433 793,1005 Mantra (NS) (3); 434,472,531 RR (2); 477,678 SRELAX (1) 8 SRELAX (1) 9 Meditation practices (ND) (3 groups, 3 studies) 484,651,987 Yoga (2 groups, 2 studies) 170,846 Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study)  Zen Buddhist meditation (1) 554 Qi Gong (2 groups, 2 studies) 405,767 Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study) 999
No-treatment concurrent controls	NT	126	123	Mantra meditation (44 groups, 43 studies) TM® (25), 86,171,187,188,190,259,279,282,291-293,440,463,518,538,662,674,705,758,769,793,945,974,986,1005 Mantra (NS) (8); 194,203,434,472,531,597,650,719 RR (6), 92,192,284,394,480,673 CSM (2), 264,676 ACEM meditation (1), 959 Cayce's meditation (1) 680 Yoga (31 groups, 30 studies) 111,126,137,168,172,175,185,204,217,247,251,305,325,417,445,542,679,799,804,806,819,823,826,838,854,860,864,925,943,981 Mindfulness meditation (23 groups, 22 studies) MBSR (9); 167,244,245,272,419,575,593,691,930 MM (NS) (7); 106,395,474,523,728,762,1011 Zen Buddhist meditation (5); 70,225,554,629,920 MBCT (1) 455 Tai Chi (19 groups, 19 studies) 223,285,286,290,326,437,467,489,541,595,596,617,645,698,882,885,894,895,955 Meditation practices (ND) (6 groups, 6 studies) 215,431,656,730,915,987 Qi Gong (2 groups, 2 studies) 45tudies) 791 Miscellaneous meditation practices (1 group, 1 study) 791
No-treatment or	WL	62	62	Mantra meditation (24 groups, 24 studies)  TM® (10); 86,252,259,271,289,309,418,528,557,677 CSM (5); 193,384,536,537,658 RR (5); 75,208,476,515,610 Mantra (NS) (3); 626,761,805 SRELAX (1) 222 Mindfulness meditation (21 groups, 21 studies)  MBSR (11); 420,421,485,493,512,589,602,681,710,711 196 MM (NS) (6); 386,395,403,430,447,532 MBCT (2); 553,984 Zen Buddhist meditation (2) 765,774 Yoga (10 groups, 10 studies) 120,169,175,280,584,666,764,825,946,971 Meditation practices (ND) (3 groups, 3 studies) 387,730,783 Qi Gong (2 groups, 2 studies) 213,214 Tai Chi (2 groups, 2 studies) 398,408

BF = Biofeedback; CSM = Clinically Standardized Meditation; MBCT = mindfulness-based cognitive therapy; MBSR = Mindfulness-based stress reduction; MM = mindfulness meditation; = ND = not described; NS = not specified; NT = no treatment; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; RR = Relaxation Response; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>; WL = waiting list

Table G7. Type of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices (continued)

	Type of control group	N groups	N studies	References
ditation practices	Exercise/physical activity	52	45	Yoga (23 groups, 18 studies) <sup>233,266,280,281,415,417,461,462,618,666,811,834,836,837,839,844,998,1007</sup> Tai Chi (14 groups, 14 studies) <sup>235,248,287,307,409,413,435,541,603,631,665,713,789,1006</sup> Mantra meditation (13 groups, 10 studies) Mantra (NS) (3); <sup>483,706,777</sup> RR (3); <sup>304,394,480</sup> TM <sup>®</sup> (2); <sup>78,282</sup> ACEM meditation (1); <sup>956</sup> CSM (1) <sup>264</sup> Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study) MBSR (1) <sup>930</sup> Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) <sup>514</sup> Qi Gong (1 group, 1 study) <sup>207</sup>
interventions other than meditation practices	Rest and states of relaxation	47	45	Mantra meditation (30 groups, 28 studies) RR (14); 304,306,475,504b91,265,283,284,288,396,558,594,625,938 TM® (9); 186,279,392,424,519,677,683,782,796 Mantra (NS) (3); 260,503,965 CSM (2) 537,627 Yoga (9 groups, 9 studies) 134,177,181,204,219,224,615,858,868 Mindfulness meditation (6 groups, 6 studies) Zen Buddhist meditation (3); 70,500,639 MM (NS) (2); 728,932 MBSR (1) 754 Meditation practices (ND) (2 groups, 2 studies) 274,539,915
	Education	46	44	Mantra meditation (19 groups, 17 studies)  TM® (9); 205,206,210,220,221,407,659,714,787 RR (5); 94,192,218,234,476 Mantra (NS) (2); 483,777 CSM (1) <sup>702</sup> Mindfulness meditation (10 groups, 10 studies)  MBSR (5); 423,575,579,689,756 Zen Buddhist meditation (3); 197,225,237 MM (NS) (2) 403,448  Yoga (8 groups, 8 studies) 118,212,216,461,462,562,926,1007  Tai Chi (6 groups, 6 studies) 235,307,397,665,746,878  Meditation practices (ND) (2 groups, 2 studies) 656,910  Miscellaneous meditation practices (1 groups, 1 study) 791
Active (positive) concurrent controls-	PMR	39	39	Mantra meditation (27 groups, 27 studies)  TM® (10); 86,220,221,429,528,545,769,945,986,1005 RR (8); 191,265,288,475,477,569,616,988 Mantra (NS) (5); 472,531,577,626,736 CSM (3); 97,193,627 ACEM meditation (1) 961  Yoga (6 groups, 6 studies) 122,204,389,549,615,991  Mindfulness meditation (5 groups, 5 studies)  MBSR (2); 196,263 MM (NS) (2); 696,751 Zen Buddhist meditation (1) 765  Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) 494b

Table G7. Type of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices (continued)

T	ype of control group	N groups	N studies	References
other than meditation	Cognitive behavioral techniques	22	20	Mantra meditation (9 groups, 9 studies) TM® (3); 545,674,677; RR (3) 476,616,637 CSM (2); 410,702 Mantra (NS) (1) 483 Mindfulness meditation (7 groups, 7 studies) MM (NS) (4); 241,444,474,775 MBSR (3) 482,579,687 Meditation practices (ND) (3 groups, 2 studies) 656,987 Yoga (3 groups, 2 studies)
—interventions tices	Miscellaneous active controls	23	19	Yoga (7 groups, 6 studies) <sup>138,226,273,679,825,943</sup> Mantra meditation (6 groups, 6 studies) RR (3); <sup>396,558,592</sup> Mantra (NS) (2); <sup>494a719</sup> TM <sup>®</sup> (1) <sup>270</sup> Mindfulness meditation (6 groups, 4 studies) MBSR (2); <sup>195,754</sup> Zen Buddhist meditation (1); <sup>225</sup> MM (NS) (1) <sup>490</sup> Miscellaneous meditation practices (2 groups, 1 study) <sup>507</sup> Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) <sup>198</sup> Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study) <sup>1001</sup>
Active (positive) concurrent controls- prac	Group therapy	14	13	Mantra meditation (6 groups, 6 studies) RR (3); <sup>236,394,637</sup> TM <sup>®</sup> (2); <sup>261,816</sup> ACEM meditation (1) <sup>961</sup> Mindfulness meditation (3 groups, 3 studies) MBSR (1); <sup>482</sup> MM (NS) (2) <sup>241,738</sup> Tai Chi (3 groups, 2 studies) : <sup>391,768</sup> Yoga (2 groups, 2 studies) <sup>269,618</sup>
ositive) (	Psychotherapy	3	3	Mantra meditation (1 group, 1 study) TM <sup>®</sup> (1) <sup>478</sup> Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study) MBSR (1) <sup>752</sup> Yoga (1 group, 1 study) <sup>273</sup>
Active (p	BF	13	12	Mantra meditation (12 groups, 11 studies) RR (6); <sup>208,306b306a191,209,228</sup> Mantra (NS) (3); <sup>194,503,531</sup> TM <sup>®</sup> (2); <sup>270,683</sup> Yoga (1 group, 1 study) <sup>273</sup>

G-13

Table G7. Type of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices (continued)

Type of	control group	N groups	N studies	References
Active (positive) concurrent controls—interventions other than meditation practices	Reading	8	8	Mantra meditation (6 groups, 6 studies) RR (4); <sup>521,567,572,592</sup> TM <sup>®</sup> (2) <sup>587,759</sup> Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study) <sup>307</sup> Yoga (1 group, 1 study) <sup>615</sup>
ve) cor rventic tion pr	Pharmacological interventions	8	8	Yoga (6 groups, 6 studies) <sup>138,217,806,809,818,841</sup> Qi Gong (2 groups, 2 studies) <sup>211,262</sup>
(positiri —inte nedita:	Hypnosis	4	4	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (2) <sup>75,460</sup> Meditation practices (ND) (2 groups, 2 studies) <sup>494b198</sup>
Active ontrols than r	Massage	3	2	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 1 study) RR (1) <sup>558</sup> Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study) MBSR (1) <sup>556</sup>
4 8	Acupuncture	1	1	Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study) <sup>1001</sup>
e) ols— es as ups	Yoga	5	5	Mantra meditation (4 groups, 4 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (3); <sup>793,796,816</sup> Mantra (NS) (1) <sup>597</sup> Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) <sup>656</sup>
itiv ntro ctic gro	Mantra meditation	3	3	Yoga (3 groups, 3 studies) 169,174,175
Active (positive) concurrent controls— meditation practices a comparison groups	Mindfulness meditation	3	3	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (1); <sup>279</sup> Mantra (NS) (1) <sup>494a</sup> Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) <sup>783</sup>
Act concu nedita comp	Meditation practices (ND)	2	2	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) RR (1); $^{530}$ TM $^{\odot}$ (1) $^{1005}$
	Tai Chi	1	1	Mantra meditation (1 group, 1 study) RR (1) 480
gimen of concurrent s	Yoga	15	14	Yoga (15 groups, 14 studies) 111,127,140,175-185
96, 1 🗗	Mantra meditation	9	9	Mantra meditation (9 groups, 9 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (5); <sup>186-190</sup> RR (2); <sup>191,192</sup> CSM (1); <sup>193</sup> Mantra (NS) (1) <sup>194</sup>
Different dose or regimen of meditation practices—concurre control groups	Mindfulness meditation	5	4	Mindfulness meditation (5 groups, 4 studies) MBSR (2); <sup>195,196</sup> Zen Buddhist meditation (1); <sup>197</sup> MM (NS) (1) <sup>395</sup>
1 9 	Meditation practices (ND)	2	2	Meditation practices (ND) (2 groups, 2 studies) 198,199

G-14

Table G7. Type of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices (continued)

Type of co	ntrol group	N groups	N studies	References
Usual care		37	37	Mindfulness meditation (9 groups, 9 studies) MM (NS) (2); <sup>249,258</sup> ; MBSR (2) <sup>556,773,934</sup> MBCT (3); <sup>929 427,940</sup> Zen Buddhist (1) <sup>227</sup> Qi Gong (3 groups, 3 studies) <sup>243,900,919</sup> Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) RR (1) <sup>268</sup> TM <sup>®</sup> (2) <sup>78,270</sup> Tai Chi (4 groups, 4 studies) <sup>246,566,573,904</sup> Yoga (16 groups, 16 studies) <sup>246,566,573,904</sup> Yoga (16 groups, 16 studies) <sup>238-240,250,278,308,404,543,544,642,794,824,829,832,852,866</sup>
				Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) <sup>274</sup> Miscellaneous meditation practices (1 group, 1 study) <sup>726</sup>
Control groups (ND)		6	6	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) RR (1); <sup>234</sup> TM <sup>®</sup> (1) <sup>267</sup> Qi Gong (2 groups, 2 studies) <sup>953,977</sup> MM (NS) (1); <sup>242</sup> Tai Chi (1 groups, 1 studies) <sup>871</sup>
Number of controls per study	Single control	275	275	Yoga (80 groups, 80 studies) 118,120,126,127,134,137,168,170,172,174,176,178-180,182-184,212,216,219,224,226,233,238-240,247,250,251,266,269,278,281,308,325,389,404,415,445,542-544,549,562,584,642,764,794,799,804,809,811,818,819,823,824,826,829,832,834,836-839,841,844,846,852,854,858,860,864,866,868,925,926,971,981,991,998  Mantra meditation (77 groups, 77 studies) TM® (34); 171,169,205,206,2710,252,261,267,271,289,291-293,309,392,407,418,424,429,433,440,463,478,518,519,538,557,587,662,705,714,758,759,782,787,974 RR (23); 236,306,460,504a92,94,209,218,268,283,515,521,530,567,569,572,594,610,625,673,678,938,988 Mantra (NS) (9); 203,260,577,650,706,736,761,805,965 CSM (6); 97,384,410,536,658,676 ACEM meditation (2); 956,959 Cayce's meditation (1) 680  Mindfulness meditation (55 groups, 55 studies)  MBSR (25) 167,244,245,263,272,419-421,423,485,493,512,589,593,602,681,687,689,691,710,711,752,756,773,934 MM (NS) (18) 106,242,249,258,386,430,444,447,448,523,532,696,738,751,762,775,932,1011; MBCT (6); 427,455,553,929,940,984 Zen Buddhist meditation (6); 227,237,500,639,774,920  Tai Chi (40 groups, 40 studies) 223,246,248,285-287,290,326,391,397,398,408,409,413,435,437,467,489,566,573,595,596,603,617,631,645,698,713,746,789,871,878,882,885,894,895,90 4,955,999,1006  Qi Gong (12 groups, 12 studies) 207,211,213,214,243,405,767,900,919,953,954,977 Meditation practices (ND) (10 groups, 10 studies) 199,215,274,3387,431,484,514,539,651,910 Miscellaneous meditation practices (1 group, 1 study) 726

Table G7. Type of control groups for intervention studies on meditation practices (continued)

-	Type of control group	N groups	N studies	References
	Multiple controls	296	127	Mantra meditation (152 groups, 65 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (25); <sup>78,86,186-188,190,220,221,259,270,279,282,528,545,659,674,677,683,769,793,796,816,945,986,1005</sup> RR (22); <sup>208,234,304</sup> ,306,394,475-477,480b75,91,191,192,228,265,284,288,396,558,592,616,637 Mantra (NS) (11); <sup>472,483,494a194,434,503,531,597,626,719,777;</sup> CSM (5) 193,264,537,627,702
				ACEM meditation (1); 961 SRELAX (1) 222, Yoga (63 groups, 26 studies) 111,122,138,140,169,175,177,181,185,204,217,273,280,305,417,461,462,615,618,666,679,806,825,943,946,1007
				Mindfulness meditation (45 groups, 20 studies) MBSR (8); 195,196,482,556,575,579,754,930 MM (NS) (6); 241,395,403,474,490,728 Zen Buddhist meditation (70,197,225,554,629,765
				Meditation practices (ND) (17 groups, 7 studies) 494b198,656,730,783,915,987  Tai Chi (13 groups, 6 studies) 235,307,541,665,768,1001  Miscellaneous meditation practices (4 groups, 2 studies) 507,791  Qi Gong (2 groups, 1 study) 262

Table G8. Type of control groups for observational analytical studies on meditation practices

Type of co	ontrol group	N groups	N studies	References	
Nonexposed coho groups	orts/comparison	247 244	Mantra meditation (155 groups, 153 studies)  TM® (140); 509,994a638,740,748,951a951b80,438,441,446,449- 453,458,466,487,499,508,513,520,522,534,535,540,547,771,772,795,923,964,978,980,1008a547b551,552a552b560,563,568,570,57 0,401,576,581,585,600,601,612,619,624,776,817,927,928,970,975,976a624b422,428,633,640,643,644,646,648,649,655,660,661,663 672,685,686,688,693- 695,703,712,717,718,721,723,779,781,790,835,950,972,983,993,997a950b385,436,469,501,509,700,731,734,737,741,745,757,760,92,936,941,1000,1003,1004b546,555,571b399,412,416,598,599,607,647,675,701,732,973b743,744,973a Mantra (NS) (6); 591,828,853,859,937,969 ACEM meditation (4); 720,957,958,960 Ananda marga (3) 498,526,786  Yoga (29 groups, 29 studies) 141,142,146,390,465,473,496,506,527,574,667,785,798,803,807,820,833,842,849,855,857,861,865,869,949,968,985,1009,1010  Mindfulness meditation (21 groups, 21 studies)		
Active (positive)	Evereice/physical	16	14	Mindfulness meditation (21 groups, 21 studies)  Zen Buddhist meditation (12); 105,443,456,495,636,729,742,886,917,918,924,995 MM (NS) (6); 479,486,497,511,605,641 Vipassana (3) 664,921,990  Tai Chi (22 groups, 21 studies) 388,432,470,565,735,874,876,877,879-881,896,898,899,901-903,905,908,909,911 Qi Gong (13 groups, 13 studies) 161,200,201,632,778,884,887,888,890,892,893,907,912 Miscellaneous meditation practices (5 groups, 5 studies) 454,628,933,935,967 Meditation practices (ND) (2 groups, 2 studies) 481,630  Tai Chi (4 groups, 4 studies) 470,565,879,903	
Active (positive) concurrent controls exposed to interventions other than	Exercise/physical activity	16	14	Yoga (4 groups, 4 studies) <sup>390,730,642,969</sup> Miscellaneous meditation practices (4 groups, 2 studies) <sup>933,935</sup> Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (2) <sup>529,704</sup> Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) <sup>481</sup> Qi Gong (1 group, 1 study) <sup>202</sup>	
meditation practices	Miscellaneous active controls	7	5	Mantra meditation (5 groups, 3 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (3) <sup>439,522,939</sup> Miscellaneous meditation practices (1 group, 1 study) <sup>935</sup> Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study) <sup>699</sup>	
	Progressive muscle relaxation	5	4	Mantra meditation (5 groups, 4 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (4) 509a509b508,749	
	Hypnosis	3	3	Mantra meditation (3 groups, 3 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (3) <sup>655,741,952</sup>	
	Rest and states of relaxation	3	3	Mantra meditation (3 groups, 3 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (3) <sup>453,586,939</sup>	
	Education	2	2	Qi Gong (1 group, 1 study) <sup>202</sup> Yoga (1 group, 1 study) <sup>755</sup>	

MM = mindfulness meditation; ND = not described; NS = not specified; RR = Relaxation Response; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>

Table G8. Type of control groups for observational analytical studies on meditation practices (continued)

Type of co	ntrol group	N groups	N studies	References
Active (positive) concurrent	Group therapy	2	2	Mantra meditation (1 group, 1 study) TM <sup>®</sup> (1) <sup>439</sup> Yoga (1 group, 1 study) <sup>527</sup>
controls exposed to interventions	Reading	2	2	Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study) Zen Buddhist meditation (1) <sup>550</sup> Yoga (1 group, 1 study) <sup>948</sup>
other than meditation practices	Biofeedback	1	1	Mantra meditation (1 group, 1 study) RR (1) 492
praemoce	Cognitive behavioral techniques	1	1	Mantra meditation (1 group, 1 study) TM <sup>®</sup> (1) <sup>583</sup>
Active (positive) concurrent controls	Mantra meditation	2	2	Mindfulness meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) Zen Buddhist meditation (1); 456 MM (NS) (1) 614
exposed to meditation practices	Mindfulness meditation	2	2	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (1); <sup>453</sup> Mantra (NS) (1) <sup>937</sup>
practicos	Meditation practices (ND)	2	2	Yoga (1 group, 1 study) <sup>141</sup> Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) <sup>481</sup>
	Tai Chi	1	1	Qi Gong (1 group, 1 study) 907
	Yoga	4	4	Mantra meditation (2 groups, 2 studies) TM <sup>®</sup> (2) <sup>509a817</sup> Mindfulness meditation (1 group, 1 study) Zen Buddhist meditation (1) <sup>456</sup> Qi Gong (1 group, 1 study) <sup>202</sup>
Concurrent control groups exposed to	Mantra meditation	21	20	Mantra meditation (21 groups, 20 studies) TM® (17); 436,509b522,546,548,571b412,582,586,607,655,675,722,732,740,748,994 Ananda marga (2); 498,786 Mantra (NS) (1) 591
different dose or regimen of the same	Mindfulness meditation	8	6	Mindfulness meditation (8 groups, 6 studies) Zen Buddhist meditation (4); <sup>729,742,917,924</sup> Vipassana (1); <sup>708</sup> MM (NS) (1) <sup>511</sup>
meditation practice	Qi Gong	11	6	Qi Gong (11 groups, 6 studies) <sup>161,873,884,888,890,892</sup>
	Yoga	3	3	Yoga (3 groups, 3 studies) <sup>788,820,869</sup>
	Tai Chi	1	1	Tai Chi (1 group, 1 study) <sup>911</sup>

Table G8. Type of control groups for observational analytical studies on meditation practices (continued)

Type of c	control group	N groups	N studies 14	References
Historical control	s	14		Mantra meditation (11 groups, 11 studies)  TM® (10); 400,450,452,600,601,624,771,970a624b688 Ananda marga (1) 720  Qi Gong (3 groups, 3 studies) 200-202  Mantra meditation (136 groups, 136 studies)  TM® (126); 951a951b80,385,438,446,449- 452,458,466,469,487,499,501,513,520,529,534,535,540,547,771,772,795,923,952,964,978,980,1008a547b548,551,552a552b555,560,563 ,568,570,571a399-401,576,581-583,585,598-601,612,619,624,776,927,928,970,975,976a624b416,422,428,633,638,640,643,644,646- 649,661,663,668-672,685,686,688,693- 695,700,701,703,704,712,717,718,721,723,779,781,790,835,950,972,983,993,997a950b731,734,936,973b973a737,743- 745,757,760,763,792,941,1000,1003,1004
Number of controls per study	Single control	207	207	
				ACEM meditation (4); <sup>720,957,958,960</sup> Mantra (NS) (4); <sup>828,853,859,969</sup> Ananda marga (1); <sup>526</sup> RR (1) <sup>492</sup> Yoga (26 groups, 26 studies) <sub>142,146,465,473,496,506,574,667,785,788,798,803,807,833,849,855,857,861,865,948,949,968,985,989,1009,1010</sub>
				Mindfulness meditation (17 groups, 17 studies)  Zen Buddhist meditation (8); 105,443,495,550,636,886,918,995 MM (NS) (6); 479,486,497,605,614,641 Vipassana (3) 664,921,990  Tai Chi (16 groups, 16 studies) 388,699,735,874,876,877,880,881,896,898,899,901,902,905,908,909  Qi Gong (8 groups, 8 studies) 200,201,632,778,873,887,893,912  Miscellaneous meditation practices (3 groups, 3 studies) 454,628,967  Meditation practices (ND) (1 group, 1 study) 630
	Multiple controls	137	59	Mantra meditation (65 groups, 29 studies) TM® (25); <sup>436,439,441,453,508,509a509b522,546,571b412,586,607,655,660,675,722,732,740,741,748,749,817,939,994</sup> Ananda marga (2); <sup>498,786</sup> Mantra (NS) (2) <sup>591,937</sup> Mindfulness meditation (16 groups, 7 studies) Zen Buddhist meditation (5); <sup>456,729,742,917,924</sup> MM (NS) (1); <sup>511</sup> Vipassana (1) <sup>708</sup> Yoga (14 groups, 7 studies) <sup>141,390,527,755,820,842,869</sup> Qi Gong (20 groups, 7 studies) <sup>161,202,884,888,890,892,907</sup> Tai Chi (12 groups, 6 studies) <sup>432,470,565,879,903,911</sup> Miscellaneous meditation practices (7 groups, 2 studies): <sup>933,935</sup> Meditation practices (ND) (3 groups, 1 study) <sup>481</sup>

Table G9. Meditation practices separated by the diseases, conditions, and populations for which they have been examined

Category of meditation practices	Meditation practice	N	Study populations/conditions and associated references
Mantra meditation (337)	TM <sup>®®</sup>	231	Intervention studies (80)  Healthy populations (57) College/university students (24);  186,187,189,293,424,429,433,463,518,519,539,546,659,662,705,750,758,769,782,793,796,945,986,1005  171,190,291,324,392,407,418,471,505,528,533,561,677,709,733,815,942,996,1002;  Elderly (3); 78,279,282 Smokers (2); 674,787 Athletes (1) 309  Mental health disorders (9) Substance abuse (5); 259,261,267,270,271 Anxiety disorders (2); 683,814 Miscellaneous psychiatric conditions (1); 850 Posttraumatic stress disorder (1) 478  Circulatory/cardiovascular (10) Coronary artery disease (1); 252 Hypertension (9) 205,206,210,220-222,295,311,319  Respiratory/Pulmonary (2) Asthma (2) 587,759  Sleep disorders (1) Chronic insomnia (1) 780  Oncology (1) Cancer (miscellaneous) (1) 816  Observational analytical (151)  Healthy populations (148) Healthy volunteers from the community (91); 951a951b385,446,449-452,499,508,509,771,795,952,978,980,1008a509b80,513,522,529,546,551,555,560,563,571,923,964a571b399,400,576,581,583,585,586,598-601,607,612,624,776,928,970,975,976a624b412,416,422,428,633,638,640,643,644,646,647,649,655,669,675,686,695,700,703,704,717,722,723,731,779,972,973,983,993,994,99 7b973a745,748,749,760,792,939,941,1004 College/university students (48); 436,458,466,487,501,520,534,535,540,547,772a547b401,548,568,570,582,648,660,681,663,668,671,672,685,688,693,694,712,718,721,781,790,817,835,927,950a950b732,734,737,741,744,757,753,936,1000,1003 Elderly (5); 453,552a552b701,740 Prison inmates (3); 438,439,441 Workers (1) 670  Gynecology (2) Pregnancy (1); 469 Postmenopause (1) 743  Dental (1) Periodontitis (1) 619
	RR	51	Intervention studies (50)  Healthy populations (31) College/university students (19); 306,394,475-477b306a75,191,515,524,530,558,567,569,572,616,625,938,988 Healthy volunteers from the community (8); 94,283,284,288,304,480,525,594 Prison inmates (1); 92 Workers (3) 504,637,673 Circulatory/cardiovascular (9) Other cardiovascular diseases (5); 91,234,236,459,753 Hypertension (4) 208,209,218,228 Mental health disorders (4) Substance abuse (2); 265,268 Anxiety disorders (1); 460 Schizophrenia or antisocial personality disorders (1) 678 Gynecology (2) Menopause (1) 592; Premenstrual syndrome (1) 396 Gastrointestinal (1) Irritable bowel syndrome (1) 610 Miscellaneous medical conditions (1) Heterogeneous patient population (1) 414 Musculoskeletal (1) Total knee replacement (1) 192 Oncology (1) Skin cancer (1) 521 Observational analytical (1) Circulatory/cardiovascular: Hypertension (1) 492.

COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; CSM = clinically standardized meditation; DM = diabetes mellitus; HIV = human immunodeficiency virus; MBCT = mindfulness-based cognitive therapy; MBSR = mindfulness-based stress reduction; MM = mindfulness meditation; ND = not described; NS = not specified; RR = Relaxation Response; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>

Table G9. Meditation practices separated by the diseases, conditions, and populations for which they have been examined (continued)

Category of meditation practices	Meditation practice	N	Study populations/conditions and associated references
Mantra meditation (continued)	Mantra meditation (ND)	32	Intervention studies (26)  Healthy populations (19) College/university students (10); 472,494a531,597,650,653,654,706,719,965  Healthy populations (19) College/university students (10); 472,494a531,597,650,653,654,706,719,965  Healthy volunteers from the community (6); 393,434,503,652,777,856  Workers (2); 483,761  Army/military (1) 194  Mental health disorders (5) Anxiety disorders (3); 577,626,736  Substance abuse (1); 60  Miscellaneous psychiatric conditions (1) 963  Circulatory/cardiovascular (1) Hypertension (1) 203  Neurological (1) Epilepsy (1) 805  Observational analytical (6)  Healthy populations (6) Healthy volunteers from the community (6) 591,828,853,859,937,969
	CSM	11	Intervention studies (11)  Healthy populations (7) College/university students (3); 537,658,676 Workers (3); 193,384,536 Healthy volunteers from the community (1) 627  Mental health disorders (3) Anxiety disorders (1); 97 Schizophrenia (1); 410 Substance abuse (1) 264  Sleep disorders (1) Chronic insomnia (1) 702
	ACEM meditation	7	Intervention studies (3)  Healthy populations (3) Athletes (3) 956,959,961  Observational analytical (4)  Healthy populations (4) Healthy volunteers from the community (4) 720,957,958,960
	Ananda marga	3	Observational analytical (3)  Healthy populations (3) Healthy volunteers from the community (3) 498,526,786
	Cayce's meditation	1	Intervention studies (1)  Healthy populations (1) Healthy volunteers from the community (1) 680
	Concentrative/ rosary prayer	1	Intervention studies (1)  Healthy populations (1) Healthy volunteers from the community (1) 966
Yoga		191	Intervention studies (158)  Healthy populations (80) Healthy volunteers from the community (34); 83,111,122,126,133,140,180,183,301,302,310,312,318,320,322,323,406,411,491,578,707,739,799,821,822,826,858,860,863,864,867,979,981,992 College/university students (26); 127,134,172,177-179,181,182,297,300,305,314,315,389,462,468,615,800,802,823,838,840,854,862,971,982 Army/military (7); 137,313,811,836,837,839,844 Elderly (5); 280,281,445,562,825 Workers (5) 169,176,549,679,1007 Prison inmates (2); 175,812 Athletes (1) 834  Circulatory/cardiovascular (21) Hypertension (13); 185,204,212,216,217,219,224,226,294,303,510,831,851 Cardiovascular diseases (8) 233,238-240,247,250,251,611,  Mental health disorders (16) Depression (7); 138,184,618,764,806,819,830 Anxiety disorders (3); 810,841,846 Substance abuse (3); 266,269,273 Obsessive-compulsive disorder (1); 174 Miscellaneous psychiatric conditions (1); 170 Neurosis (1)

Table G9. Meditation practices separated by the diseases, conditions, and populations for which they have been examined (continued)

Category of meditation practices	Meditation practice	N	Study populations/conditions and associated references
Yoga (continued		192	Respiratory/Pulmonary (13) Asthma (9); <sup>168,325,813,818,829,843,866,943,991</sup> Chronic airways obstruction (1) <sup>998</sup> Chronic bronchitis (1); <sup>797</sup> Pleural effusion (1); <sup>832</sup> Pulmonary tuberculosis (1) <sup>868</sup> Muscoloskeletal (11) Chronic pain (2); <sup>118,542</sup> Rheumathoid arthritis (2); <sup>804,925</sup> Carpal tunnel syndrome (1); <sup>544</sup> Chronic rheumatic diseases (1); <sup>845</sup> Fibromyalgia (1); <sup>584</sup> Hyperkyphosis (1); <sup>559</sup> Multiple sclerosis (1); <sup>666</sup> Osteoarthritis (1); <sup>543</sup> Post-polio syndrome (1) <sup>516</sup> Endocrine (7) Type 2 DM (7) <sup>278,298,308,321,794,824,926</sup> Gastrointestinal (2) Irritable bowel syndrome (1); <sup>852</sup> Miscellaneous gastrointestinal disorders (1) <sup>827</sup> Neurological (2) Epilepsy (1); <sup>417</sup> Migraine/tension headaches (1) <sup>404</sup> Gynecology (1) Pregnancy (1) <sup>415</sup> Immunologic (1) HIV (1) <sup>642</sup> Miscellaneous medical conditions (1) Heterogeneous patient population (1) <sup>870</sup> Oncology (1) Lymphoma (1) <sup>120</sup> Sleep disorders (1) Chronic insomnia (1) <sup>613</sup> Vestibular (1) Tinnius (1) <sup>946</sup> Observational analytical (33) Healthy volunteers from the community (23); <sup>141,146,390,465,473,506,527,574,667,798,803,820,833,842,855,861,865,948,949,968,985,989,1009</sup> College/university students (7); <sup>142,755,785,788,807,857,869</sup> Workers (2); <sup>496,849</sup> Elderly (1) <sup>1010</sup>
Mindfulness meditation (127)	MBSR	49	Intervention studies (49)  Healthy populations (12) College/university students (6); 457,488,517,689,711,754 Healthy volunteers from the community (3); 485,602,756 Workers (3) 512,593,710  Mental health disorders (12) Anxiety disorders (3); 196,589,606 Mood disorders (2); 681,752 Substance abuse (2); 263,272 Binge eating disorder (1); 620 Burnout (1); 493 Miscellaneous psychiatric conditions (1); 622 Personality disorders (1); 773 Parents of children with behavioral problems (1) 687  Miscellaneous medical conditions (6) Heterogeneous patient population (5); 579,684,691,692,947 Chronic fatigue (1) 934 Musculoskeletal (6) Chronic pain (4); 420,482,556,682 Fibromyalgia (2) 421,609 Oncology (4) Breast cancer (3); 423,675,724 Prostate cancer (1) 697 Dermatology (2) Psoriasis (2) 167,195 Circulatory/Cardiovascular (2) Cardiovascular diseases (2) 244,245 Neurological (2) Traumatic brain injuries (2) 770,930 Endocrine (1) Obesity (1) 635 Immunologic (1)HIV (1) 419 Organ transplantation (1) Kidney, lung, pancreas (1) 402

Table G9. Meditation practices separated by the diseases, conditions, and populations for which they have been examined (continued)

Category of meditation practices	Meditation practice	N	Study populations/conditions and associated references
Mindfulness meditation (127) (continued)	MM (NS)	37	Intervention studies (30)  Healthy populations (11) College/university students (7); 106,447,490,523,696,728,775 Athletes (1); 762 Healthy volunteers from the community (1); 532 Smokers (1); 444 Workers (1) 932  Mental health disorders (5) Binge eating disorders (2); 403,474 Anxiety disorders (1); 751 Psychosis (1); 922 Substance abuse (1) 258  Musculoskeletal (5) Fibromyalgia (3); 430,448,716 chronic pain (2) 464,604  Circulatory/Cardiovascular (3) Cardiovascular diseases (3) 241,242,249  Oncology (3) Cancer (miscellaneous) (3) 386,442,738  Dermatology (1) Psoriasis (1) 395  Gynecology (1) Infertility (1) 1011  Miscellaneous medical conditions (1) Heterogeneous patient population (1) 727  Observational analytical (7)  Healthy populations (6) College/university students (4); 497,511,614,641 Healthy volunteers from the community (2) 479,486  Musculoskeletal (1) Chronic pain (1) 605
	Zen Buddhist meditation	28	Intervention studies (15)  Healthy populations (11) College/university students (10); 70,426,500,554,629,639,774,913,916,920 Healthy volunteers from the community (1) 197  Circulatory/Cardiovascular: Cardiovascular diseases (1); 237 Hypertension (2) 225,227  Sleep disorders (1) Insomnia (1) 765  Observational analytical (13)  Healthy populations (13) Healthy volunteers from the community (12); 105,443,456,495,550,636,729,742,886,917,924,995  College/university students (1) 918
	MBCT	7	Intervention studies (7)  Mental health disorders (3) Depression (3) 427,929,940  Healthy populations (1) Workers (1) 984  Musculoskeletal (1) Fibromyalgia 553  Neurological (1) Stroke (1) 784  Vestibular (1) Tinnitus (1) 455
	Vipassana meditation	6	Intervention studies (2)  Healthy populations: Healthy volunteers from the community (1) 848  Neurological (1) Migraine/Tension headaches (1) 847  Observational analytical (4)  Healthy populations (4) Healthy volunteers from the community (2); 708,990 College/university students (1); 921 Elderly (1)

**G-23** 

Table G9. Meditation practices separated by the diseases, conditions, and populations for which they have been examined (continued)

Category of meditation practices	Meditation practice	N	Study populations/conditions and associated references
Tai Chi		88	Intervention studies (66)  Healthy populations (38) Elderly (25); 285,287,290,326,397,398,408,409,425,435,489,566,588,603,631,645,657,665,690,698,872,878,882,885,931 Healthy volunteers from the community (8); 152,286,296,307,595,596,766,906 College/university students (4); 317,715,747,789 Workers (1) 955  Musculoskeletal (13) Rheumatoid arthritis (4); 617,746,883,962 Osteoarthritis (3); 573,894,904 Chronic pain (2); 437,467 Balance disorders (1); 564 Fibromyalgia (1); 725 Multiple sclerosis (1); 590 Osteoporosis (1) 713  Circulatory/Cardiovascular (4) Cardiovascular diseases (3); 235,246,248 Hypertension (1) 223  Gynecology (2) Menopause (1); 1001 Postmenopause (1) 895  Mental health disorders (2) Depression (1); 871 Miscellaneous psychiatric conditions (1) 768  Neurological (2) Developmental disabilities (1); 608 Stroke (1) 1006  Endocrine (1) Type 2 DM (1) 999  Immunologic (1) HIV (1) 541  Oncology (1) Breast cancer (1) 391  Renal (1): End-stage renal disease (1) 897  Vestibular (1) Vestibulopathy (1) 413  Observational analytical (22)  Healthy populations (20) Elderly (18); 388,432,565,735,874,876,879-881,896,898,901-903,905,908,909,911 Healthy volunteers from the community (2) 470,699  Gynecology (2)Postmenopause (2) 877,899
Qi Gong		37	Intervention studies (22)  Healthy populations (7) Healthy volunteers from the community (4); <sup>299,405,634,891</sup> College/university students (2); <sup>316,977</sup> Elderly (1) <sup>889</sup> Circulatory/cardiovascular (5) Hypertension (4); <sup>207,211,213,214</sup> Cardiovascular diseases (1); <sup>243</sup> Musculoskeletal (4) Fibromyalgia (2); <sup>502,953</sup> Muscular dystrophy (1); <sup>954</sup> Regional pain syndrome (1) <sup>767</sup> Endocrine (2) Type 2 DM (2) <sup>914,919</sup> Mental health disorders (1) Substance abuse (1) <sup>262</sup> Miscellaneous medical conditions (1) Heterogeneous patient population (1) <sup>900</sup> Neurological (1) Migraine/Tension headaches (1) <sup>944</sup> Respiratory/Pulmonary (1) COPD (1) <sup>875</sup> Observational analytical (15)  Healthy populations (14) Healthy volunteers from the community (11); <sup>161,200,201,632,778,884,887,888,890,892,893</sup> College/university students (2); <sup>202,912</sup> Elderly (1) <sup>907</sup> Circulatory/Cardiovascular (1) Hypertension (1) <sup>873</sup>

Table G9. Meditation practices separated by the diseases, conditions, and populations for which they have been examined (continued)

Category of meditation practices	Meditation practice	N	Study populations/conditions and associated references
Meditation practi	ces (ND)	21	Intervention studies (19)  Healthy populations (12) College/university students (9); <sup>387,494b199,431,539,580,656,730,915</sup> Workers (2); <sup>514,910</sup> Healthy volunteers from the community (1) <sup>651</sup> Mental health disorders (4) Substance abuse; (2) <sup>274,808</sup> Anger management problems (1); <sup>987</sup> Mood disorders (1) <sup>783</sup> Circulatory/cardiovascular (1) Hypertension (1) <sup>215</sup> Dental problems (1) Dental problems (1) <sup>198</sup> Sleep disorders (1) Insomnia (1) <sup>484</sup> Observational analytical (2)  Healthy populations (1) College/university students (1) <sup>481</sup> Mental health disorders (1) Miscellaneous psychiatric conditions (1) <sup>630</sup>
Miscellaneous m practices	editation	11	Intervention studies (6)  Healthy populations (3) College/university students (2); 507,791 Healthy volunteers from the community (1) 623  Mental health disorders (1) Miscellaneous psychiatric conditions (1) 621  Miscellaneous medical conditions (1) Heterogeneous patient population (1) 801  Oncology (1) Breast cancer (1) 726  Observational analytical (5)  Healthy populations (5) Healthy volunteers from the community (4); 454,628,933,967 College/university students (1) 935

## Appendix H. Characteristics of Clinical Trials of Meditation Practices for the Three Most Studied Conditions

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension

		Characteristics of study population		Interve	Intervention		arison groups	_		
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	<b>Type/name</b>	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions	
Aivazyan, TA	RCT parallel	35.7 yr F = 0	R: 146 C: 117	Composite	R: 90 C: 70	NT	R: 56 C: 47	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP)	The intervention produced a significant antihypertensive	
1988 <sup>203</sup>	2 arms Duration:	M = 117 Mild HT	W: 29	Mantra meditation	W: 20		W: 9	Secondary: time of BP restoration, HRQL,	effect lasting for 1 yr in outpatients with mild	
Russia	12 mo	(DBP 90-		+				emotional stress,	hypertension	
	ITT: yes	105 mm Hg)		relaxation techniques				number of sick leaves	The intervention produced reduction in	
									psychophysiological reactivity	
									The intervention produced improvement in psychological adaptation	
									and capacity for work	

AHM = anti-hypertensive medication; AI = alpha index; APO-A1 = apolipoprotein A1; AT = autogenic training; BE = breathing exercises; BF = biofeedback; BHT = borderline hypertension; BMI = body mass index; BP = blood pressure; C = number completed; cIMT = carotid intima media thickness; CMBT = contemplative meditation with breathing techniques; CO = cardiac output; CPR = cold pressor response; Cr = creatinine; d = day(s); DBH = dopamine beta hydroxylase; DBP = diastolic blood pressure; E = number enrolled (for NRCTs); E/A ratio = early filling divided by atrial constriction; EEG = electroencephalogram; EMG = electromyography; EPI = epinephrine; FEV<sub>1</sub> forced expiratory volume in 1 second; FVC = forced vital capacity; GSR = galvanic skin response; HDL-C = high density lipoprotein cholesterol; HE = health education; HR = heart rate; HRQL = health-related quality of life; HT = hypertension; IHD = ischemic heart disease; ITT = intention to treat; IVST = intraventricular septal thickness; JNC 7 = Joint National Committee 7; K = potassium; LDL-C = low density lipoprotein cholesterol; LVIDD = left ventricular internal dimension at diastole; LVDIS = left ventricular internal dimension at systole; LVMI = left ventricular mass index; MI = myocardial infarction; mo = month(s); Na = sodium; NA = not applicable; NE = norepinephrine; NR = not reported; NRCT = nonrandomized controlled trial; NS = not specified; NT = no treatment; PLB = placebo; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; PRA = plasma renin activity; pR = Pulse rate; PWT = posterior wall thickness; R = number randomized (for RCTs); RPP = rate pressure product; RR = Relaxation Response; SBP = systolic blood pressure; TC = total cholesterol; TG = triglycerides; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>; wk = week(s); UC = usual care; W = number withdrawals/losses to folloup; WL = waiting list; yr = year(s); 18-OH-OHDOC = hydroxydeoxycorticosterone

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Characteristics of study population		Inte	Intervention		nparison roups		
		Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Broota A, 1995 <sup>204</sup>	RCT parallel 4 arms	35-59 yr F = 0 M = 40	R: NR C: 40 W: NR	Single Yoga	R: NR C: 10 W: NR	Broota	R: NR C: 10 W: NR	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP) Secondary: anxiety, GSR	The three therapies are effective in reducing symptoms of hypertension when compared to the NT group Yoga was the most effective followed by the Broota technique and PMR
India	Duration: 8 d ITT: No	Essential HT (NR)				PMR	R: NR C: 10 W: NR		
						NT	R: NR C: 10 W: NR		
Calderon R Jr, 2000 <sup>205</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 mo ITT: NR	53.9 yr F = 48 M = 24 Mild HT (SBP 130-140 mm Hg and DBP 85-89 mm Hg or SBP 140-150 mm Hg and DBP 90-99 mm Hg)	R: 146 C: 72 W: 74	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	R: NR C: 36 W: NR	HE	R: NR C: 36 W: NR	Primary: TC, TG. LDL-C, HDL-C Secondary: BP changes, PR, anger, personal efficacy, diet, stress, physical activity	There were no significant reductions in TC, TG, LDL-C and no significant increase in HDL-C between groups Both groups showed significant positive changes in BP, PR, diet, and psychological measures

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

		Characteristics of study population		Inte	rvention	Compa	rison groups	_	
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Castillo- Richmond A, 2000 <sup>206</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 9 mo ITT: Yes	53.8 yr F = 41 M = 19 Mild to moderate HT (SBP 130- 139 mm Hg and DBP 80- 85 mm Hg [high normal]; SBP 140- 159 mm Hg and DBP 90- 99 mm Hg [stage I]; SBP 160-179 mm Hg and DBP 100-109 mm Hg [stage 2])	R: 138 C: 60 W: 78	Single TM®	R: NR C: 31 W: NR	HE	R: NR C: 29 W: NR	Primary: cIMT Secondary: BP changes, weight, PR, pulse pressure, TC, HDL-C, LDL-C, smoking, exercise	Stress reduction with TM® is associated with reduced cIMT There were no significant changes associated with TM® for the other outcomes

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Characteristics of study population		Inte	rvention	Compar	ison groups	_	
Study, country		Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	<b>Type/name</b>	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Cheung BMY, 2005 <sup>207</sup> Hong Kong	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 16 wk ITT: Yes	54.4 yr F = 51 M = 37 Mild HT (SBP 140- 170 mm Hg and/or DBP 90- 105 mm Hg)	R: 91 C: 88 W: 3	Single Qi Gong	R: 47 C: 47 W: 0	Exercise	R: 44 C: 44 W: 3	Primary: BP, health status, anxiety, depression Secondary: HR, weight, BMI, body fat, waist/hip circumference, renin excretion, urinary albumin excretion, Na, K, urea, Cr, TC, HDL-C, LDL-C, TG, aldosterone, urine cortisolurine, Cr, urine Na, urine protein, LVMI, ejection fraction	Qi Gong and conventional exercise have similar effects on BP in patients with mild HT Qi Gong is not superior to conventional exercise but can be used as an alternative to conventional exercise in those who prefer it as a form of nonpharmacological management of HT
Cohen J, 1983 <sup>208</sup> United States	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration:	44.5 yr F = 17 M = 13 Essential	R: NR C: 30 W: NR	Single RR	R: NR C: 10 W: NR	BF	R: NR C: 10 W: NR	Primary: attention (field independence, attention deployment, absorption)	The BF group became significantly more field independent
United States	10 wk ITT: NR	HT (NR)		_		WL	R: NR C: 10 W: NR	Secondary: BP changes (SBP, DBP)	than RR and WL groups Increase in field independence in the BF group correlated with decreases in BP

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

	Study design, followup duration, ITT		stics of study ulation	Inter	vention	Compar	ison groups	_	Authors' conclusions
Study, country		Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	
Hafner RJ, 1982 <sup>185</sup>	RCT parallel 3 arms	48.9 yr F = NR M = NR	R: 24 C: 22 W: 2	Composite Yoga + BF	R: 8 C: 7 W: 1	Yoga	R: 8 C: 7 W: 1	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP) Secondary: hostility,	The addition of BF to meditation does not enhance reduction
United Kingdom	Duration: 3 mo ITT: NR	Essential HT (NR)				NT	R: 8 C: 8 W: 0	- assertive behavior, psychological symptoms	of BP Overall reductions in blood pressure were not significantly greater in either program than in the control group
Hager JL, 1978 <sup>209</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 4 wk ITT: No	Age NR F = NR M = NR BHT (SBP >145 mm Hg and/or DBP >95 mm Hg)	R: 30 C: 17 W: 13	Single RR	R: NR C: 10 W: NR	BF (BP)	R: NR C: 7 W: NR	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP)	Neither RR nor BF (BP) reduced SBP over the followup period Differences between RR and BF in BP reductions were not significant
Kondwani KA, 1998 <sup>210,229</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 1 yr ITT: NR	50.7 yr F = 19 M = 15 Mild HT (DBP 90- 104 mm Hg)	R: 42 C: 34 W: 8	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	R: 22 C: 19 W: 3	HE	R: 20 C: 15 W: 5	Primary: LVMI Secondary: BP changes (SBP, DBP), weight, HR, PWT, LVIDD, LVIDS, IVST, E/A ratio, energy, sleep, positive affect, sleep pattern, anxiety, depression, anger, self-efficacy, locus of control, diet, activity level, compliance	Both TM <sup>®</sup> and health education reduced LVMI The TM <sup>®</sup> group showed significant improvements in HRQL, diastolic function and DBP

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

	Study design, followup duration, ITT		Characteristics of study population		Intervention		arison groups	_	
Study, country		Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Kuang AK, 1987 <sup>211</sup>	RCT parallel 2 arms	40-60 yr F = 0 M = 46	R: NR C: 46 W: NR	Composite  Qi Gong +	R: NR C: 23 W: NR	AHM	R: NR C: 23 W: NR	Primary: plasma 18- OH-DOC levels Secondary: BP	The addition of Qi Gong to AHM significantly reduced BP and
China	Duration: 1 yr ITT: NR	Essential HT (DBP 100- 120 mm Hg)		AHM				changes (SBP, DBP)	plasma I8-0H-DOC
Latha DR, 1991 <sup>212</sup> India	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration:	45-70 yr F = NR M = NR Essential HT	R: 23 C: 14 W: 9	Composite  Yoga + BF  (thermal	C: 7	HE	R: NR C: 7 W: NR	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP) Secondary: AHM	Training in yoga + BF was moderately effective in reducing SBP
	6 mo ITT: NR	(NR)		)				intake, stress control, negative responses to stress, coping be- havior, somatic symptoms, symp- tom severity	Thermal BF seems to be more effective in reducing DBP Training in Yoga and thermal BF was least effective in altering the perceptions associated with stressful experiences

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

		Characteristics of study population		Inter	vention	Comp	parison groups	_		
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions	
Lee MS, 2003 <sup>214,230</sup> South Korea	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 10 wk ITT: NR	56.2 yr F = 35 M = 23 Essential HT (SBP 140-180 mm Hg and DBP 90- 100 mm Hg)	R: 65 C: 58 W: 7	Single Qi Gong	R: 33 C: 29 W: 4	WL	R: 32 C: 29 W: 3	Primary:_BP changes (SBP, DBP, RPP) Secondary: HR, PR, EPI, NE, FVC, 230 FEV1, 230 cortisol, stress level	Qi Gong reduced SBP, DBP, NE, EPI, cortisol, and stress levels Qi Gong significantly improved ventilation functions Qi Gong is an effective nonpharmacological modality to reduce BP in essential HT	
Lee MS, 2004 <sup>213,231</sup> South Korea	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 8 wk ITT: NR	53.4 yr F = 22 M = 14 Essential HT (SBP 140-180 mm Hg and DBP 90- 105 mm Hg)	R: 47 C: 36 W: 11	Single Qi Gong	R: 23 C: 17 W: 6	WL	R: 24 C: 19 W: 5	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP) Secondary: APO- A1, TC, HDL-C, TG, self- efficacy <sup>231</sup>	Qi Gong significantly reduced BP and changed lipid metabolism Qi Gong significantly enhances perceptions of self-efficacy	

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

		Characterist popul		Inte	ervention	Comp	parison groups	_	Authors' conclusions	
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes		
Manikonda P, 2005 <sup>215</sup> Germany	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 8 wk ITT: NR	30-70 yr F = 18 M = 34 Mild to moderate HT (JNC7 criteria)	R: NR C: 52 W: NR	Single CMBT	R: NR C: 26 W: NR	NT	R: NR C: 26 W: NR	Primary: BP changes	CMBT effectively reduces BP	
McCaffrey R, 2005 <sup>216</sup> Thailand	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 8 wk ITT: NR	56.4 yr F = 35 M = 19 Mild to moderate HT (BP>140/90 mm Hg)	R: 61 C: 54 W: 7	Single Yoga	R: 32 C: 27 W: 5	HE	R: 29 C: 27 W: 2	Primary: stress, BP changes (SBP, DBP) Secondary: BMI, HR	Practicing Yoga for 8 wk reduces stress, BP, BMI, and HR	
Murugesan R, 2000 <sup>217</sup> India	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration:	35-65 yr F = NR M = NR Essential HT (NR)	R: NR C: 33 W: NR	Single Yoga	R: NR C: 11 W: NR	AHM	R: NR C: 11 W: NR	Primary: stress, BP changes (SBP, DBP) Secondary: PR,	Yoga was more effective than AHM in controlling SBP, PR, and weight, but not	
11 wk ITT: NR					NT	R: NR C: 11 W: NR	– weight	DBP		

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

			tics of study lation	Interv	ention/	Compa	rison groups	-	Authors' conclusions
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	
Patel CH, 1985 <sup>218</sup> United Kingdom	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 8 wk8 mo4 yr ITT: NR	35-64 yr F = 74 M = 118 Mild HT (BP>140/90 mm Hg)	R: 204 C: 192 W: 12	Composite RR + BE + PMR	R: 107 C: 99 W: 8	HE	R: 97 C: 93 W: 4	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP), TC Secondary: smoking, morbidity, mortality	There was a significantly greater reduction in SBP, DBPand smoking in the intervention group compared to the control at 8 wk and 8 mo  No significant differences in TC were found between the groups  Differences in BP between groups were maintained at 4-yr followup  Incidence of IHD and MI was significantly greater in the control group at 4-yr followup
Patel CH, 1975 <sup>219</sup> United Kingdom	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 wk ITT: NR	59 yr F = 21 M = 13 Essential HT (DBP ≥110 mm Hg)	R: 36 C: 34 W: 2	Composite Yoga + BF	R: 18 C: 17 W: 1	Rest	R: 18 C: 17 W: 1	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP)	There was a significantly greater reduction in SBP and DBP in the intervention group compared with the control

H-1(

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

		Characteristic populat	•	Interv	vention	Compa	rison groups	-		
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	<b>Type/name</b>	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions	
Schneider RH, 1995 <sup>79,221,23</sup>	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration:	66.8 yr F = 64 M = 47	R: 127 C: 111 W: 16	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	R: 40 C: 36 W: 4	PMR	R: 42 C: 37 W: 5	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP)	TM <sup>®</sup> was was approximately twice as effective as PMR in	
United States	3 mo ITT: yes	Mild HT (SBP ≤ 189 mm Hg and DBP 90-109 mm Hg)				HE	R: 45 C: 38 W: 7	Secondary: compliance	controlling BP	
Schneider RH, 2005 <sup>220</sup>	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration:	48.5 yr F = 79 M = 71	R: 197 C: 150 W: 47	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	R: 65 C: 54 W: 11	PMR	R: 68 C: 52 W: 16	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP)	TM <sup>®</sup> significantly de- creased DBP more than PMR or HE, and there	
United States	1 yr ITT: yes	Mild to moderate HT (SBP 140-179 or DBP 90-109 mm Hg)				HE	R: 64 C: 44 W: 20	Secondary: change in AHM	was a trend for a greater reduction in SBP There was a significant reduction in AHM use in the TM® group com- pared with PMR and HE	
Seer P, 1980 <sup>222</sup>	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration:	43.3 yr F = 18 M = 23	R: 41 C: 36 W: 5	Single SRELAX	R: 14 C: 12 W: 2	PLB	R: 14 C: 11 W: 3	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP)	There were modest reductions in blood pressure in both TM®	
New Zealand	3 mo ITT: NR	Essential HT (DBP ≥ 100 mm Hg)		(techni que modele d after TM <sup>®</sup> )		WL	R: 13 C: 13 W: 0	-	and placebo groups (identical training but without a mantra)	

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

		Characteristic populat		Inter	vention	Comparis	son groups			
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions	
Selvamurthy W, 1998 <sup>226</sup> India	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 3 wk ITT: NR	41.7 yr F = 0 M = 20 Essential HT (SBP>140 mm Hg and DBP >90 mm Hg)	E: NR C: 20 W: NR	Single Yoga	E: NR C: 10 W: NR	Orthos- tatic tilt	E: NR C: 10 W: NR	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP) Secondary: Al- EEG, CO, HR, NE, EPI, PRA, urine K, urine Na, CPR	Both Yoga and orthostatic tilt restored BP to normal level Both interventions dropped CO, HR, CPR, NE, EPI, PRA and increased AI-EEG	
Stone RA, 1976 <sup>227</sup> United States	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 mo ITT: NR	28 yr F = 2 M = 17 Mild to moderate HT (DBP > 105 mm Hg)	E: NR C: 19 W: NR	Single  Zen  Bud- dhist  medi- tation	E: NR C: 14 W: NR	BP checks	E: NR C: 5 W: NR	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP) Secondary: changes in plasma DBH, plasma volume, PRA	Meditation significantly improved BP control in certain patients with mild or moderate HT PRA levels were significantly lower in the meditation group No differences in PRA and plasma were found	
Surwit RS, 1978 <sup>228</sup> United States	NRCT parallel 3 arms Duration: 6 wk ITT: NR	46.4 yr F = 5 M = 19 BHT (SBP ≥ 140 mm Hg or DBP ≥ 90 mm Hg)	E: NR C: 24 W: NR	Single RR	R: NR C: 8 W: NR	BF (EMG) BF (BP)	E: NR C: 8 W: NR E: NR C: 8 W: NR	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP)	All groups showed moderate reductions in BP No technique produced a reduction in BP greater than baseline values	

Table H1. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in hypertension (continued)

		Characteristic populat	•	Inter	vention	Comparis	son groups			
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	<b>Type/name</b>	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions	
Tsai JC, 2003 <sup>223</sup>	RCT parallel 2 arms	52 yr F = 38	R: 88 C: 76	Single	R: 44 C: 37	NT	R: 44 C: 39	Primary: BP changes (SBP,	Tai Chi decreased blood pressure produced	
Taiwan	Duration: 12 wk ITT: NR	M = 38 Borderline and Mild HT (SBP 130-159 mm Hg or DBP 85 -99 mm Hg)	W: 12	Tai Chi	W: 7		W: 5	DBP) Secondary: HR, TC, HDL-C, LDL- C, TG, BMI, anxiety	favorable lipid profile changes and improved anxiety status in sub- jects with mild hyper- tension	
van Montfrans GA, 1990 <sup>224</sup>	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration:	41.4 yr F = 17 M = 18	R: 42 C: 35 W: 7	Compo site	R: 23 C: 18 W: 5	Rest	R: 19 C: 17 W: 2	Primary: BP changes (SBP, DBP)	No relevant changes in BP or other parameters were found both in the	
Netherlands	1 yr ITT: NR	Mild HT (SBP 160-200 mm Hg and/or DBP 95-119 mm Hg)	VV. 1	Yoga + RR + PMR + AT	vv. 3		VV. Z	Secondary: body weight, urine Na, TC	intervention and the control groups	
Yen LL, 1996 <sup>225</sup>	RCT parallel 4 arms Duration:	54.5 yr F = 107 M = 192	R: 392 C:299 W: 93	Compo site	R: NR C: 56 W: NR	BP checks	R: NR C: 64 W: NR	Primary:_BP changes (SBP, DBP)	Zen Buddhist meditation + PMR, BP checks, and HE were significant and	
China	2 mo ITT: NR	Mild to moderate HT (SBP ≥ 140 mm		Zen Bud- dhist		HE	R: NR C: 69 W: NR	•	similarly effective in reduction of SBP compared with the NT	
		Hg or DBP ≥ 90 mm Hg)		medi- tation + PMR		NT	R: NR C: 110 W: NR		group	

Table H2. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases

	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Characteristics of study population		Interv	Intervention Comparison groups			<u>-</u>	
Study, country		Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	<b>Type/name</b>	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Ades PA, 2005 <sup>233,253</sup> United States	RCT 2 arms Duration: 6 mo ITT: NR	72.7 yr F = 42 M = 0 CHD	R: 51 C: 42 W: 9	Composite Yoga + BE	R: NR C: 21 W: NR	Resis- tance training	R: NR C: 21 W: NR	Primary: TEE Secondary: body strength, body weight, BMI, fat free mass, left ventricular function, Vo <sub>2</sub> max, depression	Resistance training was associated with significant increases in upper and lower body strength, but no change in fat-free mass or left ventricular function Women in the Yoga group showed no changes in TEE There were no differences between groups in body composition, aerobic capacity or measures of depression

AMI = acute myocardial infarction; BE = breathing exercises; BNP = B-type natriuretic peptide; BMI = body mass index; BP = blood pressure; C = number completed; CABS = coronary artery bypass surgery; CAD = coronary artery disease; CHD = coronary heart disease; CHF = chronic heart failure; CRT = cognitive restructuring training; d = day(s); DBP = diastolic blood pressure; E = number enrolled (for NRCTs) GSH = glutathione; HDL-C = high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HE = health education; HRQL = health-related quality of life; HRV = heart rate variability; ITT = intention to treat; LDL-C = low density lipoprotein cholesterol; LLM = lowering lipid medication; LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction; LVDDi = left ventricular end diastolic volume index; min = minute(s); mo = month(s); NRCTs = nonrandomized controlled trial; MBSR = mindfulness-based stress reduction; NA = not applicable; NE = norepinephrine; NR = not reported; NS = not specified; NT = no treatment; NYHA = New York Heart Association; P-MDA = plasma malondialdehyde; PMR = Progressive muscle relaxation; PVD= peripheral vascular disease; PR = pulse rate; R = number randomized (for RCTs) SBP = systolic blood pressure; TC = total cholesterol; TEE = total energy expenditure; TG = triglycerides; TM® = Transcendental Meditation®; VE/VCO<sub>2</sub> = rate of increase of ventilation per unit of increase of carbon dioxide production; Vo<sub>2</sub> max = maximum oxygen consumption; UC = usual care; VLDL-C = very low density lipoprotein cholesterol; W = number withdrawals/losses to followup; wk = week(s); WL = waiting list; WR = work rate; yr = year(s)

Table H2. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases (continued)

			cteristics of population	Interv	ention	Comparis	on groups	_	Authors' conclusions	
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	<b>Type/name</b>	N participants	Outcomes		
Chang BH, 2005 <sup>234</sup>	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration:	69.2 yr. F = 1 M = 94	R: 95 C: 83 W: 12	Single RR	R: 34 C: 31 W: 3	HE	R: 32 C: 24 W: 8	Primary: HRQL Secondary: VO <sub>2</sub> max	The RR group had significantly better HRQL change scores in peace-	
United States	19 wk ITT: yes	CHF				UC (NS)	R: 29 C: 28 W: 1	_ IIIax	spiritual scales than did the UC. No significant difference was observed between the HE and UC groups No statistically significant intervention effect on physical HRQL or exercise capacity was observed	
Channer KS, 1996 <sup>235</sup>	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration:	56 yr F = 36 M = 90	R: 126 C: 104 W: 22	Single Tai Chi	R: 38 C: 31 W: 7	Exercise	R: 41 C: 30 W: 11	Primary: BP changes (DBP, SBP)	There was a significant greater reduction in DBP in the Tai Chi group than	
United Kingdom	8 wk ITT: NR	AMI				HE	R: 47 C: 43 W: 4	Secondary: HR	in the exercise group Significant trends in SBP occurred for both Tai Chi and exercise groups Tai Chi was associated with a greater HR reduction than exercise	
Curiati JA, 2005 <sup>236</sup>	RCT parallel 2 arms	74.7 yr F = 14	R: 19 C: 15	Composite	R: 10 C: 8	Group therapy	R: 9 C: 7	Primary: NE Secondary:	RR + BE significantly reduced NE, VE/VCO <sub>2</sub>	
Brazil	Duration: 12 wk ITT: NR	M = 5 CHF	W: 4	RR + BE	W: 2		W: 2	HRQL, VE/VCO <sub>2</sub> slope, Vo <sub>2</sub> , LVEF, LVDDi	slope, and improved HRQL No changes occurred in LVEF, LVDDi, or Vo <sub>2</sub>	

Table H2. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases (continued)

			istics of study oulation	-	ention	Compar	ison groups	_	
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants  Type/name  N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions		
Friedman NL, 2002 <sup>237</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 90 min ITT: NR	63 yr F = 9 M = 47 CAD	R: 67 C: 56 W: 11	Single  Zen  Buddhist  meditatio  n	R: NR C: 28 W: NR	HE	R: NR C: 28 W: NR	Primary: HRV	Meditation singnificantly increased HRV compared with HE
Hipp A, 1998 <sup>247</sup> Germany	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 mo ITT: NR	64 yr F = 7 M = 19 CAD	E: NR C: 26 W: NR	Single Yoga	E: NR C: 20 W: NR	NT	E: NR C: 6 W: NR	Primary: TC Secondary: HDL- C, LDL-C, VLDL-C, TG	Yoga significantly reduced TC No significant effect on HDL-C, VLDL-C and TG was found
Jatuporn S, 2003 <sup>238</sup> Thailand	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 4 mo ITT: NR	59 yr F = 9 M = 35 CAD	R: 44 C: 44 W: 0	Composite  Yoga + intensive lifestyle modifica- tion program	R: 22 C: 22 W: 0	LLM	R: 22 C: 22 W: 0	Primary: total antioxidant status, vitamin C, vitamin E Secondary: TG, TC, HDL-C, LDL-C, P-MDA, erythrocyte GSH, BMI	Yoga + intensive lifestyle modification produced a signiificant increase in TC, HDL-C and decrease in TG and BMI Total antioxidant status, vitamin E and erythrocyte GSH were also increased There were no significant changes in P-MDA and vitamin C

H-16

Table H2. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases (continued)

			ristics of study pulation	Interv	ention	Comparis	on groups	<u>-</u>	Authors' conclusions
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	
Lan C, 1999 <sup>248</sup> Taiwan	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 1 yr ITT: NR	56.5 yr F = 0 M = 27 CABS	E: 27 C: 20 W: 7	Single Tai Chi	E: 12 C: 9 W: 3	Exercise	E: 15 C: 11 W: 4	Primary: peak Vo <sub>2</sub> , Secondary: peak WR, HR	The Tai Chi group showed significant improvement in a 1-yr TCC program for low cardiorespiratory function
Mahajan AS, 1999 <sup>239</sup> India	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 14 wk ITT: NR	56-59 yr F = 0 M = 93 CAD	R: 93 C: NR W: NR	Composite  Yoga + diet changes	R: 52 C: NR W: NR	Exercise + Diet change s	R: 41 C: NR W: NR	Primary: body weight, lipid profile (TC, HDL- C, LDL-C)	There were changes in body weight and lipid profile in both the control and intervention groups. However, the pattern of change was inconsistent in the controls
Manchanda SC, 2000 <sup>240</sup> India	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 1 yr ITT: NR	51.5 yr F = 0 M = 42 CAD	R: 42 C: NR W: NR	Composite  Yoga + diet	R: 21 C: NR W: NR	Exercise + diet change s	R: 21 C: NR W: NR	Primary: number of angina episodes/wk, lesion severity, NYHA functional class Secondary: exercise capacity, body weight, TC, HDL-C, LDL-C, TG	Yoga lifestyle intervention significantly improved NYHA functional class and reduced the number of angina episodes Yoga significantly decreased body weight, TC, LDL-C and TC. No changes were observed for HDL-C Yoga improved exercise duration and reduction in the degree of ST segment depression

Table H2. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases (continued)

		Characteristics of study population		Interve	ention	Comparis	on groups	_		
Study, des country dura	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions	
Mandle CL, 1988 <sup>91,254</sup>	RCT parallel 3 arms	59.8 yr F = 28 M = 17	R: 45 C: 45 W: 0	Single RR	R: 15 C: 15 W: 0	Rest (1) Listening music	R: 14 C: 14 W: 0	Primary: anxiety, pain Secondary: medication use, HR,	Patients in the RR group had significantly less anxietypainand	
United States	Duration: NR ITT: NR	PVD				Rest (2) Listening blank tapes	R: 16 C: 16 W:0	BP changes (DBP, SBP), PR	medication use than both the music and blank tape groups	
Pool JI, 1995 <sup>241</sup> United States	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration:	59.2 yr F = 36 M = 16 CHD	R: 50 C: 35 W: 15	Single  Mindfulness meditatio	R: 16 C: 10 W: 6	CRT	R: 13 C: 9 W: 4 11	Primary: BP changes (DBP, SBP) Secondary: HR, anxiety, depression,	No statistically significant differences were found among mindfulness meditation, CRTand	
	9 wk ITT: NR			n (NS)		Group therapy	R: 21 C: 16 W: 5	psychological distress, irritability, hostility	group therapy groups for any of the outcomes	
Quillian- Wolever RE, 2005 <sup>242</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 10 mo ITT: NR	Age NR F = NR M = NR CHD	R: 154 C: NR W: NR	Mindfulness medita- tion (NS) + HE + health coaching	R: NR C: NR W:NR	UC (NS)	R: NR C: NR W:NR	Primary: coronary heart disease risk at 10 years	The treatment group demonstrated improvement in 10-yr risk compared with usual care	

Table H2. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases (continued)

			istics of study oulation	Interve	ntion	Compa	rison groups	_	Authors' conclusions
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	
Stenlund T, 2005 <sup>243</sup> Sweden	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 3 mo ITT: NR	77.4 yr F = 29 M = 66 CAD	R: 109 C: 95 W: 14	Composite  Qi Gong + discussion s	R: 56 C: 48 W: 8	HE	R: 53 C: 47 W: 6	Primary: level of physical activity Secondary: balance, coordination, fear of falling	Qi Gong significantly improved the level of physical activity and coordination  No significant differences were found between the groups regarding fear of falling and balance
Tacon AM, 2003 <sup>244,255</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 8 wk ITT: NR	60.3 yr F = 18 M = 0 CAD	R: 20 C: 18 W: 2	Single MBSR	R: 10 C: 9 W: 1	WL	R: 10 C: 9 W: 1	Primary: anxiety Secondary: coping styles, emotional control, health locus of control, cortisol <sup>255</sup> breathing frequency, <sup>255</sup> total catecholamines <sup>255</sup> BP changes (DBP, SBP), HRQL	There were significant differences between the MBSR and control groups on scores of anxiety, emotional control, coping, ventilation, and breathing frequency MBSR had no effect on health locus of control, cortisol, or physical functioning

Table H2. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases (continued)

		Characteristics of study population		Interve	ention	Comparise	on groups	_	
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	<b>Type/name</b>	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Tsai SL, 2004 <sup>249</sup> China	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 1 yr ITT: NR	63.2 yr F = 13 M = 87 CAD	E: 146 C: 100 W: 46	Composite  Mindfulness meditation (NS) + BE + PMR + imagery	E: 67 C: 41 W: 26	UC (NS)	E: 79 C: 59 W: 20	Primary: anxiety Secondary: sleep, relaxation level	The composite intervention significantly improved anxiety, sleep, and relaxation when compared with the control group
Williams KA, 2001 <sup>245</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 12 wk ITT: NR	Age NR F = NR M = NR CAD	R: 35 C: NR W: NR	Single MBSR	R: 11 C: NR W: NR	NT	R: 24 C: NR W: NR	Primary: depression Secondary: anger, anxiety, hostility, vitality, mental health	MBSR produced significant reductions in depression, anger expression, and hostility. It also increased general health, vitality and mental health
Yeh GY, 2004 <sup>246,256</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 12 wk ITT: Yes	64 yr F = 11 M = 19 CHF	R: 30 C: 26 W: 4	Single Tai Chi	R: 15 C: 15 W: 0	Medication (NS)	R: 15 C: 12 W: 3	Primary: HRQL, exercise capacity Secondary: BNP, plasma catecholamines, Vo <sub>2</sub> max	Patients in the Tai Chi group improved HRQL, increased distance walked in 6 min, and decreased BNP levels compared with the control group. A trend towards improvement was seen in Vo <sub>2</sub> max No differences were detected in catecholamine levels

Table H2. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases (continued)

			teristics of population	Interv	ention	Comparis	on groups	_		
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	<b>Type/name</b>	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions	
Yogendra J, 2004 <sup>250</sup> India	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 1 yr ITT: NR	Age NR F = NR M = NR CAD	E: 140 C: 113 W: 27	Yoga + risk factors control + diet + stress manage- ment	E: 80 C: 71 W: 9	Medication (NS)	E: 60 C: 42 W: 18	Primary: TC, LDL-C Secondary: clinical im- provement, caloric intake, regression of disease, anxiety, de- pression, myocardial perfusion	Significant changes were found in TC, LDL-C, regression of disease in the Yoga group Differences between the groups on anxiety and depression were not statistically significant	
Young JW, 2001 <sup>251</sup> United States	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 wk ITT: NR	63 yr F = 13 M = 21 CHD	E: 44 C: 34 W: 10	Single Yoga	E: 27 C: 17 W: 10	NT	E: 17 C: 17 W: 0	Primary: anxiety Secondary: somatization, tension, depression, global status, mood disturbances	The treatment group showed significantly greater improvement in anxiety, somatization, depression, tension, anger, global status, and mood Inequities in baseline scores preclude atttributing improvement to Yoga except on somatization	

Table H2. Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in cardiovascular diseases (continued)

			Characteristics of study population		Intervention		ison groups	_	
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Zamarra JW1996 <sup>252,</sup> 257 United States	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 8 mo ITT: NR	55 yr F = 0 M = 21 CAD	E: 21 C: 16 W: 5	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	E: 12 C: 10 W: 2	WL	E: 9 C: 6 W: 3	Primary: Exercise tolerance Secondary: Maximal workloadST de- pression onsetrate- pressure product	Compared with the control groupthe the patients who learned TM® demonstrated significantly greater exercise tolerancehigher maximal workloaddelayed onset of ST segment depressionand decreases in double product at each exercise interval

Table H3: Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in substance abuse

		Characteristics population		Interv	vention .	Compari	son groups	_	
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	<b>Type/name</b>	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Alterman AI, 2004 <sup>258</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 5 mo ITT: NR	36.5 yr F = 17 M = 14 Alcohol and drug abuse (cocaineheroin)	R: 31 C: 25 W: 6	Single  Mindful- ness medita- tion (NS)	R: 18 C: 15 W:3	UC (NS)	R: 13 C: 10 W:3	Primary: addiction severity Secondary: medical problems, positive mood, positive health, personal meaning, optimism- pessimism, spirituality	There is relatively little indication that mindfulness meditation enhanced treatment outcomes for substance abuse patients
Ballou D, 1977 <sup>259</sup>	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration:	Age NR F = 0 M = 66	R: 66 C: NR W: NR	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	R: 30 C: NR W: NR	WL	R: 20 C: NR W: NR	Primary: anxiety Secondary: behavioral	TM <sup>®</sup> significantly decreased anxiety, frequency of inmate
United States	11 wk ITT: NR	Drug dependency				NT	R: 16 C: NR W: NR	changes, inmate infractions	infractions, and increase the number of hours of recreational and educational activities

<sup>5-</sup>HIAA = 5-hydroxyindole acetic acid; 17-KS = 17-ketosteroids; BE = breathing exercises; BF = biofeedback; BP = blood pressure; C = number completed; CRT = cognitive restructuring training; CSM = clinically standardized meditation; d = day(s); DBP = diastolic blood pressure; E = number enrolled (for NRCTs); EMG = electromyography; ESR = erythrocyte sedimentation rate; GSR = galvanic skin response; Hb = hemoglobin; HR = heart rate; HVA = homovanillic acid; ITT = intention to treat; LFPMF = low-frequency pulsed magnetic field; LSD = lysergic acid diethylamide; MBSR = mindfulness-based stress reduction; MHPG = 3-methoxy-4-hydroxyphenylglycol; mo = month(s); NRCT = nonrandomized controlled trial; NR = not reported; NS = not specified; PBI = protein bound iodine; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; PR = pulse rate; PT = prothrombine time; R = number randomized (for RCTs); RR = Relaxation Response; SBP = systolic blood pressure; S-Ca = serum calcium; S-Mg = serum magnesium; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>; VO<sub>2</sub> max = maximum oxygen consumption; UC = usual care; VMA = vanillylmandelic acid; W = number withdrawals/losses to followup;WBC = white blood cell; wk = week(s); yr = year(s)

H-2

Table H3: Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in substance abuse (continued)

		Characteristics of study population		Interv	ention	Comparis	on groups	_	
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Barton MJ, 2004 <sup>260</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 1 d ITT: NR	Age NR F = 4 M = 6 Alcohol abuse	R: 10 C: NR W:NR	Single  Medical  medita- tion (mantra + BE)	R: 5 C: NR W: NR	Rest (music)	R: 5 C: NR W: NR	Primary: BP changes (DBP, SBP) Secondary: PR, GSR, spirituality	There were no significant changes in BP, GSR, or spirituality after practicing medical meditation as compared with the control group
Brautigam E, 1977 <sup>261</sup> Sweden	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 mo ITT: NR	17-24 yr F = 6 M = 14 Alcohol and drug abuse (marijuana, hashish, LSD, ampheta- mines)	R: 20 C: NR W: NR	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	R: 10 C: NR W: NR	Group therapy	R: 10 C: NR W: NR	Primary: frequency of drug use Secondary: lei- sure activity, self-confidence, anxiety, psy- chomotor retardation	Meditators showed a marked decrease in drug use, whereas control subjects maintained high usage level Meditators showed an increase in level of selfacceptance, satisfaction, ability to adjust and a decrease in anxiety
Kline KS, 1982 <sup>271</sup> United States	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 12 wk ITT: NR	34.7 yr F = 9 M = 14 Alcohol abuse	E: 23 C: 8 W: 15	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	E: 11 C: 7 W: 4	WL	E: 12 C: 8 W: 4	Primary: personality profile Secondary: self- actualization	There were no significant changes in global personality or selfactualization in the intervention and control groups
Li M, 1956 <sup>262</sup> China	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration: 10 days ITT: NR	32.3 yr F = 0 M = 86 Drug abuse (heroin)	R: 86 C: NR W: NR	Single Qi Gong	R: 34 C: NR W: NR	Lofexidine	R: 26 C: NR W: NR R: 26 C: NR W: NR	Primary: with- drawal symptoms Secondary: anxiety, urine morphine	Qi Gong significantly reduced withdrawal symptoms, anxietyand shortened recovery time

1-24

Table H3: Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in substance abuse (continued)

	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Characteristics of study population		Inte	Intervention		son groups	_		
Study, country		Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	<b>Type/name</b>	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions	
Marcus MT, 2001 <sup>272,275</sup> United States	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 8 wk ITT: NR	34 yr F = 2 M = 34 Alcohol and drug abuse	E: 36 C: NR W: NR	Single MBSR	E: 18 C: NR W: NR	NT	E: 18 C: NR W: NR	Primary: coping styles Secondary: psycho- pathology symptoms	There were no significant changes in coping styles and psychopathology symptoms resulting from the MBSR intervention when compared with a control group	
Murphy R, 1995 <sup>263</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 1 month ITT: NR	32.7 yr F = 0 M = 31 Alcohol and drug abuse	R: 31 C: 27 W: 4	Single MBSR	R: 15 C: 13 W: 2	PMR	R: 16 C: 14 W: 2	Primary: ego- centrism Secondary: anger, im- pulsivity, cortisol levels	Reductions in self-reported anger in the MBSR and PMR groups were not significantly different from each other. No significant differences were found among groups for measures of egocentrism, impulsivity and cortisol levels	
Murphy TJ, 1986 <sup>264</sup> United States	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration: 8 wk ITT: NR	24.7 yr F = 0 M = 43 Alcohol abuse	R: 60 C: 43 W: 17	Single CSM	R: 20 C: 14 W: 6	Exercise	R: 20 C: 13 W: 7	Primary: alcohol consump- tion Secondary: Vo <sub>2</sub> max	There were no significant differences in alcohol consumption or Vo <sub>2</sub> max between CSM and either exercise or NT groups Subjects in the exercise	
						NT	R: 20 C: 16 W: 4		condition significantly reduced their alcohol consumption	

Table H3: Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in substance abuse (continued)

		Characterist popul	,	Inte	rvention	Compari	ison groups	_		
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions	
Parker JC, 1978 <sup>265,276,</sup> 277	RCT parallel 3 arms Duration: 3 wk	45.1 yr F = 0 M = 30 Alcohol abuse	R: 30 C: 30 W: 0	Single RR	R: 10 C: 10 W: 0	PMR	R: 10 C: 10 W: 0	Primary: anxiety Secondary: BP	The results revealed generalized effects for BP, but not for the other outcome measures	
United States	ITT: NR	Alcohol abuse				Rest	R: 10 C: 10 W: 0	changes (DBP, SBP), HR, GSR, tension	The RR and PMR groups did not exhibit increased BP as observed in control subjects RR and PMR produced significant changes in tension	
Raina N, 2001 <sup>266</sup> India	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 24 wk	34.9 yr F = 0 M = 50 Alcohol abuse	R: 50 C: 27 W: 23	Single Yoga	R: 25 C: 13 W: 12	Exercise	R: 25 C: 14 W: 11	Primary: recovery rate	Yoga produced significantly greater recovery rate compared with exercise	
Ramirez J, 1990 <sup>267</sup> United States	ITT: NR  RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: NR ITT: NR	23.3 yr F = 40 M = 40 Drug abuse	R: 80 C: 68 W: 12	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	R: 40 C: NR W: NR	Control (NS)	R: 40 C: NR W: NR	Primary: self- concept Secondary: emotional stability, maturity, hostility, over- concern with physic- cal symp - toms	TM <sup>®</sup> produced greater emotional stability and maturity and an improved self-concept while showing a decrease in aggressive tendencies and a lessened concern with physical symptoms	

Table H3: Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in substance abuse (continued)

			Characteristics of study population		ntion	Comparis	on groups	_	
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Rohsenow DJ, 1985 <sup>268</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 mo ITT: NR	21.3 yr F = 0 M = 36 Heavy social drinkers	R: 40 C: 36 W: 5	Composite  RR + PMR +  CRT	R: NR C: 15 W: NR	Control (NS)	R: NR C: 21 W: NR	Primary: anxiety Secondary: anger, depression, alcohol consump- tion, locus of control, irrational beliefs	There is a modest and transitory overall success in modifying mood, cognition, and alcohol comsumption of heavy social drinkers through stress management training that incorporates the RR
Shaffer HJ, 1997 <sup>269</sup> United States	RCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 mo ITT: NR	35.9 yr F = 24 M = 35 Drug abuse	R: 59 C: NR W: NR	Composite  Yoga +  methadone	R: 29 C: NR W: NR	Group therapy + metha- done	R: 30 C: NR W: NR	Primary: addiction severity Secondary: psychological symptoms	There were no significant differences between a group therapy and Yoga for enhancing methadone maintenance treatment

Table H3: Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in substance abuse (continued)

			Characteristics of study population		vention	Comparis	on groups	_	
Study, country	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Subrahmanyam S, 1986 <sup>273</sup>	NRCT parallel 5 arms	20-45 yr F = 0 M = 100	E: 100 C: NR W: NR	Single Yoga	E: 20 C: NR W: NR	Psychother- apy	E: 20 C: NR W: NR	Primary: clinical status Secondary:	Improvement was noticed in all the
India	Duration: 1 yr ITT: NR	Alcohol abuse				Stereotaxic surgery	E: 20 C: NR W: NR	psychological status, WBC count, ESR, blood	intervention groups for the outcomes
						BF	E: 20 C: NR W: NR	<ul> <li>glucose, TC,</li> <li>cortisol, lactic</li> <li>acid, PBI, 5-HIAA,</li> <li>Hb,</li> </ul>	tested LFPMF seems to be more effective for
						LFPMF	E: 20 C: NR W: NR	catecholamines, S-Ca, S-Mg, VMA, HVA, 17- KS, PT, MHPG, cholinesterase	improving clinical status

Table H3: Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in substance abuse (continued)

		Characteristics of study population		Inter	Intervention		on groups	_	
Study, country  Taub E, 1994 <sup>270</sup>	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Taub E, 1994 <sup>270</sup>	RCT	44.3 yr F = 0	R: NR C: 67	Single	R: NR C: 18	BF (EMG)	R: NR C: 13	Primary: drinking	TM <sup>®</sup> and BF (EMG)
United States	parallel 3 arms	M = 67	W: NR	$TM^{ exttt{@}}$	W: NR		U. 13 W: NR	days Secondary:	groups
	Duration: 18 mo ITT: NR	Alcohol abuse				Neuro- therapy	R: NR C: 18 W: NR	complete abstinence, mood states	exhibited significant increases in
						Counselling	R: NR	_	percent of
							C: 18 W: NR		non-drinking days
							VV. IVI		Both interventions
									were associated
									with greater
									abstinence rates and
									mood improvement

Table H3: Characteristics of clinical trials of meditation practices in substance abuse (continued)

	Study design, followup duration, ITT	Characterist study popul		Intervention		Comparis	son groups	_	
Study, country		Age (mean/range), gender, diagnosis	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Type/name	N participants	Outcomes	Authors' conclusions
Wong MR, 1981 <sup>274</sup> United States	NRCT parallel 2 arms Duration: 6 mo ITT: NR	28.9 yr F = 0 M = 103 Drug abuse	E: 103 C: 91 W: 12	Composite  Meditation   practice   (NS)	E: NR C: 52 W: NR	Relaxation	E: NR C: 39 W: NR	Primary: physical tension Secondary: anxiety, personality changes	Meditation significantly increased the ability to control muscle relaxation, improve the level of self awareness as compared with the control group The failure to detect any positive change at 6- mo. followup indicates that effects were not strong enough to be detected over time

## **Appendix I. Characteristics of Studies Included in Topic V**

Table I1. Country of study

lable	I1. Country of s	tudy	
	Country	N	References
North America	United States	146	$126,177,205,206,208,233,234,260,279,280,289,290,304,311,387,440,442,459,460,463,468,475,477,478,480,483,489,491,494b127,197,306,500,503a306b91,94,134,168,178,181,188,190,198,209,\\ 210,220,221,227,228,237,241,244,263-265,272,282,284,285,288,292,293,309,316,317,319,322,325,391,396,398,407,409,418,419,433,510,512,517-519,21,524,525,528,530,531,536,539,541\\ ,544,545,554,558,559,562,567,577,594,596,602,603,608,615,616,618,625-627,634,639,642,651-654,665,666,677,678,681,683,696,697,706,713,714,733,746,750,751,753,754a,754b78,191,\\ ,246,252,274,287,397,435,759,764,766$
٩	Canada	9	97,182,194,296,386,413,777,782,793
	India	71	83,133,137,140,204,212,217,226,239,240,250,273,278,294,295,298,300,301,303,305,310,312-314,318,320,321,323,417,794,796,797,799,801,802,805,806,811-815,818,822,824,829,831,832,834,836-839,841,843,844,847,848,850-852,856,858,860,862-864,866-868,870
	China	8	211,225,262,872,875,878,882,883
	South Korea	6	213,214,405,889,891,894
Asia	Hong Kong	5	207,286,299,895,897
∢	Taiwan	4	223,248,326,906
	Japan	7	389,426,913-916,919
	Thailand	3	106,216,238
	Malaysia	2	179,180
	United Kingdom	14	185,218,219,235,281,283,308,427,431,926,930,932,938,940
	Germany	4	215,247,943,946
	Sweden	2	302,955
	Norway	3	956,959,961
	Ireland	2	392,965
e	Italy	1	966
Europe	Switzerland	1	199
Щ	Netherlands	1	224
	Spain	1	977
	Austria	1	430
	Czech Republic	1	183
	France	1	981
	Russia	1	203

Table I1. Country of study (continued)

	Country	N	References
Europe (continued)	Turkey	2	315,982
	Australia	7	297,307,991,992,998,999,1001
Australasia	New Zealand	3	222,429,1002
Other	Israel	2	176,291
	South Africa	1	86
	Brazil	1	236
	Netherlands Antilles	1	974

Table I2. Study design

Study design	N	References
RCT	167	86,91,94,97,127,134,140,168,176,177,182,185,190,194,203-224,233-241,244,260,262-265,278-286,288,304,305,307-309,325,386,387,389,391,392,396,398,405,407,409,413,417,418,427,431,433,460,475,477,478,480,483,503,512,519,521,528,530,531,536,539,541,544,545,554,558,562,567,594,603,615,616,618,625-627,651,665,666,677,683,706,714,746,751,754,777,782,796,805,811,829,832,836-839,841,844,852,858,868,894,895,919,926,930,932,943,946,956,959,961,965,977,991,998,999a,754b,781,912,225,246,287,397,759,764,793,882,940
NRCT	65	126,289,290,440,463,489,494,794,799b 197,291,306,500a 306b 106,137,178-181,183,188,198,199,226-228,247,248,250,252,272-274,292,293,326,419,429,430,435,518,577,596,602,639,642,678,681,696,713,806,818,824,834,860,864,866,878,915,938,955,974,981,1001
Before-and-after	79	83,133,294-303,310-323,426,442,459,468,491,510,517,524,525,559,608,634,652-654,697,733,750,753,766,797,801,802,812- 815,822,831,843,847,848,850,851,856,862,863,867,870,872,875,883,889,891,897,906,913,914,916,966,982,992,1002

NRCT = nonrandomized controlled trials; RCT = randomized controlled trials

Table I3. Type of publication

Type of publication	N	References
Journal article	274	176,177,203,204,206-208,233-235,278-281,289,290,295,297,304,305,310-312,387,440,459,460,463,468,475,477,478,480,483,489,491,494,794,796,797,799,801,802,895,966b
ocarrial article	217	127,194,236,291,306,389,500,503a 306b 83,97,106,133,137,140,168,178-183,185,188,190,198,209,211-214,216-224,226-228,238-240,244,248,262,264,265,272,273,282-
		286,288,293,294,296,298-303,307-309,313-316,318-321,323,325,326,386,392,396,398,405,407,409,413,417-
		419,426,427,429,431,510,512,518,519,521,524,525,528,530,531,536,539,544,545,554,558,559,562,577,594,603,608,615,616,618,625-627,634,639,642,651-
		654,665,666,677,678,681,683,697,706,714,733,750,751,753,754,777,782,805,806,811-815,818,822,824,829,831,832,834,836-839,841,843,844,847,848,850-852,856,858,860,862-864,866-867,878,868,869,786,869,869,869,869,869,869,869,869,869,8
		868,878,889,891,894,897,906,913-916,926,930,932,946,956,959,961,965,974,977,981,982,991,992,998,1002a 754b
		191,199,225,246,250,252,274,287,397,435,759,764,766,793,870,938,940,955,1001
Thesis/Dissertation	22	78,86,91,126,134,197,205,210,237,241,260,263,292,391,433,442,517,541,567,602,696,882
Abstract	13	94,215,247,317,322,430,596,713,872,875,883,943,999
Research letter	2	746,919

	RCTs that obtained Jadad scores lower than 3 (n=145) 94,97,134,140,176,177,182,185,190,194,203-219,222-224,233,235-241,244,260,262-265,278-
	281,283,285,286,288,304,305,307
	309,325,387,389,392,396,405,407,413,417,418,427,431,433,460,475,477,478,480,483,503,512,519,528,530,531,536,539,545,554,558,562,567,594,603,615,616,618,625-627,651,665,666,677,683,706,714,746,751,754,777,782,796,805,811,829,832,836-838,841,844,852,858,868,895,919,926,930,932,943,946,956,959,961,965,977,998 <b>a 754b</b>
	78,191,225,246,397,759,764,793,882,940
	RCTs that obtained Jadad scores of 3 or greater (n=22) 86,91,127,168,220,221,234,265,282,284,287,386,391,398,409,521,541,544,839,894,991,999
RCTs—Jadad scale	RCTs describing the methods of randomization (n=32)  **Appropriate (n=24)** 86,91,127,168,206,220,221,234,260,265,282,284,287,308,386,391,398,409,521,541,544,811,839,894  **Inappropriate (n=8)** 134,212,213,262,478,545,841,868
	RCTs described as double-blind (n=5) 168,424,782,991,999
	RCTs describing withdrawals/dropouts (n=86) 86,91,94,97,127,168,185,203,207,210,213,214,216,218-224,234-236,238,241,244,263-265,278-286,325,386,391,398,409,478,480,503,521,528,536,541,544,562,603,616,618,626,627,651,666,683,714,754,777,829,839,841,852,868,894,895,926,930,946,977,991,998,999a
	286,325,386,391,398,409,478,480,503,521,528,536,541,544,562,603,616,618,626,627,651,666,683,714,754,777,829,839,841,852,868,894,895,926,930,946,977,991,998,999a 754b78,246,287,759,764,793,882,940
RCTs—concealment of	RCTs with adequate report of methods for concealment of allocation (n=8) 168,246,418,521,544,894,926,991
treatment allocation	RCTs with inadequate report of methods for concealment of allocation (n=2) 545,868
	RCTs that failed to describe the methods for concealment of allocation (n=157) 86,91,94,97,127,134,140,176,177,182,185,190,194,203-224,233-241,244,260,262-265,278-286,288,304,305,307-
	309, 325, 386, 387, 389, 391, 392, 396, 398, 405, 407, 409, 413, 417, 427, 431, 433, 460, 475, 477, 478, 480, 483, 503, 512, 519, 528, 530, 531, 536, 539, 541, 554, 558, 562, 567, 594, 603, 615, 616, 618, 625-108, 616, 618, 618, 618, 618, 618, 618, 61
	627,651,665,666,677,683,706,714,746,751,754,777,782,796,805,811,829,832,836-839,841,844,852,858,895,919,930,932,943,946,956,959,961,965,977,998,999a,754b,846,846,846,846,846,846,846,846,846,846
	78,191,225,287,397,759,764,793,882,940
Before-and-after studies	Before-and-after studies with study population representative of the target population (n=3) 294,697,847
	Before-and-after studies in which the method of outcome assessment was the same for the pre- and post- intervention periods for all participants (n=74) 83,133,294-298,300-303,310,312-323,426,442,459,468,491,510,517,524,525,559,608,634,652-654,733,750,753,766,797,801,802,812-815,822,831,843,847,848,850,851,856,862,863,867,870,872,875,883,889,891,897,906,913,914,982,992,1002
	Before-and-after studies in which outcome assessors were blind to intervention and assessment period (n=2) 654,753
	Before-and-after studies that reported the number of study withdrawals (n=12) 295,296,442,525,559,733,753,797,801,814,851,897
	Before-and-after studies that reported the reasons for study withdrawal (n=6) 442,525,559,733,801,897

Table I5. Clinical trials and before-and-after studies on physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

Category of meditation practices	Meditation practice	N	Associated references
Mantra meditation	ACEM meditation	3	956,959,961
(105)	CSM	4	97,264,536,627
	Mantra meditation	17	203,260,483,494,706b194,503,531,577,626,652-654,777,805,856,965
	RR	34	208,234,236,304,306,459,460,475,477,480a 306b 91,94,191,209,218,228,265,283,284,288,396,521,524,525,530,558,567,594,616,625,678,753,938
	TM <sup>®</sup>	47	78,86,188,190,205,206,210,220-222,252,279,282,289,291-293,295,309,311,319,392,407,418,429,433,440,463,478,518,519,528,545,677,683,714,733,750,759,782,793,796,814,815,850,974,1002
Mindfulness meditation	MBSR	12	244,263,272,419,512,517,602,681,697,754,930a 754b
(44)	MM (NS)	8	106,241,386,430,442,696,751,932
	Zen Buddhist meditation	10	197,225,227,237,426,500,554,639,913,916
	MBCT	2	427,940
	Vipassana	2	847,848
Meditation prac	tices (ND)	9	198,199,215,274,387,431,539,651,915
Qigong		15	207,211,213,214,262,299,316,405,634,875,889,891,914,919,977
Tai Chi		38	223,235,246,248,285-287,290,296,307,317,326,391,397,398,409,413,435,489,541,596,603,608,665,713,746,766,872,878,882,883,894,895,897,906,955,999,1001
Yoga		110	83,126,127,133,134,137,140,168,176-183,185,204,212,216,217,219,224,226,233,238-240,247,250,273,278,280,281,294,297,298,300-303,305,308,310,312-315,318,320-323,325,389,417,468,491,510,544,559,562,615,618,642,666,764,794,797,799,801,802,806,811-813,818,822,824,829,831,832,834,836-839,841,843,844,851,852,858,860,862-864,866-868,870,926,943,946,966,981,982,991,992,998

CSM = clinically standardized meditation; MBCT = mindfulness-based cognitive therapy; MBSR = mindfulness-based stress reduction; MM = mindfulness meditation; ND = not described; NS = not specified; RR = Relaxation Response; TM<sup>® =</sup> Transcendental Meditation <sup>®</sup>

Table I6. Studies reporting outcome measures on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

Domain	Category	Subcategory	N	Studies reporting outcome measure
	Blood system	Blood composition	11	213,273,302,309,320,746,794,843,919,926,977
	(15)	Blood enzyme	4	273,313,862,863
	Cardiovasc ular system	Blood gas measureme nt	8	233,296,320,524,813,839,891,998
	(186)	Cardiovascular functioning	169	213,246,250,296,297,321,426,811,906  83,106,140,185,190,199,206,208,214,217,218,221,223,224,226,235,248,252,264,280- 283,286,294,299,306,307,316,323,326,326,392,396,429,480,521,525,536,562,651,733,753,777,796,813,822,834,838,838,851,852,856,858,858,894,914,916,961, 966,9821306286,91,94,97,126,127,134,180,194,197,203-205,207,209- 212,215,216,219,220,222,225,227,228,234,236,237,241,244,260,265,278,279,284,285,287-292,295,302-305,309- 313,317,319,320,322,387,389,391,433,435,442,459,460,475,483,491,510,517,524,528,530,531,539,541,577,608,616,627,652,677,696,714,806,831,839,844,862, 872,883,897,915,926,932,956,998,1002
		Energy expenditure	2	233,491
		Physical performance	7	240,246,391,397,409,666,813
Physio- logical	Digestive system	Gastric function	1	852
	(26)	Lipoproteins	25	205-207,213,218,223,238-240,247,250,273,278,280,282,291,292,302,313,317,794,801,850,926,1002
	Endocrine system	Adrenocortical functioning	26	106,207,214,226,236,244,246,263,272,273,283,299,307,313,386,405,407,417,419,433,651,764,806,850,862,955
	(62)	Carbohydrate metabolism	18	273,278,282,298,301,308,313,317,321,391,405,794,801,850,862,914,961,999
		CNS hormone	11	211,246,313,386,405,407,433,806,811,889,956
		Genital gland secretion	1	433
		Parathyroid function	4	273,407,713,889
		Thyroid function	2	836,889
	Immune system	Cellular immunity	7	386,405,419,642,843,959,977
	(14)	Humoral immunity	7	299,386,398,512,558,697,977

CNS = central nervous system; EMG = electromyography

Table I6. Studies reporting outcome measures on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

Domain	Category	Subcategory	N	Studies reporting outcome measure
	Musculos	Body index	2	391,559
	keletal system (35)	Bone density test	6	280,596,713,872,895,1001
	EMG		23	190,199,306,392,766,837a 306b 290,503,531,577,626,627,683,847,965 191,228,274,477,639,844,882
	Isometric c	ontraction	3	413,489,872
	Reflex test		1	750
	Nervous system	Autonomic functioning	1	852
	(63)	Brain electrophys- iology	17	133,226,417,426,512,519,545,594,627,634,706,733,805,814,815,913,916
		Neuroendocrin e measureme nt	7	227,273,407,433,806,850,863
Physio- logical		Peripheral nerve test	40	754a 83,140,190,199,226,294,306,323,392,417,544,545,733,777,796,824,856,858,981a 306b 188,204,260,265,288,312,440,463,477,478,483,531,577,627,652,844,847,848,938
	Nutrition/	Antioxidants	3	137,238,799
	metabolis m (32)	Cell metabolism	1	281
		Metabolic product	16	137,262,273,313,320,417,653,713,746,799,806,834,838,844,862,870
		Salivary test	2	198,654
		Serum protein	6	106,227,273,313,850,862
	Ocular system (4)	Ophthalmologi c test	4	176,297,315,625
,	Respirato ry system (68)	Pulmonary function test	68	83,106,140,168,190,199,214,248,280,294,296,300,306,314,316,321,323,325,326,429,468,521,733,797,802,811,813,829,832,834,843,856,858,868,966,981,991a 306b 86,94,183,236,244,288,309,310,312,313,320,442,510,524,530,531,577,608,652,759,818,839,844,862,866,875,932,943,992,998

Table I6. Studies reporting outcome measures on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

Domain	Category	Subcategory	N	Studies reporting outcome measure						
	Sensory system (3)	Auditory test	3	300,946,981						
Physio- logical	Thermoreg ulatory system (10)	Body temperature	10	134,199,313,392,503,531,608,696,838,844						
	Urinary/excr	Renal function	7	207,226,227,273,278,319,407,1012						
	etory system (9)	Salivary test	2	198,654						
Cognitive/	Cognitive/n	Attention	19	754a 754b 78,182,208,280,294,387,577,602,666,678,751,793,838,841,848,930,974						
neurop sycholo	europsyc hological	Creativity	4	293,500,615,915						
gical	(93)	Intelligence	4	78,309,793,863						
		Language	7	754a 78,177,178,181,279,793						
		Memory	12	280,294,494b 78,310,431,793,815,863,867,930,940						
		Other cognitive functions	11	273,279,280,310,618,665,681,863,930,974,999						
		Perception	12	417,494,860b 78,208,418,518,554,616,654,915,974						
		Reasoning	10	78,178,279,427,518,567,681,782,915,930						
		Sensory motor functions	10	106,263,280,300,309,318,539,812,848,878						
		Spatial ability	4	78,177,178,181						

## Appendix J. Characteristics of Studies on the Physiological and Neuropsychological Effects of Meditation Practices

Table J1. Characteristics of randomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

				teristics of opulation	Inte	Intervention		son groups	_	
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Agrawal RP, 2003 <sup>278</sup>	Type 2 DM	3 mo	51.6 yr F = 46	R: 200 C: 154	Single	R: 100 C: 72	Exercise	R: 100 C: 82	CVF (BP), DIG (LDL, HDL, VLDL, TC,	Yoga can be used as adjunct treatment
India	Physiological  Cardiovascular, digestive, endocrine, urinary/excretor y	No	M = 108	W: 46	Yoga	W: 28		W: 18	TG), END (CM [FBS, Hb-A1c]), UE (RFT [urea, Cr, microalbuminuria])	in diabetes to improve glycemic control and quality of life

<sup>5-</sup>HIAA = 5-hyroxyindol acetic acid; ACF = adrenocortical functioning; ATN = attention; BDT = bone density test; BF = biofeedback; BP = blood pressure; BGM = blood gas measurement; C = number completed; Ca = calcium; cAMP = cyclic adenosine monophosphate; CF = cognitive function; CHD = chronic heart disease; cIMT = carotid intimamedia thickness; CM = carbohydrate; metabolism; CNS-H = central nervous system hormone; COG/N = cognitive/neuropsychological; Cr = creatinine; CVF = cardiovascular functioning; d = day(s); DIG = digestive; DHEAS = dehydroepiandrosterone; DPV = digital pulse volume; ECG = electrocardiography; EMG = electromyography; END = endocrine; EPI = epinephrine; FBS = fasting blood sugar; GH = growth hormone; GSR = galvanic skin response; Hb = hemoglobin; Hb- A1c = hemoglobin A1c; HDL = high density lipoprotein; HE = health education; HR = heart rate; K = potassium; LDL = low density lipoprotein; LIP = lipoproteins; Lt = left; MEM = memory; Mg = magnesium; mo = month(s); MSK = musculoskeletal; Na = sodium; NE = norepinephrine; NER = nervous; NIDDM = non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus; NR = not reported; NT = no treatment; OGTT = oral glucose tolerance test; PAA = peak aortic acceleration; PFT = pulmonary function test; PMR = progressive muscle relaxation; R = number randomized (for RCTs); RES = respiratory; RFT = renal function test; RR = Relaxation Response; RSG = reasoning; Rt = right; SA = spatial ability; SBP = systolic blood pressure; SCL = skin conductance level; se = session(s); TC = total cholesterol; TG = triglyceride; TM® = Transcendental Meditation®; TSH = thyroid stimulating hormone; UE = urinary excretory; UFNB = unilateral forced nostril breathing; VA = verbal ability; VLDL = very low density lipoprotein; Vo<sub>2</sub> = oxygen consumption; Vo<sub>2</sub> max = maximum oxygen consumption; W = number withdrawals/losses to followup; wk = week(s); WL = waiting list; yr = year(s); Zn = zinc

Table J1. Characteristics of randomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practice (continued)

				teristics of population	Intervention		Comparison groups		_	
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Alexander CN.	Elderly	18 mo	80.7 yr F = 60	R: 73 C: 73	Single	R: 21 C: 20	MM	R: 23 C: 21	CVF (BP), COG/N (CF, RSG, VA)	TM <sup>®</sup> group significantly improved cognitive
CN, 1991 <sup>279</sup>	Physiological, neuro-	No	M = 13	W: 0	$TM^{ ext{@}}$	W: 1		W: 2	_	flexibility, word
United States	psychological						Rest	R: 22		fluency, and lowered SBP
	Cardiovascular, cognitive/neuro- psychological							C: 21 W: 1		TM <sup>®</sup> group were more relaxed when finished
	psychological						NT	R: 7 C: 11 W: NA	-	
Bahrke MS, 1978 <sup>304</sup>	Healthy volunteers	1 se	51.9 yr F = 0	R: 75 C: 75	Single	R: 25 C: 25	Exercise	R: 25 C: 25	CVF (HR, BGM [Vo <sub>2</sub> ])	Acute physical activitynon-cultic
United States	Physiological	NR	M = 75	W: 0	RR	W: 0		W: 0	-	meditationand a quiet rest session are
United States	Cardiovascular						Rest	R: 25 C: 25 W: 0		rest session are equally effective in reducing state anxiety

Table J1. Characteristics of randomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

Study, country			Characteristics of study population		Inte	Intervention		son groups	-		
	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Outcome examined	Outcome examined	Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)
Block RA, 1989 <sup>177</sup>	College/university students	1 se NR	Age NR F = 30	R: 60 C: 60 W: 0	Single UFNB	R: 20 C: 20 W: 0	Yoga	R: 20 C: 20 W: 0	COG/N (SA, VA)	Men performed better than women on spatial tasks but women had	
United States	Neuropsychological  Cognitive/neuro- psychological	NIX	M = 30	vv. 0	(Lt)	W. O	Rest	R: 20 C: 20 W: 0		better results on verbal task Sex differences should be considered in cerebral processes and cognitive performance	
Blumenthal JA, 1991 <sup>280</sup> United States	Elderly  Physiological, neuro- psychological	14 mo Yes	67 yr F = 51 M = 50	R: 101 C: 97 W: 4	Single Yoga	R: 33 C: 31 W: 2	Exercise	R: 34 C: 34 W: 0	CVF (HR, BGM [Vo <sub>2</sub> , Vo <sub>2</sub> max], ECG), COG/N (MEM, ATN, CF), DIG (LDL, HDL, TC, TG), MSK	Subjects experienced 10%-15% improvement in aerobic capacity after 4 mo of aerobic	
	Cardiovascular, cognitive/neuro- psychological, digestive, musculoskeletal						WL	R: 34 C: 32 W: 2	- (BDT)	exercise Few improvements in cognitive performance	

Table J1. Characteristics of randomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

			Characteristics of study population		Inte	Intervention		son groups	_	
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Bose S, 1987 <sup>305</sup>	College/university students	3 mo NR	17-23 yr F = 0 M = 200	C: 200	Single Shava-	R: 30 C: 30 W: 0	NT	R: 29 C: 29 W: 0	CVF (BP)	No significant differences in uric acidcholesterol or fibrinolysis time in
India	Physiological Cardiovascular				sana		NT	R: 141 C: 141 W: 0	_	the two groups; Significant reduction in response to cold pressor tests after Shavansana training
Bowman AJ, 1997 <sup>281</sup>	Elderly	1.5 mo	67 yr F = 17	R: 40 C: 26	Single	R: 20 C: 14	Exercise	R: 20 C: 12	CVF (BP, HR, BGM [Vo <sub>2</sub> max], HR	Six wk of aerobic exercise training did
United Kingdom	Physiological Cardiovascular	No	M = 23	W: 14	Yoga	W: 6		W: 8	variability, baroreflex sensitivity, Max aortic velocity, PAA, cAMP)	not modify baroreflex sensitivity among healthy, elderly, sedentary, normotensive subjects

Table J1. Characteristics of randomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

				teristics of copulation	Inter	vention	Compari	son groups	-	
Study, country	System evaluated	Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Broota A, 1995 <sup>204</sup>	Hypertension	8 se	NR F = 0	R: 40 C: 40	Single	R: 10 C: 10	PMR	R: 10 C: 10	CVF (BP), NER (GSR)	Three Yoga techniques were effective in
India	Physiological  Cardiovascular, nervous	NR	M = 40	W: 0	Shava- sana	W: 0	Rest	W: 0 R: 10 C: 10 W: 0	_	reducing symptoms of hypertension Shavasana was most effective, followed by Broota, and Jacobson's technique
							NT	R: 10 C: 10 W: 0	-	
Fields JZ, 2002 <sup>282</sup>	Elderly	12 mo	74.2 yr F = 16	R: 57 C: 43	Compo- site	R: 14 C: 8	Exercise	R: 9 C: 5	CVF (BP, cIMT), DIG (LIP, LDL, HDL,	The multimodality traditional approach
United States	Physiological  Cardiovascular, digestive, endocrine	Yes	M = 27	W: 14	TM <sup>®</sup> + herbal food + diet + Yoga asan- as		NT	W: 4 R: 20 C: 16 W: 4	TG), END ( CM [FBS, OGTT, glyco-Hb, fasting insuline])	can attenuate atherosclerosis in older subjectsparticularly those with marked CHD risk
Hoffman JW, 1982 <sup>283</sup>	Healthy volunteers	1 mo	25.4 yr F = 8	R: 30 C: 19	Single	R: 15 C: 10	Rest	R: 15 C: 9	CVF (BP, HR), END (ACF [NE])	With RR, more NE is required to produce
United Kingdom	Physiological  Cardiovascular, endocrine	No	M = 11	W: 11	RR	W: 5		W: 6		the normal compensatory increase in HR and BP RR may reduce adrenergic end-organ responsivity

Table J1. Characteristics of randomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

			Characteristics of study population		Inte	rvention	Comparis	son groups	_	
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Jin P, 1992 <sup>307</sup>	Healthy volunteers	2 d	36.2 yr F = 48	R: 96 C: 96	Single	R: 24 C: 24	Exercise	R: 24 C: 24	CVF (BP, HR), END (ACF [cortisol,	Tai Chi reduced state anxiety
Australia	Physiological	NR	M = 48	W: 0	Tai Chi	W: 0		W: 0	_ salivary EPI, NE, and dopamine])	and enhanceed
Australia	Cardiovascular, endocrine						HE	R: 24 C: 24 W: 0	and dopamine])	vigour This effect could
							Reading	R: 24 C: 24 W: 0	_	be partially due to subjects' high expectations about gains from Tai Chi

Table J1. Characteristics of randomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

	1. Onaradicristics of random		Charac	teristics of population		rvention	Comparison groups		<u> </u>	
Stud count		Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Monro R 1992 <sup>308</sup>	Type 2 DM  Physiological	12 wk NR	54.9 yr F = 11 M = 11	R: 21 C: 21 W: 0	Single Yoga	R: 11 C: 11 W: 0	Medica- tion	R: 10 C: 10 W: 0	END (CM [FBS, Hb- A1c])	Yoga classes improved glucose
United Kingdo										homeostasis in diabetic patients (NIDDM)
Peters R 1977 <sup>284</sup>	•	12 wk	33.4 yr F = 96	R: 190 C: 178	Single	R: 58 C: 54	Rest	R: 39 C: 36	CVF (BP)	RR significantly reduced
United S	Physiological tates Cardiovascular	Yes	M = 82	W: 12	RR	W: 4	NT	W: 3 R: 39 C: 36 W: 3	-	BPeven if the initial BP was within normal ranges
							NT	R: 54 C: 52 W: 2	-	
Pollak M 1979 <sup>288</sup>	•	1 se	NR F = 15	R: 41 C: 30	Single	R: 0 C: 10	PMR	R: NR C: 10	CVF (HR, DPV), NER (SCL), RES	RR can produce a significant
United S		No	M = 15	W: 11	RR	W: 0		W: NR	(respiratory rate)	changes in HR
	Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory						Rest	R: NR C: 10 W: NR		
					-				1	-(-

Table J1. Characteristics of randomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

				teristics of oopulation	Inter	vention	Comparison groups		-		
country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions	
Reddy KM, 1990 <sup>309</sup>	Athletes	6 wk	19.8 yr F = 7	R: 30 C: 30	Single	R: 15 C: 15	WL	R: 15 C: 15	BC (Hb), CVF (HR, BP), COG/N (CF),	TM <sup>®</sup> improved both short- and long-term	
United States	Physiologicalneuro- psychological	NR	M = 23	W: 0	TM®	W: 0		W: 0	RES (PFT [VT])	athletic performance and physiological development	
	Blood, cardiovascular, cognitive/neuro- psychological, respiratory									TM <sup>®</sup> increased physiological efficiency and flexibility	
Sun WY, 1996 <sup>285</sup>	Elderly	12 wk	>60 yr F = 13	R: 20 C: 20	Single	R: 10 C: 10	NT	R: 10 C: 10	CVF (BP, HR)	Tai Chi produced significant	
United States	Physiological Cardiovascular	Yes	M = 7	W: 0	Tai Chi	W: 0		W: 0		improvements in resting BP, stress level, and shoulder and knee flexibility	
Telles S, 1994 <sup>140</sup>	Healthy volunteers	1 mo	34 yr F = 0	R: 48 C: 48	Single	R: 12 C: 12	Yoga	R: 12 C: 12	CVF (HR, BGM [Vo <sub>2</sub> ]), NER (GSR),	UFNB have a marked activating or relaxing	
Phys ndia Card ne	Physiological	NR	M = 48	W: 0	UFNB (Rt)	W: 0		W: 0	RES (respiratory rate)	effect on the sympathetic nervous	
	Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory						Yoga	R: 24 C: 24 W: 0	-	system	

Table J1. Characteristics of randomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

				teristics of population	Inte	vention	Compari	son groups	-	
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Thornton EW, 2004 <sup>286</sup> Hong Kong	Healthy volunteers Physiological Cardiovascular	3 mo No	47.8 yr F = 40 M = 0	R: 40 C: 34 W: 6	Single Tai Chi	R: 20 C: 17 W: 3	NT	R: 20 C: 17 W: 3	CVF (BP)	A 12-wk Tai Chi program improved the dynamic balance of middle-aged adults
Young DR, 1999 <sup>287</sup> United State	Elderly  Physiological es  Cardiovascular	12 wk No	66.7 yr F = 49 M = 13	R: 62 C: 62 W: 0	Single Tai Chi	R: 31 C: 31 W: 0	Exercise	R: 31 C: 31 W: 0	CVF (BP, BGM [Vo <sub>2</sub> max])	Tai Chi and moderate intensity aerobic exercise may have similar effects on BP in previously sedentary older individuals
Zaichkowsk LD, 1978 <sup>191</sup> United State	students  Physiological	12 wk NR	NR F = 0 M = 0	R: 48 C: 48 W: 0	Single RR	R: 14 C: 14 W: 0	TM <sup>®</sup> BF PMR	R: 7 C: 7 W: 0 R: 14 C: 14 W: 0 R: 13 C: 13	MSK (EMG frontalis)	RR, TM <sup>®</sup> , and BF resulted in significant decreases in frontalis muscle tension

<u>J</u>-9

Table J2. Characteristics of nonrandomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

				istics of study oulation	Interv	ention/	Comparison groups		_	
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Abrams AI, 1978 <sup>289</sup>	Prison inmates	14 wk No	Age NR F = 0 M = 89	E: 115 C: 89 W: 26	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	E: 60 C: 49 W: 11	WL	E: 55 C: 40 W: 15	CVF (BP, HR)	TM <sup>®</sup> reduced anxiety, neuroticism, hostility, and
United States	Physiological Cardiovascular	NO	IVI = 69	VV. 20	I IVI	VV. 11		W. 15		insomnia
Chen WW, 1997 <sup>290</sup>	Elderly	16 wk	50-74 yr F = NR	E: 36 C: 28	Single	E: 23 C: 18	NT	E: 13 C: 10	CVF (BP, HR), MSK (EMG)	Tai Chi can benefit health promotion
United States	Physiological  Cardiovascular, musculoskele- tal	No	M = NR	W: 8	Tai Chi	W: 5		W: 3		and disease prevention for older adults
Cooper MJ, 1990 <sup>291</sup>	Healthy volunteers	10 mo No	43 yr F = 19 M = 25	E: 55 C: 44 W: 11	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	E: 34 C: 23 W: 11	NT	E: 21 C: 21 W: 0	CVF (BP), DIG (TC)	TM <sup>®</sup> may have value as an adjunct treatment in
Israel	Physiological  Cardiovascular, digestive	INO	IVI = 20	vv. 11	i IVI	VV. 11		vv. o		reducing BP and cholesterol levels

BF = biofeedback; BP = blood pressure; C = number completed; COG/N = cognitive/neuropsychological; CTY = creativity; CVF = cardiovascular functioning; DIG = digestive; E = number enrolled; EMG = electromyography; HR = heart rate; Lt = left; MSK = musculoskeletal; mo = month(s); NER = nervous; NR = not reported; NT = no treatment; PR = pulse rate; RES = respiratory; Res-v = respiratory variability; RR = Relaxation Response; SA = spatial ability; SRL = skin resistance level; TC = total cholesterol; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>; UFNB = unilateral forced nostril breathing; VA = verbal ability; W = number withdrawals/losses to followup; wk = week(s); yr = year(s)

Table J2. Characteristics of nonrandomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

			Chara	cteristics of population	-	ention	Comparison groups		—	
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup, ITT	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Cuthbert B, 1981 <sup>306b</sup>	College/university students	3 se NR	Age NR F= 0	E: 60 C: 60 W: 0	Single RR	E: 20 C: 20 W: 0	BF	E: 20 C: 20 W: 0	CVF (HR), MSK (EMG), NER (SRL), RES (Res-v)	Meditation leads to greater instructed heart
United States	Physiological  Cardiovascular, musculoskeletal, nervous, respiratory		M=60				Rest	E: 20 C: 20 W: 20		rate slowing than does training that includes high- density biofeedback
De Armond DL, 1996 <sup>292</sup> United States	Workers (Technology) Physiological Cardiovascular, digestive	3 mo NR	43 yr F= 17 M=58	E: 76 C: 75 W: 1	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	E: 38 C: 38 W: 0	NT	E: 38 C: 37 W: 1	CVF (BP), DIG (TC)	TM <sup>®</sup> has effects in psychology, behavior and physiology and is an effective stress-reduction intervention
Mohan SM, 2002 <sup>180</sup> Malaysia	Healthy volunteers Physiological, cardiovascular	1 se No	19-24 yr F= NR M=NR	E: 58 C: NR W: NR	Single UFNB (Lt)	E: NR C: NR W: NR	Yoga	E: NR C: NR W: NR	CVF (PR)	UFNB may affect sympathetic tone

Table J2. Characteristics of nonrandomized controlled trials on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

				istics of study oulation	Inter	vention	Compar	rison groups	_	
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup,	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	N participants	Control	N participants	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Sanders B, 1994 <sup>181</sup>	College/univer- sity students	NR NR	NR F = 48 M = 48	E: 96 C: 96 W: 0	Single UFNB	E: 32 C: 32 W: 0	Yoga	E: 32 C: 32 W: 0	COG/N (SA, VA)	UFNB did not significantly alter nostril dominance
United States	Neuropsycholo- gical  Cognitive/neu- ropsychological				(Lt)		Rest	E: 32 C: 32 W: 0	_	
Travis FT, 1990 <sup>293</sup> United States	College/univer- sity students  Neuropsycholo- gical  Cognitive/ Neuropsycholo- gical	5 mo No	NR F = 37 M = 34	E: 96 C: 71 W: 25	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	E: 46 C: 35 W: 11	NT	E: 40 C: 36 W: 4	COG/N (CTY)	Practicing TM <sup>®</sup> for 5 mo had a significant effect on primary process creativity

Table J3. Characteristics of before-and-after studies on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices

				tics of study lation	Intervention	_	
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	Comparison groups	Outcome category (measure)
Agarwal BL, 1990 <sup>295</sup> India	Hypertension Physiological	6 mo	49.9 yr F= 4 M=12	E: 24 C: 16 W: 8	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	CVF (BP)	TM <sup>®</sup> may serve as initial treatment for moderate hypertension.
	Cardiovascular						
Anantharaman RN,	Healthy volunteers	3 mo	34.2 yr F= 20	E: 20 C: 17	Composite	CVF (BP, HR), COG/N (CF,	Yoga practice significantly decreased physiological
1984 <sup>310</sup>	Physiological, neuropsychological		M=0	W: 3	Yoga (asanas + pranayama)	MEM), RES (BR)	variables and improved some psychological variables
	Cardiovascular, cognitive/neuro- psychological, respiratory						

ACF = adrenocortical functioning; AEI = artery elasticity index; ATN = attention; BC = blood composition; BGM = blood gas measurement; BHT = breath holding time; BL = blood lactate; BM = blood measurement; BP = blood pressure; BR = breathing rate; BS = blood sugar; C = number completed; CF = cognitive function; ChE = cholinesterase; CM = carbohydrate; metabolism; COG/N = cognitive/neuropsychological; CV = cardiovascular; CVF = cardiovascular functioning; d = day(s); DIG = digestive; DM = diabetes mellitus; E = number enrolled; ECG = electrocardiography; END = endocrine; FBS = fasting blood sugar; FEV<sub>1</sub> = forced expiratory volume in first second; FFA = free fatty acid; FPA = finger plethysmogram amplitude; FVC = forced vital capacity; Glc = glucose; GLH = glycosylated hemoglobin; GSR = galvanic skin response; HDL = high density lipoprotein; HI = humoral immunity; HR = heart rate; IMS = immune system; LDH = lactate dehydrogenase; LDL = low density lipoprotein; LIP = lipoproteins; Lt = left; MEM = memory; MEP = maximum expiratory pressure; MIP = maximum inspiratory pressure; mo = month(s); MVV = maximal voluntary ventilation; NIDDM = non-insulindependent diabetes mellitus; NER = nervous; N/M = nutrition/metabolism; NR = not reported; OCL = ocular; OGTT = oral glucose tolerance test; PEF (25-75) = peak expiratory flow at middle portion of expiration; PEFR = peak expiratory flow rate; PCa = pressure of oxygen; PP = pulse pressure; PPT = physical performance test; RA = renin activity; RER = respiratory exchange ratio; RES = respiratory; RT = reaction time; Rt = right; SaO2 = saturated oxygen; SBPse = session(s); SEN = sensory; SI = serum insulin; SMF = sensory motor function; SVR = systemic vascular resistance; TC = total cholesterol; TG = triglyceride; THR = thermo-regulatory; TM<sup>®</sup> = Transcendental Meditation<sup>®</sup>; TP = total protein; TV = tidal volume; UE = urinary excretory; UFNB = unilateral forced nostril breathing; UL = urine lactate; VCO<sub>2</sub> = carbon dioxide production; Ve = minute ventilation; VLDL = very low

Table J3. Characteristics of before-and-after studies on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

Condition	dnw	Characteristics of study population Intervention			_		
Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followu	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions	
Hypertension	NR	Age NR	E: 22	Single	CVF (BP)	TM <sup>®</sup> reduced elevated	
Physiological		M=NR	W: 0	$TM^{ ext{@}}$		systemic arterial BP	
Cardiovascular							
Healthy volunteers	4 wk	19-28 yr	E: 10 C: 10	Single	CVF (BP, HR), NER	Pranayama breathing exercises altered	
Physiological		M = 10	W: 0	Pranayama	(OOK), REO (BITT)	autonomic responses to	
Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory						BH by increasing vagal tone and decreasing sympathetic discharges	
College/university	1 se	21.8 yr	E: 17	Single	CVF (BP, HR), OCL	UFNB produced changes in intraocular pressure and	
		M = NR	W: 0	UFNB	test)	had a greater effect on	
, ,						accomodation for those with high initial tonic	
Cardiovascular, ocular						activity	
	Outcome examined System evaluated  Hypertension Physiological Cardiovascular  Healthy volunteers Physiological Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory	Outcome examined System evaluated  Hypertension Physiological Cardiovascular  Healthy volunteers Physiological Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory  College/university students Physiological Physiological	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated  NR Physiological Cardiovascular  Healthy volunteers Physiological Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory  College/university students Physiological  Callege/university Students Physiological  College/university Students Physiological  Candiovascular, NR Physiological  Callege/university Students Physiological	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated  NR Age NR F= NR C: 22 Physiological Cardiovascular  Healthy volunteers Physiological Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory  College/university students Physiological  College/university Students Physiological  College/university Students Physiological  College/university Students Physiological  Physiological  College/university Students Physiological  Condition  Students Physiological  Students Physiological  Physiological  Physiological	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated  Hypertension Cardiovascular  Healthy volunteers Physiological Cardiovascular  Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory  College/university Students Physiological  College/university Students Physiological  College/university Students Physiological  Cardiovascular  Population  ### ### ### ### ### ### ### ### ### #	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated  Hypertension Physiological Cardiovascular  Healthy volunteers Physiological Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory  College/university Physiological Physiological  Cardiovascular  College/university Physiological Physiological  Cardiovascular  College/university Physiological Physiological  Cardiovascular, NE Physiological  Cardiovascular, NE Physiological  College/university Students Physiological  College/university Physiological  Co	

1-15

Table J3. Characteristics of before-and-after studies on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

		۵	Chara		tics of study lation	Intervention	_	Authors' conclusions	
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup	Age (mean/range)	Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	Outcome category (measure)		
Damodaran A, 2002 <sup>294</sup> India	Hypertension  Physiological, neuro-psychological  Cardiovascular, cognitive/neuropsychological, nervous, respiratory	3 mo	45.8 yr F = 4 M = 16		E: 20 C: 20 W: 0	Composite  Yoga (asanas + pranayama)	CVF (BP, HR), COG/N (ATN, MEM, PER, SMF), NER (steadiness, coordination, choice RT, GSR, grip) RES (BR)	Yoga can play an important role in risk modification for CV diseases in mild to moderate hypertension	
Jain SC, 1993 <sup>298</sup> India	Type II DM Physiological Endocrine	40 d	45.9 yr F = 30 M =119		E: 149 C: 149 W: 0	Single Yoga	CM (FBS, OGTT)	Yoga may be considered as a beneficial adjuvant method for diabetic (NIDDM) patients	
Jones AY, 2005 <sup>296</sup> Canada	Healthy volunteers  Physiological  Cardiovascular, respiratory	12 wk	52.6 yr F = 50 M = 10		E: 60 C: 51 W: 9	Single Tai Chi	CVF (BGM [SaO <sub>2</sub> , VCO <sub>2</sub> ], BP, HR), RES (PFT [FEV <sub>1</sub> , FVC, PIFR, PEFR, PEF 25-50])	A community-based Tai Chi program produced beneficial effects comparable to those reported from experimental laboratory trials of Tai Chi	

Table J3. Characteristics of before-and-after studies on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

		۵		cteristics o	•	Intervention		
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup	Age (mean/range)	Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Jones BM, 2001 <sup>299</sup>	Healthy volunteers	14 wk	43.9 yr F = 11		: 19 :: 10	Single	CVF (BP, HR), END (ACF [cortisol], IMS	Cortisol may be lowered by short-term practice of
	Physiological		M = 8		V: 9	Qi Gong	(HI [cytokines])	Qigong .
Hong Kong	Cardiovascular, endocrine, immune							Concomitant changes in numbers of cytokine- secreting cells were observed
Joseph S, Army/militar 1981 <sup>313</sup>	Army/militar	3 mo	24.9 yr F = 0		: 10 : 10	Composite	BM (ChE, LDH), CVF (BP, HR, BGM	A 3-mo Yoga program resulted in a gradual shift
India	Physiological		M = 10		V: 0	Yoga (prayer + asanas +	[VO <sub>2</sub> ]), DIG (TC, FFA, LIP) NER	of the autonomic balance towards a relative
	Blood, cardiovascular, digestive, endocrine, nervous, nutrition/metabolism, respiratory, thermoregulatory					pranayama + meditation)	(CNS-H [dopamine-B hydroxylase]), END (CM [FBS]), N/M (MP [MAO], TP), RES (BR), THR (skin temperature)	parasympathetic dominance
Joshi LN, 1992 <sup>314</sup>	College/university students	6 wk	18.5 yr F = 42	C	: 75 : 75	Single	RES (PFT [FEV <sub>1</sub> , FVC, BHt, MVV,	Regular pranayama breathing improved
	Physiological		M = 33	V	V: 0	Pranayama	PEFR, BR])	pulmonary functions (FVC, MVV, PEFR), increased tolerance to
	Respiratory							CO <sub>2</sub> , and decreased BR

Table J3. Characteristics of before-and-after studies on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup	Characteristics of study population		Intervention	-	
			Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Kocer I, 2002 <sup>315</sup> Turkey	College/university students  Physiological  Ocular	3 se	20.6 yr F = 26 M = 24	E: 50 C: 50 W: 0	Single UFNB	OCL (Intraocular pressure [Rt eye/Rt nostril, Rt eye/Lt nostril, Lt eye/Rt nostril, Lt eye/Lt nostril])	UFNB decreased intraocular pressure especially in menperhaps due to increasing sympathetic nervous system activity
Lim YA, 1993 <sup>316</sup> United States	College/university students  Physiological  Cardiovascular,	1 se	20.5 yr F = 5 M = 5	E: 10 C: 10 W: 0	Single Qi Gong	CVF (HR, BGM [Vo <sub>2</sub> , Vco <sub>2</sub> ]), RES (PFT [TV, Ve, RER, BR])	Qigong can can improve ventilatory efficiency of O <sub>2</sub> uptake and CO <sub>2</sub> production by 20%
Liu S, 1996 <sup>317</sup> United States	respiratory  College/university students  Physiological  Cardiovascular, digestive, endocrine	8 wk	22.1 yr F = 8 M = 6	E: 14 C: 14 W: 0	Single Tai Chi	CVF (BP, HR, PPT), DIG (TC), CM (BS)	An 8-wk Tai Chi program can improve CV fitness, balance, flexibility, and stress control No effect on blood cholesterol and glucose levels was found
Madanmohan, 1992 <sup>300</sup> India	College/university students  Physiological  Cognitive/neuropsy-chological, respiratory, sensory	12 wk	18-21 yr F = 0 M = 27	E: 27 C: 27 W: 0	Single Yoga	COG/N (ATN), RES (MEP, MIP, BHT), SEN (auditory test)	A 12-wk yoga program resulted in a significant reduction in visual and auditory RT Yoga increasd respiratory pressures, BHT, and hand grip strength

N-18

Table J3. Characteristics of before-and-after studies on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

			Characteristics of study population		Intervention	-	on practices (continued)
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Malathi A, 1989 <sup>318</sup> India	Healthy volunteers  Neuropsychological  Cognitive/neuropsychological	6 wk	30-45 yr F = 83 M = 0	E: 83 C: 83 W: 0	Composite  Yoga (asanas + pranayama)	COG/N (SMF)	Either 1 hr or 6 wk of Yoga asanas significantly reduced visual and auditory reaction times
Manjunatha S, 2005 <sup>301</sup> India	Healthy volunteers Physiological Endocrine	4 wk	23.8 yr F = 3 M = 17	E: 20 C: 20 W: 0	Single Yoga (asanas)	END (CM [SI, OGTT, FBS, insulin sensitivity, post- prandial glucose test])	Asanas can lead to increased sensitivity of pancreatic B cells to glucose signals
Pollack AA, 1977 <sup>319</sup> United States	Hypertension  Physiological  Cardiovascular,  urinary/excretory	6 mo	40.5 yr F = 10 M = 10	E: 20 C: 20 W: 0	Single TM <sup>®</sup>	CVF (BP, HR), UE (RA)	It is unlikely that TM <sup>®</sup> contributes directly towards the lowering of BP The patients may experience a general feeling of well-being
Raju PS, 1986 <sup>320</sup> India	Healthy volunteers  Physiological  Cardiovascular, nutrition/metabolism, respiratory	3 mo	23.7 yr F = 6 M = 6	E: 12 C: 12 W: 0	Composite  Yoga (asanas + pranayama)	CVF (HR, BGM [Po <sub>2</sub> , SaO <sub>2</sub> , Vo <sub>2</sub> max]), N/M (BL, UL, blood pyruvate), RES (Ve)	After 90 d of Yoga, BL increased during phase I Significant reduction of Ve and Vo <sub>2</sub> in males in phase I and II Females tolerate higher loads of exercise in phases I and II

Table J3. Characteristics of before-and-after studies on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

		0	Characteristics of study population		Intervention		
Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup	Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Schmidt TFH, 1994 <sup>302</sup> Sweden	Healthy volunteers  Physiological  Blood, cardiovascular, digestive	3 mo	29.7 yr F = 48 M = 58	E: 150 C: 106 W: 44	Composite  Yoga +  meditation +  vegetarian  diet	BC (fibrinogen), CVF (BP, HR), DIG (LDL,VLDL, HDL, TG)	Yoga and meditation along with low-fat, low-salt vegetarian diet, smoking cessation resulted in a substantial reduction of cardiovascular risk in healthy volunteers
Singh S, 2004 <sup>321</sup> India	Type II DM  Physiological  Cardiovascular, endocrine, respiratory	40 d	30-60 yr F = NR M = NR	E: 24 C: 24 W: 0	Composite  Yoga (asanas + pranayama)	CVF (BP, HR, ECG), BGM [CM (FBS, OGTT, GLH]), RES (PFT [FEV <sub>1</sub> , FVC, PEFR, MVV])	Yoga asanas and pranayama produced better glycemic control and stable autonomic functions in type II DM
Sung BH, 2002 <sup>322</sup> United States	Healthy volunteers Physiological Cardiovascular	1 se	35 yr F = NR M = NR	E: 25 C: 25 W: 0	Single Yoga breathing	CVF (HR, BP, stroke volume, SVR, AEI [large/small])	Yoga breathing has a favorable effect on small artery compliance resulting in lower BP
Telles S, 1993 <sup>323</sup> India	Healthy volunteers  Physiological  Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory	3 mo	34.7 yr F = 0 M = 40	E: 40 C: 40 W: 0	Yoga (asanas + pranayama + mantra meditation + lectures)	CVF (BP, HR), NER (GSR), RES (PFT [BR, FEV1, FVC, PEFR, BHT])	3 mo of Yoga produced significant improvement in general health (weight, BP reduction, and improved lung function)

Table J3. Characteristics of before-and-after studies on the physiological and neuropsychological effects of meditation practices (continued)

Study, country	Condition Outcome examined System evaluated	Duration/followup	Characteristics of study population		Intervention		
			Age (mean/range) Gender	N participants	Intervention type Meditation practice	Outcome category (measure)	Authors' conclusions
Telles S, 1993 <sup>83</sup> India	Healthy volunteers  Physiological  Cardiovascular, nervous, respiratory	6 se	34.1 yr F = 0 M = 18	E: 18 C: 18 W: 0	Single Yoga (Brahma- kumaris Raja)	CVF (HR, FPA), NER (GSR), RES (BR)	There is no single model of sympathetic activation to describe the physiological effects of a meditation technique
Vijayalakshmi P, 2004 <sup>303</sup> India	Hypertension Physiological Cardiovascular	4 wk	50 yr F = 0 M = 13	E: 13 C: 13 W: 0	Composite  Yoga (asanas + pranayama)	CVF (BP, HR, PP)	Yoga optimizes the sympathetic response to stressful stimuli (handgrip) Yoga restores the autonomic regulatory reflex in hypertensive patients