Religious Coping and Use of Intensive Life-Prolonging Care Near Death in Patients With Advanced Cancer

Andrea C. Phelps, MD
Paul K. Maciejewski, PhD
Matthew Nilsson, BS
Tracy A. Balboni, MD
Alexi A. Wright, MD
M. Elizabeth Paulk, MD
Elizabeth Trice, MD, PhD
Deborah Schrag, MD, MPH
John R. Peteet, MD
Susan D. Block, MD
Holly G. Prigerson, PhD

Context Patients frequently rely on religious faith to cope with cancer, but little is known about the associations between religious coping and the use of intensive life-prolonging care at the end of life.

Objective To determine the way religious coping relates to the use of intensive life-prolonging end-of-life care among patients with advanced cancer.

Design, Setting, and Participants A US multisite, prospective, longitudinal cohort of 345 patients with advanced cancer, who were enrolled between January 1, 2003, and August 31, 2007. The Brief RCOPE assessed positive religious coping. Baseline interviews assessed psychosocial and religious/spiritual measures, advance care planning, and end-of-life treatment preferences. Patients were followed up until death, a median of 122 days after baseline assessment.

Main Outcome Measures Intensive life-prolonging care, defined as receipt of mechanical ventilation or resuscitation in the last week of life. Analyses were adjusted for demographic factors significantly associated with positive religious coping and any end-of-life outcome at \( P < .05 \) (ie, age and race/ethnicity). The main outcome was further adjusted for potential psychosocial confounders (eg, other coping styles, terminal illness acknowledgment, spiritual support, preference for heroics, and advance care planning).

Results A high level of positive religious coping at baseline was significantly associated with receipt of mechanical ventilation compared with patients with a low level (11.3% vs 3.6%; adjusted odds ratio [AOR], 2.81 [95% confidence interval {CI}, 1.03-7.69]; \( P = .04 \)) and intensive life-prolonging care during the last week of life (13.6% vs 4.2%; AOR, 2.90 [95% CI, 1.14-7.35]; \( P = .03 \)) after adjusting for age and race. In the model that further adjusted for other coping styles, terminal illness acknowledgment, support of spiritual needs, preference for heroics, and advance care planning (do-not-resuscitate order, living will, and health care proxy/durable power of attorney), positive religious coping remained a significant predictor of receiving intensive life-prolonging care near death (AOR, 2.90 [95% CI, 1.07-7.89]; \( P = .04 \)).

Conclusions Positive religious coping in patients with advanced cancer is associated with receipt of intensive life-prolonging medical care near death. Further research is needed to determine the mechanisms for this association.

JAMA. 2009;301(11):1140-1147

www.jama.com
cisions. In a recent study of patients with lung cancer, faith was cited as the second most important factor influencing treatment decisions after oncologist recommendations. Research also indicates that religious factors affect medical decisions at the end of life. In a survey of 1006 members of the general public, 68.3% of individuals stated that their religious beliefs would guide their medical decisions if critically injured, and 57.4% believed that God could heal a patient even if physicians had pronounced further medical efforts to be futile. Religiousness and religious coping have been associated with increased preference for cardiopulmonary resuscitation, mechanical ventilation, hospitalization near death, and heroic end-of-life measures. It has been suggested that lower rates of advance care planning among minority patients may arise partly from spiritual appraisals of illness and healing (eg, belief that only God knows one’s time to die).11-13

Despite evidence that religiousness is associated with preference for aggressive end-of-life care, it is unknown if religious factors influence the actual intensity of care received near death. We hypothesized that patients who rely heavily upon their religious faith to cope with advanced cancer would be more likely to receive intensive medical care near death (eg, mechanical ventilation and/or cardiopulmonary resuscitation). Data from the Coping With Cancer Study, a federally funded, multisite, prospective cohort of patients with advanced cancer, were used to examine the relationship between patients’ use of positive religious coping at baseline and the receipt of intensive medical care during the last week of life.

**METHODS**

**Study Sample**

Patients included in the study were recruited between January 1, 2003, and August 31, 2007, as part of the Coping With Cancer Study, a multi-institutional investigation of patients with advanced cancer and their informal caregivers; the study was funded by the National Cancer Institute and the National Institute of Mental Health. The Coping With Cancer Study was designed to examine the relationships between psychosocial factors, with a focus on religion/spirituality, and end-of-life outcomes such as use of aggressive medical care and quality of death. Participating sites included Yale Cancer Center (New Haven, Connecticut), Veterans Affairs Connecticut Healthcare System Comprehensive Cancer Clinics (West Haven, Connecticut), Simmons Comprehensive Cancer Care Center (Dallas, Texas), Parkland Hospital Palliative Care Service (Dallas, Texas), Massachusetts General Hospital (Boston), Dana-Farber Cancer Institute (Boston, Massachusetts), and the New Hampshire Oncology-Hematology Center (Hooksett).

Eligibility criteria were (1) diagnosis of an advanced cancer with metastases, (2) disease progression following first-line chemotherapy, (3) age of at least 20 years, (4) presence of an informal caregiver (eg, spouse), (5) adequate stamina to complete the 45-minute interview, and (6) ability to speak English or Spanish. Patient-caregiver dyads in which either party was significantly cognitively impaired (by neurobehavioral cognitive status examination with >5 errors) were excluded. Both patients and caregivers underwent written, informed consent in accordance with protocols approved by the institutional review board of each participating site.

Each week, outpatient clinic lists were reviewed by research and clinical staff to identify eligible participants. To avoid selection bias, religion/spirituality was not mentioned as a focus of the study.

**Protocol and Measures**

Patients and caregivers participated in separate baseline interviews ($25 compensation for each interview) in English or Spanish, conducted by assistants trained by Yale University staff. Outpatient charts were reviewed to confirm clinical information and disease characteristics. Within 2 to 3 weeks of each patient’s death, the formal or informal caregiver most involved in the patient’s last week of life was contacted to provide information regarding the patient’s care and quality of death. Further information on health care received in the last week of life was obtained from the patient’s medical chart.

Sociodemographic characteristics were recorded as reported by the patient. Patients were asked, “What race or ethnicity do you consider yourself to be?” with available responses being white, black, Asian (American, Pacific Islander, or Indian), Hispanic, or other. Race/ethnicity was considered important because of known racial/ethnic differences in religiousness, treatment preferences, advance care planning, and health care use at the end of life.12,15,16 Disease information was obtained from the medical chart. Performance status was determined by the trained interviewer using the Karnofsky Performance Scale Index11 (scale of 0-100, in which 0=dead and 100=asymptomatic). The McGill Quality of Life Questionnaire assessed patient quality of life at baseline (scale of 0-10, in which 0=desirable and 10=undesirable).18,19

Patients completed the Brief RCOPE, a previously validated 14-item questionnaire that assesses religious coping. The extent to which patients engage in 7 types of positive religious coping (eg, “seeking God’s love and care”) and 7 types of negative religious coping (eg, “wondering whether God has abandoned me”) were rated on a 4-point Likert scale from 0 (not at all) to 3 (a great deal). It should be noted that positive and negative religious coping are not mutually exclusive. Both positive and negative religious coping scales had high degrees of internal consistency (Cronbach α level of .90 and .81, respectively) in the study sample. Overall, 92% of patients endorsed at least 1 positive religious coping scale item, with a median score of 12 of a possible 21 (mean [SD] score, 11.1 [6.4]). Patients who scored at or above the median were designated as having a high (51.6%) level of positive religious coping and patients who scored below the median...
were designated as having a low (48.4%) level of positive religious coping. Only 43% of patients endorsed any negative religious coping scale item (mean [SD] score, 2.0 [3.5]). Negative religious coping was dichotomized as any use (score >0) vs none (score of 0). Other research has demonstrated that negative religious coping is uncommon in medical samples and is a strong indicator of psychopathology. For these reasons, and the intention to study normative religious coping, a patient’s positive RCOPE score was chosen as the primary religious coping variable.

The Brief COPE survey assesses 14 methods of coping. Response options are on a 4-point Likert scale from 0 (not at all) to 3 (a great deal). Three coping techniques with demonstrated predictive validity and relevance for cancer and other seriously ill samples were examined: active coping, emotional support–based coping, and behavioral disengagement. Scores for active coping and emotional support–based coping were split into high or low use of that coping style. Because of its infrequent endorsement, behavioral disengagement was dichotomized as some (score >0) vs none (score of 0). Patients were asked, “How would you describe your current health status?” and were given 4 possible responses. Patients who responded “seriously and terminally ill” or “relatively healthy and terminally ill” were considered to acknowledge terminal illness. Patients were asked “to what extent are your religious/spiritual needs being supported by the medical system (eg, physicians, nurses, chaplain)” and were given 5 response options ranging from not at all to completely supported. Patients who responded “to a large extent” or “completely supported” were coded as having support of spiritual needs.

The well-validated Structured Clinical Interview for the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (Fourth Edition) Axis I Modules was used to assess if patients met diagnostic criteria for panic disorder, major depressive disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, or posttraumatic stress disorder.

**Care Preferences and Advance Care Planning**

Patients were asked, “If you could chose, would you prefer (1) a course of treatment that focused on extending life as much as possible, even if it meant more pain and discomfort, or (2) on a plan of care that focused on relieving pain and discomfort as much as possible, even if that meant not living as long?” Preference for heroics was assessed by asking the patient “Would you want the doctors here to do everything possible to keep you alive even if you were going to die in a few days anyway?” Patients were asked if they had completed a do-not-resuscitate order, living will, or a health care proxy/durable power of attorney.

The primary outcome was intensive life-prolonging care, defined as receipt of ventilation or resuscitation during the last week of life. Secondary outcomes assessed included hospice enrollment and death in an intensive care unit.

**Statistical Power**

For the sample size in this study (N=345), and for nearly equal proportions of those classified as scoring high (51.6%) and scoring low (48.4%) on positive religious coping, the present study had adequate (≥80%) statistical power to detect odds ratios (ORs) of 3.0 or more for associations between positive religious coping and infrequent end-of-life care outcomes such as intensive life-prolonging care (at an overall rate of 9.0% in the present sample) and death in an intensive care unit (at an overall rate of 7.9% in the present sample) at a significance level of P<.05.

**Statistical Analysis**

Associations between positive religious coping (high vs low) and patient characteristics were assessed using χ² and t tests when appropriate. Associations between positive religious coping and end-of-life care outcomes were assessed using multivariable logistic regression analyses, adjusting for significant sociodemographic confounders. Confounding factors were considered to be patient sociodemographic characteristics associated with both positive religious coping at P<.05, and associated with any end-of-life care outcome at P<.05. Patient age and race/ethnicity (white vs nonwhite) met these criteria and were included in multivariable models relating positive religious coping to end-of-life care.

To identify psychosocial factors that might confound or mediate the relationship between positive religious coping and the primary outcome, logistic regression analyses assessed the relationships between positive religious coping and the following psychosocial measures assessed at baseline: other coping methods (negative religious coping, active coping, emotional support–based coping, behavioral disengagement), terminal-illness acknowledgment, support of spiritual needs, mental disorders diagnosed using the Structured Clinical Interview for the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (Fourth Edition), care preferences, and advance directive completion. Psychosocial factors significantly associated with positive religious coping were then included along with demographic confounders in multivariable logistic regression models relating positive religious coping to intensive life-prolonging care.

Statistical analyses were conducted using SAS statistical software version 9.1 (SAS Institute Inc, Cary, North Carolina). Statistical inferences were based on 2-sided tests with P<.05 considered to be statistically significant.

**RESULTS**

**Patient Characteristics**

Of the 941 eligible patients, 664 participated (70.6%). The most common reasons for nonparticipation were not interested (n=106), caregiver refused (n=32), and too upset (n=21). Participants and nonparticipants did not differ significantly by age, sex, race/ethnicity, or years of education.

The sample for the present study was restricted to deceased individuals with postmortem data and complete baseline assessments of coping. At the time of the analysis, 385 participants had died (58.1%). Postmortem data were
available for 369 deceased patients (95.8%), and complete coping assessments were present for 345 of these (93.5%). The cohort consisted of 345 patients with terminally ill cancer who died a median of 122 days after baseline assessment. Baseline characteristics of the cohort are presented in Table 1.

Religious Coping
Separately from the brief RCOPE, patients were asked about how much they rely on religion to cope with illness. A total of 272 patients (78.8%) reported that religion helps them cope "to a moderate extent" or more and 109 (31.6%) endorsed the statement that "it is the most important thing that keeps you going." Most patients (n=193; 55.9%) endorsed engaging in times of prayer, meditation, or religious study at least daily. Positive religious coping was significantly associated with being black or Hispanic (P < .001). Patients with a high level of positive religious coping were younger, less educated, less likely to be insured, less likely to be married, and more likely to be recruited from the Texas sites (all P < .001) than those with a low level of positive religious coping.

Religious Coping and End-of-Life Outcomes
In analyses adjusted for demographic confounders, a high level of positive religious coping at baseline was significantly associated with receipt of mechanical ventilation compared with patients with a low level (11.3% vs 3.6%; adjusted OR [AOR], 2.81 [95%

Table 1. Patient Characteristics by Level of Positive Religious Coping

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>t Test</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age, y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Patients Mean (SD)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Patients Mean (SD)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age, y</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>56.0 (12.7)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>60.9 (12.1)</td>
<td>3.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education, y</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>11.1 (4.3)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>13.5 (3.5)</td>
<td>5.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnofsky Performance Scale Index²</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>63.7 (14.2)</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>62.8 (17.4)</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McGill Quality of Life Questionnaire²</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>6.3 (0.9)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>6.0 (1.0)</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male sex</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>88 (49.4)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>98 (58.7)</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race/ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>76 (42.7)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>139 (83.2)</td>
<td>63.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>57 (32.0)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>10 (6.0)</td>
<td>40.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>42 (23.6)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>16 (9.6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>3 (1.7)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>2 (1.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>79 (45.1)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>108 (64.7)</td>
<td>13.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catholic</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>54 (30.3)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>76 (45.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protestant</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>24 (13.5)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>32 (19.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baptist</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>45 (25.3)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>12 (7.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>53 (29.8)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>31 (18.6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>2 (1.1)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>16 (9.6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health insurance</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>70 (39.8)</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>125 (76.2)</td>
<td>46.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment site</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yale Cancer Center</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>24 (13.6)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>43 (25.9)</td>
<td>82.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Haven VA Cancer Center</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>3 (1.7)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>10 (6.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simmons Comprehensive Cancer Center</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>23 (13.0)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>12 (7.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parkland Hospital</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>115 (65.0)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>40 (24.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partners Cancer Centers²</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>8 (4.8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Hampshire Oncology-Hematology Center</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>12 (6.8)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>53 (31.9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of cancer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lung</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>37 (21.1)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>38 (22.9)</td>
<td>5.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colon</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>31 (17.7)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>17 (10.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breast</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>16 (9.1)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>18 (10.8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pancreatic</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>9 (5.1)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>15 (9.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>82 (46.9)</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>78 (47.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviation: VA, Veterans Affairs.
²On a scale of 0 to 100, in which 0 indicates dead and 100 indicates asymptomatic.
²²On a scale of 0 to 10, in which 0 indicates desirable and 10 indicates undesirable.
²Indicates cancer centers at Massachusetts General Hospital and Dana-Farber Cancer Institute.
and intensive life-prolonging care (13.6% vs 4.2%; AOR, 2.90 [95% CI, 1.14-7.35]) in the last week of life. The associations between positive religious coping and cardiopulmonary resuscitation (7.4% for a high level vs 1.8% for a low level; AOR, 3.05 [95% CI, 0.79-11.78]), death in the intensive care unit (10.7% vs 4.2%; AOR, 2.90 [95% CI, 1.14-7.35]), and hospice care enrollment (71.3% vs 73.5%; AOR, 0.97 [95% CI, 0.58-1.65]) were nonsignificant after adjusting for age and ethnicity (TABLE 2).

**Religious Coping and Intensive Life-Prolonging Care**

The multivariable model of positive religious coping and intensive life-prolonging care was further adjusted for psychosocial variables significantly related to positive religious coping. The relationship between positive religious coping and intensive life-prolonging care remained significant after controlling for other coping methods (AOR, 2.65; 95% CI, 1.24-8.30), terminal illness acknowledgment and support of spiritual needs (AOR, 2.94; 95% CI, 1.13-7.63), and preference for heroics and completion of advance directives (AOR, 2.65; 95% CI, 1.00-7.00). Positive religious coping remained a significant predictor of intensive life-prolonging care after simultaneously adjusting for each of these psychosocial variables (AOR, 2.90; 95% CI, 1.07-7.89) (TABLE 4).

**COMMENT**

This study demonstrates that most patients with advanced cancer rely on religion to cope with their illness and that greater use of positive religious coping is associated with the receipt of intensive life-prolonging medical care near death. This association was not attributable to other predictors of aggressive

---

**Table 2. Level of Positive Religious Coping and End-of-Life Care**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping Mechanism</th>
<th>Level of Positive Religious Coping, No./Total (%)</th>
<th>OR (95% CI)</th>
<th>P Value</th>
<th>AOR (95% CI)</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ventilation</td>
<td>20/177 (11.3)</td>
<td>6/167 (3.6)</td>
<td>3.42 (1.34-8.74)</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>2.81 (1.03-7.69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resuscitation</td>
<td>12/176 (7.4)</td>
<td>3/167 (1.8)</td>
<td>4.36 (1.22-15.59)</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>3.05 (0.79-11.78)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensive life-prolonging care</td>
<td>24/176 (13.6)</td>
<td>7/167 (4.2)</td>
<td>3.61 (1.51-8.62)</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>2.90 (1.14-7.35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death in ICU</td>
<td>19/178 (10.7)</td>
<td>4/167 (2.4)</td>
<td>2.73 (1.12-6.68)</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>1.80 (0.68-4.73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospice care enrollment</td>
<td>127/178 (71.3)</td>
<td>122/166 (73.5)</td>
<td>0.90 (0.56-1.44)</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>0.97 (0.58-1.65)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Abbreviations:** AOR, adjusted odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; ICU, intensive care unit. aAdjusted for age and race (white vs nonwhite).

**Table 3. Level of Positive Religious Coping and Other Coping Mechanisms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping mechanism</th>
<th>Level of Positive Religious Coping, No./Total (%)</th>
<th>OR (95% CI)</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative religious coping</td>
<td>103/178 (57.9)</td>
<td>46/167 (27.5)</td>
<td>3.61 (2.30-5.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active coping</td>
<td>100/178 (56.2)</td>
<td>76/167 (45.5)</td>
<td>1.54 (1.00-2.35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using emotional support</td>
<td>98/178 (55.1)</td>
<td>94/167 (56.3)</td>
<td>0.95 (0.62-1.46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral disengagement</td>
<td>48/178 (27.0)</td>
<td>33/167 (19.2)</td>
<td>1.50 (0.91-2.48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terminal-illness acknowledgment</td>
<td>88/174 (50.6)</td>
<td>60/160 (37.5)</td>
<td>1.71 (1.10-2.64)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support of spiritual needs</td>
<td>64/174 (36.2)</td>
<td>24/164 (14.6)</td>
<td>3.30 (1.94-5.62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCID diagnosis</td>
<td>21/173 (12.1)</td>
<td>11/159 (6.9)</td>
<td>1.86 (0.87-3.99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do-not-resuscitate order</td>
<td>60/177 (33.9)</td>
<td>80/162 (49.4)</td>
<td>0.53 (0.34-0.81)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Abbreviations:** SCID, Structured Clinical Interview for the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (Fourth Edition).
end-of-life care established in the literature,1,10,31 and remained after controlling for advanced care planning and other potential psychosocial confounders. These results suggest that relying upon religion to cope with terminal cancer may contribute to receiving aggressive medical care near death.

To our knowledge, this is the first study to examine the influence of any religious factor on medical care received near death, and it is novel in demonstrating that positive religious coping is associated with receipt of aggressive end-of-life care. Positive religious coping was commonly endorsed within our sample, consistent with other studies that demonstrate it to be the normative mode of religious coping within predominantly Christian patient samples.3,4,21 Adjusting for negative religious coping did not alter the association of positive religious coping with intensive life-prolonging care, suggesting that these findings might not be attributable to religious struggle at the end of life.

In the absence of outcome data, previous studies support an association of several religious measures and preference for medically aggressive end-of-life care.1,10,32,33 In a study of 68 ethnically diverse patients with advanced cancer, belief in miracles, seeking guidance from God, and spiritual coping were associated with a preference for resuscitation, ventilation, and hospitalization in near-death scenarios.19 In a study from the trauma literature, more than half of the respondents believed that God could heal a critically injured patient even when the physician stated that medical futility had been reached.9 Religious copers may choose aggressive therapies because they believe that God could use the therapy to provide divine healing, or they hope for a miraculous cure while intensive medical care prolongs life.

Sullivan et al32 found that religious patients with cancer were less likely to understand the definition of a do-not-resuscitate order and were more likely to think a do-not-resuscitate order was morally wrong. Positive religious copers in the Coping With Cancer sample were less likely than nonreligious copers to have a do-not-resuscitate order or other forms of advance care planning; however, these differences were largely a function of the effect of race/ethnicity (analysis not presented). Indeed, lower rates of advance care planning did not mediate the relationship between positive religious coping and intensive life-prolonging care. The increased rate of intensive life-prolonging care among religious copers was also not mediated by baseline preference for aggressive care, suggesting a more complex relationship between religious coping and end-of-life care outcomes. Religious coping may influence medical decision making rather than directly affecting treatment preferences or orientation toward care. Religious copers may decide to undergo therapies with high risks and uncertain benefits because they trust that God could heal them through the proposed treatment.

Intrinsic to positive religious coping is the idea of collaborating with God to overcome illness and positive transformation through suffering. Sensing a religious purpose to suffering may enable patients to endure more invasive and painful therapy at the end of life.11,12 Alternatively, religious copers might feel they are abandoning a spiritual calling as they transition from fighting cancer to accepting the limitations of medicine and preparing for death. Religious patients might thus equate palliative care to “giving up on God [before he has] given up on them.”34 Qualitative studies commonly report spiritual reasons for preferring life-sustaining treatments, including a belief that only God knows a patient’s time to die.11,35,36 Finally, high rates of intensive end-of-life care among religious copers may be attributable to religiously informed moral positions that place high value on prolonging life.

Taken together, these results highlight the need for clinicians to recognize and be sensitive to the influence of religious coping on medical decisions and goals of care at the end of life. When appropriate, clinicians might include chaplains or other trained professionals (eg, liaison psychiatrists37) to inquire about religious coping during family meetings while the patient is in an intensive care unit and end-of-life discussions occurring earlier in the disease course.38 Because aggressive end-of-life cancer care has been associated with poor quality of death and caregiver bereavement adjustment,38 intensive end-of-life care might represent a negative outcome for religious copers. These findings merit further discussion within religious communities, and consideration from those providing psa...
toral counsel to terminally ill patients with cancer.

Clear associations are often elusive in religiousness/spirituality research because of the complex interactions between religious and other psychosocial factors.\(^3\) Because the Coping With Cancer Study included comprehensive assessments of psychosocial measures, we were able to control for demographic confounders as well as more subtle potential explanatory effects. The effects of religious coping may have been confounded by other coping mechanisms; however, controlling for other coping styles did not alter its relationship with end-of-life care. Patients with cancer with unrealistically optimistic expectations of survival prefer and receive more aggressive end-of-life care.\(^{27,31}\) We attempted to account for this by controlling for acknowledgment of terminal illness, which did not alter the relationship between religious coping and the primary outcome. Failure to address the spiritual needs of patients with terminal cancer could conceivably contribute to spiritual crisis at the end of life, thereby leading to more aggressive care. Similarly, adjusting for support of spiritual needs did not alter the main findings. Research is needed to determine the mechanisms by which religious coping might influence end-of-life care preferences, decision making, and ultimate care outcomes.

Strengths of this study include ethnic and socioeconomic diversity among participants, use of validated surveys, and its prospective design. The brief RCOPE is a well-validated research tool that enabled empirical observations about a complex psychosocial construct. Nevertheless, clinicians should appreciate that the effects of religious coping are likely to be moderated by the environment and belief system from which they arise. Our findings should not be misinterpreted as denying the experience of many patients who find peaceful acceptance of death and pursue comfort-centered care because of their religious faith. Although religious coping is a theoretically appealing measure of functional religiousness, we cannot say that positive religious coping rather than other religious factors (eg, religiously based morals) completely accounts for the associations observed. Given the observational nature of this study, other hidden confounders are possible. Because our study sample was predominantly Christian, the applicability of our findings to non-Christian populations is uncertain. Religious coping is common among patients with a variety of illnesses,\(^2\) but attitudes toward end-of-life care vary substantially across diagnoses with intensive end-of-life care being much more prevalent among noncancer populations.\(^{2,21}\) Future studies are needed to determine the extent to which these findings apply to patients with other terminal illnesses.

Despite these limitations, this study demonstrates that positive religious coping is associated with receipt of more intensive life-prolonging medical care at the end of life. These results suggest that clinicians should be attentive to religious methods of coping as they discuss prognosis and treatment options with terminally ill patients.

**Author Affiliations:** Department of Medicine, Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, Boston, Massachusetts (Dr Phelps); Center for Psycho-Oncology and Palliative Care Research (Drs Phelps, Maciejewski, Balboni, Wright, Trice, and Prigerson and Mr Nilsson) and Departments of Radiation Oncology (Dr Balboni), Medical Oncology (Drs Wright, Trice, and Schrag), and Psycho-oncology and Palliative Care (Drs Peteet, Block, and Prigerson), Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Boston, Massachusetts; Parkland Hospital and Department of Internal Medicine, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas (Dr Balboni); Department of Psychiatry, Brigham and Women’s Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts; Parkland Hospital and Department of Internal Medicine, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas (Drs Maciejewski, Peteet, Block, and Prigerson); and Harvard Medical School Center for Palliative Care, Boston, Massachusetts (Drs Block and Prigerson).

**Author Contributions:** Dr Prigerson had full access to all of the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

**Study concept and design:** Phelps, Maciejewski, Balboni, Prigerson.

**Acquisition of data:** Paulk, Prigerson.

**Analysis and interpretation of data:** Phelps, Maciejewski, Nilsson, Balboni, Wright, Schrag, Trice, Peteet, Block, Prigerson.

**Drafting of the manuscript:** Phelps, Schrag, Prigerson.

**Critical review of the manuscript for important intellectual content:** Phelps, Maciejewski, Nilsson, Balboni, Wright, Paulk, Schrag, Peteet, Block, Prigerson.

**Statistical analysis:** Maciejewski, Nilsson, Balboni, Prigerson.

**Obtained funding:** Prigerson.

**Administrative, technical, or material support:** Paulk, Block, Prigerson.

**Study supervision:** Schrag, Prigerson.

**Financial Disclosures:** None reported.

**Funding/Support:** This study was supported by grant CA 106370 from the National Cancer Institute, grant MH63892 from the National Institute of Mental Health, and a Fetzer Institute grant on spirituality at the end of life.

**Role of the Sponsor:** The funding organizations had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection, analysis, or preparation of the data; or preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript.

**REFERENCES**


©2009 American Medical Association. All rights reserved.
of Life Questionnaire.

quality of life: evidence from the McGill Quality

existential well-being is an important determinant of

J Health Psychol

cally ill elderly patients: a two-year longitudinal study.

logical, physical and spiritual outcomes among medi-

Pargament KI, Koenig HG, Tarakeshwar N, Hahn

586.

19. Cohen SR, Mount BM, Tomas JJ, Mount JF. Ex-

18. Cohen SR, Mount BM, Bruera E, Provost M, Rowe

576-586.

20. Fitchett G, Murphy PE, Kim J, Gibbons JL, Cameron

J. Religious coping methods as predictors of psycho-

22.

Carver CS. You want to measure coping but your

21.

23.

24.

Cohen SR, Mount BM, Bruera E, Provost M, Rowe

1948;1:634-656.

25. Kershaw TS, Mood DW, Newth G, et al. Longi-

tudinal analysis of a model to predict quality of life in


22. Carver CS. You want to measure coping but your

J. Religious coping methods as predictors of psycho-

logical, physical and spiritual outcomes among medi-

cally ill elderly patients: a two-year longitudinal study.


Carver CS. You want to measure coping but your

179-196.

Jones AL, Cameron AL, Parker PA, de Moor JS, Basen-Engquist

K, Ramondetta LM, Cohen L. Active coping medi-

ates the association between religion/spirituality and

quality of life in ovarian cancer. Gynecol Oncol 2006;


25. Kershaw TS, Mood DW, Newth G, et al. Longi-

tudinal analysis of a model to predict quality of life in

prostate cancer patients and their spouses. Ann Behav


26. Lutgendorf SK, Anderson B, Ullrich P, et al. Qual-

ity of life and mood in women with gynecologic can-


94(1):131-140.

27. Sears SR, Woodward JT, Twillman RK. What do

I have to lose? effects of a psycho-educational inter-

vention on cancer patient preference for resuscitation.


28. Prigerson HG. Socialization to dying: social de-

terminants of death acknowledgement and treatment

among terminally ill geriatric patients. J Health Soc


29. Ray A, Block SD, Friedlander RJ, Zhang B, Maciejewski PK, Prigerson HG. Peaceful awareness in

patients with advanced cancer. J Palliat Med. 2006;


30. Earle CC, Neville BA, Landrum MB, Ayanian JZ,

Block SD, Weeks JC. Trends in the aggressiveness of


between cancer patients’ predictions of prognosis and

their treatment preferences. JAMA. 1998;279(21):

1709-1714.

32. Sullivan MA, Muskin PR, Feldman SJ, Haase E. Ef-

fects of religiosity on patients’ perceptions of do-not-

resuscitate status. Psychosomatics. 2004;45(2):

119-128.

33. Van Ness PH, Towele VR, O’Leary JR, Fried TR.

Religion, risk, and medical decision making at the end

of life (published online ahead of print April 28, 2008).


34. Sulmasy DP. Spiritual issues in the care of dying

patients: “ . . . it’s okay between me and god. JAMA.

2006;296(11):1385-1392.

35. Braun UK, Beyth RJ, Ford ME, McCullough LB.

Voices of African American, Caucasian, and Hispanic

surrogates on the burdens of end-of-life deci-

dion making. J Gen Intern Med. 2008;23(3):267-

274.

36. McKinley ED, Garrett JM, Evans AT, Danis M. Dif-

ferences in end-of-life decision making among black

and white ambulatory cancer patients. J Gen Intern


37. Curlin FA, Lawrence RE, Odell S, et al. Religion,

spirituality, and medicine: psychiatrists’ and other phy-

sicians’ differing observations, interpretations, and clini-


1825-1831.


between end-of-life discussions, patient mental

health, medical care near death, and caregiver be-

reavement adjustment. JAMA. 2008;300(14):1665-

1673.

39. Chatters LM. Religion and health: public health


21:335-367.