1	Relationship of non-melancholic and melancholic depressive symptoms
2	with all-cause mortality: A prospective study in a primary care population
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4	Running title: Depressive symptoms and all-cause mortality
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- **1** Relationship of non-melancholic and melancholic depressive symptoms
- 2 with all-cause mortality: A prospective study in a primary care population
- 3

4 Abstract

Objective: To assess relationship of non-melancholic and melancholic subtypes of depressive
symptoms with all-cause mortality among cardiovascular risk persons.

7

Methods: A population-based prospective study of 2522 Finnish middle-aged persons with
elevated cardiovascular risk was conducted. Depressive symptoms were assessed by the Beck's
Depression Inventory. Data on mortality were obtained from the official statistics after 11-year
follow-up.

12

Results: At baseline, the prevalence of non-melancholic and melancholic depressive symptoms 13 14 was 14.9% and 5.2%, respectively. During the mean follow-up time of 11 years, 8.1% (n = 164) of those without, 13.9% (n = 52) of those with non-melancholic, and 10.7% (n = 14) of those with 15 melancholic depressive symptoms died. Compared to non-depressive subjects, the hazard ratio for 16 time to all-cause mortality was 1.67 (95 % CI: 1.21-2.32, p = 0.002) in non-melancholically 17 depressive and 1.01 (95 % CI: 0.56-1.83, p = 0.97) in melancholically depressive subjects, when 18 adjusted for age, gender, education, smoking, alcohol use, BMI, hypertension, dyslipidaemia, and 19 glucose disorders. In comparison to the mortality rate in the general population throughout 20 21 Finland over the same period, non-depressiveness was associated with a decreased standardized 22 mortality rate.

23

Conclusion: Non-melancholic depressive symptoms seem to be associated with excess all-cause
 mortality. In clinical settings, recognition of non-melancholic depressive symptoms should be
 emphasised.

27

28 Keywords

All-cause mortality; Beck's Depression Inventory; melancholic depressive symptoms; non melancholic depressive symptoms

1 Introduction

2 Depression and increased depressive symptoms have been associated with excess mortality [1–3]. 3 It has been proposed that the increased mortality risk is similar in major and subthreshold 4 depression [3], and in the general population and specific patient groups [2]. However, two recent 5 reviews of meta-analyses [4,5] suggest evidence of a causal relationship between depression and 6 all-cause mortality is to be still inconclusive, partly due to inadequate adjusting for confounding 7 variables such as cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk factors and health behaviours [4,5]. Machado et 8 al. [4] have stated that only 40 % of the studies included in the meta-analyses controlled for at 9 least age and sex. Considering depression has repeatedly been associated with poor health 10 behaviours such as smoking [6] and low physical activity [7], other major health risk factors such as 11 obesity [8,9], and global leading cause of death, CVD [10,11], taking these factors into account 12 seems essential when studying depression and mortality. Moreover, there is extensive literature 13 on the association of depression and mortality among subjects with established CVD [12], but we 14 are not aware that the association of depression and mortality would have previously been studied namely among CVD risk subjects. 15

16 In addition, the multifaceted nature of depression [13] has rarely been considered in 17 studies assessing depressive symptomatology and mortality, although subtyping depression has 18 been proposed to be useful [14]. Depressive symptoms can be divided into melancholic, i.e. 19 typical, and non-melancholic, i.e. atypical subtypes [15] which might be attributable to different 20 biological dysregulations [15], and thus differently relate to somatic diseases and mortality. 21 Specifically, non-melancholic depressive symptoms including mood reactivity, interpersonal 22 rejection sensitivity, hypersomnia, fatigue, increased appetite, and weight gain [16] have been 23 associated with CVD risk factor clustering [17] and increased risk for incident CVD [18]. This could 24 highlight the importance of subtyping depressive symptoms also in clinical practice.

1	To the best of our knowledge, the association of atypicality of depression and
2	mortality has only once been studied in a prospective setting [19]. In this study, Lasserre et al.
3	aimed to assess the effect of clinical and course characteristics of depression on all-cause
4	mortality, and found no association between atypical depression and increased mortality risk.
5	Among their study population (n = 3668), only 1.6 % (n = 56) died during the 5-year follow-up, and
6	the prevalence of atypical depression among the depressed subjects (n = 1971) was 16.5 %,
7	probably attenuating the possibility to detect differences between the subgroups.
8	Due to this lack of research on the subtypes of depressive symptoms and mortality
9	risk our study aims to provide more evidence on the association of subtypes of depressive
10	symptoms and all-cause mortality. Furthermore, we previously found that specifically non-
11	melancholic depressive symptoms increased risk for CVD [18]. Now, after a longer follow-up, we
12	aimed to assess whether non-melancholically and melancholically depressive middle-aged CVD
13	risk subjects, who were apparently healthy at baseline, have an increased risk for all-cause
14	mortality, and whether this risk differs according to the depressive subtype.
15	
16	Methods
17	Study population
18	The study sample was drawn from the Harjavalta Risk Monitoring for Cardiovascular Disease
19	(Harmonica) Project, a population survey aiming to assess CVD risk factors and risk for type 2
20	diabetes (T2D) in middle-aged subjects, conducted in the semirural towns of Harjavalta and
21	Kokemäki with only Caucasian population from autumn 2005 to autumn 2007. All non-

- 22 institutionalized 45- to 70-year-old inhabitants (n = 6013) were invited. They were mailed a CVD
- risk factor survey (Table 1), a tape for waist circumference measurement, and a T2D risk
- 24 assessment form (FINDRISC, Finnish Diabetes Risk Score, available from www.diabetes.fi/english)

1	[20]. The CVD risk factor survey was developed by the investigators of the Harmonica Project, and
2	it included assessment of well-established CVD risk factors. The FINDRISC is a validated instrument
3	for assessing risk for T2D [20]. Its total score ranges from 0 to 26, and it represents the risk for
4	developing T2D within ten years (categorized as low risk: < 7 points, estimated 1 in 100 will
5	develop T2D; slightly elevated risk: 7-11 points, estimated 1 in 25 will develop T2D; moderate risk:
6	12-14 points, estimated 1 in 6 will develop T2D; high risk: 15-20 points, estimated 1 in 3 will
7	develop T2D; very high risk: > 20 points, estimated 1 in 2 will develop T2D). Of those responding (n
8	= 4450, 74%), we included subjects with at least one CVD risk factor assessed by the CVD risk
9	factor survey (n = 3072). Considering inclusion criteria, different cut-off values for the FINDRISC
10	score in Harjavalta and Kokemäki were used for logistical reasons: due to limited financial
11	resources and the surprisingly high response rate with FINDRISC score \geq 12 in Kokemäki. Of the
12	3072 subjects meeting the inclusion criteria, 2752 attended the study visit. In the present analysis,
13	only subjects with completed Beck's Depression Inventory (BDI) [21] were included (n = 2522).
14	Exclusion criteria were a previously established CVD (ischemic heart disease (IHD), cerebrovascular
15	disease (CeVD), or peripheral artery disease (PAD)), chronic kidney disease or T2D, determined by
16	medical records.

17 Table 1. Cardiovascular risk factor survey: Factors considered and definition for	cardiovascular risk.
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FACTOR	RISK DEFINITION
Waist circumference	\ge 80 cm in women and \ge 94 cm in men*
Use of antihypertensive medication	Yes
Latest blood pressure measurement	≥ 140/90 mmHg
Family history of T2D, IHD, myocardial infarction, or stroke	Yes
History of gestational diabetes or hypertension	Yes
FINDRISC-score	≥ 12*/15** points

* In Harjavalta, ** In Kokemäki. FINDRISC, Finnish Diabetes Risk Score; IHD, ischemic heart disease; T2D, type 2 diabetes. Different cut-off values for FINDRISC-score were used for logistic reasons. 19

1 Measurements

2 Subjects attended an enrolment examination performed by a trained nurse. First, self-

3 administered questionnaires were completed. Subjects were asked to report their gender, age, 4 education years, cohabiting (yes/no), and current smoking (yes/no). Level of leisure-time physical 5 activity (LTPA) was determined, and categorized as low (LTPA for \geq 30 minutes at a time for 6 maximum of three times a week), moderate (LTPA for \geq 30 minutes at a time for four to five times 7 a week), and high (LTPA ≥ 30 minutes at a time for six or more times a week). Alcohol consumption 8 was assessed by Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT) [22], and AUDIT score was 9 handled as a continuous variable (range 0-40 points). Beck's Depression Inventory, version BDI-1A 10 [21] was used to assess depressive symptoms. A BDI score \geq 10 [23] was used as the definition of 11 increased depressive symptoms. The subjects with increased depressive symptoms were divided 12 into melancholic and non-melancholic subgroups by comparing means of summary scores of 13 melancholic and non-melancholic items in the BDI [17,24–26]. Items considered melancholic 14 based on Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders (DSM)-defined criteria were sadness, past failure, loss of pleasure, guilty feelings, punishment feelings, irritability, loss of 15 16 interest, change in sleeping, and change in appetite. Other items were considered non-17 melancholic. A subject was classified into the melancholic subtype if the mean of the summary 18 score of the melancholic items was higher than that of the non-melancholic items, and vice versa. 19 If the means were equal, depressiveness was considered melancholic.

20 Second, a trained nurse measured height, weight, waist circumference, and blood 21 pressure (BP). Body mass index (BMI) was calculated. In fasting blood samples, glucose values, 22 total cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, and triglycerides were determined. Low-23 density lipoprotein was calculated according to Friedewald's formula. In addition, an oral glucose 24 tolerance test was performed. Glucose metabolism disorders were categorized into T2D (fasting

glucose ≥ 7.0 mmol/l or 2-hour postload plasma glucose ≥ 12.2 mmol/l), impaired glucose
 tolerance (2-hour postload plasma glucose 8.9-12.2 mmol/l), and impaired fasting glucose (fasting
 glucose 6.1-6.9 mmol/l). Subjects with newly diagnosed glucose metabolism disorders were
 included in the analyses of this study.

5

6 Interventions on CVD risk factors

7 The study nurse gave lifestyle counselling to all subjects attending the enrolment examination. If 8 hypertension, diabetes, impaired glucose tolerance, metabolic syndrome, obesity (BMI ≥ 30.0 kg/m²), or \geq 5% ten-year risk for CVD death estimated by the SCORE (Systematic Coronary Risk 9 Evaluation) [27] was found at the nurse's appointment (n = 1928), subjects were further invited to 10 11 a physician's appointment. Preventive medication (an antihypertensive drug, a lipid lowering 12 agent, or low dose aspirin) was started if the ten-year risk for developing a fatal CVD event was \geq 13 5% estimated by the SCORE. According to national guidelines at that time, antihypertensive 14 medication was initiated if systolic BP was \geq 160 mmHg or diastolic BP \geq 100 mmHg, or target organ damage was diagnosed. Ongoing antihypertensive medication was intensified if systolic BP 15 16 was \geq 140 mmHg or diastolic BP \geq 85 mmHg (\geq 80 mmHg in patients with diabetes). However, 17 prospective data on adherence to these interventions were not available.

18

19 Mortality

Data on mortality were obtained from the official statistics provided by Statistics Finland. The
coverage of this data is virtually 100 % [28]. Causes of death were classified according to the
International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 10th Revision (ICD10). The underlying causes of deaths were classified as follows: malignant neoplasms (C00-C97),
diseases of the nervous system (G00-G99), diseases of the circulatory system (I00-I99), diseases of

the digestive system (K00-K93), external causes of death (V01-X84 accidents and intentional selfharm), and other causes of death (diseases of the blood and blood-forming organs and certain
disorders involving the immune mechanism (D50-89), endocrine, nutritional and metabolic
diseases (E00-E90), mental and behavioural disorders (F00-F99), diseases of the respiratory system
(J00-J99), diseases of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue (M00-M99), diseases of
the genitourinary system (N00-N99), symptoms, signs and abnormal clinical and laboratory
findings, not elsewhere classified (R00-R99)).

A subject's follow-up time started at the time of the enrolment examination, and
ended on December 31st, 2017, or on the date of death.

10

11 Statistical analysis

12 Data are presented as means with standard deviation (SD) or as counts with percentages.

13 Statistical comparisons between categories of depressive symptoms were made by using analysis

14 of variance (ANOVA) and Pearson's chi-square. The bootstrap method was used when the

15 theoretical distribution of the test statistics was unknown, or in the case of violation of the

assumptions (e.g. non-normality). The Kaplan-Meier method was used to estimate the cumulative

17 mortality. Adjusted survival curves and hazard ratios (HR) were based on a stratified Cox model

using baseline age, gender, education years, smoking, alcohol use, LTPA, BMI, hypertension

19 (systolic BP \geq 140 mmHg or diastolic BP \geq 90 mmHg, or antihypertensive medication),

20 dyslipidaemia (total cholesterol \geq 5.0 mmol/l or medication for lipid disorders), and glucose

21 disorders as covariates. The possible non-linear relationship between BDI and all-cause mortality

was modelled using restricted cubic splines with three knots at the 10th, 50th, and 90th percentiles.

23 Spline functions were estimated using flexible parametric survival models, including baseline age,

24 gender, education years, smoking, alcohol use, LTPA, BMI, hypertension, dyslipidaemia, and

1 glucose disorders as covariates. The proportional hazards assumption was tested graphically and 2 by use of a statistical test based on the distribution of Schoenfeld residuals. The ratio of observed 3 to expected number of deaths, the standardized mortality ratio (SMR) for all-cause deaths, was calculated using subject-years methods with 95% confidence intervals, assuming a Poisson 4 5 distribution. The expected number was determined by multiplying the person-years of observation 6 by the appropriate mortality rate in the general population according to categories of gender, 1-7 year age group and calendar period. Probabilities of survival in an age- and gender-matched 8 sample of the general population were calculated from data of the official statistics from Statistics 9 Finland. Hommel's multiple comparison procedure was used to correct significance levels for post hoc testing. The normality of variables was evaluated graphically and using the Shapiro–Wilk W 10 11 test. Stata 16.0 (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX, USA) was used for the analysis.

12

13 Ethical approval

The ethics committee of Satakunta Hospital District reviewed and approved the study protocol
 and consent forms. All participants provided written informed consent for the project and
 subsequent research.

17

18 **Results**

19 Characteristics of the study population

The baseline characteristics of the subjects according to depressive symptoms are presented in
Table 2. At baseline, 2522 CVD risk subjects were evaluated. The mean age was 58.1 (SD 6.9) years
and 55.7% were females. Increased depressive symptoms (BDI ≥ 10) were detected in 506 (20.1%)
subjects. Of them, 375 (14.9%) had non-melancholic and 131 (5.2%) melancholic depressive

1 symptoms. Those with non-melancholic depressive symptoms had metabolic risk factors more 2 often: higher BMI and larger waist circumference (only women) compared to the other groups, 3 and more glucose disorders and higher triglyceride level compared to those without depressive 4 symptoms. They also performed less LTPA than subjects without depressiveness. Those with 5 melancholic depressive symptoms had a higher mean AUDIT score compared to the two other 6 groups. At baseline, antihypertensive medication was more often used in subjects with non-7 melancholic depressive symptoms. Medication for depression/anxiety was more often used by 8 subjects with depressive symptoms compared to non-depressive subjects.

10	Table 2 Characteristics of the	study population acco	rding to the catego	ries of depressive symptoms
10		study population acco	nuing to the catego	nes of depressive symptoms

	BDI <10	BDI ≥10		
		NMeD	MeD	P-value*
	I	II	111	[multiple comparison]
	n= 2016	n=375	n=131	
Age, mean, years (SD)	58 (7)	59 (7)	58 (7)	<0.001 [I/II]
Females, n (%)	1078 (53)	257 (69)	70 (53)	<0.001 [I/II, II/III]
Education years, mean (SD)	10.4 (2.7)	10.1 (2.7)	10.8 (3.1)	0.013 [I/II, II/III]
Cohabiting, n (%)	1587 (79)	279 (74)	102 (78)	0.18
Body mass index, kg/m ² , mean (SD)	28.6 (4.7)	30.0(5.9)	28.9(5.6)	<0.001 [I/II, II/III]
Waist circumference, cm, mean (SD)				
women	91 (12)	96 (15)	92 (15)	<0.001 [I/II, II/III]
men	101 (11)	104 (13)	101 (13)	0.046 [I/II]
Current smoking, n (%)	343 (17)	74 (20)	30 (23)	0.12
AUDIT-score, mean (SD)	4.5 (4.6)	4.8 (5.2)	6.9 (7.1)	<0.001 [I/III, II/III]
Leisure-time physical activity level, n (%)				<0.001 [I/II]
low	333 (17)	95(25)	29(22)	

moderate	1020 (51)	182(49)	59(46)	
high	653 (33)	97(26)	41(32)	
Blood pressure, mmHg, mean (SD)				
systolic	141(19)	140(18)	139(17)	0.57
diastolic	84(10)	84(10)	86(10)	0.29
Plasma lipids, mmol/l, mean (SD)				
total cholesterol	5.4 (1.0)	5.5 (1.1)	5.5 (1.0)	0.068
HDL cholesterol	1.6 (0.4)	1.6 (0.5)	1.5 (0.4)	0.84
LDL cholesterol	3.2 (0.9)	3.3 (1.0)	3.3 (0.9)	0.30
triglycerides	1.4 (0.7)	1.6 (0.9)	1.5 (0.7)	<0.001 [I/II]
Plasma glucose, mmol/l, mean (SD)				
fasting	5.6 (1.1)	5.7 (1.3)	5.6 (1.7)	0.14
2h glucose	7.3 (2.2)	7.7 (2.7)	7.5 (2.2)	0.040 [I/II]
Glucose disorder, n (%)				0.040 [I/II]
impaired fasting glucose	202 (10)	40 (11)	14 (11)	
impaired glucose tolerance	265 (13)	50 (13)	16 (12)	
type 2 diabetes	153 (8)	50 (13)	13 (10)	
BDI score, mean (SD)	3.8 (2.7)	15.1 (5.5)	14.8. (5.5)	
Medication, n (%)				
Hypertension	623(31)	165 (44)	47 (36)	<0.001 [I/II]
Lipid disorders	242 (12)	47 (13)	16 (12)	0.96
Depression/anxiety	39 (2)	50 (13)	15 (11)	<0.001 [I/II, I/III]

1 *Hommel's multiple comparison procedure was used to correct significance levels for post hoc testing

2 (p<0.05).

3 AUDIT, Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test; BDI, Beck's Depression Inventory; HDL, high-density

4 lipoprotein; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; MeD, increased (BDI ≥ 10) melancholic depressive symptoms;

5 NMeD, increased non-melancholic depressive symptoms.

6

1 Mortality

2 **Cumulative all-cause mortality**

- 3 Unadjusted cumulative all-cause mortality over 5, 10 and 12 years were as follows: 3.4% (95% CI:
- 4 2.7-4.3), 5.8% (95% CI: 4.9-7.0), and 9.2% (95% CI: 7.9-10.8) in non-depressive; 5.9% (95% CI: 3.9-
- 5 8.8), 12.0% (95% CI: 9.1-15.7), and 14.4% (95% CI: 11.0-18.7) in non-melancholically depressive;
- 6 and 2.2% (95% CI: 0.7-6.9), 9.2% (95% CI: 5.3-15.6), and 11.4% (95% CI: 6.8-18.7) in melancholically
- 7 depressive subjects.
- 8 When BDI score ten was set as the reference level, adjusted HR for time to all-cause
- 9 mortality rose with higher and declined with lower BDI score levels (Figure 1).

10



Figure 1. Adjusted (age, gender, education, current smoking, alcohol use, BMI, hypertension (systolic BP ≥
 140 mmHg or diastolic BP ≥ 90 mmHg, or antihypertensive medication), dyslipidaemia (total cholesterol ≥
 5.0 mmol/l or medication for lipid disorders), and glucose disorders) hazard ratios for time to all-cause
 mortality according to Beck's Depression Inventory (BDI) summary score. Hazard ratios were derived from a
 3-knot restricted cubic flexible parametric survival models, with BDI score 10 as the reference value. The 95

- 6 per cent confidence intervals are denoted by the grey area.
- 7
- 8 Adjusted (age, gender, education, current smoking, alcohol use, BMI, hypertension, dyslipidaemia,
- 9 and glucose disorders) survival according to depressive symptoms is presented in Figure 2.
- 10 Compared to non-depressive subjects, the HR for time to all-cause mortality was 1.67 (95% CI:
- 11 1.21-2.32, p=0.002) in non-melancholically depressive and HR 1.01 (95% CI: 0.56-1.83, p=0.97) in
- 12 melancholically depressive subjects.

13





- 16 gender, education, current smoking, alcohol use, BMI, hypertension (systolic BP ≥ 140 mmHg or diastolic BP
- 17 ≥ 90 mmHg, or antihypertensive medication), dyslipidaemia (total cholesterol ≥ 5.0 mmol/l or medication
- 18 for lipid disorders), and glucose disorders. BDI, Beck's Depression Inventory.

1

2 Causes of death

In the whole cohort, a total of 27681 person-years (mean 11.0) was followed up, and 230 deaths
occurred: 164 (8.1%) among those without increased depressive symptoms, 52 (13.9%) among
those with non-melancholic depressive symptoms, and 14 (10.7%) among those with melancholic
depressive symptoms. The most prevalent cause of death was cancer (42% of all deaths), followed
by CVD (28% of all deaths). The causes of death according to depressiveness are presented in
Table 3.

9

10 **Table 3.** Causes of death according to depressive symptoms.

	All	BDI < 10	NMeD	MeD	
Cause of death, n (%)	n = 230	n = 164	n = 52	n = 14	
Malignant neoplasms	97 (42)	63 (38)	26 (50)	8 (57)	-
Nervous system	16 (7)	12 (7)	4 (7)	0 (0)	
Circulatory system	64 (28)	48 (29)	12 (23)	4 (29)	
IHD	31 (13)	23	8	0	
CeVD	17 (7)	15	0	2	
Other	16 (7)	10	4	2	
Digestive system	13 (6)	7 (4)	5 (10)	1 (7)	
External cause	23 (10)	20 (12)	3 (4)	0 (0)	
Other	17 (7)	14 (9)	2 (4)	1 (7)	

¹¹

12 BDI, Beck's Depression Inventory; CeVD, cerebrovascular disease; IHD, ischaemic heart disease; MeD,

13 increased (BDI≥ 10) melancholic depressive symptoms; NMeD, increased non-melancholic depressive

14 symptoms

1 **Standardized mortality rate**

2 In comparison to the mortality rate in the general population throughout Finland over the same 3 period, the standardized mortality ratio (SMR) among women and men in our study was 0.73 (95% 4 confidence interval (CI): 0.62-0.86) and 0.70 (95% CI: 0.57-0.86), respectively. Non-depressiveness 5 was associated with a decreased SMR (0.64, 95% CI: 0.55-0.74), whereas those with increased 6 depressive symptoms did not differ from the general population: SMR 1.14 (95% CI: 0.87-1.50) in 7 non-melancholically depressive and SMR 0.85 (95% CI: 0.50-1.43) in melancholically depressive 8 subjects. There was a statistically significant difference in the SMR of those with non-melancholic 9 depressive symptoms and non-depressive subjects (p<0.001).

10

11 Discussion

In our follow-up study (mean follow-up time 11 years) of 2522 apparently healthy CVD risk subjects, the most prevalent causes of death were cancer (42%) and CVD (28%). Compared to the general population, those without depressive symptoms had a decreased standardized mortality rate. Non-melancholic depressive symptoms were associated with an increased risk for all-cause mortality compared to those without depressive symptoms, whereas melancholic depressive symptoms were not.

In recent studies assessing depressive symptoms and all-cause or cause-specific
mortality in general middle-aged or older populations, depressive symptoms have generally been
associated with an increased mortality risk. In a study of over 29000 US adults (≥ 45 years old),
Moise et. al [29] found that time-varying depressive symptoms increased the risk for all-cause
mortality by 24% and for non-CVD mortality by 29%. In their study, depressive symptoms were not
associated with increased CVD mortality. In line with Moise's and our study, Kozela et. al [30]
found depressive symptoms to independently predict all-cause mortality. Furthermore, in their

study of over 24000 middle-aged subjects in Central and Eastern Europe, depressive symptoms
were also associated with CVD mortality. However, conflicting results have also been published.
For example, in a study among over 11 000 UK adults (≥ 50 years old) even low levels of depressive
symptoms seemed to be associated with increased mortality risk, but adjustment for physical
activity, illnesses, and impairments in functioning fully attenuated the association [31]. This
emphasises the importance of adequate adjustments, but the mixed results might also be
attributable to the diversity of depressive symptoms.

8 Yet, studies on the association of subtypes of depressive symptoms and all cause-9 mortality are scarce. Lasserre et al. [19] found depression to increase the risk for all-cause 10 mortality more than 3-fold compared to those without depressive symptoms. However, in 11 contrast to our results, atypicality of depression was not associated with increased all-cause 12 mortality risk. A profound difference between the studies is that we assessed depressive 13 symptoms and divided them into melancholic and non-melancholic subgroups when Lasserre et al. 14 based their depression diagnosis on a semi-structured diagnostic interview and assessed the atypicality of depression based on DSM-defined criteria, although not requiring mood reactivity. 15 16 Still, the means of the assessment of depression have not been found to substantially affect the 17 found association of depressive symptomatology and all-cause mortality [2].

Many possible explanations for the excess mortality risk among depressed subjects have been proposed. As the increased mortality risk has been found to be similar in community samples and specific patient groups, it has been suggested that this association is driven by generic mechanisms [2]. These might include lifestyle associated factors and biological mechanisms. In addition, depression is a major risk factor for self-harm [32]. However, in our study population, there were fewer deaths from external causes among those with depressive symptoms than among those without.

1 Depression and depressive symptoms are associated with unhealthy lifestyle such as 2 smoking [6] and low physical activity [33], and poorer adherence to medical treatment [34]. These 3 factors inevitably contribute to mortality risk. If subjects with non-melancholic and melancholic depressive symptoms would remarkably differ considering lifestyle, different mortality risk could 4 5 be partly explained by that. However, previous research does not provide consistent evidence of 6 different lifestyles among these subgroups [17,35–37]. In our study population, melancholically 7 depressive subjects had higher AUDIT mean score than those with non-melancholic depressive 8 symptoms but otherwise they seemed rather alike considering lifestyle. In addition, we adjusted for important socio-demographic, lifestyle associated and clinical factors, thus suggesting the 9 association found is not only driven by them. 10 11 The pathophysiology of depression is complex and not fully understood, but most 12 importantly dysregulations of immuno-inflammatory, metabolic, and autonomic systems, and hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis have been associated with depression [15]. They can all 13 contribute to somatic diseases and thus affect mortality risk. First, inflammation is also a crucial 14 factor in the pathogenesis of malignant neoplasms, and it has been proposed as a connecting 15 16 pathway between depression and cancer [38]. Similarly, inflammation is a core component in 17 atherosclerosis [39], and it plausibly at least partly mediates the association of depression and 18 CVD. In addition, dysregulations of the autonomic system and HPA axis are also important possible 19 pathways connecting depression to especially CVD [40,41]. Moreover, there is some evidence that 20 different subtypes of depressive symptoms are associated with different biological disturbances 21 [42] which could explain differences in mortality risks found. It has been suggested that 22 inflammation might be associated with certain depressive symptoms [43], such as sleep problems, 23 tiredness/lack of energy, and changes in appetite [44], and may play a significant role namely in 24 atypical depression [45]. This could explain increased all-cause mortality, driven by inflammation's

1 associations with cancer and CVD, among non-melancholically depressed subjects. Atypical 2 depression and non-melancholic depressive symptoms have also been associated with an increased risk for metabolic disturbances [17,35,37,46,47] which lends support to our finding that 3 4 those with non-melancholic depressive symptoms had more metabolic risk factors. We have also 5 previously found that non-melancholically depressive subjects have an increased risk for CVD 6 morbidity, although independently of major CVD risk factors hypertension and dyslipidaemia [18]. 7 However, increased odds for metabolic dysregulations probably partly mediate increased 8 mortality among those with non-melancholic depressive symptoms. It might be that inflammation 9 and metabolic dysregulations are stronger contributors to mortality than HPA axis dysfunction 10 that has been associated with melancholic depression [48].

11 Consistent with previous research [17,49], non-melancholic depressive symptoms 12 were more prevalent than melancholic among our study population. This, however, causes 13 differential statistical power for non-melancholic and melancholic depressiveness, and may 14 contribute to the found associations. Women had more often depressive symptoms than men in 15 our study population. The gender difference in depression risk is comprehensively documented 16 also previously, and women have been suggested to have 1.5-fold risk for depressive symptoms 17 compared to men[50].

Unfortunately, in our study, there was a lack of statistical power to analyse the association of the subtypes of depressive symptoms and CVD mortality due to few CVD deaths (n = 4) among those with melancholic depressive symptoms. In addition, it has to be noted that our study population was drawn from a population survey aimed at diminishing CVD risk. Preventive medication for hypertension and lipid disorders or low dose aspirin was initiated for those at high CVD risk. Subjects with established CVD were excluded at baseline, so the manifested CVD were apparently new. Although we do not know how adherent subjects were to the preventive medication, these factors assumedly contribute to the severity of the manifested CVD and
accordingly, to the CVD mortality found in our study population, as well as to the finding that nondepressiveness was associated with decreased standardized mortality rate. In addition, depression
has been associated with poorer adherence to medical treatment such as antihypertensive
medication [51], diabetes self-care [52], and medication after acute coronary syndrome [53].

6 This was one of the first studies to assess the association of different subtypes of 7 depressive symptoms and all-cause mortality, and it has some specific strengths: A representative 8 sample of middle-aged CVD risk subjects who were apparently healthy at baseline was well 9 evaluated. Data on mortality were obtained from a comprehensive and reliable register. However, our study also has limitations. The mean age of the study population at the start of the follow-up 10 11 was 58 years, resulting in a limited number of deaths during the follow-up, and probably affecting 12 the prevalence of the causes of death. Depressive symptoms were assessed only at baseline, so 13 we were not able to control for changes in depressive status. There is inconsistent evidence on the 14 stability of depressive subtypes: In Finland, the stability of especially melancholic features has previously been suggested to be rather weak (only one in five of melancholically depressive 15 16 subjects presented with melancholic features at following episodes during 18-month follow-up) 17 [49] but in the Netherlands, the stability of a melancholic, an atypical, and a moderate subtype 18 was over 75 % during a two-year follow-up [54]. Similarly, the course trajectories of melancholic 19 and atypical depression have sometimes been found to be rather similar [49,55] but in some 20 studies melancholic depression has been associated with higher severity and lower rates of 21 remission [56,57]. We also acknowledge that there is a limitation in assessing the depressive 22 symptoms with BDI. Neither the depressive symptom group nor the subtype groups fully 23 represent clinical depression. Beck et al. have reported a mean correlation of 0.72 between BDI-IA 24 and clinical depression ratings in psychiatric patients, and 0.60 in a non-psychiatric sample such as

in our study [58]. There were few (n = 14) deaths among those with melancholic depressive
symptoms which can undermine the association of melancholic depressive symptoms with allcause mortality.

4		In conclusion, non-melancholic depressive symptoms seem to be associated with
5	exce	ss all-cause mortality. In clinical settings, recognition of non-melancholic depressive
6	symp	ptoms such as mood reactivity, fatigue and increased appetite should thus be emphasised.
7	How	ever, this finding should be confirmed in a larger sample and with a more robust definition of
8	depr	ession. In addition, a longer follow-up time would probably reveal specific causes of death.
9		
10	Dec	laration of interest
11	None	2.
12		
13	Ack	nowledgements
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