

1 **Coronavirus disease 2019 is associated with long-term depressive**  
2 **symptoms in Spanish older adults with overweight/obesity and metabolic**  
3 **syndrome**

4 **Running Title: Covid-19 and depression risk in older adults**

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108 **Abstract**

109 **Background**

110 The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) has serious physiological and psychological  
111 consequences. The longer-term (> 12 weeks post-infection) impact of COVID-19 on  
112 mental health, specifically in older adults is unclear. We longitudinally assessed the  
113 association of COVID-19 with depression symptomology in community-dwelling older  
114 adults with metabolic syndrome within the framework of the PREDIMED-Plus cohort

115 **Methods**

116 Participants (n=5,486) aged 55-75y were included in this longitudinal cohort. COVID-19  
117 status(positive/negative) determined by tests (e.g., PCR SARS-Cov-2, IgG) was  
118 confirmed via event adjudication (410 cases). Pre- and post-COVID-19 depressive  
119 symptomatology were ascertained from annual assessments conducted using a  
120 validated 21-item Spanish Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II). Multivariable linear  
121 and logistic regression models assessed the association between COVID-19 and  
122 depression symptomology.

123 **Results**

124 COVID-19 in older adults was associated with higher post-COVID-19 BDI-II scores  
125 measured at a median (IQR) of 29 (15-40) weeks post-infection (fully adjusted  $\beta=0.65$   
126 points,95%CI (Confidence Interval): 0.15, 1.15;  $p= 0.011$ ). This association was  
127 particularly prominent in women ( $\beta=1.38$  points,95%CI: 0.44, 2.33,  $p= 0.004$ ). COVID-  
128 19 was associated with 62% increased odds of elevated depression risk (BDI-II $\geq 14$ )  
129 post-COVID-19 when adjusted for confounders (OR: 95% CI:1.13, 2.30,  $p= 0.008$ ).

130 **Conclusions**

131 COVID-19 was associated with long-term depression risk in older adults with  
132 overweight/obesity and metabolic syndrome, particularly in women. Thus, longer-term

133 evaluations of the impact of COVID-19 on mental health and preventive public health  
134 initiatives are warranted in older adults.

135 **Key Words:**

136 Depression; Older adults; COVID-19; PREDIMED-Plus; SARS-CoV-2

137

138 **Background**

139 Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) caused by Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome  
140 Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), evolved into a global pandemic since its emergence in  
141 2019(Guo et al., 2022). Despite largely affecting the respiratory system, COVID-19's  
142 impact on the cardiovascular, gastrointestinal and neurologic systems has been  
143 recognised(Sparks et al., 2020). Long-term physical and mental health consequences  
144 of COVID-19 are increasingly understood as more data becomes available(Lopez-Leon  
145 et al., 2021).

146

147 Depression is a potentially serious mental health consequence of COVID-19, with its  
148 prevalence post-COVID-19 depending on the individual's age and the timing of  
149 depression assessment in relation to the infection(Pano et al., 2021). While depression  
150 is common in the acute 4-weeks post-infection, there are scarce data on its long-term  
151 prevalence (>12 weeks after the diagnosis of COVID-19)(Mazza et al., 2020; Renaud-  
152 Charest et al., 2021). Recently, a meta-analysis determined the frequency of  
153 depressive symptoms  $\geq 12$  weeks post-infection in COVID-19-positive men and women  
154 aged over 19y, with varying degrees of COVID-19 severity, including both hospitalized  
155 and non-hospitalized populations, and those with and without comorbidities. In this  
156 heterogeneous group, the frequency of depressive symptoms ranged between 11 and  
157 28%, while clinically significant depression and/or severe depressive symptoms  
158 affected 3 to 12% of the participants, at >12 weeks after COVID-19(Renaud-Charest et  
159 al., 2021). While the long-term impact of COVID-19 on depression in the general  
160 population may be small, the effects appear to be severe in older age groups(Klaser et  
161 al., 2021), specifically in older women and those with prior depressive  
162 tendencies(Mazza et al., 2020; Meng et al., 2020; Renaud-Charest et al., 2021).

163

164 Older age and cardiometabolic risks increase susceptibility to severe COVID-  
165 19(Channappanavar & Perlman, 2020; Mueller, McNamara, & Sinclair, 2020; Wee,  
166 2021), and depression is more prevalent in those with metabolic syndrome and  
167 diabetes(Dunbar et al., 2008; Khaledi, Haghghatdoost, Feizi, & Aminorroaya, 2019).  
168 The mental health consequence of COVID-19 in older adults with metabolic  
169 disturbances is of specific concern because depression is associated with lower  
170 adherence to treatment(Castro et al., 2021), poorer prognosis(Dunbar et al., 2008;  
171 Khaledi et al., 2019) and higher risk of mortality in community-dwelling older adults(Wei  
172 et al., 2019). While affecting mortality and quality of life in older adults with high  
173 cardiometabolic risk, the long-term impact of COVID-19 on depression symptoms will  
174 also represent a burden for healthcare systems. Therefore, understanding the impact  
175 of COVID-19 on older adults with comorbidities will facilitate early identification and  
176 management of the mental health sequelae of COVID-19 in this population. Existing  
177 evidence on the topic is highly heterogeneous in terms of the location, age and sex of  
178 individuals and time of depressive symptoms assessment post-COVID-19. And few  
179 studies include an unexposed control group to quantify the impact of COVID-19 on  
180 depression(Renaud-Charest et al., 2021). These limitations make it challenging to  
181 inform practice with existing information.

182 Thus, we examined the association of COVID-19 with depressive symptomatology in  
183 older adults with overweight/obesity and metabolic syndrome enrolled in the  
184 PREDIMED-Plus trial in Spain. We hypothesized that a positive diagnosis of COVID-19  
185 would be associated with higher post-COVID-19 scores for depressive symptoms in  
186 comparison to a COVID-19 negative status. We also investigated if sex, time of post-  
187 COVID-19 depression assessment and pre-existing depressive symptomatology  
188 affected this association.

## 189 **Methods**

190 **Study design and participants**

191 This analysis involved older women and men enrolled in the PREDIMED-Plus trial, a  
192 multicentre, randomized controlled clinical trial in Spain(Martínez-González et al.,  
193 2019). PREDIMED-Plus is an existing longitudinal cohort of 6,874 community-dwelling  
194 older adults with overweight/obesity and metabolic syndrome. At enrollment,  
195 participants were free from cardiovascular disease, cancers, major depressive disorder  
196 and other major chronic conditions. The trial aims to assess in this cohort the  
197 effectiveness of an energy-reduced Mediterranean diet, physical activity, and  
198 behavioural support intervention on the primary prevention of cardiovascular disease in  
199 comparison to an *ad libitum* Mediterranean diet without advice to increase physical  
200 activity or reduce energy intake. The ongoing trial began its recruitment in 2013 and is  
201 scheduled to be completed in 2024. A detailed study protocol has been published  
202 earlier(Martínez-González et al., 2019; Salas-Salvadó et al., 2018)(See supplementary  
203 **methods**).

204

205 The PREDIMED-Plus protocol has been approved by the institutional review boards of  
206 all participating centres in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. All enrolled  
207 participants provided written informed consent. This study is registered at the  
208 International Standard Randomized Controlled Trial (ISRCT;  
209 <http://www.isrctn.com/ISRCTN89898870>).

210

211 The cohort has validated assessments of depression that were obtained before the  
212 onset of the COVID-19 pandemic as well as ongoing follow-up measurements. The  
213 PREDIMED-Plus database also contains data on demography and clinical status that  
214 could confound the relationship between COVID-19 and depression. Thus, the  
215 PREDIMED-Plus cohort provides a unique opportunity to evaluate the association of

216 COVID-19 with depressive symptomatology in older adults with overweight/obesity and  
217 metabolic syndrome.

218

## 219 **Ascertainment of Variables**

### 220 *Exposure: SARS-CoV-2 infection*

221 For the primary analysis, the main exposure was a confirmed COVID-19 event in a  
222 participant (positive/negative) as adjudicated by the Clinical Event Ascertainment  
223 Committee of the trial. The clinical event determination was based on the information  
224 from participant medical records reviewed annually by the participating  
225 physicians(CDC, 2020). Overall, 410 participants in this analysis were COVID-19-  
226 positive. Participants who did not have a confirmed/probable COVID-19-positive  
227 diagnosis were considered COVID-19-negative (i.e., assumed to have not experienced  
228 the infection). The COVID-19 status accordingly established as a dichotomous variable  
229 (positive/negative) was used to define the exposure.

230

231 A supplementary analysis was performed using a subsample (n=3,982) of the  
232 PREDIMED-Plus participants who had undergone serology testing with SARS-CoV-2  
233 IgG ELISA Kits. These tests obtained between March 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2020, and December 25<sup>th</sup>,  
234 2021, classified participants as COVID-19-negative (n= 3,698)/COVID-19-positive (n  
235 =287). COVID-19 status was accordingly defined as a dichotomous predictor variable  
236 in the supplementary analysis ([See supplementary methods for details](#)).

237

### 238 *Outcome: Depression assessment*

#### 239 *Depression assessment in the PREDIMED-Plus*

240 As per the PREDIMED-Plus protocol, participants complete annual assessments of  
241 depressive symptomatology performed using the validated 21-item Spanish version of

242 the Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II)(Fernández, Valverde, & Perdigón, 2003).  
243 Each item in the BDI-II has four possible answers with scores ranging from 0 to 3 in  
244 accordance with symptom severity. Thus, the sum total of the BDI-II score ranges  
245 between 0 and 63 points, with higher scores indicating a higher propensity for  
246 depression.

247

#### 248 *Identifying pre- and post-COVID-19 measurements*

249 From the annual assessments of depressive symptomatology, a pre-COVID and a  
250 post-COVID-19 measurement was identified for each participant, based on their  
251 COVID-19 event status. For Covid-19 positive participants, the last available BDI-II  
252 assessment prior to the COVID-19 diagnosis date was ascertained as the pre-COVID-  
253 19 measurement. In these participants, the BDI-II score available from the first post-  
254 COVID-19 follow-up visit was ascertained as the post-COVID-19 BDI-II score. For  
255 COVID-19-negative participants, the date of identification of the first COVID-19 case in  
256 Spain (31<sup>st</sup> January 2020) was used as a hinge to identify BDI-II scores from  
257 comparable time points as COVID-19-positive participants. Thus, in COVID-19-  
258 negative participants, BDI-II scores from a visit before 31<sup>st</sup> January 2020 indicated pre-  
259 COVID-19 measurement and those from the subsequent visit were used as post-  
260 COVID-19 measurement ( [Supplementary Figure S1](#)). The duration between pre- and  
261 post-COVID-19 depression measurements and the time elapsed from the COVID-19  
262 event at post-COVID-19 depression measurements were calculated in weeks. Time  
263 elapsed at post-COVID-19 depression measurement was further categorized as  $\leq 12$   
264 weeks and  $>12$  weeks to stratify the time-dependent effects of COVID-19 on  
265 depression(Klaser et al., 2021; Renaud-Charest et al., 2021).

266

267 *Categorising Post-Covid-19 depression risk as the outcome variable*

268 For the primary analysis, the post-COVID-19 BDI-II score was used as a continuous  
269 outcome. BDI-II scores have also been categorized to identify the risk of depression:  
270 scores 0-13 indicate minimal risk, and scores  $\geq 14$  identify elevated risk(Becker, Steer,  
271 & Brown, 1996). For a secondary analysis, we categorized elevated depression risk  
272 accordingly and treated it as a binary outcome. Additionally, since a cut-off  $\geq 12$  had an  
273 adequate specificity index and diagnostic concordance and detects major depressive  
274 episodes in 93% of Spanish individuals(Sanz Fernández, 2013), a supplementary  
275 analysis using a cut-off  $\geq 12$  was also conducted.

276

277 *Assessment of confounder variables*

278 Data on potentially relevant confounders were also obtained from the PREDIMED-Plus  
279 database ([See supplementary methods](#)). Pre-COVID-19 visit covariates used in the  
280 models included age (years), marital status (levels: single/divorced, married or  
281 widow/widower), adherence to the Mediterranean diet (er-MEDAS score), alcohol  
282 consumption (g/day), total physical activity (METs min/week), and BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>). For  
283 other confounders including sex (man/woman), education (<high school, high school,  
284 university), intervention group (A/B), recruitment centre size (>400, 300-400, 250-300  
285 and <250), smoking status (never/former smoker/current smoker), the prevalence of  
286 type 2 diabetes mellitus (yes/no), hypercholesterolemia (yes/no), hypertension  
287 (yes/no), and cognitive performance (Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) scores),  
288 study baseline data were used to reduce missing data. Since the time elapsed since  
289 COVID-19 can impact depression assessments(Renaud-Charest et al., 2021), this  
290 duration(weeks) was adjusted for confounding in regression models. Since pre- and  
291 post-COVID-19 BDI-II scores were highly correlated, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores were  
292 adjusted as a covariate in all models.

293

294 **Statistical analyses**

295 The present analysis was conducted as a prospective cohort study using the  
296 PREDIMED-Plus database with the COVID-19 event status updated until December  
297 31<sup>st</sup>, 2021. All other data (depression outcomes and confounder data) were sourced  
298 from the database that was updated until November 4<sup>th</sup>, 2022. This allowed for  
299 sourcing depression assessments before and after COVID-19 and enabled the  
300 inclusion of both acute (<12 weeks) and long-term (≥12 weeks) associations of COVID-  
301 19 on depressive symptomatology. We included participants who had completed  
302 depression questionnaire assessments both prior to and after the ascertainment of  
303 COVID-19 event status.

304

305 In a preliminary cross-sectional exploration, we compared the characteristics and the  
306 timing of depression assessment of COVID-19-negative and positive participants using  
307 the Chi-square and Mann-Whitney U tests, as appropriate.

308

309 The primary analysis evaluated the longitudinal relationship of COVID-19 on post-  
310 infection depression symptomatology (BDI-II scores) using linear regression models,  
311 considering the COVID-19-negative status as the reference category. In addition to the  
312 unadjusted crude model, three other models were tested. Model 1 adjusted for age,  
313 sex, education, marital status, intervention group, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-  
314 19 BDI-II scores, and time since COVID-19 for depression assessments as  
315 confounders. Model 2 additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity (BMI ≥ 30  
316 kg/m<sup>2</sup>), type 2 diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and cognitive  
317 performance on recruitment to the trial. Model 3, also adjusted for lifestyle factors  
318 including scores of adherence to the Mediterranean diet, total physical activity levels,  
319 smoking status and alcohol consumption (Table 2). Alcohol consumption was used as

320 a quadratic term in the model to accommodate for a non-linear relationship with the  
321 outcome. All analyses were conducted with robust estimates of the variance to correct  
322 for intra-cluster correlation. This procedure was used to control for the allocation of  
323 household members into the same intervention group without randomization.

324

325 A secondary logistic regression analysis using the same models developed for the  
326 main analysis was performed with elevated depression risk post-COVID-19 (BDI-II cut-  
327 off  $\geq 14$ ) as a binary outcome.

328

329 Furthermore, to negate over-adjustments, a directed acyclic graph (DAG)(Textor, van  
330 der Zander, Gilthorpe, Liśkiewicz, & Ellison, 2016) was modelled ([Supplementary](#)  
331 [Figure S2](#)) and a minimal adjustment set was identified for both the linear and logistic  
332 regression models. This minimal model adjusted only for pre-COVID-19 depression  
333 scores. An additional supplementary logistic regression analysis was undertaken using  
334 a BDI-II score  $\geq 12$  as the cut-off for elevated depression risk.

335

336 Effect modification of the association by potential confounders (age group [ $\leq 70$  or  
337  $> 70$ y], sex, intervention group, disease conditions and time elapsed post-COVID-19)  
338 was assessed by introducing product terms in the multivariable model. Further, sub-  
339 analyses that stratified results by factors that showed significant interaction (sex,  
340 presence of pre-COVID-19 high depression risk and time elapsed post-COVID-19  
341 during depression assessments) were undertaken. Finally, supplementary linear and  
342 logistic analyses were conducted in the sub-sample with serology results to ascertain  
343 COVID-19 status.

344

345 Data were analysed using the Stata 14 software (StataCorp, College Station, TX,  
346 USA), and statistical significance was set at a two-tailed p-value <0.05. (See  
347 [supplementary methods for details](#)).

348

## 349 **Results**

350 This analysis included a total of 5,486 PREDIMED-Plus participants (51.7% men) with  
351 a median (IQR) age of 69.7 (7.4) y ([Figure 1](#)). [Table 1](#) shows their characteristics  
352 stratified by COVID-19 event status. At the pre-COVID-19 visit, participants had a  
353 median (IQR) BDI-II score of 5 (8) and these scores did not significantly differ by  
354 COVID-19 status. Approximately 14% of the participants included in this analysis had  
355 elevated depression risk at the pre-COVID-19 visit with no significant difference in the  
356 prevalence between COVID-19-positive and negative individuals. A COVID-19-positive  
357 status was associated with the male sex. COVID-19-positive participants were also  
358 more likely to report having been former smokers. All other factors evaluated were  
359 comparable in COVID-19-positive and negative individuals at the pre-COVID-19 visit.

360

361 Post-COVID-19 depression assessments in COVID-19-positive participants were on  
362 average assessed 23 weeks post-infection. The duration between pre- and post-  
363 COVID-19 depression assessments was significantly shorter in COVID-19-positive  
364 versus COVID-19-negative participants ( $p < 0.001$ , [Table 1](#)). However, the mean  
365 difference in duration between pre-and post-COVID-19 depression assessments  
366 between those who had and did not have the infection was <5 days.

367

368 [Table 2](#) evaluates the longitudinal association of COVID-19 on BDI-II scores over a  
369 median (IQR) duration of 29.4 (24.7) weeks post-COVID-19 in the cohort. In the fully

370 adjusted model, SARS-CoV-2 infection was significantly associated with post-COVID-  
371 19 BDI-II scores ( $\beta$  (95% CI): 0.65 (0.15 to 1.15,  $p= 0.011$ ).

372

373 **Table 3** summarises the positive association between a SARS-CoV-2 infection and  
374 elevated depression risk post-COVID-19 in this group of older adults at high  
375 cardiometabolic risk. In the final model, COVID-19 was associated with a 62% increase  
376 in the odds of observing elevated depression risk post-COVID-19 in the cohort( OR  
377 95% CI: 1.13 to 2.30,  $p= 0.008$ ).

378

379 These results remained unchanged in the supplementary analysis using a minimal  
380 adjustment model (**Supplementary Analysis 1: Supplementary Table S1**). Additionally,  
381 the results of logistic regression quantifying the longitudinal association between  
382 COVID-19 and elevated depression risk post-COVID-19 remained unchanged when  
383 the cut-off for BDI-II to identify the heightened risk was lowered to 12 points  
384 (**Supplementary Analysis 2, Supplementary Table S1**).

385

### 386 **Evaluation of interactions**

387 Significant interactions ( $p<0.01$ ) with COVID-19 were observed for sex and the  
388 presence of pre-COVID-19 elevated depression risk (**Supplementary Figure S3**). Fully  
389 adjusted predicted post-COVID-19 BDI-II scores and probabilities of elevated  
390 depression risk in the stratified sub-analysis undertaken for these factors are visualised  
391 in **Supplementary Figure S4**.

392 Sex

393 At the pre-COVID visit, 68% of the participants who exhibited depressive  
394 symptomatology were women ( $p<0.001$ ). In women, a positive COVID-19 event was

395 associated with an increase in BDI-II scores measured post-COVID-19 ( $\beta$  (95% CI):  
396 1.38 (0.44 to 2.33),  $p= 0.004$ , [Table 2](#)) in the fully adjusted model. Similarly, a positive  
397 COVID-19 status in women was associated with an 82% increase in heightened  
398 depression risk post-COVID-19, even when controlled for potential confounders  
399 including pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores (OR 95% CI: 1.17 to 2.86;  $p= 0.008$ , [Table 3](#)).  
400 However, these associations were not significant in men.

401

#### 402 *Elevated depression risk pre-COVID-19*

403 Elevated depression risk pre-COVID-19 was positively associated with a similar  
404 assessment at the post-COVID-19 visit. Approximately 50% ( $n= 377$ ) of those who  
405 recorded BDI-II scores  $\geq 14$  ( $n= 758$ ) and 6% ( $n=284$ ) of those who scored  $<14$  at the  
406 pre-COVID-19 visit exhibited elevated depression risk at their post-COVID-19 visit.  
407 [Table 4](#) stratifies the prospective association between SARS-CoV-2 infection and  
408 elevated depression risk post-COVID-19, by pre-COVID-19 depression risk levels. In  
409 individuals with BDI-II scores  $<14$  at the prior visit, a positive COVID-19 event was  
410 associated with a 72% increase in the risk of elevated depression post-COVID-19, in  
411 the fully adjusted model (OR 95% CI: 1.17 to 2.62;  $p= 0.008$ , [Table 4](#)).

412

413 A significant interaction was also observed between the timing of depression  
414 assessment and COVID-19 status ( $p < 0.05$ ). Results stratified by timing of post-  
415 COVID-19 depression assessment are shown in [Supplementary Table S2](#). While the  
416 directionality of the relationship between a COVID-19-positive status and depression  
417 scores remained consistent, these associations were statistically significant only  
418 among participants who had their depression assessment conducted after 12 weeks  
419 following COVID-19 diagnosis (COVID-19-positive participants) or after 12 weeks

420 following the first confirmed case of COVID-19 in Spain (COVID-19-negative  
421 participants).

422

423 In the replication analysis in the subsample with serology results to confirm COVID-19  
424 status, the directionality of the results remained unchanged. However, the association  
425 was no longer statistically significant (n= 3,801, 284 cases of COVID-19)  
426 (Supplementary Table S3).

427

## 428 **Discussion**

429 We examined the association of COVID-19 with depressive symptomatology in older  
430 adults with overweight/obesity and metabolic syndrome enrolled in the PREDIMED-  
431 Plus trial in Spain. Spain with an increasingly ageing population was among the  
432 European countries most affected by the pandemic(Pollán et al., 2020). COVID-19 was  
433 associated with a small but significant and persistent increase in post-infection  
434 depression scores in this population. These findings add to the existing global evidence  
435 on the mental health consequences of COVID-19(Deng et al., 2021; Klaser et al., 2021;  
436 Meng et al., 2020; Renaud-Charest et al., 2021).

437

438 Post-infection increases in depressive symptomatology associated with infections that  
439 have a prolonged convalescence have biological and psychological bases (Kim, Yoo,  
440 Lee, Lee, & Shin, 2018). Biologically, the escalation of depressive symptoms after  
441 COVID-19 stems from increased inflammation(Lyra e Silva, Barros-Aragão, De Felice,  
442 & Ferreira, 2022; Mazza et al., 2020). COVID-19 is a hyperinflammatory disease with  
443 systemic and brain inflammation leading to acute and persistent neurological and  
444 psychological disturbances(Lyra e Silva et al., 2022). COVID-19 could also be a stress-

445 inducing traumatic event, and patients who experience traumatic events are known to  
446 have higher inflammation markers(Fernández-Sevillano et al., 2022). Proinflammatory  
447 cytokines are associated with the development of depression, irrespective of baseline  
448 scores, indicating that inflammation temporally precedes and increases depression  
449 risk(Martínez-Cengotitabengoa et al., 2016). Additionally, increased depression risk in  
450 Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) patients quarantined in the hospital was  
451 ascribed to psychological factors including tension, fear, anger, mistrust, uncertainty,  
452 and depressed mood due to the infection itself and the subsequent isolation during  
453 quarantine(Kim, Yoo, Lee, Lee, & Shin, 2018), socio-economic and family  
454 consequences. These mechanisms could collectively explain the association of  
455 COVID-19 with increased depressive symptomatology. Additionally, the pandemic  
456 nature of the COVID-19 outbreak and the widespread adoption of public health  
457 measures could have compounded the association of COVID-19 with depressive  
458 symptoms. Therefore, it is likely that the magnitude of the impact of COVID-19 on  
459 mental health, specifically among the vulnerable including older adults, is more  
460 prominent in comparison to common acute illnesses.

461

462 While the association between COVID-19 and depression risk was statistically  
463 significant, the effect size was small, hence its clinical significance is debatable.  
464 Nevertheless, the effect of COVID-19 on depressive symptoms is in line with the  
465 repeated calls for mental health interventions in older adults, particularly in older  
466 women surviving COVID-19(Mazza et al., 2020; Meng et al., 2020; Renaud-Charest et  
467 al., 2021). Moreover, contrary to the existing understanding that prior mental health  
468 conditions make individuals particularly vulnerable to the psychological impact of  
469 COVID-19(Mazza et al., 2020; Meng et al., 2020; Renaud-Charest et al., 2021), we  
470 found that COVID-19 was significantly associated with elevated depressive risk post-  
471 infection in PREDIMED-Plus participants without a similar risk at the pre-COVID-19

472 visit. These results provide new insights into the need for holistic management of  
473 COVID-19 in older adults who were more vulnerable to infection and had poorer  
474 survival rates in the initial phases of the pandemic, owing to senescence and  
475 comorbidity-related changes in the immune system(Mueller et al., 2020). Aging  
476 attenuates coping strategies(Meng et al., 2020), while self-awareness of the aging-  
477 related increased risk of mortality from the pandemic and poorer coping tendencies  
478 could contribute to increased and persistent depressive tendencies in older adults  
479 experiencing COVID-19. Furthermore, poorer physical health increases the risk for  
480 poorer mental health post-COVID-19(Robinson, Sutin, Daly, & Jones, 2022). Hence,  
481 among older adults at high cardiometabolic health risk, preventive mental health  
482 interventions to manage depressive symptomatology may be required irrespective of  
483 pre-COVID-19 mental health status.

484

485 Previous reports suggest that the mental health effects of COVID-19 are transitory and  
486 attenuate 12 weeks after the infection(Klaser et al., 2021; Renaud-Charest et al.,  
487 2021). However, we found no evidence to support this contention. The observed lack of  
488 significance of the results in the group with post-COVID-19 assessments conducted  
489 within 12 weeks of the date of infection could be due to insufficient statistical power in  
490 this group. Nevertheless, consistent results in the group that had their depression  
491 assessments performed 12 weeks or later after SARS-CoV-2 infection confirms that  
492 COVID-19 posed an extended mental health risk in this group of older adults with  
493 heightened metabolic risks, even in the absence of depression in pre-COVID-visits.

494

495 We could attribute this extended mental health consequence of COVID-19 to both the  
496 physiological consequences of COVID-19 and the prolonged lockdown instituted as  
497 public health measures to stem the spread of the disease. However, we have recently

498 shown, albeit in a sub-sample of this cohort, that the lockdown was not associated with  
499 an increase in depressive symptomatology(Paz-Graniel et al., 2023). Thus, it is highly  
500 likely that the persistent depressive symptomatology seen in this group is  
501 predominantly a consequence of the disease. These findings reemphasize that COVID-  
502 19-induced increases in depressive symptoms could be larger and more persistent in  
503 comparison to smaller changes observed for anxiety disorder symptoms and overall  
504 mental health functioning measures(Robinson et al., 2022). With increasing concern  
505 over “Long-COVID”, it is important to further monitor the long-term psychological  
506 impact of COVID-19 in older adults, specifically concerning depressive symptoms,  
507 even in the absence of depression in pre-COVID-visits.

508

509 Our study has limitations. First, BDI-II scores were self-reported and are not interpreted  
510 as a bonafide diagnosis of the presence/absence of depression. Nevertheless, BDI-II  
511 has been validated and used widely in Spain with sufficient specificity to identify  
512 individuals at heightened risk for depression(Sanz Fernández, 2013). Second, while  
513 social and economic outcomes of the pandemic contribute to depression post-COVID-  
514 19(Renaud-Charest et al., 2021), this analysis did not account for regional variation in  
515 lockdown severity and its economic/social consequences. We believe that with  
516 adjustments for the recruitment centre size and education, we could have partially  
517 accounted for these factors. Thirdly, some COVID-19-negative patients may have had  
518 asymptomatic infections that went undiagnosed, resulting in misclassification of cases.  
519 This is unlikely because we scrutinized all medical records during 2020 and 2021 when  
520 public health strategies for COVID-19 testing were stringent as the nation was in the  
521 process of maximising vaccination coverage. We also recognize that protecting the  
522 integrity of the main trial precludes obtaining updated data for covariates such as the  
523 prevalence of diabetes, hypercholesterolemia or hypertension for this analysis.  
524 However, the minimal adjustment model shows that the association may be

525 independent of these variables. Furthermore, the results from the sub-sample with  
526 positive serology go in the same direction as the primary analysis, suggesting minimal  
527 effects of misclassification on this analysis. Finally, this analysis uses data from  
528 participants in a clinical trial and may not be widely generalizable.

529

530 Nevertheless, this analysis adds strong data to the existing evidence on the mental  
531 health sequelae of COVID-19 in a vulnerable group of older adults with  
532 overweight/obesity and metabolic syndrome. The sufficiently large PREDIMED-Plus  
533 cohort with scheduled data assessments from before the onset of the pandemic and  
534 after helps establish the impact of COVID-19 on depressive symptomatology in the  
535 cohort while adjusting for the time for depression determinations, an important  
536 confounder of this relationship(Renaud-Charest et al., 2021). Furthermore, the similar  
537 time frame within which the pre- and post-COVID-19 assessments were obtained in all  
538 participants, controls for many extraneous factors that could have increased  
539 depression risk, independently of infection status. Moreover, COVID-19 event  
540 adjudication was performed by an independent committee removing any potential bias  
541 in the ascertainment of cases. Supplementary analyses using a lower cut-off for  
542 depression risk and serology results from a sub-sample confirmed the directionality of  
543 the results from the main analysis. Finally, we believe that the identification of a  
544 minimal adjustment set using a DAG to investigate the relationships involved in this  
545 analysis also removes concerns of over-adjustments in the models.

546

547 Our analyses do not consider vaccination status and type, the severity of COVID-19  
548 infection, the infection strain or the treatment modality used or the need for  
549 hospitalization among the COVID-19-positive participants. However, current evidence  
550 for the impact of these factors on post-COVID-19 depressive symptoms is

551 inconsistent(Chen, Aruldass, & Cardinal, 2022; Mazza et al., 2020; Renaud-Charest et  
552 al., 2021). It is possible that the severity of COVID-19 in the early days of the pandemic  
553 differed from those that occurred later. We found that while several of the strains  
554 reported in 2020 and 2021 caused severe infections, the omicron variant reported after  
555 November 2021 produced milder disease. However, only 46 cases in our cohort were  
556 diagnosed after November 2021 and we do not possess data on strain causing COVID-  
557 19 in our cohort to tease out these effects. Also, vaccination in Spain started on 27th  
558 December 2020 and the possibility that it might have influenced depression outcomes  
559 is restricted to approximately 4% of our population who had received at least one dose  
560 of the vaccine at the time of post-COVID-19 depression measurements. Nevertheless,  
561 considering these factors in future analyses will facilitate identifying sub-groups that  
562 would specifically benefit from mental health interventions. We also propose that future  
563 studies investigate the trajectory of depressive symptoms in COVID-19 patients using  
564 repeated measurements post-infection. Such an evaluation will help better understand  
565 the time-dependent mental health effects of COVID-19.

## 566 **Implications for practice**

567 Overall, our findings support a call for mental health interventions to tackle increased  
568 depressive tendencies post-COVID-19 infection in older adults, particularly in women.  
569 Furthermore, in this Spanish cohort of older adults with overweight/obesity and  
570 metabolic syndrome, the association between COVID-19 and depressive symptoms  
571 was persistent and observable after 12 weeks post-COVID-19. Importantly, strategies  
572 to mitigate depression should be extended to older adults with cardiometabolic health  
573 risks, who do not exhibit heightened depressive symptomatology prior to a SARS-CoV-  
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575

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622

### 623 **Conflict of Interest**

624 None. The authors have no competing interests to declare.

625

### 626 **Ethical Standards**

627 The authors assert that the studies involving human participants were reviewed and  
628 approved by the study and were conducted in compliance with the guidelines of the  
629 Declaration of Helsinki. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Boards of

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632

### 633 **Authorship and Contributorship**

634 All authors (1) made substantial contributions to the study concept or the data analysis  
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636 intellectual concept; (3) approved the final version of the manuscript to be published;  
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## Table and Figure Legends

**Table 1.** Participant characteristics according to COVID-19 status

**Table 2.** Longitudinal association of COVID-19 status with post-infection depression assessments (BDI-II scores) in the PREDIMED-Plus cohort ( $\beta$  [95%CI])

**Table 3.** Longitudinal association between COVID-19 status and post-infection elevated depression risk in the PREDIMED-Plus cohort (OR [95%CI])

**Table 4.** Longitudinal association between COVID-19 status and depressive symptomatology in the PREDIMED-Plus cohort, stratified by depression risk at pre-COVID-19 assessment (OR or  $\beta$  coefficients and 95% CI)

**Figure 1.** Flow diagram for PREDIMED-PLUS participants included in the analysis to evaluate the impact of COVID-19 on depression.

### Figure 1 Legend:

**Abbreviations:** BDI-II, Beck Depression Inventory-II, COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019.

<sup>a</sup>Analysis used COVID-19 event confirmation data from the PREDIMED-Plus database updated until December 2021.

<sup>b</sup> Analysis used depressive and covariate assessments from the PREDIMED-Plus database updated until November 2022.

<sup>#</sup>Age, sex, education, intervention group, recruitment centre, smoking status, physical activity, adherence to the Mediterranean diet, BMI, prevalence of baseline diabetes, hypertension and hypercholesterolemia had no missing data for this analysis.

Marital status: 12/5,486 (0.2%) missing data. Missing data were replaced with the mode of the variable for the cohort.

Alcohol consumption-15/5,486 (0.3%) missing data. Missing data were replaced with cohort mean consumption by gender (\* men= 17.47276; women= 4.599879 g/day). Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) data:135/5,486 missing data (2.4%). No imputation was performed for missing data.

## Supporting information

**Supplementary Methods:** Outlines details on study participants and statistical analysis

**Supplementary Table S1:** Association of COVID-19 status with depressive symptomatology in the PREDIMED-Plus cohort - Results of supplementary analysis using minimal adjustment models and BDI-II  $\geq 12$  to describe depressive symptomatology

### Table S1 Legend

**Abbreviations:** BDI-II scores, Beck Depression Inventory-II; COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019, MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination

#Reference category for all analysis: COVID-19 negative status

**Supplementary analysis 1:** Uses a minimal adjustment set identified using directed acyclic graphs (supplementary figure 2)

Minimal adjustment model A uses linear regression with Post BDI-II scores as the outcome, COVID-19 infection as the exposure, adjusting for BDI-II scores pre-COVID-19. Effect size presented as  $\beta$  coefficients (95% CI).

Minimal adjustment model B uses logistic regression with post-COVID-19 elevated depression risk (BDI-II  $\geq 14$ ) as the outcome, COVID-19 status as exposure, adjusting for BDI-II scores pre-COVID-19. Effect size presented as Odds ratio (OR and 95% CI).

**Supplementary analysis 2:** Uses logistic regression with post-COVID-19 elevated depression risk (BDI-II  $\geq 12$ ) as the outcome, COVID-19 status as exposure. Effect size presented as Odds ratio (OR and 95% CI).

Crude model only uses COVID-19 status (Positive or negative) as the predictor variable in the model

**\*Model 1:** Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, time since infection for post-COVID-19 depression assessments

**\*Model 2:** Model 1, additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition (MMSE scores)

**\*Model 3:** Model 2, additionally adjusted for adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption

**Supplementary Table S2:** Association of COVID-19 status with depressive symptomatology in the PREDIMED-Plus cohort, stratified by time of post-COVID-19 depression assessment.

### Table S2 Legend

$\beta$  coefficient (95% CI) was calculated using linear regression models. Exposure= COVID-19 status (Positive or negative); Outcome: Post COVID BDI-II scores

<sup>o</sup>OR: Odds Ratio (95% CI) was calculated using logistic regression models. Exposure= COVID-19 status (Positive or negative); Outcome: elevated depression risk symptomatology Post COVID-19 (yes/no).

Elevated depression risk symptomatology is defined as BDI-II score  $\geq 14$ , absence of elevated depression risk symptomatology as BDI-II score  $< 14$ . Depression assessment from the first scheduled follow-up visit after the COVID-19 infection was used to evaluate post-COVID-19 depressive symptomatology

Reference category: COVID-19 negative status.

**\*Model 1:** Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, time since infection for post-COVID-19 depression assessments

**\*Model 2:** Model 1, additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition (MMSE scores)

**\*Model 3:** Model 2, additionally adjusted for adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption

**Supplementary Table S3:** Association of COVID-19 (status determined using serology) with depressive symptomatology assessments in the sub-study of PREDIMED-Plus cohort merging the information of COVID-19 ascertained cases and positive serology information (mean beta [95%CI] or OR [95%CI], n= 3,801)

### Table S3 Legend

# $\beta$  coefficient (95% CI) were calculated using linear regression models. Exposure: COVID-19 status (Positive or negative); Outcome: Post-COVID-19 BDI-II scores

$\circ$ OR: Odds Ratio and (95% CI) were calculated using logistic regression models. Exposure: COVID-19 status (Positive or negative); Outcome: Elevated depression risk symptomatology Post COVID-19 (yes/no). Elevated depression risk is defined as BDI-II score  $\geq 14$ , absence of elevated depression risk as BDI-II score  $< 14$ . Depression assessment from the first scheduled follow-up visit after the COVID-19 infection was used to evaluate post-COVID-19 depressive symptomatology

Reference category: COVID-19 negative status.

**\*Model 1:** Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, time since infection for post-COVID-19 depression assessments

**\*Model 2:** Model 1, additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition (MMSE scores)

**\*Model 3:** Model 2, additionally adjusted for adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption

Minimal adjustment model adjusts only for BDI-II scores pre-COVID-19

**Supplementary Figure S1:** Timing of pre- and post-COVID-19 depression assessments in the participants

**Legend:** The figure shows the timing of pre- and post-COVID-19 depression measurements in the participants. The calendar period of these measurements is shown in the Gantt chart below. Q1- Q4 represents the four quarters of the year. The shaded regions depict the pre and post-COVID-19 time of assessments of depressive assessments of the participants. Pre-COVID-19 measurements in COVID-19 negative participants are measured before the first case of COVID-19 was reported in Spain. In COVID-19 positive participants, Pre-COVID-19 measurements are those from before the date of COVID-19 diagnosis. Post-COVID-19 measurements are those obtained in the subsequent follow-up. Red bars show the timing of assessment in the COVID-19 positive and blue bars in COVID-19 negative participants. The orange bar below shows the timing and duration of the lockdown in Spain as a public health measure to prevent the spread of COVID-19.

**Explanatory Note:** 20% of post-COVID-19 assessments for the COVID-19 positive participants and 83% of the post-COVID-19 assessments for the COVID-19 negative participants occurred during the lockdown

in Spain (14/3/20 to 1/1/2021). Assuming that the COVID-19 lockdown could have increased the BDI-II scores, it is expected that the current estimates for the impact of COVID-19 obtained in this analysis are attenuated since more COVID-19 negative participants had their post-COVID-19 assessments performed during this time.

**Supplementary Figure S2:** Directed acyclic graph to identify minimal adjustments to evaluate the impact of COVID-19 on depression measures in PREDIMED-Plus participants

**Supplementary Figure S3:** Interactions between potential factors and COVID-19 in impacting depression assessments post-COVID-19

*Legend: Beta coefficients from linear regression and odds ratios calculated from logistic regression in fully adjusted models are shown with their 95% CI in this stratified analysis. p values for interaction derived from the log-likelihood ratio test. BDI-II scores, Beck Depression Inventory-II. Depressive symptomatology is defined as BDI-II score  $\geq 14$ , absence of depressive symptomatology was described as scoring  $< 14$ .*

**Supplementary Figure S4.** Predicted post-COVID-19 BDI-II scores and probabilities of elevated depression risk post-COVID-19 in stratified regression analysis using fully adjusted models

*Legend: BDI-II, Beck Depression Inventory-II, COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019. Predicted post-COVID-19 BDI-II was calculated using linear regression; predicted probabilities for depressive symptomatology post-COVID-19 were calculated using logistic regression. Both analyses show the fully adjusted models (Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, time since infection for post-COVID-19 depression assessments, presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition, adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption. Red square markers indicate COVID-19-positive status and blue dots indicate COVID-19-negative status within the strata. Error bars indicate 95% CI. BDI-II scores have a potential range between 0 and 63 and predicted probabilities between 0 and 1.*

**Table 1.** Participant characteristics according to COVID-19 status

Characteristics	Full sample n = 5,486	COVID-19 Status		P-value <sup>a</sup>
		Positive n = 410	Negative n = 5,076	
<b>Sociodemographic data</b>				
Age at pre-COVID visit, years <sup>#</sup>	69.7 (7.4)	69.7 (7.6)	69.7 (7.3)	0.64
Men, n (%)	2836 (51.7)	239 (58.3)	2,597 (51.2)	<0.01
Education level, n (%) <sup>b</sup>				0.14
Less than high school	2,730 (49.8)	188 (45.9)	2,542 (50.1)	
High school or equivalent	1,560 (28.4)	118 (28.8)	1,442 (28.4)	
University	1,196 (21.8)	104 (25.4)	1,092 (21.5)	
Civil status, n (%) <sup>t</sup>				0.43
Single or divorced	678 (12.4)	52(12.7)	626 (12.3)	
Married	4,135 (75.4)	316 (77.1)	3,819 (75.2)	
Widow/Widower	673 (12.3)	42 (10.2)	631 (12.4)	
Intervention group (Group B)	2,649 (48.3)	195 (47.6)	2,454 (48.4)	0.76
<b>Lifestyle habits</b>				
Smoking habit, n (%) <sup>b</sup>				<0.01
Never smoker	2,477 (45.1)	163 (39.8)	2,314 (45.6)	
Former smoker	2,352 (42.9)	205 (50.0)	2,147(42.3)	
Current smoker	657 (12.0)	42 (10.2)	615 (12.1)	
17-item MedDiet score <sub>1</sub> <sup>##</sup>	12(4)	12(4)	12(4)	0.97
Total physical activity, METs min/week <sup>##</sup>	2545 (2853)	2654 (3040)	2544 (2853)	0.75
Alcohol consumption, g/day <sup>##</sup>	4.0 (11.3)	4.5 (12.6)	3.8 (11.3)	0.06
<b>Anthropometry, clinical and cognitive data</b>				
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup> <sup>##</sup>	31.4 (5.3)	31.7 (5.3)	31.3(5.3)	0.09
Obesity; BMI $\geq$ 30, n (%) <sup>t</sup>	3,515 (64.1)	275 (67.1)	3,240 (63.8)	0.18
Diabetes, n (%) <sup>b</sup>	1,621 (29.6)	122 (29.8)	1,499 (29.5)	0.92
Hypercholesterolemia, n (%) <sup>b</sup>	3,842 (70.0)	272 (66.3)	3,570 (70.3)	0.09
Hypertension, n (%) <sup>b</sup>	4,591 (83.7)	330(80.5)	4,261 (84.0)	0.08
MMSE scores <sub>1</sub> <sup>b##</sup>	29 (3)	29 (2)	29 (3)	0.31
<b>Depression data</b>				
BDI-II scores <sub>1</sub> <sup>#</sup>				
Pre-COVID-19	5 (8)	4 (8)	5 (8)	0.14
Post-COVID-19	5 (7)	5 (8)	5 (7)	0.62
Elevated depression risk, n (%) <sup>b</sup>	1,077 (19.7)	71 (17.3)	1,006 (19.9)	0.21
Elevated depression risk, pre-COVID-19, n (%) <sup>t</sup>	758 (13.8)	53 (12.9)	705 (13.9)	0.65

Elevated depression risk, post-COVID-19, n (%)	661 (12.1)	58 (14.2)	603 (11.9)	0.18
Time between pre- and post-COVID-19 depression measurements, weeks <sup>†</sup>	53.0 (51.0 - 55.1)	52.3 (50.0 - 54.6)	53.0 (51.1 - 53.3)	<0.001
Time elapsed from COVID-19 at post-COVID-19 depression assessment, weeks <sup>†</sup>	29.4 (15- 39.7)	22.7 (11.1 – 37.1)	30.7 (15.6 - 39.9)	<0.001

**Abbreviations:** BDI-II scores, Beck Depression Inventory-II; BMI, body mass index; COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019, MedDiet, Mediterranean diet; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination.

<sup>1</sup>Notes on scales: BDI-II Scores range between 0 and 63. Elevated depression risk is described as BDI-II scores  $\geq 14$ . MMSE Scores range between 0 and 30; the higher the scores greater the cognitive performance. Possible MedDiet scores range between 0 and 17. Higher MedDiet scores represent higher adherence to the Mediterranean diet.

Data are n (%) or median (IQR) for categorical and quantitative variables, respectively, unless specified <sup>#</sup> Data presented as median (IQR)). <sup>†</sup> Duration data presented as median (25<sup>th</sup> – 75<sup>th</sup> percentile) <sup>b</sup> Data from study baseline <sup>t</sup>Data from pre-COVID-19 measurement.

<sup>a</sup>P-values for comparisons between groups were tested using the Mann-Whitney test (owing to the skewed nature of the distribution) or  $\chi^2$ , as appropriate.

**Table 2.** Longitudinal association of COVID-19 status with post-infection depression assessments (BDI-II scores)<sup>a</sup> in the PREDIMED-Plus cohort ( $\beta$  [95%CI])

	Total (n=5,486)			Men (n = 2, 836)			Women (n = 2, 650)		
	$\beta^{\#}$	95% CI	P value	B <sup>#</sup>	95% CI	P value	B <sup>#</sup>	95% CI	P value
Unadjusted Crude Model	0.19	(-0.46 to 0.83)	0.57	- 0.20	(-0.91 to 0.52)	0.59	1.21	(0.13 to 2.30)	0.03
Model 1 <sup>b</sup>	0.70	(0.21 to 1.19)	0.01	0.07	(-0.44 to 0.59)	0.79	1.56	(0.66 to 2.46)	<0.01
Model 2	0.64	(0.14 to 1.14)	0.01	0.11	(-0.41 to 0.63)	0.67	1.40	(0.47 to 2.34)	<0.01
Model 3	0.65	(0.15 to 1.15)	0.01	0.13	(-0.39 to 0.65)	0.63	1.40	(0.45 to 2.34)	<0.01

**Abbreviations:** BDI-II scores, Beck Depression Inventory-II; COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019, MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination.

<sup>#</sup> $\beta$  (95% CI) was calculated using linear regression models.

<sup>a</sup> Depression assessment from the first scheduled follow-up visit after COVID-19 was used to calculate post-COVID-19 BDI-II scores.

<sup>b</sup>Sex is included as a predictor for the analysis of the total sample in Model 1. A stratified analysis by sex was conducted to determine differences, if any, in the impact of COVID-19 on depression measurements.

Linear regression model: exposure= COVID-19 status (Positive or negative); outcome: post-COVID-19 BDI-II score. Reference category: COVID-19-negative status.

Crude model only uses COVID-19 status (positive or negative) as the predictor variable in the model.

**\*Model 1:** Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, time since infection for post-COVID-19 depression assessments.

**\*Model 2:** Model 1, additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition (MMSE scores).

**\*Model 3:** Model 2, additionally adjusted for adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption.

**Table 3.** Longitudinal association between COVID-19 status and post-infection elevated depression risk in the PREDIMED-Plus cohort (OR [95%CI])

Depressive symptomatology	Total (n=5,486)			Men (n = 2, 836)			Women (n = 2, 650)		
	OR <sup>#</sup>	95% CI	P value	OR <sup>#</sup>	95% CI	P value	OR <sup>#</sup>	95% CI	P value
Unadjusted Crude Model	1.22	(0.91 to 1.63)	0.18	1.11	(0.68 to 1.81)	0.69	1.47	(1.01 to 2.13)	0.04
Model 1 <sup>b</sup>	1.67	(1.19 to 2.34)	<0.01	1.40	(0.78 to 2.50)	0.26	1.92	(1.26 to 2.95)	<0.01
Model 2	1.59	(1.11 to 2.27)	0.01	1.36	(0.74 to 2.49)	0.32	1.82	(1.16 to 2.84)	<0.01
Model 3	1.62	(1.13 to 2.30)	<0.01	1.38	(0.76 to 2.53)	0.30	1.83	(1.17 to 2.87)	<0.01

**Abbreviations:** BDI-II scores, Beck Depression Inventory-II; COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019, MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination.

<sup>#</sup>OR: Odds Ratio (95% CI) was calculated using logistic regression models.

<sup>a</sup> Elevated depression risk is defined as BDI-II score  $\geq 14$ , absence of elevated depression risk as BDI-II score  $<14$ . Depression assessment from the first scheduled follow-up visit after the COVID-19 infection was used to categorise post-COVID-19 depressive symptomatology.

<sup>b</sup> Sex included as a predictor for the analysis of the total sample in Model 1. A stratified analysis by sex was conducted to determine differences, if any, in the impact of COVID-19 on depression measurements.

Logistical regression model: Exposure= COVID-19 status (positive or negative);

Outcome = Elevated depression risk post-COVID-19. Reference category: COVID-19-negative status.

**\*Model 1:** Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, duration post-COVID-19 measurements.

**\*Model 2:** Model 1, additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition (MMSE scores).

**\*Model 3:** Model 2, additionally adjusted for adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption.

**Table 4.** Longitudinal association between COVID-19 status and depressive symptomatology in the PREDIMED-Plus cohort, stratified by depression risk at pre-COVID-19 assessment (OR<sup>#</sup> or  $\beta^{\delta}$  coefficients and 95% CI)

	Elevated depression risk at pre-COVID-19 visit (n = 758)			Minimal risk at pre- COVID-19 visit (n = 4,728)		
	Effect size	95% CI	P value	Effect size	95% CI	P value
<b>Post COVID BDI-II scores (<math>\beta</math> [95%CI])<sup>#</sup></b>						
Unadjusted Crude Model	-0.10	(-2.47 to 2.26)	0.93	0.33	(-0.19 to 0.86)	0.21
Model 1	0.27	(-1.92 to 2.45)	0.81	0.53	(-0.02 to 1.08)	0.06
Model 2	-0.06	(- 2.37 to 2.25)	0.96	0.48	(-0.08 to 1.03)	0.09
Model 3	0.17	(- 2.78 to 2.52)	0.90	0.50	( -0.05 to 1.05)	0.08
<b>Depressive symptomatology post-COVID19 (OR [95%CI])<sup>δ</sup></b>						
Unadjusted Crude Model	0.97	(0.56 to 1.70)	0.92	1.61	(1.09 to 2.36)	0.02
Model 1	1.00	(0.56 to 1.79)	1.00	1.78	(1.19 to 2.65)	<0.01
Model 2	0.87	(0.47 to 1.61)	0.66	1.73	(1.15 to 2.60)	<0.01
Model 3	0.92	(0.49 to 1.72)	0.78	1.74	(1.16 to 2.62)	<0.01

**Abbreviations:** BDI-II scores, Beck Depression Inventory-II, COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019, MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination.

Elevated depression risk is defined as BDI-II score  $\geq 14$ , minimal depression risk as BDI-II score  $< 14$ . Depression assessment from the first scheduled follow-up visit after the COVID-19 infection was used to evaluate post-COVID-19 depressive symptomatology.

<sup>#</sup> $\beta$  coefficient (95% CI) was calculated using linear regression models. Exposure= COVID-19 status (positive or negative); Outcome: Post-COVID-19 BDI-II scores.

<sup>δ</sup>OR: Odds Ratio (95% CI) was calculated using logistic regression models. Exposure= COVID-19 status (positive or negative); Outcome = Elevated depressive risk post-COVID-19 (yes/no).

Reference category: COVID-19-negative status.

**\*Model 1:** Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, time since infection for post-COVID-19 depression assessments.

**\*Model 2:** Model 1, additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition (MMSE scores)

**\*Model 3:** Model 2, additionally adjusted for adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption.

# Coronavirus disease 2019 is associated with long-term depressive symptoms in Spanish older adults with overweight/obesity and metabolic syndrome

## Supplementary Methods

### PREDIMED-Plus Participants

In brief, 23 centres across Spain recruited participants from several primary healthcare facilities affiliated with the National Health System. Candidates were community-dwelling adults (men aged 55–75y; women aged 60–75y). Participants were eligible for study enrolment if they were overweight or obese (body mass index [BMI] between 27 and 40 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) and satisfied a minimum of three criteria for metabolic syndrome (Alberti et al., 2009). At enrolment, participants were free from CVD. Further inclusion and exclusion criteria are detailed in the protocol (Martínez-González et al., 2019) and accessible at <http://predimedplus.com/>.

### Ascertainment of Variables

#### 1. *Exposure: SARS-CoV-2 infection*

A COVID-19 event (SARS-CoV-2 infection) was confirmed as per the following definitions: a) Confirmed COVID-19 was defined as a positive response to any one of the following tests: PCR SARS-CoV-2 (acute infection), Ag SARS-CoV-2 (acute infection), Ab SARS-CoV-2, total or IgG (past infection) and b) Probable COVID-19 infection was defined as Ab SARS-CoV-2, IgM +

without a subsequent increase in IgG (IgG -) or a clinical presentation compatible diagnosis of COVID-19 by an attending physician treating COVID-19, without analytical testing at or after the acute moment. COVID-19 events adjudicated and confirmed until December 31st, 2021, were used in this analysis. Overall, 409 participants were confirmed COVID-19 cases and 1 participant was a probable case of COVID-19. Owing to only one of the COVID-19 positive cases designated as probable, both confirmed and probable cases of COVID-19 were pooled for this analysis as COVID-19 positive. Participants who did not have a confirmed or probable positive diagnosis of SARS-CoV-2 infection were considered COVID-19 negative, i.e., they were assumed to have not experienced the infection

## *2. Serology Analysis in a sub-sample for supplementary analysis*

Participants were first tested for SARS-CoV-2 IgG using SARS-CoV-2 IgG ELISA Kit – (Enzo Biochem, New York, USA) (sensitivity: 100% and specificity: 96.5%) by duplicate. Participants who tested negative for the SARS-CoV-2 IgG were confirmed as COVID-19 negative.

Participants whose serum tested positive in the above test were submitted to a second test using Technozym anti-SARS-CoV-2 RBD IgG test kit (Diapharma, West Chester, USA) (sensitivity: 99.3% and specificity: 100%). Those testing negative in the second test by duplicate were classified as COVID-19 negative and others were confirmed as COVID-19 positive.

## *Assessment of confounder variables*

PREDIMED-Plus has a scheduled collection of data that facilitates adjustments for potentially relevant confounders. Sociodemographic data (age, sex, educational level, marital status) and lifestyle information including physical activity (Molina et al., 2017), alcohol consumption and health status (e.g. presence or treatment for diabetes, hypercholesterolemia) were self-reported by the participants at face-to-face interviews at the baseline visit of the PREDIMED-

Plus Trial and during the annual follow-ups. Anthropometric data were collected yearly, and BMI was calculated as weight in kg divided by the square of height in m<sup>2</sup>. Adherence to an energy-reduced Mediterranean diet was assessed during annual visits by using a validated 17-item energy-restricted Mediterranean Adherence Screener (er-MEDAS)(Schröder et al., 2021). Cognitive assessments were performed using a Spanish-validated version of the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) questionnaire, commonly used as a cognitive screening test(Blesa, 2001; Folstein et al., 1975; Lobo et al., 2002). A higher MMSE score indicates better cognitive performance.

## Statistical Analysis

### *1. Preliminary cross-sectional exploration*

A preliminary cross-sectional exploration of the data at the pre-COVID-19 visit was undertaken, descriptive statistics for continuous variables are shown as the median and interquartile range (IQR), and categorical data are displayed as count and percentages. To compare the pre-Covid-19 characteristics of COVID-19 negative and positive participants, Chi-square test and Mann-Whitney U test (owing to the skewed nature of the distribution) were used, as appropriate.

### *2. Models used for primary analysis*

Model 1 adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, and time since COVID-19 for depression assessments as confounders. Model 2 additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity (BMI  $\geq$  30 kg/m<sup>2</sup>), type 2 diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and cognitive performance on recruitment to the trial. Model 3, also adjusted for lifestyle factors including scores of adherence to the Mediterranean diet, total physical activity levels, smoking status and alcohol consumption (Table 2). Alcohol consumption was used as a quadratic term in the model to

accommodate for a non-linear relationship with the outcome. All analyses were conducted with robust estimates of the variance to correct for intra-cluster correlation. This procedure was used to control for the allocation of household members into the same intervention group without randomization.

### *3. Secondary Analysis*

A secondary analysis was performed with post-COVID-19 elevated depression risk as a binary outcome using BDI-II cut-offs of  $\geq 14$  (Table 3). Logistic regression was used to calculate Odds Ratios (ORs) and their 95% confidence intervals (CIs), considering the COVID-19 negative status as the reference category. The results were adjusted for the same confounding factors noted above, using the three same models developed for the main linear regression analysis.

### *4. Supplementary Analysis*

#### *a. Evaluation of minimal adjustment*

In order to evaluate the effect of over-adjustments, a directed acyclic graph (DAG) was modelled (Supplementary Figure S2) based on existing literature (Textor et al., 2016). A minimal adjustment set to quantify the total direct effect of COVID-19 on depression measures included only pre-COVID-19 depression scores. Minimal linear and logistic regression models were accordingly tested as supplementary analysis (Supplementary analysis 1: Supplementary Table S1).

#### *b. Lower BDI-II cut off to identify elevated depression risk*

Evaluating the use of BDI-II in Spain over 50 years, Sanchez (2013) proposed that for the non-institutionalised Spanish population, a cut-off  $\geq 12$  had an adequate specificity index and diagnostic concordance and could detect major depressive episodes in 93% of individuals (Sanz Fernández, 2013). Thus, a supplementary analysis using a cut-off  $\geq 12$  was also conducted to categorise the outcome variable, namely the elevated risk of depression post-COVID-19. An

additional supplementary logistic regression analysis was undertaken using a BDI-II score  $\geq 12$  as the cut-off for elevated depression risk (Supplementary analysis 2: Supplementary Table S1).

### c. Evaluation of effect modification

Next, in order to assess the possible effect modification of association by potential confounders (age group [ $\leq 70$  or  $< 70$  years], sex, intervention group, disease conditions and time elapsed post-COVID-19), product-terms were introduced in the different multivariable models. P-values for interaction were calculated with the likelihood ratio test and coefficient plots were generated to visualize the trends by strata (Supplementary Figure S2). Sub-analyses that stratified the results by factors that showed significant interaction (sex (Tables 2, 3)), presence of pre-COVID-19 high depression risk (Table 4) and time elapsed post-COVID-19 during depression assessments (Supplementary Table S2) were undertaken to identify strata specific trends. Post-estimation was performed for the final model to obtain predicted post-COVID-19 BDI-II scores. These were generated for the strata that showed significant interactions (Supplementary Figure S4). Finally, supplementary linear and logistic analyses were conducted in the sub-sample with serology results to ascertain COVID-19 status (Supplementary Table S3).

## References

- Sanz Fernández, J. (2013). *50 years of the Beck Depression Inventory: Recommendations for using the Spanish adaptation of the BDI-II in clinical practice* [Info:eu-repo/semantics/article]. Consejo General de la Psicología de España. <https://eprints.ucm.es/id/eprint/36450/>
- Textor, J., van der Zander, B., Gilthorpe, M. S., Liškiewicz, M., & Ellison, G. T. (2016). Robust causal inference using directed acyclic graphs: The R package 'dagitty.' *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 45(6), 1887–1894. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyw341>



**Supplementary Table S1:** Longitudinal association of COVID-19 status with depressive symptomatology in the PREDIMED-Plus cohort - Results of supplementary analysis using minimal adjustment models and BDI-II  $\geq 12$  to describe elevated depression risk

	Effect Size#	95% CI	P value
<b>Supplementary analysis 1</b>			
Minimal adjustment Model A ( $\beta$ [95%CI]) #	0.57	(0.07 to 1.07)	0.03
Minimal adjustment Model B (OR [95%CI]) #	1.59	(1.13 to 2.19)	<0.01
<b>Supplementary analysis 2</b>			
Unadjusted Crude Model (OR [95%CI]) #	1.22	(0.95 to 1.57)	0.12
Model 1	1.60	(1.19 to 2.15)	<0.01
Model 2	1.57	(1.16 to 2.13)	<0.01
Model 3	1.59	(1.17 to 2.15)	<0.01

**Abbreviations:** BDI-II scores, Beck Depression Inventory-II; COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019, MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination

#Reference category for all analysis: COVID-19 negative status

**Supplementary analysis 1:** Uses a minimal adjustment set identified using directed acyclic graphs (supplementary figure 2)

Minimal adjustment model A uses linear regression with Post BDI-II scores as the outcome, COVID-19 infection as the exposure, adjusting for BDI-II scores pre-COVID-19. Effect size presented as  $\beta$  coefficients (95% CI).

Minimal adjustment model B uses logistic regression with post-COVID-19 elevated depression risk (BDI-II  $\geq 14$ ) as the outcome, COVID-19 status as exposure, adjusting for BDI-II scores pre-COVID-19. Effect size presented as Odds ratio (OR and 95% CI).

**Supplementary analysis 2:** Uses logistic regression with post-COVID-19 elevated depression risk (BDI-II  $\geq 12$ ) as the outcome, COVID-19 status as exposure. Effect size presented as Odds ratio (OR and 95% CI).

Crude model only uses COVID-19 status (Positive or negative) as the predictor variable in the model

**\*Model 1:** Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, time since infection for post-COVID-19 depression assessments

**\*Model 2:** Model 1, additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition (MMSE scores)

**\*Model 3:** Model 2, additionally adjusted for adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption

**Supplementary Table S2:** Longitudinal association of COVID-19 status with depressive symptomatology in the PREDIMED-Plus cohort, stratified by time of post-COVID-19 depression assessment

	Post-COVID-19 assessment ≤ 12 weeks (n = 1,025)		Post-COVID-19 assessment > 12 weeks (n = 4,461)	
	Effect size	95% CI	P value	95% CI
<b>Post COVID BDI-II scores (β [95%CI]) #</b>				
Unadjusted	-0.10	(-1.45 to 1.25)	0.88	(-0.51 to 0.96)
Crude Model				
Model 1	0.31	(-0.83 to 1.45)	0.60	(0.25 to 1.32)
Model 2	0.38	(- 0.79 to 1.56)	0.52	(0.15 to 1.24)
Model 3	0.41	(- 0.77 to 1.58)	0.50	(0.17 to 1.25)
<b>Elevated depression risk symptomatology Post-COVID19 (OR [95%CI]) δ</b>				
Unadjusted	1.33	(0.77 to 2.82)	0.30	(0.82 to 1.64)
Crude Model				
Model 1	1.65	(0.81 to 3.35)	0.17	(1.13 to 2.43)
Model 2	1.74	(0.85 to 3.59)	0.13	(1.02 to 2.30)
Model 3	1.67	(0.82 to 3.43)	0.16	(1.04 to 2.34)

#β coefficient (95% CI) was calculated using linear regression models. Exposure= COVID-19 status (Positive or negative); Outcome: Post COVID BDI-II scores

δOR: Odds Ratio (95% CI) was calculated using logistic regression models. Exposure= COVID-19 status (Positive or negative); Outcome: elevated depression risk symptomatology Post COVID-19 (yes/no).

Elevated depression risk symptomatology is defined as BDI-II score ≥ 14, absence of elevated depression risk symptomatology as BDI-II score < 14. Depression assessment from the first

scheduled follow-up visit after the COVID-19 infection was used to evaluate post-COVID-19 depressive symptomatology

Reference category: COVID-19 negative status.

**\*Model 1:** Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, time since infection for post-COVID-19 depression assessments

**\*Model 2:** Model 1, additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition (MMSE scores)

**\*Model 3:** Model 2, additionally adjusted for adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption

**Supplementary Table S3:** Longitudinal association of COVID-19 (status determined using serology) with depressive symptomatology assessments in the sub-study of PREDIMED-Plus cohort (beta [95%CI] or OR [95%CI], n = 3,801)

<b>Supplementary Analysis 1</b>			
	B $\beta$	95% CI	P value
Crude Model	0.64	(-0.19 to 1.48)	0.13
Model 1a	0.92	(0.23 to 1.61)	<0.01
Model 2	0.95	(0.26 to 1.65)	<0.01
Model 3	0.95	(0.26 to 1.64)	<0.01
Minimal adjustment	1.00	(0.37 to 1.62)	<0.01
<b>Supplementary Analysis 2</b>			
	OR $\delta$	95% CI	P value
Crude Model	1.04	(0.70 to 1.54)	0.85
Model 1 a	1.27	(0.79 to 2.05)	0.33
Model 2	1.29	(0.80 to 2.08)	0.30
Model 3	1.29	(0.79 to 2.08)	0.31
Minimal adjustment	1.33	(0.84 to 2.10)	0.22

$\beta$  coefficient (95% CI) was calculated using linear regression models. Exposure: COVID-19 status (Positive or negative); Outcome: Post-COVID-19 BDI-II scores

$\delta$ OR: Odds Ratio and (95% CI) were calculated using logistic regression models. Exposure: COVID-19 status (Positive or negative); Outcome: Elevated depression risk symptomatology Post

COVID-19 (yes/no). Elevated depression risk is defined as BDI-II score  $\geq$  14, absence of elevated depression risk as BDI-II score < 14. Depression assessment from the first scheduled follow-up visit after the COVID-19 infection was used to evaluate post-COVID-19 depressive symptomatology

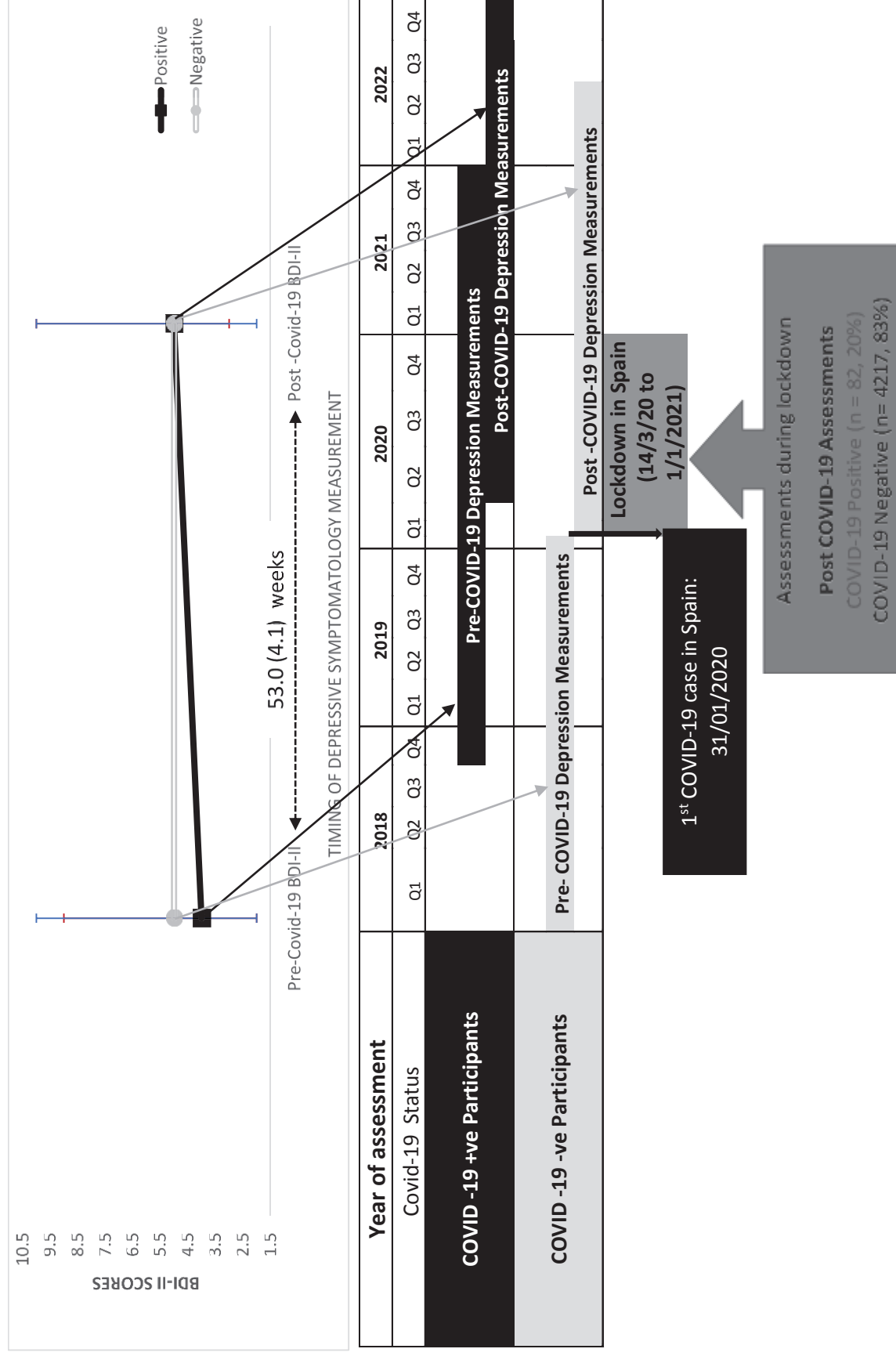
Reference category: COVID-19 negative status.

**\*Model 1:** Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre size, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, time since infection for post-COVID-19 depression assessments

**\*Model 2:** Model 1, additionally adjusted for the presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition (MMSE scores)

**\*Model 3:** Model 2, additionally adjusted for adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption

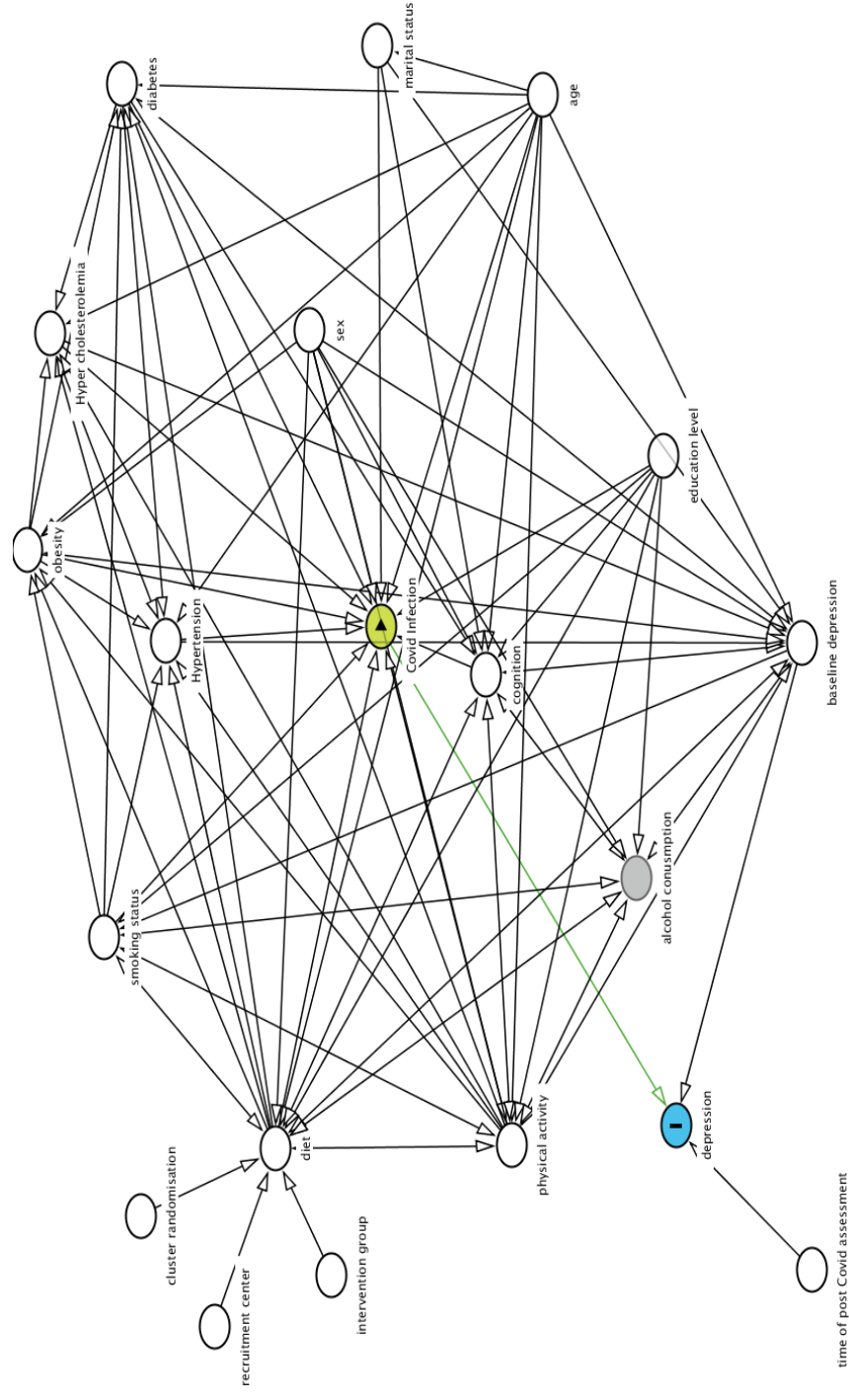
Minimal adjustment model adjusts only for BDI-II scores pre-COVID-19



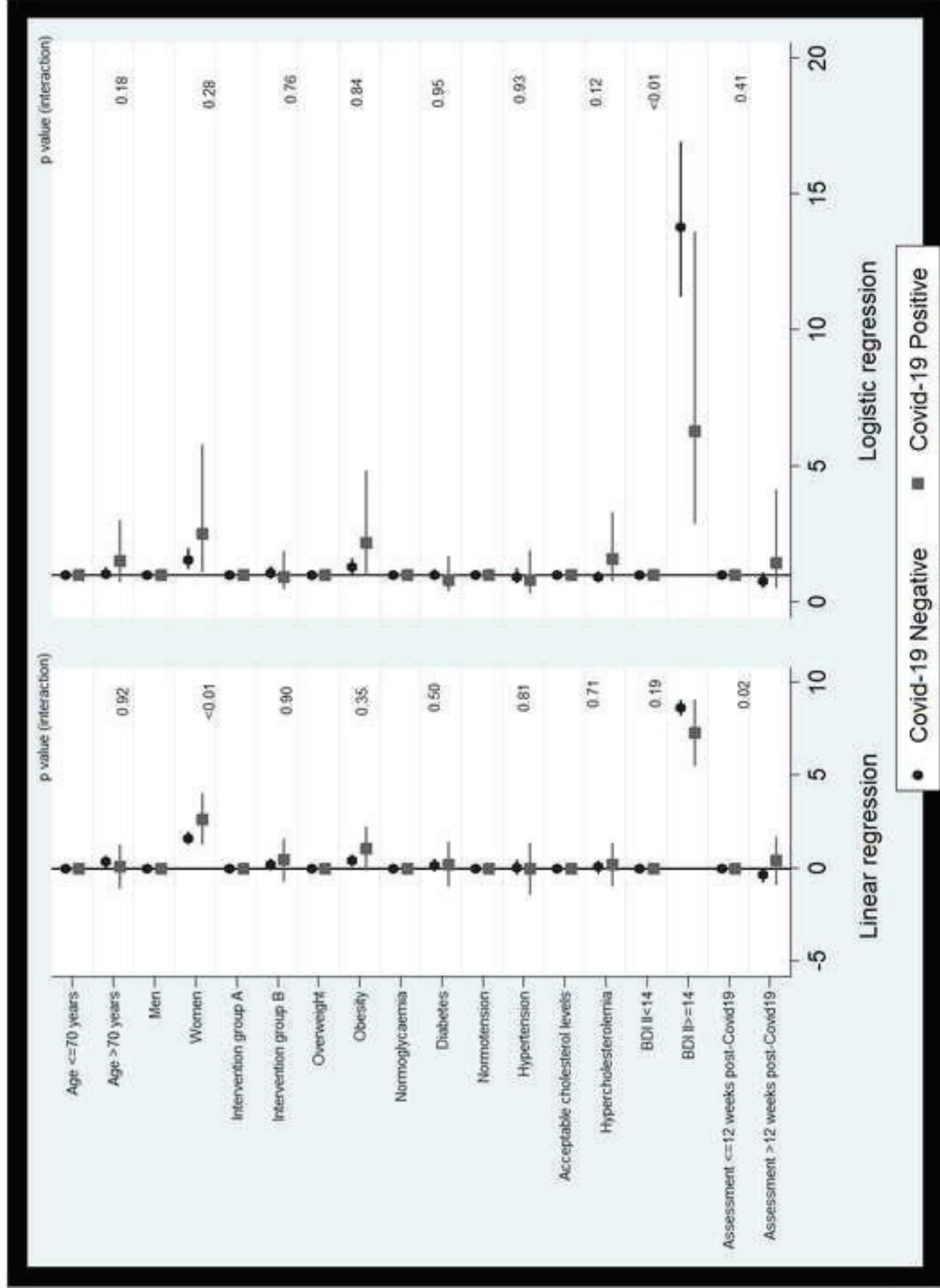
Supplementary Figure S1: Timing of pre- and post-COVID-19 depression assessments in the participants

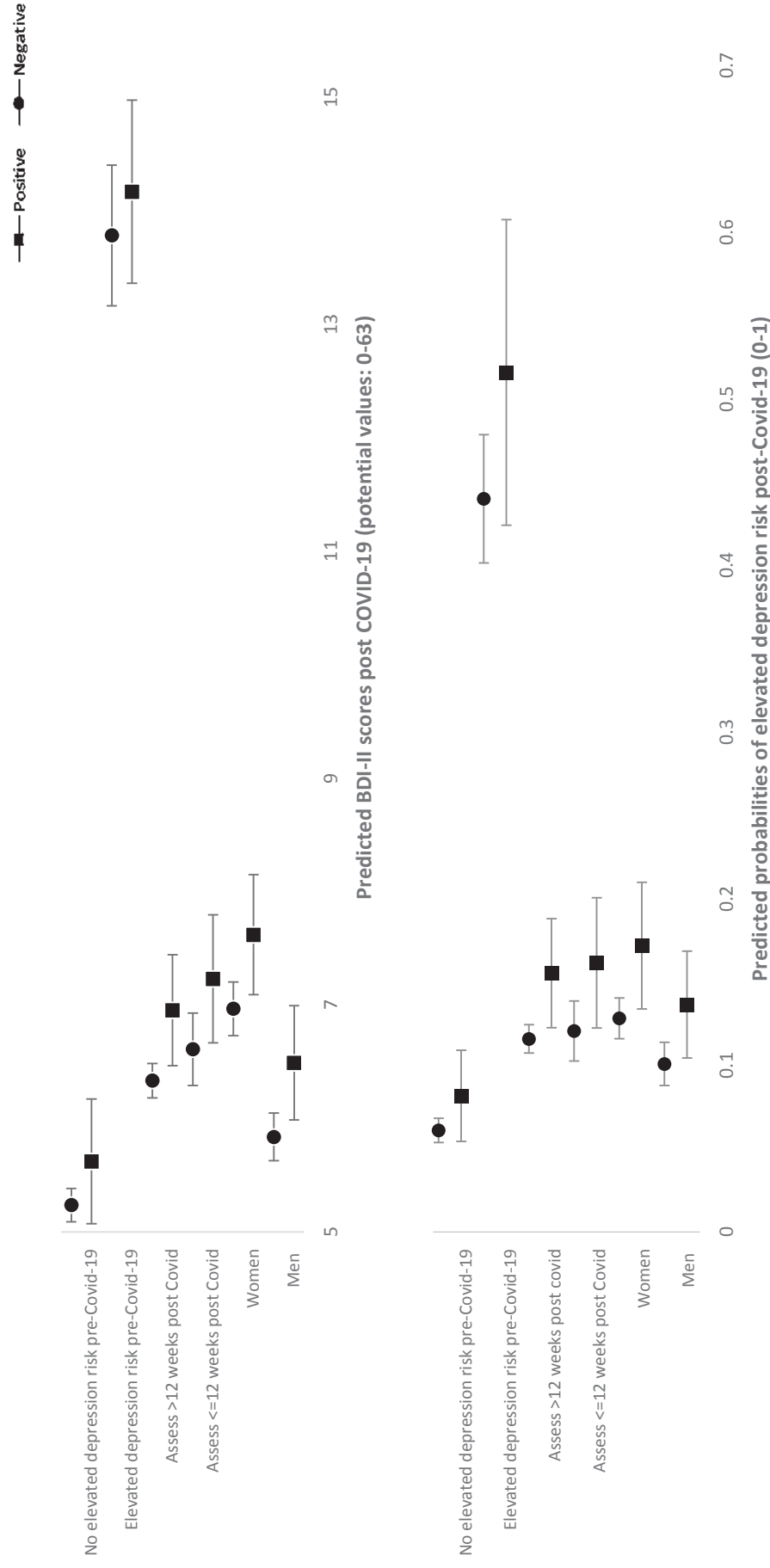
**Legend:** The figure shows the timing of pre- and post-COVID-19 depression measurements in the participants. The calendar period of these measurements is shown in the Gantt chart below. Q1-Q4 represents the four quarters of the year. The shaded regions depict the pre and post-COVID-19 time of assessments of depressive assessments of the participants. Pre-COVID-19 measurements in COVID-19 negative participants are measured before the first case of COVID-19 was reported in Spain. In Covid-19 positive participants, Pre-COVID-19 measurements are those from before the date of Covid-19 diagnosis. Post-COVID-19 measurements are those obtained in the subsequent follow-up. Red bars show the timing of assessment in the COVID-19 positive and blue bars in COVID-19 negative participants. The orange bar below shows the timing and duration of the lockdown in Spain as a public health measure to prevent the spread of COVID-19.

**Explanatory Note:** 20% of post-COVID-19 assessments for the COVID-19 positive participants and 83% of the post-COVID-19 assessments for the COVID-19 negative participants occurred during the lockdown in Spain (14/3/20 to 1/1/2021). Assuming that the COVID-19 lockdown could have increased the BDI-II scores, it is expected that the current estimates for the impact of COVID-19 obtained in this analysis are attenuated since more COVID-19 negative participants had their post-COVID-19 assessments performed during this time.



**Supplementary Figure S2: Directed acyclic graph to identify minimal adjustments to evaluate the impact of COVID-19 on depression measures in PREDIMED-Plus participants**





**Supplementary Figure S4.** Predicted post-COVID-19 BDI-II scores and probabilities of elevated depression risk post-COVID-19 in stratified regression analysis using fully adjusted models

**Legend:** BDI-II, Beck Depression Inventory-II, COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019. Predicted post-COVID-19 BDI-II was calculated using linear regression; predicted probabilities for depressive symptomatology post-COVID-19 were calculated using logistic regression. Both analyses show the fully adjusted models (Adjusted for age, sex, education, marital status, intervention group, cluster randomisation, recruitment centre, pre-COVID-19 BDI-II scores, time since infection for post-COVID-19 depression assessments, presence of obesity, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and baseline cognition, adherence to Mediterranean diet scores, smoking status, physical activity, and alcohol consumption. Red square markers indicate COVID-19-positive status and blue dots indicate COVID-19-negative status within the strata. Error bars indicate 95% CI. BDI-II scores have a potential range between 0 and 63 and predicted probabilities between 0 and 1.