OPEN

The impact of mild behavioral impairment on the prognosis of geriatric depression: preliminary results

Camilla Elefante^a, Giulio Emilio Brancati^a, Gabriele Pistolesi^a, Salvatore Amadori^a, Samuele Torrigiani^a, Filippo Baldacci^b, Roberto Ceravolo^b, Zahinoor Ismail^{c,d}, Lorenzo Lattanzi^e and Giulio Perugi^{a,f}

See related paper on page 330

Our study aimed to examine how the presence of Mild Behavioral Impairment (MBI) symptoms influenced the outcome of late-life depression (LLD). Twenty-nine elderly (≥ 60 years) depressive patients, including eleven (37.9%) with MBI, were recruited and followed-up on average for 33.41 ± 8.24 weeks. Psychiatric symptoms severity and global functioning were assessed, respectively, using the Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale (BPRS) and the Global Assessment of Functioning (GAF) scale. BPRS total score significantly decreased from baseline to follow-up (P < 0.001, d = 1.33). The presence of MBI had no significant effect on mood and cognitive symptoms improvement. On the contrary, while a significant increase in GAF score was observed in patients without MBI (P = 0.001, d = 1.01), no significant improvement of global functioning was detected in those with MBI (P = 0.154, d = 0.34) after 6-month follow-up. The presence of MBI in patients with LLD may negatively

Introduction

Late-life depression (LLD) represents a primary public health problem. The population is growing older, so the elderly with psychiatric disorders, including depression, will increase both in absolute number and in proportion (United Nations, 2019). Depression in late life has disabling consequences and leads to significant familiar and economic burden (Zivin *et al.*, 2013). Because of the clinical and pathogenetic heterogeneity as well as the common overlap with multiple comorbid medical and psychiatric conditions (Leyhe *et al.*, 2017), the treatment of LLD is challenging and its prognosis is highly variable.

LLD is commonly associated with cognitive impairment and several overlapping complex pathophysiological substrates might partly explain the frequent co-occurrence of the two conditions (i.e. vascular risk factors, secretion of corticosteroid hormones, neuroinflammation, neurotrophin deficiency) (Linnemann and Lang, 2020). Whether a neurodegenerative process is present or not seems to

0268-1315 Copyright © 2023 The Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc.

affect long-term outcome, slowing or preventing functional improvement. *Int Clin Psychopharmacol* 39: 305–312 Copyright © 2023 The Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc.

International Clinical Psychopharmacology 2024, 39:305-312

Keywords: aging, behavioral symptoms, cognitive dysfunction, depression, neuropsychiatry

^aPsychiatry Unit, Department of Clinical and Experimental Medicine, University of Pisa, ^bNeurology Unit, Department of Clinical and Experimental Medicine, University of Pisa, Pisa, Italy, ^cDepartments of Psychiatry, Clinical Neurosciences, Community Health Sciences, and Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Hotchkiss Brain Institute & O'Brien Institute for Public Health, University of Calgary, Calgary, Alberta, Canada, ^dCollege of Health and Medicine, University of Exeter, Exeter, UK, ^cPsychiatry Unit, Azienda Ospedaliero-Universitaria Pisana and ^fG. De Lisio Institute of Behavioral Sciences, Pisa, Italy

Correspondence to Prof. Giulio Perugi, Department of Clinical and Experimental Medicine, University of Pisa, Via Roma 67, 56100, Pisa, Italy Tel: +39 050 992965; fax: +39 050 2219775; e-mail: giulio.perugi@med.unipi.it

Received 31 August 2023 Accepted 28 September 2023.

have a substantial impact on the treatment outcome of LLD. Though antidepressant drugs typically demonstrated a limited effectiveness in LLD (Morimoto *et al.*, 2015), a particularly poor response has been shown in LLD patients who have structural brain abnormalities and cognitive impairment (Alexopoulos *et al.*, 2000; Sheline *et al.*, 2012; Kalayam *et al.*, 1999).

Extensive literature supports the existence of a vascular depression diagnostic subtype characterized by white matter hyperintensities (WMHs), cognitive dysfunction (specifically executive dysfunction) and poor response to antidepressant therapy (Alexopoulos et al., 1997; Taylor et al., 2013; Elefante et al., 2022; Herrmann et al., 2008). For instance, it has been reported that executive dysfunctions without memory impairment conferred a higher risk of relapse and recurrence to patients with LLD treated with tricyclic antidepressants (Alexopoulos et al., 2000). The same research group also observed that the presence of WMHs in cortico-striato-limbic networks were associated with treatment resistance to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) in patients with LLD (Alexopoulos et al., 2008). More recently, significant associations between late life depressive symptoms and cerebral amyloid angiopathy (Smith et al., 2021), and between global DOI: 10.1097/YIC.000000000000521

This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 (CCBY), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

neuropsychiatric symptom (NPS) burden and greater WMH volume (Miao *et al.*, 2021b) have been reported.

The nature of the relationship between LLD and cognitive impairment is not completely understood (Byers and Yaffe, 2011). Some authors consider LLD merely as a risk factor for dementia, whereas others suggested that the onset of depressive symptoms in late life may be a disease marker, reflecting a prodromal phase of neurodegenerative processes (Diniz *et al.*, 2013; Cherbuin *et al.*, 2015; Kessing 2012).

Along with the rising interest in the dementia prodromal stages, several studies focused on identifying NPS in elderly patients as potential markers of later neurodegeneration (Brodaty *et al.*, 2012; Geda *et al.*, 2014; Masters *et al.*, 2015). NPS include mood disorders, anxiety, psychosis, neurovegetative disorders (sleep and appetite disturbances) and behavioral alterations such as agitation and aggression (Lyketsos *et al.*, 2011).

Although NPS are considered a predominant clinical manifestation of the behavioral-variant frontotemporal dementia and the frontal variant of Alzheimer's disease (AD), these symptoms are actually almost ubiquitous in all dementia subtypes. In fact, NPS have been observed in 97% of AD patients in the first five years after diagnosis (Steinberg et al., 2010) and can also be present in subjects with Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI) and in individuals without cognitive deficits (Feldman et al., 2004). The onset of NPS in cognitively normal patients during old age may represent an early manifestation of neurodegeneration and may indicate progression along the continuum of neurodegenerative pathology (Masters et al., 2015; Peters et al., 2015). Understanding whether NPS may allow an early identification of neurodegenerative processes might help potentially slow down cognitive decline. In fact, both symptomatic agents and dementia disease-modifying therapies (available and under study) address the very early stages of the illness (Beshir et al., 2022).

Recently, the construct of Mild Behavioral Impairment (MBI) was formulated to help identify individuals at greater risk of cognitive decline (Ismail *et al.*, 2016). MBI refers to a late-onset neurobehavioral syndrome in which NPS, lasting at least 6 months and not better identified by other psychiatric disorders, could represent early markers of neurodegenerative diseases. A change in the patient's behavior that is visible to others and a significant impairment in interpersonal, social or occupational functioning is required for the identification of MBI. Of note, the alterations in functioning must be attributable to NPS and not to cognitive symptoms or to other intercurrent psychiatric disorders. MCI may be present, but dementia is considered an exclusion criterion and the patient's independence must be maintained with minimal help or assistance.

MBI can be evaluated through the MBI-checklist (MBI-C), a standardized clinical assessment tool exploring 5 domains (reduction of drive or motivation, affective dysregulation, impulse dyscontrol, social inappropriateness, and abnormal perception or thought content) (Ismail *et al.*, 2017).

In a recent study in dementia-free memory clinic patients, MBI-C impulse dyscontrol and motivation domains demonstrated associations with medial temporal lobe atrophy, showing that NPS can be present in the absence of frontal pathology (Matuskova *et al.*, 2021). As the medial temporal lobes are affected early in AD, the use of MBI-C might have utility for early recognition of people at risk. The neurodegenerative nature of MBI has been confirmed by several studies in dementia-free patients, demonstrating associations with β -amyloid (Lussier *et al.*, 2020; Miao *et al.*, 2021a), phospho-tau (Johansson *et al.*, 2021; Ghahremani *et al.*, 2022), gray and white matter atrophy (Gill *et al.*, 2021), and neurofilament light chain, a validated biomarker of axonal damage and neurodegeneration (Naude *et al.*, 2020).

Although MBI is considered a promising construct for neurobiological research, the relationships between MBI and late-life psychiatric disorders are yet to be fully established (Ismail et al., 2018). In a cross-sectional study on individuals aged ≥50 years referred to our psychogeriatric service, we found that MBI often co-occurred with psychiatric conditions such as mood and anxiety disorders. In particular, we observed that MBI patients have a higher age at the onset of psychiatric symptoms, especially depression, and greater motor retardation and apathy with respect to patients without MBI (Elefante et al., 2023). However, no studies have been conducted on the clinical implications of the presence of MBI in the outcome of major psychiatric disorders. Specifically, we hypothesize that the occurrence of symptoms belonging to MBI domains may have an impact on the outcome of patients treated for LLD. In a previous analysis, we observed that the presence of MBI was associated with less improvement of functioning, but not symptom severity, after at least 2 months of follow-up in 25 patients treated for LLD (Elefante et al., 2022). Since the lack of short-term improvement may be indicative either of a longer delay in the recovery process or of persistent functional deficits, in this preliminary study, we aimed to assess whether changes in symptoms and functioning may be differentially observed, depending on the MBI status, in LLD patients followed over at least 6 months.

Methods

Participants

Participants were enrolled among patients attending the psychogeriatric outpatient service of the Psychiatry Unit 2 at Pisa University Hospital (Italy) between June 2020 and March 2022, according to the following inclusion criteria: 1) age ≥ 60 years; 2) diagnosis of current depressive episode according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-5) (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Patients diagnosed with

dementia, Parkinson's disease or other neurodegenerative parkinsonism were excluded. 44 subjects were recruited, of which 29 had been followed-up for at least 6 months (median [weeks] = 32, range = 26–62, interquartile range = 28–35; mean \pm SD = 33.41 \pm 8.24) and were included in this study. 15 patients were lost at follow-up after 6 months (attrition rate = 34.1%): 7 had never a follow-up visit, the latter 8 had follow-up assessments on average up to 15.12 \pm 9.17 weeks (median = 19, range = 3–24, interquartile range = 5.5–23). All subjects provided written, informed consent for data collection to be analyzed and presented anonymously in aggregate form. The study was carried out in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The protocol was approved by the Ethical Committee of the University of Pisa (N. 22537_Perugi).

Assessment

All patients were evaluated by psychiatric trainees with at least 2 years of experience in the field of psychogeriatrics, under senior psychiatrist supervision. Educational history, marital status, family history of psychiatric and neurodegenerative conditions, medical comorbidity (including MCI), current and lifetime psychiatric conditions according to DSM-5 criteria and course features were all investigated at baseline (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). The Clinical Global Impression - Severity scale (CGI-S) was used as a proxy of psychiatric illness severity according to clinician's judgement at baseline (Guy, 1976). The Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale, Extended Version (BPRS) and the Global Assessment of Functioning (GAF) scale were used, respectively, to rate symptoms severity and functioning level, both at baseline and at each follow-up assessment (Ventura et al., 1993; Jones et al., 1995). BPRS subscales were derived according to the model proposed by Velligan and colleagues (Velligan et al., 2005). Moreover, according to our usual clinical routine, Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) was also administered (Folstein et al., 1975), whenever possible, at baseline and at follow-up approximately every 4 to 6 months to monitor cognitive impairments.

The presence of MBI was explored according to a multi-step protocol. First, MBI-C interview was administered in person to the patient and the patient's caregiver (Elefante et al., 2019). Given that all patients were also diagnosed with current depressive episode, specific MBI features such as the age of onset, severity, and qualitative pattern of NPSs were emphasized during the interview. For example, in comparison to psychiatric disorders identified by DSM-5, NPSs pertaining to MBI show distinct qualitative characteristics and a different course. Consistently with the MBI definition (Ismail et al., 2016), NPSs were rated as present only if they represented a clear change from the patient's usual behavior or personality, including during previous depressive episodes (i.e. new-onset symptoms), had a persistent course (≥ 6 months), and did not occur before the age of 50 years.

Thus, MBI criteria permit a distinction between DSM-5 mental disorders and late-onset psychiatric symptoms. As previously suggested (Mallo *et al.*, 2018; Kassam *et al.*, 2022), a cutoff of 6.5 (i.e. \geq 7) was used to identify patients screening positive for high level of NPS. MBI-C findings, clinical history and medical files of patients screening positive for MBI were then discussed with two senior psychiatrists (CE, LL) who reexamined the patient and provided a consensus for the presence of MBI.

Statistical analysis

All the analyses were performed using R Statistical Software (Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) in September 2022. Descriptive statistics were used to describe demographic and clinical characteristics of the sample. Comparative analyses of baseline variables between the groups were first conducted using tableone package. Continuous variables were compared using Student's *t*-test (or Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test), after normality checking using Shapiro-Wilk test. Pearson's chisquared test or, when appropriate, Fisher's exact test was used for comparison of categorical variables, with pairwise Fisher's exact test for post-hoc comparisons. Two-way mixed analysis of variance (ANOVA) from *rstatix* package was used to compare group changes in BPRS total score, BPRS Depression/Anxiety subscale according to Velligan and colleagues (Velligan et al., 2005), and GAF score from baseline to follow-up (Jones et al., 1995), including MBI diagnosis as a between-subjects factor and time (i.e. baseline vs. follow-up) as a within-subjects factor. To fix non-normality of residuals in the mixed ANOVA on BPRS total score, one extreme outlier (i.e. value exceeding the third quartile by three times the interquartile range) from the MBI group was removed from the sample. Pairwise one-sample Student's *t*-tests were used as post-hoc contrasts. Finally, since the normality of residuals assumption was not met for MMSE total scores, pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum tests were conducted to compare baseline and follow-up MMSE total scores within groups (paired tests) and MMSE total scores between groups at baseline and at follow-up (unpaired tests). Last observation carried forward method was used in cases where the MMSE total score was missing. Even though all patients' baseline MMSE scores have been included, 10 patients' endof-follow-up MMSE values were lacking. For 6 patients we replaced the end-of-follow-up MMSE score with the MMSE score of a visit between the baseline and the endof-follow-up. For 4 patients, instead, we replaced the end-of-follow-up MMSE score with the baseline MMSE score. Given the limited sample size and the exploratory nature of the analyses, a statistical significance threshold of P < 0.10 was set for all the analyses.

Results

Our sample was composed of 29 patients with a diagnosis of current depressive episode. Age ranged between 60

and 88 years, with a mean of 74.21 ± 7.93 years (median = 74, interquartile range = 69-80). Almost two-thirds of patients were female (N = 18, 62.1%) and most were married (N = 15, 51.7%) or widowed (N = 10, 34.5%) (Table 1). Recurrent major depressive disorder, bipolar disorder type 1 and bipolar disorder type 2 were equally represented, with 7 patients (24.1%) being affected by each. Four subjects were at their first depressive episode (13.8%), while the latter four were diagnosed with cyclothymic disorder and major depressive episodes (N = 2, 6.9%) or with other specified bipolar disorder (N = 2, 6.9%). Anxiety disorder comorbidity was common (N = 17, 58.6%). Notably, in more than half of patients the onset of mood disorders was after the age of 40 (N = 15, 51.7%) and in two-fifths of the sample it was after the age of 50 (N = 12, 41.4%).

Overall, 11 patients were identified as high-level MBI (37.9%). Only few significant differences between patients with and without MBI emerged (Table 1). Patients with MBI had a significantly higher number of school years (Wilcoxon r = 0.32, P = 0.085) and were more frequently married than widowed (post-hoc contrast: P = 0.018, $p_{fdr} = 0.106$). Interestingly, first-degree family history for psychiatric disorders was significantly less common in patients with MBI than in those without (54.5% vs. 88.9%, P = 0.071). No significant differences between groups were found for age, gender, follow-up duration, psychiatric diagnoses, medical comorbidity, family history of neurodegenerative disorders, age at onset of symptoms and mood disorders, baseline cognition assessed through MMSE, and baseline episode severity measured by CGI-S, GAF score and BPRS total score and subscales.

At follow-up, a significant main effect of time on BPRS total score was observed (F[1, 26] = 43.71, P < 0.001, $\eta_p^2 = 0.63$) (Table 2). Post-hoc contrast revealed that BPRS total score significantly decreased from baseline to follow-up (40.2 ± 6.9 vs. 31.6 ± 5.7; t = 7.06, P < 0.001, d = 1.33). There was no significant effect of MBI, indicating that BPRS total scores from patients with and without high level of MBI were similar overall (37.8 ± 8.4 vs. 34.8 ± 7.1; F[1, 26] = 2.05, P = 0.164, $\eta_p^2 = 0.07$). There was also no significant interaction effect between time and the presence of MBI (F[1, 26] = 0.01, P = 0.916, $\eta_p^2 = 0.00$). Descriptive statistics showed that BPRS total score was similar in patients with and without MBI both at baseline (42.1 ± 8.5 vs. 39.2 ± 5.9) and at follow-up (33.6 ± 6.0 vs. 30.4 ± 5.4).

Similarly, we observed a significant main effect of time on BPRS Depression/Anxiety subscale (F[1, 27] = 25.15, P < 0.001, $\eta_p^2 = 0.48$). Overall, depressive symptoms severity significantly decreased from baseline to follow-up (15.8 ± 3.4 vs. 11.5 ± 4.2; t = 5.42, P < 0.001, d = 1.01). Even in this case, there was no significant effect of MBI, indicating no differences in BPRS Depression/Anxiety subscale from patients with and without MBI (14.6 ± 4.9 vs. 13.0 ± 4.0; F[1, 27] = 1.88, P = 0.182, $\eta_p^2 = 0.065$). In addition, no significant interaction effect between time and MBI was detected (F[1, 27] = 2.48, P = 0.127, $\eta_p^2 = 0.08$). Based on descriptive statistics, depressive symptoms severity was similar in patients with and without MBI both at baseline (16.0 ± 4.2 vs. 15.6 ± 2.9) and at follow-up (13.3 ± 5.2 vs. 10.4 ± 3.1).

As for changes in global functioning, there was a significant main effect of time on GAF score (F[1, 27] = 12.99, P = 0.001, $\eta_p^2 = 0.33$), with post-hoc contrast revealing a significant improvement in GAF score over time $(53.1 \pm 15.6 \text{ at baseline vs. } 65.2 \pm 18.7 \text{ at follow-up;}$ t = 4.00, P < 0.001, d = 0.74). A significant effect of MBI was also observed (F[1, 27] = 5.40, P = 0.028, $\eta_p^2 = 0.17$), with post-hoc contrast revealing significantly lower global functioning in patients with MBI compared to those without $(51.4 \pm 16.1 \text{ vs. } 63.9 \pm 17.8; \text{ t} = 2.76, P = 0.008,$ d = 0.74). Finally, a significant interaction between time and MBI was identified (F[1,27] = 3.17, P = 0.086, $\eta_{\rm p}^2 = 0.11$). Post-hoc comparisons showed that while no significant difference in GAF score was found at baseline between patients with and without MBI (48.6 ± 15.2 vs. 55.8 ± 15.6 ; t = 1.23, P = 0.233, d = 0.47), a large significant difference emerged at follow-up (54.1 ± 17.3) vs. 71.9 ± 16.5 ; t = 2.75, P = 0.012, d = 1.06). Moreover, while no significant improvement between baseline and follow-up was detected in patients with MBI (t = 1.54, P = 0.154, d = 0.34), a significant increase in GAF score was observed in those without MBI (t = 3.90, P = 0.001, d = 1.01). Consistently, GAF score change was significantly lower in patients with MBI than in those without $(5.6 \pm 11.7 \text{ vs. } 16.1 \pm 17.5, t = 1.96, P = 0.061, d = 0.72).$

Finally, no significant changes in MMSE total scores over time were observed both in patients with MBI (r = 0.40, P = 0.256) and in those without (r = 0.12, P = 0.620). Moreover, no significant differences were observed in MMSE total scores between patients with and without MBI both at baseline (r = 0.067; Table 1) and at follow-up (28 [27, 30] vs. 27.5 [24.2, 29]; r = 0.178, P = 0.351; Table 2).

Discussion

In the present study, we aimed to investigate the role of MBI in elderly subjects referred to a tertiary psychiatric outpatient clinic and treated for a major depressive episode. Particularly, we examined the impact of MBI on the long-term outcome of psychiatric symptom severity, global functioning and cognition. According to results from our exploratory analyses, the presence of MBI had no impact on the severity and course of general psychopathology and depressive symptoms; patients with and without MBI had the same severity in psychiatric symptoms at baseline, including depressive ones, and displayed the same reduction in symptoms severity during

| Table 1 | Characteristics of the whole sample and | differences between patients with a | and without mild behavioral impairment (MBI) |
|---------|---|-------------------------------------|--|
| | | | |

| | Whole sample (N = 29) | Without MBI (N = 18) | With MBI (N = 11) | | |
|--|------------------------------|--|--|-------|----------------|
| Demographic variables | N (%)/mean ± SD/median [IQR] | N (%)/mean (SD)/median [IQR] | N (%)/mean (SD)/median [IQR] | SMD | <i>P</i> -valu |
| Gender (male) | 11 (37.9) | 5 (27.8) | 6 (54.5) | 0.565 | 0.240 |
| Age (years) | 74.21 ± 7.93 | 74.14 ± 9.06 | 74.32 ± 6.04 | 0.023 | 0.954 |
| School years | 10.00 [5.00–13.00] | 8.00 [5.00-12.75] | 13.00 [10.50-15.00] | 0.703 | 0.085 |
| Marital status | | | | 1.320 | 0.029 |
| Single | 2 (6.9) | 2 (11.1) | 0 (0.0) | | |
| Divorced | 2 (6.9) | 1 (5.6) | 1 (9.1) | | |
| Married | 15 (51.7) | 6 (33.3) | 9 (81.8) | | |
| Widowed | 10 (34.5) | 9 (50.0) | 1 (9.1) | | |
| Follow-up duration (weeks) | 32.00 [28.00-35.00] | 32.00 [27.25-36.50] | 31.00 [28.00-33.50] | 0.041 | 0.946 |
| Psychiatric diagnosis | | | , | | |
| Mood disorders | | | | 0.783 | 0.634 |
| Major depressive disorder (single episode) | 4 (13.8) | 2 (11.1) | 2 (18.2) | 000 | 0.00 |
| Major depressive disorder (engle opleade) | 7 (24.1) | 3 (16.7) | 4 (36.4) | | |
| Bipolar disorder type 1 | 7 (24.1) | 5 (27.8) | 2 (18.2) | | |
| Bipolar disorder type 1 Bipolar disorder type 2 | 7 (24.1) | 6 (33.3) | 1 (9.1) | | |
| Cyclothymic disorder | 2 (6.9) | 1 (5.6) | 1 (9.1) | | |
| | | | | | |
| Specified bipolar disorder | 2 (6.9) | 1 (5.6) | 1 (9.1) | OFCE | 0.040 |
| Any bipolar or related disorder | 18 (62.1) | 13 (72.2) | 5 (45.5) | 0.565 | 0.240 |
| Any anxiety disorder | 17 (58.6) | 11 (61.1) | 6 (54.5) | 0.133 | 1.000 |
| Panic disorder | 10 (34.5) | 7 (38.9) | 3 (27.3) | 0.249 | 0.694 |
| Agoraphobia | 4 (13.8) | 4 (22.2) | 0 (0.0) | 0.756 | 0.268 |
| Generalized anxiety disorder | 11 (37.9) | 7 (38.9) | 4 (36.4) | 0.052 | 1.000 |
| Social anxiety disorder | 1 (3.4) | 1 (5.6) | 0 (0.0) | 0.343 | 1.000 |
| Medical comorbidity | | | | | |
| Thyroid diseases | 3 (10.3) | 2 (11.1) | 1 (9.1) | 0.067 | 1.000 |
| Hypertension | 14 (48.3) | 7 (38.9) | 7 (63.6) | 0.511 | 0.362 |
| Diabetes mellitus type 2 | 4 (13.8) | 1 (5.6) | 3 (27.3) | 0.613 | 0.139 |
| Dyslipidemia | 6 (20.7) | 2 (11.1) | 4 (36.4) | 0.622 | 0.164 |
| Obesity | 1 (3.4) | 0 (0.0) | 1 (9.1) | 0.447 | 0.379 |
| Mild cognitive impairment (MCI) | 5 (17.2) | 2 (11.1) | 3 (27.3) | 0.419 | 0.339 |
| First-degree family history | | | | | |
| Any psychiatric disorder | 22 (75.9) | 16 (88.9) | 6 (54.5) | 0.825 | 0.071 |
| Any mood disorder | 18 (62.1) | 13 (72.2) | 5 (45.5) | 0.565 | 0.240 |
| Any anxiety disorder | 6 (20.7) | 5 (27.8) | 1 (9.1) | 0.497 | 0.362 |
| Neurodegenerative disorders | | | | 0.647 | 1.000 |
| Unspecified dementia or cognitive decline | 4 (13.8) | 2 (11.1) | 2 (18.2) | | |
| Frontotemporal dementia | 1 (3.4) | 1 (5.6) | 0 (0.0) | | |
| Alzheimer disease | 1 (3.4) | 1 (5.6) | 0 (0.0) | | |
| Multiple sclerosis | 1 (3.4) | 1 (5.6) | 0 (0.0) | | |
| Any neurodegenerative disorder | 7 (24.1) | 5 (27.8) | 2 (18.2) | 0.230 | 0.677 |
| Course of mood disorder | 7 (24.1) | 3 (27.0) | 2 (10.2) | 0.200 | 0.077 |
| Age at onset of psychiatric symptoms (years) | 30.00 [18.50-53.50] | 24.00 [18.00-51.00] | 30.00 [20.00-61.50] | 0.255 | 0.533 |
| Age at onset of mood disorder (years) | 45.00 [28.00-64.00] | 49.00 [25.50–65.00] | 30.00 [28.50-61.50] | 0.172 | 0.702 |
| Age at onset of depression (years) | 44.00 ± 22.00 | 40.64 ± 23.47 | 50.17 ± 19.41 | 0.443 | 0.411 |
| Number of previous depressive episodes | 3.00 [2.00-5.00] | 3.00 [2.00-5.75] | 3.00 [2.00-3.00] | 0.550 | 0.423 |
| Index episode features | 3.00 [2.00-3.00] | 3.00 [2.00-5.75] | 3.00 [2.00-3.00] | 0.000 | 0.423 |
| • | 1 (0 4) | 1 (F C) | 0 (0 0) | 0.040 | 1 000 |
| Psychotic symptoms | 1 (3.4) | 1 (5.6) | 0 (0.0) | 0.343 | 1.000 |
| Mixed features | 7 (24.1) | 4 (22.2) | 3 (27.3) | 0.117 | 1.000 |
| Anxious distress | 8 (27.6) | 4 (22.2) | 4 (36.4) | 0.315 | 0.433 |
| Atypical features | 4 (13.8) | 3 (16.7) | 1 (9.1) | 0.228 | 1.000 |
| Melancholic features | 3 (10.3) | 2 (11.1) | 1 (9.1) | 0.067 | 1.000 |
| Psychometric assessment | | | | | |
| CGI - Severity of illness | 4.00 [4.00-5.00] | 4.00 [4.00-4.00] | 4.00 [4.00-5.00] | 0.212 | 0.648 |
| MMSE total score | 28.00 [24.00–29.00] | 27.50 [23.50–29.00] | 28.00 [24.50-29.50] | 0.200 | 0.716 |
| Global Assessment of Functioning (GAF) | 53.10 ± 15.55 | 55.83 ± 15.55 | 48.64 ± 15.18 | 0.468 | 0.233 |
| BPRS total score | 40.41 ± 6.85 | 39.22 ± 5.90 | 42.36 ± 8.09 | 0.444 | 0.237 |
| BPRS Depression/Anxiety | 15.76 ± 3.36 | 15.61 ± 2.89 | 16.00 ± 4.15 | 0.109 | 0.768 |
| BPRS Activation | 11.00 [10.00–14.00] | 10.50 [10.00–13.75] | 11.00 [10.00–15.00] | 0.455 | 0.386 |
| BPRS Negative Symptoms/Retardation | 9.00 [6.00-10.00] | 8.50 [5.25-9.75] | 9.00 [6.50-10.00] | 0.233 | 0.439 |
| BPRS Psychosis | 6.00 [6.00–7.00] | 6.00 [6.00-7.00] | 7.00 [6.00–9.00] | 0.537 | 0.317 |
| MBI-C total score | 0.00 [0.00-12.00] | 0.00 [0.00-0.00] | 13.00 [11.00-22.50] | - | |
| MBI-C drive | 0.00 [0.00-4.00] | 0.00 [0.00-0.00] | 8.00 [3.00–13.50] | | |
| | 0.00 [0.00-2.00] | 0.00 [0.00-0.00] | 5.00 [1.50-14.00] | | |
| MBI-C affect | | | | | |
| MBI-C affect MBI-C impulse | | 0.00 [0.00-0.00] | 3.00 [0.50-3.50] | | |
| MBI-C impulse | 0.00 [0.00-2.00] | 0.00 [0.00–0.00] | 3.00 [0.50-3.50] | | |
| | | 0.00 [0.00-0.00] 0.00 [0.00-0.00] 0.00 [0.00-0.00] | 3.00 [0.50-3.50] 0.00 [0.00-0.00] 0.00 [0.00-0.00] | | |

Mean and SD were reported for continuous variables with normal distribution; median and interquartile range (IQR) were reported for continuous variables with non-normal distribution. Comparative analyses were conducted using Student's *t*-test for continuous variables with normal distribution and Mann–Whitney-Wilcoxon test for continuous variables with non-normal distribution. Pearson's chi-squared test or, when appropriate, Fisher's exact test was used for comparison of categorical variables. The standardized mean difference (SMD) was reported for each comparison.

BPRS, Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale; CGI, Clinical Global Impression; GAF, Global Assessment of Functioning; IQR, interquartile range; MBI, Mild Behavioral Impairment; MBI-C, Mild Behavioral Impairment - Checklist; MCI, Mild Cognitive Impairment; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; SMD, standardized mean difference.

| | Whole sa | Whole sample (N = 29) | F | Lime . | Without MBI (N = 18) | (N = 18) | With MBI $(N = 11)$ | = 11) | Time | Time × MBI |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|-------|-----------------|------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------------|----------------|------|-----------------|
| | N (%)/mean ± | N (%)/mean ± SD/median [IQR] | | | N (%)/mean (SD)/median [IQR] | /median [IQR] | N (%)/mean (SD)/median [IQR] | nedian [IQR] | | |
| | Baseline | Follow-up | ш | <i>P</i> -value | Baseline | Follow-up | Baseline | Follow-up | ш | <i>P</i> -value |
| BPRS total score | 40.2 ± 6.9 | 31.6 ± 5.7 | 43.71 | < 0.001 | 39.2 ± 5.9 | 30.4 ± 5.4 | 42.1 ± 8.5 | 33.6 ± 6.0 | 0.01 | 0.916 |
| BPRS Depression/Anxiety scale | 15.8 土 3.4 | 11.5 ± 4.2 | 25.15 | < 0.001 | 15.6 ± 2.9 | 10.4 土 3.1 | 16.0 ± 4.2 | 13.3 ± 5.2 | 2.48 | 0.127 |
| GAF score | 53.1 ± 15.6 | 65.2 ± 18.7 | 12.99 | 0.001 | 55.8 ± 15. | 71.9 ± 16.5 | 48.6 土 15.2 | 54.1 土 17.3 | 3.17 | 0.086 |
| MMSE total score | 28.00 [24.00–29.00] | 28.00 [25.00-29.00] | | | 27.50 [23.50-29.00] | 27.5 [24.2–29] | 28.00 [24.50-29.50] | 28 [27–30] | | |

ł ł 5 5

compare group changes in BPRS total score, BPRS Depression/Anxiety subscale, and GAF score from baseline to follow-up, including MBI diagnosis as a between-subjects factor and time (i.e. baseline vs. follow-up) as a and SD were reported for continuous variables with normal distribution; median and interquartile range (IQR) were reported for continuous variables with non-normal distribution. Two-way mixed ANOVA was used within-subjects factor Mean a

Examination; SMD, standardized mean difference. State Mild Behavioral Impairment; MMSE, Mini-Mental Global Assessment of Functioning; IQR, interquartile range; MBI, BPRS, Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale; GAF,

the follow-up. This result suggests that, notwithstanding previous reports of a limited response of LLD to antidepressants (Morimoto et al., 2015), an improvement in severity of psychiatric symptoms is observable in the long-term even in patients with NPS. Conversely, in our sample, MBI had a negative impact on global functioning over time. A negative association between the presence of MBI and overall functioning over time had already been found in a short-term prospective observational investigation from our group (Elefante et al., 2022). This study confirms the same outcome in the long-term. Indeed, though patients with and without MBI had a similar level of functioning at baseline, those with MBI showed a significantly lower improvement at the end of the follow-up.

Although a 1-year follow-up study previously showed an association between the presence of NPS and a greater residual cognitive impairment in patients with LLD (Zhang et al., 2021), we did not observe differences in MMSE total score between patients with or without MBI both at baseline and at follow-up (on average after 8 months). It is worth noting that MMSE is a screening tool and is probably inadequate to register subtle cognitive changes, especially those affecting frontal/executive and visuospatial functions (Woodford and George, 2007). Additionally, the fact that some MMSE score were missing may further restrict the validity of this result. The GAF scale, instead, can estimate everyday independent activities, integrated abilities, and the corresponding level of care required (Jones et al., 1995). We hypothesize that in LLD patients with MBI, the absence of functional improvements in everyday activities involving a wide range of skills over time may reflect an underlying neurodegenerative process.

MBI has already been associated with preclinical markers of neurodegeneration, especially (AD)-related. In particular, low plasma level of $A\beta_{42}/A\beta_{40}$ (Miao *et al.*, 2021a), Aβ-PET positive status (Lussier *et al.*, 2020), atrophy in the entorhinal cortex and hippocampus (Matuskova et al., 2021), AD genetic loci as well as increased neurofilament light chain plasma level have been found in patients with MBI (Andrews et al., 2018; Naude et al., 2020; Creese et al., 2021). The neurodegenerative nature of MBI has been supported in the present research as well; in fact, the impact on global functioning appears to be mediated by the occurrence of NPS belonging to MBI rather than LLD. Based on recent research investigating the behavioral manifestations of neurodegenerative diseases, the detection of NPS, including mood alterations, in aged people should raise suspicion of subsequent neurodegeneration (Brodaty et al., 2012; Geda et al., 2014; Masters et al., 2015). Particularly, persistent NPS of affective dysregulation and emotional dysregulation representing a clear qualitative change from patient's previous behavior should be investigated, according to previous findings (Ebrahim et al., 2022). Similarly, specific symptoms, such as apathy, have been previously found to confer a higher

risk for cognitive decline compared to less specific depressive symptoms and MBI-apathy may confer even greater risk than conventionally measured apathy (Robert *et al.*, 2008; Palmer *et al.*, 2010; Martin and Velayudhan, 2020; Vellone *et al.*, 2022).

Both NPS and LLD have been associated with a high risk of neurodegeneration in several studies and a solid body of evidence supported the role of LLD as a risk factor for progression of cognitive decline (Modrego and Ferrández, 2004; Geda *et al.*, 2006; Donovan *et al.*, 2014; Riddle *et al.*, 2017). It is likely that a subgroup of subjects having NPS with LLD may be at higher risk of having functional deterioration and possibly a neurodegenerative course.

Several limitations of our study should be acknowledged. First, the clinical setting (a tertiary psychiatric unit) could not have been representative of all patients with LLD, but rather of a subpopulation at high risk for developing complicated course. Moreover, the small sample size and the attrition rate of 34.1% limited the generalizability of the results. Finally, the relatively short length of follow-up period did not allow to determine with certainty if the patients with MBI have a lack of functional recovery or a considerably slower improvement of functioning when compared to patients without MBI, nor if an increased risk of major cognitive impairment could be observed in patients with MBI. Future studies are required to corroborate our preliminary findings with larger sample numbers and longer follow-up. Moreover, it would be particularly interesting to find out whether biomarkers of neurodegeneration and neuroimaging findings differ between patients with MBI and LLD, since both have been considered risk factors for neurodegenerative diseases.

In conclusion, MBI symptoms can be observed in subjects without MCI and in patients with major psychiatric disorders. In our sample, in fact, high level of MBI were observed in over one-third of the cases, suggesting that these symptoms are relatively frequent in LLD. Moreover, at the end of the follow-up period, the presence of MBI was associated with a lack of improvement in global functioning. These findings support the view that MBI may be a prodrome of a neurodegenerative condition and that the identification of this syndrome may have relevant clinical implications. Further research on larger sample are necessary to confirm our preliminary observations.

Acknowledgements Conflicts of interest

G.P. acted as consultant to Janssen Angelini, Sanofi Aventis, and Neuraxpharm. He received a scholarship/research support from Angelini. He is a member of the speaker/ advisory board of Sanofi-Aventis, Lundbeck, Angelini, and Janssen. Z.I. has received grants funding from NIA, CIHR, CCNA, Brain Canada, ADDF, Weston Foundation and honoraria/consulting fees from Lundbeck, Otsuka, Roche and Biogen. He is a member of the advisory board of OCEANS study at Johns Hopkins DSMB. For the remaining authors, there are no conflicts of interest.

References

- Alexopoulos GS, Meyers BS, Young RC, Kakuma T, Silbersweig D, Charlson M (1997). Clinically defined vascular depression. Am J Psychiatry 154:562–565.
- Alexopoulos GS, Meyers BS, Young RC, Kalayam B, Kakuma T, Gabrielle M, et al. (2000). Executive dysfunction and long-term outcomes of geriatric depression. Arch Gen Psychiatry 57:285–290.
- Alexopoulos GS, Murphy CF, Gunning-Dixon FM, Latoussakis V, Kanellopoulos D, Klimstra S, et al. (2008). Microstructural white matter abnormalities and remission of geriatric depression. Am J Psychiatry 165:238–244.
- American Psychiatric Association (2013). Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders. 5th Ed. Fifth edit. Edition. Arlington, VA.
- Andrews SJ, Ismail Z, Anstey KJ, Mortby M (2018). Association of Alzheimer's genetic loci with mild behavioral impairment. Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet 177:727–735.
- Beshir SA, Aadithsoorya AM, Parveen A, Goh SSL, Hussain N, Menon VB (2022). Aducanumab therapy to treat Alzheimer's disease: a narrative review. Int J Alzheimers Dis 2022:1–10.
- Brodaty H, Heffernan M, Draper B, Reppermund S, Kochan NA, Slavin MJ, *et al.* (2012). Neuropsychiatric symptoms in older people with and without cognitive impairment. *J Alzheimers Dis* **31**:411–420.
- Byers AL, Yaffe K (2011). Depression and risk of developing dementia. Nat Rev Neurol 7:323–331.
- Cherbuin N, Kim S, Anstey KJ (2015). Dementia risk estimates associated with measures of depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ Open* **5**:e008853.
- Creese B, Arathimos R, Brooker H, Aarsland D, Corbett A, Lewis C, et al. (2021). Genetic risk for Alzheimer's disease, cognition, and mild behavioral impairment in healthy older adults. Alzheimers Dement (Amst) 13:e12164.
- Diniz BS, Butters MA, Albert SM, Dew MA, Reynolds CF (2013). Latelife depression and risk of vascular dementia and Alzheimer's disease: systematic review and meta-analysis of community-based cohort studies. Br J Psychiatry 202:329–335.
- Donovan NJ, Amariglio RE, Zoller AS, Rudel RK, Gomez-Isla T, Blacker D, et al. (2014). Subjective cognitive concerns and neuropsychiatric predictors of progression to the early clinical stages of Alzheimer disease. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry 22:1642–1651.
- Ebrahim I, Ghahremani M, Smith EE, Camicioli R, Ismail Z (2022). Longitudinal associations of emergent and persistent affective dysregulation symptoms with incident dementia in dementia-free older adults. *Alzheimers Dement* **19**:e067026.
- Elefante C, Lattanzi L, Ismail Z, Medda P, Bacciardi S, Mainardi C, et al. (2019). Mild behavioral impairment: Presentation of the diagnostic criteria and the Italian version of the MBI-checklist. *Riv Psichiatr* 54:59–66.
- Elefante C, Brancati G, Gemmellaro T, Ricciardulli S, Romeo F, Torrigiani S, et al. (2022). The impact of Mild Behavioral Impairment on the individual's level of psychological, social, and occupational functioning. *Eur Psychiatry* 65:S172–S172.
- Elefante C, Brancati GE, Ismail Z, Ricciardulli S, Beatino MF, Lepri V, et al. (2023). Mild behavioral impairment in psychogeriatric patients: clinical features and psychopathology severity. J Clin Med 12:5423.
- Feldman H, Scheltens P, Scarpini E, Hermann N, Mesenbrink P, Mancione L, et al. (2004). Behavioral symptoms in mild cognitive impairment. *Neurology* 62:1199-1201.
- Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR (1975). 'Mini-mental state' A practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. J Psychiatr Res 12:189–198.
- Geda YE, Knopman DS, Mrazek DA, Jicha GA, Smith GE, Negash S, et al. (2006). Depression, apolipoprotein E genotype, and the incidence of mild cognitive impairment: a prospective cohort study. Arch Neurol 63:435–440.
- Geda YE, Roberts RO, Mielke MM, Knopman DS, Christianson TJH, Pankratz VS, et al. (2014). Baseline neuropsychiatric symptoms and the risk of incident mild cognitive impairment: A population-based study. Am J Psychiatry 171:572–581.
- Ghahremani M, Wang M, Chen H-Y, Zetterberg H, Smith E, Ismail Z (2022). Plasma P-Tau181 and Neuropsychiatric Symptoms in Preclinical and Prodromal Alzheimer Disease. *Neurology* **100**:e683–e693.

- Gill S, Wang M, Mouches P, Rajashekar D, Sajobi T, MacMaster FP, et al.; Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (2021). Neural correlates of the impulse dyscontrol domain of mild behavioral impairment. Int J Geriatr Psychiatry 36:1398–1406.
- Guy W (1976) Clinical Global Impression (CGI). ECDEU Assess Man Psychopharmacol 125–126.
- Herrmann LL, Le Masurier M, Ebmeier KP (2008). White matter hyperintensities in late life depression: a systematic review. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 79:619–624.
- Ismail Z, Smith EE, Geda Y, Sultzer D, Brodaty H, Smith G, et al.; ISTAART Neuropsychiatric Symptoms Professional Interest Area (2016). Neuropsychiatric symptoms as early manifestations of emergent dementia: Provisional diagnostic criteria for mild behavioral impairment. Alzheimers Dement 12:195–202.
- Ismail Z, Agüera-Ortiz L, Brodaty H, Cieslak A, Cummings J, Fischer CE, et al.; NPS Professional Interest Area of the International Society of to Advance Alzheimer's Research and Treatment (NPS-PIA of ISTAART) (2017). The Mild Behavioral Impairment Checklist (MBI-C): a rating scale for neuropsychiatric symptoms in pre-dementia populations. J Alzheimers Dis 56:929–938.
- Ismail Z, Gatchel J, Bateman DR, Barcelos-Ferreira R, Chantillon M, Jaeger J, et al. (2018). Affective and emotional dysregulation as pre-dementia risk markers: exploring the mild behavioral impairment symptoms of depression, anxiety, irritability, and euphoria. Int psychogeriatrics 30:185–196.
- Johansson M, Stomrud E, Insel PS, Leuzy A, Johansson PM, Smith R, *et al.* (2021). Mild behavioral impairment and its relation to tau pathology in preclinical Alzheimer's disease. *Transl Psychiatry* 11:76.
- Jones SH, Thornicroft G, Coffey M, Dunn G (1995). A brief mental health outcome scale-reliability and validity of the Global Assessment of Functioning (GAF). *Br J Psychiatry* 166:654–659.
- Kalayam B, Alexopoulos GS (1999). Prefrontal dysfunction and treatment response in geriatric depression. Arch Gen Psychiatry 56:713-718.
- Kassam F, Chen H, Nosheny RL, McGirr A, Williams T, Ng N, et al. (2022). Cognitive profile of people with mild behavioral impairment in Brain Health Registry participants. Int psychogeriatrics:1–10.
- Kessing LV (2012). Depression and the risk for dementia. *Curr Opin Psychiatry* 25:457-461.
- Leyhe T, Reynolds CF, 3rd, Melcher T, Linnemann C, Klöppel S, Blennow K, et al. (2017). A common challenge in older adults: classification, overlap, and therapy of depression and dementia. Alzheimers Dement 13:59–71.
- Linnemann C, Lang UE (2020). Pathways connecting late-life depression and dementia. *Front Pharmacol* **11**:279.
- Lussier FZ, Pascoal TA, Chamoun M, Therriault J, Tissot C, Savard M, *et al.* (2020). Mild behavioral impairment is associated with β-amyloid but not tau or neurodegeneration in cognitively intact elderly individuals. *Alzheimers Dement* **16**:192–199.
- Lyketsos CG, Carrillo MC, Ryan JM, Khachaturian AS, Trzepacz P, Amatniek J, et al. (2011). Neuropsychiatric symptoms in Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimers Dement 7:532–539.
- Mallo SC, Ismail Z, Pereiro AX, Facal D, Lojo-Seoane C, Campos-Magdaleno M, et al. (2018). Assessing mild behavioral impairment with the mild behavioral impairment-checklist in people with mild cognitive impairment. J Alzheimers Dis 66:83–95.
- Martin E, Velayudhan L (2020). Neuropsychiatric symptoms in mild cognitive impairment: a literature review. Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord 49:146–155.
- Masters MC, Morris JC, Roe CM (2015). 'Noncognitive symptoms' of early Alzheimer disease: a longitudinal analysis. *Neurology* 84:617–622.
- Matuskova V, Ismail Z, Nikolai T, Markova H, Cechova K, Nedelska Z, et al. (2021). Mild Behavioral impairment is associated with atrophy of entorhinal cortex and hippocampus in a memory clinic cohort. Front Aging Neurosci 13:643271.

- Miao R, Chen H-Y, Gill S, Naude J, Smith EE, Ismail Z (2021a). Plasma β-amyloid in mild behavioural impairment – neuropsychiatric symptoms on the Alzheimer's continuum. J Geriatr Psychiatry Neurol 35:434–441.
- Miao R, Chen H-Y, Robert P, Smith EE, Ismail Z; MEMENTO Study Group (2021b). White matter hyperintensities and mild behavioral impairment: Findings from the MEMENTO cohort study. *Cereb Circ Cogn Behav* 2:100028.
- Modrego PJ, Ferrández J (2004). Depression in patients with mild cognitive impairment increases the risk of developing dementia of Alzheimer type: a prospective cohort study. Arch Neurol 61:1290–1293.
- Morimoto SS, Kanellopoulos D, Manning KJ, Alexopoulos GS (2015). Diagnosis and treatment of depression and cognitive impairment in late life. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1345:36–46.
- Naude JP, Gill S, Hu S, McGirr A, Forkert ND, Monchi O, et al.; Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (2020). Plasma neurofilament light: a marker of neurodegeneration in mild behavioral impairment. J Alzheimers Dis 76:1017–1027.
- Palmer K, Di Iulio F, Varsi AE, Gianni W, Sancesario G, Caltagirone C, et al. (2010). Neuropsychiatric predictors of progression from amnestic-mild cognitive impairment to Alzheimer's disease: the role of depression and apathy. J Alzheimers Dis 20:175–183.
- Peters ME, Schwartz S, Han D, Rabins PV, Steinberg M, Tschanz JT, et al. (2015). Neuropsychiatric symptoms as predictors of progression to severe Alzheimer's dementia and death: The Cache County dementia progression study. Am J Psychiatry 172:460–465.
- Riddle M, Potter GG, McQuoid DR, Steffens DC, Beyer JL, Taylor WD (2017). Longitudinal cognitive outcomes of clinical phenotypes of late-life depression. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry* 25:1123–1134.
- Robert PH, Berr C, Volteau M, Bertogliati-Fileau C, Benoit M, Guerin O, et al.; PréAL Study Group (2008). Importance of lack of interest in patients with mild cognitive impairment. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry 16:770–776.
- Sheline YI, Disabato BM, Hranilovich J, Morris C, D'Angelo G, Pieper C, et al. (2012). Treatment course with antidepressant therapy in late-life depression. Am J Psychiatry 169:1185–1193.
- Smith EE, Crites S, Wang M, Charlton A, Zwiers A, Sekhon R, et al. (2021). Cerebral amyloid angiopathy is associated with emotional dysregulation, impulse dyscontrol, and apathy. J Am Heart Assoc 10:e022089.
- Steinberg M, Shao H, Zandi P, Lyketsos CG, Kathleen A, Norton MC, et al. (2010). Point and 5-year period prevalence of neuropsychiatric symptoms in dementia: the Cache County study. Int J 23:170–177.
- Taylor WD, Aizenstein HJ, Alexopoulos GS (2013). The vascular depression hypothesis: mechanisms linking vascular disease with depression. *Mol Psychiatry* 18:963–974.
- United Nations (2019). World Population Ageing 2019 Highlights. United Nations.
- Velligan D, Prihoda T, Dennehy E, Biggs M, Shores-Wilson K, Crismon ML, et al. (2005). Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale Expanded Version: How do new items affect factor structure? *Psychiatry Res* **135**:217–228.
- Vellone D, Ghahremani M, Goodarzi Z, Forkert ND, Smith EE, Ismail Z (2022). Apathy and APOE in mild behavioral impairment, and risk for incident dementia. *Alzheimers Dement (N Y)* 8:e12370.
- Ventura J, Lukoff D, Nuechterlein K, Liberman RP, Green M, Shaner A (1993). Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale Expanded version 40: Scales anchor points and administration manual. *Int J Meth Psychiatr Res* 13:221–244.
- Woodford HJ, George J (2007). Cognitive assessment in the elderly: a review of clinical methods. *QJM* **100**:469–484.
- Zhang M, Chen B, Zhong X, Zhou H, Wang Q, Mai N, *et al.* (2021). Neuropsychiatric symptoms exacerbate the cognitive impairments in patients with late-life depression. *Front Psychiatry* **12**:757003.
- Zivin K, Wharton T, Rostant O (2013). The economic, public health, and caregiver burden of late-life depression. *Psychiatr Clin North Am* 36:631–649.