The mediating role of depression in pathways linking positive and negative symptoms in schizophrenia.

A Longitudinal Analysis Using Latent Variable Structural Equation Modelling

Giuseppe Carrà^{a,b}, Cristina Crocamo^{b*}, Francesco Bartoli^b, Matthias Angermeyer^c, Traolach Brugha^d, Mondher Toumi^e and Paul Bebbington^a

^aDivision of Psychiatry, University College London, 149 Tottenham Court Road, London W1T 7NF, UK ^bDepartment of Medicine and Surgery, University of Milano Bicocca, Via Cadore 48, Monza 20900, Italy ^cDepartment of Psychiatry, University of Leipzig, Johannisallee 20, 04137 Leipzig, Germany ^dDepartment of Health Sciences, University of Leicester, College of Medicine, Biological Sciences and Psychology, University of Leicester, Centre for Medicine, University Road, Leicester LE1 7RH,UK ^eLaboratoire de Santé Publique, Université de la Méditerranée, Marseille, France

Original article submitted for publication to *Psychological Medicine*

*Corresponding author at: Department of Medicine and Surgery, Via Cadore 48, Monza 20900, Italy. Tel. /Fax. +39 0257998647. E-mail address: <u>cristina.crocamo@unimib.it</u> (Cristina Crocamo)

Word count. Abstract=238; Main Text=3282; Table: 1; Figures: 2.

Financial support

The EuroSC study was funded by an unrestricted research grant from Lundbeck A/S and a grant from the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research in the framework of the Research Association Public Health Saxony (grant no. 01EG9732/7).

ABSTRACT

Background

The interaction between positive, negative and depressive symptoms experienced by people with schizophrenia is complex. We used longitudinal data to test the hypothesis that depressive symptoms mediate the links between positive and negative symptoms.

Methods

We analysed data from the European Schizophrenia Cohort, randomly sampled from outpatient services in France, Germany and the UK (N=1208). Initial measures were repeated at 6 and 12 months. Depressive symptoms were identified using the Calgary Depression Scale for Schizophrenia (CDSS), while positive and negative symptoms were assessed with the Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (PANSS). Latent variable structural equation modelling was used to investigate the mediating role of depression assessed at 6 months in relation to the longitudinal association between positive symptoms at baseline and negative symptoms at 12 months.

Results

We found longitudinal associations between positive symptoms at baseline and negative symptoms at 12 months, as well as between both of these and CDSS levels at 6 months. Depression did not mediate the longitudinal association between PANSS scores; all the effect was direct.

Conclusions

Our findings are incompatible with a mediating function for depression on the pathway from positive to negative symptoms. The role of depression in schizophrenic disorders remains a challenge for categorical and hierarchical diagnostic systems alike. Future research should analyse specific domains of both depressive and negative symptoms (e.g., motivational and hedonic impairments). The clinical management of negative symptoms using antidepressant treatments may need to be reconsidered.

Keywords: Schizophrenia; Positive symptoms; Negative symptoms; Depression; Longitudinal studies

INTRODUCTION

For the past 40 years, research on schizophrenia has distinguished the concepts of positive and negative symptoms, whether as separate syndromes of the same disease (Crow, 1980) or as dimensions on which individuals with strong positive symptom profiles differ appreciably from those with the most prominent negative ones (Andreasen and Olsen, 1982). However, negative and positive symptoms might not sit in opposition, as they may originate in the same processes (Pogue-Geile and Harrow, 1984). They may also influence each other, directly or indirectly. We recently reported that negative symptoms do not predict positive symptoms in people with established schizophrenia, whereas evidence for the opposite causal direction was ambiguous (Carrà *et al.*, 2018).

Depressive symptoms are associated with positive psychotic symptoms (Sax et al., 1996), though they do not necessarily predict each other longitudinally (Yung et al., 2007). The development of depression may be explained to an extent as a secondary response to the impact of schizophrenia on social status and circumstances (Birchwood et al., 2005). However, it may also represent a propensity to affective dysregulation intrinsic to the schizophrenic disorder itself (Marwaha et al., 2014). Certainly, depression sometimes precedes the earliest stages of psychosis (Fusar-Poli et al., 2014), and specific features like anhedonia may need to be investigated at a symptom level transdiagnostically (Upthegrove et al., 2017). In particular, the apparent linkage between positive and negative symptoms may include an important contribution from depressed mood, as both crosssectional and longitudinal studies of schizophrenia confirm that negative and depressive symptoms are associated, albeit to a varying extent (e.g., Millan et al., 2014). Moreover, in periods of remission from positive symptoms, depressive and negative symptoms may be similarly associated with impaired functional recovery (Best et al., 2014). Assessed cross-sectionally, negative symptoms do emerge as a factor distinguishable from depression and other affective symptoms (Blanchard and Cohen, 2006). A recent systematic review has proposed that symptoms of low mood, suicidal ideation and pessimism may be more specifically related to depression, while alogia

and blunted affect are specifically characteristic of negative symptoms. Anhedonia, anergia and avolition may be common to both (Krynicki *et al.*, 2018). However, some studies have shown that reduction in depressed mood may lead to the alleviation of negative symptoms (Buchanan, 2007). Thus, if we accept that depression is, at least to some extent, intrinsic to the schizophrenic illness itself (Upthegrove *et al.*, 2017), this might imply the existence of common aetiological factors, but also a salient role for depression in the causation of negative symptoms.

Some of the overlap between depressed mood and negative symptoms may be conceptual, as apparent from the phenomenological problems of distinguishing them (Bosanac and Castle, 2012). However, work using Research Domain Criteria (RDoC) (Cuthbert and Kozak, 2013) does suggest significant differences between psychotic and depressive symptoms in terms of the reward-related and hedonic deficits associated with them. Thus, people with psychosis have difficulties in translating reward into action-selection whereas their in-the-moment hedonic processing is relatively intact. In contrast, these processes both seem to be impaired in people with depressive psychopathology (Barch *et al.*, 2016). After controlling for depression, impaired well-being in psychosis seems to be associated with the avolition-apathy negative symptom dimension, but not with the diminished expressivity reflected in blunted affect and poverty of speech (Strauss *et al.*, 2012). This suggests that, at least in some clinical populations, the reduced well-being seen in individuals with negative symptoms may be independent of the psychological processes underpinning depression.

A further issue involves the effects of medication in increasing both depression levels and (by definition secondary) negative symptoms (Carpenter *et al.*, 1988). Although the impact of both firstand second-generation antipsychotics on negative symptoms remains questionable (Leucht *et al.*, 2009), we should take them into account in assessing the pathway between positive and negative symptoms and the role of depression.

Overall, several lines of evidence suggest that positive, depressive and negative symptoms in psychosis are distinct, but might partake in a common longitudinal pathway. The European

Schizophrenia Cohort (EuroSC) provides an opportunity to test this, since it was specifically set up to compare the attributes and correlates of schizophrenia in large and representative cohorts from three European countries, France, Germany and the UK (Bebbington *et al.*, 2005).

We carried out a three-wave prospective analysis to study the potential mediating role of depression on the longitudinal interplay between positive and negative schizophrenic symptoms, based on latent variable (cross-lagged) structural equation modelling. We hypothesized that depressive symptoms would mediate the pathways leading from positive to negative symptoms, while holding antipsychotic medication status as an observed time-varying covariate.

METHODS

Participants

The EuroSC project involved a two-year naturalistic follow-up of a cohort of people aged 18–64, suffering from schizophrenia. They were in contact with community outpatient services in three mental health catchment areas in France, four in Germany, and two in the UK. It was set up to identify and describe treatments and methods of care for people with schizophrenia, and to relate these to clinical outcomes, health conditions, and quality of life. Local ethical approval for the study was obtained in each country. The settings, sampling strategies, inclusion/exclusion criteria and demographic and clinical characteristics are fully described elsewhere (Bebbington *et al.*, 2005). Eligible patients had a diagnosis of schizophrenia according to DSM–IV criteria, and had given signed informed consent. People were excluded if they had been hospitalized for the past 12 months, or were currently intoxicated, roofless or planning to leave the area (all making follow-up assessment impracticable). Information was also collected on first (FGA) and second (SGAs generation antipsychotic medication. In total, 1208 people with schizophrenia participated in the study, 288 in France, 302 in the UK, and 618 in Germany.

Measures

An extensive battery of instruments was used to collect information in face-to-face interviews. Only those relevant to this study are presented here. In the UK and Germany, SCAN (Schedules for Clinical Assessment in Neuropsychiatry-version 1.0) (WHO, 1992) was used to evaluate the 4-week period before interview and the most significant period of earlier psychopathology. Its component algorithm then allowed the establishment of diagnoses of schizophrenia. In the French centres, schizophrenia was identified using the Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV (Spitzer et al., 1992). Information on symptom profile at the different time-points was based on the 30-item interviewer-administered Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (PANSS) (Norman et al., 1996). Each symptom is rated in relation to the previous 72 hours on a 7-point scale. PANSS has the advantage of codifying the distinction between positive and negative symptoms (Kay, 1990). In the current analysis, we included the positive and negative sub-scores (based on items P1-P7, and N1-N7, respectively) (Kay et al., 1989; Addington et al., 1990; Addington et al., 1992). Depression levels were established from the Calgary Depression Scale for Schizophrenia (CDSS) (Addington et al., 1990; Addington et al., 1992), which comprises nine items, providing scores ranging from zero to 27. It is widely used to assess depression in contradistinction to negative symptoms, as it focuses on subjective reports of hopelessness, guilt, and suicidal ideation.

Procedures

Research assistants consecutively contacted individuals from the list of potential participants, and sought their informed consent after assurance of confidentiality. Interviews took place at home or in the clinical service. The initial assessment took around three hours, the subsequent assessments slightly less. Participants completed standardized measures at baseline (T0) and every 6 months for the following 2 years. The current analysis used assessments at baseline (Time 0: T0), and at 6- and 12-month follow-up (T6 and T12). These intervals were chosen for analysis on the basis that they were clinically appropriate for investigating the mediating role of depression levels in the longitudinal interplay between positive and negative symptoms. At the 6-month follow-up, 1024

respondents took part, while at 12-month follow-up 962 did so. Attrition analyses showed no significant differences in demographic characteristics or any other variables between those participants with data missing at follow-up and those who did not leave the study.

Analysis

The present study evaluated potential mediation through an autoregressive approach based on structural equation modelling in order to allow opposite paths to be estimated simultaneously (Lockhart *et al.*, 2011) . Positive and negative symptoms were fitted as latent variables, while we used a single-indicator latent variable for depression in order to comply with general recommendations on mediator measurement error (Maxwell and Cole, 2007). Our measurement model was based on previous analyses of this cohort that explored whether latent positive symptoms would affect latent later negative symptoms or vice versa (Carrà *et al.*, 2018). In sum, two factors measuring positive (P1, P3-P7) and negative (N1-N6) items from PANSS yielded a measurement model with an acceptable fit, allowing us to test its structural equivalent [(χ^2 (543) = 2045.784, *P* < 0.001; CFI = 0.935; RMSEA = 0.048 (90% CI: 0.046, 0.050); SRMR = 0.062]. Further details are reported elsewhere (Carrà *et al.*, 2018).

Analyses were performed using Mplus 8 (Muthén and Muthén, 2017). We used the full information maximum likelihood estimation, as initial analysis of the data showed no evidence of multivariate non-normality and there was little missing data (2% of item responses were missing across T0 to T12). We fitted bivariate structural cross-lagged models in turn, to test the longitudinal associations between latent constructs for positive symptoms at baseline (T0) and negative symptoms at T12 (Figure 1a); positive symptoms at baseline (T0) and depression at T6 (Figure 1b); and depression at T6 and negative symptoms at T12 (Figure 1c). These relationships are a precondition for inferring our hypothesised pathway via depression.

We allowed correlations between the variables and the errors of individual items over time, in order to account for consistency in item-specific variance (Cole and Maxwell, 2003). The cross-lagged

paths estimate the effect of one variable on the other, after controlling for the stability of the latent constructs over time. As expected in a clinical population with established schizophrenia assessed six-monthly, there was no indication of measurement variance (results available upon request). Nested models with constraints on the structural autoregressive paths over time did not indicate that the paths of interest (positive and negative symptoms across T0, T6 and T12) varied appreciably. This modification was therefore retained. If bivariate models showed any significant paths from either positive or negative to depressive symptoms, we fitted additional structural autoregressive mediation models.

Based on these models, we assessed total, direct and indirect effects in order to evaluate the impact of the putative mediator on the longitudinal relationship. The product of coefficients method estimated the indirect effect of positive symptoms on negative symptoms through the mediator (i.e., depression). For this, we used the Mplus MODEL INDIRECT command and relevant options. Bootstrap confidence intervals were obtained for the effects.

Following conventional recommendations (Hu and Bentler, 1999), we report three goodness-of-fitindices. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) represents the extent to which the hypothesized model fits the data better than a null model. The Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) signifies the standardized difference between observed and predicted correlations for the hypothesized model. Lastly, the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) assesses the extent to which the hypothesized model fits the data. Values greater than .90 (CFI), and less than 0.08 (SRMR) and 0.05 (RMSEA) indicate an acceptable fit between models and data (Hu and Bentler, 1999) . For the final models, we also calculated standardized estimates. We controlled for the potential confounding role of antipsychotic medication status, as an observed time-varying covariate. We included dummy variables to distinguish between monotherapy and the combination of adequate doses of FGAs and SGAs.

RESULTS

The mean scores for the psychotic symptoms and depression measures are shown in table 1. Overall, they declined with the passage of time, though not by much.

Table 1 about here

We first report the bivariate models. The model estimating the cross-lagged relationships between positive symptoms at baseline (T0) and negative symptoms at T12 showed a significant path (β =0.074, p=0.021), whereas there was no support for pathways in the opposite direction (Fig. 1a). In addition, the models quantifying the associations of the putative mediator depression at T6, with positive symptoms at baseline (T0) (Fig. 1b), and with negative symptoms at T12 (Fig. 1c), were both significant (β =0.068, p=0.036; and β =0.046, p=0.043, respectively). However, depression at T6 was also significantly associated with positive symptoms at T12 (β =0.058, p=0.037), as were negative symptoms at T6 with depression at T12 (β =0.061, p=0.048). Taken altogether, the bivariate analyses suggested a potential mediating role for depression.

We consequently fitted a dedicated mediation model. Figure 2 shows the structural equation model testing the longitudinal indirect effect from positive symptoms at T0 to negative symptoms at T12, via depression at T6, holding antipsychotic medication status as observed time-varying covariate.

The various cross-sectional correlations at T0 between positive, depressive and negative symptoms, were all strong and significant, as would be expected in this clinical population. In addition, the structural model showed strong and significant autoregressive paths over time (all Ps<0.001) for both latent positive and latent negative symptoms. Furthermore, the model supported a significant direct effect of positive symptoms at T0 on negative symptoms at T12 (β =0.05, p=0.032). However,

when we assessed mediation via depression, positive symptoms at T0 were not associated with depression at T6 (β =0.06, p=0.090), and this in turn showed no association with negative symptoms at T12. There was consequently no significant indirect effect of positive on negative symptoms. The model showed acceptable fit to the data [(χ^2 (991) = 3085.66, *P* < 0.001; CFI = 0.913; RMSEA = 0.042 (90% CI: 0.040, 0.044); SRMR = 0.066].

Figures 1 and 2 about here

DISCUSSION

Main findings

In a large, representative cohort of people with schizophrenia, we tested the hypothesis that depressive symptoms would mediate the effect of initial positive symptoms on negative symptoms 12 months later. Overall, all types of symptoms declined in frequency over this period, though modestly so, as would be expected in a cohort of people with established schizophrenia. Although we uncovered the required associations between positive symptoms at baseline and negative symptoms at 12 months, and between both of these and CDSS depression levels at 6 months, depression could not be said to mediate the longitudinal association between PANSS scores: virtually all the effect was direct. The results from the modeling therefore did not support our hypothesis.

Interpretation of findings

Depression in people with schizophrenia is a controversial issue in Kraepelinian categorical and hierarchical diagnostic systems (Upthegrove *et al.*, 2017). In our study, we established a longitudinal interplay between positive and negative symptoms, but this was not mediated by depressive symptoms assessed with the CDSS. Nevertheless, our results overall are consistent with

other evidence that depression is in some sense integral to schizophrenic illness (Upthegrove *et al.*, 2010).

Distinguishing depressive and negative symptoms is particularly challenging (Bosanac and Castle, 2012). Empirically, negative symptoms resolve themselves into two factors: the first implies alogia and diminished expression of affect, while the second involves avolition, including anhedonia and asociality (Blanchard and Cohen, 2006). However, whereas anhedonia is common to negative symptoms and to depression, subjective reports of hopelessness, guilt and suicidal ideation may be restricted to depressive illness (Addington et al., 1996). Thus depression operates through multiple pathways that are not entirely understood, and which may be in part separate from those linking psychotic symptoms. It may be better conceived through the RDoC approach to negative symptoms, with its "positive valence" system. This proposes differences in the mechanisms of motivational and hedonic impairments across distinct diagnostic categories, including depression and schizophrenia (Cuthbert and Kozak, 2013). In particular, there seems to be a critical disparity in the nature of incentive processing impairments. Thus it appears that the pathways leading to impairments in motivated behaviour in psychotic and depressive illness are different (Barch et al., 2016). Impaired incentive processing in schizophrenia may be more related to compromised goal representation and utilization mechanisms than to fundamental deficits in hedonic experience (Kring and Barch, 2014). On the other hand it has been argued that, in the context of depression, altered incentive processing may be more linked to deficits in hedonic experience, which spread to produce impaired motivated behaviour (Liu et al., 2014). Thus, whilst anhedonia broadly defined may be found in different diagnostic categories, specific subdomains (e.g., anticipatory, consummatory, and motivational anhedonia) maybe more specific (Upthegrove et al., 2010), acting in concert with apathy, social withdrawal, negative self-concept (Barrowclough et al., 2003), self-stigma, and poor motivation to build the core features of depression in schizophrenia (Sandhu et al., 2013). This is somehow consistent with a recent, elegant, dimensional model, though mainly based on cross-sectional

evidence, which has proposed a tripartition for the relationship between depressive and negative features (Krynicki *et al.*, 2018). It distinguishes symptoms that span both depressive and negative symptoms (e.g., anergia) and those that represent specific symptoms of depression (e.g., hopelessness) and negative symptoms (such as blunted affect). Future research should provide also longitudinal evidence of this proposed disentanglement among different symptoms in people with schizophrenia.

While our findings have implications for the conceptualization of schizophrenic processes, they also reflect on the rational choice of treatment. Antidepressants are prescribed to around 30% of people with schizophrenia (Mao and Zhang, 2015). The main guidelines are unclear regarding the management of depressive and negative symptoms in schizophrenia with antidepressants (Lehman et al., 2004; Buchanan et al., 2010; Barnes, 2011; NICE, 2014). While their addition carries little risk of side effects and relapse in psychosis, they also have scant effect on either depressive or negative symptoms (Helfer et al., 2016). Our findings indirectly support this pessimistic view of the likely effect of antidepressant prescription on negative symptoms (Fusar-Poli et al., 2015), whose treatment remains generally disappointing (Kirkpatrick et al., 2006). Adaptations of cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) found useful for anxiety and depression are routinely recommended for people with schizophrenia (NICE, 2014). However, CBT research in recent years has primarily focused on effects on positive symptoms, transition from high-risk status and more recently on distress. As yet no studies have used depression as a primary outcome (Mehl et al., 2015), and secondary evidence shows no effect on hopelessness (Wykes et al., 2008). CBT interventions may therefore need further development to address the specific problems posed by the depressive experience in people with schizophrenia.

Strengths and limitations

Our analyses represent a significant advance over cross-sectional studies, where inferences about the directionality of association must inevitably be very tentative. Our retention of participants in the later time-points was good, though attrition inevitably tends to distort the representativeness of samples. ICD-10 and DSM-IV equivalent research diagnoses for schizophrenia and the assessment of positive and negative symptoms were based on formal interviews, whilst depression was assessed by the CDSS, which focuses specifically on symptoms distinct from those that in their nature might be secondary manifestations of negative symptoms. In addition, by using the PANSS we excluded those negative symptoms with a strong a priori likelihood of being secondary. Finally, our design, which excluded recently hospitalized subjects, would also have the effect of reducing the likelihood of secondary negative symptoms. We controlled for time-varying levels of antipsychotic medication since this might affect symptom levels differentially and hence the corresponding correlations (Sarkar *et al.*, 2015). Nonetheless, while our cross-lagged longitudinal models can provide information about causal ordering, the gold standard of causal inference remains targeted intervention (Kenny, 2005).

Conclusion

Our understanding of the interplay between different symptoms in schizophrenia remains limited, with corresponding limitations on treatment strategies. In particular, the nature of negative symptoms and their relationship with depression is far from fully understood despite ongoing efforts seeking biomarkers and endophenotypes. Pharmacological and other treatment strategies are likely to remain tentative until these gaps are filled. Research should also maintain a focus on nonbiological factors, which have a role regardless of any underlying disease process.

Acknowledgments

Our thanks to all the patients and staff that helped with the study and to the Camden and Islington Mental Health and NHS Foundation Trust and the Leicestershire Partnership NHS Trust R&D Programme and to those who collected the data and otherwise contributed to the main study, including Gloria Castagna, Ilaria Riboldi and Giulia Trotta.

Conflict of interest

None.

Ethical standards

The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical standards of the relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008.

References

- Addington D, Addington J, Atkinson M (1996). A psychometric comparison of the Calgary depression scale for schizophrenia and the Hamilton depression rating scale. *Schizophrenia Research* **19**, 205-212.
- Addington D, Addington J, Maticka-Tyndale E, Joyce J (1992). Reliability and validity of a depression rating scale for schizophrenics. *Schizophrenia Research* **6**, 201-208.
- Addington D, Addington J, Schissel B (1990). A depression rating scale for schizophrenics. *Schizophrenia Research* **3**, 247-251.
- Andreasen NC, Olsen S (1982). Negative and positive symptoms in schizophrenia: Definition and validation. *Archives of General Psychiatry* **30**, 789-794.
- Barch DM, Pagliaccio D, Luking K (2016). Mechanisms Underlying Motivational Deficits in Psychopathology: Similarities and Differences in Depression and Schizophrenia. *Current Topics in Behavioral Neurosciences*. 27, 411-449.
- Barnes TR; Schizophrenia Consensus Group of British Association for Psychopharmacology (2011). Evidence-based guidelines for the pharmacological treatment of schizophrenia: recommendations from the British Association for Psychopharmacology. *Journal of Psychopharmacology* 25, 567-620.
- **Barrowclough C, Tarrier N, Humphreys L, Ward J, Gregg L, Andrews B** (2003). Selfesteem in schizophrenia: relationships between self-evaluation, family attitudes, and symptomatology. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* **112**, 92-99.
- Bebbington PE, Angermeyer M, Azorin JM, Brugha T, Kilian R, Johnson S, Toumi M, Kornfeld A; EuroSC Research Group (2005). The European Schizophrenia Cohort (EuroSC): a naturalistic prognostic and economic study. *Soc Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology* 40, 707-717.
- Best MW, Gupta M, Bowie CR, Harvey PD (2014). A longitudinal examination of the moderating effects of symptoms on the relationship between functional competence and real world functional performance in Schizophrenia. *Schizophrenia Research. Cognition* **1**, 90-95.
- **Birchwood M, Iqbal Z, Upthegrove R** (2005). Psychological pathways to depression in schizophrenia: studies in acute psychosis, post psychotic depression and auditory hallucinations. *European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience* **255**, 202-212.
- Blanchard JJ, Cohen AS (2006). The Structure of Negative Symptoms Within Schizophrenia: Implications for Assessment. *Schizophrenia Bulletin* **32**, 238-245.
- Bosanac P, Castle D (2012). Schizophrenia and depression. *The Medical Journal of Australia* 9, 36-39.

- Buchanan RW (2007). Persistent negative symptoms in schizophrenia: an overview. *Schizophrenia Bulletin* **33**, 1013-1022.
- Buchanan RW, Kreyenbuhl J, Kelly DL, Noel JM, Boggs DL, Fischer BA, Himelhoch S, Fang B, Peterson E, Aquino PR, Keller W; Schizophrenia Patient Outcomes Research Team (PORT) (2010). The 2009 schizophrenia PORT psychopharmacological treatment recommendations and summary statements. *Schizophrenia Bulletin* 36, 71-93.
- Carpenter WT Jr, Heinrichs DW, Wagman AM (1988). Deficit and nondeficit forms of schizophrenia: the concept. *The American Journal of Psychiatry* **145**, 578-583.
- Carrà G, Crocamo C, Angermeyer M, Brugha T, Toumi M, Bebbington P (2018). Positive and negative symptoms in schizophrenia: A longitudinal analysis using latent variable structural equation modelling. *Schizophrenia Research [in press]* doi: 10.1016/j.schres.2018.08.018.
- Cole DA, Maxwell SE (2003). Testing mediational models with longitudinal data: questions and tips in the use of structural equation modeling. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* 112, 558-577.
- Crow TJ (1980). Positive and negative schizophrenic symptoms and the role of dopamine. *The British Journal of Psychiatry* **137**, 383-386.
- Cuthbert BN, Kozak MJ (2013). Constructing constructs for psychopathology: the NIMH research domain criteria. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* **122**, 928-937.
- Fusar-Poli P, Nelson B, Valmaggia L, Yung AR, McGuire PK (2014). Comorbid depressive and anxiety disorders in 509 individuals with an at-risk mental state: impact on psychopathology and transition to psychosis. *Schizophrenia Bulletin* **40**, 120-131.
- Fusar-Poli P, Papanastasiou E, Stahl D, Rocchetti M, Carpenter W, Shergill S, McGuire P (2015). Treatments of Negative Symptoms in Schizophrenia: Meta-Analysis of 168
 Randomized Placebo-Controlled Trials. *Schizophrenia Bulletin* 41, 892-899.
- Helfer B, Samara MT, Huhn M, Klupp E, Leucht C, Zhu Y, Engel RR, Leucht S (2016). Efficacy and Safety of Antidepressants Added to Antipsychotics for Schizophrenia: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *The American Journal of Psychiatry* 173, 876-886.
- Hu L, Bentler PM (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal* 6, 1-55.
- Kay SR (1990). Positive-negative symptom assessment in schizophrenia: psychometric issues and scale comparison. *Psychiatric Quarterly*. **61**, 163-178.

- Kay SR, Opler LA, Lindenmayer JP (1989). The positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (PANSS): rationale and standardisation. *The British Journal of Psychiatry. Supplement* 155, 59-67.
- Kenny DA (2005). Cross-lagged panel design. In *Encyclopedia of statistics in behavioral science* (ed. B. S. Everitt and D. C. Howell), vol 1, pp. 450-451. John Wiley & Sons: New York.
- Kirkpatrick B, Fenton WS, Carpenter WT Jr, Marder SR (2006). The NIMH-MATRICS consensus statement on negative symptoms. *Schizophrenia Bulletin* **32**, 214-219.
- Kring AM, Barch DM (2014). The motivation and pleasure dimension of negative symptoms: neural substrates and behavioral outputs. *European Neuropsychopharmacology* **24**, 725-736.
- Krynicki CR, Upthegrove R, Deakin JFW, Barnes TRE (2018). The relationship between negative symptoms and depression in schizophrenia: a systematic review. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica* **137**, 380-390.
- Lehman AF, Lieberman JA, Dixon LB, McGlashan TH, Miller AL, Perkins DO, Kreyenbuhl J; American Psychiatric Association; Steering Committee on Practice Guidelines (2004). Practice guideline for the treatment of patients with schizophrenia, second edition. *The American Journal of Psychiatry* 161(2 Suppl), 1-56.
- Leucht S, Arbter D, Engel RR, Kissling, W, Davis JM (2009). How effective are secondgeneration antipsychotic drugs? A meta-analysis of placebo-controlled trials. *Molecular Psychiatry* 14, 429-447.
- Liu WH, Wang LZ, Shang HR, Shen Y, Li Z, Cheung EF, Chan RC (2014). The influence of anhedonia on feedback negativity in major depressive disorder. *Neuropsychologia* 53, 213-220.
- Lockhart G, MacKinnon DP, Ohlrich V (2011). Mediation analysis in psychosomatic medicine research. *Psychosomatic Medicine* **73**, 29-43.
- Mao YM, Zhang MD (2015). Augmentation with antidepressants in schizophrenia treatment: benefit or risk. *Neuropsychiatric Disease and Treatment* **11**, 701-713.
- Marwaha S, Broome MR, Bebbington PE, Kuipers E, Freeman D (2014). Mood instability and psychosis: analyses of British national survey data. *Schizophrenia Bulletin* **40**, 269-277.
- Maxwell SE, Cole DA (2007). Bias in cross-sectional analyses of longitudinal mediation. *Psychological Methods* **12**, 23-44.
- Mehl S, Werner D, Lincoln TM (2015). Does Cognitive Behavior Therapy for psychosis (CBTp) show a sustainable effect on delusions? A meta-analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology* 6, 1450.

- Millan MJ, Fone K, Steckler T, Horan WP (2014). Negative symptoms of schizophrenia: clinical characteristics, pathophysiological substrates, experimental models and prospects for improved treatment. *European Neuropsychopharmacology* **24**, 645-692.
- Muthén LK, Muthén, BO (2017). Mplus User's Guide. 1998-2017. Muthén and Muthén: Los Angeles.
- NICE National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (2014). Psychosis and schizophrenia: treatment and management. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence: London. (<u>http://guidance.nice.org.uk/CG178</u>). Accessed 24 September 2018.
- Norman RM, Malla AK, Cortese L, Diaz F (1996). A study of the interrelationship between and comparative interrater reliability of the SAPS, SANS and PANSS. *Schizophrenia Research* 19, 73-85.
- **Pogue-Geile MF, Harrow M** (1984). Negative and positive symptoms in schizophrenia and depression: a followup. *Schizophrenia Bulletin* **10**, 371-387.
- Sandhu A, Ives J, Birchwood M, Upthegrove R (2013). The subjective experience and phenomenology of depression following first episode psychosis: a qualitative study using photo-elicitation. *Journal of Affective Disorders* **149**, 166-174.
- Sarkar S, Hillner K, Velligan DI (2015). Conceptualization and treatment of negative symptoms in schizophrenia. *World Journal of Psychiatry* **5**, 352-361.
- Sax KW, Strakowski SM, Keck PE Jr, Upadhyaya VH, West SA, McElroy SL (1996). Relationships among negative, positive, and depressive symptoms in schizophrenia and psychotic depression. *The British Journal of Psychiatry* **168**, 68-71.
- Spitzer RL, Williams JB, Gibbon M, First MB (1992). The Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-III-R (SCID).I: History, rationale, and description. *Archives of General Psychiatry* 49, 624-629.
- Strauss GP, Sandt AR, Catalano LT, Allen DN (2012). Negative symptoms and depression predict lower psychological well-being in individuals with schizophrenia. *Comprehensive Psychiatry* 53, 1137-1144.
- Upthegrove R, Birchwood M, Ross K, Brunett K, McCollum R, Jones L (2010). The evolution of depression and suicidality in first episode psychosis. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica* 122, 211-218.
- Upthegrove R, Marwaha S, Birchwood M (2017). Depression and Schizophrenia: Cause, Consequence, or Trans-diagnostic Issue? *Schizophrenia Bulletin* **43**, 240-244.
- WHO World Health Organization (1992). SCAN: Schedule for Clinical Assessment in Neuropsychiatry. WHO Press: Geneva.

- Wykes T, Steel C, Everitt B, Tarrier N (2008). Cognitive behavior therapy for schizophrenia: effect sizes, clinical models, and methodological rigor. *Schizophrenia Bulletin* **34**, 523-537.
- Yung AR, Buckby JA, Cosgrave EM, Killackey EJ, Baker K, Cotton SM, McGorry PD (2007). Association between psychotic experiences and depression in a clinical sample over 6 months. *Schizophrenia Research* **91**, 246-253.

	Time 1 (baseline)			Time 2 (6 months)			Time 3 (12 months)		
	Ν	Mean	SD	Ν	Mean	SD	Ν	Mean	SD
PANSS positive	1188	12.39	5.57	1010	11.96	5.53	949	11.84	5.24
PANSS negative	1185	15.76	7.64	996	15.53	7.14	930	15.49	7.29
PANSS gen psych	1179	29.33	10.68	1013	28.18	9.93	942	28.16	9.53
CDSS	1184	2.91	3.58	1012	2.44	3.46	944	2.37	3.33

Table 1 Means and SD for PANSS, CDSS and scores at different times

Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (PANSS); Calgary Depression Scale for Schizophrenia (CDSS). There are missing values for some items that SEM dealt with: the greatest numbers of missing items is for T 3 CDSS

Figure legends

Figure 1. Standardized structural coefficients for the bivariate models of: 1a) PANSS positive at T0 and negative at T12; **1b**) PANSS positive at T0 and CDSS at T6; and **1c**) CDSS at T6 and PANSS negative at T12

Figure 2. Structural equation model for testing longitudinal indirect effects from positive to negative symptoms via depression levels with antipsychotic medication status as observed time-varying covariates (standardized coefficients).

Ellipses represent latent variables. Rectangles represent observed (measured) time-varying covariates. Single-headed and double-headed arrows represent the effect of one variable on another and within-time correlations between pairs of latent variables, respectively. Dashed lines represent non-significant paths. T0 = baseline, T6 = 6 months follow-up; T12 = 12 months follow-up. *P <.05, **P <.01, ***P < 0.001

±



169



LO.



±



169



LO.





