JAMA Open.

Original Investigation | Psychiatry Association of Posttraumatic Stress and Depressive Symptoms With Mortality in Women

Andrea L. Roberts, PhD; Laura D. Kubzansky, PhD; Lori B. Chibnik, PhD; Eric B. Rimm, ScD; Karestan C. Koenen, PhD

Abstract

IMPORTANCE Consistent evidence has found associations between posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and increased risk of chronic disease and greater prevalence of health risk factors. However, the association between PTSD and all-cause mortality has not been thoroughly investigated in civilians.

OBJECTIVE To investigate the association between PTSD symptoms, with or without comorbid depressive symptoms, and risk of death.

DESIGN, SETTING, AND PARTICIPANTS This prospective cohort study was conducted using data on female US nurses in the Nurses' Health Study II followed up from 2008 to 2017. Women who responded to a 2008 questionnaire querying PTSD and depressive symptoms were included. Data were analyzed from September 2018 to November 2020.

EXPOSURES Symptoms of PTSD, measured using the short screening scale for *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (Fourth Edition) PTSD, and depression symptoms, measured using the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale-10 in 2008.

MAIN OUTCOMES AND MEASURES All-cause mortality was determined via National Death Index, US Postal Service, or report of participant's family. The hypothesis being tested was formulated after data collection. Trauma exposure and PTSD symptoms were jointly coded as no trauma exposure (reference), trauma and no PTSD symptoms, 1 to 3 PTSD symptoms (subclinical), 4 to 5 PTSD symptoms (moderate), and 6 to 7 PTSD symptoms (high).

RESULTS Among 51 602 women (50 137 [97.2%] White individuals), the mean (range) age was 53.3 (43-64) years at study baseline in 2008. PTSD and probable depression were comorbid; of 4019 women with high PTSD symptoms, 2093 women (52.1%) had probable depression, while of 10 105 women with no trauma exposure, 1215 women (12.0%) had probable depression. Women with high PTSD symptoms and probable depression were at nearly 4-fold greater risk of death compared with women with no trauma exposure and no depression (hazard ratio [HR], 3.80; 95% CI, 2.65-5.45; P < .001). After adjustment for health factors, women with these conditions had a more than 3-fold increased risk (HR, 3.11; 95% CI, 2.16-4.47, P < .001). Women with subclinical PTSD symptoms without probable depression had increased risk of death compared with women with no trauma exposure and no depression (HR, 1.43; 95% CI, 1.06-1.93; P = .02). Among 7565 women with PTSD symptoms and probable depression, 109 deaths (1.4%) occurred for which we obtained cause of death information, compared with 124 such deaths (0.6%) among 22 215 women with no depression or PTSD symptoms. Women with PTSD symptoms and probable depression, compared with women with no PTSD or depression, had higher rates of death from cardiovascular disease (17 women [0.22%] vs 11 women [0.05%]; P < .001), diabetes (4 women [0.05%] vs 0 women; P < .001), unintentional injury (7 women [0.09%] vs 7 women [0.03%]; P = .03), suicide (9 women [0.12%] vs

Den Access. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the CC-BY License.

JAMA Network Open. 2020;3(12):e2027935. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.27935

Key Points

Question Are comorbid posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and depressive symptoms associated with mortality risk in women?

Findings In this cohort study of 51 602 women followed up for 9 years, those with high PTSD symptoms and comorbid-probable depression had 3.8-fold increased risk of death compared with women without trauma exposure or probable depression. Decreased body mass index, nonsmoking status, physical activity, and being married were associated with decreased risk of death.

Meaning These findings suggest that treatment of PTSD and depression in women with symptoms of both disorders and efforts that improve their health behaviors may reduce the increased risk of mortality among this population.

Author affiliations and article information are listed at the end of this article.

(continued)

Abstract (continued)

1 woman [<0.01%]; *P* < .001), and other causes of death (14 women [0.19%] vs 17 women [0.08%]; *P* = .01).

CONCLUSIONS AND RELEVANCE These findings suggest that at midlife, women with high PTSD symptoms and co-occurring probable depression are at increased risk of death compared with women without these disorders. Treatment of PTSD and depression in women with symptoms of both disorders and efforts to improve their health behaviors may reduce their increased risk of mortality.

JAMA Network Open. 2020;3(12):e2027935. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.27935

Introduction

Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) has been associated with increased risk of chronic disease, including hypertension, cardiovascular disease, and type 2 diabetes, ¹⁻⁵ and with greater prevalence of health risk factors, such as obesity and smoking.^{6,7} Furthermore, PTSD has been associated with biological changes involved in several disease processes,⁸ including hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenalaxis alterations and related inflammation and immune dysregulation, ⁹⁻¹¹ oxidative stress, ¹² poor sleep.¹³ and indicators of accelerated aging.^{5,14} These diseases, health risk factors, and biological changes are associated with increased mortality.¹⁵ However, the association between PTSD and all-cause mortality has been investigated almost exclusively in samples of male military veterans. In these studies, ¹⁶⁻²² PTSD has been associated with increased risk of all-cause mortality as well as mortality from cardiovascular disease, cancer, and external causes, such as unintentional and intentional injury, with few exceptions.²³ However, PTSD occurs at higher rates among women. In the United States, lifetime prevalence of PTSD in women is more than 2-fold that of men (9.7% vs 3.6%).²⁴ Risk of PTSD following a trauma exposure is similarly 2-fold higher in women compared with men.^{25,26} Only 1 large study,²⁷ using Danish medical records, has investigated the association of PTSD with mortality in women or civilians, finding more than 2-fold the risk of death in individuals with PTSD vs those without PTSD.

Depression often co-occurs with PTSD²⁸ and, like PTSD, it is far more prevalent in women than men.^{29,30} Depression has been independently associated with greater prevalence of health risk factors^{31,32} and risk of mortality.³³⁻³⁶ Evidence also suggests that PTSD with depression may constitute a particularly severe subtype of posttraumatic response, with unique biological outcomes important for physical health.³⁷ Thus, PTSD with depression may be associated with even greater risk of mortality compared with PTSD alone. However, to our knowledge, only 3 relatively short-term studies have examined this possibility. One study,³⁸ among Japanese earthquake survivors ages 65 years and older, found increased risk of all-cause mortality over 3.3 years of follow-up among individuals who had depression at baseline, regardless of whether they had high PTSD symptoms, compared with individuals who did not have depression at baseline. Individuals with PTSD and depression were not at significantly increased risk of dying during the follow-up period compared with those with depression only. A 2013 study³⁹ of 391 patients with end-stage kidney disease found increased risk of death among patients with both depression and PTSD and patients with depression alone but not among those with PTSD alone, compared with patients with neither disorder, in 3.5 years of follow-up. A 2010 study⁴⁰ of in-hospital mortality after a coronary artery bypass grafting surgical treatment found that patients with comorbid depression and PTSD were at increased risk of death compared with patients with neither disorder. Patients also had an increased risk of death if they had depression alone or PTSD alone.

Several studies^{6,31,32,41} have found that individuals with PTSD or depression, compared with individuals without these disorders, have increased prevalence of health risk factors, such as smoking and obesity, which may contribute to increased mortality. Thus, higher prevalence of health risk

factors in individuals with co-occurring PTSD and depression may account for possible increased mortality. It remains largely unknown whether PTSD is associated with increased mortality among civilians and women, whether co-occurring depression is associated with further increased risk, and whether health-risk factors are associated with these increased risks of death. In the present study, we examined the association of PTSD and depression symptoms with risk of death in a large prospective cohort of women, the Nurses' Health Study II.⁴² We further examined whether health-related factors, including body mass index (BMI; calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared), smoking, and exercise, were associated with differences in mortality among individuals with PTSD or depression.

Methods

This cohort study examined women in the Nurses' Health Study II. The institutional review board of Brigham and Women's Hospital approved that study's protocol. Return of the questionnaire by the respondent via US mail constituted implied informed consent. The Nurses' Health Study II is an ongoing cohort study of 116 429 women, enrolled in 1989 at ages 25 to 42 years (median age, 34.0 years) and followed biennially. In 2008, 60 804 women who completed the most recent biennial questionnaire and an earlier supplemental questionnaire were mailed a supplemental PTSD questionnaire, with 54 687 women responding. As the Nurses' Health Study II was initially formed to study the health effects of oral contraceptive use, only women were enrolled.

Measures

Trauma, PTSD, and Depression

For each of 15 potentially traumatic events (eg, serious motor vehicle crash) and an additional other event, women in the study reported in 2008 whether they had ever experienced the event. They were asked which event they considered their worst or most distressing event. Seven PTSD symptoms in relation to this worst event were queried with the Short Screening Scale for Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (Fourth Edition)⁴³ PTSD.⁴⁴ Trauma exposure and PTSD symptoms were jointly coded as no trauma exposure (reference), trauma and no PTSD symptoms, 1 to 3 PTSD symptoms (subclinical), 4 to 5 PTSD symptoms (moderate), and 6 to 7 PTSD symptoms (high). In a representative sample of Detroit residents ages 18 to 45 years, 44 a cutoff of 4 or more identified PTSD cases with sensitivity of 80%, specificity of 97%, positive predictive value of 71%, and negative predictive value of 98%, and a cutoff of 6 or more identified cases with sensitivity of 38%, specificity of 99%, positive predictive value of 87%, and negative predictive value of 95%. We additionally coded PTSD symptoms as a continuous variable (range, O-7). Past-week depressive symptoms were assessed in 2008 using the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale-10 (CESD-10)⁴⁵ and dichotomized at 10 or more to indicate probable depression.⁴⁵ We additionally coded depressive symptoms as a continuous variable (range, 0-30). The CESD-10 has been validated against the highly validated longer form, the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale-20, in a sample of older adults in a US health-maintenance organization (Cohen κ , 0.97)⁴⁵ and against clinical evaluations with good psychometrics.^{46,47}

To examine the co-occurrence of PTSD and depression with mortality, we also characterized PTSD and depression with an interaction term, using indicator variables as follows: no depression or trauma (reference), trauma with no depression and no PTSD symptoms, no depression and 1 to 3 PTSD symptoms, no depression and 4 to 5 PTSD symptoms, no depression and 6 to 7 PTSD symptoms, depression and trauma with no PTSD symptoms, depression and 1 to 3 PTSD symptoms, depression and 4 to 5 PTSD symptoms, and depression and 6 to 7 PTSD symptoms.

Mortality

Mortality through December 2017 and cause of death were ascertained from family members, the National Death Index, cancer registries, and the US Postal Service. Owing to time lags between report

of death and ascertainment and coding of death record data, cause of death was available for 384 of 555 women (69.1%) who died during follow-up.

Health-Related Factors and Covariates

Health-related factors included BMI, smoking status, physical activity, and marital status at or before study baseline in 2008. We did not time-update these factors, as illness preceding death could lead to weight loss, smoking cessation, and reduced physical activity. Self-reported height in 1989 and weight in 2007 were used to calculate BMI, coded with continuous and squared terms, as this produced the best-fitting model. Smoking was assessed biennially through 2007 and coded as never; past smoker of 1 to 4, 5 to 14, 15 to 24, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, or 45 or more cigarettes per day; or present smoker of 1 to 4, 5 to 14, 15 to 24, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, or 45 or more cigarettes per day. In 2005, respondents reported their mean time spent per week in 10 different recreational activities (eg, swimming or walking). Past-year physical activity was calculated in metabolic-equivalent hours per week from these responses. Respondents reported current marital status in 2008 as married, divorced, separated, widowed, in domestic partnership, or single. We considered parental socioeconomic status during the respondent's infancy, reported in 2005, as a potential confounder. Highest occupation (ie, jobs that usually have higher status and pay) of either parent during the respondent's infancy was reported as farmer, laborer, blue-collar (eg, mechanic or bus driver) or lower white-collar worker (ie, secretarial or clerical work), or managerial or professional. Parental education was reported as high school or above, some college, or college graduate or above, and parental home ownership in respondent's infancy was coded as yes or no. In 2005, respondents indicated their race/ethnicity by selecting 1 or more of the following: White, Black or African American, American Indian or Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, or other. For analyses, race was coded White or non-White, as 50 137 individuals in the sample (97.2%) selected only White. Age was measured in months.

Statistical Analysis

We examined the distribution of health-related factors and covariates by PTSD and depression status in 2008. We then calculated the association of health-related factors with mortality by fitting a single Cox proportional hazard model with all factors included as independent variables, adjusted for age and race/ethnicity. To investigate the association of PTSD and depression with mortality, we first examined the association of PTSD with depression. We then ascertained the best-fitting model, using the Akaike information criterion⁴⁸ to compare 4 models: PTSD alone; depression alone; PTSD and depression; and PTSD, depression, and a PTSD-depression interaction term, using indicator variables as previously described. Finally, we fit 2 Cox proportional hazard models using the best-fitting model, adjusted for age, race/ethnicity, and childhood socioeconomic status and further adjusted for health-related factors, including BMI, smoking status, physical activity, and marital status. In additional analyses, we examined the association of mortality with depression and PTSD symptoms coded continuously, with an interaction term calculated by multiplying the 2 continuous variables, among women exposed to a traumatic event.

To reduce concerns that illness caused both PTSD or depressive symptoms and death, we excluded 3026 women who reported serious illness as their worst trauma and excluded the first year of person-time after the 2008 PTSD questionnaire, meaning we excluded 52 women who died during that year. We excluded an additional 7 women who did not respond to questionnaires between 2009 and 2017, leaving 51 602 women in the sample. For all models, hazard ratios (HRs) were estimated using the phreg procedure in SAS statistical software version 9.4 (SAS Institute). A 2-sided *P* < .05 was considered significant in statistical tests. Data analysis was performed from September 2018 to November 2020.

To improve power, we examined cause of death in 3 aggregated groups: women with no depression or PTSD symptoms, women with any (1-7) PTSD symptoms or with depression but not both, and women with any PTSD symptoms and depression. We tested differences between the

reference group of women with no depression or PTSD symptoms and each of the other 2 groups using χ^2 tests.

Results

At baseline in 2008, this study included 51 602 women, with mean (range) age 53.3 (43-64) years; 50 137 women (97.2%) were White. The 2093 women with co-occurring high PTSD symptoms and probable depression, compared with 8890 women with no trauma exposure and no depression, were more likely to be divorced or separated (519 women [24.8%] vs 717 women [8.1%]), have obesity (699 women ([33.4%] vs 1985 women [22.3%]), and be current smokers (235 women [11.2%] vs 389 women [4.4%]). Women with high PTSD and probable depression were also more likely, compared with 1926 women with high PTSD symptoms and no depression, to be divorced or separated (295 women [15.3%]), have obesity (508 women [26.4%]), and be current smokers (131 women [6.8%]). Additionally, women with high PTSD symptoms and probable depression, compared with 1700 women with depression and no PTSD symptoms, were more likely to be divorced or separated (250 women [14.7%]), have obesity (521 women [30.6%]), and be current smokers (142 women [8.4%]). The 10 529 women with probable depression, regardless of PTSD symptoms, had higher risk of low physical activity compared with 41 073 women without probable depression (2066 women [19.6%] vs 5729 women [14.0%]) (Table 1). Depression and PTSD were not associated with age at interview or race/ethnicity. In a mutually adjusted model, past and current smoking status vs never-smoked status, higher BMI, less physical activity, and divorced or separated status or single status vs married status were associated with increased mortality. For example, current smoking was associated with more than 2-fold increased risk of death (HR, 2.81; 95% CI, 2.18-3.61), being divorced or separated was associated with 30% increased risk of death (HR, 1.30; 95% CI, 1.02-1.65), and low physical activity (ie, less than 3 metabolic equivalents/wk) was associated with nearly 50% increased risk of death compared with high physical activity (ie, 42 or more metabolic equivalents/wk) (HR, 1.49; 95% CI, 1.09-2.04). Childhood socioeconomic status and participant's race/ethnicity were not associated with increased mortality.

We found that PTSD was associated with depression. While probable depression was reported in 1215 of 10 105 women (12%) with no trauma exposure, depression was reported in 2949 of 15 462 women (19%) with 1 to 3 PTSD symptoms, 2572 of 6931 women (37%) with 4 to 5 PTSD symptoms, and 2093 of 4019 women (52%) with 6 to 7 PTSD symptoms. Among 51 609 women, 555 deaths occurred. Women with comorbid PTSD and depression were substantially more likely to die during follow-up compared with women with no trauma exposure and no depression: among 2093 women with high PTSD symptoms and depression, 57 women (2.7%) died, while among 8890 women with no trauma or depression, 63 women (0.7%) died. The best-fitting model of mortality included PTSD, probable depression, and a PTSD-depression interaction term (P for interaction = .06). In models adjusted for age, race/ethnicity, and childhood socioeconomic indicators, co-occurring PTSD and depression were associated with mortality. Women with high PTSD symptoms and depression were at nearly 4-fold increased risk of death compared with women with no trauma exposure or depression (HR, 3.80; 95% CI, 2.65-5.45; P < .001). Women with depression and moderate PTSD symptoms (HR, 2.03; 95% CI, 1.35-3.03; P < .001) and depression and subclinical PTSD symptoms (HR, 2.85; 95% CI, 1.99-4.07; P < .001) were also at increased risk of death compared with women with no trauma or depression (Table 2). With further adjustment for health factors, women with high PTSD symptoms and depression remained at increased risk of death (HR, 3.11; 95% C, 2.16-4.47; P < .001) (Table 2). Women with subclinical PTSD symptoms without probable depression had increased risk of death compared with women with no trauma or depression (HR, 1.43; 95% CI, 1.06-1.93; P = .02) (Table 2). Depression in women without trauma exposure was associated with more than 2-fold increased risk of death (HR, 2.39; 95% CI, 1.44-3.95; P < .001). However, risk of mortality among women with depression and trauma exposure who did not develop PTSD symptoms was not increased compared with the reference group (HR, 1.28; 95% CI, 0.74-2.21; P = .39) (Table 2).

To further explore which potentially modifiable health factors might account for increased risk of death among women with PTSD and depression, we fit 3 additional models separately adjusted for BMI, smoking, and physical activity. The association of PTSD and depression with mortality remained significant in models adjusted for BMI or smoking. For example, among women with depression and high PTSD symptoms, the HR adjusted for BMI was 3.57 (95% CI, 2.49-5.13; *P* < .001) and the HR adjusted for smoking was 3.40 (95% CI, 2.67-4.89; *P* < .001) (Table 2).

In analyses among women who had trauma exposure, with PTSD and depression symptoms coded continuously, the best-fitting model included PTSD, depression, and an interaction term. In women without depression symptoms, increased number of PTSD symptoms was not associated with increased mortality (HR per PTSD symptom, 0.97; 95% CI, 0.91-1.04; P = .42). Depression symptoms and depression-PTSD interaction were associated with increased risk of mortality (HR per

Table 1. Health-Related Characteristics at the Time of PTSD and Depression Assessment, Among 51 602 Women

	Women, No. (%)									
	Without depression					With depression				
Characteristic ^a		PTSD symptoms, No.				PTSD symp	toms, No.			
	No trauma (n = 8890)	0 (n = 13 385)	1-3 (n = 12 513)	4-5 (n = 4359)	6-7 (n = 1926)	No trauma (n = 1215)	0 (n = 1700)	1-3 (n = 2949)	4-5 (n = 2572)	6-7 (n = 2093)
Age, mean (SD), y	53.2	53.4	53.3	53.3	53.3	53.2	53.3	53.2	53.5	53.6
	(4.7)	(4.7)	(4.6)	(4.6)	(4.5)	(4.8)	(4.7)	(4.6)	(4.5)	(4.4)
Race/ethnicity										
White	8649	12 985	12 143	4257	1876	1181	1658	2861	2498	2029
	(97.3)	(97.0)	(97.0)	(97.7)	(97.4)	(97.2)	(97.5)	(97.0)	(97.1)	(96.9)
Black	77	166	150	32	8	9	17	28	28	21
	(0.9)	(1.2)	(1.2)	(0.7)	(0.4)	(0.7)	(1.0)	(0.9)	(1.1)	(1.0)
Asian	134	183	150	32	25	23	15	32	18	17
	(1.5)	(1.4)	(1.2)	(0.7)	(1.3)	(1.9)	(0.9)	(1.1)	(0.7)	(0.8)
Childhood socioeconomic status										
Parent education, ≤high school	4794	7371	6544	2298	998	710	986	1622	1357	1136
	(53.9)	(55.1)	(52.3)	(52.7)	(51.8)	(58.4)	(58.0)	(55.0)	(52.8)	(54.3)
Parent occupation, blue collar	3979	6195	5843	2012	901	579	833	1419	1147	1001
	(44.8)	(46.3)	(46.7)	(46.2)	(46.8)	(47.7)	(49.0)	(48.1)	(44.6)	(47.8)
Parent owned home	4743	7066	6306	2203	974	595	824	1472	1279	1022
	(53.4)	(52.8)	(50.4)	(50.5)	(50.6)	(49.0)	(48.5)	(49.9)	(49.7)	(48.8)
BMI										
<25	3998	5930	5399	1868	786	489	604	1032	904	732
	(45.0)	(44.3)	(43.1)	(42.9)	(40.8)	(40.2)	(35.5)	(35.0)	(35.1)	(35.0)
25 to <30	2543	3808	3565	1224	549	350	495	839	721	570
	(28.6)	(28.4)	(28.5)	(28.1)	(28.5)	(28.8)	(29.1)	(28.5)	(28.0)	(27.2)
≥30	1985	3171	3096	1106	508	326	521	967	854	699
	(22.3)	(23.7)	(24.7)	(25.4)	(26.4)	(26.8)	(30.6)	(32.8)	(33.2)	(33.4)
Smoking ^b										
Never	6386	9114	8312	2765	1147	814	1060	1807	1520	1152
	(71.8)	(68.1)	(66.4)	(63.4)	(59.6)	(67.0)	(62.4)	(61.3)	(59.1)	(55.0)
Former	2115	3563	3551	1323	648	322	498	878	817	706
	(23.8)	(26.6)	(28.4)	(30.4)	(33.6)	(26.5)	(29.3)	(29.8)	(31.8)	(33.7)
Current	389	708	650	271	131	79	142	264	235	235
	(4.4)	(5.3)	(5.2)	(6.2)	(6.8)	(6.5)	(8.4)	(9.0)	(9.1)	(11.2)
Physical activity, lowest category	1249	1939	1711	553	277	234	357	553	511	411
(<3 metabolic equivalent h/wk) ^c	(14.0)	(14.5)	(13.7)	(12.7)	(14.4)	(19.3)	(21.0)	(18.8)	(19.9)	(19.6)
Marital status ^d										
Married	7092	10 746	9935	3164	1361	823	1201	2057	1663	1229
	(79.8)	(80.3)	(79.4)	(72.6)	(70.7)	(67.7)	(70.6)	(69.8)	(64.7)	(58.7)
Divorced or separated	717	1216	1258	643	295	202	250	500	527	519
	(8.1)	(9.1)	(10.1)	(14.8)	(15.3)	(16.6)	(14.7)	(17.0)	(20.5)	(24.8)
Never married	533	560	576	213	95	97	105	204	175	138
	(6.0)	(4.2)	(4.6)	(4.9)	(4.9)	(8.0)	(6.2)	(6.9)	(6.8)	(6.6)
Widowed	139	185	286	180	88	33	40	96	133	122
	(1.6)	(1.4)	(2.3)	(4.1)	(4.6)	(2.7)	(2.4)	(3.3)	(5.2)	(5.8)

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index (calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared); PTSD, posttraumatic stress disorder.

^b Data missing for 56 women (0.1%).

^c Data missing for 2021 women (3.9%).

^a Parents' education and occupation were assessed in 2005; BMI, smoking, and physical activity were assessed in 2007; marital status was assessed in 2008.

^d Data missing for 2206 women (4.3%).

depression symptom, 1.03; 95% CI, 1.01-1.06; *P* = .02; HR for interaction, 1.01; 95% CI, 1.00-1.01; *P* = .02).

Among 7565 women with PTSD symptoms and probable depression, 109 deaths (1.4%) occurred for which we obtained cause of death information, compared with 124 such deaths (0.6%) among 22 215 women with no depression or PTSD. Women with PTSD symptoms and probable depression, compared with women with no PTSD or depression, had higher rates of death from cardiovascular disease (17 women [0.22%] vs 11 women [0.05%]), diabetes (4 women [0.05%] vs 0 women), unintentional injury (7 women [0.09%] vs 7 women [0.03%]), suicide (9 women [0.12%] vs 1 woman [<0.01%]), and other causes of death (14 women [0.19%] vs 17 women [0.08%]). The rate of such deaths among women with PTSD and depression did not differ significantly compared with women with PTSD symptoms alone or probable depression alone (**Table 3**). Deaths from cancer were not significantly different in women with PTSD and depression compared with women with no depression or PTSD symptoms

Discussion

This cohort study, to our knowledge the first large study of co-occurring PTSD and depression, found that women with co-occurring high PTSD symptoms and probable depression had nearly 4-fold increased mortality risk compared with women with no trauma exposure and no depression. These findings are particularly salient given that women have 2-fold the lifetime prevalence of PTSD and depression compared with men.²⁴⁻²⁶ A portion of the association in this study was accounted for by health risk factors, in particular, smoking and BMI, although the association remained even after accounting for major health risk factors. Women with PTSD symptoms and depression had increased incidence of death across nearly all major causes of death. These findings mirror a 2006 study¹⁶ of military veterans showing broadly increased risk of death in individuals with PTSD, including from

Table 2. Association of Trauma Exposure and PTSD Symptoms With Mortality, by Depression Status, Adjusted for Health Factors^a

	Deaths/person-years	Hazard ratio (95% CI)						
Frauma and PTSD		Model 1 ^b	Model 2 ^c	Model 3 ^d	Model 4 ^e	Model 5 ^f		
Vithout depression								
No trauma	63/76872	1 [Reference]						
Trauma, no PTSD	112/115 673	1.15 (0.84-1.56)	1.14 (0.84-1.55)	1.15 (0.84-1.57)	1.13 (0.83-1.54)	1.15 (0.84-1.56)		
PTSD symptoms, No.								
1-3	130/108 220	1.43 (1.06-1.93) ^g	1.38 (1.02-1.87) ^g	1.41 (1.05-1.91) ^g	1.39 (1.03-1.89) ^g	1.44 (1.07-1.95) ⁹		
4-5	44/37 615	1.39 (0.95-2.05)	1.30 (0.88-1.91)	1.37 (0.93-2.01)	1.33 (0.91-1.96)	1.41 (0.96-2.07)		
6-7	17/16 603	1.27 (0.75-2.18)	1.13 (0.66-1.95)	1.23 (0.72-2.11)	1.19 (0.69-2.03)	1.28 (0.75-2.20)		
Vith depression								
No trauma	20/10 441	2.39 (1.44-3.95) ^h	2.23 (1.34-3.70) ⁱ	2.36 (1.43-3.92) ^h	2.27 (1.37-3.76) ⁱ	2.32 (1.40-3.85) ⁱ		
Trauma, no PTSD	16/14642	1.28 (0.74-2.21)	1.14 (0.66-1.98)	1.23 (0.71-2.15)	1.19 (0.68-2.06)	1.23 (0.71-2.13)		
PTSD symptoms, No.								
1-3	58/25 336	2.85 (1.99-4.07) ^h	2.52 (1.76-3.61) ^h	2.77 (1.94-3.98) ^h	2.62 (1.83-3.75) ^h	2.76 (1.93-3.94) ^I		
4-5	38/22 120	2.03 (1.35-3.03) ^h	1.63 (1.08-2.46) ^g	1.87 (1.24-2.80) ⁱ	1.84 (1.22-2.75) ⁱ	1.96 (1.30-2.93) ⁱ		
6-7	57/17 827	3.80 (2.65-5.45) ^h	3.11 (2.16-4.47) ^h	3.57 (2.49-5.13) ^h	3.40 (2.67-4.89) ^h	3.65 (2.54-5.24) ^t		

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; PTSD, posttraumatic stress disorder.

^a All models adjusted for individual's age in months; individual's race/ethnicity; and parents' education, occupation, and home ownership in individual's infancy. Smoking was coded as never; past 1-4, 5-14, 15-24, 25-34, 35-44, or 45 or more cigarettes/d; current 1-4, 5-14, 15-24, 25-34, 35-44, or 45 or more cigarettes/d; or missing smoking status. Physical activity was coded as less than 3, 3 to less than 9, 9 to less than 18, 18 to less than 27, 27 to less than 42, or 42 or more metabolic equivalents/wk or missing exercise data. Marital status was coded as married, divorced or separated, never married, widowed, or missing marital status. BMI was coded as a continuous variable. BMI and BMI-squared terms were included. ^b Adjusted for childhood socioeconomic factors, race, and age.

^c Model 1 further adjusted for BMI, smoking, physical activity, and marital status.

^d Model 1 further adjusted for BMI only.

- ^e Model 1 further adjusted for smoking only.
- ^f Model 1 further adjusted for physical activity only.
- ^g P < .05.

ⁱ P < .01.

^h P < .001.

cardiovascular illness, cancer, unintentional and intentional injuries, as well as a large Danish population study⁴⁹ indicating that suicide alone does not account for the increased risk of death in individuals with depression.

Among women with depression in our study, those who were exposed to a traumatic event but did not develop PTSD symptoms were not at increased risk of death compared with women with no trauma exposure or depression, while other women with depression, including those with no exposure to trauma, were at increased risk. It may be that not developing PTSD symptoms after experiencing trauma is an indicator associated with psychological resilience⁵⁰ and this resilience may be protective against the physical health effects of depression.

Symptoms of PTSD and depression overlap, with dysphoria and numbing common to both disorders.⁵¹ Questions have long been raised as to whether specific psychiatric diagnoses map to distinct phenomena or whether instead there are domains of dysfunction that span disorders (eg, Research Domain Criteria⁵²), or even a single underlying psychopathology factor.⁵³⁻⁵⁵ Regardless, when PTSD and depression co-occur, it likely indicates more severe distress.^{37,51,56} Our findings are consistent with prior studies that found that co-occurring PTSD and depression are associated with worse health outcomes compared with either disorder alone. In military veterans and the general population, PTSD with depression has been associated with greater risk of suicidal behaviors⁵⁷ and suicidal ideation⁵⁸ compared with PTSD or depression had greater social impairment, global dysfunction, and occupational disability compared with refugees with PTSD alone. In studies of US war veterans, ^{60,61} comorbid PTSD and depression have been associated with reduced quality of life and impaired life satisfaction, compared with either disorder alone. In addition, there is evidence that the biological stress response is distinct among individuals with PTSD and depression compared with individuals with PTSD alone, ⁶²⁻⁶⁵ which may contribute to these worse health outcomes.

Limitations

Our study has several limitations. Our sample included predominantly White women ages 43 to 64 years, which may limit generalizability. The sample also included only respondents who survived until the PTSD questionnaire was administered, which may have attenuated associations.⁶⁶ In addition, our measures captured symptoms of both disorders rather than clinical diagnoses, lifetime PTSD symptoms were queried retrospectively, and only past-week depressive symptoms were queried, which may have resulted in misclassification. We lacked information on illicit substance use and abuse, which have been associated with increased risk of death in veterans with PTSD.^{19,20} Illicit substance use may have accounted for an additional part of the association of PTSD and depression with mortality beyond the health factors we examined.

Table 3. Incidence of Causes of Death Over Follow-up by PTSD and Depression, Excluding Deaths Without Cause of Death Information Among 51406 Women

	Women, No. (%)						
Cause of death ^a	No PTSD symptoms or probable depression (n = 22 215)	PTSD symptoms alone or probable depression alone (n = 21 626)	PTSD symptoms and probable depression (n = 7565) ^b				
Cancer	72 (0.32)	89 (0.41)	36 (0.48)				
Cardiovascular disease	11 (0.05)	16 (0.07)	17 (0.22) ^c				
Respiratory disease	7 (0.03)	2 (0.01)	6 (0.08)				
Diabetes	0 (0.00)	1 (0.00)	4 (0.05) ^c				
Unintentional injury	7 (0.03)	8 (0.04)	7 (0.09) ^d				
Suicide	1 (0.00)	4 (0.02)	9 (0.12) ^c				
Other causes of death	17 (0.08)	21 (0.10)	14 (0.19) ^d				
All deaths with cause of death information	124 (0.56)	151 (0.69)	109 (1.44) ^c				

JAMA Network Open. 2020;3(12):e2027935. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.27935

Abbreviation: PTSD, posttraumatic stress disorder.

- ^a Percentages shown are small, because 384 individuals (0.7%) with cause of death information died during follow-up.
- $^{\rm b}$ P values calculated from χ^2 compared with no PTSD symptoms or probable depression group.

^c P < .001.

 $^{\rm d}P < .05.$

Conclusions

The findings of this cohort study suggest that treatment of PTSD and depression in women with symptoms of both disorders and efforts to improve their health behaviors may reduce this population's increased risk of mortality. Our results suggest that future investigations of the associations among PTSD, depression, and physical health outcomes should consider risk associated with co-occurrence of the disorders rather than modeling risk associated with 1 disorder adjusted for the other. Our findings additionally highlight the need for better access to and dissemination of effective treatments for comorbid PTSD and depression.^{67,68}

ARTICLE INFORMATION

Accepted for Publication: October 8, 2020.

Published: December 4, 2020. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.27935

Open Access: This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the CC-BY License. © 2020 Roberts AL et al. *JAMA Network Open*.

Corresponding Author: Andrea L. Roberts, PhD, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, 677 Huntington Ave, Boston, MA 02115 (aroberts@hsph.harvard.edu).

Author Affiliations: Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts.

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

Concept and design: Roberts, Kubzansky, Koenen.

Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: Roberts, Kubzansky, Chibnik, Rimm.

Drafting of the manuscript: Roberts, Koenen.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Kubzansky, Chibnik, Rimm.

Statistical analysis: Roberts, Chibnik.

Obtained funding: Kubzansky, Koenen.

Supervision: Koenen.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures: Dr Roberts reported receiving grants from the National Institutes of Health (NIH) during the conduct of the study. Dr Kubzansky reported receiving grants from the NIH and the US Department of Defense during the conduct of the study. Dr Koenen reported receiving grants from the NIH and the US Department of Defense during the conduct of the study. No other disclosures were reported.

Funding/Support: Drs Kubzansky and Koenen were supported by grant No. R01MH101269-07 from the NIH. The Nurses' Health Study II is supported by grant No. U01 CA176726 from the NIH.

Role of the Funder/Sponsor: The NIH had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of the data; preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript; and decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

Disclaimer: The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.

REFERENCES

1. Roberts AL, Agnew-Blais JC, Spiegelman D, et al. Posttraumatic stress disorder and incidence of type 2 diabetes mellitus in a sample of women: a 22-year longitudinal study. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2015;72(3):203-210. doi:10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2014.2632

2. Sumner JA, Kubzansky LD, Roberts AL, et al. Post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms and risk of hypertension over 22 years in a large cohort of younger and middle-aged women. *Psychol Med*. 2016;46(15):3105-3116. doi:10. 1017/S0033291716001914

3. Sumner JA, Kubzansky LD, Elkind MS, et al. Trauma exposure and posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms predict onset of cardiovascular events in women. *Circulation*. 2015;132(4):251-259. doi:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA. 114.014492

4. Vaccarino V, Goldberg J, Rooks C, et al. Post-traumatic stress disorder and incidence of coronary heart disease: a twin study. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2013;62(11):970-978. doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2013.04.085

5. Lohr JB, Palmer BW, Eidt CA, et al. Is post-traumatic stress disorder associated with premature senescence? A review of the literature. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2015;23(7):709-725. doi:10.1016/j.jagp.2015.04.001

6. Kubzansky LD, Bordelois P, Jun HJ, et al. The weight of traumatic stress: a prospective study of posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms and weight status in women. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2014;71(1):44-51. doi:10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2013.2798

7. Rosenbaum S, Stubbs B, Ward PB, Steel Z, Lederman O, Vancampfort D. The prevalence and risk of metabolic syndrome and its components among people with posttraumatic stress disorder: a systematic review and metaanalysis. *Metabolism*. 2015;64(8):926-933. doi:10.1016/j.metabol.2015.04.009

8. Dedert EA, Calhoun PS, Watkins LL, Sherwood A, Beckham JC. Posttraumatic stress disorder, cardiovascular, and metabolic disease: a review of the evidence. *Ann Behav Med*. 2010;39(1):61-78. doi:10.1007/s12160-010-9165-9

9. Pace TW, Heim CM. A short review on the psychoneuroimmunology of posttraumatic stress disorder: from risk factors to medical comorbidities. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2011;25(1):6-13. doi:10.1016/j.bbi.2010.10.003

10. Griffin GD, Charron D, Al-Daccak R. Post-traumatic stress disorder: revisiting adrenergics, glucocorticoids, immune system effects and homeostasis. *Clin Transl Immunology*. 2014;3(11):e27. doi:10.1038/cti.2014.26

11. Sumner JA, Chen Q, Roberts AL, et al. Cross-sectional and longitudinal associations of chronic posttraumatic stress disorder with inflammatory and endothelial function markers in women. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2017;82(12): 875-884. doi:10.1016/j.biopsych.2017.06.020

12. Speer K, Upton D, Semple S, McKune A. Systemic low-grade inflammation in post-traumatic stress disorder: a systematic review. *J Inflamm Res.* 2018;11:111-121. doi:10.2147/JIR.S155903

13. Kobayashi I, Boarts JM, Delahanty DL. Polysomnographically measured sleep abnormalities in PTSD: a metaanalytic review. *Psychophysiology*. 2007;44(4):660-669. doi:10.1111/j.1469-8986.2007.537.x

14. Wolf EJ, Logue MW, Morrison FG, et al. Posttraumatic psychopathology and the pace of the epigenetic clock: a longitudinal investigation. *Psychol Med*. 2019;49(5):791-800. doi:10.1017/S0033291718001411

15. Colpani V, Baena CP, Jaspers L, et al. Lifestyle factors, cardiovascular disease and all-cause mortality in middleaged and elderly women: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2018;33(9):831-845. doi:10. 1007/s10654-018-0374-z

16. Boscarino JA. Posttraumatic stress disorder and mortality among U.S. Army veterans 30 years after military service. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2006;16(4):248-256. doi:10.1016/j.annepidem.2005.03.009

17. Bullman TA, Kang HK. Posttraumatic stress disorder and the risk of traumatic deaths among Vietnam veterans. *J Nerv Ment Dis.* 1994;182(11):604-610. doi:10.1097/00005053-199411000-00002

18. Ahmadi N, Hajsadeghi F, Mirshkarlo HB, Budoff M, Yehuda R, Ebrahimi R. Post-traumatic stress disorder, coronary atherosclerosis, and mortality. *Am J Cardiol*. 2011;108(1):29-33. doi:10.1016/j.amjcard.2011.02.340

19. Flood AM, Boyle SH, Calhoun PS, et al. Prospective study of externalizing and internalizing subtypes of posttraumatic stress disorder and their relationship to mortality among Vietnam veterans. *Compr Psychiatry*. 2010;51(3):236-242. doi:10.1016/j.comppsych.2009.08.002

20. Drescher KD, Rosen CS, Burling TA, Foy DW. Causes of death among male veterans who received residential treatment for PTSD. *J Trauma Stress*. 2003;16(6):535-543. doi:10.1023/B:JOTS.0000004076.62793.79

21. Xue Y, Taub PR, Iqbal N, et al. Cardiac biomarkers, mortality, and post-traumatic stress disorder in military veterans. *Am J Cardiol*. 2012;109(8):1215-1218. doi:10.1016/j.amjcard.2011.11.063

22. Kimbrell T, Pyne JM, Kunik ME, et al. The impact of Purple Heart commendation and PTSD on mortality rates in older veterans. *Depress Anxiety*. 2011;28(12):1086-1090. doi:10.1002/da.20850

23. Zohar J, Fostick L; Israeli Consortium on PTSD. Mortality rates between treated post-traumatic stress disorder Israeli male veterans compared to non-diagnosed veterans. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol.* 2014;24(1):117-124. doi: 10.1016/j.euroneuro.2013.10.009

24. Harvard Medical School. National Comorbidity Survey (NCS): NCS-R appendix tables: table 1: lifetime prevalence of DSM-IV/WMH-CIDI disorders by sex and cohort. Accessed September 25, 2020. https://www.hcp.med.harvard.edu/ncs/index.php

25. Breslau N, Chilcoat HD, Kessler RC, Peterson EL, Lucia VC. Vulnerability to assaultive violence: further specification of the sex difference in post-traumatic stress disorder. *Psychol Med.* 1999;29(4):813-821. doi:10.1017/ S0033291799008612

26. Ditlevsen DN, Elklit A. Gender, trauma type, and PTSD prevalence: a re-analysis of 18 nordic convenience samples. *Ann Gen Psychiatry*. 2012;11(1):26-26. doi:10.1186/1744-859X-11-26

27. Gradus JL, Antonsen S, Svensson E, Lash TL, Resick PA, Hansen JG. Trauma, comorbidity, and mortality following diagnoses of severe stress and adjustment disorders: a nationwide cohort study. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2015; 182(5):451-458. doi:10.1093/aje/kwv066

28. Rytwinski NK, Scur MD, Feeny NC, Youngstrom EA. The co-occurrence of major depressive disorder among individuals with posttraumatic stress disorder: a meta-analysis. *J Trauma Stress*. 2013;26(3):299-309. doi:10. 1002/its.21814

29. Kuehner C. Why is depression more common among women than among men? *Lancet Psychiatry*. 2017;4(2): 146-158. doi:10.1016/S2215-0366(16)30263-2

30. Bracke P, Delaruelle K, Dereuddre R, Van de Velde S. Depression in women and men, cumulative disadvantage and gender inequality in 29 European countries. *Soc Sci Med*. 2020;113354. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2020.113354

31. Fluharty M, Taylor AE, Grabski M, Munafò MR. The association of cigarette smoking with depression and anxiety: a systematic review. *Nicotine Tob Res.* 2017;19(1):3-13. doi:10.1093/ntr/ntw140

32. Pan A, Sun Q, Czernichow S, et al. Bidirectional association between depression and obesity in middle-aged and older women. *Int J Obes (Lond)*. 2012;36(4):595-602. doi:10.1038/ijo.2011.111

33. Cuijpers P, Smit F. Excess mortality in depression: a meta-analysis of community studies. *J Affect Disord*. 2002;72(3):227-236. doi:10.1016/S0165-0327(01)00413-X

34. Harris EC, Barraclough B. Excess mortality of mental disorder. *Br J Psychiatry*. 1998;173:11-53. doi:10.1192/bjp. 173.1.11

35. Penninx BW, Geerlings SW, Deeg DJ, van Eijk JT, van Tilburg W, Beekman AT. Minor and major depression and the risk of death in older persons. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 1999;56(10):889-895. doi:10.1001/archpsyc.56.10.889

36. Van den Akker M, Schuurman A, Ensinck K, Buntinx F. Depression as a risk factor for total mortality in the community: a meta-analysis. *Arch Public Health*. 2003;61(6):313-332.

37. Flory JD, Yehuda R. Comorbidity between post-traumatic stress disorder and major depressive disorder: alternative explanations and treatment considerations. *Dialogues Clin Neurosci*. 2015;17(2):141-150. doi:10.31887/DCNS.2015.17.2/jflory

38. Li X, Aida J, Hikichi H, Kondo K, Kawachi I. Association of postdisaster depression and posttraumatic stress disorder with mortality among older disaster survivors of the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake and tsunami. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2019;2(12):e1917550-e1917550. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2019.17550

39. Edmondson D, Gamboa C, Cohen A, et al. Association of posttraumatic stress disorder and depression with all-cause and cardiovascular disease mortality and hospitalization among Hurricane Katrina survivors with end-stage renal disease. *Am J Public Health*. 2013;103(4):e130-e137. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2012.301146

40. Dao TK, Chu D, Springer J, et al. Clinical depression, posttraumatic stress disorder, and comorbid depression and posttraumatic stress disorder as risk factors for in-hospital mortality after coronary artery bypass grafting surgery. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 2010;140(3):606-610. doi:10.1016/j.jtcvs.2009.10.046

41. van den Berk-Clark C, Secrest S, Walls J, et al. Association between posttraumatic stress disorder and lack of exercise, poor diet, obesity, and co-occuring smoking: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Health Psychol.* 2018;37(5):407-416. doi:10.1037/hea0000593

42. Bao Y, Bertoia ML, Lenart EB, et al. Origin, methods, and evolution of the three Nurses' Health Studies. *Am J Public Health*. 2016;106(9):1573-1581. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2016.303338

43. American Psychiatric Association. *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*. 4th ed. American Psychiatric Association; 1994.

44. Breslau N, Peterson EL, Kessler RC, Schultz LR. Short screening scale for DSM-IV posttraumatic stress disorder. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1999;156(6):908-911. doi:10.1176/ajp.156.6.908

45. Andresen EM, Malmgren JA, Carter WB, Patrick DL. Screening for depression in well older adults: evaluation of a short form of the CES-D (Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale). *Am J Prev Med*. 1994;10 (2):77-84. doi:10.1016/S0749-3797(18)30622-6

46. Cheng S-T, Chan ACM. The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale in older Chinese: thresholds for long and short forms. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry*. 2005;20(5):465-470. doi:10.1002/gps.1314

47. Blank K, Gruman C, Robison JT. Case-finding for depression in elderly people: balancing ease of administration with validity in varied treatment settings. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci*. 2004;59(4):378-384. doi:10.1093/gerona/59.4.M378

48. Akaike H. A new look at the statistical model identification. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control.* 1974;19 (6):716-723. doi:10.1109/TAC.1974.1100705

49. Laursen TM, Musliner KL, Benros ME, Vestergaard M, Munk-Olsen T. Mortality and life expectancy in persons with severe unipolar depression. *J Affect Disord*. 2016;193:203-207. doi:10.1016/j.jad.2015.12.067

50. Bonanno GA. Loss, trauma, and human resilience: have we underestimated the human capacity to thrive after extremely aversive events? *Am Psychol*. 2004;59(1):20-28. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.59.1.20

51. Gros DF, Price M, Magruder KM, Frueh BC. Symptom overlap in posttraumatic stress disorder and major depression. *Psychiatry Res*. 2012;196(2-3):267-270. doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2011.10.022

52. Insel T, Cuthbert B, Garvey M, et al. Research domain criteria (RDoC): toward a new classification framework for research on mental disorders. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2010;167(7):748-751. doi:10.1176/appi.ajp.2010.09091379

53. Caspi A, Houts RM, Ambler A, et al. Longitudinal assessment of mental health disorders and comorbidities across 4 decades among participants in the Dunedin birth cohort study. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2020;3(4):e203221-e203221. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.3221

54. Caspi A, Houts RM, Belsky DW, et al. The p factor: one general psychopathology factor in the structure of psychiatric disorders? *Clin Psychol Sci*. 2014;2(2):119-137. doi:10.1177/2167702613497473

55. Caspi A, Moffitt TE. All for one and one for all: mental disorders in one dimension. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2018;175 (9):831-844. doi:10.1176/appi.ajp.2018.17121383

56. Campbell DG, Felker BL, Liu C-F, et al. Prevalence of depression-PTSD comorbidity: implications for clinical practice guidelines and primary care-based interventions. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2007;22(6):711-718. doi:10.1007/s11606-006-0101-4

57. Ramsawh HJ, Fullerton CS, Mash HBH, et al. Risk for suicidal behaviors associated with PTSD, depression, and their comorbidity in the U.S. Army. *J Affect Disord*. 2014;161:116-122. doi:10.1016/j.jad.2014.03.016

58. Cougle JR, Resnick H, Kilpatrick DG. PTSD, depression, and their comorbidity in relation to suicidality: crosssectional and prospective analyses of a national probability sample of women. *Depress Anxiety*. 2009;26(12): 1151-1157. doi:10.1002/da.20621

59. Momartin S, Silove D, Manicavasagar V, Steel Z. Comorbidity of PTSD and depression: associations with trauma exposure, symptom severity and functional impairment in Bosnian refugees resettled in Australia. *J Affect Disord*. 2004;80(2-3):231-238. doi:10.1016/S0165-0327(03)00131-9

60. Pittman JOE, Goldsmith AA, Lemmer JA, Kilmer MT, Baker DG. Post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, and health-related quality of life in OEF/OIF veterans. *Qual Life Res.* 2012;21(1):99-103. doi:10.1007/s11136-011-9918-3

61. Ikin JF, Creamer MC, Sim MR, McKenzie DP. Comorbidity of PTSD and depression in Korean War veterans: prevalence, predictors, and impairment. *J Affect Disord*. 2010;125(1-3):279-286. doi:10.1016/j.jad.2009.12.005

62. Oquendo MA, Echavarria G, Galfalvy HC, et al. Lower cortisol levels in depressed patients with comorbid post-traumatic stress disorder. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2003;28(3):591-598. doi:10.1038/sj.npp.1300050

63. de Kloet C, Vermetten E, Lentjes E, et al. Differences in the response to the combined DEX-CRH test between PTSD patients with and without co-morbid depressive disorder. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*. 2008;33(3): 313-320. doi:10.1016/j.psyneuen.2007.11.016

64. Halbreich U, Olympia J, Carson S, et al. Hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal activity in endogenously depressed post-traumatic stress disorder patients. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*. 1989;14(5):365-370. doi:10.1016/0306-4530 (89)90006-1

65. Young EA, Breslau N. Cortisol and catecholamines in posttraumatic stress disorder: an epidemiologic community study. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2004;61(4):394-401. doi:10.1001/archpsyc.61.4.394

66. Buckley JP, Keil AP, McGrath LJ, Edwards JK. Evolving methods for inference in the presence of healthy worker survivor bias. *Epidemiology*. 2015;26(2):204-212. doi:10.1097/EDE.00000000000217

67. Angelakis S, Nixon RD. The comorbidity of PTSD and MDD: implications for clinical practice and future research. *Behaviour Change*. 2015;32(1):1-25. doi:10.1017/bec.2014.26

68. Nishith P, Nixon RD, Resick PA. Resolution of trauma-related guilt following treatment of PTSD in female rape victims: a result of cognitive processing therapy targeting comorbid depression? *J Affect Disord*. 2005;86(2-3): 259-265. doi:10.1016/j.jad.2005.02.013