

# Frequencies of seasonal major depressive symptoms at high latitudes

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**Summary.** A modified depression rating scale was distributed to a sample of the adult Finnish population ( $n = 1000$ ) in November 1991. No dependence on latitude ( $60^\circ\text{N}$ – $70^\circ\text{N}$ ) was seen in the occurrence of depression. The depressed subjects ( $n = 54$ ) were reevaluated the following May, and four cases with seasonal affective disorder were found. The results suggest that high latitudes with large variations in the daily lightperiod may not be responsible for high prevalence of major depression with a seasonal pattern.

**Key words:** Depressive symptoms – Seasonal affective disorder

## Introduction

Seasonal affective disorder (SAD), is characterised by recurrent major depressive episodes the onset of which occurs during winter months (Rosenthal et al. 1984). The shortening period of daylight is hypothesised to be the most important aetiological factor of the syndrome. In regions with a strong seasonal contrast in luminosity, the prevalence of SAD is supposed to be high, e.g. in Scandinavia (Haggag et al. 1990).

The objectives of this study were: to evaluate the frequency of depressive symptoms in a sample representative of the general population in the autumn, and then to follow up to course of symptoms of the depressed subjects the following spring. The lengthening of the natural daylight period was expected to improve symptoms of winter depression.

## Subjects and methods

### Subjects

The material of this questionnaire study consisted of 1000 randomly selected subjects (801 women, 199 men) from the employee regis-

ter of the Union Bank of Finland covering a nationwide network. The selection was adjusted to the age structure of the present population of working age and balanced to the population density of different geographical areas. The study compassed a latitude range from  $60^\circ\text{N}$  to  $70^\circ\text{N}$ .

### Methods

The questionnaire contained a modified version of the Structured Interview Guide for the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale-Seasonal Affective Disorders Version Self-Rating Format (SIGH-SAD-SR, Williams et al. 1991). It is an instrument for 1-week retrospective self-rating of the classical and atypical symptoms of depression. The validity of the scale, as tested against the psychiatric interview, is relatively high.

Questionnaires were mailed on 11 November, 1991. The length of day was the 7 h 53 min in southern Finland ( $60^\circ\text{N}$ ) and 4 h 49 min in northern Finland ( $70^\circ\text{N}$ ). Remailing of the questionnaire (12 May, 1992) concerned the depressed subjects. The length of day was 16 h 59 min in the south and 21 h 26 min in the north on the re-mailing day.

A Hamilton Depression Rating subscale (HDRS) score of 19 or greater was used to define caseness in this study (Philipp et al. 1992). Reactive and recurrent brief depressions (Angst and Dobler-Mikola 1985; Kasper et al. 1992) were excluded by checking notes in the questionnaire forms or interviewing the subjects via telephone, when necessary. Of the depressed cases, a structured clinical interview was administered by a psychiatrist for those whose residence was situated close enough to maintain adequate communication, in October 1992 (Spitzer et al. 1990).

For quantifying the change in depressive symptoms from November to May, a dual remission criterion was used: a 50-% decrease in the HDRS subscale score and in the total score (criterion I), and in addition the HDRS subscale score  $< 9$  points and the total score  $< 10$  points (criterion II). The limits were analogous with the criteria used for evaluating the response to light treatment in patients with SAD (Terman et al. 1990) and indicative of minimal residual symptomatology. The lengthening of natural lightperiod was thought to be at least as efficient as light treatment in reducing the depression scores.

Standard statistical tests, including correlations, chi-square tests, nonparametric tests (Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVAs) and multiple stepwise (forward) regressions, were used for analysis of the data (Wilkinson 1990). Tests were based on the number of subjects for whom data on each characteristic were available. The 0.05 level was considered as indicating a significant difference. Pearson correlation matrices were tested using Bonferroni probabilities. The minimum tolerance for entry into multiple general

**Table 1.** Predictors of depressive symptoms in the adult population ( $n = 1000$ ) living at high latitudes ( $60^{\circ}$ – $70^{\circ}$  N)<sup>a</sup>

Dependent variable	Predictors	Coefficient	SEE	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i> (2 tail)
Total score	Gender	−4.154	1.193	−3.481	< 0.01
	Civil status	−0.896	0.524	−1.708	ns
HDRS subscore	Gender	−2.517	0.839	−2.571	< 0.05
	Civil status	−0.642	0.369	−1.741	ns
Atypical subscore	Gender	−2.397	0.475	−5.044	< 0.01
	BMI	0.202	0.056	3.612	< 0.01
	Age	−0.043	0.019	−2.211	< 0.05

<sup>a</sup> SEE = standard error of estimate, HDRS = Hamilton Depression Rating Scale, BMI = body-mass index

**Table 2.** Scores of the depression rating scales of the subjects ( $n = 445$ ) and the number of the depressed subjects at three latitudes in November<sup>a, b</sup>

Depression ratings	Latitude		
	60°–62° N ( $n = 365$ )	62°–64° N ( $n = 53$ )	64°–70° N ( $n = 27$ )
SIGH-SAD-SR	13.9 (10.6)	12.7 (8.1)	12.0 (7.4)
HDRS subscale	9.7 (7.4)	8.7 (5.5)	8.5 (5.7)
Atypical subscale	4.2 (4.2)	4.0 (3.7)	3.6 (2.8)
Depressed <sup>c</sup> $n$ (%)	48 (13.2%)	4 (7.5%)	1 (3.7%)

<sup>a</sup> SIGH-SAD-SR = Structured Interview Guide for Hamilton Depression Rating Scale-Seasonal Affective Disorders Version (Self-Rating Format), HDRS = Hamilton Depression Rating Scale

<sup>b</sup> Score values presented as the mean (standard deviation in parentheses)

<sup>c</sup> Defined as having a HDRS score of 19 or greater (difference between the groups:  $\chi^2 = 3.23$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $P = \text{n.s.}$ )

linear hypotheses (MGLH) of stepwise multiple regressions was 0.01, and alphas into and out of the models were 0.15.

## Results

Questionnaires ( $n = 486$ , 48.6%) were returned in the autumn. Of the subjects, 397 (81.7%) were women and 84 (17.3%) were men. The return rate differed nonsignificantly between the sexes. The mean age of the subjects was 41.7 years (range 20–61 years, SD 9.6).

The female subjects were significantly more depressed than men (Mann-Whitney U-test statistics;  $P < 0.01$  atypical and total score,  $P < 0.05$  HDRS score). The gender of the subjects correlated significantly with the atypical subscale score ( $r = -0.202$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) and the total score ( $r = -0.169$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ). No correlation was found between the three depression scores and the place of residence, age, or body-mass index of the subjects.

Of the sociodemographic variables, gender of the subjects was seen to be the best predictor of the variation in the depression scores in multiple stepwise regression models (Table 1). The place of residence did not predict the variation among the subjects.

The depression scores did not differ significantly between the subjects living at different latitudes (Table 2).

**Table 3.** Relation of the sociodemographic characteristics to seasonal depression ( $n = 23$ ) and other depressive disorders ( $n = 18$ )

Characteristic	Depressive episode		$\chi^2$	<i>P</i>
	Seasonal <sup>a</sup>	Other		
Gender			2.69 ( $df = 1$ )	0.10098
women	23	16		
men	0	2		
Education			3.01 ( $df = 2$ )	0.2202
level 1 (low)	1	4		
level 2	16	13		
level 3 (high)	3	1		
Civil status			1.95 ( $df = 2$ )	0.37719
married <sup>b</sup>	15	13		
single	3	3		
divorced	5	1		
Place of residence			0.09 ( $df = 1$ )	0.76418
the Helsinki area	10	7		
others	13	11		
Migration			1.60 ( $df = 4$ )	0.80879
southward	12	10		
northward	4	2		
westward	12	6		
eastward	2	3		
not moved	7	6		

<sup>a</sup> Subjects fulfilling criterion I (50% decrease in the HDRS subscale score and in the total score)

<sup>b</sup> Includes cohabitants

The depression scores and the number of the depressed differ nonsignificantly at different latitudes.

Of the 54 depressed cases found, 41 (76%) returned the remailed questionnaire. Twenty-three subjects fulfilled either criterion I or II. No significant differences were seen between the two subsets formed (Table 3).

Ten subjects with seasonal depression were called for the interview, four of them refused, and six subjects were interviewed. Of the interviewed subjects, all were women and four of them had winter depression according to the DSM-III-R criteria for major depressive epi-

**Table 4.** Semi-annual depression ratings and assessments of diagnosis of four patients with seasonal affective disorder<sup>a</sup>

Depression ratings		Scores <sup>b</sup>		
		November 1991	May 1992	October 1992
SIGH-SAD-SR		32.3 (2.5)	8.3 (3.8)	24.0 (9.6)
HDRS subscale		21.0 (2.7)	5.3 (4.0)	16.3 (6.4)
Atypical subscale		11.3 (3.0)	3.0 (5.4)	7.8 (3.9)

  

Case	Age	DSM-III-R multiaxial assessments <sup>c</sup>				
		Axis I	II	III	IV	V
1	44	SAD + PMS	301.82 + 300.23	–	1	70
2	29	SAD + PMS	–	–	3	70
3	41	SAD + PMS	301.82	–	2	70
4	45	SAD + PMS	301.82	–	1	65

<sup>a</sup> DSM-III-R = Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, SAD = seasonal affective disorder, PMS = premenstrual syndrome, SIGH-SAD-SR = Structured Interview Guide for the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale-Seasonal Affective Disorders Version (Self-Rating Format), HDRS = Hamilton Depression Rating Scale

<sup>b</sup> Values presented as the mean (standard deviation in parentheses)

<sup>c</sup> Assessed in October 1992

sode with a seasonal (winter) pattern (APA 1987, Table 4).

## Discussion

The findings suggest that depressive symptoms during the autumn might be independent of the latitude at which subjects live. The place of residence neither predicted the variation in, nor correlate with, the depression scores. The finding that geographical location might not be a critical factor in subjects with seasonal depression disagrees with the results of previous US population surveys (Rosen et al. 1990; Booker and Hellekson 1992).

In Japan, however, a multi-centre study failed to find an association between the increase of the prevalence of SAD and the latitude (Sakamoto et al. 1993). No explanation has been proposed to resolve the discrepancy. The difference might be based on racial, or genetic, divergence in mechanisms related to coding the photo-periodic cues. General experience that mild depression is a rather accepted phenomenon during the autumn months, however, might also have influenced the low frequency of depressive symptoms reported by the subjects living in the northern regions. Adaptive mechanisms to a northern environment will be an essential focus of future studies.

Our finding in the sample studied is similar to that for clinical populations in which a high predominance of women has been found among patients with seasonal depression. The coupling of habitual time of awakening and the circadian temperature oscillation may lose precision with age more easily among women (Czeisler et al.

1992), and there is some evidence that in women the entrainment of the sleep-wake cycle may depend more on the effect of daylight (Husby and Lingjaerde 1990). If so, it would be interesting to study whether the male circadian pacemaker is more sensitive to light by comparing of sensitivity for light suppression of pineal melatonin and circadian phase-shifting. Naturally, a lower social threshold for women to report their depressive symptoms may explain this difference as well, which is reflected in the difference in the female/male ratio of response rate in our study or in previous surveys (e.g. Lehtinen et al. 1990).

One caveat for the interpretation of our results is that the enrichment of the population studied by the selection procedure. The population was selected for their working conditions, indoors, to contain individuals predisposed to a low level of environmental illumination. The sample studied probably contained more subjects susceptible to depressive symptoms during the winter. However, a representative sample was randomly formed of the employees register in our study.

A precise prevalence rate of seasonal affective disorder(s) cannot be presented on the basis of our results. Instead, the frequency of winter depressive symptoms was estimated to be 1.5–2.0% in the population studies. The estimate is in agreement with the earlier point prevalence rates presented for affective disorders (Angst 1992). It is, unexpectedly, one of the lowest figures yet reported. The low figure was unlikely to be due to the process of recruitment or the response rate (48.6%). First, the subjects were randomly selected, and second, the response rate was higher than that of the two recent studies with equal sample size, 39.5% in the survey of Haggag et al (1990) or 35.4% in the study of Takahashi et al. (1991).

The possibility that subjects with winter depression were unable to reply because of severe episode of the illness cannot be excluded. First, retardation of such intensity, however, is not a usual sign of winter depression, and second, most of those who did not reply were men, not women. Therefore, the probability of the false-negative findings among subjects who did not reply was considered low.

Four subjects with winter depression were found in this study, and all four also had late luteal phase dysphoric disorder. In addition to these two syndromes, three subjects had DSM-III-R axis-II comorbidity, avoidant personality disorder combined with or without social phobia, requires further attention. We are currently collecting prospective data on the effect of light treatment on symptoms of personality disorders coexisting with winter depression.

Our results support the conclusion that symptoms of winter depression are frequent in subjects living in northern regions. However, the previously found risk factors, excluding gender, that would differentiate major depression with a seasonal pattern from other forms of depressive disorders were not found in our study.

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