

1 **Title page**

2 **Title: Association between polygenic risk scores and outcome of electroconvulsive**
3 **therapy**

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26

1 **Abstract**

2 **Objective:** Identifying biomarkers associated with response to electroconvulsive therapy
3 (ECT) may aid clinical decisions. We examined whether increasing polygenic liabilities for
4 major depressive disorder (MDD), bipolar disorder (BD) and schizophrenia (SCZ) are
5 associated with improvement following ECT for a major depressive episode.

6 **Methods:** Between 2013 and 2017, patients who had at least one treatment series recorded
7 in the Swedish National Quality Register for ECT were invited to provide a blood sample for
8 genotyping. The present study included 2,320 participants (median age 51 years; 62.8%
9 women) who had received an ECT series for a major depressive episode (77.1% unipolar
10 depression), had a registered treatment outcome, and whose polygenic risk scores (PRS)
11 could be calculated. We estimated the effect of PRS on Clinical Global Impression-
12 Improvement (CGI-Improvement) after each ECT series using ordinal logistic regressions.

13 **Results:** Increasing PRS for MDD was associated with less CGI-Improvement (OR=0.89 per
14 standard deviation [SD], 95%CI=0.82–0.96, $r^2=0.4\%$, $p=0.002$), and increasing PRS for BD
15 was associated with more CGI-Improvement (OR per SD=1.14, 95%CI=1.05–1.23, $r^2=0.5\%$,
16 $p=0.001$) after ECT. PRS for SCZ was not associated with improvement. In an overlapping
17 sample (N=1207) with data on response and remission derived from the self-rated version of
18 the MADRS scale, results were similar except that PRS-SCZ was also associated with
19 remission.

20 **Conclusions:** Improvement after ECT is associated with polygenic liability for MDD and BD,
21 providing evidence of a genetic component for ECT clinical response. These liabilities may
22 be considered along with clinical predictors in future prediction models of ECT outcomes.

1 **Introduction**

2 Electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) is an effective treatment for major depressive episodes
3 (MDEs) with remission rates of 60–75% in modern clinical trials(1, 2). Most patients respond
4 to ECT in clinical practice and pragmatic trials, but remission rates are lower (30–50%)(3-5).
5 Identifying biomarkers associated with improvement after ECT may facilitate the clinical
6 decision to prescribe ECT.

7
8 It has long been thought that ECT is most effective for patients with a severe, episodic,
9 heritable, and possibly 'biological' type of depression(6, 7), but the evidence is limited. In a
10 meta-analysis of 34 studies, symptom severity predicted quantitative response but was
11 negatively associated with qualitative remission(8). As for other severity measures, psychotic
12 features predict response and remission but results for melancholic features have been
13 inconclusive, partly due to definitional variation(2, 8). Notably, ECT is similarly effective in
14 unipolar and bipolar depression(9, 10). Bipolar disorder (BD) has a higher estimated
15 heritability than major depressive disorder (MDD)(11), but we recently showed that the single
16 nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)-based heritability of ECT-treated depression is considerably
17 higher (29–34%) than that of mild-moderate depression (6.5–8.0%)(12), suggesting that
18 more heritable 'biological' depression is more likely to be treated with ECT.

19
20 Polygenic risk scores (PRS) are quantitative measures of the polygenic liability for complex
21 traits, calculated from the summary statistics of genome-wide association studies
22 (GWAS)(13). Although PRS are not yet sufficiently predictive to inform clinical decisions,
23 polygenic liabilities for psychiatric disorders have been associated with response to specific
24 therapeutics(14-18). A recent study of 266 MDE patients found that increasing PRS for
25 schizophrenia (SCZ) was associated with greater improvement after ECT, even among
26 patients without clinical psychotic features (19). The notion that ECT works best in more
27 heritable forms of MDE also suggests that improvement after ECT might be associated with

1 increased polygenic liability for MDD and bipolar disorder (BD), the two disorders for which
2 ECT is recommended as a treatment for a severe MDE(20).

3 The aim of the present study was to investigate if therapeutic response following ECT for
4 MDE is associated with PRS for MDD, BD, and SCZ. To this end, we analyzed a large cohort
5 of Swedish patients who had received ECT for an MDE.

6 **Methods**

7 *Study population*

8 The study population is derived from the Predictors for ECT (PREFECT) study conducted in
9 Sweden(12). Recruitment occurred between 2013–2017. Study participants had received at
10 least one acute ECT series registered in the Swedish National Quality Register for ECT (Q-
11 ECT, <http://ect.registercentrum.se>). Q-ECT was launched nationally in Sweden in 2011,
12 although some hospitals started registration in 2008. As of 2014, Q-ECT covered 89% of all
13 ECT series in Sweden(20). Local hospital staff routinely enter data on each treatment series
14 into the register via a web-based platform.

15 The study sample has been described previously(12, 21). Briefly, a letter of invitation was
16 sent to patients ≥ 18 years old registered in Q-ECT. Those who volunteered to participate
17 completed a telephone interview and donated blood that was sent via overnight mail to
18 Karolinska Institutet Biobank. Additional participants were prospectively recruited at eight
19 Swedish hospitals prior to receiving ECT for an MDE. Blood samples were stored in -20°C
20 pending shipment to Karolinska Institutet Biobank for DNA extraction and long-term storage.
21 A total of 2,880 participants provided DNA and had received at least one acute ECT
22 treatment series for an MDE. After exclusion of participants whose genotyping failed quality
23 control (N=40), genetic ancestral outliers (N=138), and those with no registered primary
24 outcome in Q-ECT (N=382), we categorized the remaining 2,320 eligible participants into two
25 groups as previously described(12): The *broad group* included participants with an MDE
26 occurring in the context of (a) a unipolar depressive disorder (International Classification of

1 Diseases [ICD], version 10 codes F32-F33, F412, F530), (b) bipolar disorder (F31), (c)
2 another severe mood disorder with pretreatment self-rated Montgomery-Åsberg Depression
3 Rating Scale score (MADRS-S) ≥ 20 (mixed anxiety and depressive disorder, F41.2;
4 schizoaffective disorder, F25.9; or mood disorder not otherwise specified, F34.9), or (d) MDE
5 as indicated by free text, or a pretreatment MADRS-S ≥ 20 if the specific indication for
6 treatment was missing. The *narrow group* consisted of the subset who received ECT for an
7 MDE in the context of a unipolar depressive episode only. Psychotic features were
8 considered as present if the indication for ECT was coded with any of the following ICD-10
9 codes: F323: F333, F315 and F259, or if the indication in free text implied delusions and/or
10 hallucinations.

11 All participants provided written informed consent. The study was approved by the regional
12 ethical review board in Stockholm (approval nos. 2012/1969-31/1 and 2020-10151).

13 *Outcome measures*

14 Participants could have several registered treatment series in Q-ECT (Table 1). Here,
15 outcome data were captured from the first or only ECT treatment series. Our primary
16 outcome measure was the Clinical Global Impressions of Improvement score (CGI-I)(22)
17 rated immediately after the ECT series. We chose CGI-I as it had the lowest proportion of
18 missing information. CGI-I was available for the first registered treatment series of 92.8%
19 (N=2,154) participants. CGI-I ranges from 1 (very much improved) to 7 (very much worse)
20 and was treated as an ordinal variable. Secondary outcomes were response and remission
21 according to the self-rated MADRS-S(23). MADRS-S was available both pre- and post-
22 treatment for 52.0% (N=1,207) of the sample, of which 79.2% (N=956) provided MADRS-S
23 ratings at their first registered treatment series. The MADRS-S includes 9 items rated from
24 0–6 (maximum score=54), which correspond to the items in the observer-rated MADRS
25 except 'apparent sadness'. Response was defined as $\geq 50\%$ MADRS-S score reduction from
26 pre- to post-treatment. Remission was defined as a post-treatment MADRS-S rating ≤ 10 .

1 A subset of 1052 participants had both MADRS-S and CGI-I data available from the same
2 treatment series. There was a moderate correlation between CGI-I and MADRS-S response
3 (Spearman's $\rho=0.48$, $p<0.001$) and MADRS-S remission (Spearman's $\rho=0.42$, $p<0.001$).

4 *ECT procedure*

5 ECT was administered using bidirectional, constant-current, brief-pulse devices from Mecta
6 (Mecta Corp, Lake Oswego, Oregon, USA) or Thymatron (Somatics Inc Lake Buff, Illinois,
7 USA). Propofol or thiopental was used for anesthesia. Suxamethonium was used for muscle
8 relaxation. Seizure time was registered with electroencephalography. From Q-ECT, we
9 retrieved data on electrode placement (bilateral or right unilateral at first or last ECT), and
10 charge (mC), and pulse width (categorized into 0.25–49 ms, 0.5 ms, and 0.51–1.20 ms) used
11 at the first session of each treatment series. All participating clinics administered ECT three
12 times per week: Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.

13 *Genotype quality control and imputation*

14 Genotype quality control (QC) and imputation have been described in detail previously(12).
15 Briefly, DNA was extracted from peripheral blood and samples were genotyped on the
16 Illumina GSA-MD SNP array (version GSAMD-24v1-0_20011747_A1) at Life & Brain GmbH
17 (Bonn, Germany). Standard QC was applied using the PGC RICOPILI pipeline(24). All
18 potential samples were included in QC, but the final association analysis was performed on
19 the phenotyped subsets outlined above that passed QC. Samples were excluded (N=40) for:
20 genotype missingness >0.02 (after first filtering SNPs with call rate <0.95), genotypic sex
21 ambiguous or not matching phenotypic data, or autosomal heterozygosity $|F| >0.2$. SNPs
22 were excluded for: call rate <0.99 , difference in missingness between cases and controls
23 >0.005 , minor allele frequency <0.01 , or deviating from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in cases
24 or controls ($P<10^{-6}$). Ancestry outliers were identified by projecting study samples on principal
25 components with respect to 1000 Genomes Project data (phase 3 v5)(25). Individuals further
26 than 3 standard deviations from the European reference population mean for PC1 or PC2
27 were excluded (N=138) and then the principal components were regenerated for use in the

1 study analyses as covariates to capture residual confounding by genetic ancestry. Potentially
2 related individuals were identified and one from each pair was flagged for exclusion
3 (estimated identity-by-descent sharing >0.2). Samples passing QC were imputed using the
4 Haplotype Reference Consortium (HRC) r1.1 reference panel on the Sanger Imputation
5 Service using Eagle2 and Positional burrows wheeler transform (PBWF) for phasing and
6 imputation(26). The genome build was hg19.

7 *Polygenic risk score generation*

8 PRS were calculated for MDD and BD using discovery GWAS summary statistics from the
9 Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (<https://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/download-results/>) based
10 on large GWAS for each phenotype [MDD: 'mdd2019edinborough'(27); BD: 'bip2019'(28);
11 SCZ: 'scz2022'(29)]. Although the PREFECT sample has not been included in any previous
12 GWAS, we nevertheless removed all Swedish samples from the GWAS summary statistics to
13 reduce the possibility of spurious associations.

14 PRS were generated for the PREFECT samples as the sum of the risk allele scores,
15 weighted by their effect size in the discovery samples. We performed linkage disequilibrium
16 clumping ($r^2 < 0.1$ in 1-Mb windows) on any overlapping SNPs with the 1000 Genomes Project
17 European samples for the reference (phase 3 v5) (25). PRS were calculated using PLINK
18 version 1.9 (30). PRS were coded as risk increasing and standardized to a mean=0 and
19 standard deviation (SD)=1 for interpretability. To reduce the number of comparisons, we
20 used the PRS calculated at the $P_T \leq 0.05$ as exposures in our main analyses, in alignment
21 with previous research(31). Supplementary table 1 contains the details on the number of
22 SNPs used in the calculation of each PRS.

23 *Statistical analysis*

24 We present the descriptive characteristics of the sample using frequency (percent, %) or
25 median (interquartile range, IQR). Our primary analyses investigated the associations of PRS
26 for MDD, BD and SCZ with CGI-I. We used a multivariable proportional odds ordinal logistic
27 regression model adjusting for the first five genetic ancestry principal components. To

1 facilitate interpretation, we reversed the CGI-I values such that odds ratios (ORs) >1
2 represent improvement. We also examined the association between quintiles of each PRS
3 and CGI-I, using the lowest quintile as the reference, in multivariable ordinal logistic
4 regressions, given that higher values of PRS may carry greater risks. We conducted
5 approximate likelihood-ratio tests to examine violation of the proportional odds assumption.
6 For the secondary analyses of the association between each PRS and MADRS-S remission
7 and response (defined above), we used multivariable logistic regression analyses adjusted
8 for MADRS-S prior to ECT, and the first five genetic ancestry principal components. We
9 present all results as ORs with 95% confidence intervals (95%CI). For all analyses, we
10 calculated the proportion of variance explained by each PRS as the difference between the
11 Nagelkerke's pseudo-R² of the full multivariable model and that of a model excluding the
12 PRS.

13 We performed four sensitivity analyses of the primary outcome (CGI-I). First, we repeated
14 the analyses for the subset of participants with a narrowly defined MDE. Second, we
15 repeated the analyses using PRS calculated based on alternative p-value inclusion
16 thresholds ($P_T \leq 5E-8, 1E-5, 1E-3, 0.01, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0$). Finally, we repeated the analysis
17 separately for participants with unilateral electrode placement only vs. bilateral at first or last
18 ECT, and in participants with vs. without psychotic features.

19 We applied a two-tailed Bonferroni adjusted significance level ($p=0.05/3=0.017$) in our
20 primary analyses involving CGI-I due to the analyses of three PRS. In our secondary and
21 sensitivity analyses, which were exploratory, we applied the uncorrected statistical
22 significance level ($p<0.05$). We used SPSS version 26 (IBM corp., Armonk, NY, USA) for
23 data management and STATA version 16 (Stata corp., College Station, TX, USA) for
24 statistical analyses. Figures were produced in R version 4.0.5 (R Foundation for Statistical
25 Computing, Vienna, Austria) using *ggplot2* version 3.3.3(32).

26

1 **Results**

2 *Sample characteristics*

3 We included 2,320 European genetic ancestry individuals in the primary outcome analysis
4 (CGI-I) (Table 1). The median age was 51 years, 62.8% were women, and 77.1% had an
5 MDE in the context of a MDD (i.e., belonged to the narrowly defined group). The median
6 CGI-I rating after ECT was 2 (corresponding to 'much improved'). The distribution of CGI-I
7 ratings is displayed in Supplementary figure 1.

8 *Primary outcome*

9 Inheritance of a greater burden of common, risk-increasing genetic variants associated with
10 MDD (PRS-MDD) was significantly and *negatively* associated with improvement after ECT
11 (CGI-I, OR for improvement=0.89 per SD, 95%CI=0.82–0.96, $p=0.002$, Nagelkerke's
12 $r^2=0.4\%$, Figure 1A and Supplementary Table 2). Participants in the highest quintile of PRS-
13 MDD had 31% lower odds of improvement compared to those with the lowest burden
14 (quintile 5 vs. 1, OR=0.69, 95%CI=0.54–0.87, $p=0.002$, Figure 2A and Supplementary table
15 3).

16 Higher PRS-BD was significantly and *positively* associated with improvement after ECT (OR
17 per SD=1.14, 95%CI=1.05–1.23, $p=0.003$, Nagelkerke's $r^2=0.5\%$). Participants in the highest
18 quintile for genetic burden of BD had 37% higher odds for improvement after ECT than those
19 with the lowest (quintile 5 vs. 1, OR=1.44, 95%CI=1.13–1.84, $p=0.003$, Figure 2B and
20 Supplementary table 3). PRS-SCZ was not associated with improvement after ECT (OR per
21 SD=1.04, 95% CI=0.97-1.14, $p=0.247$). All models using PRS as a continuous variable met
22 the proportional odds assumption, but not those of PRS-MDD and BD quintiles, which hence
23 should be interpreted with caution (Supplementary table 3). In a post-hoc analysis, we also
24 found that a PRS (at $P_T \leq 0.05$) of percentage improvement on antidepressants (33) was not
25 associated with improvement following ECT (Supplementary table 4).

1 *Secondary outcomes*

2 For the MADRS-S analysis, 1,207 participants were eligible. Participant characteristics were
3 similar to the CGI-I sample: 64% were female and 67.5% belonged to the narrowly defined
4 group (an MDE in the context of MDD, Table 1). After ECT, 60.1% (N=725) met the criterion
5 for response (Table 1). Similar to the primary analysis, higher PRS-MDD was associated with
6 lower odds of response (OR per SD 0.85, 95% CI 0.76-0.96, $p=0.008$, Nagelkerke's $r^2=0.8\%$,
7 Figure 1B and Supplementary table 2), while PRS-BD was associated with higher odds for
8 response (OR per SD 1.13, 95% CI 1.00-1.27, $p=0.044$, Nagelkerke's $r^2=0.4\%$). PRS-SCZ
9 was not associated with response (OR per SD 1.05, 95% CI 0.93-1.19, $p=0.401$).

10 In the MADRS-S sample, 40.1% (N=484) met the criterion for remission after ECT. Higher
11 PRS-MDD was associated with lower odds of remission (OR per SD 0.83, 95% CI=0.73–
12 0.94, Nagelkerke's $r^2=1.0\%$, $p=0.002$, Figure 1C and Supplementary table 2), while PRS-BD
13 was associated with higher odds for remission (OR per SD 1.15, 95% CI 1.02–1.29, $p=0.023$,
14 Nagelkerke's $r^2=0.6\%$), as was PRS-SCZ (OR per SD 1.16, 95% CI 1.02–1.31, $p=0.020$,
15 Nagelkerke's $r^2=0.6\%$).

16 *Sensitivity analyses*

17 We repeated the primary analyses restricting the sample to participants with narrowly defined
18 MDE in the context of MDD and obtained similar results (Figures 1-2, Supplementary tables
19 2-3). The results were not sensitive to the choice of P_T (Supplementary figure 1). Results
20 were similar to the primary analysis in participants with unilateral electrode placement, but in
21 the limited subsample treated with bilateral electrode placement (N=306), only PRS-MDD
22 was associated with improvement (Supplementary table 5). Among participants without
23 psychotic features, results were similar to the main analysis (Supplementary table 6). No
24 significant effect of any PRS was observed among those with psychotic features (N=348),
25 although point estimates were similar to the primary analysis.

26

1 **Discussion**

2 We investigated if improvement after ECT was associated with polygenic liability for MDD
3 and BD in a cohort of 2,320 patients with MDE. We found that higher polygenic liability for
4 MDD was associated with *lower* chance of improvement after ECT, whereas higher
5 polygenic liability for BD was associated with *higher* chance of improvement. In our primary
6 analysis, we could not replicate the relatively strong association between increasing PRS-
7 SCZ and more improvement reported from a previous smaller study (19), although we did
8 find that PRS-SCZ was positively associated with remission according to MADRS-S. In our
9 study, the proportions of participants who received bilateral ECT and who had psychotic
10 features were considerably smaller than in the previous study. But our sensitivity analysis did
11 not suggest that associations between PRS and improvement differed by these factors.
12 There is a small but growing literature on PRS and therapeutics for mood disorders. PRS-
13 MDD and PRS-SCZ have been associated with lower likelihood of lithium response in bipolar
14 disorder patients(14, 15), while PRS-BD had no such association(18). No robust associations
15 have been found with PRS for psychiatric disorders and response to antidepressants(34-36):
16 Nominal associations of PRS-MDD with less improvement on citalopram/escitalopram(35) or
17 esketamine in treatment-resistant MDD(36) did not survive correction for multiple testing.
18 PRS-MDD was not associated with outcome after cognitive-behavioral therapy for MDE(31).
19 It is noteworthy that higher PRS-MDD has been associated with poorer response to
20 antidepressant treatments rather than the opposite. Higher PRS-MDD has been related to
21 more severe MDD(37), which in turn is believed to predict response to ECT(6, 8). But the
22 measures of depression severity that have been associated with higher PRS-MDD—early
23 age of onset, higher symptom count, and a chronic/unremitting course of illness(37)—do not
24 necessarily correspond to severity as measured by the sum score on symptom scales, which
25 has been used to index severity as a predictor of response to ECT(8). In fact, younger age at
26 treatment and longer duration of current depressive episode (i.e., chronic illness) have
27 previously been associated with poorer response to ECT(8, 10).

1 In contradistinction to PRS-MDD, we found that higher polygenic liability for BD was
2 associated with a better response to ECT. The discrepancy between PRS-MDD and PRS-BD
3 is noteworthy as the efficacy of ECT does not differ between bipolar and unipolar
4 depression(9, 10). Importantly, the association was similar or more pronounced among the
5 subset of patients with unipolar depression.

6 We have previously reported higher PRS-BD in patients with a severe MDE treated with ECT
7 than in patients with more moderate depression treated with internet-based cognitive
8 behavioral therapy (12). Higher PRS-BD might hence reflect a genetic liability to develop not
9 only bipolar disorder but also more severe depression. Our findings indicate that high
10 polygenic liability for BD might also be associated with response to biological treatments
11 including ECT. Further research is needed to confirm this.

12 The effect sizes of PRS in this study are small, which echoes other genetic studies of
13 response to psychiatric treatments(14-16). Although effect sizes may increase with larger
14 genomic studies(38), the power of PRS to explain treatment effects might be limited in
15 cohorts with similar phenotypes and relatively small variations in treatment outcome. Also,
16 the genetic correlation between MDD and BD seems to be due to pleiotropic genetic
17 variants, meaning that genetic risk for BD cannot be used to delineate MDD subgroups(39).
18 Thus, PRS of BD and MDD may not be suitable for identification of a subgroup of 'super
19 responders' to ECT. The genetics of ECT response may also overlap with the genetics of
20 phenotypes associated with poor ECT response, such as personality disorders and
21 substance use(5). Indeed, the genetic architecture of categorically defined psychiatric
22 disorders might differ from that of treatment response. These possibilities should be
23 addressed by further studies, and ultimately by a GWAS of response to ECT, which is an
24 objective of the International Consortium on the Genetics of ECT and Severe Depressive
25 Disorder (GenECT-IC) aiming to recruit 30,000 participants (40).

1 *Strengths and limitations*

2 The strengths of this study include the large and well-characterized sample with data on
3 treatment outcomes after ECT. Further, the direction and magnitude of effects were
4 consistent between the primary outcome CGI-I and the secondary MADRS-S measures.
5 Sensitivity analyses provided further convergent evidence. Limitations of the study include,
6 first, that data was collected in routine clinical practice, limiting quality supervision. This
7 probably adds noise compared with controlled studies. Second, MADRS-S is self-rated while
8 CGI-I is observer rated, which may explain why CGI-I and MADRS-S were only moderately
9 correlated. Moreover, MADRS-S ratings were missing for more than half of the participants,
10 primarily prior to ECT. This is likely explained by the poor mental state that precluded
11 completing a self-rated instrument and might bias the results by excluding severely ill
12 patients who are expected to respond well to treatment. However, this bias should not affect
13 the results regarding the observer-rated CGI-I. Third, we had limited data on factors known to
14 predict the outcome of ECT, such as duration of the current episode and non-response to
15 antidepressant medication (10). It remains to be examined to what extent the association
16 between, for example, PRS for MDD and treatment outcome, is independent of these
17 variables. Last, given that our sample size was <4,000, the study were neither powered for a
18 GWAS of ECT outcomes, nor for computing heritability estimates for the studied outcomes
19 (41).

20 *Conclusions*

21 We found that response to ECT is associated with lower genetic burden for major depressive
22 disorder and higher genetic burden for bipolar disorder. Yet, the predictive power of the
23 studied polygenic risk scores to predict outcome after ECT was small. It remains to be
24 studied whether polygenic risk scores alongside clinical or demographic factors might add
25 predictive value beyond known clinical predictors of response to ECT.

26

27

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1 **Figure legends**

2

3 **Figure 1. Association between polygenic risk scores and measures of improvement**
4 **after ECT**

5 LEGEND: The figure shows the associations between PRS for MDD, BD, and SCZ and
6 outcomes of ECT among all participants (main analysis) and among only those with unipolar
7 depression (sensitivity analysis). Odds ratios (OR) are per standard deviation (SD) of
8 increasing PRS and an OR >1 = higher odds of favorable outcome. The bars represent 95%
9 confidence intervals. The x-axis is logarithmic. **Panel A:** Associations with the primary
10 outcome, CGI-I (Clinical Global Impressions-Improvement; $N_{\text{all}}=2,320$, $N_{\text{narrow}}=1,789$).
11 Estimated from an ordinal logistic regression model adjusted for the first five genetic ancestry
12 principal components. **Panels B and C:** Associations between MADRS-S (Self-rated
13 Montgomery-Åsberg Depression Rating Scale; $N_{\text{all}}=1,207$, $N_{\text{narrow}}=815$) and response (B) and
14 remission (C), estimated from binary logistic regression models adjusted for MADRS-S
15 before ECT, and the first five genetic ancestry principal components.

16

17 **Figure 2. Associations between quintiles of PRS and CGI improvement after ECT.**

18 LEGEND: The figure shows the odds of more improvement after ECT according to CGI-I for
19 each quintile of polygenic risk score relative to the 1st quintile ($N_{\text{all}}=2,320$, $N_{\text{narrow}}=1,789$). The
20 bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Estimated from ordinal logistic regression models
21 adjusted for the first five genetic ancestry principal components. The x-axis is logarithmic.

22 **Panel A:** PRS-MDD. **Panel B:** PRS-BD. **Panel C:** PRS-SCZ.

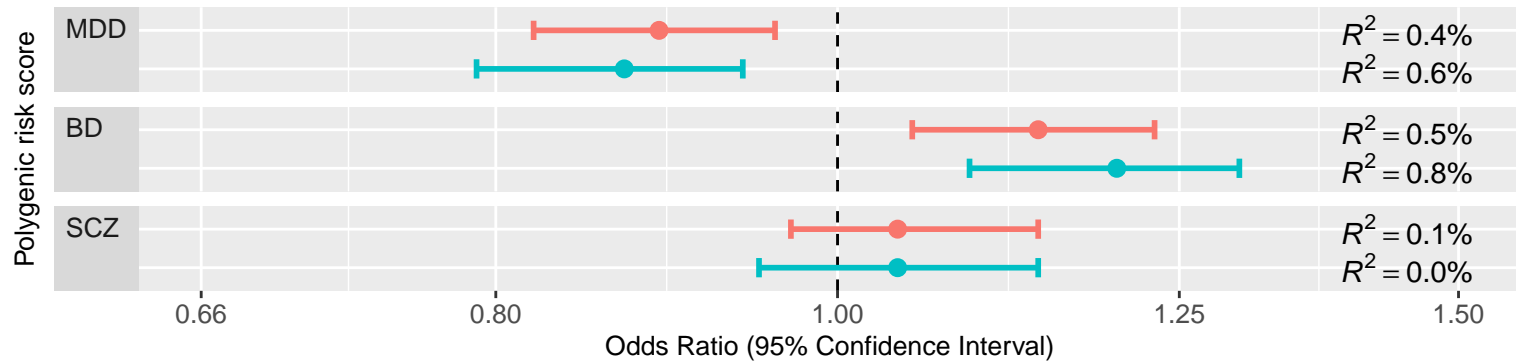
Table 1. Characteristics of participants

	CGI-I sample (N=2,320) ^a			MADRS-S sample (N=1,207) ^a		
	N or median	% or IQR	Missing	N or median	% or IQR	Missing
Female sex	1,456	62.8%	0	772	64.0%	0
Indication			0			0
Narrow (unipolar depression)	1,789	77.1%		815	67.5%	
Broad (all other indications)	531	22.9%		392	32.5%	
Psychotic features	348	15.0%		133	11.0%	
Age (years)	51	37-64	0	51	37-64	
No. of acute treatment series registered in Q-ECT			0			0
1	1,309	56.4%		556	46.1%	
2	531	22.9%		300	24.9%	
3 or more (maximum 19)	480	20.7%		351	29.1%	
MADRS-S before ECT	34	28-40	1,135	34	28-40	0
MADRS-S after ECT	13	6-21	1,049	14	7-22	0
CGI-I after ECT	2	1-2	0	2	1-2	195
No. of ECT sessions	8	6-10	0	8	6-10	0
Electrode placement at first or last ECT			2			1
Unilateral	2,012	86.8%		1,057	86.7%	
Bifronto/temporal	306	13.2%		149	12.4%	
Pulse width at first ECT (ms)			678			141
0.25-0.49	437	26.6%		182	17.1%	
0.50	970	59.1%		736	69.0%	
0.51-1.20	235	14.3%		148	13.9%	
Charge at first ECT (mC)	307	226-404	671	307	230-409	141

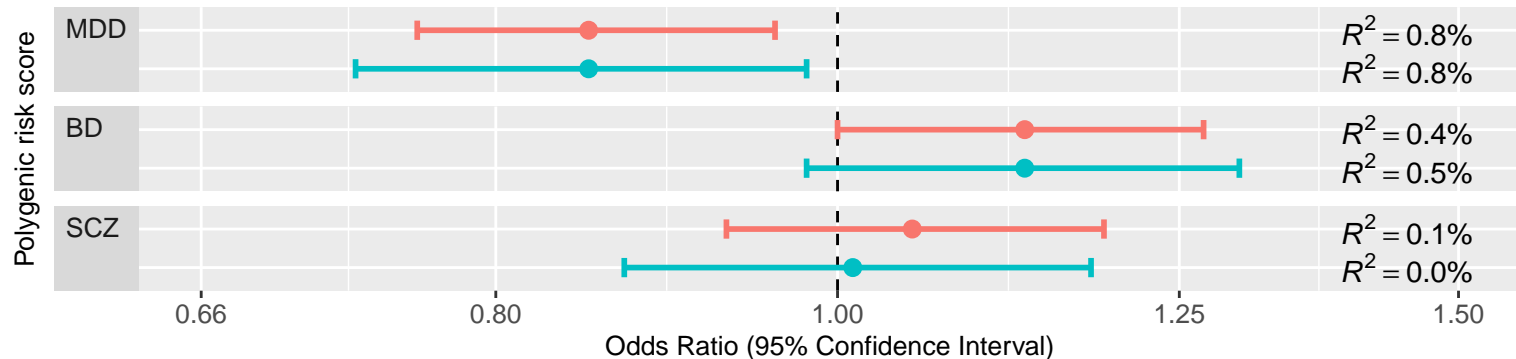
Abbreviations: ECT: Electroconvulsive therapy; CGI-I: Clinical Global Impressions-Improvement; MADRS-S: Self-rated Montgomery-Åsberg Depression Rating Scale. IQR: interquartile range

^a Data are from participants' first treatment series with the respective outcome. 1,052 participants are included in both the MADRS-S and the CGI-I sample.

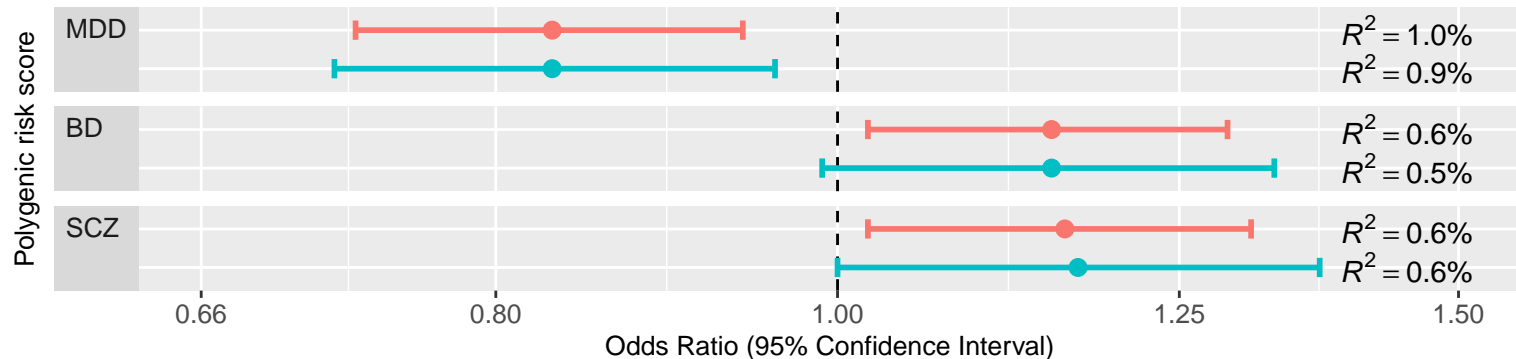
A. CGI-I



B. MADRS-S RESPONSE

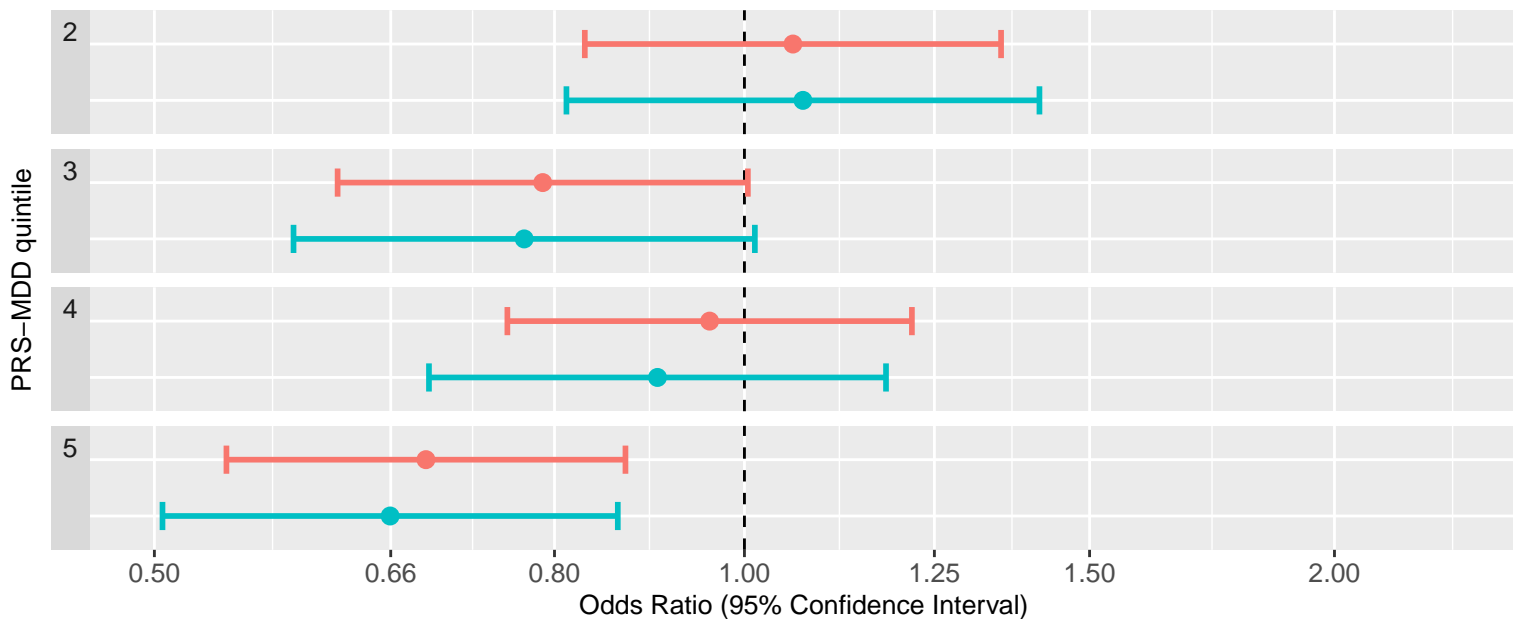


C. MADRS-S REMISSION

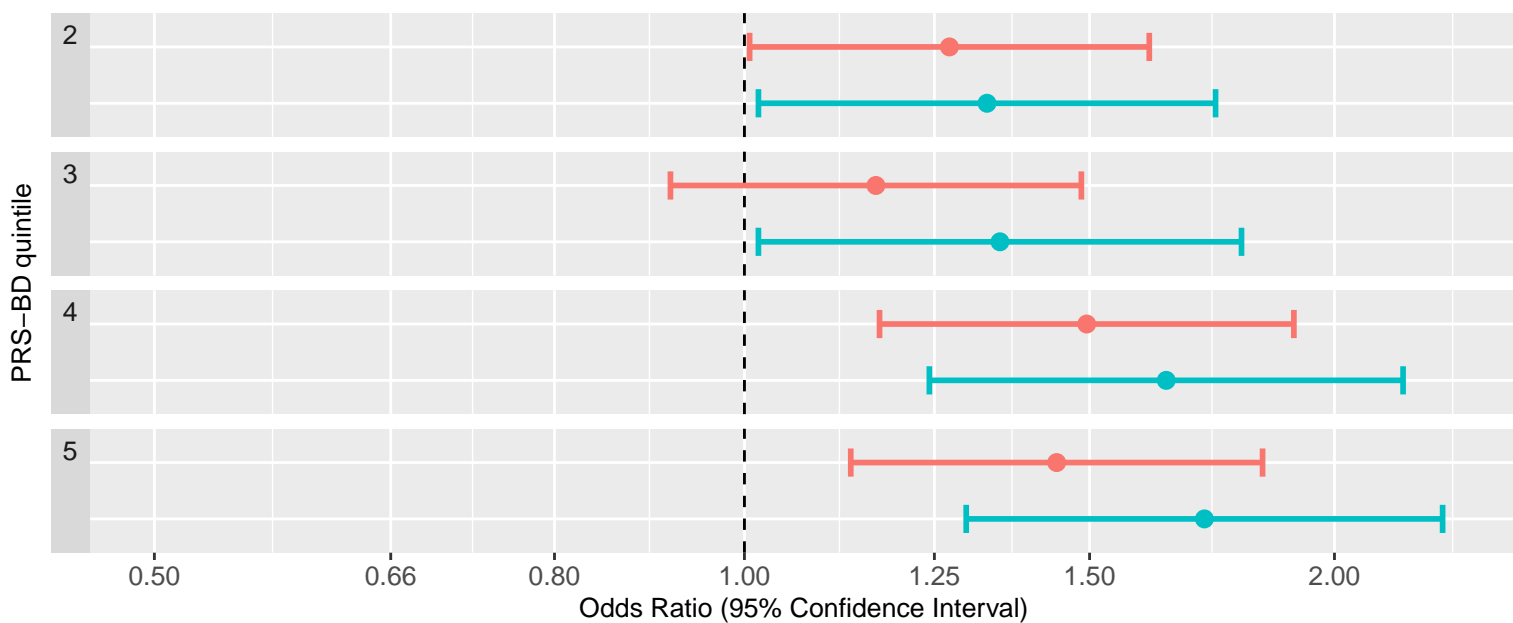


Indication  All patients  Narrow (unipolar depression)

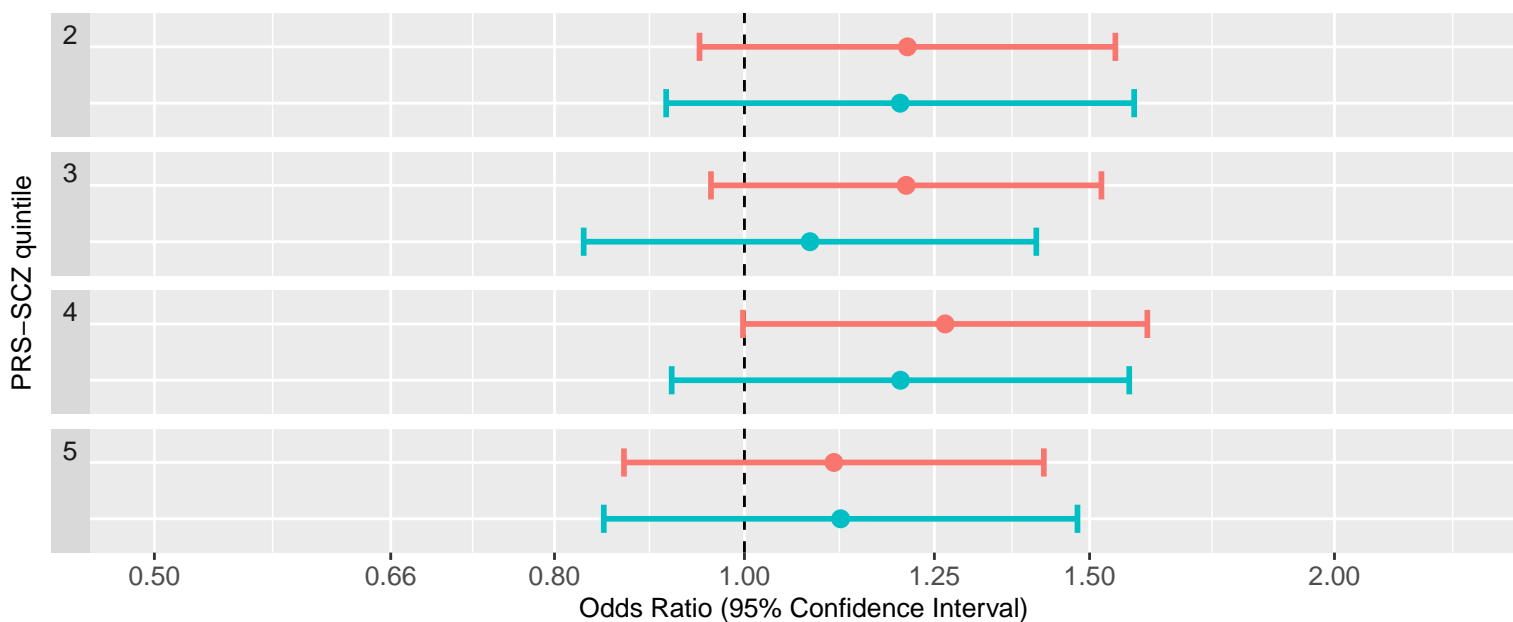
A. PRS-MDD QUINTILES (Reference = 1st quintile)



B. PRS-BD QUINTILES (Reference = 1st quintile)



C. PRS-SCZ QUINTILES (Reference = 1st quintile)



Indication  All patients  Narrow (unipolar depression)