

1 Amygdala reactivity, antidepressant discontinuation and relapse: a
2 longitudinal, observational study with a randomized component

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20 Key Points

21 **Question** Does antidepressant discontinuation increase amygdala reactivity to aversive stimuli and
22 does this increase the risk of a depression relapse?

23 **Findings** Discontinuation of antidepressant medication increases amygdala response to negative
24 facial expressions in individuals who go on to relapse. The increase is predictive of the risk of relapse.

25 **Meaning** The modulation of amygdala reactivity by antidepressant medications may represent a
26 mechanism by which antidepressant medications help to maintain remission, and how antidepressant
27 discontinuation increases relapse risk.

28 Abstract

29 **Importance** Antidepressant discontinuation substantially increases the risk of a depression relapse.
30 The neurobiological mechanisms through which this happens are not known. Amygdala reactivity
31 to negative information is a marker of negative affective processes in depression that is reduced by
32 antidepressant medication. However, it is unknown whether amygdala reactivity is sensitive to antide-
33 pressant discontinuation, and whether any change is related to the risk of relapse after antidepressant
34 discontinuation.

35 **Objective** To investigate whether amygdala reactivity to negative facial emotions changes with
36 antidepressant discontinuation and relates to subsequent relapse.

37 **Design** The AIDA study was a longitudinal, observational AIDA study, where patients were random-
38 ized to task-based fMRI measurement of amygdala reactivity either twice before, or after discontinuing
39 antidepressants. Relapse was monitored over a six month follow-up period. Study recruitment took
40 place until January 2018. Data were collected between July 1, 2015, to January 31, 2019 and statistical
41 analyses were conducted between June 2021 and December 2023.

42 **Setting** University setting in Zurich, Switzerland, and Berlin, Germany.

43 **Participants** Patients with remitted major depressive disorder (rMDD) on antidepressants. Of 123
44 recruited patients, 80 (mean (SD) age 35.5 (11.4) years; 60 women (75%) were included in analyses.
45 Of 66 recruited healthy controls matched for age, sex, and education, 53 were included in analyses
46 (mean (SD) age 34.9 (10.7) years); 37 women (70%).

47 **Exposure** Discontinuation of antidepressant medication.

48 **Outcomes** Task-based fMRI measurement of amygdala reactivity and MDD relapse within 6 months
49 after discontinuation.

50 **Results** Amygdala reactivity of rMDD patients on medication did not differ from controls (left:
51 $t = 0.77, p = 0.44$, right: $t = 0.88, p = 0.37$). An increase in amygdala reactivity after antide-
52 pressant discontinuation was associated with depression relapse (three-way interaction between group
53 (continuation vs discontinuation), time point and relapse; $\beta = 25.1$, 95%-CI (4.4, 45.8), $p = 0.018$).
54 Amygdala reactivity change was associated with shorter times to relapse (hazard ratio 1.05, 95%-CI
55 (1.016, 1.085)), and predictive of relapse (LOOCV balanced accuracy 71%, 95%-PPI (57%, 84%)).

56 **Conclusions and Relevance** An increase in amygdala reactivity is associated with risk of relapse
57 after antidepressant discontinuation and may represent a functional neuroimaging marker that could
58 inform clinical decisions around antidepressant discontinuation.

333

59 Introduction

60 Major depressive disorder (MDD) is a major cause of disability globally, affecting more than 16%
61 of adults during their lifetime. Much of its burden arises through its high rate of recurrence [1].
62 More than half of patients with a first episode of depression experience a second episode and the
63 risk of relapse increases further with every additional experienced episode [2]. Therefore, prevention
64 of relapse is important. Indeed, relapse risk in depression has been studied and some promising
65 mechanisms identified [3, 4], though most risk factors associated with relapse are prognostic rather
66 than prescriptive [5].

67 One frequent, and clinically highly relevant, decision regarding the management of relapse risk is the
68 decision whether to continue or discontinue antidepressant medication (ADM). ADM discontinua-
69 tion confers a substantial increase in relapse risk [6, 7], but ADMs cannot be continued indefinitely.
70 Guidelines typically recommend 6-9 months of treatment after a first episode, and longer after more
71 episodes, although the evidence for these recommendations is equivocal [8–10] and based on assump-
72 tions about the natural course of depressive episodes [11]. In this situation, factors—particularly
73 mechanistically interpretable ones—that can predict which patients may be at risk of relapse and may
74 thus be benefiting the most from continued treatment would be helpful.

75 However, the mechanisms leading specifically to relapse after ADM discontinuation are not yet well-
76 understood [12]. Previous work has shown that the predictive power of demographic and clinical
77 variables is limited [12, 13]. Cognitive measures, such as behavioural assessments of effort-sensitivity,
78 have recently been found to be predictive of relapse after ADM discontinuation [14], with evidence
79 emerging also for EEG [15] and possibly resting-state fMRI measures [16].

80 Neurobiologically, a highly promising process is amygdala reactivity to negative affective stimuli.
81 Theories of depression and ADM treatment effect delays have considered it a marker of negative
82 affective bias, which denotes the tendency to allow negative experiences to have a greater effect on
83 one’s psychological state than neutral or positive ones [17–20]. Negative affective bias, as measured
84 by the amygdala activity in response to negative emotional faces, is thought to track the course
85 of depression, being heightened in people in the acute depressive phase ([21–24]; though note [25]).
86 Amygdala reactivity to negative stimuli is attenuated by tryptophan depletion; by both acute and
87 repeated SSRI administration in healthy individuals [26–28]; by emotion regulation interventions [29,
88 30] relevant to the treatment of depression; and by ADM treatment [21, 31]. There is good meta-
89 analytic evidence that amygdala reactivity to negative emotions reduces or normalizes with ADM
90 treatment [23, 32–35], and studies suggest that pre-treatment amygdala reactivity may be predictive
91 of ADM treatment response [32]. Importantly, amygdala reactivity in the Hariri faces task has been
92 extensively studied with evidence on its test-retest reliability [36] and inclusion in large-scale imaging
93 datasets [25].

94 Here, we examine whether amygdala reactivity is affected by antidepressant discontinuation, and
95 whether it has potential as a predictive biomarker. We report results from the AIDA (AntIDepressiva
96 Absetzstudie) study, a longitudinal, observational study where patients were tested before and shortly
97 after ADM discontinuation and followed up for six months to assess relapse. We employed a well-
98 established functional magnetic resonance (fMRI) paradigm that examines the blood oxygen level
99 dependent (BOLD) signal in the amygdala in response to facial emotion stimuli [37]. In keeping with
100 the literature outlined above, we firstly expected that remitted patients before discontinuation would
101 not differ from the control sample. Secondly, we expected that amygdala reactivity would increase
102 with discontinuation, reflecting the converse of the established changes in response to ADM treatment
103 [32, 34]. Thirdly, we expected that the increase in negative affective bias due to discontinuation would
104 be related to the relapse risk. We conducted exploratory analyses in order to examine whether pre-

105 treatment amygdala reactivity, or its change with discontinuation, might have potential as predictors
106 for relapse risk after discontinuation.

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107 **Methods**

108 **Participants**

109 The AIDA study recruited patients in remitted depression intent on discontinuing their antidepressant
110 medication. Patients had experienced multiple or at least one severe [38] episode of Major Depressive
111 Disorder [39]; had initiated antidepressant treatment during the last episodes; had reached a stable
112 remitted state; and had reached the decision to discontinue their medication independently from and
113 prior to study participation. See supplement section S2 for inclusion and exclusion criteria. Healthy
114 control participants without a history of depression were matched for age, sex, and educational level.
115 Participants were recruited in two university settings in Zurich, Switzerland, and Berlin, Germany.

116 **Study design**

117 Fig. 1 shows the study design. Participants were invited after a telephone screening and underwent an
118 in-person assessment including clinical interviews with trained staff. Participants fulfilling all inclusion
119 criteria were randomized into one of two discontinuation groups. Participants in the discontinuation
120 group 1W2 (withdrawal between T1 and T2) discontinued their ADM gradually (up to 18 weeks)
121 between assessments T1 and T2, allowing to control for repeated measurements of amygdala reactivity.
122 Participants in the continuation group (12W; withdrawal after T1 and T2) underwent both assessment
123 first, and then discontinued after the second assessment at T2. At each of the assessment time-points
124 T1 and T2, participants completed a range of behavioral tasks, fMRI, electroencephalography and
125 had blood samples taken (c.f. [13, 14, 16]). Relapse status was assessed during a six-month follow-up
126 period. At weeks 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 12, 16 and 21 of the follow-up period, patients were contacted for
127 telephone assessments to determine relapse status. In case relapse was deemed probable during the
128 telephone assessment, patients were invited to an in-person clinical interview, and, if they fulfilled
129 diagnostic criteria [2], they underwent a final assessment. If no relapse occurred until week 26, they
130 underwent the final assessment then. Control participants were only assessed once (at T1). Study data
131 were collected between 1st July 2015 and 31st January 2019. Recruitment took place until January
132 2018. All participants provided written informed consent and received monetary compensation for
133 participating. Ethical approval was provided by the cantonal ethics committee in Zurich and the
134 ethics commission at the Campus Charité Mitte. All procedures were in keeping with the Declaration
135 of Helsinki ([10.1001/jama.2013.281053](https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2013.281053)).

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136 **Faces task**

137 Participants performed the Hariri faces task[37] while undergoing fMRI scanning. In the task, indi-
138 viduals are asked to match the a face depicted at the top of the screen to one of two other faces at the
139 bottom of the screen; the target faces alternatively show angry and sad emotions. In control trials,
140 individuals selected which of the geometric shapes at the bottom was identical to the target shape at
141 the top. The task consisted of 8 alternating blocks of face and form trials, with 6 trials per block.

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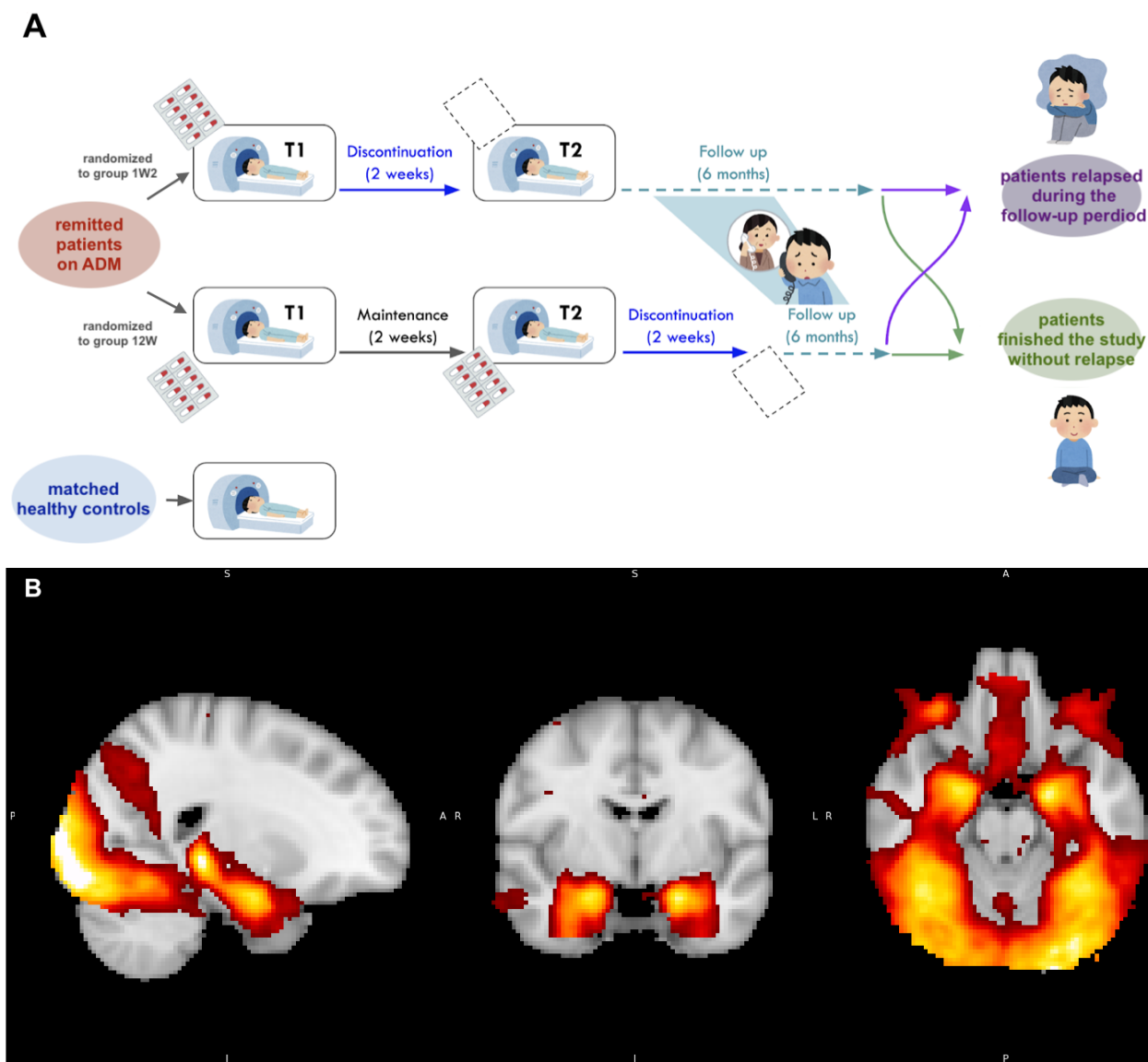


Figure 1: Study design (top) and whole brain fMRI results (bottom). Panel A) Study design: patients with remitted Major Depressive Disorder were randomized to either undergo fMRI before and after ADM discontinuation (top), or to undergo fMRI twice before ADM discontinuation. After discontinuation, all patients were followed up for 6 months. A group of never-depressed control participants were assessed once only. The design enables a cross-sectional comparison of the remitted depressed state (T1 patients / controls). In the patient sample, it allows the effect of discontinuation to be related to relapse (interaction of time point (T1 / T2) with group (12W / 1W2) and relapse). Panel B) Whole-brain fMRI results for patients at both time points: Overall, the task did significantly activate the amygdala across patients and controls. Shown is the z-statistic map for the face-form contrast, with cluster-level FWE correction at $p < 0.05$ and a cluster defining threshold of $p < 0.001$.

142 **Analysis**

143 The samples from Berlin and Zurich were analyzed together as one group. Throughout all regression
144 analyses site was included as a covariate of no interest. Group comparisons of symptom measures for
145 patients versus controls and relapsers versus non-relapsers were performed via t-tests. A post-hoc test
146 for an increase of amygdala reactivity in relapsers who discontinued before T2 was performed via a
147 paired sample t-test.

148 **Functional MRI acquisition** Images were acquired at using a Phillips 3T Ingenia in Zurich and
149 a Siemens 3T Trio in Berlin. In Zurich, a 32-channel coil was used to acquire echo-planar images
150 (EPIs; 108 volumes; 40 axial slices; 2.5mm slice thickness; descending sequential acquisition, repetition
151 time: 2560 ms; echo time: 27 ms, field of view: 210 x 210 x 119.5, acquisition matrix: 84 x 82,
152 reconstructed voxel size: 2.19 x 2.19 x 2.50 mm, flip angle: 90°). Additionally, we acquired T1-
153 weighted magnetization-prepared rapid-acquisition gradient-echo (MPRAGE) structural images (301
154 axial slices; slice thickness: 1; repetition time: 7.9 ms; echo time: 3.7 ms, field of view: 250 x 250
155 x 180.6, acquisition matrix: 252 x 251, reconstructed voxel size: 0.98 x 0.98 x 0.60 mm, flip angle:
156 8°). In Berlin, a 32-channel coil was used for EPIs (108 volumes; 40 axial slices; 3 mm slice thickness
157 including a gap of 0.5 mm; descending sequential acquisition, repetition time: 2560 ms; echo time: 27
158 ms, field of view: 210 x 210 x 120, acquisition matrix: 84 x 84, voxel size: 2.50 x 2.50 x 2.50 mm,
159 flip angle: 90°). T1-weighted MPRAGE structural images (192 axial slices; slice thickness: 1 mm;
160 repetition time: 1900 ms; echo time: 2.52 ms, field of view: 256 x 256 x 192, acquisition matrix: 256
161 x 256, reconstructed voxel size: 0.98 x 0.98 x 0.60 mm, flip angle: 9°) were also acquired.

162 **fMRI data preprocessing** Imaging data were preprocessing using standard settings of the FSL
163 (FMRIB Software Library v6.0) FEAT software. The standard pipeline includes brain extraction from
164 the T1-weighted images (using the BET program with initial threshold of 0.2); motion correction using
165 rigid-body registration (via MCFLIRT program) to the central volume of the functional time series;
166 and high-pass filtering with a cutoff of 1/100Hz. EPI images were registered to the high-resolution
167 structural images and normalized into standard (MNI152) space using affine (boundary-based), and
168 nonlinear registration, respectively (via FLIRT and FNIRT programs). Functional data were spatially
169 smoothed using a Gaussian filter with 6 mm full-width at half maximum (via SUSAN program).
170 We did not perform slice timing correction, but instead included temporal derivatives in the first-
171 level statistical model as per the FEAT default. All summary images for the registration procedure
172 were visually inspected, and for subjects with poor registration results the procedure was repeated
173 with the following changes. Firstly, we changed the threshold parameter for the brain extraction
174 program, and, secondly, we changed the functional image that was used as template in the registration
175 (the middle volume) in case that image was affected by movement. General linear models (GLMs)
176 were fitted to pre-whitened data. The individual level (first level) GLM design matrix included two
177 5000ms-duration box-car regressors coding for the presentation of face and form stimuli and six motion
178 regressors obtained from the motion correction step during preprocessing. Regressors were convolved
179 with a hemodynamic response function (mean lag=6s, SD=3s). Each first-level GLM included three
180 contrasts: face, form, face minus form. A group level GLM was performed using FEAT's FLAME
181 method to obtain whole brain estimates for the face vs. form contrast.

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182 **Linear mixed effects ROI analysis** Subject-wise first-level analyses were run using FEAT and
183 resulting contrast estimates were transformed to MNI152 standard space for use in further analyses.
184 Amygdala ROIs were taken from the Harvard-Oxford sub-cortical atlas and used to extract the average
185 estimates for each contrast (face, form and face vs. form) and for each side (left and right amygdala).

186 To assess the difference in left/right amygdala response between remitted patients and healthy controls,
187 we calculated a t-test. We fit a linear mixed model for the amygdala activity of only the patient group,
188 for which we had measurements at two time points. We included time, discontinuation group (whether
189 subjects discontinued between time points 1 and 2 (denoted by 1W2) or discontinued after T2 (denoted
190 12W)), relapse status, age, gender and site as predictors and subject-specific random intercepts and
191 slopes for the time effect.

192 **Time to relapse analyses** To examine the relationship between amygdala reactivity and the
193 relapse-free interval, we entered the difference in amygdala activity (i.e. the per-person ROI-averaged
194 contrast estimates) from time 1 to 2 as a regressor into a proportional hazards Cox model with the
195 *time to relapse* as the right-censored dependent variable and age and gender as additional regressors.

196 **Prediction analyses** The above analyses examined the association between the average of all voxels
197 in the selected ROIs and the intervention or clinical outcomes. In order to examine whether amygdala
198 reactivity might contain predictive information, we took a machine learning approach. The features
199 included in the models consisted of the face vs. form contrast estimates from all voxels in the amygdala
200 ROI (366 for right amygdala and 306 for left) returned from the first-level analysis of the patient sam-
201 ple. These were used as predictors in a logistic regression model to predict relapse status. We used L1
202 regularization (i.e. variable selection) given the large number of features. Predictive performance was
203 determined via Leave-One-Out Cross-Validation (LOOCV), with an inner (2-fold) Cross-Validation to
204 find the optimal regularization parameter using gridsearch. We computed the posterior distribution of
205 the balanced accuracy [40] to obtain estimates of the standard error and assess significance. We used
206 three different models. The first model used the amygdala activity at the first assessment, before any
207 of the patients had discontinued their ADM. The second model used only the amygdala activity from
208 the second time point and the third model used the difference (patient-wise) of amygdala activity in
209 each voxel of the amygdala mask.

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210 Results

211 Of the 90 patients and 59 healthy controls who completed the study, 80 and 53, respectively, could be
212 included in the analyses (cf. Supplementary Material Figure S1). Table 1 shows the characteristics
213 of the sample. The patient group was in remission, with minimal residual symptoms that were
214 nevertheless higher than those in the never-depressed control group, and with some residual working
215 memory impairments. At baseline, patients who went on to relapse and those who did not did not
216 differ in any clinical or neuro-psychological variable. The fMRI task was effective, resulting in an
217 overall activation pattern similar to that reported in the literature, with prominent bilateral amygdala
218 activation (Fig 1). The analyses reported here were limited to the amygdala ROI (Fig 2). In the
219 following, we will denote ROI-averaged face-vs-form contrast estimates as *amygdala reactivity*.

1939

220 Remitted patients vs. healthy controls

221 Fig. 2B shows a comparison of amygdala reactivity in patients vs controls at T1. The ROI-averaged
222 contrast estimates of both patient and control groups were significantly greater than zero (left side:
223 $t = 6.82, p < 10^{-9}$, right side: $t = 7.29, p < 10^{-10}$), but did not differ between groups (left side:
224 $t = 0.77, p = 0.44$, right side: $t = 0.88, p = 0.37$).

	Controls (N=53)	Patients (N=80)	p-value	Non Relapsers (N=54)	Relapsers (N=26)	p-value
Demographics						
Age	33.57 ± 10.7	35.42 ± 11.41	0.339	34.53 ± 11.57	37.38 ± 11.02	0.293
Male sex # (%)	16 (30.2)	21 (25.3)	0.532	14 (24.6)	7 (26.9)	0.818
BMI	23.49 ± 3.69	23.99 ± 4.3	0.481	24.17 ± 4.31	23.6 ± 4.34	0.58
Clinical measures						
Residual depression (IDS-C (Inventory of Depressive Symptomatology, Clinician-Rated)) [41]	0.65 ± 1.07	3.76 ± 3.96	¡0.001	3.42 ± 2.91	4.57 ± 5.71	0.248
No. prior episodes	-	2.41 ± 1.31	-	2.33 ± 1.34	2.58 ± 1.24	0.434
Medication Load ^a	-	0.76 ± 0.4	-	0.78 ± 0.4	0.72 ± 0.42	0.55
Neuropsychological scores						
Working Memory (Digit Span backwards of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale [42])	8.17 ± 3.38	6.93 ± 2.0	0.018	7.07 ± 2.16	6.62 ± 1.58	0.339
Intelligence (MWTB; Mehrfachwahl-Wortschatz-Intelligenztest) [43]	28.28 ± 3.92	28.69 ± 4.1	0.598	28.3 ± 4.13	29.54 ± 3.98	0.203
Executive function (Trial making test A; TMT A) [44]	22.46 ± 5.55	24.88 ± 8.25	0.097	24.87 ± 8.13	24.9 ± 8.68	0.986
Executive function (TMT B) [44]	54.42 ± 21.15	56.5 ± 17.1	0.56	55.56 ± 17.06	58.58 ± 17.32	0.458

Table 1: Table with sample characteristics and p-values for tests of group differences.

^adefined as the dose divided by the maximal allowed dose according to the Swiss compendium (www.compendium.ch) and by the weight of the participant.

225 Association between amygdala reactivity, discontinuation and relapse

226 The results of the linear mixed model for the amygdala reactivity are depicted in Table 2.1 This
227 revealed that discontinuing ADM had a different effect for those who later did and did not relapse, as
228 indicated by a significant three-way interaction between time (T1 before and T2 after discontinuation
229 / wait period), discontinuation group (12W / 1W2), and relapse status (relapse / no relapse) at follow-
230 up (95%-CI 4.4 to 45.8, $p = 0.018$) and as depicted in Fig. 2C. There were no main effects of group
231 ($z = 0.31, p = 0.76$), time ($z = 0.287, p = 0.77$) or relapse ($z = -0.28, p = 0.78$). A post-hoc paired
232 t-test indicated that this was driven by an increase in right amygdala reactivity in those patients who
233 discontinued before T2 and who later went on to relapse (point-estimate 26.2, $n = 12, p = 0.0033$). 2055

234 Association between amygdala reactivity changes and time to relapse

235 The results of the proportional hazards Cox model with the *time to relapse* as the right-censored depen-
236 dent variable are shown in Table S1. In the discontinuation group, the difference in amygdala reactivity
237 (T2 minus T1) was associated with time to relapse: patients with greater increase in amygdala tended
238 to relapse earlier as indicated by a significant interaction of the difference in amygdala reactivity and
239 the discontinuation group variable with a hazard ratio of 1.05 ($\beta = 0.05, z = 2.88, p = 0.004$). 2135

240 Prediction of relapse from amygdala reactivity

241 The predictive power of the change in amygdala reactivity between T1 and T2 (with all voxels in the
242 ROI as features) is shown in Fig. 3. Results for models based only on measurements at T1 or T2
243 are shown in Tab. S2. We found predictive accuracies not significantly from chance for the models
244 based on the amygdala activity of all patients at T1 before discontinuation, and amygdala reactivity
245 at T2 in the discontinuation group. However, the model based on the difference between T1 and T2
246 in amygdala reactivity (for all voxels in the right ROI) yielded a predictive (balanced) accuracy of
247 71% (95%-PPI (56%, 84%); left side: 49%, (36%, 63%)), with a posterior probability of 0.002% for

Name	Coef.	Std. Error	z	p-value	95%-CI
(Intercept)	19.287	4.996	3.861	0.0	(9.496, 29.079)
T: 2	1.222	4.257	0.287	0.774	(-7.122, 9.566)
Discontinuation Group: 1W2	1.728	5.613	0.308	0.758	(-9.274, 12.731)
Relapse	-1.861	6.739	-0.276	0.782	(-15.069, 11.347)
Site: Zurich	3.651	3.646	1.001	0.317	(-3.495, 10.797)
T: 2 & Disc. Group: 1W2	-3.456	6.021	-0.574	0.566	(-15.256, 8.344)
T: 2 & Relapse	3.35	7.285	0.46	0.646	(-10.929, 17.629)
Discontinuation Group: 1W2 & Relapse	-6.066	9.78	-0.62	0.535	(-25.235, 13.102)
T: 2 & Disc. Group: 1W2 & Relapse	25.099	10.582	2.372	0.018	(4.358, 45.839)

Table 2: Coefficient table of mixed-model for the right-side amygdala response (i.e. ROI-averaged voxel-wise estimates of the face vs. form contrast). Categorical variable names are binary coded, such that the coefficient for T: 2 represents the difference in response for time point 2 vs. reference category (T: 1). Interactions are denoted via the & sign, that is, the coefficient for T: 2 & Relapse represents the difference of the increase (from T1 to T2) for relapsers versus non-relapsers (the reference category).

248 the accuracy being less than 50%.

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249 Discussion

250 Whether to discontinue ADM is a key clinical decision in the management of depression, and brings
251 with it a potentially substantial increase in the risk of relapse [6, 7], with few individual predictors to
252 guide clinicians or patients in their decision-making [5, 12].

253 Here, we report that an increase in amygdala reactivity to negative emotional face stimuli after antide-
254 pressant discontinuation was associated with relapse during a six month follow-up period. The findings
255 are specific: they occur before any change in symptoms have occurred, and an increase in amygdala
256 reactivity was only observed after discontinuation, and in those individuals who go on to relapse. The
257 increase in reactivity also appeared to be—to the extent this could be assessed within the study—
258 potentially predictive of future relapse. These findings establish that there is individual variation in
259 the impact of (mostly serotonergic) ADM discontinuation on amygdala reactivity: there was no main
260 effect of discontinuation, meaning that amygdala reactivity only increased in those individuals who
261 later relapsed. This raises the tantalizing possibility that amygdala reactivity was being maintained
262 by ADM in some individuals, and by other processes in others. Removal of ADM hence only had an
263 adverse effect on those individuals who effectively relied on it to regulate amygdala reactivity.

264 Overall, the pattern of findings is consistent with the extensive literature on the relationship of amy-
265 gdala reactivity, negative affective bias and depression. The amygdala reactivity to negative emotional
266 faces can be seen as an instance of negative affective bias, which is thought to underlie the maintenance
267 of the depressed state [17–19, 45]. While still medicated, the remitted patients in our sample did not
268 differ from the control group in terms of amygdala reactivity, supporting the notion that effective
269 ADM treatment restores normal amygdala reactivity. This is in line with previous work that found
270 that amygdala hyperactivity was increased in patients with depression, but decreased with treatment
271 [21, 26, 31, 46].

272 The findings add to the existing work suggesting that neurocognitive markers may have an informative
273 role to play in predicting relapse after antidepressant discontinuation. While clinical features and even
274 discontinuation symptoms are not predictive of relapse [13, 47] in this sample, several neurocognitive

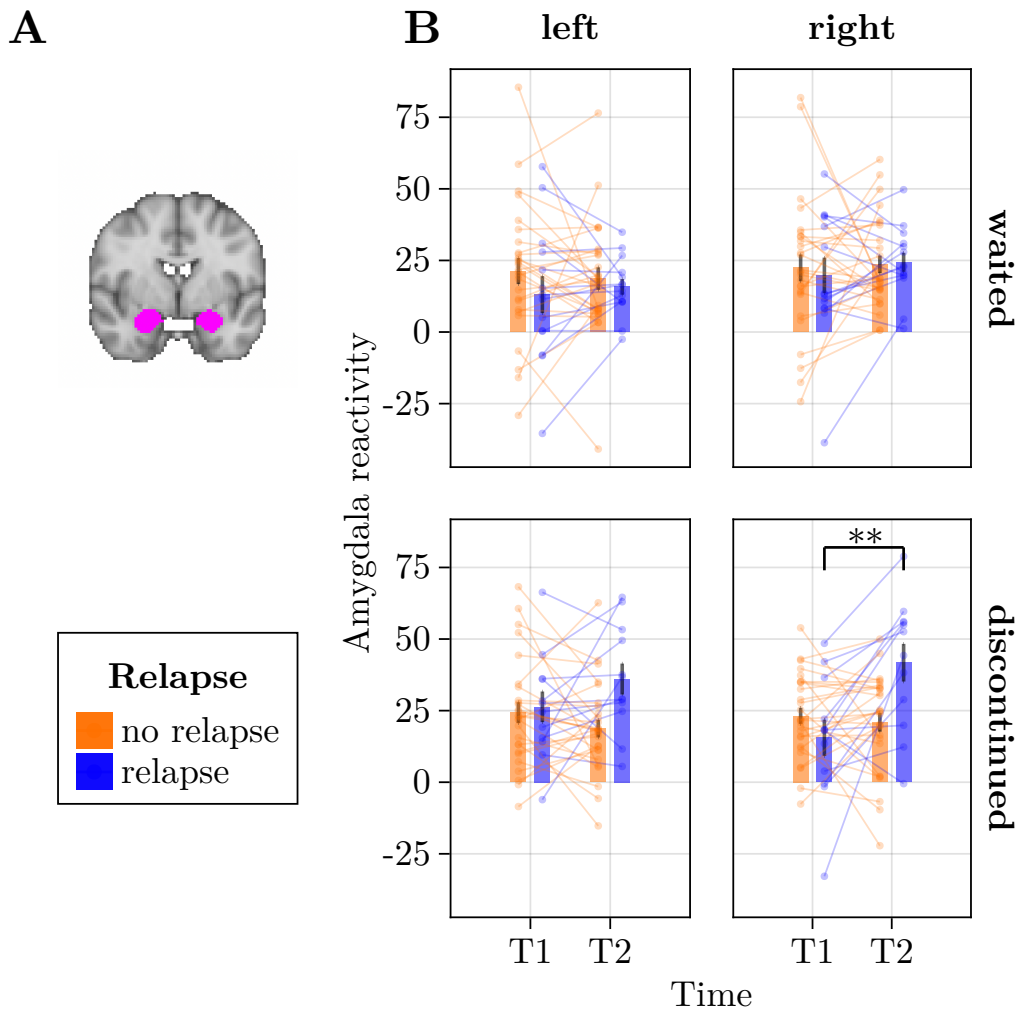


Figure 2: ROI-based analysis: Panel A) shows the two selected ROIs corresponding to left and right amygdala from the Harvard-Oxford atlas. Panel B) shows the same ROI-averaged contrast values for patients for both time points and split by discontinuation (if that patient discontinued ADM before time point two or after) and relapse. Bars indicate means with standard errors. ** indicates post-hoc paired-sample t-test $p < 0.01$

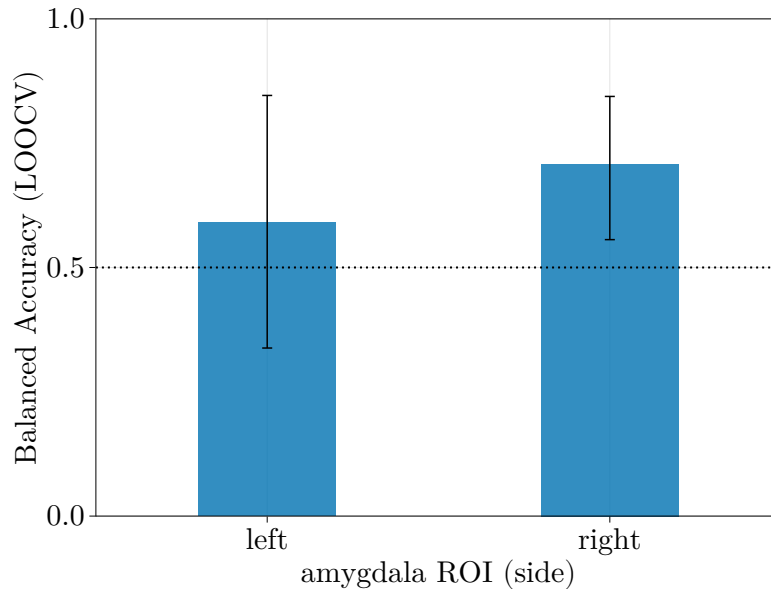


Figure 3: Relapse prediction: depicted is the predictive accuracy of the relapse classifiers based on right (blue) and left (orange) amygdala ROI (precisely: the modes of the posterior over the balanced accuracy inferred from the confusion matrix resulting from an LOOCV procedure). The classifiers were based on the voxel-wise increase in the face-form contrast estimates. Error bars indicate the 95% posterior predictive interval and the dotted line is the chance level.

275 measures have shown promise. For example, resting-state fMRI connectivity does change with discontinuation, and may be predictive of relapse [16] and a behavioral measure based on effort sensitivity, assessed at baseline, was predictive of relapse, although it was not altered by the discontinuation itself [14]. Similarly, pre-discontinuation EEG measures of affective reactivity are predictive of relapse, but we do not know about whether this changes with discontinuation [48].

280 Other work has identified abnormal processing of emotional stimuli that may be mediating a vulnerability to relapse after remission, such as frontotemporal connectivity during emotional face processing [49], emotional reactivity [50–52] and hyperconnectivity between anterior temporal and subgenual cortices while experiencing self-blaming emotions [53]. This does not seem to be the case for amygdala reactivity in the present study. Note that the absence of such a baseline effect strengthens the interpretation of the selective association between the discontinuation and relapse in what is an observational study, albeit with a randomized component.

287 The translational potential of the findings is uncertain. Whilst we found that amygdala activity changes were predictive of relapse, the analyses suggest that the measurement after discontinuation is required. This clearly substantially limits scalability. However, it may be that similar effects could be observed with related pharmacological challenges, e.g. during a short-term discontinuation challenge, where patients stop medication for a couple days only. This could be more practically feasible and may potentially support further treatment decisions.

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293 Limitations

294 The study has a relatively small sample size and should be replicated in a larger-scale study. The costs of scaling neuroimaging studies in this setting is substantial, and requires smaller-scale studies such as this one. The study is unblinded: both participants and experimenters know which group participants

297 were in, and when they discontinued. As such, it is not possible to disentangle pharmacological from
298 psychological effects of discontinuation. To achieve this, a placebo-controlled study is required [6, 7]. 2872

299 **Conclusions**

300 The AIDA study was a longitudinal, observational study with a randomized component. The design
301 allowed four questions to be addressed, namely regarding the remitted but medicated depressed state;
302 the effect of ADM discontinuation; the relationship between relapse and baseline features; and the
303 relationship between the effect of ADM discontinuation and relapse. An increase in amygdala reactiv-
304 ity after ADM discontinuation was associated with risk of relapse. This adds to recent evidence that
305 more specific neurobiological or behavioural measures can predict relapse, and may hold promise for
306 informing clinical treatment decisions around ADM discontinuation. Overall, the results of this study
307 and previous results suggest that affective decision-making processes are engaged by the discontinua-
308 tion and moderating relapse risk; however, the details will require further and larger-scale replication.
309

2999

310 **Author contributions**

311 Author Contributions: TE and QJMH had full access to all the data in the study and take respon-
312 sibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. Concept and design:
313 Walter, Huys. Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: Berwian, Seifritz, Stephan, Walter,
314 Huys. Drafting of the manuscript: Erdmann, Huys. Critical revision of the manuscript for important
315 intellectual content: All authors. Statistical analysis: Erdmann, Huys. Obtained funding: Stephan,
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501 **Supplementary Material**

502 **S1 CONSORT diagrams**

503 The CONSORT diagram show reasons for exclusion and dropouts for patients, depicted in FigS1, and
 504 controls, depicted in Fig S2. Of the 123 patients, 84 finished the study according to protocol and 80
 505 could be analyzed, of which 26 had a relapse. Of the 66 healthy controls (HC) who were included in
 506 the study, 8 dropped out and 2 had to be excluded for corrupted or missing data files, leading to a
 507 sample of 53 HC included in the analysis.

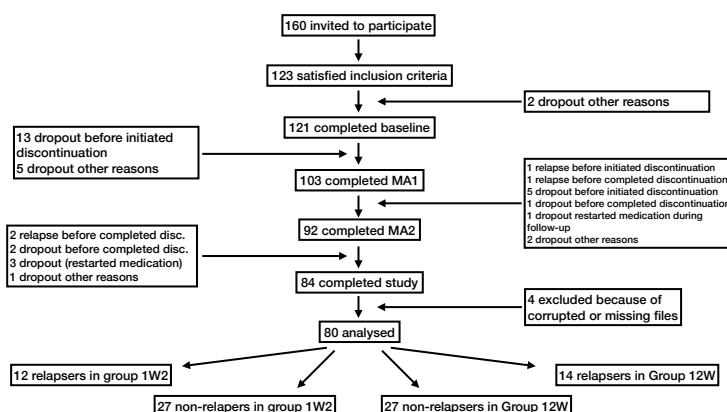


Figure S1: Reasons for dropout and exclusions for patients. Group 1W2 discontinued their ADM between main assessments 1 (MA1) and 2 (MA2). BA = baseline assessment. The respective numbers from the Zurich and Berlin sites are shown in parentheses.

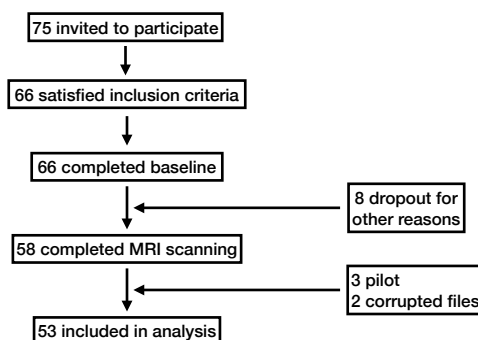


Figure S2: Reasons for dropout and exclusions for controls.

508 S2 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

509 Participants participates were deemed eligible for participation if fulfilling the following inclusion
510 criteria:

- 511 1. age 18-55 years
- 512 2. ability to consent and adhere to the study protocol
- 513 3. written informed consent
- 514 4. fluent in written and spoken German.

515 Patients had to additionally fulfil the following criteria:

- 516 1. currently under medical care with a psychiatrist or general practitioner for remitted Major
517 Depressive Disorder and willing to remain in care for the duration of the study (approx. 9
518 months)
- 519 2. informed choice to discontinue medication (including willingness to taper the medication over at
520 most 12 weeks) that was independent of study participation
- 521 3. clinical remission (Hamilton Depression Score of less than 7) had been achieved under ther-
522 apy with antidepressants without having undergone manualized psychotherapy; with no other
523 concurrent psychotropic medication and had been maintained for a minimum of 30 days
- 524 4. consent to information exchange between treating physician and study team members regarding
525 inclusion/exclusion criteria and past medical history.

526 Any of the following exclusion criteria led to exclusion of participants. This included the following
527 general criteria:

- 528 1. any disease of type and severity sufficient to influence the planned measurement or to inter-
529 fere with the parameters of interest (this includes neurological, endocrinological, oncological
530 comorbidities, a history of traumatic or other brain injury, neurosurgery or longer loss of con-
531 sciousness.)
- 532 2. premenstrual syndrome (ICD-10 N94.3).

533 and criteria related to magnetic resonance imaging (MRI):

- 534 1. MRI-incompatible metal parts in the body
- 535 2. inability to sit or lie still for a longer period
- 536 3. possibility of presence of any metal fragments in the body
- 537 4. pregnancy
- 538 5. pacemaker, neurostimulator or any other head or heart implants
- 539 6. claustrophobia

540 7. dependence on hearing aid.

541 For patients the following additional criteria would led to exclusion:

- 542 1. current psychotropic medication other than antidepressants
- 543 2. questionable history of major depressive episodes without complicating factors
- 544 3. current acute suicidality
- 545 4. lifetime or current axis II diagnosis of borderline or antisocial personality disorder
- 546 5. lifetime or current psychotic disorder of any kind, bipolar disorder
- 547 6. current posttraumatic stress disorder, obsessive compulsive disorder, or eating disorder
- 548 7. current drug use disorder (with the exception of nicotine) or within the past 5 years.

549 Healthy controls were excluded if there was a lifetime history of DSM-IV TR axis I or axis II disorder
550 with the exception of nicotine dependence.

551 **S3 Supplementary tables**

Name	Coef.	exp(Coef)	Std. Error	z	Pr(> z)
incr. in amygdala reactivity	-0.002	0.998	0.010	-0.205	0.837
Discontinuation group: 1W2	-0.941	0.390	0.511	-1.843	0.065
Age	0.0032	1.003	0.019	0.170	0.865
Gender	0.164	1.176	0.478	0.340	0.734
Site: Zurich	-0.660	0.517	0.455	-1.449	0.147
incr. in amygdala reactivity & Group: 1W2	0.050	1.051	0.017	2.945	0.003

Table S1: **Cox proportional hazards model** Coefficient table from the proportional hazards model for the relapse times, based on data from patients only. Continuous variables were centered, so that the effect of Discontinuation group (compares 1W2 vs. 12W), can be interpreted by assuming other covariates are set to zero (i.e. assuming average age and average increase amygdala reactivity).

model	side	bacc mean	bacc mode	bacc 95%-PPI	p(bacc < 0.5)
T1	r	0.549	0.548	[0.448, 0.65]	0.171
T1	l	0.535	0.533	[0.432, 0.643]	0.258
T1	bil	0.561	0.56	[0.457, 0.669]	0.128
T2	r	0.576	0.574	[0.431, 0.726]	0.158
T2	l	0.506	0.5	[0.368, 0.654]	0.474
T2	bil	0.455	0.447	[0.323, 0.601]	0.741
T2-T1	r	0.711	0.719	[0.567, 0.841]	0.002
T2-T1	l	0.491	0.489	[0.356, 0.631]	0.551
T2-T1	bil	0.65	0.653	[0.512, 0.783]	0.017

Table S2: **Relapse prediction results.** *model* denotes the time points that were included, and *side* denotes the ROI from which the features were taken. *bacc* denotes the balanced accuracy, *PPI* the 95% posterior predictive interval and $p(bacc < 0.5)$ column contains the respective posterior probability mass below the threshold of 50%.