

Using common genetic variation to examine phenotypic expression and risk prediction in 22q11.2 deletion syndrome

Robert Davies, Ania Fiksinski, Elemi Breetvelt, Nigel Williams, Stephen Hooper, Thomas Monfeuga, Anne Bassett, Michael Owen, Raquel Gur, Bernice Morrow, et al.

▶ To cite this version:

Robert Davies, Ania Fiksinski, Elemi Breetvelt, Nigel Williams, Stephen Hooper, et al.. Using common genetic variation to examine phenotypic expression and risk prediction in 22q11.2 deletion syndrome. Nature Medicine, 2020, 26 (12), pp.1912-1918. 10.1038/s41591-020-1103-1. hal-03222249

HAL Id: hal-03222249 https://amu.hal.science/hal-03222249

Submitted on 28 Sep 2023

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



HHS Public Access

Author manuscript

Nat Med. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2021 March 19.

Published in final edited form as:

Nat Med. 2020 December; 26(12): 1912–1918. doi:10.1038/s41591-020-1103-1.

Using common genetic variation to examine phenotypic expression and risk prediction in 22q11.2 deletion syndrome

Robert W. Davies^{1,2,49}, Ania M. Fiksinski^{3,4,49}, Elemi J. Breetvelt⁵, Nigel M. Williams⁶, Stephen R. Hooper⁷, Thomas Monfeuga⁶, Anne S. Bassett^{4,8,9}, Michael J. Owen⁶, Raquel E. Gur¹⁰, Bernice E. Morrow¹¹, Donna M. McDonald-McGinn^{12,13}, Ann Swillen^{14,15}, Eva W. C. Chow^{4,8}, Marianne van den Bree⁶, Beverly S. Emanuel¹², Joris R. Vermeesch¹⁴, Therese van Amelsvoort¹⁶, Celso Arango¹⁷, Marco Armando¹⁸, Linda E. Campbell¹⁹, Joseph F. Cubells^{20,21}, Stephan Eliez¹⁸, Sixto Garcia-Minaur²², Doron Gothelf^{23,24}, Wendy R. Kates²⁵, Kieran C. Murphy²⁶, Clodagh M. Murphy^{27,48}, Declan G. Murphy²⁷, Nicole Philip^{28,29}, Gabriela M. Repetto³⁰, Vandana Shashi³¹, Tony J. Simon³², Damiàn Heine Suñer³³, Stefano Vicari³⁴, Stephen W. Scherer³⁵

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

J.A.S.V., R.W.D., A.M.F. and C.E.B. had full access to all of the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. R.W.D. and A.M.F. contributed equally to the study. Study concept and design: AIM II writing group: R.W.D., A.M.F., E.J.B., T.M., N.M.W., S.R.H., C.E.B. and J.A.S.V. Acquisition of data: M.J.O., M.v.d.B., D.G.M., C.A., J.A.S.V., A.M.F., S.N.D., S.E., M.S., M.J., M.A., S.V., V.S., S.R.H., E.W.C.C., D.M.M.-M., A.V., D.G., R.W., T.v.A., W.K., K.M.A., T.S., O.Y.O., A.S., R.E.G., C.E.B. and A.S.B. Analysis and interpretation of data: AIM II writing group: R.W.D., A.M.F., E.J.B., T.M., N.M.W., S.R.H., C.E.B. and J.A.S.V. Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: all authors. Statistical analysis: R.W.D., E.J.B., T.M., N.M.W. and J.A.S.V.

Data availability

The data sets (raw data) generated and/or analyzed during the current study are available through the National Institute of Mental Health Data Archive repository at https://nda.nih.gov/study.html?id=938, accession number 10.15154/1519190. To construct the polygenic score for schizophrenia, we used results from the Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium²⁴, specifically the 'Full SNP Results' file ckqny.scz2snpres.gz with md5 af7b9b521a196ce711d99060426fe01e, which is available after filling out an application as described at https://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/download-results/scz/. To construct the polygenic score for fluid intelligence, we used results from the Neale lab, which are available at https://www.nealelab.is/blog/2017/7/19/rapid-gwas-of-thousands-of-phenotypes-for-337000-samples-in-the-uk-biobank, specifically the file fluid_intelligence.20016. assoc.tsv.gz with md5 685d4b5e2f35c82fe29d9d9ac6e35db4, which is available through their website, http://www.nealelab.is/uk-biobank, and is additionally mirrored at https://figshare.com/articles/dataset/fluid_intelligence_20016_assoc_tsv_gz_from_2017_Neale_lab_analysis/12746570.

Code availability

Bespoke analysis code for analyses downstream of genotype generation is available. https://github.com/rwdavies/IBBC_Aim2_22Q11DS.

Online content

Any methods, additional references, Nature Research reporting summaries, source data, extended data, supplementary information, acknowledgements, peer review information; details of author contributions and competing interests; and statements of data and code availability are available at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-1103-1.

Competing interests

M.J.O. and M.v.d.B. report grants from Takeda Pharmaceuticals outside of the submitted work. C.A. has been a consultant to or has received honoraria or grants from Acadia, Ambrosseti, Gedeon Richter, Janssen Cilag, Lundbeck, Otsuka, Roche, Sage, Servier, Shire, Schering Plough, Sumitomo Dainippon Pharma, Sunovion and Takeda. D.G.M. has provided consultation to Roche. S.R.H. has provided consultation to Novartis. O.Y.O. is a collaborator in a Biomarin Pharmaceutical study. None of the other authors has financial disclosures.

Extended data is available for this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-1103-1.

Supplementary information is available for this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-1103-1.

Peer review information Kate Gao and Joao Monteiro were the primary editors on this article and managed its editorial process and peer review in collaboration with the rest of the editorial team.

^{**}Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to J.A.S.V., jacob.vorstman@sickkids.ca. Author contributions

International 22q11.2 Brain and Behavior Consortium

Michael P. Epstein²⁰, Stephen T. Warren²⁰, Sinead Morrison⁶, Samuel Chawner⁶, Claudia Vingerhoets¹⁶, Jeroen Breckpot¹⁴, Elfi Vergaelen¹⁴, Annick Vogels¹⁴, Stephen Monks²⁶, Sarah E. Prasad²⁶, Corrado Sandini¹⁸, Maude Schneider¹⁸, Johanna Maeder¹⁸, David Fraguas¹⁷, Rens Evers¹⁶, Flora Tassone³⁸, Jaume Morey-Canyelles³⁹, Opal Y. Ousley⁴⁰, Kevin M. Antshel⁴¹, Wanda Fremont²⁵, Rosemarie Fritsch⁴², Claudia Ornstein⁴², Eileen M. Daly²⁷, Gregory A. Costain⁴³, Erik Boot⁸, Tracy Heung⁴, T. Blaine Crowley¹², Elaine H. Zackai^{12,13}, Monica E. Calkins¹⁰, Ruben C. Gur¹⁰, Kathryn L. McCabe³², Tiffany Busa²⁸, Kelly Schoch³¹, Maria Pontillo³⁴, Sasja N. Duijff⁴⁴, René S. Kahn^{3,45}, Michiel Houben⁴⁴, Leila Kushan³⁶, Maria Jalbrzikowski⁴⁶, Miri Carmel^{24,47}, Ehud Mekori-Domachevsky^{23,24}, Elena Michaelovsky^{24,47}, Ronnie Weinberger²³

Carrie E. Bearden³⁶, Jacob A. S. Vorstman^{3,35,37,∞}

¹Program in Genetics and Genome Biology and The Centre for Applied Genomics, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. ²Department of Statistics, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK. ³Department of Psychiatry, Brain Center, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, The Netherlands. ⁴Clinical Genetics Research Program, Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. ⁵Department of Psychiatry, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. 6MRC Centre for Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, Division of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, School of Medicine, Cardiff University, Cardiff, UK. ⁷Department of Allied Health Sciences, School of Medicine, University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC, USA. 8Department of Psychiatry, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. 9The Dalglish Family 22q Clinic, Toronto General Hospital, University Health Network, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. ¹⁰Department of Psychiatry and Lifespan Brain Institute, Penn Medicine-CHOP, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA. 11Department of Genetics, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Bronx, NY, USA. 12 Division of Human Genetics, 22q and You Center, Clinical Genetics Center, and Section of Genetic Counseling, Department of Pediatrics, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, PA, USA. ¹³Department of Pediatrics, Perelman School of Medicine of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA. ¹⁴Center for Human Genetics, University Hospital Gasthuisberg, Leuven, Belgium. ¹⁵Department of Human Genetics KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium. 16 Department of Psychiatry and Neuropsychology, Maastricht University, Maastricht, the Netherlands. ¹⁷Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Institute of Psychiatry and Mental Health, Hospital General Universitario Gregorio Marañón, IiSGM, CIBERSAM, School of Medicine, Universidad Complutense, Madrid, Spain. ¹⁸Developmental Imaging and Psychopathology, Department of Psychiatry, University of Geneva, Geneva, Switzerland. 19School of Psychology, University of Newcastle, Newcastle, Australia. ²⁰Department of Human Genetics, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA, USA. ²¹Emory Autism Center, Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA, USA. 22 Institute of Medical and Molecular Genetics (INGEMM), La Paz University Hospital, Madrid, Spain. 23The Child Psychiatry Division, Edmond and Lily Safra Children's Hospital, Sheba Medical Center, Tel Hashomer, Israel. 24Sackler Faculty of Medicine and Sagol School of Neuroscience, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv, Israel. ²⁵Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, SUNY Upstate Medical University, Syracuse, NY, USA. ²⁶Department of Psychiatry, Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, Beaumont Hospital, Dublin,

Ireland. ²⁷Department of Forensic and Neurodevelopmental Sciences, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology & Neuroscience (IoPPN), King's College London, London, UK. ²⁸Département de Génétique Médicale, APHM, CHU Timone Enfants, Marseille, France, ²⁹Aix Marseille Université, MMG, INSERM, Marseille, France. 30 Centro de Genética y Genómica, Facultad de Medicina, Clínica Alemana Universidad del Desarrollo, Santiago, Chile. 31 Division of Medical Genetics, Department of Pediatrics, Duke University School of Medicine, Durham, NC, USA. 32MIND Institute and Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, University of California Davis, Sacramento, CA, USA. 33Genomics of Health Group and Molecular Diagnostics and Clinical Genetics Unit (UDMGC), Health Research Institute of the Balearic Islands (IdISBa), Hospital Universitari Son Espases, Palma de Mallorca, Spain. 34 Department of Life Sciences and Public Health, Catholic University; Child and Adolescent Psychiatry Unit, Bambino Gesù Children's Hospital, IRCSS, Rome, Italy, 35Program in Genetics and Genome Biology, SickKids Research Institute, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. ³⁶Departments of Psychiatry and Biobehavioral Sciences and Psychology, Semel Institute for Neuroscience and Human Behavior, University of California Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA, USA. ³⁷Department of Psychiatry, The Hospital for Sick Children, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. 38 Department of Microbiology and Molecular Medicine, University of California Davis, Davis, CA, USA. 39 Hospital Universitari Son Espases, Mallorca, Spain. 40 Department of Psychiatry, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA, USA. 41Department of Psychology, Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY, USA. 42Department of Psychiatry, Hospital Clinico Universidad de Chile, Santiago, Chile, ⁴³Division of Clinical and Metabolic Genetics, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, ON, Canada. 44Department of Pediatrics University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, the Netherlands. ⁴⁵Department of Psychiatry, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA. 46Department of Psychiatry, University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine, Pittsburgh, PA, USA. 47Felsenstein Medical Research Center, Petach Tikva, Israel. ⁴⁸Deceased: Clodagh M. Murphy. ⁴⁹These authors contributed equally: Robert W. Davies, Ania M. Fiksinski.

Abstract

The 22q11.2 deletion syndrome (22q11DS) is associated with a 20–25% risk of schizophrenia. In a cohort of 962 individuals with 22q11DS, we examined the shared genetic basis between schizophrenia and schizophrenia-related early trajectory phenotypes: sub-threshold symptoms of psychosis, low baseline intellectual functioning and cognitive decline. We studied the association of these phenotypes with two polygenic scores, derived for schizophrenia and intelligence, and evaluated their use for individual risk prediction in 22q11DS. Polygenic scores were not only associated with schizophrenia and baseline intelligence quotient (IQ), respectively, but schizophrenia polygenic score was also significantly associated with cognitive (verbal IQ) decline and nominally associated with sub-threshold psychosis. Furthermore, in comparing the tail-end deciles of the schizophrenia and IQ polygenic score distributions, 33% versus 9% of individuals with 22q11DS had schizophrenia, and 63% versus 24% of individuals had intellectual disability. Collectively, these data show a shared genetic basis for schizophrenia and schizophrenia-related phenotypes and also highlight the future potential of polygenic scores for risk stratification among individuals with highly, but incompletely, penetrant genetic variants.

Although schizophrenia is typically diagnosed in late adolescence or early adulthood, it is now well established that the first psychotic episode is, in fact, a manifestation of an advanced stage of this disease¹. Early behavioral, cognitive and neuroanatomic changes are measurable before the first psychotic episode^{2–6}. Both lower cognitive ability early in life (the estimated premorbid deficit is 8 IQ points)⁷ and cognitive decline in early adolescence (estimated IQ change equal to –1.09 s.d.)⁸ are associated with schizophrenia, with effect sizes in the range of 0.4–0.5 (ref.^{7–13}). In addition, sub-threshold psychotic symptoms in youth also index increased risk for schizophrenia^{14–16}. These observations raise an important question: Do early cognitive phenotypes and sub-threshold symptoms of psychosis share a substantial genetic basis with either schizophrenia or intellectual ability?

Early schizophrenia-related phenotypes and trajectories are difficult to study, requiring longitudinal follow-up of large cohorts to capture a sufficient number of schizophrenia cases. At-risk populations facilitate such studies, as fewer individuals need to be followed to obtain the same number of cases. The 22q11DS, which is increasingly identified around birth, provides one such at-risk population¹⁷, given the associated 20–25% risk to develop schizophrenia^{18,19}.

Findings from 22q11DS studies reproduce observations related to schizophrenia in the general population, thereby supporting 22q11DS as a genetic model of schizophrenia, including its early trajectory²⁰. In 22q11DS, as in the general population, sub-threshold psychotic symptoms²¹, low baseline intellectual ability and increasing cognitive deficits over time, particularly in verbal IQ (VIQ)²², are all associated with increased risk of subsequent psychotic illness.

A large fraction of the heritability of schizophrenia comes from a polygenic burden of multiple common variants, each of small effect^{23,24}. Increasingly, polygenic scores derived from genome-wide association studies (GWASs) have been used to study the genetic relationship between phenotypes²⁵. For schizophrenia, a polygenic score using a recent GWAS explains up to 7% of the variance on the liability scale. Similarly, polygenic scores for general cognitive function, or proxies thereof, explain 2.5–4.3% of its variance^{26,27}. Polygenic scores can also be used for phenotype prediction and, hence, risk stratification²⁸. In the general population, they are not yet particularly effective as individual risk predictors²⁹, given the relatively low population prevalence of phenotypes, such as schizophrenia and intellectual disability (ID), and the still modest effect sizes conferred by polygenic scores³⁰. However, in high-risk populations, such as individuals with 22q11DS, the same effect size acts upon a higher baseline prevalence (for example, 25% for schizophrenia), which might allow for more substantial differences in absolute risk³¹.

The International Brain Behavior Consortium (IBBC) in 22q11.2 Deletion Syndrome has assembled the largest genotype–phenotype data set of individuals with $22q11DS^{20}$. Previously, the IBBC reported on genetic associations of both common and rare variants in 520 individuals with 22q11DS, exclusively focusing on schizophrenia³². The current study presents several novel analyses, conducted in a substantially larger cohort of individuals with 22q11DS (n = 962) and including longitudinal IQ data. Our main objectives were two-fold. First, we studied the genetic relationships between schizophrenia and schizophrenia-related

phenotypes of low baseline intellectual ability, cognitive decline and sub-threshold positive psychotic symptoms. Second, we examined the use of polygenic scores for schizophrenia and IQ for individual risk prediction of schizophrenia and ID (IQ <70) in individuals with 22q11DS.

Results

Description of data set.

After applying phenotypic classification and performing genotype quality control, data from 962 IBBC cohort members were available for analysis (Table 1 and Methods). Within this cohort, we distinguished individuals with schizophrenia spectrum disorder (SSD; n = 207)²⁰, individuals with sub-threshold psychotic symptoms (n = 158) and individuals with neither phenotype, grouped into 'putative controls' (age <25 years ('putative' given the typical age at onset of schizophrenia)³³, n = 382) and 'definite controls' (age 25 years, n = 215). Subsequently, we refer to all controls, regardless of age, as 'merged controls' (n = 597). Baseline Full Scale Intelligence Quotient (FSIQ) was transformed to z score as previously described²², with an average near 0 (0.03; Table 1). VIQ decline, operationalized as exceeding -1 s.d. (binary), occurred in 5.9% of the cohort.

Polygenic scores and relationships among schizophrenia, IQ and associated phenotypes.

First, we examined known associations. We constructed polygenic scores for schizophrenia²⁴ (PS_SZ) and polygenic scores for intellectual ability³⁴ (PS_IQ) using standard methods and performed statistical analyses using either linear or logistic regression as appropriate, adjusting for age, sex and the first five principal components from the imputed genotypes³² (Methods). We observed a significant association between SSD cases versus controls and PS_SZ (n = 802, $P = 4.37 \times 10^{-8}$, marginal Nagelkerke pseudo $r^2 = 0.053$; P values reported in the text are nominal) and a similar result when including definite controls only (n = 420, $P = 1.89 \times 10^{-6}$, $r^2 = 0.071$) (Table 2 and Extended Data Fig. 1), corroborating previous reports from the comprehensive IBBC genetic analyses related to schizophrenia in $22q11DS^{32}$. We also observed a significant association between baseline FSIQ and PS_IQ ($P = 1.08 \times 10^{-7}$), and, consistent with the known genetic correlation between schizophrenia and IQ ($r^2_g = -0.234$)²⁶, we observed a nominal association between baseline FSIQ and PS_SZ (P = 0.018) as well as a significant association between SSD and PS_IQ ($P = 7.15 \times 10^{-4}$).

Next, we assessed relationships between schizophrenia-related phenotypes and the polygenic scores. We observed a decreasing trend of PS_SZ for phenotypes of SSD (mean, 0.23), subthreshold psychosis (mean, 0.16), putative controls (mean, -0.05) and definite controls (mean, -0.27) (Fig. 1). PS_SZ was nominally significantly higher in individuals with subthreshold psychosis compared to the merged control groups (n = 755, P = 0.0247, $r^2 = 0.01$; Table 2 and Fig. 1). Finally, we observed a significant association between VIQ decline and PS_SZ ($P = 5.09 \times 10^{-3}$; Fig. 2). Neither the association between sub-threshold psychosis and PS_IQ (P = 0.056) nor between VIQ decline and PS_IQ (P = 0.658) reached statistical significance.

Investigations into the relationship between sub-threshold psychosis and PS SZ.

Post hoc, we performed three analyses to additionally explore the observed association between sub-threshold psychosis and PS_SZ. First, given that some fraction of individuals with sub-threshold psychosis will eventually develop SSD, we modeled what proportion would need to develop SSD to be consistent with our findings (Methods). The findings showed that observed levels of PS_SZ are consistent with a scenario in which 86% (95% confidence interval (CI), 56–100%) of individuals with sub-threshold psychosis would, in fact, represent future patients with SSD who were not yet identified as such at the time of the assessment. This is a proportion inconsistent with known rates of SSD in 22q11DS (Extended Data Fig. 2), rendering it unlikely that our result is driven by 'future' SSD cases. Second, we examined whether our observation could be due to confounding through psychiatric comorbidity genetically correlated with SSD (Methods). In this sample, the rate of comorbid mood disorders in the sub-threshold psychosis group was 29.2% versus 22.7% in the merged controls (Table 1). Results from this mediation analysis indicated a lack of attenuation through the mood disorder phenotype (the effect size of PS_SZ in the model without mood disorder was 0.239, P = 0.025; the effect size of PS_SZ in the model with mood disorder was 0.250, P = 0.021) (Supplementary Table 1), indicating that the observed increased PS_SZ in sub-threshold psychosis is not readily explained by the higher rate of mood disorders in this group. Third, as a source of additional evidence, we explored the use of residual quantitative variation in the measure of sub-threshold psychosis through a transformed quantitative measure of this phenotype (Structured Interview for Prodromal Syndromes (SIPS³⁵)) (Methods). When adjusting for the previous binary indicator of subthreshold psychosis versus control, the association between the transformed quantitative SIPS phenotype and PS SZ was not significant (n = 347, P = 0.77, $t^2 = 0.0001$; Supplementary Fig. 1).

Polygenic score and individual risk prediction.

Addressing the second objective of our study, we investigated the extent to which polygenic scores could be used for individualized risk prediction among individuals with 22q11DS. We divided the cohort into quantiles based on polygenic scores, and calculated positive predictive values (PPVs) in each. For SSD, 32% of individuals with scores above the median PS_SZ had SSD (that is, a PPV of 32%) versus 20% of those with scores below the median (odds ratio (OR) = 1.91; 95% CI, [1.38, 2.64]; $P = 8.4 \times 10^{-5}$) (Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table 2). Values at the tails showed more extreme differences, with those exceeding the 90th percentile at substantially higher risk (33%) than those in the lowest decile (9.1%). Simulating an effect for the general population, using the observed effect sizes and assuming a general population prevalence of SSD of 1%, generated substantially smaller absolute differences (Fig. 3).

Similarly, using intellectual ability as a binary outcome (ID as IQ <70), we observed a higher rate of ID among individuals with a PS_IQ below the median versus above (PPV = 49% versus 34%; OR = 1.85; 95% CI,[1.37, 2.51]; $P = 7.1 \times 10^{-5}$). This effect is accentuated at the tails, with PPVs of 63% for individuals in the lowest decile for PS_IQ (that is, associated with lower IQ in the general population) versus 24% for individuals in the highest decile of PS_IQ (Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table 3).

Discussion

In this study, we used polygenic scores from large GWASs for schizophrenia and IQ both to better understand the association between schizophrenia and schizophrenia-associated phenotypes and to assess their potential for individual risk prediction. In the first part of the study, we confirmed several results known to occur in the general population and showed that known relationships between schizophrenia and IQ extend to individuals with 22q11DS. We observed that a polygenic score for IQ explained ~3.8% of the variance in IQ in 22q11DS, suggesting that the previously observed association between parental educational attainment and cognitive outcome in offspring with 22q11DS³⁶ might be at least partly explained by common variants.

In addition, we identified two novel associations between schizophrenia-related phenotypes and schizophrenia. First, we observed a novel association between sub-threshold psychosis and PS_SZ. Given the nominal statistical significance of this observation, we performed several post hoc investigations to rule out potential confounding sources, showing that neither undiagnosed 'future' cases nor comorbid mood disorders in our samples can explain the observed signal. We also examined residual quantitative variation in sub-threshold psychosis and found that the association between this transformed quantitative variable and PS_SZ was not significant when adjusting for the previous binary indicator of these phenotypes. However, it is worth noting that a priori power for this analysis was limited and dependent on strong assumptions. Interestingly, studies on genetic correlations between sub-threshold psychotic symptoms and PS_SZ in the general population reported to date are conflicting ^{37–39}, impeding definite evidence in this regard. Regarding sub-threshold psychotic symptoms and schizophrenia in 22q11DS, we conclude that our findings tentatively suggest a genetic correlation, but further studies are required to provide more certainty.

In addition, we observed a novel and significant association between VIO decline and PS_SZ, but not PS_IQ, suggesting that common risk variants for schizophrenia contribute to cognitive decline, whereas common variants associated with cognitive ability might not. A possible implication of these results is that cognitive decline before the first psychotic episode might not merely be a risk factor for schizophrenia, as reported previously for 22q11DS²² and idiopathic schizophrenia^{40,41} but also shares its genetic underpinnings. A previous study in a subset of this cohort showed that cognitive decline preceded the onset of the first psychotic episode by several years²², making reverse causation—that is, cognitive decline as a consequence of psychosis—a less likely explanation. The observed cognitive decline in 22q11DS could be caused by the inability of patients to keep up with peers or, alternatively, represent an absolute loss of cognitive abilities or a combination of both. The current analyses do not distinguish between these, but previous studies in 22q11DS found evidence in support of both mechanisms^{42,43}. We cannot fully exclude the possibility that the observed cognitive decline could be affected by the negative effect of psychosis on cognitive testing. However, this is an unlikely explanation given that all study sites refrained from assessing individuals who were acutely psychotic, as is common clinical policy. Furthermore, in our data, the mean age at IQ assessment was below the age at psychosis onset for both baseline (14.8 and 20.6 years, respectively) and longitudinal IQ data (18.2 and

20.3 years, respectively). In addition, in individuals without psychosis, 55% showed an IQ decline versus 45% stable or increase (P= 0.02), indicating that, on average, a modest cognitive decline can be observed in 22q11DS regardless of the occurrence of a psychotic disorder, as previously reported²². Taken together, our findings are consistent with the notion that disruption of normal cognitive development is a core component of schizophrenia¹¹, and investigation of high-penetrance variants for both phenotypes offers important insights into its mechanism.

In the second part of the study, we examined to what extent polygenic scores could be used for individual risk prediction of SSD and ID among individuals with 22q11DS. Whereas, in research, the existence of association between test and outcome is most relevant, in the clinic, the PPV is key, as it enables stratification of individuals into groups with different outcome probabilities that can inform clinical decision-making^{30,44}. Previous studies showed that high-risk copy number variant carriers with schizophrenia have increased polygenic scores^{45,46}, including, specifically, 22q11DS^{32,45}, but these studies did not look at stratification within those groups. Importantly, PPV depends not only on the strength of association but also on the baseline prevalence. In the current study, we examined risk stratification among individuals with 22q11DS, taking advantage of the higher baseline prevalence of schizophrenia and ID compared to the general population (in our sample, 23% and 41%, respectively). Among individuals in the highest PS_SZ risk decile, 33% had schizophrenia versus 9% in the lowest decile. Applying the same effect sizes to the general population would yield estimates of 1.5% and 0.3%, respectively. Similarly, 63% of individuals in the lowest PS_IQ decile had ID versus 24% in the highest decile.

The observed differences between PPVs in our study are similar to those previously reported for BRCA1 and BRCA2 among females for breast cancer risk³¹ and males for prostate cancer risk⁴⁷. The concept of using polygenic background to inform individual risk prediction and clinical decision-making is an area of active investigation⁴⁸ and is being incorporated into clinical trials for common medical conditions (for example, ref.⁴⁹). Although our findings highlight the potential clinical utility of polygenic scores in the context of a high-penetrance variant such as 22q11DS, the PPVs reported here are not yet sufficient to affect clinical decision-making. In addition, although risk prediction enables stratification within high-risk populations, it is important to note that the reduction in risk of individuals in the lowest risk strata within the 22q11DS population does not bring them to population risk levels. At present, compared to the general population, increased risk for certain outcomes remains a clinical reality for all patients with 22q11DS, regardless of polygenic score results. However, as ever-increasing GWAS size improves the strength of polygenic score associations, we suggest that polygenic score might have clinical utility in risk models in the near future²⁹, particularly in sub-populations selected for a priori increased baseline risk, such as patients with a high-impact mutation such as 22q11DS or patients with behaviorally defined sub-threshold symptoms⁵⁰. Pending more substantial polygenic score effect sizes, as well as robust replication of the findings reported here, there are several areas of potential future clinical utility. For example, in the 22q11DS population, elevated PS SZ could be a reason to further intensify monitoring during adolescence, and PS_IQ might play a role in seeking to prevent misalignment between academic potential and

demands⁵¹. Taken together, our findings highlight the potential clinical utility of polygenic scores in the context of a high-penetrance variant.

Furthermore, estimating risk raises important ethical questions that require careful consideration. For instance, in the absence of preventative interventions that can alter outcomes such as schizophrenia or ID, it will be essential to examine the balance between benefit and potential harm of exposing caregivers and patients to such information. Studies are required to examine to what extent early risk knowledge can be used to improve outcomes¹. Findings like those reported here should prompt a broad societal discussion about the ethical framework in which they can be used.

Although this 22q11DS cohort is the largest ever reported, there are limitations to the work shown here. Recruitment into the IBBC cohort is not random, so there will be ascertainment biases that will affect prevalence estimates, but these are not expected to substantially affect the interpretation of the genotype–phenotype results reported here. For all analyses, given the current lack of transferability of polygenic score results across genetic backgrounds⁵², and that GWASs for schizophrenia and IQ are sufficiently large only within European populations to be adequately powered, our results were limited to individuals with 22q11DS who were of European descent. Future large GWASs from diverse backgrounds, as well as methodological improvements, will allow for analyses in more diverse cohorts. In addition, other uncaptured environmental variables are likely to modulate risk among 22q11DS carriers and should, therefore, be included in future studies. Finally, from a multiple testing standpoint, we intentionally restricted the main investigation of schizophrenia and associated phenotypes and polygenic scores to eight tests. Nonetheless, two of the associations, including one of the novel associations, were only nominally significant, necessitating further investigations for more definitive evidence.

In conclusion, common variants associated with schizophrenia risk and IQ variability in the general population modify expression of these phenotypes in 22q11DS. VIQ decline and sub-threshold psychosis at least partly share genetic underpinnings with schizophrenia, highlighting shared causal pathways between these phenotypes. Furthermore, in 22q11DS carriers, polygenic scores enable stratification into high- and low-risk groups substantially in excess of what would be found in a general population setting. We suggest that, in populations with high-risk rare pathogenic genetic variants such as 22q11DS, this approach is nearing a level of differentiation required for clinical utility.

Methods

Data set.

All individuals in this study were carriers of the 22q11.2 deletion, confirmed by multiplex ligation-dependent probe amplification⁵⁴, as described previously³². All participants were recruited at one of 22 IBBC sites (total n = 1,789). Local research ethics boards provided appropriate study approval at all sites, and all individuals, as well as parents/guardians where appropriate, provided written informed consent regarding participation in this research.

Psychiatric assessment.

Psychiatric assessment was performed using standardized semi-structured interviews²⁰, leading to a categorization of each participant in one of the following subgroups: SSD, subthreshold psychosis, putative control and definite control. SSD included schizophrenia, schizo-affective disorder and related psychotic disorders, such as delusional disorder or psychotic disorder not otherwise specified, all in accordance with Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-IV criteria, based on data obtained by semi-structured inperson interviews at each site (see ref. ²⁰ for case consensus procedures). Any individual who had never met criteria for any psychotic disorder diagnosis but had endorsed clinically significant positive symptoms at any time point was included in the sub-threshold psychosis group. Supporting scores from various standardized assessment methods used across sites included symptom scores in the moderate to severe range—that is, scores of 3–5 on SIPS³⁵, of above 2 on the Comprehensive Assessment of At-Risk Mental States (CAARMS⁵⁵) or of 2 or higher (probable or definite) on any of the positive symptoms on the Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia for School-Age Children (K-SADS⁵⁶), Individuals with 22q11DS without a lifetime diagnosis of any psychotic disorder and who had never endorsed sub-threshold positive psychotic symptoms were considered controls. Given that the risk of developing schizophrenia is most elevated until age 25^{17,33}, individuals younger than 25 years at the most recent assessment were considered 'putative controls', whereas individuals aged 25 years or older at the most recent assessment were classified as 'definite controls' (Supplementary Fig. 2 and demographics in Supplementary Table 4).

IQ values and definition of cognitive decline.

We previously found baseline FSIQ to be a significant risk factor for subsequent SSD in 22q11DS, whereas the strongest effect size for cognitive decline was observed for VIQ 22 . To remain consistent with our previous observations, we considered first available FSIQ as a measure of baseline intellectual ability and change in VIQ between the first and last available measurement as an index of cognitive decline. Given the moderate cognitive decline that occurs, on average, in this population 42 , we calculated standardized values (z scores) derived from the normative chart on which the average IQ trajectory for the 22q11DS population is mapped. Thus, a decline represents a negative deviation from the expected decline in this population.

In seeking to operationalize a cognitive decline as a binary variable, we sought a cutoff between lenient (that is, requiring less severe decline but could introduce too much noise) and conservative (more severe decline but could reduce a priori power). This task is further complicated by potential error variance inherent in the data collection across multiple sites, different versions of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale and different age groups.

We initially performed our analysis using a threshold of more than -0.5 s.d. as the cutoff for VIQ decline. Using this cutoff, the observed association with PS_SZ was not statistically significant (n = 396, P = 0.22, $r^2 = 0.006$). Based on the literature on the reliable change index⁵³, we subsequently revised our definition of significant change to a more stringent threshold. To minimize the chance that any observed decline was due to chance, we conservatively used the lower boundary of the reliable change index as the cutoff—that is,

defining VIQ decline as a binary variable operationalized as any negative change in *z* scores exceeding 1 s.d. difference.

Genotyping methods and principal components analysis.

For a total of 1,789 individuals with a 22q11.2 deletion, phenotypic data were collected in a central consortium database, and available DNA samples were genotyped at Albert Einstein College of Medicine using Affymetrix Human 6.0 microarrays. We generated imputed genotypes from genotyping microarray data using standard methodological approaches as described elsewhere³². After imputation, genotype data for 992 individuals and 6,354,586 autosomal single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were available for inclusion. We retained 4 million SNPs that had a minor allele frequency greater than 10% and were not in the major histocompatibility complex (chromosome 6, 26–34 Mbp) or in the 22q11.2 region (chromosome 22, 18,820,303–21,489,474 bp).

For principal components analysis (PCA), we then intersected this with the available GWAS SNPs described below to yield 3.2 million SNPs. We ran PCA on the 992 individuals at the 3.2 million SNPs using PLINK version 1.9, release 180612 (ref. 57), which revealed between-cohort differences matching geographic ascertainment locations but no obvious outliers for quality control or non-European ancestry (Supplementary Fig. 3). Of the 992 individuals who met the criteria for subsequent analysis, 27 did not fall into one of the four pre-specified phenotype groups: 21 individuals were diagnosed with a mood disorder with psychotic features but did not meet criteria for any non-affective psychotic disorder, and six individuals had insufficient phenotypic data. We further removed three samples that overlapped with the CLOZUK cohort 24 , which was a component of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium schizophrenia GWAS, yielding a total sample for analysis of n = 962 (Supplementary Fig. 4).

Polygenic score construction.

We sought out large GWASs that would enable us to generate maximally predictive polygenic scores for schizophrenia and IQ. For SSD, we used published summary statistics from a schizophrenia GWAS from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (max n samples = 77,096)²⁴. For intellectual ability and IQ, we used results from Davies et al. ²⁶ from a GWAS for a general intelligence factor or 'g-factor' 58,59. However, because released GWAS statistics from this work did not contain beta coefficients, which are necessary for polygenic score construction, we used summary statistics on the largest available component—that is, based on fluid intelligence (max n samples = 108,818) from www.nealelab.is analysis extract of the UK Biobank³⁴. In this case, fluid intelligence from the general population should capture any common genetic variants in the same fashion as FSIQ and VIQ and, thus, should serve as a suitable proxy.

We built polygenic scores using PRSice2 version 2.1.2 beta⁶⁰ under default conditions—that is, using SNPs with an INFO score >0.90, r^2 of 0.10 and distance of 250 kbp, where r^2 was calculated on the target data (that is, this cohort). We used pre-specified P value cutoffs for SNPs for inclusion in the polygenic score based on the P value reported in the original GWAS that maximized previously reported prediction ability. For schizophrenia, we used a

P value threshold of 0.05 (from Extended Data Fig. 5 in ref.²⁴), and, for the UK Biobank Fluid Intelligence/IQ, we used 0.10 (from Supplementary Table 2 in ref.²⁶), using 0.10 because it was the value that explained the most variance in two of three analyses). For the schizophrenia polygenic score, there were 80,496 SNPs after clumping, whereas, for the IQ polygenic score, there were 80,557 SNPs after clumping.

A priori power analyses and estimation of cohort-specific parameter values.

We conducted power analyses using simulations under a liability threshold model for our primary investigations using available sample sizes, known heritabilities, genetic correlations and assumptions regarding the nature of the relationship between schizophrenia and sub-threshold psychosis. All simulation results assume $h2_g SZ = 0.46$ (ref.⁶¹), $h2_g SZ$ (PRS) = 0.08 (ref.²⁴), $h2_g IQ = 0.25$ (ref.²⁶), $h2_g (PRS) IQ = 0.04$ (ref.²⁶) and r_g between SZ and IQ of -0.234 (ref.²⁶). In addition, in the absence of pre-existing literature estimates, we assumed $h2_g SZ$ sub-threshold psychosis = 0.46 (based on $h2_g SZ$) and $h2_g SZ$ VIQ decline = 0.25 (based on $h2_g IQ$) (Supplementary Tables 5 and 6 and Supplementary Figs. 5 and 6).

To estimate cohort-specific parameters necessary for power analyses, we fit the observed data to a parametric likelihood-based model based on the liability threshold model, with parameters as follows: schizophrenia prevalence; sub-threshold psychosis prevalence; two shape parameters assuming the age distribution in the population following a beta binomial distribution; mean and s.d. for age at development of schizophrenia, assuming a normal distribution; and mean and s.d. for age at development of sub-threshold psychosis, assuming a normal distribution.

To explain the model, we considered a generative form—that is, with a population of individuals for study given the parameters above. Subsequently, we first simulated whether an individual would ever develop schizophrenia or sub-threshold psychosis, based on the prevalences of the two conditions (that is, if the prevalence was 20%, then one would simulate phenotypes under a Bernoulli distribution with probability p = 0.20). Next, independently, age was simulated, based on the shape parameters controlling the age distribution. Afterwards, age of diagnosis, conditional on ever developing the phenotype, was simulated, based on the parameters controlling the mean and s.d. age of development. From these underlying values for each simulated individual of the current age, whether they will ever develop schizophrenia or sub-threshold psychosis and the age at which they develop the phenotype, the present-day phenotype of these simulated individuals could be determined.

Using constrained optimization, we obtained the parameters that maximized the likelihood of our real data under the above-described model. To obtain a CI for each parameter, we determined the maximum values of that parameter where twice the difference in log likelihood between the maximum likelihood estimation and that point was less than the chi-squared statistic with the appropriate number of degrees of freedom. Before applying the model to real data, we first simulated under the model to verify that we could recover parameter estimates on similar-sized data sets, which confirmed the accuracy of the model (results not shown). We next generated parameter estimates on the real data (Supplementary

Table 5). We used these parameter estimates and other literature-derived estimates in the power analyses that were performed.

Regression analysis.

We assessed relationships between PS_SZ and PS_IQ and binary phenotypes using logistic regression (SSD, sub-threshold psychosis and VIQ decline) and linear regression for quantitative phenotypes (baseline FSIQ), adjusting for age, sex and the first five principal components from the imputed genotypes, with the principal components calculated using PLINK. All statistical tests reported in this manuscript are two sided unless otherwise noted. r^2 reported from linear regression is standard unadjusted r^2 , whereas, from logistic regression, it is Nagelkerke r^2 .

Effect of future SSD cases as a source of confounding between sub-threshold psychosis and PS SZ.

We modeled a scenario whereby the PS_SZ signal would be driven by the presence of individuals with future, as of yet undiagnosed, SSD in the sub-threshold psychosis group. In essence, we estimated, in this scenario, what proportion of such future SSD cases would be required to explain the observed PS_SZ in the sub-threshold psychosis group.

Genetically correlated traits as a source of confounding between sub-threshold psychosis and PS SZ.

We examined whether the observed PS_SZ results in the sub-threshold psychosis group could originate from increased rates of other psychiatric phenotypes that are genetically correlated with schizophrenia. Available IBBC data allowed us to analyze this possibility for comorbid mood disorders. Underlying assumptions for our mediation analysis were based on extrapolations of the IBBC data and include increased rates of (future) SSD (~40%) and mood disorder (49%) in the sub-threshold psychosis group, compared to ~17% rates for both phenotypes in controls.

Quantitative measure of sub-threshold psychosis as additional evidence for relationship between sub-threshold psychosis and PS SZ.

In a subset of 347 of 962 individuals with a well-defined phenotype and imputed genotype data, we were able to obtain an integer-coded measure of sub-threshold psychosis from SIPS³⁵. We first generated a transformation from the integer-coded, non-normally distributed quantitative SIPS score by fitting an exponential distribution using the least square estimate, yielding a transformation, in R, of 'qnorm(pexp(q = x + 0.5, rate = 0.2238))', where x is the original integer-coded SIPS score (Supplementary Fig. 7). This yields a more approximately normally distributed value.

We assessed power to detect an association between the quantitative SIPS-based phenotype and PS_SZ using simulations. Using the same assumptions listed before regarding heritabilities and predictive accuracies of polygenic scores, we first simulated an underlying total liability (genetic and environmental) for the quantitative sub-threshold psychosis. As before, this total liability becomes binary under a liability threshold model, giving us the binary definition of sub-threshold psychosis. In addition, using the continuous total liability,

we generated an integer-coded value (representing a simulated SIPS score) as 'round(qexp(pnorm(Y_sub), rate = 0.2238))'. We then re-transformed this to a continuous value using its inverse 'qnorm(pexp(q = x + 0.5, rate = 0.2238))', and from this we could calculate power for detecting an association between the quantitative sub-threshold psychosis and PS_SZ, with or without conditioning on the binary phenotype (Supplementary Fig. 8).

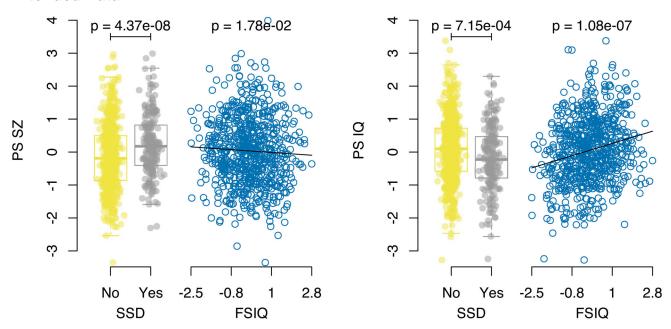
Calculation of PPVs.

We calculated PPV in the traditional way, given binary phenotypes schizophrenia and ID, and observed PS_SZ and PS_IQ among 22q11DS samples. We also estimated PPVs for the general population using known estimates of general population prevalence of schizophrenia and ID as well as sensitivity and specificity values derived from our analysis in this 22q11DS sample.

Reporting Summary.

Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Reporting Summary linked to this article.

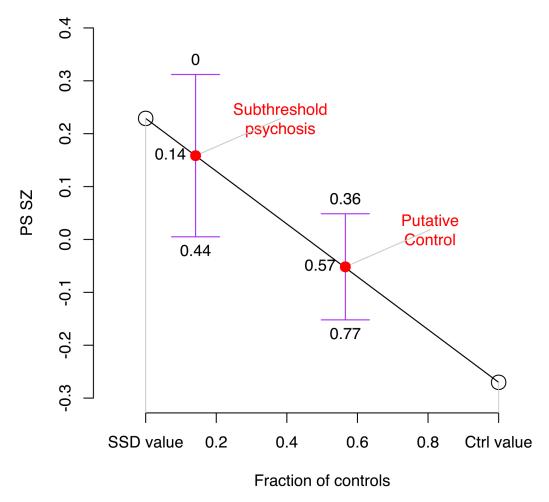
Extended Data



Extended Data Fig. 1 |. Relationship between polygenic scores and previously studied phenotypes.

Results for the binary SSD phenotype show per-individual values as well as summaries per group, where minimum and maximum values are directly observable from the plot, the boxplot centre is the median, the boxplot edges represent the 25^{th} and 75^{th} percentiles, and the whiskers represent the lesser of the distance to the minimum or maximum value, or 1.5 times the inter-quartile range. Results are shown for logistic regression of SSD on controls (N = 802) and linear regression for FSIQ (N = 720), for both PS_SZ (left panel) and PS_IQ

(right panel). P-values are reported from regression analyses and are two sided and are not corrected for multiple testing.



Extended Data Fig. 2 |. Inferred contribution of controls and future SSD cases given PS SZ. Shown on the y-axis are group means of PS_SZ, on the x-axis the fraction of controls. For SDD and controls the fractions of controls were taken as 0 and 1, respectively (open circles). For subthreshold psychosis and putative controls they were inferred through the observed PS-SZ values for each group, using linear interpolation based on fitting a straight line between SSD and control values (red circles). Confidence intervals are shown for the group mean values for subthreshold psychosis and putative controls, as the mean plus or minus 1.96 times the standard error, and above and below these confidence intervals are the inferred fraction of controls this would represent. The observed PS_SZ in the subthreshold group is consistent with a scenario in which 86% (95% CI 56 – 100%) of individuals who had subthreshold psychotic symptoms at the time of the assessment for this study would subsequently transition to SSD, a proportion inconsistent with known rates of SSD in 22q11DS.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Authors

Robert W. Davies^{1,2,49}, Ania M. Fiksinski^{3,4,49}, Elemi J. Breetvelt⁵, Nigel M. Williams⁶. Stephen R. Hooper⁷. Thomas Monfeuga⁶. Anne S. Bassett^{4,8,9}. Michael J. Owen⁶, Raquel E. Gur¹⁰, Bernice E. Morrow¹¹, Donna M. McDonald-McGinn^{12,13}, Ann Swillen^{14,15}, Eva W. C. Chow^{4,8}, Marianne van den Bree⁶, Beverly S. Emanuel¹², Joris R. Vermeesch¹⁴, Therese van Amelsvoort¹⁶, Celso Arango¹⁷, Marco Armando¹⁸, Linda E. Campbell¹⁹, Joseph F. Cubells^{20,21}, Stephan Eliez¹⁸, Sixto Garcia-Minaur²², Doron Gothelf^{23,24}, Wendy R. Kates²⁵, Kieran C. Murphy²⁶, Clodagh M. Murphy^{27,48}, Declan G. Murphy²⁷, Nicole Philip^{28,29}, Gabriela M. Repetto³⁰, Vandana Shashi³¹, Tony J. Simon³², Damiàn Heine Suñer³³, Stefano Vicari³⁴, Stephen W. Scherer³⁵ International 22g11.2 Brain and Behavior Consortium Michael P. Epstein²⁰, Stephen T. Warren²⁰, Sinead Morrison⁶, Samuel Chawner⁶, Claudia Vingerhoets¹⁶, Jeroen Breckpot¹⁴, Elfi Vergaelen¹⁴, Annick Vogels¹⁴, Stephen Monks²⁶, Sarah E. Prasad²⁶, Corrado Sandini¹⁸, Maude Schneider¹⁸, Johanna Maeder¹⁸, David Fraguas¹⁷, Rens Evers¹⁶, Flora Tassone³⁸, Jaume Morey-Canyelles³⁹, Opal Y. Ousley⁴⁰, Kevin M. Antshel⁴¹, Wanda Fremont²⁵, Rosemarie Fritsch⁴², Claudia Ornstein⁴², Eileen M. Daly²⁷, Gregory A. Costain⁴³, Erik Boot⁸, Tracy Heung⁴, T. Blaine Crowley¹², Elaine H. Zackai^{12,13}, Monica E. Calkins¹⁰, Ruben C. Gur¹⁰, Kathryn L. McCabe³², Tiffany Busa²⁸, Kelly Schoch³¹, Maria Pontillo³⁴, Sasja N. Duijff⁴⁴, René S. Kahn^{3,45}, Michiel Houben⁴⁴, Leila Kushan³⁶, Maria Jalbrzikowski⁴⁶, Miri Carmel^{24,47}, Ehud Mekori-Domachevsky^{23,24}, Elena Michaelovsky^{24,47}, Ronnie Weinberger²³

Michael P. Epstein²⁰, Stephen T. Warren²⁰, Sinead Morrison⁶, Samuel Chawner⁶, Claudia Vingerhoets¹⁶, Jeroen Breckpot¹⁴, Elfi Vergaelen¹⁴, Annick Vogels¹⁴, Stephen Monks²⁶, Sarah E. Prasad²⁶, Corrado Sandini¹⁸, Maude Schneider¹⁸, Johanna Maeder¹⁸, David Fraguas¹⁷, Rens Evers¹⁶, Flora Tassone³⁸, Jaume Morey-Canyelles³⁹, Opal Y. Ousley⁴⁰, Kevin M. Antshel⁴¹, Wanda Fremont²⁵, Rosemarie Fritsch⁴², Claudia Ornstein⁴², Eileen M. Daly²⁷, Gregory A. Costain⁴³, Erik Boot⁸, Tracy Heung⁴, T. Blaine Crowley¹², Elaine H. Zackai^{12,13}, Monica E. Calkins¹⁰, Ruben C. Gur¹⁰, Kathryn L. McCabe³², Tiffany Busa²⁸, Kelly Schoch³¹, Maria Pontillo³⁴, Sasja N. Duijff⁴⁴, René S. Kahn^{3,45}, Michiel Houben⁴⁴, Leila Kushan³⁶, Maria Jalbrzikowski⁴⁶, Miri Carmel^{24,47}, Ehud Mekori-Domachevsky^{23,24}, Elena Michaelovsky^{24,47}, Ronnie Weinberger²³

Carrie E. Bearden³⁶, Jacob A. S. Vorstman^{3,35,37,∞}

Affiliations

¹Program in Genetics and Genome Biology and The Centre for Applied Genomics, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. ²Department of Statistics, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK. ³Department of Psychiatry, Brain Center, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, The Netherlands. 4Clinical Genetics Research Program, Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. ⁵Department of Psychiatry, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. 6MRC Centre for Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, Division of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, School of Medicine, Cardiff University, Cardiff, UK. 7Department of Allied Health Sciences, School of Medicine, University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC, USA. ⁸Department of Psychiatry, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. ⁹The Dalglish Family 22g Clinic, Toronto General Hospital, University Health Network, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. ¹⁰Department of Psychiatry and Lifespan Brain Institute, Penn Medicine-CHOP, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA. ¹¹Department of Genetics, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Bronx, NY, USA. ¹²Division of Human Genetics, 22g and You Center, Clinical Genetics Center, and Section of Genetic Counseling, Department of Pediatrics, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, PA, USA. ¹³Department of Pediatrics, Perelman School of Medicine of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA, 14Center for Human Genetics, University Hospital Gasthuisberg, Leuven, Belgium. ¹⁵Department of Human Genetics KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium. 16 Department of Psychiatry and Neuropsychology, Maastricht University, Maastricht, the Netherlands. ¹⁷Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Institute of Psychiatry and Mental Health, Hospital General Universitario Gregorio Marañón, IiSGM, CIBERSAM, School of Medicine, Universidad Complutense, Madrid, Spain. ¹⁸Developmental Imaging and Psychopathology, Department of Psychiatry, University of Geneva, Geneva, Switzerland. ¹⁹School of Psychology, University of Newcastle, Newcastle, Australia. ²⁰Department of Human Genetics, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA, USA. ²¹Emory Autism Center, Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA, USA. ²²Institute of Medical and Molecular Genetics (INGEMM), La Paz University Hospital, Madrid, Spain. ²³The Child Psychiatry Division, Edmond and Lily Safra Children's Hospital, Sheba Medical Center, Tel Hashomer, Israel. ²⁴Sackler Faculty of Medicine and Sagol School of Neuroscience, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv, Israel. ²⁵Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, SUNY Upstate Medical University, Syracuse, NY, USA. ²⁶Department of Psychiatry, Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, Beaumont Hospital, Dublin, Ireland. ²⁷Department of Forensic and Neurodevelopmental Sciences, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology & Neuroscience (IoPPN), King's College London, London, UK. ²⁸Département de Génétique Médicale, APHM, CHU Timone Enfants, Marseille, France. ²⁹Aix Marseille Université, MMG, INSERM, Marseille, France. 30 Centro de Genética y Genómica, Facultad de Medicina, Clínica Alemana Universidad del Desarrollo, Santiago, Chile. ³¹Division of Medical Genetics, Department of Pediatrics, Duke University School of

Medicine, Durham, NC, USA. 32MIND Institute and Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, University of California Davis, Sacramento, CA, USA. ³³Genomics of Health Group and Molecular Diagnostics and Clinical Genetics Unit (UDMGC), Health Research Institute of the Balearic Islands (IdISBa), Hospital Universitari Son Espases, Palma de Mallorca, Spain. 34Department of Life Sciences and Public Health, Catholic University; Child and Adolescent Psychiatry Unit, Bambino Gesù Children's Hospital, IRCSS, Rome, Italy. 35 Program in Genetics and Genome Biology, SickKids Research Institute, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. ³⁶Departments of Psychiatry and Biobehavioral Sciences and Psychology, Semel Institute for Neuroscience and Human Behavior, University of California Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA, USA. 37 Department of Psychiatry, The Hospital for Sick Children, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. 38Department of Microbiology and Molecular Medicine, University of California Davis, Davis, CA, USA. 39Hospital Universitari Son Espases, Mallorca, Spain. 40Department of Psychiatry, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA, USA. 41Department of Psychology, Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY, USA. 42 Department of Psychiatry, Hospital Clinico Universidad de Chile, Santiago, Chile. ⁴³Division of Clinical and Metabolic Genetics, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, ON, Canada. 44 Department of Pediatrics University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, the Netherlands. ⁴⁵Department of Psychiatry, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA. 46 Department of Psychiatry, University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine, Pittsburgh, PA, USA. ⁴⁷Felsenstein Medical Research Center, Petach Tikva, Israel. ⁴⁸Deceased: Clodagh M. Murphy. ⁴⁹These authors contributed equally: Robert W. Davies, Ania M. Fiksinski.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) International Consortium on Brain and Behavior in 22q11.2 Deletion Syndrome (U01MH101719, U01MH0101720, U01MH0101723, U01MH101722 and EU01MH101724); the Lap-Chee Tsui Fellowship for Research Excellence and the CIHR STAGE Fellowship (to R.W.D.); the Brain and Behavior Research Foundation (to J.A.S.V.; Young Investigator Award); NIMH R01MH085953 and 1U01MH119736-01 (to C.E.B.); NIH R01 MH064824 (to W.K.); Wellcome Trust grant 102428/Z/13/Z (to N.W. and T.M.); Canadian Institutes of Health Research grants MOP-79518, MOP-89066, MOP-97800 and MOP-111238, a McLaughlin Centre Accelerator grant, the Canada Research Chairs program and Dalglish Chair (to A.S.B); the Academic Scholars Award from the Department of Psychiatry, University of Toronto and the O'Brien Scholars Fund (to E.B.); Fondecyt 1171014 and ACT 192064 (ANID-Chile) (to G.R.); Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation, Instituto de Salud Carlos III (SAM16PE07CP1, PI16/02012, PI19/024), CIBERSAM, Madrid Regional Government (B2017/BMD-3740 AGES-CM-2), European Union Structural Funds, European Union Seventh Framework Program (FP7-HEALTH-2013-2.2.1-2-603196 Project PSYSCAN) and European Union H2020 Program under the Innovative Medicines Initiative 2 Joint Undertaking (grant agreement 115916, Project PRISM, and grant agreement 777394, Project AIMS-2-TRIALS), Fundación Familia Alonso and Fundación Alicia Koplowitz (to C.A); Innovative Medicines Initiative 2 Joint Undertaking (#777394 for the project AIMS-2-TRIALS), the NIHR Maudsley BRC (to D.M.); and Binational Science Foundation grant 2017369 (to R.E.G. and D.G.).

References

- 1. Sommer IE et al. Early interventions in risk groups for schizophrenia: what are we waiting for? NPJ Schizophr. 2, 16003 (2016). [PubMed: 27336054]
- 2. Reichenberg A et al. Static and dynamic cognitive deficits in childhood preceding adult schizophrenia: a 30-year study. Am. J. Psychiatry 167, 160–169 (2010). [PubMed: 20048021]

3. Bearden CE et al. A prospective cohort study of childhood behavioral deviance and language abnormalities as predictors of adult schizophrenia. Schizophr/Bull. 26, 395–410 (2000).

- Rosso IM et al. Childhood neuromotor dysfunction in schizophrenia patients and their unaffected siblings: a prospective cohort study. Schizophr. Bull 26, 367–378 (2000). [PubMed: 10885637]
- 5. Walker EF, Grimes KE, Davis DM & Smith AJ Childhood precursors of schizophrenia: facial expressions of emotion. Am. J. Psychiatry 150, 1654–1660 (1993). [PubMed: 8214173]
- Dickson H, Laurens KR, Cullen AE & Hodgins S Meta-analyses of cognitive and motor function in youth aged 16 years and younger who subsequently develop schizophrenia. Psychol. Med 42, 743– 755 (2012). [PubMed: 21896236]
- Woodberry KA, Giuliano AJ & Seidman LJ Premorbid IQ in schizophrenia: a meta-analytic review. Am. J. Psychiatry 165, 579–587 (2008). [PubMed: 18413704]
- 8. Mollon J, David AS, Zammit S, Lewis G & Reichenberg A Course of cognitive development from infancy to early adulthood in the psychosis spectrum. JAMA Psychiatry 75, 270–279 (2018). [PubMed: 29387877]
- Zammit S et al. A longitudinal study of premorbid IQ score and risk of developing schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, severe depression, and other nonaffective psychoses. Arch. Gen. Psychiatry 61, 354–360 (2004). [PubMed: 15066893]
- Khandaker GM, Barnett JH, White IR & Jones PB A quantitative meta-analysis of populationbased studies of premorbid intelligence and schizophrenia. Schizophr. Res 132, 220–227 (2011). [PubMed: 21764562]
- 11. Kahn RS & Keefe RS Schizophrenia is a cognitive illness: time for a change in focus. JAMA Psychiatry 70, 1107–1112 (2013). [PubMed: 23925787]
- 12. MacCabe JH et al. Decline in cognitive performance between ages 13 and 18 years and the risk for psychosis in adulthood: a Swedish longitudinal cohort study in males. JAMA Psychiatry 70, 261–270 (2013). [PubMed: 23325066]
- 13. Meier MH et al. Neuropsychological decline in schizophrenia from the premorbid to the postonset period: evidence from a population-representative longitudinal study. Am. J. Psychiatry 171, 91–101 (2014). [PubMed: 24030246]
- 14. Lin A et al. Neurocognitive predictors of functional outcome two to 13 years after identification as ultra-high risk for psychosis. Schizophr. Res 132, 1–7 (2011). [PubMed: 21763109]
- 15. Kaymaz N et al. Do subthreshold psychotic experiences predict clinical outcomes in unselected non-help-seeking population-based samples? A systematic review and meta-analysis, enriched with new results. Psychol. Med 42, 2239–2253 (2012). [PubMed: 22260930]
- 16. Poulton R et al. Children's self-reported psychotic symptoms and adult schizophreniform disorder: a 15-year longitudinal study. Arch. Gen. Psychiatry 57, 1053–1058 (2000). [PubMed: 11074871]
- 17. Insel TR Rethinking schizophrenia. Nature 468, 187-193 (2010). [PubMed: 21068826]
- 18. Murphy KC, Jones LA & Owen MJ High rates of schizophrenia in adults with velo-cardio-facial syndrome. Arch. Gen. Psychiatry 56, 940–945 (1999). [PubMed: 10530637]
- 19. Bassett AS & Chow EW 22q11 deletion syndrome: a genetic subtype of schizophrenia. Biol. Psychiatry 46, 882–891 (1999). [PubMed: 10509171]
- Gur RE et al. A neurogenetic model for the study of schizophrenia spectrum disorders: the International 22q11.2 Deletion Syndrome Brain Behavior Consortium. Mol. Psychiatry 22, 1664– 1672 (2017). [PubMed: 28761081]
- 21. Kates WR et al. Trajectories of psychiatric diagnoses and medication usage in youth with 22q11.2 deletion syndrome: a 9-year longitudinal study. Psychol. Med 49, 1914–1922 (2019). [PubMed: 30226117]
- 22. Vorstman JA et al. Cognitive decline preceding the onset of psychosis in patients with 22q11.2 deletion syndrome. JAMA Psychiatry 72, 377–385 (2015). [PubMed: 25715178]
- Pardinas AF et al. Common schizophrenia alleles are enriched in mutation-intolerant genes and in regions under strong background selection. Nat. Genet 50, 381–389 (2018). [PubMed: 29483656]
- 24. Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium. Biological insights from 108 schizophrenia-associated genetic loci. Nature 511, 421–427 (2014). [PubMed: 25056061]

 Wray NR et al. Research review: polygenic methods and their application to psychiatric traits. J. Child Psychol. Psychiatry 55, 1068–1087 (2014). [PubMed: 25132410]

- 26. Davies G et al. Study of 300,486 individuals identifies 148 independent genetic loci influencing general cognitive function. Nat. Commun 9, 2098 (2018). [PubMed: 29844566]
- 27. Rietveld CA et al. GWAS of 126,559 individuals identifies genetic variants associated with educational attainment. Science 340, 1467–1471 (2013). [PubMed: 23722424]
- 28. Sugrue LP & Desikan RS What are polygenic scores and why are they important? JAMA 321, 1820–1821 (2019). [PubMed: 30958510]
- Fullerton JM & Nurnberger JI Polygenic risk scores in psychiatry: will they be useful for clinicians? F1000Res 8, F1000 Faculty Rev-1293 (2019).
- 30. Torkamani A, Wineinger NE & Topol EJ The personal and clinical utility of polygenic risk scores. Nat. Rev. Genet 19, 581–590 (2018). [PubMed: 29789686]
- 31. Kuchenbaecker KB et al. Evaluation of polygenic risk scores for breast and ovarian cancer risk prediction in BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutation carriers. J. Natl Cancer Inst 109, djw302 (2017).
- 32. Cleynen I et al. Genetic contributors to risk of schizophrenia in the presence of a 22q11.2 deletion. Mol. Psychiatry 10.1038/s41380-020-0654-3 (2020).
- 33. Marder SR & Cannon TD Schizophrenia. N. Engl. J. Med 381, 1753–1761 (2019). [PubMed: 31665579]
- 34. Bycroft C et al. The UK Biobank resource with deep phenotyping and genomic data. Nature 562, 203–209 (2018). [PubMed: 30305743]
- 35. Miller TJ et al. Prodromal assessment with the structured interview for prodromal syndromes and the scale of prodromal symptoms: predictive validity, interrater reliability, and training to reliability. Schizophr. Bull 29, 703–715 (2003). [PubMed: 14989408]
- 36. Klaassen P et al. Explaining the variable penetrance of CNVs: parental intelligence modulates expression of intellectual impairment caused by the 22q11.2 deletion. Am. J. Med. Genet. B Neuropsychiatr. Genet 171, 790–796 (2016). [PubMed: 26953189]
- 37. Sieradzka D et al. Are genetic risk factors for psychosis also associated with dimension-specific psychotic experiences in adolescence? PLoS ONE 9, e94398 (2014). [PubMed: 24718684]
- 38. Jones HJ et al. Phenotypic manifestation of genetic risk for schizophrenia during adolescence in the general population. JAMA Psychiatry 73, 221–228 (2016). [PubMed: 26818099]
- 39. Jones HJ et al. Investigating the genetic architecture of general and specific psychopathology in adolescence. Transl. Psychiatry 8, 145 (2018). [PubMed: 30089819]
- 40. Fuller R et al. Longitudinal assessment of premorbid cognitive functioning in patients with schizophrenia through examination of standardized scholastic test performance. Am. J. Psychiatry 159, 1183–1189 (2002). [PubMed: 12091197]
- 41. van Oel CJ, Sitskoorn MM, Cremer MP & Kahn RS School performance as a premorbid marker for schizophrenia: a twin study. Schizophr. Bull 28, 401–414 (2002). [PubMed: 12645673]
- 42. Duijff SN et al. Cognitive development in children with 22q11.2 deletion syndrome. Br. J. Psychiatry 200, 462–468 (2012). [PubMed: 22661678]
- 43. Chawner S et al. Childhood cognitive development in 22q11.2 deletion syndrome: case–control study. Br. J. Psychiatry 211, 223–230 (2017). [PubMed: 28882829]
- 44. Trevethan R Sensitivity, specificity, and predictive values: foundations, pliabilities, and pitfalls in research and practice. Front. Public Health 5, 307 (2017). [PubMed: 29209603]
- 45. Bergen SE et al. Joint contributions of rare copy number variants and common SNPs to risk for schizophrenia. Am. J. Psychiatry 176, 29–35 (2019). [PubMed: 30392412]
- 46. Tansey KE et al. Common alleles contribute to schizophrenia in CNV carriers. Mol. Psychiatry 21, 1085–1089 (2016). [PubMed: 26390827]
- 47. Lecarpentier J et al. Prediction of breast and prostate cancer risks in male BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutation carriers using polygenic risk scores. J. Clin. Oncol 35, 2240–2250 (2017). [PubMed: 28448241]
- 48. Gibson G On the utilization of polygenic risk scores for therapeutic targeting. PLoS Genet. 15, e1008060 (2019). [PubMed: 31022172]

49. Damask A et al. Patients with high genome-wide polygenic risk scores for coronary artery disease may receive greater clinical benefit from alirocumab treatment in the ODYSSEY OUTCOMES trial. Circulation 141, 624–636 (2020). [PubMed: 31707832]

- 50. Perkins DO et al. Polygenic risk score contribution to psychosis prediction in a target population of persons at clinical high risk. Am. J. Psychiatry 177, 155–163 (2020). [PubMed: 31711302]
- 51. Fiksinski AM et al. Understanding the pediatric psychiatric phenotype of 22q11.2 deletion syndrome. Am. J. Med. Genet. A 176, 2182–2191 (2018). [PubMed: 30194907]
- 52. Martin AR et al. Human demographic history impacts genetic risk prediction across diverse populations. Am. J. Hum. Genet 100, 635–649 (2017). [PubMed: 28366442]
- 53. Chelune GJ, Naugle RI, Lüders H, Sedlak J & Awad IA Individual change after epilepsy surgery: practice effects and base-rate information. Neuropsychology 7, 41–52 (1993).
- 54. Vorstman JA et al. MLPA: a rapid, reliable, and sensitive method for detection and analysis of abnormalities of 22q. Hum. Mutat 27, 814–821 (2006). [PubMed: 16791841]
- 55. Yung AR et al. Mapping the onset of psychosis: the Comprehensive Assessment of At-Risk Mental States. Aust. N. Z. J. Psychiatry 39, 964–971 (2005). [PubMed: 16343296]
- 56. Kaufman J et al. Schedule for affective disorders and schizophrenia for school-age children-present and lifetime version (K-SADS-PL): initial reliability and validity data. J. Am. Acad. Child Adolesc. Psychiatry 36, 980–988 (1997). [PubMed: 9204677]
- 57. Purcell S et al. PLINK: a tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. Am. J. Hum. Genet 81, 559–575 (2007). [PubMed: 17701901]
- 58. Deary IJ, Johnson W & Houlihan LM Genetic foundations of human intelligence. Hum. Genet 126, 215–232 (2009). [PubMed: 19294424]
- 59. Spearman C 'General Intelligence,' objectively determined and measured. Am. J. Psychol 15, 201–293 (1904).
- 60. Euesden J, Lewis CM & O'Reilly PF PRSice: polygenic risk score software. Bioinformatics 31, 1466–1468 (2015). [PubMed: 25550326]
- 61. Gazal S et al. Linkage disequilibrium-dependent architecture of human complex traits shows action of negative selection. Nat. Genet 49, 1421–1427 (2017). [PubMed: 28892061]

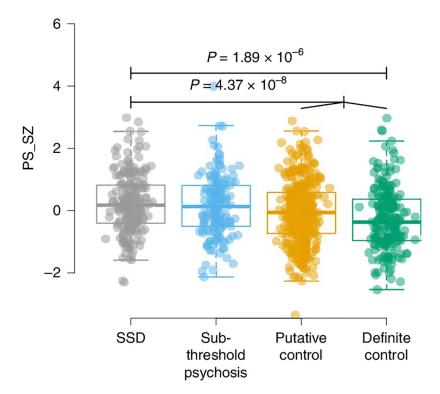


Fig. 1 \mid . PS_SZs among phenotypic subgroups.

Results show per-individual values as well as summaries per group, where minimum and maximum values are directly observable from the plot; the box plot center is the median; the box plot edges represent the 25th and 75th percentiles; and the whiskers represent the lesser of the distance to the minimum or maximum value or 1.5 times the interquartile range. Associations of PS_SZ in 22q11DS with SSD, sub-threshold psychosis, putative controls and definite controls are shown. Results for PS_SZ and SSD were reported previously³² and are included in this figure for completeness. Total sample sizes for the highlighted associations are n = 423 (SSD versus putative controls) and n = 802 (SSD versus merged controls). *P* values are reported for select comparisons using two-sided logistic regression analyses uncorrected for multiple testing using covariates as specified in the Methods.

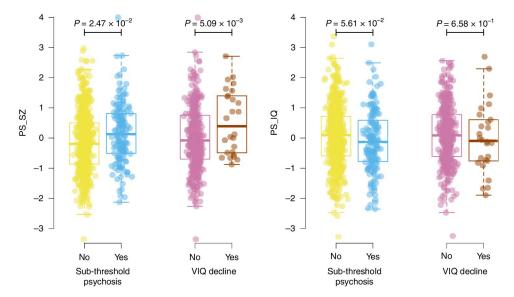


Fig. 2 |. Relationship between polygenic scores and novel phenotypes.

Results show per-individual values as well as summaries per group, where minimum and maximum values are directly observable from the plot; the box plot center is the median; the box plot edges represent the 25th and 75th percentiles; and the whiskers represent the lesser of the distance to the minimum or maximum value or 1.5 times the interquartile range. Results are shown for regressions of sub-threshold psychosis versus merged controls (n = 755) and VIQ decline (n = 396) for both PS_SZ (left) and PS_IQ (right). P values are reported for two-sided logistic regression analyses uncorrected for multiple testing using covariates as specified in the Methods.

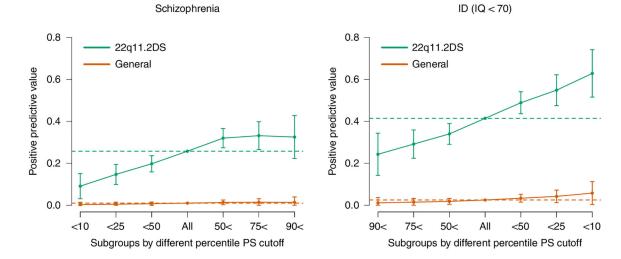


Fig. 3 |. Individual risk prediction. PPVs (y axis) for SSD (left) and ID (right) based on various cutoffs of PS_SZ (left) or PS_IQ (right). Colors differentiate values from the 22q11DS cohort (turquoise) versus values estimated from the general population (orange) given observed prevalences in the population (SSD = 0.01 and ID = 0.025; dotted lines) and observed ORs. Whiskers represent confidence intervals ($\pm 1.96 \times \text{standard error}$) around the central PPV estimate.

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

	QSS	Sub-threshold psychosis Putative control	Putative control	Definite control	All	p^a
n max	207	158	382	215	962	N/A
Sex, % male	49	49	54	39	49	0.008
Age at last assessment (years) b 31.6 (12.7) [205], {7,64} 17.9 (5) [158] {8,36}	31.6 (12.7) [205], {7,64}	17.9 (5) [158] {8,36}	15.2 (4.6) [382] {5,24}	36.8 (9.9) [215], {25,67}	$15.2\ (4.6)\ [382]\ \{5.24\} \qquad 36.8\ (9.9)\ [215],\ \{25.67\} \qquad 24\ (12.4)\ [960],\ \{5.67\} \qquad 2.0\times 10^{-167}$	2.0×10^{-167}
Baseline FSIQ b,c	-0.34 (0.87) [145], {-2,2}	$-0.34\ (0.87)\ [145],\ \{-2,2\}\qquad 0.13\ (0.96)\ [127]\ \{-2,3\}\qquad 0.07\ (1.03)\ [308]\ \{-3,2\}\qquad 0.24\ (0.85)\ [120],\ \{-2,2\}\qquad 0.03\ (0.97)\ [700],\ \{-3,3\}\qquad 1.8\times 10^{-6}$	0.07 (1.03) [308] {-3,2}	0.24 (0.85) [120], {-2,2}	0.03 (0.97) [700], {-3,3}	1.8×10^{-6}
Binary VIQ decline d.e	11.9% [59]	5.7% [87]	4.5% [198]	4.7% [43]	5.9% [387]	0.21
Comorbid mood disorders	41% [144]	29.2% [154]	16% [363]	38.6% [153]	27.1% [814]	1.7×10^{-10}

 $^{^{}a}$ Pvalues are from an analysis of variance of phenotype by group and are two sided and not corrected for multiple comparisons.

 $b_{\rm Quantitative~phenotypes}$ are given as mean (s.d.) [n] {range}.

^cBaseline FSIQ is given as a z score using a previously defined normalization procedure 22 .

dBinary phenotypes are given as percent true [n].

e Binary VIQ decline is operationalized as VIQ decline 1 s.d. (that is, 1 z score), as defined by the reliable change index 53.

Table 2

Key regression results

Dependent variable	IV	n	β	r^2	P
SSD	PS_SZ	802	802 0.56	0.053	$4.37\times10^{-8}*$
Sub-threshold psychosis		755	755 0.24	0.01	0.0247
Baseline FSIQ		720	-0.096	-0.096 0.0077 0.018	0.018
VIQ decline		396	396 0.66	0.051	*605000
SSD	PS_IQ	802	-0.30	0.020	$7.15\times10^{-4}*$
Sub-threshold psychosis		755	-0.18	0.0072 0.056	0.056
Baseline FSIQ		720	720 0.20	0.038	$1.08\times10^{-7}*$
VIQ decline		396	-0.096	-0.096 0.0013 0.658	0.658

Results are adjusted for standard covariates as described in Methods. β is the standard regression effect size estimate. f denotes the difference between model fit with or without independent variable (IV), using either standard 2 from linear regression or Nagelkerke pseudo 2 . Nominal Pvalues are reported. Asterisk (*) indicates a significant result after Bonferroni correction for eight independent main analyses in this study (two polygenic scores and four phenotypes).