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1 The contributions of common and rare genetic variation to different

2 measures of mood and anxiety disorder in UK Biobank

- 3 Ioanna Katzourou PhD¹, LINC Consortium[#], Inês Barroso PhD², Lauren Benger MSc¹, Andrés
- 4 Ingason PhD³, Daniel Stow PhD⁴, Ruby Tsang PhD⁵, Megan Wood PhD⁶, George Kirov PhD¹,
- 5 James Walters PhD¹, Michael J. Owen PhD^{1,7}, Peter Holmans PhD¹, Marianne B.M. van den Bree
- 6 PhD^{1,7}

7 ABSTRACT

8

9 Background: Mood and anxiety disorders co-occur and share symptoms, treatments and 10 genetic risk, but it is unclear whether combining them into a single phenotype would better 11 capture genetic variation. The contribution of common genetic variation to these disorders has 12 been investigated using a range of measures, however the differences in their ability to capture 13 variation remain unclear, while the impact of rare variation is mostly unexplored. 14 Aims: We aimed to explore the contributions of common genetic variation and Copy Number 15 Variations associated with risk of psychiatric morbidity (P-CNVs) to different measures of 16 internalising disorders. 17 Method: We investigated eight definitions of mood and anxiety disorder, and a combined 18 internalising disorder, derived from self-report questionnaires, diagnostic assessments, and 19 electronic healthcare data (EHR). Association of these definitions with polygenic risk scores 20 (PRSs) of major depressive disorder and anxiety disorder, as well as presence of a P-CNV, was 21 assessed. 22 **Results:** The effect sizes of both PRSs and P-CNVs were similar for mood and anxiety disorder. 23 Compared to mood and anxiety disorder, internalising disorder resulted in higher prediction 24 accuracy for PRSs, and increased significance of associations with P-CNVs for most definitions. 25 Comparison across the eight definitions showed that PRSs had higher prediction accuracy and

26 effect sizes for stricter definitions, whereas P-CNVs were more strongly associated with EHR-

and self-report- based definitions.

28 Conclusions: Future studies may benefit from using a combined internalising disorder
29 phenotype, and may need to consider that different phenotype definitions may be more
30 informative depending on whether common or rare variation is studied.

31 INTRODUCTION

32

33 BACKGROUND

34

Mood and anxiety disorders are highly prevalent, affecting over 300 million people worldwide(1), have a detrimental impact on the quality of life of affected individuals and those close to them(2) and result in increased healthcare costs (3,4). Evidence from psychiatric genetics research indicates that currently used diagnostic boundaries do not accurately reflect the underlying shared genetic architecture of psychopathology(5). Research findings demonstrate that psychiatric conditions are highly polygenic, and that there is overlap in genetic risk between diagnostic groups(6).

42

Mood and anxiety disorders tend to co-occur(7), respond to similar pharmacological and 43 44 psychological treatments(8,9), and have been indicated to involve similar neurobiological 45 mechanisms(10). Despite extensive research, their aetiology is still incompletely understood, 46 however it is evident that genetic predisposition plays a role, with common(11–14) as well as 47 rare variants(15,16) having been associated with both disorders. There is abundant evidence 48 that the two disorders share genetic liability(17–21). There may therefore be benefits to 49 conducting analyses where the two disorders are combined into a single internalising disorder 50 phenotype, which may be better able to capture genetic variation than each disorder 51 individually, however to date there has been no published research examining this.

52

The contribution of common genetic variation to risk of psychiatric disorders is conferred by
multiple variants, each of modest effect size, resulting in limited predictive power(22).

55 Polygenic risk scores (PRS) integrate the effect sizes of multiple variants throughout the 56 genome and create quantifiable scores that are better suited for risk prediction than individual 57 variants(23). In addition to common variants, a range of rare genetic variants, such as Copy 58 Number Variants (CNVs), have been reported to have a large effect on an individual's risk of 59 psychiatric outcomes(24). CNVs are rare sub-microscopic genomic re-arrangements, including 60 deletions or duplications and a range of these have been found to greatly increase risk of 61 neurodevelopmental (25) and psychiatric disorders (P-CNVs from here onwards). For example, 62 these CNVs have been associated with elevated rates of anxiety disorders in youth(24) and 63 anxiety and mood disorders in adulthood(15,16). While both P-CNVs and common variation 64 are implicated in the development of anxiety and mood disorders, the majority of the literature 65 focuses exclusively on either common or rare variants, with few studies exploring both(25).

66

67 Large case-control studies are required to detect the contributions of genetic variants to 68 psychiatric disorders. The recruitment of patients in such studies is resource-intensive and can introduce biases inherent to the selection of participants (26). An alternative approach is 69 70 utilising the breadth of phenotypic information that large-scale population-based biobanks can 71 provide, where extensive sample sizes can contribute to the discovery of new genotype-72 phenotype associations. This is particularly the case for common disorders, as indicated by 73 recent genome-wide association studies (GWAS) of Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) in 74 cohorts of very large size(11,12). However, the findings of this type of studies crucially depend 75 on the correct assignment of participants to case or control status, which will differ depending on the measures that have been selected out of those available in the biobank. It is likely that 76 77 different phenotypic definitions differ in the ability to classify individuals into cases and 78 controls, and therefore their ability to capture genetic variation. Definitions that are more

79 sensitive to capturing disease-specific genetic variation will be more informative in identifying 80 the biological pathways involved in these conditions and ultimately in guiding future 81 intervention strategies. In the case of MDD, it has been reported that genetic analyses 82 conducted on measures involving minimal phenotyping (e.g. self-reported seeking of medical 83 attention or diagnosis) result not only in a reduced single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) 84 heritability, but also in genetic associations that are less specific to MDD, showing greater overlap with other neuropsychiatric traits(27). In contrast, more strict, narrowly-defined 85 86 phenotypic measures were found to yield greater SNP heritability and to better capture MDD-87 specific genetic variation(27). This work did, however, not include some other commonly used 88 measures of mood disorder, such as primary care records or medication use, while it also 89 remains unclear if similar findings apply to anxiety disorders. Furthermore, it is unknown if 90 these results extend to risk attributable to rare genetic variation.

91

92 The great majority of the psychiatric genetics literature to date has focused on individuals of 93 European ancestry, with few studies examining individuals of different genetic ancestries(28). 94 This has meant that individuals of non-European ancestries have been removed from data sets 95 before genetic analysis is undertaken. Novel analytical strategies are now providing 96 opportunities to conduct genomic studies in ancestrally diverse and admixed populations, 97 allowing for more inclusive and representative studies(29,30), increasing the generalisability 98 of findings.

99

100 AIMS

101

The purpose of this study was to investigate the contributions of common genetic variation and P-CNVs to a range of self-reported and EHR-derived definitions of anxiety and mood disorders and to evaluate whether combining these disorders into an internalising disorder phenotype improves the ability to capture genetic influences. We focused on the UKBB cohort because it is a large population-based resource, combining information on anxiety and mood disorders from a range of different sources with genetic data.

108

109 Specifically, we aimed to:

110 1. Evaluate whether the predictive accuracy of PRSs for anxiety and MDD improves when

111 information on anxiety and mood is combined into an internalising disorder phenotype,

in comparison to analyses based on individual phenotypes of anxiety and mooddisorder.

114 2. Investigate the differences in association with these PRSs between eight different
115 definitions for each of mood, anxiety and internalising disorder, based on self-report
116 questionnaires, diagnostic interview, medication use and primary care and hospital
117 admission EHR data.

1183. Investigate if the presence of a P-CNV is more strongly associated with a) the combined119internalising disorder phenotype than with individual phenotypes of anxiety or mood120disorder and b) any of the eight definitions for each of mood, anxiety and internalising

121 disorder mentioned above in 2.

122 These analyses included participants in UKBB of all ancestries and PRS were adjusted for 123 ancestral differences.

124

125 METHOD

127 PARTICIPANTS

129	The UKBB is a prospective study of over 500,000 individuals living in the United Kingdom
130	(UK)(31). Participants aged between 40 and 69 years old were recruited between 2006 and
131	2010. They attended a baseline assessment as well as multiple repeat assessments. The UKBB
132	received ethical approval from the North West - Haydock Research Ethics Committee
133	(reference 16/NW/0274). Participants provided electronic signed consent at recruitment. This
134	study was conducted under application number 79704.
135	
136	PHENOTYPING
137	
138	Four main sources of information relevant to anxiety and mood disorder were identified in
139	UKBB. These were:
140	• A touchscreen questionnaire completed by participants during initial recruitment to
141	the study at recruitment centers.
142	• A nurse-led interview completed at recruitment to which participants were invited if
143	they stated in the touchscreen questionnaire that they had been diagnosed with
144	certain long-term conditions or were currently taking medication.
145	• Linked electronic healthcare records (EHR), including hospital admission records
146	(available for the whole cohort) and primary care records (available for \sim 40% of the
147	cohort).

• The mental health questionnaire (MHQ), which was an online follow-up sent to all participants with a valid email address(7).

150

149

151 The numbers of individuals with available data for these four sources are summarized in Figure 152 1. Using these sources of information, eight ways of defining internalising disorder were 153 derived, summarized in Figure 1. For each definition, individuals that were established to have 154 either a mood or anxiety disorder or both were classified as having an internalising disorder.

155

156 [FIGURE 1]

157 Figure 1. Data sources for internalising disorder definitions in UKBB. Self-report (coded 1) was defined as having reported 158 during the nurse-led interview a diagnosis of depression or post-natal depression for mood disorder and anxiety/panic 159 attacks for anxiety disorder. Medication self-report (coded 2) was defined as having reported during the nurse-led 160 interview currently being on a prescription of any antidepressant for mood disorder and any antidepressant and/or 161 benzodiazepine apart from temazepam for anxiety disorder. Help-seeking behaviour (coded 3) was defined as having 162 answered yes to either 'have you ever seen a GP for depression, tension or nerves?' or 'have you ever seen a psychiatrist 163 for depression, tension or nerves?', thus help-seeking behaviour is identical for mood and anxiety disorders. Minimal 164 phenotyping (coded 4 in Figure 1) was defined according to Smith et al. (2013)(32) for mood disorder and as having 165 endorsed the help-seeking phenotype and in addition having a score of 10 or above on the generalised anxiety disorder 166 7 (GAD-7)(33) for anxiety disorder. CIDI-SF (coded 5) was defined using items of the MHQ that correspond to the 167 Composite International Diagnostic Interview – Short Form (CIDI-SF)(34) diagnostic criteria for lifetime major depression 168 for mood disorder and lifetime generalised anxiety disorder (GAD) for anxiety disorder. MHQ self-report (coded 6) was 169 defined as having reported in the MHQ having had a diagnosis of depression for mood disorder or social anxiety or social 170 phobia, agoraphobia, panic attacks, anxiety, nerves and GAD for anxiety disorder. The presence of mood and anxiety 171 disorder in hospital admission records (coded 7) and primary care records (coded 8) was established using lists of clinical 172 codes curated by the MULTIPLY(35) project and amended to exclude specific phobias and other non-specific codes 173 (Supplementary Material).

174

175 Individuals who had a diagnosis of schizophrenia or bipolar disorder either recorded in EHR or 176 self-reported at the nurse-led interview or the MHQ (N=4,214) were excluded from the 177 analyses, as these disorders often share symptomatology with and could be misdiagnosed as 178 internalising disorders. Thus, a sample of maximum n=496,412 was available for analysis.

180 GENETIC ANALYSES

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182 GENETIC QUALITY CONTROL

183

184 The UKBB had imputed genotype data to the Haplotype Reference Consortium and the UK10K 185 Consortium using the IMPUTE4 software(31). Preliminary quality control of the genotype data had also been performed by UKBB(31). We performed additional quality control using PLINK 186 187 2.0(36) to filter for variants with a low INFO score (< 0.9), high missingness (> 0.05), low minor 188 allele frequency (< 0.01) or variants departing from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium ($p < 10^{-6}$) and 189 individuals with high missingness (> 0.05) or sex discordance. Sex chromosomes were 190 excluded. Kinship estimates were computed to identify individuals related to the second 191 degree (KING(37) $r^2 > 0.0884$) and one individual from each related pair was removed at 192 random. After quality control, 449,646 individuals and 6,899,626 variants were retained.

193

194 POLYGENIC RISK SCORE (PRS) GENERATION

195

Anxiety disorder PRS was calculated using summary statistics from the iPSYCH anxiety disorder GWAS(38) (4,584 cases, 19,225 controls). MDD PRS was calculated using summary statistics from the latest Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) MDD GWAS(12), excluding the UKBB cohort (45,621 cases, 97,674 controls). PRS-CS(39) was used for PRS calculation. PRS-CS is a Bayesian algorithm that can infer posterior effect sizes of SNPs via continuous shrinkage(39),

- therefore avoiding the need for linkage disequilibrium pruning and p-value thresholding. Theinferred posterior effect sizes were used for PRS generation on PLINK 2.0(36).
- 203

204 POST-HOC PRS ADJUSTMENT FOR ANCESTRY

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206 In order to produce PRSs that are on the same scale across individuals from different ancestries, we adjusted them for ancestral differences in mean and variance using the 207 208 1000Genomes dataset as reference, as described by Khan et al.(30). The UKBB and 209 1000Genomes(40) datasets were merged, retaining only variants present in both (N SNPs = 210 4,944,504). The two datasets were then pruned using PLINK(36) --indep-pairwise 500 50 0.05, 211 resulting in 567,216 retained variants. FlashPCA(41) was used to generate principal 212 components (PCs) in the 1000Genomes datasets and UKBB participants were projected onto these components. PRS were calculated for 1000Genomes as described above. 213

214

First, using the 1000Genomes dataset, the PRS was regressed against the first five PCs to generate coefficients and residuals. The coefficients and residual variance from these models were then used to produce ancestry adjusted PRS(30). The raw PRS was standardised by subtracting the mean of the predicted PRS and dividing by the residual variance. The same procedure was subsequently performed in UKBB using the PC projections. The distribution of the adjusted PRS between different ancestries was visually inspected in both 1000Genomes and UKBB. The post-hoc adjustment was performed using R(42).

222

223 PRS ASSOCIATION ANALYSIS

225 The association of each of the eight definitions of mood, anxiety and internalising disorder with 226 the standardised PRS of anxiety disorder and MDD was tested using logistic regression, 227 adjusting for sex, age and the first ten genetic principal components to account for population 228 structure. The predictive accuracy of the PRS was estimated using the receiver operating 229 characteristic area under curve (AUC), calculated by the pROC package in R(43). The proportion 230 of phenotypic variance explained by the PRS was estimated by comparing Nagelkerke's 231 pseudo-R² of the full model (PRS and covariates) with the null model (covariates only). The 232 effect sizes of the PRSs from the logistic regression models were compared between the 233 different definitions of internalising disorder. Due to the considerable sample overlap between 234 the definitions, equations six and seven from Lin and Sullivan(44) were used to calculate the 235 variance of the effect size difference, and thence a z-score for testing the significance of the 236 difference. To assess the presence of sex-specific genetic effects, we also conducted the 237 logistic regression analysis described above for each of the eight definitions of internalising 238 disorder while adding an interaction term between sex and PRS. The analysis was performed 239 using R(42).

240

241 CNV CALLING

242

The process of the calling of the CNVs in UKBB is described in detail elsewhere(45). Briefly, calling was performed using PennCNV-Affy 1.0.3 protocols(46). Samples were excluded if they carried 30 or more CNVs, had a waviness factor greater than 0.03 or less than –0.03, a singlenucleotide polymorphism call rate lower than 96%, or log R ratio SD higher than 0.35, while

CNVs were excluded if they were covered by fewer than 20 probes, had a density coverage of
less than 1 probe per 20,000 base pairs, or a confidence score lower than 10, resulting in
454,254 individuals with available CNV call data.

250

251 CNV ASSOCIATION ANALYSIS

252

253 A set of 54 CNVs that have previously been associated with an increased risk of a psychiatric 254 disorder (45) (P-CNVs) were studied. CNVs that were observed fewer than five times were 255 excluded, resulting in 33 P-CNVs that were included in all subsequent analyses. First, the 256 association of each of the eight definitions of mood, anxiety and internalising disorder with the 257 presence of any of the P-CNVs was assessed using logistic regression, adjusting for age, sex and 258 the first ten genetic principal components to account for population structure. Then, the 259 association of the eight definitions of internalising disorders with each individual P-CNV was 260 assessed in the same way. The effect sizes of the presence of a P-CNV from the logistic 261 regression models were compared between the different definitions of internalising disorder 262 as described above. We also conducted regression analysis for each of the eight definitions 263 conditioning anxiety disorder on mood disorder. The purpose of this analysis was to test 264 whether the associations of P-CNV with anxiety disorder were independent of those with mood 265 disorder. Non-independence of these associations provides further rationale for combining 266 mood and anxiety disorder into an internalising disorder phenotype, since this will increase 267 power without losing associations specific to the rarer disorder (anxiety). Then, to assess the 268 presence of sex-specific genetic effects, we also conducted the logistic regression analysis 269 described above for each of the eight definitions of internalising disorder while adding an

270 interaction term between sex and the presence of a P-CNV. Finally, we assessed the association 271 of each of the eight definitions of internalising disorder with the presence of each of the P-272 CNVs individually using logistic regression, adjusting for age, sex and the first ten genetic 273 principal components to account for population structure. Statistical analyses were performed 274 using R(42). 275 JOINT ANALYSIS OF PRS AND CNV 276 277 278 To examine if PRS and P-CNV act independently or whether there is evidence common and 279 rare variation interact to increase the risk of internalising disorder, logistic regression analyses 280 were performed as described previously, including the main effects of PRS, P-CNV and an 281 interaction term PRS*P-CNV. The statistical analyses were performed using R(42). 282 RESULTS 283 284 SUMMARY STATISTICS 285 286 287 The prevalence of each definition of anxiety, mood and internalising disorder is shown in Figure 288 2 and Supplementary Table 1. The frequency of each definition of internalising disorder for 289 males and females is shown in Supplementary Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 2. All 290 definitions had a significantly higher prevalence in females compared to males. For the 291 combined internalising disorder phenotype, the definition with the highest prevalence was 292 help-seeking (33.7%, 169,330 cases). Because of the way this was queried in the touchscreen

293 questionnaire, this definition was the same for mood, anxiety and internalising disorder (see 294 Figure 1). The lowest prevalence was found for initial self-report (7.74%, 31,869 cases). MHQ 295 self-report and CIDI-SF had a high prevalence (29.57% and 24.71%, respectively) although the 296 number of cases identified was not particularly large (46,514 and 38,887, respectively). For 297 internalising disorder, the most common combinations of definitions are illustrated in 298 Supplementary Figure 2 while the number of definitions present for each individual is shown 299 in Supplementary Figure 3. 300 301 [FIGURE 2] 302 Figure 2. Prevalence of each definition of anxiety, mood and internalising disorder. For each definition, individuals with 303 missing values were removed from the calculation. 304 305 Tetrachoric correlations were calculated for each pair of phenotypes, as presented in 306 Supplementary Figure 4. All eight definitions of internalising disorder were significantly 307 positively correlated. 308 PRS ANALYSIS 309 310 311 The distributions of the PRS pre- and post-ancestry adjustment in the reference populations of 312 the 1000Genomes dataset and in the UKBB populations (based on self-report of ethnicity) 313 were visually examined. The distributions were notably different prior to adjustment, whereas 314 post adjustment the shapes of the distributions were similar (Supplementary Figures 5 and 6). 315

316 The association of the adjusted PRSs with the definitions of mood, anxiety and internalising 317 disorder were assessed and the OR with 95% CI, p-value, Nagelkerke's pseudo R² and AUC were 318 calculated (Supplementary Table 3 for mood disorder, Supplementary Table 4 for anxiety 319 disorder and Table 1 for internalising disorder). All phenotypes were significantly associated 320 with both MDD and anxiety disorder PRS after Bonferroni correction for multiple testing), with 321 the MDD PRS showing a more significant association and larger effect sizes for all phenotypes 322 compared to the anxiety disorder PRS. The AUC of the models was used to quantify the 323 prediction accuracy of the PRS for the different phenotypes, as illustrated in Figure 3. 324 Combining mood and anxiety disorder into internalising disorder resulted in increased AUC for 325 both PRS for all definitions, with the exception of help-seeking behaviour (which, as explained 326 In the Summary Statistics section is the only definition that does not distinguish between mood 327 and anxiety disorder, and is therefore identical for all three conditions, including internalising 328 disorder). For most definitions, the ORs of the association of each of the two PRSs with mood 329 and anxiety disorder were similar (Supplementary Tables 3 and 4), while combined 330 internalising disorder phenotype yielded a higher AUC than either mood or anxiety disorder 331 separately. This indicates that combining the disorders results in increased prediction accuracy 332 in PRS analyses.

333 [FIGURE 3]

Figure 3. Prediction accuracy of MDD (top) and anxiety disorder (bottom) PRS for the eight definitions of mood disorders,anxiety disorders and internalising disorders.

336

337 [TABLE1]

Table 1. Association metrics of the adjusted MDD and anxiety PRS with the eight internalising disorder phenotypes. (OR: odds
 ratio, AUC: area under the curve, R²: Nagelkerke's pseudo R²)

340

342 The effect sizes (ORs) for each of the PRSs did not differ significantly between the definitions. 343 The highest predictive accuracy (AUC) for both PRSs was observed for the CIDI-SF definition. 344 The AUC was highest for the MHQ-derived phenotypes (CIDI-SF and minimal phenotyping) 345 while the AUC was lowest for EHR-derived phenotypes, with the AUC for help-seeking 346 behaviour and the self-reported phenotypes being in between. The Nagelkerke's pseudo-R² 347 was low, ranging between 0.50-0.88% for MDD PRS and 0.10-0.19% for anxiety PRS. Age and 348 female sex were significantly positively associated with all the definitions. We found no 349 significant interaction between sex and either of the PRSs.

350

351 Restricting the analyses to individuals of European ancestry (self-reported ethnicity white 352 British, white Irish or any other white background, N = 418,120) gave similar association results 353 to those of the full cohort (Supplementary Table 5). Restricting to individuals of non-European 354 ancestry (all other self-reported ethnicities, N = 25,782, Supplementary Table 6) led to lower 355 ORs than in the European ancestry sample, although the differences were not significant. 356 Associations with PRS also yielded less significant p-values than in the analyses of European 357 ancestry (Supplementary Table 7), with p-values not meeting the significance threshold for anxiety PRS (Bonferroni-corrected p-value threshold = 3.125×10^{-3} , N tests = 16) for many 358 359 phenotypic definitions. Comparison of association of ethnicity-adjusted versus unadjusted PRS 360 in individuals of non-European ancestry indicated that adjusted PRSs resulted in higher ORs, 361 however the difference was not significant (Supplementary Table 7).

362

363 CNV ANALYSIS

365 The total number of individuals with a P-CNV was 7,454. The number of individuals with a P-366 CNV endorsing each of the definitions of mood, anxiety and internalising disorder are shown 367 in Table 2. The associations between presence of any of the P-CNVs and the definitions of mood, anxiety and internalising disorder are shown in Table 2. For most of the definitions, the 368 369 ORs were similar between mood, anxiety and internalising disorder, and using the combined 370 internalising disorder definitions resulted in similar ORs and increased significance. None of 371 the associations between P-CNV and anxiety disorder were significant after conditioning on 372 mood disorder. This highlights the interdependency of the mood and anxiety disorder 373 phenotypes and provides further rationale for combining them into an internalising disorder 374 phenotype to increase power without losing associations specific to the rarer disorder 375 (anxiety). Of note, the only negative association in Table 2, between the presence of a P-CNV 376 and the minimal definition for anxiety disorder was no longer significant after controlling for 377 mood disorder.

378

379 [TABLE 2]

Table 2. Results of the logistic regression of P-CNV carrier status with the eight definitions of mood, anxiety and internalising
 disorder and number of individuals with a P-CNV and each definition of mood disorder, anxiety disorder and internalising
 disorder

383

When correcting for multiple testing (Bonferroni-corrected p-value threshold 2.083x10⁻³, N tests = 24), the presence of a P-CNV was significantly associated with six of the definitions of internalising disorders, but not with the CIDI-SF or minimal phenotyping. The highest effect sizes were observed for EHR-derived and self-reported definitions (initial self-report and medication self-report). The OR for help-seeking behaviour was significantly lower than those for all other definitions that had a significant association with the presence of a P-CNV, while 390 the OR for hospital admission records was significantly higher than those for primary care 391 records and MHQ self-report, but not initial self-report and medication self-report, and there 392 was no significant difference between the ORs for MHQ self -report, primary care records, 393 initial self-report and medication self-report. Minimal and CIDI-SF were not significantly 394 associated with the presence of a P-CNV, therefore the ORs for these definitions were not 395 included in the comparisons. The p-values of the pairwise OR comparisons are given in 396 Supplementary Table 8. We found no significant interaction between sex and the presence of 397 a P-CNV for any of the outcomes.

398 We subsequently examined the association of the 38 P-CNVs with the definitions of 399 internalising disorders individually. The number of individuals with each of the 38 P-CNVs are 400 shown in Supplementary Table 9. The results are illustrated in Supplementary Figure 7. The 401 pattern of association of individual P-CNVs with the eight definitions of internalising disorders 402 was complex, with no individual P-CNV showing association with all definitions. For some of 403 the individual P-CNVs the pattern of association was similar to that of the aggregated P-CNVs, 404 for example 15q11.2 duplication and 16p13.11 deletion were significantly positively associated 405 with EHR-derived and self-reported definitions and not with MHQ- and questionnaire-based 406 definitions. 17p13.3 duplication and 22q11.2 deletion, on the other hand, were positively 407 associated with CIDI-SF and MHQ self-report, while 22q11.2 distal deletion and 15q24 408 duplication were negatively associated with CIDI-SF and MHQ self-report, findings that were in 409 contrast to the aggregated P-CNV results. No P-CNVs was associated with Help-seeking 410 behaviour.

411

412 PRS AND CNV INTERACTION ANALYSIS

413

414 No evidence of significant interaction of either PRS with presence of a P-CNV was found for
415 any of the definitions of internalising disorders (Bonferroni-corrected p-value threshold
416 3.125x10⁻³, N tests =16). The results are shown in Supplementary Table 10.

417

418 DISCUSSION

419

420 Our study aimed to explore the genetic architecture of internalising disorders and to assess 421 the genetic burden associated with different definitions of these disorders derived from a 422 number of different types of assessments. We hypothesised that mood and anxiety disorder 423 can be grouped into a combined internalising disorder phenotype, based on previous work 424 that has illustrated that the two disorders correlate phenotypically and genetically(19–21). We 425 constructed eight different phenotypic definitions of mood, anxiety and internalising disorder, 426 aiming to determine if there are ways of defining the disorder that better capture genetic 427 liability. We aimed to examine the effect of both common and rare genetic variation across the 428 genome and included UKBB participants of all ethnic backgrounds. We found that combining 429 mood and anxiety disorder into an internalising disorder resulted in a higher predictive 430 accuracy in PRS analyses, regardless of the way in which the phenotype data were obtained. 431 For P-CNVs, we found that combining the disorders resulted in similar or higher effect sizes 432 and stronger associations for some of the definitions. Moreover, we found that stricter 433 definitions of internalising disorders resulted in better prediction accuracy in PRS analyses, 434 while EHR-derived and self-reported definitions had the highest effect sizes in analysis of P-435 CNVs.

436

437 We combined information on mood and anxiety disorder into a single internalising disorder 438 and compared the association of PRS derived from GWAS of MDD(12) and anxiety disorder(38) 439 on this phenotype with those for mood and anxiety disorder measured individually. Anxiety 440 and mood disorder had similar associations with each of the two PRS. The combined 441 internalising disorder phenotype resulted in similar or higher effect sizes, more significant 442 associations and higher predictive accuracy than the mood and anxiety disorder definitions 443 individually. This was the case across all eight disorder definitions. While the increased 444 significance could result from the higher number of affected individuals for internalising 445 disorder, the higher AUCs would indicate that the strengthening of the results also stems from 446 the genetic overlap between anxiety and mood disorder. Anxiety disorder PRS had lower OR 447 and AUC than MDD PRS across all eight definitions, even when predicting anxiety disorder. 448 However, the GWAS used to derive the anxiety PRS had a smaller sample size(12), and thus the 449 anxiety PRS is likely to be less powerful than the MDD PRS. The AUCs we found ranged from 450 0.75 to 0.63, similar to ones reported in literature for depression PRS (0.57)(12), bipolar 451 disorder PRS (0.65)(47), schizophrenia PRS (0.72)(48), and Alzheimer's disease PRS (0.69)(49).

452

When comparing the association of the PRSs with the eight definitions of internalising disorder, 453 454 both PRSs had a higher prediction accuracy for MHQ-derived definitions of internalising 455 disorders that include standardized questionnaires, such as CIDI-SF and minimal phenotyping. 456 These definitions are totally or partially based on parts of the MHQ(7). EHR-derived definitions, 457 like primary care records and hospital admissions showed the lowest prediction accuracy. This 458 is in agreement with earlier investigations of the genetic liability of different definitions of 459 depression in UKBB that have found that depression diagnosed using CIDI-SF has the highest 460 SNP heritability and help-seeking behaviour the lowest(50,51). Cai et al. (2020)(50) found that

461 the genetic liability of minimally defined depression, a phenotype similar to the help-seeking 462 behaviour used in this study, is less specific to depression and includes more liability shared 463 with other psychiatric traits. In the same study, PRS derived from help-seeking behaviour had 464 the highest prediction accuracy for depression in a separate sample. However, when deriving 465 PRS from each definition using the same sample size, a CIDI-based definition of depression 466 resulted in the highest AUC(50). When we derived PRS of MDD and tested its association with 467 the different definitions, we also found the highest prediction accuracy was achieved when 468 using CIDI-SF definitions. We have, therefore, shown that conclusions regarding the genetic 469 liability of different definitions of depression also extend to definitions of anxiety and 470 combined internalising disorder. Additionally, our study included a wider range of phenotypic 471 definitions that are often used in public health studies, including primary care records and 472 medication use. Interestingly, we found that primary care records, hospital admission records 473 and self-reported medication use had the lowest AUC for both MDD and anxiety PRS, indicating 474 that they capture common genetic variation less well than the other definitions we studied.

475

476 We compared UKBB participants with at least one of 38 CNVs previously associated with high 477 risk of a psychiatric condition (45) with those without these P-CNVs. We assessed the 478 association of the presence of these P-CNVs with the different definitions of mood, anxiety and 479 internalising disorder. The ORs for anxiety and mood disorder were similar, and combining the 480 disorders resulted in more significant associations for some of the definitions as it increased 481 the statistical power due to an increase in the number of affected individuals. Three of the 482 definitions (initial self-report, CIDI-SF and minimal) were endorsed by fewer individuals with a 483 P-CNV for anxiety disorder than for mood disorder, therefore for these the association with 484 internalising disorder was likely mostly driven by mood disorder.

486 We found the presence of a P-CNV had the highest effect size for EHR-derived definitions 487 (primary care and hospital admission records) and definitions based on the self-report at 488 recruitment (initial self-report and medication self-report). CIDI-SF and minimal phenotyping 489 were not associated with the presence of a P-CNV. This is in direct contrast to the results of 490 the PRS analyses. A possible explanation could be that internalising disorders caused by 491 common genetic variation are less severe, and therefore less likely to result in the use of 492 healthcare services compared to internalising disorders that are associated with a rare genetic 493 variant. On the other hand, individuals with a P-CNV have been found to have a higher risk of 494 developing physical and mental health multimorbidity(52,53), it is therefore likely that they 495 have more contact with health services than individuals without these CNVs. This could mean 496 that any evidence of internalising disorder is also more likely to be queried and diagnosed by 497 a physician and treated, and therefore recorded in their EHR or self-reported as a diagnosis or 498 a medication. Finally, the presence of an interactive effect between PRS and the presence of a 499 P-CNV was explored. There was no significant interaction between the presence of a P-CNV 500 and either of the PRSs for any of the definitions of internalising disorder, which is in agreement 501 with recent findings of the effect of common and rare variation on psychopathology in 502 UKBB(25). This suggests that the risk conferred by common and rare genetic variants is 503 independent, at least for the definitions of internalising disorder examined. Interestingly, we 504 found no significant interaction between sex and any of the genetic risk factors we examined, 505 which indicates that these do not act in a sex-specific way.

506

507 While the majority of studies into the genetics of mental health conditions have been508 restricted to a single population, usually comprising of individuals of European ancestry(28),

509 we aimed to include the whole UKBB cohort in our study and not restrict our analysis to a single 510 ethnic background, as including ethnically diverse populations in genetic studies can uncover 511 differing biological risk factors and aid in combatting health inequalities. As PRS derived from 512 European cohorts have been found to perform sub-optimally in populations of non-European 513 ancestry(54), we attempted to adjust the PRS for ancestry effects using an ancestrally diverse 514 dataset as our reference. Prior to adjustment, there were considerable differences in the mean 515 and variance of both MDD and anxiety disorder PRS, post-adjustment however the PRSs 516 distributions were notably more aligned, particularly so for the MDD PRS. While the 517 adjustment did not result in perfect alignment of the distributions, this method allowed for 518 including UKBB participants of all ancestries in the analysis.

519

520 There are limitations to this study. Firstly, the MDD GWAS that was used for PRS generation in 521 this analysis was based on a larger sample size(12) and thus better captured the genetic risk 522 than the anxiety disorder GWAS(38). However, the two disorders are genetically and 523 phenotypically correlated(6,19), and our results indicate that the MDD PRS also captures 524 genetic risk for anxiety disorders. Moreover, while UKBB is one of the largest population 525 cohorts with genetic data available worldwide and contains rich phenotypic information, it has 526 been found to be impacted by selection bias, with participants having better health and higher 527 socioeconomic status than the general population in the UK(55). Additionally, UKBB was 528 designed as a prospective population cohort study of middle and older age(31), recruiting 529 participants between 40 and 69 years of age, which makes it susceptible to survival bias. 530 Internalising disorders are associated with premature mortality(56), therefore it is likely that 531 individuals with the most severe manifestations of these disorders would not be included in 532 such a cohort. Finally, UKBB participants who have completed the MHQ have been found to

be of higher socioeconomic status and better overall health than the average UKBB participant, with a further bias towards individuals of European descent(7). This is particularly important for the CNV analyses, as the number of individuals with a P-CNV that completed the MHQ was low (1,950, 26.16% of individuals with a P-CNV, compared to 31.61% completion for individuals without a P-CNV), therefore the sample size might not have been sufficient to uncover significant associations with these phenotypes.

539

540 In conclusion, this study aimed to explore the genetic architecture of internalising disorder 541 definitions. Our results indicate that combining mood and anxiety disorders into an 542 internalising disorder phenotype can be of benefit in genetic analyses looking at both common 543 and rare variants. The optimal definition of internalising disorders for use in genetic studies 544 depends on the type of genetic researchers aim to uncover. While more clinically robust 545 definitions of internalising disorders, like the CIDI-SF diagnostic criteria, seem preferable when 546 examining common variation, using EHR- or self-report-based definitions might be the optimal 547 choice when rare variation is of interest.

548 AUTHOR DETAILS

- 549
- ¹Centre for Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, Cardiff University, UK
- 551 ²Medical School, University of Exeter, UK
- ³Institute of Biological Psychiatry, Capital Region of Denmark, Denmark
- ⁴Wolfson Institute for Population Health, Queen Mary University of London, UK
- ⁵Bristol Medical School, University of Bristol, UK
- ⁶School of Psychology, University of Leeds, UK
- ⁷Neuroscience and Mental Health Innovation Institute, Division of Psychological Medicine and
- 557 Clinical Neurosciences, Cardiff University, UK
- [#]A list of authors and their affiliations appears at the end of the paper.
- 559
- 560
- 561 Corresponding author: Marianne van den Bree
- 562 Email: vandenbreemb@cardiff.ac.uk
- 563 Phone: +44 (0)29 2068 8433
- 564 Fax: +44(0)29 2068 7068
- 565 Address: Cardiff University Centre for Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, 2nd Floor
- 566 Hadyn Ellis Building, Cardiff University, Maindy Road, Cathays, Cardiff, United Kingdom, CF24
- 567 4HQ

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- 573 Full list of LINC members:
- 574 Marianne B. M. van den Bree, George Kirov, Michael J. Owen, James T. R. Walters, Peter A.
- 575 Holmans, Jane Lynch, Ioanna K. Katzourou, Lowri O'Donovan (Cardiff University, UK)
- 576 David A. van Heel, Sarah Finer, Daniel Stow (Queen Mary University of London, UK)
- 577 Golam M. Khandaker, Nicholas J. Timpson, John A. A. MacLeod, Julie P. Clayton, Ruby S. M.
- 578 Tsang, Jane Sprackman, Shahid Khan (University of Bristol, UK)
- 579 Inês Barroso, Rupert A. Payne (University of Exeter, UK)
- 580 Mark Mon-Williams, Megan L. Wood (University of Leeds, UK)
- 581 Hilary C. Martin (Wellcome Sanger Institute, UK)
- 582 Thomas Werge, Andrés Ingason (Institute of Biological Psychiatry, Denmark)

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602	
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605	
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