

Genetic and neural bases of the Neuroticism general factor

Yuri Kim\*, Alexandros Giannelis, Emily A. Willoughby,  
Colin G. DeYoung, James J. Lee

Department of Psychology  
University of Minnesota Twin Cities  
75 East River Road  
Minneapolis, MN 55455, USA

\*To whom correspondence should be addressed;  
E-mail: [yurikim127@gmail.com](mailto:yurikim127@gmail.com)

1 Abstract

2 We applied structural equation modeling to conduct a genome-wide association study (GWAS)  
3 of the general factor measured by a Neuroticism questionnaire administered to ~380,000 partic-  
4 ipants in the UK Biobank. We categorized significant genetic variants as acting either through  
5 the Neuroticism general factor, through other factors measured by the questionnaire, or through  
6 paths independent of any factor. Regardless of this categorization, however, significant vari-  
7 ants tend to show concordant associations with all items. Bioinformatic analysis showed that  
8 the variants associated with the Neuroticism general factor disproportionately lie near or within  
9 genes expressed in the brain. Enriched gene sets point to an underlying biological basis as-  
10 sociated with brain development, synaptic function, and behaviors in mice indicative of fear  
11 and anxiety. Psychologists have long asked whether psychometric common factors are merely  
12 a convenient summary of correlated variables or causal entities with a partial biological basis,  
13 and our results provide some support for the latter interpretation. Further research is needed  
14 to determine the extent to which causes resembling common factors operate alongside other  
15 mechanisms to generate the correlational structure of personality.

16

17 *Keywords:*

18 Neuroticism

19 genome-wide association study

20 factor analysis

21 construct validity

22 biology

## 23 **1 Introduction**

24 The biological underpinnings of personality are far from being understood. Genome-wide asso-  
25 ciation studies (GWAS) can provide insight into personality's biological etiology by indicating  
26 which genomic polymorphisms are significantly associated with a trait of interest. Most GWAS  
27 focus on single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), the most common type of genetic variation.  
28 GWAS results can be used to identify the protein-coding genes that encompass or lie near the  
29 significant SNPs. As many functions of genes and their tissue-specific patterns of expression  
30 have been experimentally elucidated or computationally predicted, researchers can then infer  
31 the biological processes that are likely to be responsible for variation in the trait. Unfortunately,  
32 GWAS of personality traits often lack sample sizes large enough to detect many significant loci  
33 (e.g., Lo et al., [2017](#)).

34 Studies focusing on Neuroticism typically have been more successful (de Moor et al., [2015](#);  
35 Luciano et al., [2018](#); Nagel et al., [2018](#); Okbay et al., [2016a](#); Smith et al., [2016](#)). Neuroticism  
36 is one of the factors in the Big Five model of personality. Individuals who score highly in Neu-  
37 roticism tend to experience diverse and relatively more intense negative emotions. The largest  
38 GWAS meta-analysis of Neuroticism to date found 136 significant independent loci (Nagel et  
39 al., [2018](#)). Neuroticism was measured using the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire–Revised  
40 Short Form (Eysenck, Eysenck, & Barrett, [1985](#)). In the present study, we further investigated  
41 the genetics and biology of Neuroticism using the summary statistics of a companion study  
42 analyzing the individual items in the questionnaire (Nagel, Watanabe, Stringer, Posthuma, &  
43 van der Sluis, [2018](#)).

44 We also examined whether the significant SNPs act in accordance with the common-factor  
45 model, which is an important tool in the psychology of individual differences. McDonald ([2003](#))  
46 suggested that a common factor might be regarded as a mental property with a non-physicalist

47 interpretation, which nevertheless can be acted upon by physical causes: “the external variable  
48 causes the common factor of the dependent variables, that is, acts to change the level of the  
49 psychological attribute common to them” (p. 221). Others have proposed that a common-factor  
50 model is merely a convenient summary of otherwise formidably high-dimensional data rather  
51 than a representation or approximation of a causal model (Cramer et al., 2012). Genetics now  
52 provides us with an unprecedented opportunity to test these ideas. If we could find candidate  
53 causal variables, such as SNPs in the human genome, that exert effects on the questionnaire  
54 items proportional to their factor loadings, then we would have powerful evidence that the  
55 common factor does indeed mediate biological causes and therefore cannot be dismissed as an  
56 artifact. That is, if the loadings of certain dependent variables on their common factor were  $\lambda_1$ ,  
57  $\lambda_2$ , and so forth, then a SNP with effects on those variables of  $\beta\lambda_1$ ,  $\beta\lambda_2$ , and so forth would  
58 strongly suggest that the SNP has an effect of  $\beta$  on *something* very much like the common  
59 factor.

60 Conversely, if the effects of the SNPs failed to accord with the factor loadings, this would  
61 suggest looking toward proposals such as “bonds” (Thomson, 1951) or network models (Cramer  
62 et al., 2012) for a superior causal model explaining the item covariation. Either way, identi-  
63 fication of the biological mechanisms mediating the effects of the SNPs can provide insight  
64 into the nature of the higher-level objects in the hierarchy of explanation—whether those ob-  
65 jects are common factors, “bonds,” networks, or something else entirely. A number of authors  
66 have previously tested a similar idea with general intelligence ( $g$ ) (Cox, Ritchie, Fawns-Ritchie,  
67 Tucker-Drob, & Deary, 2019; Kievit et al., 2012; Lee, McGue, Iacono, Michael, & Chabris,  
68 2019). Their results were consistent with brain size being one of multiple factors that affect a  
69 unitary  $g$ .

70 In this work we do not claim to resolve this issue conclusively. We claim merely that if we  
71 do find SNPs associated with all indicators to a degree corresponding roughly with their factor

72 loadings, then we have evidence that common biological causes are one kind of mechanism  
73 contributing to the covariation “accounted for” by the common-factor model.

74 To conduct this analysis of the common factor Neuroticism, we turned to Genomic SEM, a  
75 software tool for applying factor and path models to genetic data (Grotzinger et al., 2019). We  
76 classified the GWAS-identified SNPs as working either through the general factor, the group  
77 factors that happen to be present in this questionnaire, or none of the above (i.e., through “in-  
78 dependent pathways”). It is the SNPs in the latter category that might call into question the  
79 appropriateness of the common-factor model at a deeper biological level. We then used the  
80 bioinformatic software tool DEPICT (Pers et al., 2015) in an attempt to identify the tissues  
81 and biological mechanisms mediating the effects of the SNPs in these categories. In this way  
82 we not only tested the verisimilitude of the common-factor model at the genetic level, but also  
83 obtained mechanistic insight into the nature of the Neuroticism factor. Eysenck (1992) in par-  
84 ticular stressed the importance of grounding the constructs of personality models genetically  
85 and biologically in order to further their validity.

## 86 **2 Methods**

### 87 **2.1 Confirmatory factor analysis**

88 We used the software tool Genomic SEM (Grotzinger et al., 2019) to calculate the genetic co-  
89 variance matrix of the Neuroticism items in the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire–Revised  
90 Short Form, as administered to about 380,000 UK Biobank participants (Nagel, Watanabe,  
91 Stringer, Posthuma, & van der Sluis, 2018). The “genetic correlation” between two traits is  
92 the correlation between their heritable components. That is, if each trait is the sum of a genetic  
93 and environmental term, then the genetic correlation is the correlation between just the genetic  
94 terms. Genetic correlations tend to be close to their corresponding phenotypic correlations (So-  
95 dini, Kemper, Wray, & Trzaskowski, 2018), being slightly larger on average, and so should

96 yield a similar factor-analytic solution (e.g., de la Fuente, Davies, Grotzinger, Tucker-Drob, &  
97 Deary, 2021). To calculate the genetic correlation between two binary traits, estimates of the  
98 population prevalences (pass rates) are required. We used the estimates previously published  
99 (Nagel, Watanabe, Stringer, Posthuma, & van der Sluis, 2018). Note that the genetic correla-  
100 tions are calculated over essentially all “common SNPs”—polymorphic sites where both alleles  
101 exceed a threshold frequency—regardless of statistical significance.

102 We adopted the three-factor model of the Neuroticism questionnaire used in the original  
103 Genomic SEM publication by Grotzinger et al. (2019). In this model the items *mood*, *misery*,  
104 *irritable*, *fed-up*, and *lonely* are indicators of a factor that we will call Depressed Affect, after  
105 the largely similar group of items identified by hierarchical cluster analysis Nagel, Watanabe,  
106 Stringer, Posthuma, and van der Sluis, 2018. The items *nervous*, *worry*, *tense*, and *nerves*  
107 are indicators of a factor that we will call Worry, also after a similar cluster identified in the  
108 previous analysis. The items *guilt*, *hurt*, and *embarrass* are indicators of a third factor that we  
109 leave unnamed, for reasons that we will later give. We introduced a Neuroticism general factor  
110 into this model by treating the three group factors as indicators of a hierarchical second-order  
111 factor.

112 The group factors Depressed Affect and Worry do not readily map onto aspects in the BFAS  
113 (DeYoung, Quilty, & Peterson, 2007), but do arguably map onto the respective facets Depres-  
114 sion and Anxiety in the NEO (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

115 There is some evidence that participants in the UK Biobank differ in Neuroticism at least  
116 slightly from the rest of the population (Young et al., 2022). Such selection bias can distort  
117 the factor structure of the measurements (Lee, 2012; Meredith, 1993). Our conjecture is that  
118 psychological traits most affecting participation in research are those related to education and  
119 social class, and Neuroticism does not seem strongly related to such status markers (Demange  
120 et al., 2021; Poropat, 2009). When the association between personality and research participa-

121 tion has been directly studied, no significant correlations with Neuroticism have been observed  
122 (Cheng, Zamarro, & Orriens, 2020; Marcus & Schütz, 2005). Therefore we expect any impact  
123 of selection bias on our results to be modest.

## 124 **2.2 Path modeling of SNP effects**

### 125 **2.2.1 GWAS of the Neuroticism general factor**

126 We performed a GWAS of the Neuroticism general factor by specifying, in Genomic SEM, a  
127 causal path from the tested SNP to the second-order general factor (Fig. 1a). Note that we use  
128 terms such as “causal” and “effect” loosely, because a SNP may often show an association with  
129 a trait not because it is causal but only because it is correlated with one or more true causal SNPs  
130 nearby in the genome (Lee & Chow, 2013). This is the likely to be the only major source of  
131 confounding in the GWAS; within-family GWAS of the Neuroticism sum score produced results  
132 very close to those of population GWAS (Howe et al., 2022; Young et al., 2022), showing that  
133 correlation with causal polymorphisms is the predominant contribution to SNP associations  
134 (Laird & Lange, 2006; Lee, 2012). We used the reference file supplied by Genomic SEM to  
135 retain only SNPs with a minor allele frequency (MAF) exceeding .005 in the 1000 Genomes  
136 European populations. This left more than 7 million SNPs in the GWAS.

137 Because they are often highly correlated, nearby SNPs may not not represent independent  
138 association signals. We attempted to identify independently significant SNPs by using the  
139 “clump” function of the software tool PLINK (Chang et al., 2015; Purcell et al., 2007). In  
140 essence, clumping picks out local minima of the  $p$ -value sequence along the genome. We used  
141 the clump settings of the bioinformatics tool DEPICT (Pers et al., 2015), which calls PLINK  
142 to identify lead SNPs. The most important of these settings is the threshold  $p < 10^{-5}$  for the  
143 statistical significance of the association between SNP and trait. Although less stringent than  
144 the conventional GWAS significance threshold  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ , this threshold is recommended by

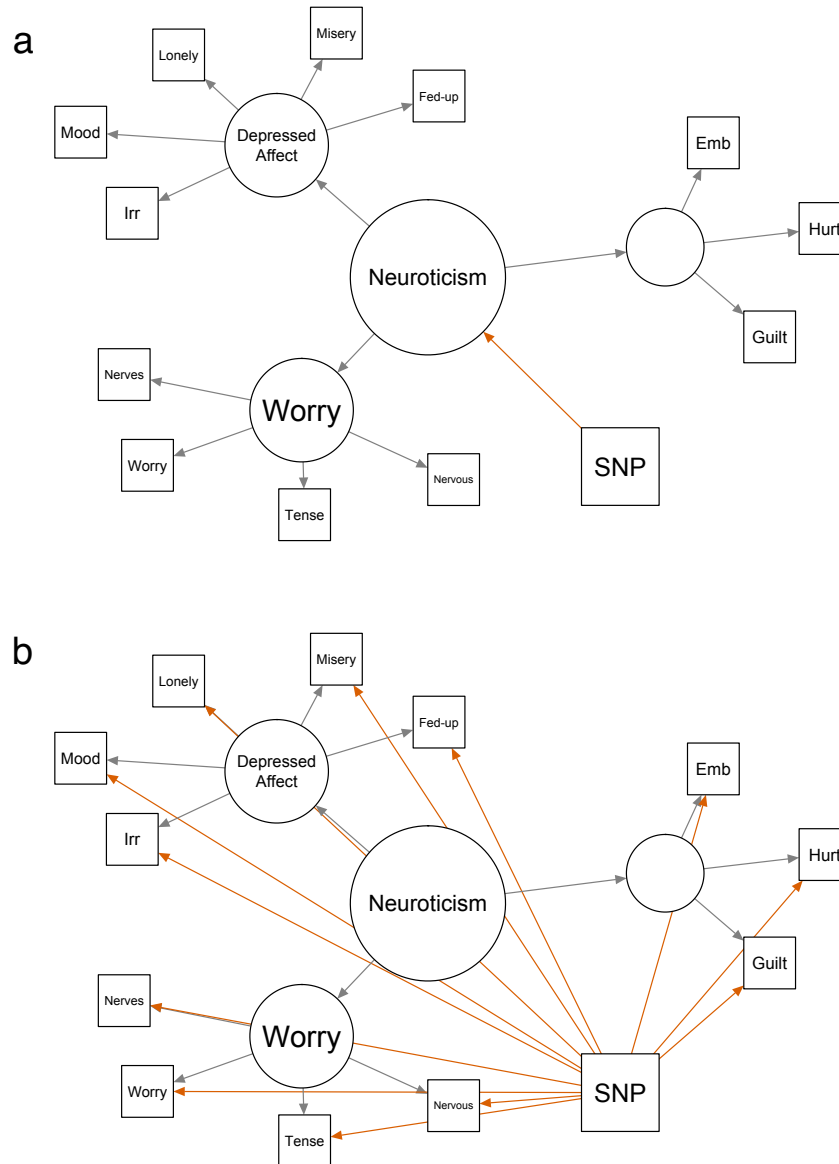


Figure 1: Path diagrams portraying how a single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) might be associated with the questionnaire items. A. The focal SNP (or a nearby highly correlated SNP) acts through the Neuroticism general factor. B. The focal SNP (or a nearby highly correlated SNP) acts on the 12 items through “independent pathways.” Not shown is a model where the SNP’s associations are with one or more of the three group factors.



145 the DEPICT developers because the biological annotation provided by their tool (see below) is  
146 tolerant of false-positive SNPs.

147 Note that the conventional GWAS threshold aspires to prevent even a single false positive  
148 from appearing among the SNPs significantly associated with a single trait. Although there may  
149 be at least one false positive among the SNPs in the range  $10^{-5} > p \geq 5 \times 10^{-8}$ , many of these  
150 SNPs will be true positives in a well-powered GWAS with many SNPs reaching  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ .

151 We subjected the candidate lead SNPs from the GWAS of the Neuroticism general factor to  
152 further tests. We ran a “group-factor” model in which the three first-order group factors were  
153 regressed on each of the candidate lead SNPs. This model thus requires three path coefficients  
154 in the place of the one required by the general-factor model. The general-factor model is nested  
155 within the group-factor model, the former being obtained from the latter by making the three  
156 SNP effects proportional to the loadings of the group factors on the general factor. We then ran  
157 an “independent-pathway” model regressing all 12 items on each candidate lead SNP (Fig. 1b).  
158 The independent-pathway model thus estimates 12 path coefficients in the place of the three  
159 required by the group-factor model; the latter is nested within the former.

160 The independent-pathway model is an operationalization of not only Thomson’s bonds  
161 model, but also the network model (Cramer et al., 2012); our Fig. 1 contrasting the common-  
162 factor and independent-pathway models is exactly parallel to Figure 7 of Cramer et al. (2012).  
163 These authors proposed that support for the independent-pathway model over the common-  
164 factor model would count as support for their network perspective. Taking the most significant  
165 SNPs in the GWAS of Neuroticism sum scores published at that time, they carried out an anal-  
166 ysis similar to ours and claimed to find some evidence for the SNPs acting on individual items  
167 rather than the general factor. The only SNP-item association of theirs that we could attempt to  
168 look up and replicate was the one between rs12509930 and *guilt*. In the UK Biobank sample  
169 of roughly 380,000 individuals, this association is not significant ( $p = .70$ ). We should not be

170 surprised by this replication failure, in light of the small sample sizes of the GWAS at that time,  
171 and the authors themselves avowed the tentative and exploratory nature of their analysis. The  
172 important point is that we can now carry out their proposal of pitting the common-factor and  
173 network models against each other to a much greater extent than was possible a decade ago.

174 To determine whether a candidate lead SNP identified in the GWAS of the Neuroticism  
175 general factor is better regarded as acting through factors or independent pathways, one can  
176 test the significance of the difference in  $\chi^2$  between more and less parsimonious models. The  
177 Genomic SEM developers call this difference  $Q_{\text{SNP}}$  ([Genomic SEM tutorial](#), accessed October  
178 2020). In one of their analyses, Grotzinger et al. (2019) used the threshold  $p > .005$  for calling  
179 a  $Q_{\text{SNP}}$  value “low.” Following the suggestion of a peer reviewer, however, we carried out model  
180 selection using Akaike weights (Wagenmakers & Farrell, 2004). The sum of the weights equals  
181 one by construction, making them analogous to probabilities. The ratio of two weights can  
182 be interpreted as the relative likelihood of the model corresponding to the numerator (Royall,  
183 1997) times a factor penalizing that model if it has more estimated parameters. Such a penalty  
184 may be desirable if a sufficient increase in sample size will lead to the rejection of any simple  
185 model regardless of its qualitatively excellent fit. We treated any model with an Akaike weight  
186 exceeding  $2/3$  as the “correct” model for a given SNP, as this means at least twice as much  
187 support as any alternative. It is possible for no model to obtain this large a weight, meaning that  
188 the SNP’s associations with the items are not clearly fit best by any of the candidate models.

189 Since calculating the model  $\chi^2$  and AIC increases the computation time of a SNP association  
190 by roughly a factor of 10, we did not calculate these for all SNPs in the GWAS but rather  
191 only the lead SNPs, once for each of the three candidate models (general factor, group factor,  
192 independent pathway). Supplementary Fig. S1 provides an overview of our pipeline for the  
193 GWAS of the Neuroticism general factor and subsequent classification of lead SNPs.

## 194 **2.2.2 GWAS of additional factors**

195 We also conducted GWAS of each group factor with nontrivial variance attributable to sources  
196 other than the Neuroticism general factor (i.e., Depressed Affect and Worry). The first step of  
197 our procedure was to conduct a GWAS with Genomic SEM, specifying directed edges from the  
198 SNP to all three group factors. We then examined each factor's association results satisfying  
199  $p < 10^{-5}$ . Of the lead SNPs identified by the clumping procedure, we discarded any already  
200 assigned to either the general-factor or independent-pathway model in the GWAS of the Neu-  
201 roticism general factor (Supplementary Fig. S1). Since we were particularly interested in SNPs  
202 associated solely with the focal group factor, we tested each remaining lead SNP for association  
203 with that factor while setting to zero the coefficients of its paths to the other two factors. We  
204 also ran the independent-pathway model for each of these lead SNPs (Fig. 1b). As before, we  
205 used an Akaike weight exceeding  $2/3$  as the criterion for assigning a lead SNP to one of three  
206 competing models (all group factors, one group factor, independent pathways). Supplementary  
207 Fig. S2 provides an overview of our pipeline for the GWAS of the group factors and subsequent  
208 classification of lead SNPs.

209 To convey the difference between this GWAS and the one outlined in Supplementary Fig. S1,  
210 we will give an example of a SNP that would be ascertained as significant in the former but not  
211 in the latter. Suppose that a SNP acts solely through the residual of a group factor. This SNP  
212 might be ascertained in the GWAS of the group factors, through a combination of a relatively  
213 large effect size and favorable sampling variation. It might not be ascertained in the GWAS of  
214 the general factor, despite this GWAS containing a follow-up step checking for association with  
215 the group factors, because it is less likely to become a lead SNP in the first step. This difference  
216 in the ascertainment scheme can be important for certain inferences, a matter to which we return  
217 in the Discussion.

218 It is worthwhile to consider whether independent-pathway SNPs enrich any tissues or bio-

219 logical pathways (see below), despite not acting through any common factors. To identify such  
220 SNPs, Grotzinger et al. (2019) conducted two GWAS, one of Neuroticism in their single-factor  
221 model and the other of independent pathways, and calculated a form of the  $Q_{\text{SNP}}$  statistic for  
222 each SNP in the GWAS. At the time of our own analysis, this procedure was beyond the com-  
223 putational resources available to us. As a compromise, we took forward to DEPICT the union  
224 of the lead SNPs from the GWAS of the common factors that qualified by virtue of their Akaike  
225 weights for the independent-pathway model.

### 226 **2.3 Biological annotation**

227 DEPICT (Data-driven Expression Prioritized Integration for Complex Traits) is a software tool  
228 that prioritizes likely causal genes affecting the trait, identifies tissues/cell types where the  
229 causal genes are highly expressed, and detects enrichment of gene sets. A “gene set” is a  
230 group of genes designated by database curators as sharing some common property, such as en-  
231 coding proteins that participate in the same biological function. A gene set shows “enrichment”  
232 if SNPs significantly associated with the trait fall in or near the set’s member genes more often  
233 than expected by chance. More complete descriptions of DEPICT can be found in previous  
234 publications (Okbay et al., 2016b; Pers et al., 2015).

235 Our path modeling with Genomic SEM placed each lead SNP into a collection (e.g., SNPs  
236 associated with the Neuroticism general factor). Each such collection of SNPs was supplied as  
237 input to DEPICT (<https://github.com/perslab/DEPICT>, release 194). DEPICT takes lead SNPs  
238 and merges them into loci potentially encompassing more than one lead SNP according to  
239 certain criteria (Pers et al., 2015). The genes overlapping these loci are the basis of the DEPICT  
240 analysis.

241 To run DEPICT, we edited and then executed the template configuration file. We left in place  
242 all default parameter values except those affecting how the results are printed in the output

243 files. Many tissues/cell types and gene sets in the DEPICT inventory are in fact duplicates  
244 despite having different identifiers; we excluded duplicates using the criteria set out by Lee et  
245 al. (2018). We adopted the developer-recommended definition of statistical significance at the  
246 level of genes, tissues/cell types, and gene sets as a false discovery rate (FDR) below .05.

247 For a given trait and sample size, DEPICT will identify more gene sets as significantly en-  
248 riched than other tools that have been used in some previous GWAS of Neuroticism (e.g., Nagel  
249 et al., 2018). One might argue that the statistical power of DEPICT cannot be compared to  
250 that of other methods because they are testing different hypotheses. To be specific, whereas  
251 other methods rely on the original discrete version of a given gene set, DEPICT uses a “re-  
252 constituted” version of that gene set with respect to which all genes are given a continuous  
253 membership score based on their co-expression with members of the original all-or-nothing  
254 gene set. Stratified LDSC is a standard method testing enrichment of discrete sets (Finucane  
255 et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2019), and one study found that the two methods give similar results  
256 when applied to years of education (Lee et al., 2018). If the results of this study can be gener-  
257 alized, then the greater number of significant results yielded by DEPICT correspond to genuine  
258 biological insight. Another convenient feature of DEPICT in our application is that its input can  
259 be limited to a subset of SNPs. A method like stratified LDSC, which relies on genome-wide  
260 summary statistics, is not straightforward to adapt if some SNPs in a GWAS of a common factor  
261 must be dropped for better fitting a more complex model (Fig. 1).

262 The reconstitution of the gene sets was motivated by a desire to compensate for the lim-  
263 itations of existing bioinformatic databases, which suffer from both false positives and false  
264 negatives. The reader can consult Supplementary Table 28 of Lee et al. (2018) for a demon-  
265 stration of the reconstitution procedure’s success in empowering detection of enrichment only  
266 in sets appropriate to the studied trait. The reconstitution procedure has also proven fruitful in  
267 other applications (Cvejic et al., 2013; Fehrmann et al., 2015).

## 268 **2.4 Genetic correlations**

269 Genomic SEM calls LD Score regression (LDSC) to calculate genetic correlations, and this  
270 method is known to be unbiased under fairly general conditions (Bulik-Sullivan et al., 2015;  
271 Lee, McGue, Iacono, & Chow, 2018).

272 A finding of genetic correlations similar to those calculated in previous studies of Neuroti-  
273 cism observed scores would provide an affirmative quality-control check of our approach based  
274 on structural equation modeling. It would also support the validity of the common assumption  
275 that a correlation with an observed sum score primarily reflects a correlation with the scale's  
276 general factor. Supplementary Fig. S3 and Supplementary Table S1 present the results.

## 277 **2.5 Departures from the analysis of Grotzinger et al. (2019)**

278 Our work extends Grotzinger et al. (2019), in a manner that we now explain.

279 Supplementary Figure 4 of Grotzinger et al. shows what was done in that paper. The authors  
280 performed a GWAS specifying a single Neuroticism factor measured by all items. They also  
281 performed an independent-pathways GWAS and identified 69 SNPs fitting the independent-  
282 pathways model better than one where the SNP acts through the single factor, at the significance  
283 threshold  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ . They then examined whether these 69 SNPs would continue to fit the  
284 independent-pathways model better if the more parsimonious model was one where the SNP  
285 acts through two or three factors.

286 The authors found that for each additional factor posited in the model, there was a reduction  
287 in the number of SNPs showing a significantly better fit to the independent-pathways model.  
288 This pattern by itself strongly suggests that a model of a SNP acting through common factors  
289 rather than independent pathways will tend to fit better as the fit of the factor model itself  
290 improves. Note that the SRMR dropped from .109 to .057 as the number of factors in the model  
291 went from one to three. In our view an SRMR exceeding .1 is indicative of a poor fit, which we

292 confirmed by finding several large elements in the residual correlation matrix resulting from a  
293 one-factor model.

294 It is therefore clear that any attempt to pit common- and independent-pathway models  
295 against each other must take into account the multidimensional basis of the factor space. This  
296 was not the aim of Grotzinger et al.; that is, they did not specify a general factor (whether  
297 in a hierarchical or bifactor model) in addition to the group factors in their two- and three-  
298 factor models. The authors mentioned performing a GWAS of the two correlated factors and of  
299 the three correlated factors, but to our knowledge have not detailed or deposited these results  
300 anywhere. They did not perform biological annotation of their multiple-factor results. Even  
301 their biological annotation of their one-factor results was somewhat limited because they only  
302 provided  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$  lead SNPs as input to DEPICT, whereas the developers of this tool  
303 recommend a more liberal threshold of  $p < 10^{-5}$ . As a result Grotzinger et al. found only one  
304 gene set to be significantly enriched.

305 In summary, we included a second-order general factor in our model of three first-order  
306 factors and followed up a GWAS based on this model with the bioinformatic tool DEPICT. The  
307 latter tool was set to the developer-recommended parameter values.

## 308 **3 Results**

### 309 **3.1 Factor analysis of the Neuroticism questionnaire**

310 We replicated the indices reported by Grotzinger et al. (2019) indicating a good fit of a model  
311 with three group factors (CFI = .969, SRMR = .054). We therefore regarded the three-factor  
312 model as satisfactory for purposes of SNP-level path modeling. The loading of the group factor  
313 defined by *guilt*, *hurt*, and *embarrass* on the Neuroticism general factor was estimated to be  
314 nearly one (.97) (Supplementary Table S2). These items seem to have very little genetic variance  
315 shared in common other than what is attributable to Neuroticism. For this reason we did not

316 conduct a GWAS of this factor when trying to identify SNPs associated with group factors.

### 317 **3.2 GWAS of the Neuroticism general factor**

318 Our GWAS of the Neuroticism general factor identified 394 lead SNPs satisfying  $p < 10^{-5}$ , in  
319 296 distinct DEPICT-defined loci. We examined these SNPs for an improvement in model fit  
320 upon increasing the number of paths. Thirty-five of the 394 SNPs were characterized by small  
321 negative values of the  $Q_{\text{SNP}}$  statistic when comparing the fit of the model where the SNP acts on  
322 the general factor (Fig. 1a) to that of the model where the SNP acts on the three group factors.  
323 Such negative values can arise as a result of a numerical problem in this version of Genomic  
324 SEM (October 2020) when the two models under comparison are distinguished by few degrees  
325 of freedom, and they indicate that the fit of the data to the more restrictive model is extremely  
326 good (A. Grotzinger, personal communication). Of the 394 lead SNPs, 139 qualified by virtue  
327 of their Akaike weights for the general-factor model, 81 for the group-factor model, and 63 for  
328 the independent-pathway model. One hundred eleven SNPs had no Akaike weight greater than  
329  $2/3$ , precluding for now their assignment to any model. Of these 111 indeterminate SNPs, a  
330 plurality of 54 attained their largest Akaike weight in the general-factor model.

331 Supplementary Table S3 lists the 139 general-factor lead SNPs. Nineteen of these SNPs  
332 attained the strict genome-wide significance level  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ , indicating reasonable statistical  
333 power in this GWAS. Information about all significant SNPs regardless of classification can be  
334 found in the Supplementary Data.

335 It is of interest to examine how the cutoffs defined by Akaike weights correspond to  $Q_{\text{SNP}}$   
336 statistics. Upon treating any SNP with a negative  $Q_{\text{SNP}}$  statistic as having a  $p$  value of one, we  
337 found that the 139 SNPs assigned by their Akaike weights to the general-factor model were all  
338 characterized by  $p > .28$  (median  $p = .68$ ) with respect to the null hypothesis of the general-  
339 factor model fitting better than the group-factor model. If we take the  $p < .05$  criterion as



340 standard, then our use of Akaike weights to define general-factor SNPs seems conservative.  
341 In contrast, for the 63 SNPs qualifying for the independent-pathway model, the  $Q_{\text{SNP}}$   $p$  values  
342 with respect to the null hypothesis of the group-factor model fitting better than the independent-  
343 pathway model all met  $p < .02$  (median  $p = .001$ ).

### 344 **Significant tissues/cell types and gene sets**

345 The output of DEPICT provides insight into the biology associated with the SNPs appearing  
346 to act through the Neuroticism general factor. Fig. 2 shows that there are 13 tissues/cell types  
347 where genes near the general-factor SNPs are significantly expressed. All of these without  
348 exception have the MeSH second-level term *central nervous system*. The most significant result  
349 is *parahippocampal gyrus* ( $p = 1.4 \times 10^{-4}$ ). The Neuroticism general factor shows the clear  
350 signature of a behavioral trait mediated by the brain.

351 More revealing than these tissue-level results are the significantly enriched gene sets. There  
352 are 21 such sets, and Table 1 shows the 6 of these that are not protein-protein interaction (PPI)  
353 subnetworks. *Abnormal cued conditioning behavior* ( $p = 6 \times 10^{-6}$ ), *increased anxiety-related*  
354 *response* ( $p = 8.9 \times 10^{-5}$ ), and *decreased exploration in new environment* ( $p = 9.1 \times 10^{-5}$ )  
355 are all taken from the Mouse Genome Informatics database and defined by fearful and anxious  
356 behavior when their member genes are perturbed in mice.

### 357 **3.3 GWAS of the group factors**

358 We now report our attempts to find SNPs associated with the group factor Depressed Affect.  
359 Recall that we conducted a GWAS with Genomic SEM, based on a model sending directed  
360 edges from the SNP to all three group factors. After discarding SNPs identified as general-factor  
361 or independent-pathway SNPs in previous analyses, we ended up with 317 lead SNPs. (Of these  
362 317, 53 reached the strict genome-wide significance threshold  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ .) Interestingly,

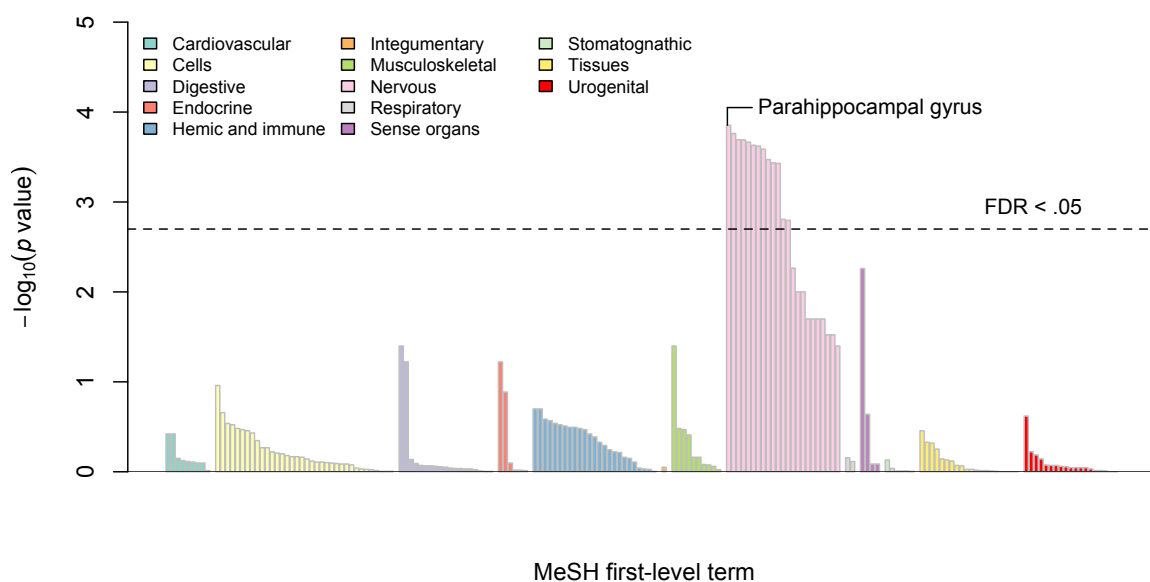


Figure 2: Tissues or cell types with significant expression of genes in the vicinity of SNPs associated with the Neuroticism general factor (relative to genes in random sets of loci). The tissues are arranged along the  $x$ -axis by Medical Subject Heading (MeSH) first-level term. The  $y$ -axis represents statistical significance on a  $-\log_{10}$  scale. The height of the dashed horizontal line corresponds to the  $p$  value yielding  $FDR < .05$ . See Supplementary Table S4 for complete results.

Table 1: Reconstituted gene sets significantly enriched by lead SNPs for the Neuroticism general factor.

Gene set	Description
Site of polarized growth	Any part of a cell where anisotropic growth occurs.
Growth cone	The migrating tip of a growing neuron projection.
<b>Abnormal cued conditioning behavior</b>	Anomaly in the ability of an animal to learn associations between aversive and neutral stimuli.
<b>Impaired coordination</b>	Reduced ability to execute integrated movements.
Abnormal neuron physiology	Any functional anomaly of the cells that receive, conduct, and transmit nervous impulses.
Increased anxiety-related response	Animals exhibit more responses thought to be indicative of anxiety in behavioral tests.
<b>Decreased exploration in new environment</b>	Animals spend less time investigating a new location.

Non-PPI reconstituted gene sets satisfying  $FDR < 0.05$ . See Supplementary Table S5 for all significant results of the DEPICT gene-set analysis and Supplementary Table S6 for the specific genes in the DEPICT-defined loci. The descriptions of the gene sets are adapted from [Gene Ontology](#) and [Mouse Genome Informatics](#) (accessed December 2020). Gene sets in bold also satisfy  $FDR < .05$  for enrichment by lead SNPs categorized as acting through independent pathways.

363 only 7 of the 317 lead SNPs were selected by the criterion of an Akaike weight greater than  
364  $2/3$  as having no associations with the other two group factors, and none of these 7 reached the  
365 stringent genome-wide significance threshold  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ . It seems there are comparatively  
366 few SNPs associated with the residual of Depressed Affect. In contrast, 184 SNPs qualified by  
367 virtue of their Akaike weights to the group-factor model (nonzero effects on all three factors),  
368 64 for the independent-pathway model, and 62 for none of the above. Our finding of few  
369 SNPs specifically associated with Depressed Affect does not seem to be the result of an overly  
370 conservative criterion. With respect to the nested hypotheses of Depressed Affect only and the  
371 group-factor model, more than 85 percent of the lead SNPs showed a  $Q_{\text{SNP}}$   $p$  value less than  
372 .05.

373 The 184 SNPs qualifying for the group-factor model showed highly concordant effects on  
374 the three factors. In other words, despite being deemed a poor fit to the general-factor model,  
375 a SNP's association with one factor was highly predictive of its associations with the two oth-  
376 ers. The sign concordance between SNP effects on Depressed Affect and Worry was 100 per-  
377 cent. Each sign concordance between a major group factor and the third factor (with little  
378 non-Neuroticism variance) was 183/184.

379 After running the analogous procedure, we identified 286 lead SNPs associated with Worry.  
380 (Of these 286, 14 reached  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ .) Only 4 of the 286 lead SNPs were associated solely  
381 with the residual group factor of Worry, none of which attained  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ . Of the remaining  
382 SNPs, 184 qualified by virtue of their Akaike weights for the group-factor model, 54 for the  
383 independent-pathway model, and 43 for none of the above. The sign concordances were again  
384 either 100 percent or short of perfect by one SNP.

385 Supplementary Table S7 lists the 11 total SNPs associated with the residual group factors.  
386 Such a small number of lead SNPs, particularly when few reach strict genome-wide signifi-  
387 cance, leads to low statistical power with DEPICT (Turley et al., 2018). Therefore we did not

388 conduct biological annotation of these 11 SNPs.

389 The Supplementary Data contain information about all of the SNPs used in these analyses.

### 390 **3.4 Independent-pathway SNPs**

391 Our analyses of the common factors assigned a total of 181 lead SNPs to the independent-  
392 pathway model (Supplementary Table S8), and we proceeded to annotate these. The signifi-  
393 cantly enriched tissues/cell types are, as expected, those of the nervous system (Supplementary  
394 Table S9).

395 There are 27 significantly enriched gene sets (Supplementary Table S10). As indicated  
396 in Table 1, many are shared with the Neuroticism general factor (*abnormal cued condition-*  
397 *ing behavior, impaired coordination, decreased exploration in new environment*). One of the  
398 independent-pathway gene sets, *abnormal contextual conditioning behavior*, is also defined by  
399 the learning of fear and caution. The Mouse Genome Informatics database describes the rele-  
400 vant phenotype as an “anomaly in the ability of an animal to learn and remember an association  
401 between an aversive experience . . . and the neutral, unchanging environment” (accessed March  
402 2023).

403 The other significant results point to the early development of the brain (e.g., *central nervous*  
404 *system neuron axonogenesis*) and synaptic activity in the behaving organism (e.g., *glutamater-*  
405 *gic synaptic transmission*).

406 The SNPs were grouped into 112 loci that in turn overlapped 324 genes (Supplementary  
407 Table S11). Thirty of these 324 genes were also among the 228 genes overlapping the loci en-  
408 compassing the lead SNPs for the Neuroticism general factor. This modest intersection suggests  
409 that our inferences of enrichment by these two collections of SNPs are mostly independent.

410 The similarity of the biology implicated by general-factor and independent-pathway SNPs  
411 has two possible interpretations. First, the general factor and non-factor influences on the ques-

412 tionnaire items may tend to act through similar biological mechanisms. Second, as suggested  
413 by the concordance of effect signs observed in the GWAS of the group factors, it may be that  
414 the general factor is in fact one of several mechanisms affected by an independent-pathway  
415 SNP, the other mechanisms being responsible for the departures from the strict predictions of  
416 the general-factor model (Fig. 1a). To investigate the latter possibility, we calculated sign con-  
417 cordances of the SNP effects on the 12 items. Of the 181 SNPs, 117 showed sign-concordant  
418 effects on all 12 items, 28 showed a deviant sign with respect to only one item, 15 showed  
419 deviant signs with respect to two items, 11 showed deviant signs with respect to three items,  
420 and 10 showed deviant signs with respect to four items. The overall impression is that many  
421 of these SNPs do not depart too radically from the general-factor model, despite a low Akaike  
422 weight for the precise predictions of that model.

423 The Supplementary Data contain information about all of the SNPs used in these analyses.

## 424 **4 Discussion**

425 The common-factor model need not be interpreted as a causal account of the correlations be-  
426 tween indicators in order to be scientifically and practically useful (Ashton & Lee, 2005; Mc-  
427 Donald, 1996, 2003). Nevertheless the extent to which factors do approximate underlying  
428 causes is a matter worthy of investigation.

429 Our results suggest that the factor model of the Neuroticism domain is not just a convenient  
430 summary of the correlations between items, but indeed a reasonable approximation to some  
431 part of the underlying causal system. For instance, Neuroticism does not appear to be explained  
432 entirely by something like the bonds model (Thomson, 1951), which proposes the existence  
433 of many distinct causal elements, no single one of which affects all items in the domain. In  
434 Thomson's model, items may overlap in what bonds affect them, and a greater overlap produces  
435 a greater correlation. A resulting positive correlation between each pair of items then gives the

436 appearance of a single causal variable affecting all items when in fact there is no such variable.  
437 Bartholomew, Deary, and Lawn (2009) suggested that polymorphic sites in the human genome  
438 might turn out to be the substantiation of the abstract bonds in Thomson's model, but our results  
439 show that many SNPs identified in a GWAS of a Neuroticism questionnaire are in fact associated  
440 with all items as if mediated by the common factors.

441 Even upon rejecting a simpler model of mediation, we still found evidence for the approxi-  
442 mate correctness of such a model. SNPs ascertained through a GWAS of the three group factors  
443 were found to show sign-concordant effects on those factors. When combined with our fail-  
444 ure to discover any strictly genome-wide significant SNPs acting solely through either residual  
445 group factor (Supplementary Table S7), this pattern leads to the hypothesis that the factors  
446 present in this questionnaire arise not from dedicated genetic substrates, but rather mainly from  
447 variants that happen to act through both the general factor and additional mechanisms that—for  
448 whatever reason—cannot be perturbed on their own. In summary, we have genetic evidence  
449 supporting the verisimilitude of the Neuroticism general factor at a deep biological level. This  
450 evidence weighs against network theories that deny the existence of broad factors influencing  
451 many specific traits (Cramer et al., 2012), adding specific neurobiological reasons to other sta-  
452 tistical and theoretical reasons to reject such models as sufficient explanations of personality  
453 structure (DeYoung & Krueger, 2018).

454 We concede that our study cannot be absolutely definitive on this point. The lead SNPs  
455 account for a small part of the genetic variance in the Neuroticism questionnaire, and gener-  
456 alization from the lead SNPs to the rest of the human genome must wait on further increases  
457 in the GWAS sample size. The filtering of SNPs by statistical significance in a GWAS at the  
458 latent level may also induce an ascertainment bias that exaggerates the evidence for the approx-  
459 imate validity of the factor model. That is, SNPs departing very markedly from concordance  
460 of associations with all of the questionnaire items may be less likely to reach the threshold of

461 statistical significance in a GWAS of the common factor. Future research may attend to this  
462 issue of ascertainment bias more carefully. Again, however, it is telling that most of the SNPs  
463 ascertained solely for significant association with just one group factor showed evidence of con-  
464 cordant association with the two others as well. Regardless of what we have failed to ascertain,  
465 it is clear that there are a sizable number of polymorphic sites across the genome that bear a  
466 striking resemblance to causes of the Neuroticism general factor.

467 Previous studies have used multivariate twin modeling to pursue aims similar to our own.  
468 For example, Heath, Eaves, and Martin (1989) showed that data from 2,903 pairs of like-sex  
469 twins were consistent with some personality scales being influenced by a general heritable fac-  
470 tor. In their study this was true of Extraversion and Neuroticism, but not the third EPQ trait of  
471 Psychoticism. This work may have contributed to the decline in support for the construct va-  
472 lidity of Psychoticism, showing the potential impact of genetic methods on personality theory.  
473 Even the fit of genetic correlations to a single factor, however, does not rule out a network or  
474 Thomson-like model. The power of the genomic approach lies in subjecting a factor model to  
475 an even more precise and hence riskier quantitative test of how directly measurable objects are  
476 related to the trait indicators (Meehl, 1978).

477 We applied DEPICT in order to gain some clues to the biological processes mediating the  
478 effects of the general-factor SNPs on Neuroticism. We found that these SNPs disproportionately  
479 fall within or near genes designated as high-ranking members of gene sets defined by responses  
480 to aversive or novel stimuli (Table 1). This result is remarkably fitting for the personality trait of  
481 Neuroticism. Such gene sets became significantly enriched in GWAS of other behavioral traits  
482 as their sample sizes grew (e.g., Lee et al., 2018), but it is perhaps meaningful that they are  
483 among the first to become significantly enriched in the GWAS of a trait defined by a tendency  
484 to experience fear and anxiety. Furthermore, the apparent tendency of these genes to be highly  
485 expressed in the parahippocampal gyrus (Fig. 2) is consistent with research and theory linking



486 Neuroticism to the septo-hippocampal system (Allen & DeYoung, 2017; Gray & McNaughton,  
487 2000; Shackman et al., 2016).

488 By and large, our biological-annotation results are consistent with previous analyses. For  
489 example, the top tissue/cell types in a DEPICT analysis of a one-factor model estimated with  
490 Genomic SEM was *parahippocampal gyrus* (Grotzinger et al., 2019). Our results are also  
491 broadly consistent with those obtained with a different software tool, MAGMA (de Leeuw,  
492 Mooij, Heskes, & Posthuma, 2015), in a GWAS of the questionnaire sum score (Nagel et al.,  
493 2018). The three independently significant gene sets in this study were *neurogenesis*, *behavioral*  
494 *response to cocaine*, and *axon part*. Biological annotation apparently tends to yield similar  
495 results regardless of whether it is applied to the general factor or to the observed sum score  
496 (or a misspecified single factor). Perhaps such consistency is to be expected in light of our  
497 evidence for the existence, in some sense other than the psychometric one, of a general factor.  
498 A sum score will typically reflect a general factor indicated by all items more than any other  
499 source of variance. Indeed, on the basis of the phenotypic correlations between items reported  
500 by Nagel, Watanabe, Stringer, Posthuma, and van der Sluis (2018), we calculated McDonald's  
501  $\omega_H$  (Revelle & Condon, 2019) of the EPQ Neuroticism scale to be 0.64.

502 We have no explanation for the meager results obtained from the GWAS of the residual  
503 group factors. It may be advisable in future studies to try personality models positing group  
504 factors other than those emerging from the EPQ (e.g., DeYoung, Quilty, & Peterson, 2007). A  
505 diversity of measurement approaches may be difficult to implement in biobank studies where  
506 any given research goal is incidental, but psychologists involved in such projects should take  
507 advantage of whatever opportunities are offered.

## 508 **5 Conclusion**

509 We used structural equation modeling to carry out a GWAS of the Neuroticism general factor  
510 and identified 19 lead SNPs satisfying  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ . Even if deemed not to satisfy the predic-  
511 tions entailed by the hypothesis of acting solely through the general factor, hundreds of other  
512 SNPs attaining or approaching statistical significance in various analyses showed mostly sign-  
513 concordant effects on the questionnaire items. These findings do not settle the issue of the causal  
514 structure underlying the correlations between personality items. All we claim is that when we  
515 look for evidence of genetic effects on a causal intermediary very similar to the general factor  
516 of Neuroticism, such evidence can be found. The SNPs acting through the general factor are  
517 found in or near genes highly expressed in the brain, and their pattern of gene-set enrichment is  
518 suggestive of neural development and synaptic function, particularly as these processes affect  
519 the learning of fear and caution in response to aversive stimuli.

## 520 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

521 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or finan-  
522 cial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

## 523 **Data Availability**

524 The Supplementary Data archive contains R code and several files containing limited portions  
525 of the Genomic SEM output. The original item-level GWAS summary statistics are available  
526 at [https://ctg.cnr.nl/software/summary\\_statistics](https://ctg.cnr.nl/software/summary_statistics). The GWAS summary statistics generated for  
527 this paper are available at XXX.

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