

RUNNING TITLE: EA polygenic score, SES, and depression.

Educational Attainment Polygenic Score is Associated with Depressive Symptoms via Socioeconomic Status: A Gene-Environment-Trait Correlation

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Abstract

Recently, I suggested that the environment can act as a mediator of genetic influences in a process termed Gene-Environment-Trait correlations (rGET). I further hypothesized that socioeconomic status (SES) may mediate the negative genetic correlation found between cognitive ability and depression. This hypothesis was based on previous research showing that SES is associated with both cognitive ability and depression. Thus, in the current study I aimed to test for an rGET in which genetic influences on cognitive ability were associated with depressive symptoms via SES. Educational attainment (EA) was used as a proxy for cognitive ability, due to the high genetic correlation between the phenotypes and the highly powerful genome-wide association study (GWAS) available for EA. Summary statistics from the EA GWAS were utilized to calculate EA polygenic scores, and mediation analyses were performed to examine if the EA polygenic scores predicted depressive symptoms via SES. Two independent samples were used for the analyses: 522 non-Hispanic Caucasian university students from the Duke Neurogenetics Study (DNS; 277 women, mean age 19.78 ± 1.24 years) and 5,243 white British volunteers (2,669 women, mean age 62.30 ± 7.41 years) from the UK biobank (UKB). Results indicated a significant mediation in both samples, wherein higher EA polygenic scores predicted higher SES, which in turn predicted lower depressive symptoms. Current findings suggest that some of the genetic correlates of depression represent environmental influences and consequently that public policy aiming to reduce socioeconomic inequalities may not only relieve the individual and societal burden of depression, but also decrease the genetic risk for depression.

Keywords: Depression; Socioeconomic status (SES); Educational attainment (EA); Gene-environment-trait correlation (rGET); Gene-environment-correlation (rGE); polygenic score.

1 Depression is a major cause of disability. It has a global prevalence of around 4.7%
2 (Ferrari et al., 2013), and it is predicted to become one of the three leading causes of
3 illness by 2030 (Mathers & Loncar, 2006). Interestingly, low cognitive ability in
4 childhood has been shown to predict high levels of depression (e.g., Hung et al., 2016;
5 Leech, Larkby, Day, & Day, 2006). Educational attainment (EA), which is often used
6 as a proxy for cognitive ability, has been also linked to depression, so that the
7 probability of experiencing depression decreases for additional years of education
8 (Crespo, López-Noval, & Mira, 2014). Recent studies have found negative genetic
9 associations between depression and both cognitive ability (Savage et al., 2018) and
10 EA (Wray et al., 2018). Furthermore, by employing a genetically informed analysis
11 (Mendelian randomization), both low cognitive ability and low EA were marked as
12 risk factors for depression (Davies et al., 2019; Wray et al., 2018). Notably, how the
13 genetic correlation between cognitive ability and depression is mediated has not been
14 established.

15 Recently, I suggested that socioeconomic status may act as a mediator of the
16 genetic link between cognitive ability and depression (Avinun, 2020). More generally,
17 I hypothesized that the environment may mediate genetic correlations between two
18 different phenotypes in a process termed gene-environment-trait correlations (Avinun,
19 2020). This hypothesis stemmed from accumulating research showing passive, active,
20 and evocative processes that lead to correlations between genetic variations and
21 environmental measures, such as parenting and stressful life events (Avinun & Knafo,
22 2014; Kendler & Baker, 2007). These passive, active, and evocative processes, known
23 as gene-environment correlations (Plomin, DeFries, & Loehlin, 1977; Scarr &
24 McCartney, 1983), occur due to genetically influenced characteristics that shape the
25 individual's environment. As the environment can in turn substantially affect various

26 outcomes, it may act as a mediator of genetic effects and contribute to the widespread
27 genetic correlations observed between numerous phenotypes (Bulik-Sullivan et al.,
28 2015), including between depression and both cognitive ability and EA (Savage et al.,
29 2018; Wray et al., 2018). Identifying gene-environment-depression correlations can
30 provide modifiable targets for public policy and also demonstrate the importance of
31 context in the discovery of the genetic variants that influence depression.

32 SES, which can be defined as an individual's or group's position within a social
33 hierarchy that is determined by factors such as education, occupation, income, and
34 wealth (Calixto & Anaya, 2014), has been shown to be genetically influenced (Hill et
35 al., 2016; Marioni et al., 2014). In other words, genetically influenced traits affect an
36 individual's SES. One of these traits, as has been found in a meta-analysis of
37 longitudinal studies, is cognitive ability (Strenze, 2007), which is highly heritable
38 (Plomin & Deary, 2015). SES has been associated with various physiological and
39 mental disorders (e.g., Calixto & Anaya, 2014; Galobardes, Lynch, & Davey Smith,
40 2004; Werner, Malaspina, & Rabinowitz, 2007), including depression (Everson,
41 Maty, Lynch, & Kaplan, 2002), and a genetic correlation between SES and depression
42 has been also observed (Hill et al., 2016).

43 Based on the above I set out to test for a gene-environment-trait correlation in
44 which SES mediates an association between a cognitive ability polygenic score and
45 depression. As findings of a recent genome wide association study (GWAS) of
46 cognitive ability were only able to explain 5.2% of the variance in this phenotype, I
47 chose to use the GWAS of EA (Lee et al., 2018), which included 1.1 million
48 European-descent participants, and produced a polygenic score that explained ~11%
49 of the variance in EA. The use of EA as a proxy for cognitive ability due to their high
50 phenotypic and genetic correlation (a single nucleotide polymorphism-based genetic

51 correlation of .95; Marioni et al., 2014), has been previously done to increase
52 statistical power (e.g., Hill et al., 2019). Two independent samples were used: a
53 sample of 522 non-Hispanic Caucasian university students from the Duke
54 Neurogenetics Study and a sample of 5,243 adult white British volunteers from the
55 UK Biobank (UKB). Because the GWAS included data from the UKB and this may
56 bias the results, even though a different outcome is tested, in the analyses of the UKB
57 data EA polygenic scores that were based on summary statistics from a GWAS that
58 did not include the UKB as a discovery sample, were used (obtained from Dr. Aysu
59 Okbay, who is one of the authors of the original GWAS).

60

61

Materials and Methods

Participants

62
63 The Duke Neurogenetics Study (DNS) sample consisted of 522 self-reported non-
64 Hispanic Caucasian participants (277 women, mean age 19.78 ± 1.24 years) who were
65 not related and for whom there was complete data on genotypes, SES, depressive
66 symptoms, and all covariates. Participants were recruited through posted flyers on the
67 Duke University campus and through a Duke University listserv. All procedures were
68 approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Duke University Medical Center,
69 and participants provided informed consent before study initiation. All participants
70 were free of the following study exclusions: 1) medical diagnoses of cancer, stroke,
71 diabetes requiring insulin treatment, chronic kidney or liver disease, or lifetime
72 history of psychotic symptoms; 2) use of psychotropic, glucocorticoid, or
73 hypolipidemic medication; and 3) conditions affecting cerebral blood flow and
74 metabolism (e.g., hypertension).

75 The UKB sample consisted of 5,243 white British volunteers (2,669 women,
76 mean age 62.30 ± 7.41 years), who participated in the UKB's first assessment and the
77 imaging wave, completed an online mental health questionnaire (Davis et al., 2018),
78 and had complete genotype, SES, depressive symptoms and covariate data. The UKB
79 (www.ukbiobank.ac.uk; Sudlow et al., 2015) includes over 500,000 participants,
80 between the ages of 40 and 69 years, who were recruited within the UK between 2006
81 and 2010. The UKB study was approved by the National Health Service Research
82 Ethics Service (reference: 11/NW/0382), and current analyses were conducted under
83 UKB application 28174 (because the application also included a request for
84 neuroimaging data, the sample used in this study is limited to individuals who
85 participated in the imaging wave).

86

87 *Ancestry*

88 Because self-reported race and ethnicity are not always an accurate reflection of
89 genetic ancestry, an analysis of identity by state of whole-genome SNPs in the DNS
90 was performed in PLINK v1.9 (Purcell et al., 2007). Before running the
91 multidimensional scaling (MDS) components analysis, SNPs were pruned for high
92 LD ($r^2 > 0.1$), and the following were removed: C/G and A/T SNPs, SNPs with a
93 missing rate $> .05$ or a minor allele frequency $< .01$, SNPs that did not pass the Hardy-
94 Weinberg equilibrium test ($p < 1e-6$), sex chromosomes, and regions with long range
95 LD (the MHC and 23 additional regions; Price et al., 2008). The first two MDS
96 components computed for the non-Hispanic Caucasian subgroup, as determined by
97 both self-reports and the MDS components of the entire mixed race/ethnicity DNS
98 sample, were used as covariates in analyses of data from the DNS. The decision to use
99 only the first two MDS components was based on an examination of a scree plot of

100 eigenvalues, which became very similar after the second MDS component (additional
101 information and plots are available at
102 <https://www.haririlab.com/methods/genetics.html>).

103 For analyses of data from the UKB, only those who were ‘white British’ based
104 on both self-identification and a genetic principal components analysis were included.
105 Additionally, the first 10 principal components received from the UKB's data
106 repository (unique data identifiers: 22009-0.1-22009-0.10) were included as
107 covariates as previously done (e.g., Avinun & Hariri, 2019; Whalley et al., 2016).
108 Further details on the computation of the principal components can be found
109 elsewhere ([http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/wp-](http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/UKBiobank_genotyping_QC_documentation-web.pdf)
110 [content/uploads/2014/04/UKBiobank_genotyping_QC_documentation-web.pdf](http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/UKBiobank_genotyping_QC_documentation-web.pdf)).

111

112 *Socioeconomic status*

113 In the DNS, SES was assessed using the "social ladder" instrument (Adler, Epel,
114 Castellazzo, & Ickovics, 2000), which asks participants to rank themselves relative to
115 other people in the United States (or their origin country) on a scale from 0–10, with
116 people who are best off in terms of money, education, and respected jobs, at the top
117 (10) and people who are worst off at the bottom (0). The participants were also asked
118 to rate their parents' SES during their childhood and adolescence. The correlation
119 between the participants' SES and their mothers' SES was .50, and the correlation
120 between the participants' SES and their fathers' SES was .49. Only the participants
121 own SES was used.

122 In the UKB, SES was assessed based on the report of average household income
123 before tax, coded as: 1 - Less than 18,000; 2 - 18,000 to 31,000; 3 - 31,000 to 52,000;
124 4 - 52,000 to 100,000; and 5 - Greater than 100,000. The reports made during the first

125 assessment (i.e., before the evaluation of depressive symptoms), between 2006 and
126 2010, were used.

127

128 *Depressive symptoms*

129 In the DNS, the 20-item Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D)
130 was used to assess depressive symptoms in the past week (Radloff, 1977). All items
131 were summed to create a total depressive symptoms score.

132 In the UKB, the Patient Health Questionnaire 9-question version (PHQ-9) was
133 used to assess depressive symptoms in the past 2 weeks (Kroenke, Spitzer, &
134 Williams, 2001). The participants answered these questions during a follow-up
135 between 2016 and 2017. All items were summed to create a total depressive
136 symptoms score.

137

138 *Genotyping*

139 In the DNS, DNA was isolated from saliva using Oragene DNA self-collection kits
140 (DNA Genotek) customized for 23andMe (www.23andme.com). DNA extraction and
141 genotyping were performed through 23andMe by the National Genetics Institute
142 (NGI), a CLIA-certified clinical laboratory and subsidiary of Laboratory Corporation
143 of America. One of two different Illumina arrays with custom content was used to
144 provide genome-wide SNP data, the HumanOmniExpress (N=328) or
145 HumanOmniExpress-24 (N=194; Do et al., 2011; Eriksson et al., 2010; Tung et al.,
146 2011). In the UKB, samples were genotyped using either the UK BiLEVE (N=501)
147 or the UKB axiom (N=4,742) array. Details regarding the UKB's quality control can
148 be found elsewhere (Bycroft et al., 2017).

149

150 *Quality control and polygenic scoring*

151 For genetic data from both the DNS and UKB, PLINK v1.90 (Purcell et al., 2007) was
152 used to apply quality control cutoffs and exclude SNPs or individuals based on the
153 following criteria: missing genotype rate per individual $>.10$, missing rate per SNP
154 $>.10$, minor allele frequency $<.01$, and Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium $p < 1e-6$.
155 Additionally, in the UKB, quality control variables that were provided with the
156 dataset were used to exclude participants based on a sex mismatch (genetic sex
157 different from reported sex), a genetic relationship to another participant, outliers for
158 heterozygosity or missingness (unique Data Identifier 22010-0.0), and UKBiLEVE
159 genotype quality control for samples (unique Data Identifiers 22050-0.0-22052-0.0).

160 Polygenic scores were calculated using PLINK's (Purcell et al., 2007) "--score"
161 command based on published SNP-level summary statistics from the most recent EA
162 GWAS (Lee et al., 2018). Published summary statistics do not include the data from
163 23andMe per the requirements of this company (i.e., $N \approx 766,345$). For the UKB
164 analyses, summary scores from a GWAS that did not include the UKB as a discovery
165 sample were used ($N \approx 324,162$). SNPs from the GWAS of EA were matched with
166 SNPs from the DNS and the UKB. For each SNP the number of the alleles (0, 1, or 2)
167 associated with EA was multiplied by the effect estimated in the GWAS. The
168 polygenic score for each individual was an average of weighted EA-associated alleles.
169 All SNPs matched with SNPs from the DNS and UKB were used regardless of effect
170 size and significance in the original GWAS, as previously recommended and shown
171 to be effective (Dudbridge, 2013; Ware et al., 2017).

172

173 *Statistical analysis*

174 The PROCESS SPSS macro, version 3.1 (Hayes, 2017), was used to conduct the
175 mediation analyses in SPSS version 26. Participants' sex (coded as 0=males,
176 1=females), age, and ancestry (two genetic components for the DNS and 10 for the
177 UK biobank) were entered as covariates in all analyses. In the mediation analyses,
178 bias-corrected bootstrapping (set to 5,000) was used to allow for non-symmetric 95%
179 confidence intervals (CIs). Specifically, indirect effects are likely to have a non-
180 normal distribution, and consequently the use of non-symmetric CIs for the
181 determination of significance is recommended (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams,
182 2004). However, bias-corrected bootstrapping also has its faults (Hayes & Scharkow,
183 2013) and, consequently, as supportive evidence for the indirect effect, I also present
184 the test of joint significance, which examines whether the *a path* (EA polygenic
185 scores to SES) and the *b path* (SES to depressive symptoms, while controlling for the
186 EA polygenic scores) are significant. The EA polygenic scores were standardized
187 (i.e., M=0, SD=1) in SPSS to make interpretability easier.

188 As a post-hoc analysis, in the UKB it was possible to analyze the longitudinal
189 data while excluding those who reported on ever seeing a general physician
190 (N=1,843) or a psychiatrist (N=501) "for nerves, anxiety, tension or depression", at
191 the first assessment.

192

193

Results

194 *Descriptive statistics*

195 In the DNS, the SES measure ranged between 2 and 10 (M=7.34, SD=1.43) and
196 depressive symptoms ranged between 0 and 43 (M=8.94, SD=7.13). In the UKB, the
197 SES measure ranged between 1 and 5 (M=2.92, SD=1.11), and depressive symptoms,
198 estimated about 6 years later, ranged between 0 and 27 (M=2.50, SD=3.43).

199

200 *EA polygenic scores and SES (a path) in the DNS*

201 The EA polygenic scores were significantly associated with SES ($b=.20$, $SE=.06$,
202 $p=.0016$; $R^2=0.018$), so that higher scores predicted higher SES. Of the covariates,
203 age and sex were significantly associated with SES, so that older participants ($b=.13$,
204 $SE=.05$, $p=.008$) and men ($b=-.45$, $SE=.12$, $p=.0003$) were characterized by higher
205 SES.

206

207 *SES and depressive symptoms (b path) in the DNS*

208 With the EA polygenic scores in the model, SES significantly and negatively
209 predicted depressive symptoms ($b=-.61$, $SE=.22$, $p=.007$; $R^2=0.014$), such that higher
210 SES predicted lower depressive symptoms. Of the covariates, age was significantly
211 associated with depressive symptoms, so that being younger was associated with
212 higher depressive symptoms ($b=-.53$, $SE=.25$, $p=.037$).

213

214 *EA polygenic scores and depressive symptoms in the DNS*

215 The EA polygenic scores did not significantly predict depressive symptoms ($b=-.11$,
216 $SE=.32$, $p=.74$). Notably, however, the significance of a direct path from X (EA
217 polygenic scores) to Y (depressive symptoms) or the 'total effect' (the 'c' path), is not a
218 prerequisite for the testing of a mediation/indirect effect (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon,
219 Krull, & Lockwood, 2000; Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011), which was the
220 main interest of the current study.

221

222 *Indirect Effects in the DNS*

223 The indirect path ($a*b$), EA polygenic scores to depressive symptoms via SES was
224 significant as indicated by the bias corrected bootstrapped 95% CI not including zero
225 (Figure 1a; indirect effect=-.12, bootstrapped SE=.06, bootstrapped 95% CI: -.26 to -
226 .02). The indirect effect remained significant when 10 MDS components of genetic
227 ancestry and genotyping platform were included as covariates (indirect effect=-.12,
228 bootstrapped SE=.06, bootstrapped 95% CI: -.27 to -.02).

229

230 *Indirect Effects in the UKB*

231 For the UKB, EA polygenic scores that were based on a GWAS that did not include
232 the UKB as a discovery sample, were used. additionally, genotyping platform was
233 included as a covariate in the analyses. The *a path*, from the EA polygenic scores to
234 SES, and the *b path*, from SES to depressive symptoms while controlling for EA
235 polygenic scores, were significant (*a path*: $b=.10$, $SE=.01$, $p<.0001$, $R^2=0.008$; *b path*:
236 $b=-.43$, $SE=.04$, $p<.0001$, $R^2=0.017$). The indirect path was also significant (Figure
237 1b; indirect effect=-.04, bootstrapped SE=.008, bootstrapped 95% CI: -.06 to -.03).

238 To test the robustness of the finding, a post-hoc analysis that excluded
239 participants who, at the first assessment, reported on ever seeing a professional for
240 nerves or depression (leaving 3,447 participants), was conducted. This was done in an
241 attempt to increase the likelihood of only including the individuals who became
242 depressed between the first assessment, in which income was assessed, and the
243 assessment a few years later, in which depressive symptoms were assessed. This
244 analysis further supported a causal mediation, in which higher EA polygenic scores
245 predicted higher SES, which in turn predicted lower depressive symptoms (*a path*:
246 $b=.08$, $SE=.02$, $p<.0001$, $R^2=0.005$; *b path*: $b=-.15$, $SE=.04$, $p=.0003$, $R^2=0.004$;
247 indirect effect=-.012, bootstrapped SE=.004, bootstrapped 95% CI: -.022 to -.005).

248

249

Discussion

250 The current results suggest that the negative genetic link previously found between
251 cognitive ability and depressive symptoms may be partly mediated by SES. EA was
252 used in the current study as a proxy for cognitive ability, due to the high phenotypic
253 and genetic correlation between them (a single nucleotide polymorphism-based
254 genetic correlation of .95; Marioni et al., 2014) and the highly powerful GWAS
255 available for EA. The indirect effect was found in two independent samples with
256 different characteristics and measures, demonstrating the robustness of the
257 associations. Notably, in the UKB the indirect effect was tested longitudinally, with
258 data on SES that was collected about 6 years before the assessment of depressive
259 symptoms. A supplementary analysis that excluded participants who reported ever
260 seeing a professional for nerves or depression at first assessment, was also significant,
261 further supporting a causal temporal mediation.

262 The found mediation supports the gene-environment-trait correlations
263 hypothesis (rGET; Avinun, 2020), which suggests that certain genetic correlations
264 may be mediated, at least in part, by the environment, i.e., an environmentally
265 mediated pleiotropy. The found EA polygenic scores → SES → depressive symptoms
266 mediation stresses the importance of context in genetic studies of depression. More
267 specifically, the current results suggest that a GWAS of depression that relies mostly
268 on a sample that is homogeneous in terms of SES, will be less likely to capture the
269 genetic influences that contribute to depression via SES. Consequently, polygenic
270 scores that will be based on such a GWAS may be weaker predictors of depression.
271 Put differently, because the environment can act as a mediator of some of the genetic
272 influences on depression, if the environment differs between GWASs, the captured

273 genetic influences will differ. Importantly, the current results imply that social
274 policies aimed at reducing socioeconomic inequalities may weaken the genetic effects
275 on depression by decreasing the association between cognitive ability and depression.
276 Lastly, this rGET means that statistically controlling for SES may help to remove
277 environmentally mediated effects from the depression polygenic score and lead us a
278 step closer to identifying the direct genetic influences on depression.

279 Low SES may be a risk factor for depression by leading to an increase in life
280 stress that stems from having to make ends meet and from living in a disadvantaged
281 neighborhood, which is associated with higher crime and fewer resources (Santiago,
282 Wadsworth, & Stump, 2011). Low SES has also been associated with poorer access to
283 green spaces (Dai, 2011), and with health damaging behaviors, such as physical
284 inactivity, higher alcohol consumption, and poor nutrition (Nandi, Glymour, &
285 Subramanian, 2014; Pampel, Krueger, & Denney, 2010), which are thought to affect
286 mental health (e.g., Avinun & Hariri, 2019; Beyer et al., 2014; Boden & Fergusson,
287 2011). All of these mediators can be possible targets for policy makers.

288 The strengths of the current study include the use of two independent samples
289 with markedly different measures and characteristics (e.g., young university students
290 versus older community volunteers) and a GWAS-derived polygenic score, but it is
291 also limited in ways that can be addressed in future studies. First, the findings are
292 limited to populations of European descent and to the Western culture. Second, both
293 samples consisted of volunteers and consequently do not fully represent the general
294 population. However, it may be speculated that the observed associations would
295 strengthen with the inclusion of more individuals from low SES backgrounds, which
296 are usually characterized by higher levels of depression (Lorant et al., 2003). Third,

297 the mediation model should be replicated within longitudinal designs in which
298 measures of SES and depressive symptoms are available at multiple time points.

299 In conclusion, the current results shed light on the genetic associations that have
300 been observed between cognitive ability and depression (Savage et al., 2018), and
301 suggest that they are partly mediated by SES. The mediation by SES is important
302 because it suggests that the genetic influences on depression may be moderated by
303 public policy and that the genetic composition of depression is likely to depend on the
304 social context in which it is examined. Additionally, the current results suggest that
305 controlling for SES, or other environmental factors that can act as mediators of
306 genetic influences, can help to isolate the direct genetic influences on depression.

307

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316

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321

322 **Conflict of Interest**

323 The author declares no competing financial or other interests.

324

325

326

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491 **Figure 1.** Mediation model linking genetic influences on educational attainment (EA), used as a proxy for cognitive ability, to depressive symptoms, via
492 socioeconomic status

493 **1a.** Duke Neurogenetics Study

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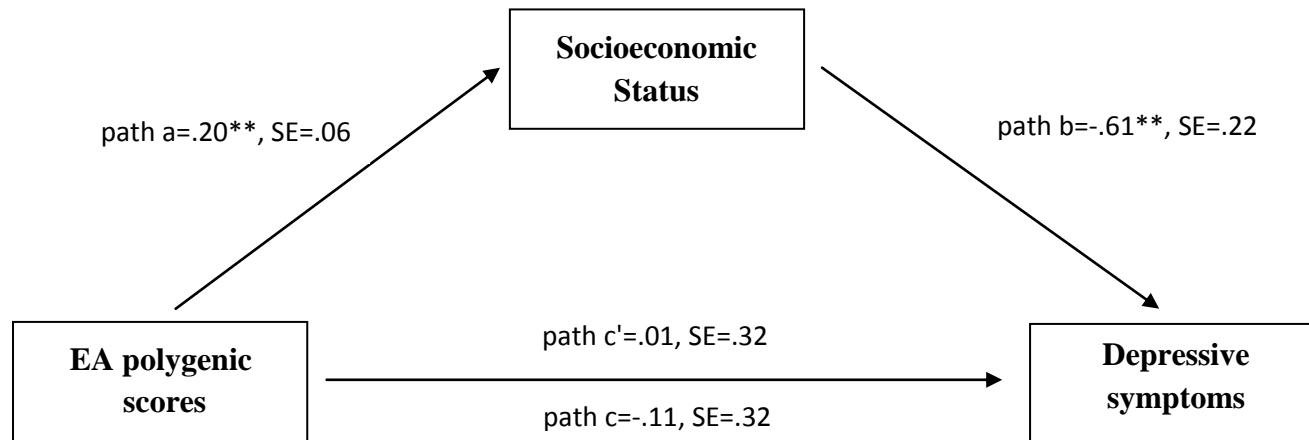
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505 **1b. UK Biobank**

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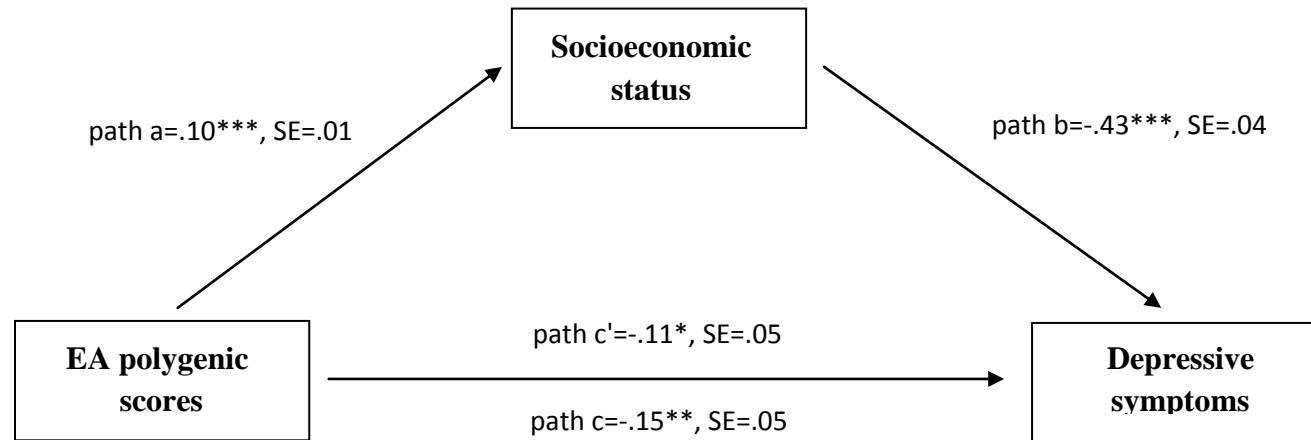
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514 Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$. EA - educational attainment. c - the total effect of the EA polygenic scores on depressive symptoms; c'-the effect of EA
515 polygenic scores on depressive symptoms, while controlling for SES.

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