

RUNNING TITLE: Cognitive ability, SES, and depression.

Cognitive ability, Socioeconomic Status, and Depressive Symptoms: A Gene-Environment-Trait Correlation

Reut Avinun

Department of Psychology & Neuroscience, Duke University, Durham, NC, USA and the Department of Psychology, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Jerusalem, Israel

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-3281-1268

Corresponding Author: Reut Avinun, Ph.D., Department of Psychology, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Mount Scopus, Jerusalem, 91905 Israel. Email: reut.avinun@mail.huji.ac.il

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the participants of the Duke Neurogenetics Study and the members of the Laboratory of NeuroGenetics, especially Annchen R. Knodt, Spenser R. Radtke, and Bartholomew D. Brigidi for their assistance with data collection and analysis. I would also like to thank the head of the laboratory, Prof. Ahmad Hariri, without whom this study would not have been possible. Lastly, I would like to thank Dr. Aysu Okbay for her help with obtaining a GWAS of educational attainment that did not include UK biobank data.

Abstract

Purpose. Depression is genetically influenced, but the mechanisms that underlie these influences are largely unknown. Recently, shared genetic influences were found between depression and both cognitive ability and educational attainment (EA). Although genetic influences are often thought to represent direct biological pathways, they can also reflect indirect pathways, including modifiable environmental mediations (gene-environment-trait correlations). Here, I tested whether the genetic correlation between cognitive ability and depressive symptoms partly reflects an environmental mediation involving socioeconomic status (SES).

Methods. As previously done to increase statistical power, and due to their high phenotypic and genetic correlation, EA was used as a proxy for cognitive ability. Summary statistics from a recent genome-wide association study of EA were used to calculate EA polygenic scores. Two independent samples were used: 522 non-Hispanic Caucasian university students from the Duke Neurogenetics Study (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.

Results. Mediation analyses in the two samples indicated that higher proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores predicted higher SES, which in turn predicted lower depressive symptoms.

Conclusion. Current findings suggest that some of the genetic correlates of depressive symptoms depend on an environmental mediation and consequently that modifying the environment, specifically through social and economic policies, can affect the genetic influences on depression. Additionally, these results suggest that findings from genetic association studies of depression may be context-contingent and reflect social, cultural, and economic processes in the examined population.

Keywords: Depression; Socioeconomic status (SES); Cognitive ability; 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 [1], and it is predicted to become one of the three leading causes of illness by 2030
3 [2]. Interestingly, low cognitive ability in childhood has been shown to predict high
4 levels of depression (e.g., [3,4]). Educational attainment (EA), which is often used as
5 a proxy for cognitive ability, has been also linked to depression, so that the probability
6 of experiencing depression decreases for additional years of education [5]. Recent
7 studies have found negative genetic associations between depression and both
8 cognitive ability [6] and EA [7]. Furthermore, by employing a genetically informed
9 analysis (Mendelian randomization), both relatively low cognitive ability and low EA
10 were marked as risk factors for depression [8,7]. Notably, how the genetic correlation
11 between cognitive ability and depression is mediated has not been established.

12 Recently, it was hypothesized that socioeconomic status (SES) may mediate the
13 association between cognitive ability and depression [9]. More generally, it was
14 suggested that the environment may mediate genetic correlations between two
15 phenotypes within the same individual, in a process termed gene-environment-trait
16 correlations [9]. This hypothesis stems from accumulating research showing passive,
17 active, and evocative processes that lead to correlations between genetic variation and
18 environmental measures, such as parenting and stressful life events [10,11]. These
19 passive, active, and evocative processes, known as gene-environment correlations
20 [12,13], occur due to genetically influenced characteristics that shape the individual's
21 environment. As the environment can in turn substantially affect various outcomes, it
22 may act as a mediator of genetic effects within the same individual and contribute to
23 the widespread genetic correlations observed between numerous phenotypes [14],
24 including cognitive ability and depression [8,6]. In other words, it is possible that
25 genetic influences on two different phenotypes, like cognitive ability and depression,

26 are linked, because one genetically influenced phenotype (e.g., cognitive ability)
27 affects an environment (e.g., SES) that, in turn, affects another phenotype (e.g.,
28 depressive symptoms).

29 Identifying gene-environment-depression correlations can shed light on
30 environments that play a role in pathways that connect between certain genetic
31 variations and depression. Disrupting such pathways through public policy will
32 modify these indirect genetic influences. Additionally, such environmental mediations
33 can demonstrate the importance of context in the discovery of the genetic correlates of
34 depression, because different contexts can translate into different environmental
35 mediations of genetic effects.

36 SES, which can be defined as an individual's or group's position within a social
37 hierarchy that is determined by factors such as education, occupation, income, and
38 wealth [15], has been shown to be genetically influenced [16,17]. Put differently,
39 genetically influenced traits affect an individual's SES. One of these traits, as has been
40 found in a meta-analysis of longitudinal studies, is cognitive ability [18], which is
41 highly heritable [19]. Because SES has been associated with various physiological
42 and mental disorders (e.g., [15,20,21]), including depression [22], and a genetic
43 correlation between SES and depression has also been observed [16], a gene-
44 environment-trait correlation in which SES mediates the genetic correlation between
45 cognitive ability and depression, is possible.

46 Sample sizes of more than a million individuals are needed for reliable detection
47 of relevant genetic variation in genome wide association studies (GWASs) of complex
48 traits such as cognitive ability [23]. Because such sample sizes with assessments on
49 cognitive ability are challenging to obtain, it is common to use EA as a proxy for

50 cognitive ability (e.g., [24,25]) to increase statistical power. Other than their high
51 phenotypic correlation, there is also a high genetic correlation between EA and
52 cognitive ability, indicating shared genetic influences (a single nucleotide
53 polymorphism-based genetic correlation of .95; [17]). A recent GWAS of EA [26]
54 included ~1.1 million European-descent participants, making it one of the most
55 powerful, and consequently prevalently used, GWASs in psychology (for comparison,
56 a recent GWAS of cognitive ability included 269,867 individuals; [6]). A polygenic
57 score based on the summary statistics from this GWAS explained ~11% of the
58 variance in EA. In the current study, I tested whether SES mediated an association
59 between EA polygenic scores, used as a proxy for cognitive ability polygenic scores,
60 and depressive symptoms.

61 Two independent samples were used for the analyses: a sample of 522 non-
62 Hispanic Caucasian university students from the Duke Neurogenetics Study and a
63 sample of 5,243 adult white British volunteers from the UK Biobank (UKB). Notably,
64 the UK biobank is the main sample in the cognitive ability GWAS (195,653 of the
65 269,867 individuals; [6]), which consequently also favors the use of the EA GWAS in
66 the current study. The DNS and the UKB complement each other in several ways: 1)
67 the measures used for the assessment of SES and depressive symptoms differed in the
68 two samples as will be detailed below, and therefore finding a significant mediation in
69 both samples would suggest that the result is robust to different operationalizations of
70 these two constructs; 2) the two samples represented different age groups, young
71 adulthood and older adulthood, and therefore finding the hypothesized mediation in
72 both samples could show that it is not specific to a particular age range; 3) as it can be
73 argued that EA is a measure of SES, in the DNS all participants were students at the
74 same university, which is similar to controlling for EA in this sample; and 4) in the

75 UKB it was possible to test a longitudinal mediation model, which can provide further
76 support for causal inference. Lastly, as the EA GWAS included data from the UKB, in
77 the analyses of the UKB data EA polygenic scores were based on summary statistics
78 from a GWAS that did not include the UKB as a discovery sample (obtained from Dr.
79 Aysu Okbay, who is one of the authors of the original GWAS).

80 **Materials and Methods**

81 *Participants*

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

94 The UKB sample consisted of 5,243 white British volunteers (2,669 women,
95 mean age 62.30 ± 7.41 years), who participated in the UKB's first assessment and the
96 imaging wave, completed an online mental health questionnaire [27], and had
97 complete genotype, SES, depressive symptoms and covariate data. The UKB
98 (www.ukbiobank.ac.uk; [28]) includes over 500,000 participants, between the ages of
99 40 and 69 years, who were recruited within the UK between 2006 and 2010. The

100 UKB study was approved by the National Health Service Research Ethics Service
101 (reference: 11/NW/0382), and current analyses were conducted under UKB
102 application 28174 (because the application originally included a request for
103 neuroimaging data, the sample used in this study is limited to individuals who
104 participated in the imaging wave).

105

106 *Ancestry*

107 Because self-reported race and ethnicity are not always an accurate reflection of
108 genetic ancestry, an analysis of identity by state of whole-genome SNPs in the DNS
109 was performed in PLINK v1.9 [29]. Before running the multidimensional scaling
110 (MDS) components analysis, SNPs were pruned for high LD ($r^2 > 0.1$), and the
111 following were removed: C/G and A/T SNPs, SNPs with a missing rate $> .05$ or a
112 minor allele frequency $< .01$, SNPs that did not pass the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
113 test ($p < 1e-6$), sex chromosomes, and regions with long range LD (the MHC and 23
114 additional regions; [30]). The first two MDS components computed for the non-
115 Hispanic Caucasian subgroup, as determined by both self-reports and the MDS
116 components of the entire mixed race/ethnicity DNS sample, were used as covariates in
117 analyses of data from the DNS. The decision to use only the first two MDS
118 components was based on an examination of a scree plot of eigenvalues, which
119 became very similar after the second MDS component (additional information and
120 plots are available at <https://www.haririlab.com/methods/genetics.html>).

121 For analyses of data from the UKB, only those who were ‘white British’ based
122 on both self-identification and a genetic principal components analysis were included.
123 Additionally, the first 10 principal components received from the UKB's data
124 repository (unique data identifiers: 22009.0.1-22009.0.10) were included as covariates

125 as previously done (e.g., [31,32]). Further details on the computation of the principal
126 components can be found elsewhere ([http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/wp-](http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/UKBiobank_genotyping_QC_documentation-web.pdf)
127 [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)).

128

129 *Socioeconomic status*

130 In the DNS, SES was assessed using the "social ladder" instrument [33], which asks
131 participants to rank themselves relative to other people in the United States (or their
132 origin country) on a scale from 0–10, with people who are best off in terms of money,
133 education, and respected jobs, at the top (10) and people who are worst off at the
134 bottom (0).

135 In the UKB, SES was assessed based on the report of average household income
136 before tax, coded as: 1 - Less than 18,000; 2 - 18,000 to 31,000; 3 - 31,000 to 52,000;
137 4 - 52,000 to 100,000; and 5 - Greater than 100,000. The reports made during the first
138 assessment (i.e., before the evaluation of depressive symptoms), between 2006 and
139 2010, were used.

140

141 *Depressive symptoms*

142 In the DNS, the 20-item Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D)
143 was used to assess depressive symptoms in the past week [34]. All items were
144 summed to create a total depressive symptoms score.

145 In the UKB, the Patient Health Questionnaire 9-question version (PHQ-9) was
146 used to assess depressive symptoms in the past 2 weeks [35]. The participants
147 answered these questions during a follow-up between 2016 and 2017. All items were
148 summed to create a total depressive symptoms score.

149

150 *Genotyping*

151 In the DNS, DNA was isolated from saliva using Oragene DNA self-collection kits
152 (DNA Genotek) customized for 23andMe (www.23andme.com). DNA extraction and
153 genotyping were performed through 23andMe by the National Genetics Institute
154 (NGI), a CLIA-certified clinical laboratory and subsidiary of Laboratory Corporation
155 of America. One of two different Illumina arrays with custom content was used to
156 provide genome-wide SNP data, the HumanOmniExpress (N=328) or
157 HumanOmniExpress-24 (N=194; [36-38]). In the UKB, samples were genotyped
158 using either the UK BiLEVE (N=501) or the UKB axiom (N=4,742) array. Details
159 regarding the UKB's quality control can be found elsewhere [39].

160

161 *Quality control and polygenic scoring*

162 For genetic data from both the DNS and UKB, PLINK v1.90 [29] was used to apply
163 quality control cutoffs and exclude SNPs or individuals based on the following
164 criteria: missing genotype rate per individual $>.10$, missing rate per SNP $>.10$, minor
165 allele frequency $<.01$, and Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium $p<1e-6$. Additionally, in the
166 UKB, quality control variables that were provided with the dataset were used to
167 exclude participants based on a sex mismatch (genetic sex different from reported
168 sex), a genetic relationship to another participant, outliers for heterozygosity or
169 missingness, and UKBiLEVE genotype quality control for samples (unique Data
170 Identifiers 22010.0.0, 22011.0.0-22011.0.2, 22018.0.0, 22050.0.0-22052.0.0).

171 Polygenic scores were calculated using PLINK's [29] "--score" command based
172 on published SNP-level summary statistics from the most recent EA GWAS [26].
173 Published summary statistics do not include the data from 23andMe per the
174 requirements of this company (i.e., the sample of the GWAS the summary statistics

175 for the DNS relied on included about 766,345 individuals). For the UKB analyses,
176 summary scores from a GWAS that did not include the UKB as a discovery sample
177 were used (i.e., the sample of the GWAS the summary statistics for the UKB relied on
178 included about 324,162 individuals). SNPs from the GWAS of EA were matched with
179 SNPs from the DNS and the UKB and for each SNP the number of the alleles (0, 1, or
180 2) associated with EA was multiplied by the effect estimated in the GWAS. The
181 polygenic score for each individual was an average of weighted EA-associated alleles.
182 This EA polygenic score was used as a proxy for cognitive ability genetic correlates.
183 All SNPs matched with genotyped SNPs from the DNS and UKB were used
184 regardless of effect size and significance in the original GWAS, as previously
185 recommended and shown to be effective [40,41].

186

187 *Statistical analysis*

188 The PROCESS SPSS macro, version 3.1 [42], was used to conduct the mediation
189 analyses in SPSS version 26. Participants' sex (coded as 0=males, 1=females), age,
190 and ancestry (two genetic components for the DNS and 10 for the UK biobank) were
191 entered as covariates in all analyses. Bias-corrected bootstrapping (set to 5,000) was
192 used in the mediation analyses to allow for non-symmetric 95% confidence intervals
193 (CIs). Specifically, indirect effects are likely to have a non-normal distribution, and
194 consequently the use of non-symmetric CIs for the determination of significance is
195 recommended [43]. To complement the bias-corrected bootstrapping method and add
196 supportive evidence for the indirect effect [44], I also present the test of joint
197 significance, which examines whether the *a path* (proxy-cognitive ability polygenic
198 scores to SES) and the *b path* (SES to depressive symptoms, while controlling for the
199 proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores) are significant. The proxy-cognitive ability

200 polygenic scores were standardized (i.e., $M=0$, $SD=1$) in SPSS to make
201 interpretability easier.

202 As a post-hoc analysis, in the UKB it was possible to analyze the longitudinal
203 data while excluding those who reported on ever seeing a general physician
204 ($N=1,843$) or a psychiatrist ($N=501$) "for nerves, anxiety, tension or depression", at
205 the first assessment (i.e., at the first assessment both household income and these two
206 questions regarding the experience of depression were reported, and more than 6 years
207 later information on depressive symptoms, as assessed by the PHQ-9, was collected).
208 By excluding participants who experienced depression before the assessment of
209 household income (i.e., SES), a significant prediction of later depressive symptoms is
210 more likely to be causal.

211

212 **Results**

213 *Descriptive statistics*

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

218

219 *Proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores and SES (a path) in the DNS*

220 The proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores were significantly associated with SES
221 ($b=.20$, $SE=.06$, $p=.0016$; $R^2=0.018$), so that higher scores predicted higher SES. Of
222 the covariates, age and sex were significantly associated with SES, so that older
223 participants ($b=.13$, $SE=.05$, $p=.008$) and men ($b=-.45$, $SE=.12$, $p=.0003$) were
224 characterized by higher SES.

225

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

227 With the proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores in the model, SES significantly and
228 negatively predicted depressive symptoms ($b=-.61$, $SE=.22$, $p=.007$; $R^2=0.014$).

229 Higher SES predicted lower depressive symptoms. Of the covariates, age was
230 significantly associated with depressive symptoms, so that being younger was
231 associated with higher depressive symptoms ($b=-.53$, $SE=.25$, $p=.037$).

232

233 *Proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores and depressive symptoms in the DNS*

234 The proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores did not significantly predict depressive
235 symptoms ($b=-.11$, $SE=.32$, $p=.74$). Notably, however, the significance of a direct
236 path from X (proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores) to Y (depressive symptoms) or
237 the 'total effect' (the 'c' path), is not a prerequisite for testing a mediation/indirect
238 effect [45-47], which was the main aim of the current study.

239

240 *Indirect Effects in the DNS*

241 The indirect path ($a*b$), proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores to depressive
242 symptoms via SES, was significant as indicated by the bias corrected bootstrapped
243 95% CI not including zero (Figure 1a; indirect effect $=-.12$, bootstrapped $SE=.06$,
244 bootstrapped 95% CI: $-.26$ to $-.02$). The indirect effect remained significant when 10
245 MDS components of genetic ancestry (instead of the initial 2) and genotyping
246 platform were included as covariates (i.e., in addition to sex and age; indirect effect $=-$
247 $.12$, bootstrapped $SE=.06$, bootstrapped 95% CI: $-.27$ to $-.02$).

248

249 *Proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores and SES (a path) in the UKB*

250 For the UKB, proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores that were based on a GWAS
251 that did not include the UKB as a discovery sample, were used. Additionally,
252 genotyping platform was included as a covariate in the analyses. The proxy-cognitive
253 ability polygenic scores were significantly associated with SES ($b=.10$, $SE=.01$,
254 $p<.0001$, $R^2=0.008$), indicating that higher scores predicted higher SES. Of the
255 covariates, age and sex were significantly associated with SES. Younger participants
256 ($b=-.05$, $SE=.002$, $p<.0001$) and men ($b=-.24$, $SE=.03$, $p<.0001$) were characterized
257 by higher SES.

258

259 *SES and depressive symptoms (b path) in the UKB*

260 With the proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores in the model, SES significantly and
261 negatively predicted depressive symptoms ($b=-.43$, $SE=.04$, $p<.0001$, $R^2=0.017$), so
262 that higher SES predicted lower depressive symptoms. The covariates age and sex
263 were significantly associated with depressive symptoms, revealing that younger ages
264 ($b=-.10$, $SE=.007$, $p<.0001$) and being a woman ($b=.48$, $SE=.09$, $p<.0001$) were
265 associated with higher depressive symptoms.

266

267 *Proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores and depressive symptoms in the UKB*

268 Higher proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores were significantly associated with
269 lower depressive symptoms ($b=-.15$, $SE=.05$, $p=.001$).

270

271 *Indirect effect in the UKB*

272 The indirect path was significant (Figure 1b; indirect effect $=-.04$, bootstrapped
273 $SE=.008$, bootstrapped 95% CI: $-.06$ to $-.03$). To test the robustness of the finding, a
274 post-hoc analysis that excluded participants who, at the first assessment, reported on

275 ever seeing a professional for nerves or depression (leaving 3,447 participants), was
276 conducted. This was done in an attempt to increase the likelihood of only including
277 the individuals who became depressed between the first assessment, when household
278 income was first reported, and the assessment more than 6 years later, in which
279 depressive symptoms were assessed. Notably, a correlation between the report of
280 household income at the first assessment and the report of household income at the
281 second assessment indicated some change in household income during this time
282 period ($r(5,243)=.68$). Indeed, the longitudinal analysis supported a causal mediation,
283 in which higher proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores predicted higher SES, which
284 in turn predicted lower depressive symptoms (*a path*: $b=.08$, $SE=.02$, $p<.0001$,
285 $R^2=0.005$; *b path*: $b=-.15$, $SE=.04$, $p=.0003$, $R^2=0.004$; indirect effect $=-.012$,
286 bootstrapped $SE=.004$, bootstrapped 95% CI: $-.022$ to $-.005$).

287

288

Discussion

289 The current results suggest that the negative genetic correlation previously observed
290 between cognitive ability and depressive symptoms is partly mediated by SES, an
291 environment that can be modified through social and economic policies. The indirect
292 effect was found in two independent samples with different characteristics and
293 measures, demonstrating the robustness of the associations. Notably, in the UKB the
294 indirect effect was tested longitudinally, with data on SES that was collected about 6
295 years before the assessment of depressive symptoms. A supplementary analysis that
296 excluded participants who reported ever seeing a professional for nerves or depression
297 at the first assessment, was also significant, further supporting a causal temporal
298 mediation by predicting change in depressive symptoms.

299 The found mediation supports the gene-environment-trait correlations
300 hypothesis (rGET; [9]), which suggests that certain genetic correlations between
301 different phenotypes may be mediated, at least in part, by the environment, i.e., an
302 environmentally mediated pleiotropy. The found proxy-cognitive ability polygenic
303 scores→SES→depressive symptoms mediation stresses the importance of context in
304 genetic studies of depression. The genetic correlates of depression in one population
305 may be different from the ones found in another population. Put differently, because
306 the environment can act as a mediator of some of the genetic influences on
307 depression, if the environment differs between GWASs, the captured genetic
308 influences will differ. Importantly, the current results suggest that social policies
309 aimed at reducing socioeconomic inequalities may weaken the genetic effects on
310 depression by disrupting the pathway that leads to the association between cognitive
311 ability and depression.

312 Low SES may be a risk factor for depression by leading to an increase in life
313 stress that stems from having to make ends meet and from living in a disadvantaged
314 neighborhood, which is associated with higher crime and fewer resources [48]. Low
315 SES has also been associated with poorer access to green spaces [49], and with health
316 damaging behaviors, such as physical inactivity, higher alcohol consumption, and
317 poor nutrition [50,51], which are thought to affect mental health (e.g., [52,32,53]). All
318 of these mediators can be possible targets for policy makers.

319 The strengths of the current study include the use of two independent samples
320 with markedly different measures and characteristics (e.g., young university students
321 versus older community volunteers) and a GWAS-derived polygenic score, but it is
322 also limited in ways that can be addressed in future studies. First, the findings are
323 limited to populations of European descent and to the Western culture. Second, both

324 samples consisted of volunteers and consequently do not fully represent the general
325 population. However, it may be speculated that the observed associations would
326 strengthen with the inclusion of more individuals from low SES backgrounds, which
327 are usually characterized by higher levels of depression [54]. Third, the mediation
328 model should be replicated within longitudinal designs in which the same measures of
329 SES and depressive symptoms are available at multiple time points.

330 In conclusion, the current results shed light on the genetic associations that have
331 been observed between cognitive ability and depression [6], and suggest that they are
332 partly mediated by SES. The mediation by SES is important because it suggests that
333 the genetic influences on depression may be moderated by public policy and that the
334 genetic composition of depression depends on the social context in which it is
335 examined.

336

337 **Funding**

338 The DNS was supported by Duke University as well as US-National Institutes of
339 Health grant R01DA033369. The author received support from a from a Lady Davis
340 fellowship.

341 **Conflicts of interest/Competing interests**

342 The author declares no competing financial or other interests.

343 **Availability of data and material**

344 The required procedures for obtaining the DNS data are detailed on our
345 website <https://www.haririlab.com/projects/procedures.html>. The UK Biobank data
346 requires contacting the UK Biobank team directly,
347 through <http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk>.

348 **Code availability**

349 Available from the author.

351

References

- 352 1. Ferrari A, Somerville A, Baxter A, Norman R, Patten S, Vos T, Whiteford H
353 (2013) Global variation in the prevalence and incidence of major depressive disorder:
354 a systematic review of the epidemiological literature. *Psychol Med* 43 (3):471-481
- 355 2. Mathers CD, Loncar D (2006) Projections of global mortality and burden of disease
356 from 2002 to 2030. *PLoS Med* 3 (11):e442
- 357 3. Leech SL, Larkby CA, Day R, Day NL (2006) Predictors and correlates of high
358 levels of depression and anxiety symptoms among children at age 10. *J Am Acad*
359 *Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 45 (2):223-230
- 360 4. Hung GC-L, Pietras SA, Carliner H, Martin L, Seidman LJ, Buka SL, Gilman SE
361 (2016) Cognitive ability in childhood and the chronicity and suicidality of depression.
362 *The British Journal of Psychiatry* 208 (2):120-127
- 363 5. Crespo L, López-Noval B, Mira P (2014) Compulsory schooling, education,
364 depression and memory: New evidence from SHARELIFE. *Economics of Education*
365 *Review* 43:36-46
- 366 6. Savage JE, Jansen PR, Stringer S, Watanabe K, Bryois J, De Leeuw CA, Nagel M,
367 Awasthi S, Barr PB, Coleman JR (2018) Genome-wide association meta-analysis in
368 269,867 individuals identifies new genetic and functional links to intelligence. *Nat*
369 *Genet* 50 (7):912-919
- 370 7. Wray NR, Ripke S, Mattheisen M, Trzaskowski M, Byrne EM, Abdellaoui A,
371 Adams MJ, Agerbo E, Air TM, Andlauer TMF, Bacanu S-A, Bækvad-Hansen M,
372 Beekman AFT, Bigdeli TB, Binder EB, Blackwood DRH, Bryois J, Buttenschøn HN,
373 Bybjerg-Grauholm J, Cai N, Castelao E, Christensen JH, Clarke T-K, Coleman JIR,
374 Colodro-Conde L, Couvy-Duchesne B, Craddock N, Crawford GE, Crowley CA,
375 Dashti HS, Davies G, Deary IJ, Degenhardt F, Derks EM, Direk N, Dolan CV, Dunn
376 EC, Eley TC, Eriksson N, Escott-Price V, Kiadeh FHF, Finucane HK, Forstner AJ,
377 Frank J, Gaspar HA, Gill M, Giusti-Rodríguez P, Goes FS, Gordon SD, Grove J, Hall
378 LS, Hannon E, Hansen CS, Hansen TF, Herms S, Hickie IB, Hoffmann P, Homuth G,
379 Horn C, Hottenga J-J, Hougaard DM, Hu M, Hyde CL, Ising M, Jansen R, Jin F,
380 Jorgenson E, Knowles JA, Kohane IS, Kraft J, Kretschmar WW, Krogh J, Kutalik Z,
381 Lane JM, Li Y, Li Y, Lind PA, Liu X, Lu L, MacIntyre DJ, MacKinnon DF, Maier
382 RM, Maier W, Marchini J, Mbarek H, McGrath P, McGuffin P, Medland SE, Mehta
383 D, Middeldorp CM, Mihailov E, Milanesechi Y, Milani L, Mill J, Mondimore FM,

384 Montgomery GW, Mostafavi S, Mullins N, Nauck M, Ng B, Nivard MG, Nyholt DR,
385 O'Reilly PF, Oskarsson H, Owen MJ, Painter JN, Pedersen CB, Pedersen MG,
386 Peterson RE, Pettersson E, Peyrot WJ, Pistis G, Posthuma D, Purcell SM, Quiroz JA,
387 Qvist P, Rice JP, Riley BP, Rivera M, Saeed Mirza S, Saxena R, Schoevers R, Schulte
388 EC, Shen L, Shi J, Shyn SI, Sigurdsson E, Sinnamon GBC, Smit JH, Smith DJ,
389 Stefansson H, Steinberg S, Stockmeier CA, Streit F, Strohmaier J, Tansey KE,
390 Teismann H, Teumer A, Thompson W, Thomson PA, Thorgeirsson TE, Tian C,
391 Traylor M, Treutlein J, Trubetskoy V, Uitterlinden AG, Umbricht D, Van der Auwera
392 S, van Hemert AM, Viktorin A, Visscher PM, Wang Y, Webb BT, Weinsheimer SM,
393 Wellmann J, Willemsen G, Witt SH, Wu Y, Xi HS, Yang J, Zhang F, Arolt V, Baune
394 BT, Berger K, Boomsma DI, Cichon S, Dannlowski U, de Geus ECJ, DePaulo JR,
395 Domenici E, Domschke K, Esko T, Grabe HJ, Hamilton SP, Hayward C, Heath AC,
396 Hinds DA, Kendler KS, Kloiber S, Lewis G, Li QS, Lucae S, Madden PFA,
397 Magnusson PK, Martin NG, McIntosh AM, Metspalu A, Mors O, Mortensen PB,
398 Müller-Myhsok B, Nordentoft M, Nöthen MM, O'Donovan MC, Paciga SA, Pedersen
399 NL, Penninx BWJH, Perlis RH, Porteous DJ, Potash JB, Preisig M, Rietschel M,
400 Schaefer C, Schulze TG, Smoller JW, Stefansson K, Tiemeier H, Uher R, Völzke H,
401 Weissman MM, Werge T, Winslow AR, Lewis CM, Levinson DF, Breen G, Børglum
402 AD, Sullivan PF, eQTLgen, 23andMe, the Major Depressive Disorder Working Group
403 of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (2018) Genome-wide association analyses
404 identify 44 risk variants and refine the genetic architecture of major depression. *Nat*
405 *Genet* 50 (5):668-681. doi:10.1038/s41588-018-0090-3
406 8. Davies NM, Hill WD, Anderson EL, Sanderson E, Deary IJ, Smith GD (2019)
407 Multivariable two-sample Mendelian randomization estimates of the effects of
408 intelligence and education on health. *eLife* 8
409 9. Avinun R (2020) The E is in the G: Gene-Environment-Trait Correlations and
410 Findings from Genome-Wide Association Studies. *Perspectives on Psychological*
411 *Science* 15 (1):81-89. doi:10.1177/1745691619867107
412 10. Kendler KS, Baker JH (2007) Genetic influences on measures of the environment:
413 a systematic review. *Psychol Med* 37 (5):615-626
414 11. Avinun R, Knafo A (2014) Parenting as a Reaction Evoked by Children's
415 Genotype A Meta-Analysis of Children-as-Twins Studies. *Personality and Social*
416 *Psychology Review* 18 (1):87-102

- 417 12. Plomin R, DeFries JC, Loehlin JC (1977) Genotype-environment interaction and
418 correlation in the analysis of human behavior. *Psychological Bulletin* 84 (2):309-322
- 419 13. Scarr S, McCartney K (1983) How people make their own environments: A theory
420 of genotype environment effects. *Child Development* 54 (2):424-435
- 421 14. Bulik-Sullivan B, Finucane HK, Anttila V, Gusev A, Day FR, Loh P-R, Duncan
422 L, Perry JR, Patterson N, Robinson EB (2015) An atlas of genetic correlations across
423 human diseases and traits. *Nat Genet* 47 (11):1236
- 424 15. Calixto O-J, Anaya J-M (2014) Socioeconomic status. The relationship with
425 health and autoimmune diseases. *Autoimmun Rev* 13 (6):641-654
- 426 16. Hill WD, Hagenaars SP, Marioni RE, Harris SE, Liewald DC, Davies G, Okbay
427 A, McIntosh AM, Gale CR, Deary IJ (2016) Molecular genetic contributions to social
428 deprivation and household income in UK Biobank. *Curr Biol* 26 (22):3083-3089
- 429 17. Marioni RE, Davies G, Hayward C, Liewald D, Kerr SM, Campbell A, Luciano
430 M, Smith BH, Padmanabhan S, Hocking LJ (2014) Molecular genetic contributions to
431 socioeconomic status and intelligence. *Intelligence* 44:26-32
- 432 18. Strenze T (2007) Intelligence and socioeconomic success: A meta-analytic review
433 of longitudinal research. *Intelligence* 35 (5):401-426
- 434 19. Plomin R, Deary IJ (2015) Genetics and intelligence differences: five special
435 findings. *Mol Psychiatry* 20 (1):98
- 436 20. Galobardes B, Lynch JW, Davey Smith G (2004) Childhood socioeconomic
437 circumstances and cause-specific mortality in adulthood: systematic review and
438 interpretation. *Epidemiol Rev* 26 (1):7-21
- 439 21. Werner S, Malaspina D, Rabinowitz J (2007) Socioeconomic status at birth is
440 associated with risk of schizophrenia: population-based multilevel study. *Schizophr*
441 *Bull* 33 (6):1373-1378
- 442 22. Everson SA, Maty SC, Lynch JW, Kaplan GA (2002) Epidemiologic evidence for
443 the relation between socioeconomic status and depression, obesity, and diabetes. *J*
444 *Psychosom Res* 53 (4):891-895
- 445 23. Visscher PM, Wray NR, Zhang Q, Sklar P, McCarthy MI, Brown MA, Yang J
446 (2017) 10 years of GWAS discovery: biology, function, and translation. *The*
447 *American Journal of Human Genetics* 101 (1):5-22
- 448 24. Hill W, Marioni R, Maghzian O, Ritchie S, Hagenaars S, McIntosh A, Gale C,
449 Davies G, Deary I (2019) A combined analysis of genetically correlated traits

450 identifies 187 loci and a role for neurogenesis and myelination in intelligence.
451 Molecular Psychiatry 24 (2):169-181

452 25. Rietveld CA, Esko T, Davies G, Pers TH, Turley P, Benyamin B, Chabris CF,
453 Emilsson V, Johnson AD, Lee JJ (2014) Common genetic variants associated with
454 cognitive performance identified using the proxy-phenotype method. Proc Natl Acad
455 Sci U S A 111 (38):13790-13794

456 26. Lee J, Wedow R, Okbay A, Kong E, Maghzian O, Zacher M, Nguyen-Viet T,
457 Bowers P, Sidorenko J, Karlsson LR (2018) Gene discovery and polygenic prediction
458 from a genome-wide association study of educational attainment in 1.1 million
459 individuals. Nat Genet 50 (8):1112–1121

460 27. Davis KA, Coleman JR, Adams M, Allen N, Breen G, Cullen B, Dickens C, Fox
461 E, Graham N, Holliday J (2018) Mental health in UK Biobank: development,
462 implementation and results from an online questionnaire completed by 157 366
463 participants. BJPsych Open 4 (3):83-90

464 28. Sudlow C, Gallacher J, Allen N, Beral V, Burton P, Danesh J, Downey P, Elliott
465 P, Green J, Landray M (2015) UK biobank: an open access resource for identifying
466 the causes of a wide range of complex diseases of middle and old age. PLoS Med 12
467 (3):e1001779

468 29. Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, Thomas L, Ferreira MA, Bender D, Maller J,
469 Sklar P, De Bakker PI, Daly MJ (2007) PLINK: a tool set for whole-genome
470 association and population-based linkage analyses. The American Journal of Human
471 Genetics 81 (3):559-575

472 30. Price AL, Weale ME, Patterson N, Myers SR, Need AC, Shianna KV, Ge D,
473 Rotter JI, Torres E, Taylor KD (2008) Long-range LD can confound genome scans in
474 admixed populations. The American Journal of Human Genetics 83 (1):132-135

475 31. Whalley HC, Adams MJ, Hall L, Clarke T-K, Fernandez-Pujals AM, Gibson J,
476 Wigmore E, Hafferty J, Hagenaars SP, Davies G (2016) Dissection of major
477 depressive disorder using polygenic risk scores for schizophrenia in two independent
478 cohorts. Translational Psychiatry 6 (11):e938

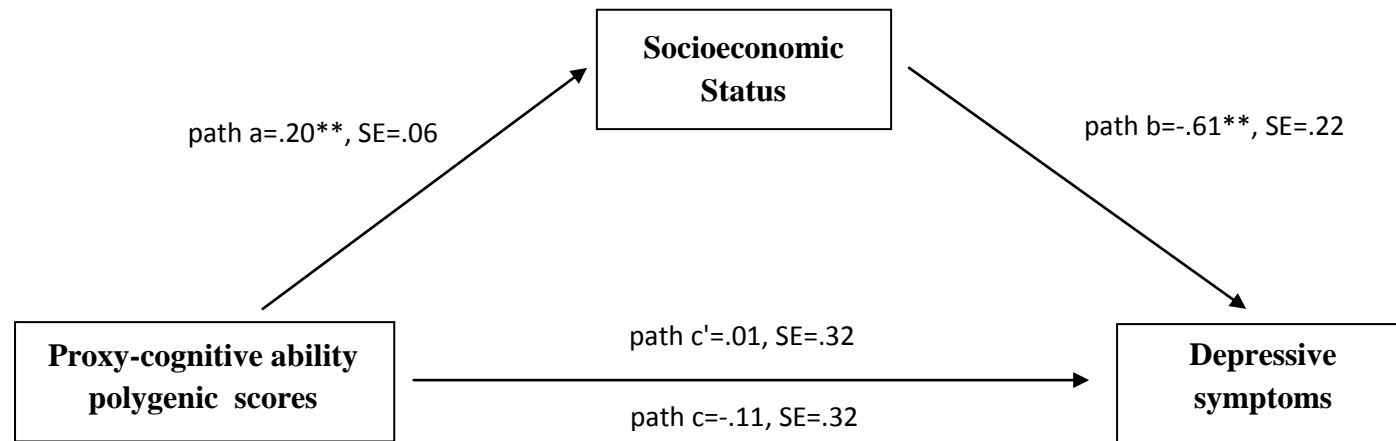
479 32. Avinun R, Hariri AR (2019) A Polygenic Score for Body Mass Index is
480 Associated with Depressive Symptoms via Early Life Stress: Evidence for Gene-
481 Environment Correlation. Journal of Psychiatric Research 118:9-13.
482 doi:10.1016/j.jpsychires.2019.08.008

- 483 33. Adler NE, Epel ES, Castellazzo G, Ickovics JR (2000) Relationship of subjective
484 and objective social status with psychological and physiological functioning:
485 Preliminary data in healthy, White women. *Health Psychol* 19 (6):586
- 486 34. Radloff LS (1977) The CES-D scale: A self-report depression scale for research in
487 the general population. *Applied psychological measurement* 1 (3):385-401
- 488 35. Kroenke K, Spitzer RL, Williams JB (2001) The PHQ-9: validity of a brief
489 depression severity measure. *J Gen Intern Med* 16 (9):606-613
- 490 36. Do CB, Tung JY, Dorfman E, Kiefer AK, Drabant EM, Francke U, Mountain JL,
491 Goldman SM, Tanner CM, Langston JW (2011) Web-based genome-wide association
492 study identifies two novel loci and a substantial genetic component for Parkinson's
493 disease. *PLoS Genet* 7 (6):e1002141
- 494 37. Eriksson N, Macpherson JM, Tung JY, Hon LS, Naughton B, Saxonov S, Avey L,
495 Wojcicki A, Pe'er I, Mountain J (2010) Web-based, participant-driven studies yield
496 novel genetic associations for common traits. *PLoS Genet* 6 (6):e1000993
- 497 38. Tung JY, Do CB, Hinds DA, Kiefer AK, Macpherson JM, Chowdry AB, Francke
498 U, Naughton BT, Mountain JL, Wojcicki A (2011) Efficient replication of over 180
499 genetic associations with self-reported medical data. *PLoS ONE* 6 (8):e23473
- 500 39. Bycroft C, Freeman C, Petkova D, Band G, Elliott LT, Sharp K, Motyer A,
501 Vukcevic D, Delaneau O, O'Connell J (2017) Genome-wide genetic data on~ 500,000
502 UK Biobank participants. *bioRxiv*:166298
- 503 40. Dudbridge F (2013) Power and predictive accuracy of polygenic risk scores. *PLoS*
504 *Genet* 9 (3):e1003348
- 505 41. Ware EB, Schmitz LL, Faul JD, Gard A, Mitchell C, Smith JA, Zhao W, Weir D,
506 Kardina SL (2017) Heterogeneity in polygenic scores for common human traits.
507 *bioRxiv*:106062
- 508 42. Hayes AF (2017) Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process
509 analysis: A regression-based approach. Guilford Publications,
- 510 43. MacKinnon DP, Lockwood CM, Williams J (2004) Confidence Limits for the
511 Indirect Effect: Distribution of the Product and Resampling Methods. *Multivariate*
512 *Behavioral Research* 39 (1):99
- 513 44. Hayes AF, Scharkow M (2013) The relative trustworthiness of inferential tests of
514 the indirect effect in statistical mediation analysis: Does method really matter?
515 *Psychol Sci* 24 (10):1918-1927

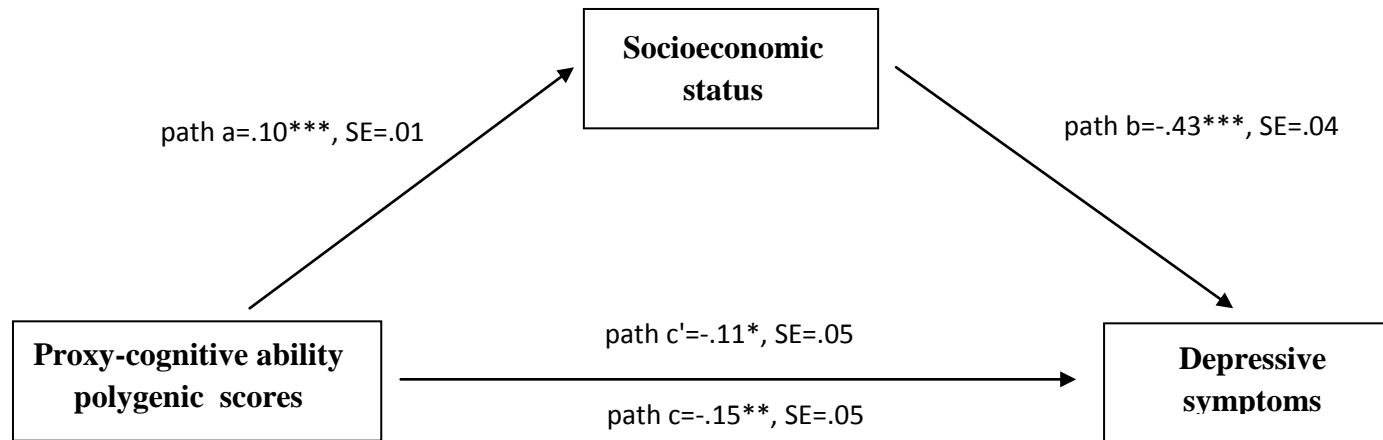
- 516 45. MacKinnon DP, Krull JL, Lockwood CM (2000) Equivalence of the mediation,
517 confounding and suppression effect. *Prev Sci* 1 (4):173-181
- 518 46. Rucker DD, Preacher KJ, Tormala ZL, Petty RE (2011) Mediation analysis in
519 social psychology: Current practices and new recommendations. *Social and*
520 *Personality Psychology Compass* 5 (6):359-371
- 521 47. Hayes AF (2009) Beyond Baron and Kenny: Statistical mediation analysis in the
522 new millennium. *Communication monographs* 76 (4):408-420
- 523 48. Santiago CD, Wadsworth ME, Stump J (2011) Socioeconomic status,
524 neighborhood disadvantage, and poverty-related stress: Prospective effects on
525 psychological syndromes among diverse low-income families. *Journal of Economic*
526 *Psychology* 32 (2):218-230
- 527 49. Dai D (2011) Racial/ethnic and socioeconomic disparities in urban green space
528 accessibility: Where to intervene? *Landscape and Urban Planning* 102 (4):234-244
- 529 50. Pampel FC, Krueger PM, Denney JT (2010) Socioeconomic disparities in health
530 behaviors. *Annual review of sociology* 36:349-370
- 531 51. Nandi A, Glymour MM, Subramanian S (2014) Association among
532 socioeconomic status, health behaviors, and all-cause mortality in the United States.
533 *Epidemiology* 25 (2):170-177
- 534 52. Beyer K, Kaltenbach A, Szabo A, Bogar S, Nieto F, Malecki K (2014) Exposure
535 to neighborhood green space and mental health: evidence from the survey of the
536 health of Wisconsin. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 11 (3):3453-3472
- 537 53. Boden JM, Fergusson DM (2011) Alcohol and depression. *Addiction* 106 (5):906-
538 914
- 539 54. Lorant V, Deliège D, Eaton W, Robert A, Philippot P, Ansseau M (2003)
540 Socioeconomic inequalities in depression: a meta-analysis. *Am J Epidemiol* 157
541 (2):98-112

Figure 1. Mediation model linking genetic influences on cognitive ability to depressive symptoms, via socioeconomic status.

1a. Duke Neurogenetics Study



1b. UK Biobank



Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$. c- the total effect of the proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores on depressive symptoms; c'-the effect of proxy-cognitive ability polygenic scores on depressive symptoms, while controlling for socioeconomic status.