

Genetics of 38 blood and urine biomarkers in the UK Biobank

Supplementary Note

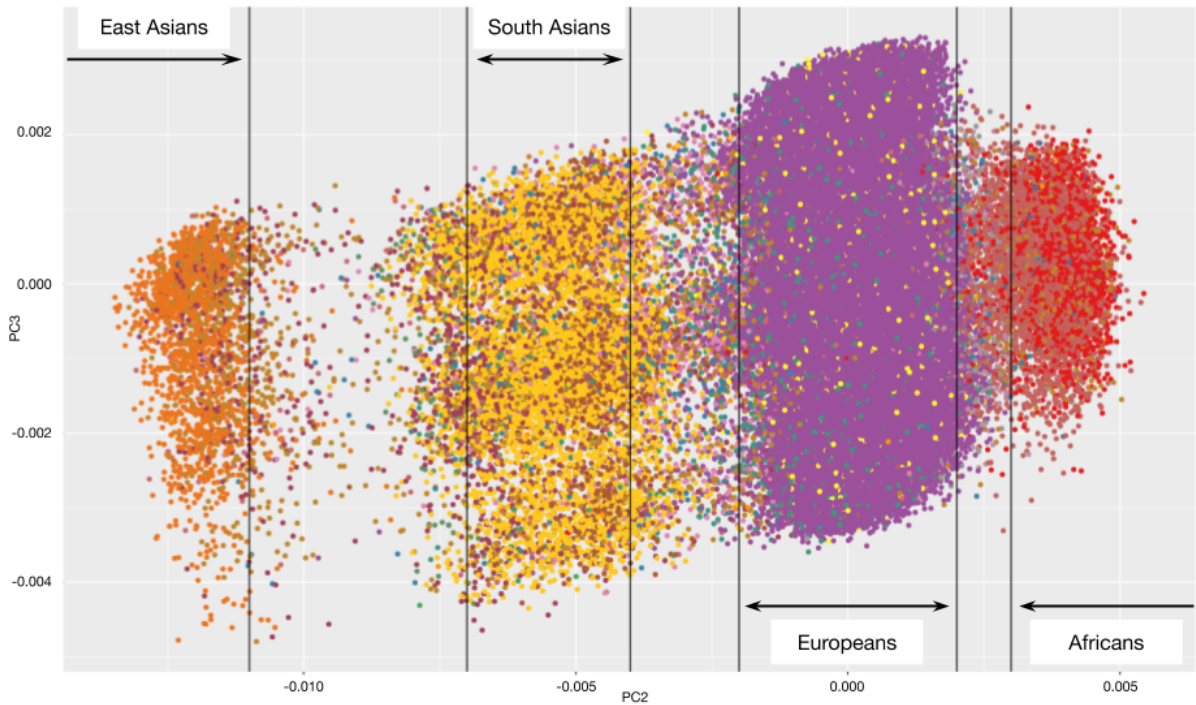
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	Reference	43
	FinnGen	45

Population structure analysis

(A)



25 (B)



Supplementary Figure 1. Population structure analysis for UK Biobank with a combination of principal component analysis and self-reported ethnicities. The 487,409 subjects in the UK Biobank with the genotype data is projected to the principal

components and shown on the PC1 vs. PC2 (A) and PC2 vs. PC3 (B) plots. Color represents the self-reported ethnicity (shown in panel A).

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Phenotype distributions

Within the UK Biobank we estimated what the adjustments might be for statin treatment effect on LDL, TGs, and the rest of the lab phenotypes. As background, there are pre-existing estimates in the literature for LDL¹.

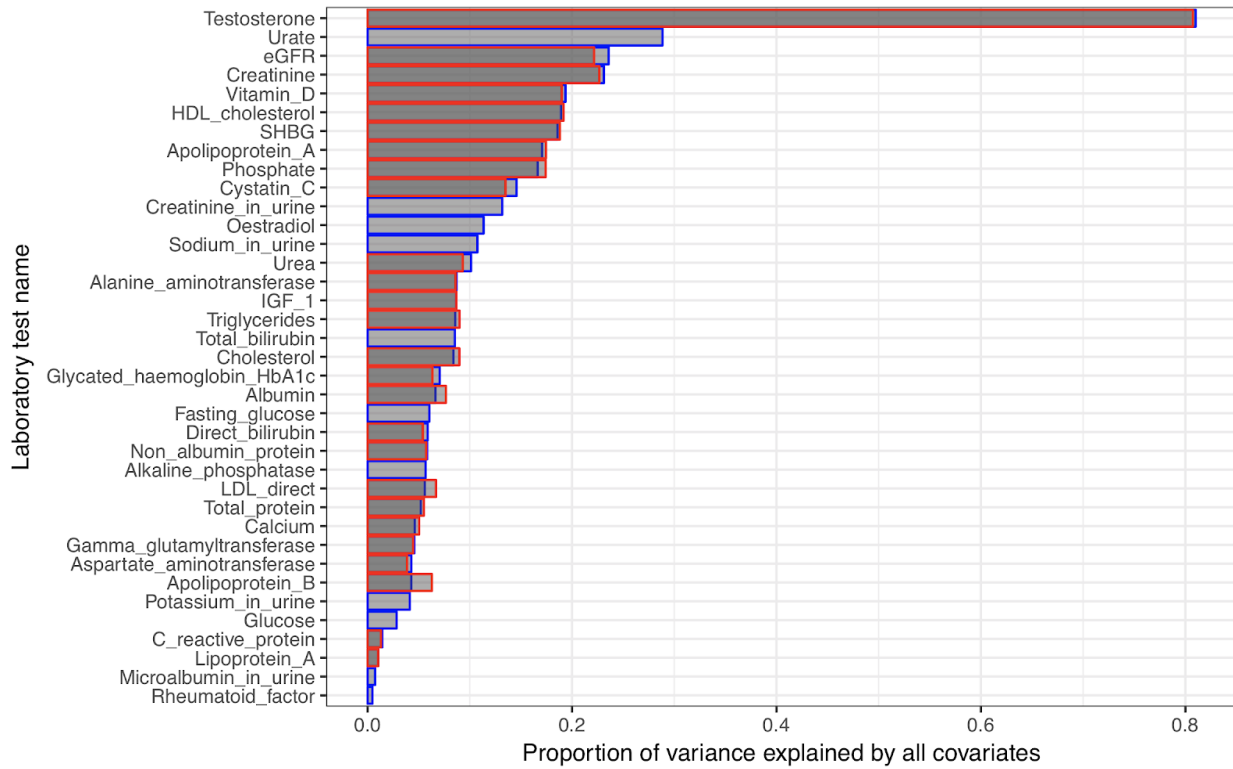
35 About 20,000 individuals returned for a repeated assessment. Of those, 1,705 either started or stopped a statin between enrollment and that second visit.

N=1427 people were on statins at the second visit but had not been on them at enrollment.

40 Their **LDL** direct, on average, came down by 1.37 mmol/L. Or, instead treating it as a multiplier, it came down to 0.68x. So, it seems that a reasonable estimate would be to either add 1.37 or multiply by (1/0.68) for anyone on statins at baseline. This is close to the literature value of a 0.7 correction factor.

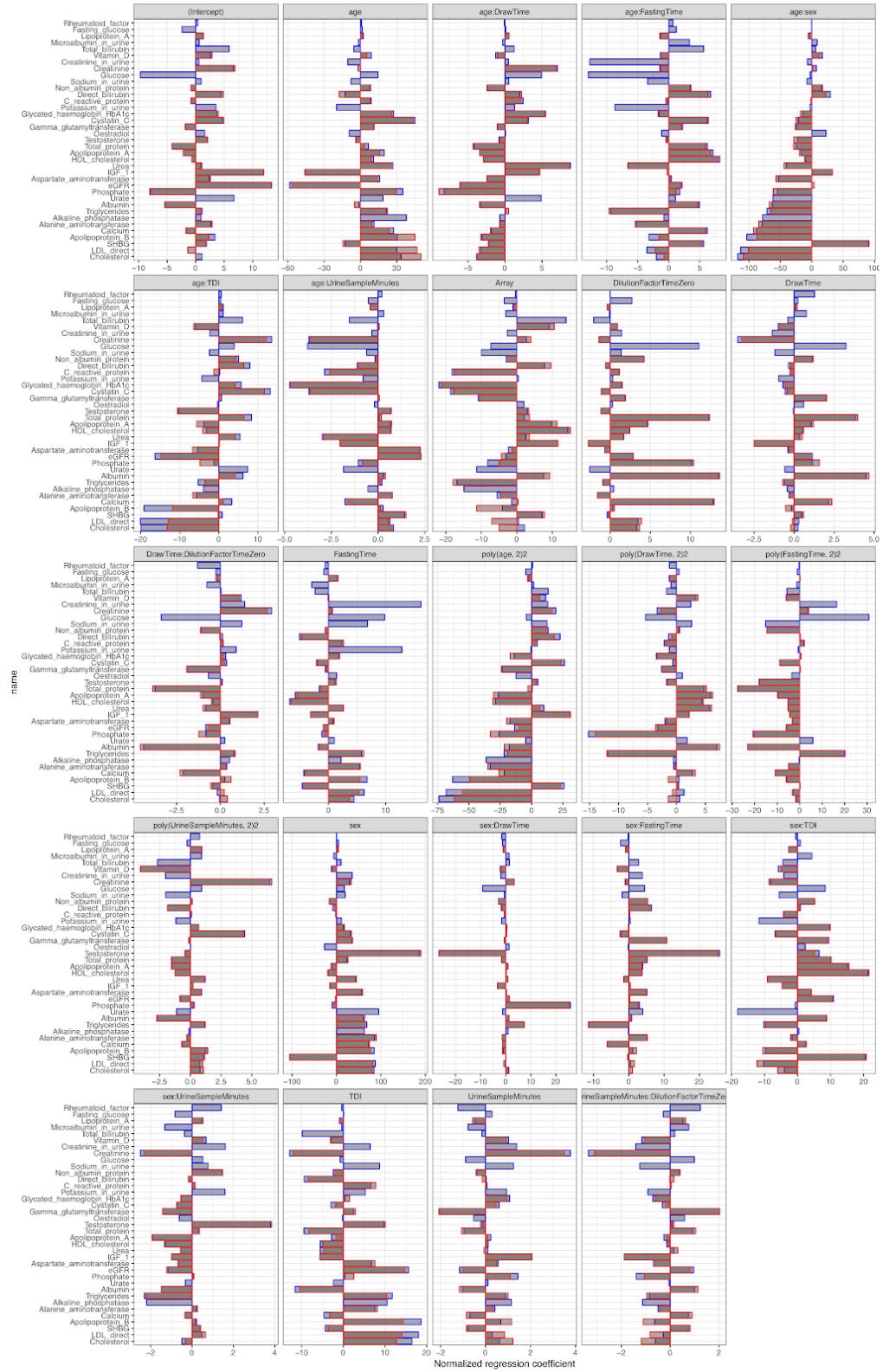
All lab phenotypes were assessed for adjustment based on statin usage:

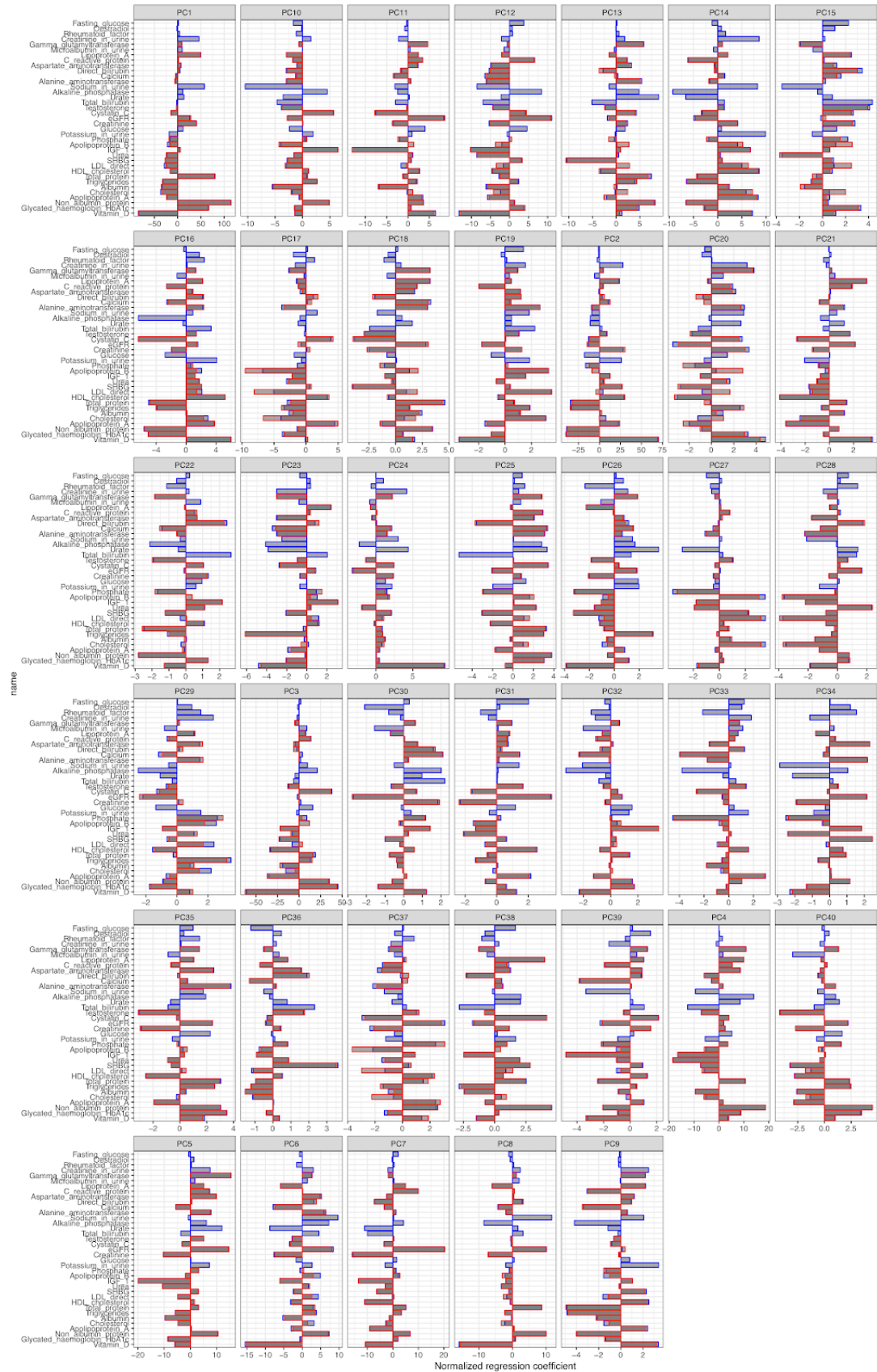
45 **Supplementary Table 1. Estimated adjustment based on statin usage.** For serum lab phenotypes we estimated the additional constant effect ("Additive") that statins seem to have on the trait once they are started; "Multiplicative" alternatively means the multiplier effect of statins; and the P-value is the Wilcoxon signed rank test for paired samples comparing whether the pre- and on-statin values seem to differ meaningfully.

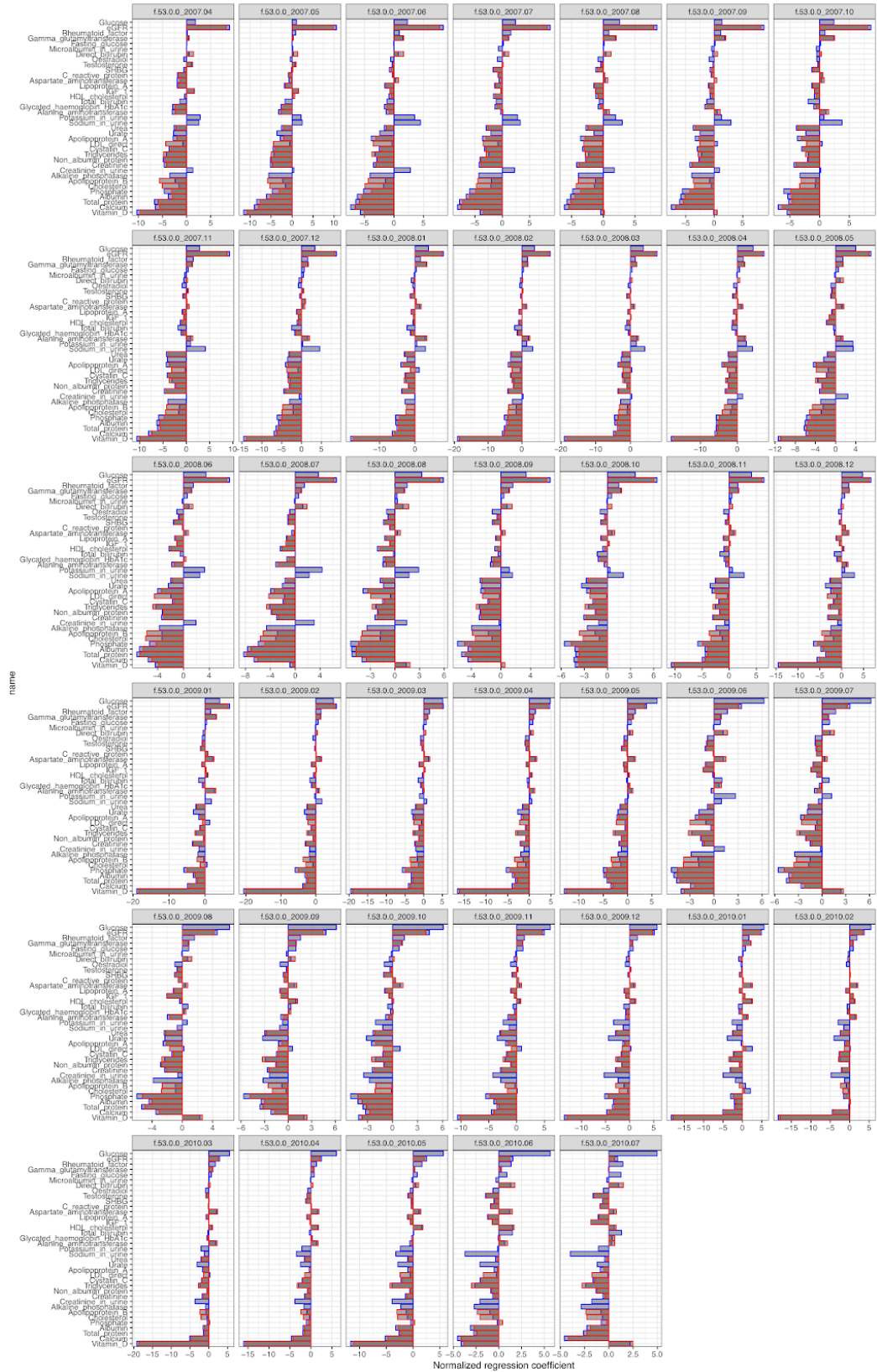


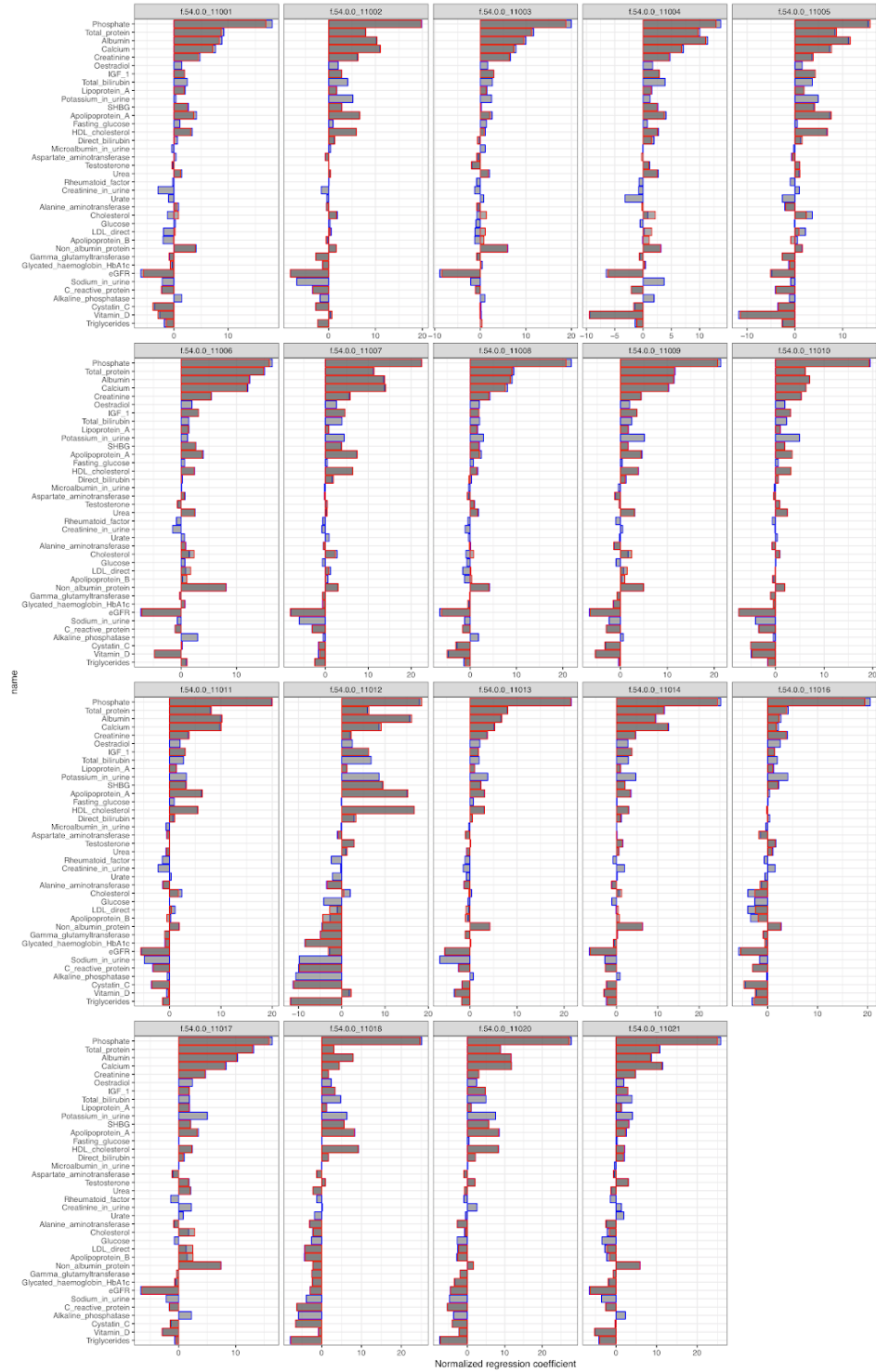
Supplementary Figure 2A. Proportion of variance explained by all covariates across the 37 raw laboratory phenotypes.

(x-axis) Regression estimate of the proportion of variance explained by all 127 covariates in a linear model for 37 raw laboratory phenotypes including Fasting glucose defined if fasting time between 8 and 24 hours according to Data Field 74 in UK Biobank Data Showcase (y-axis). Blue bar plots indicate estimate before medication adjustment and red bar plots indicate estimate after medication adjustment.

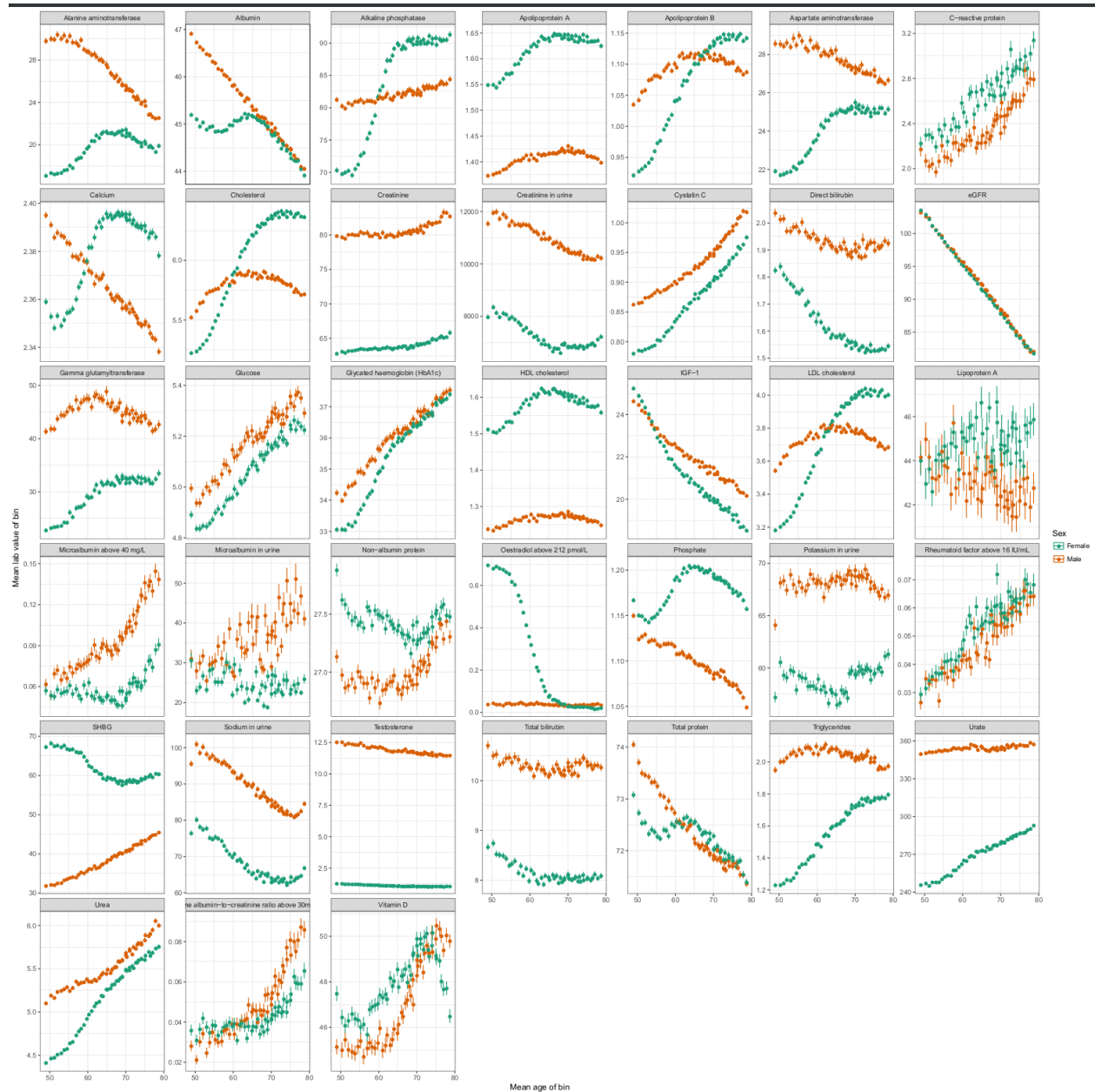








Supplementary Figure 2B. Normalized regression coefficient for the 37 raw laboratory phenotypes across the covariates. (x-axis) Normalized regression coefficient for 23 covariates in a linear model for the 37 raw laboratory phenotypes including Fasting glucose defined if fasting time between 8 and 24 hours according to Data Field 74 in UK Biobank Data Showcase (y-axis). Blue bar plots indicate estimate before medication adjustment and red bar plots indicate estimate after medication adjustment.

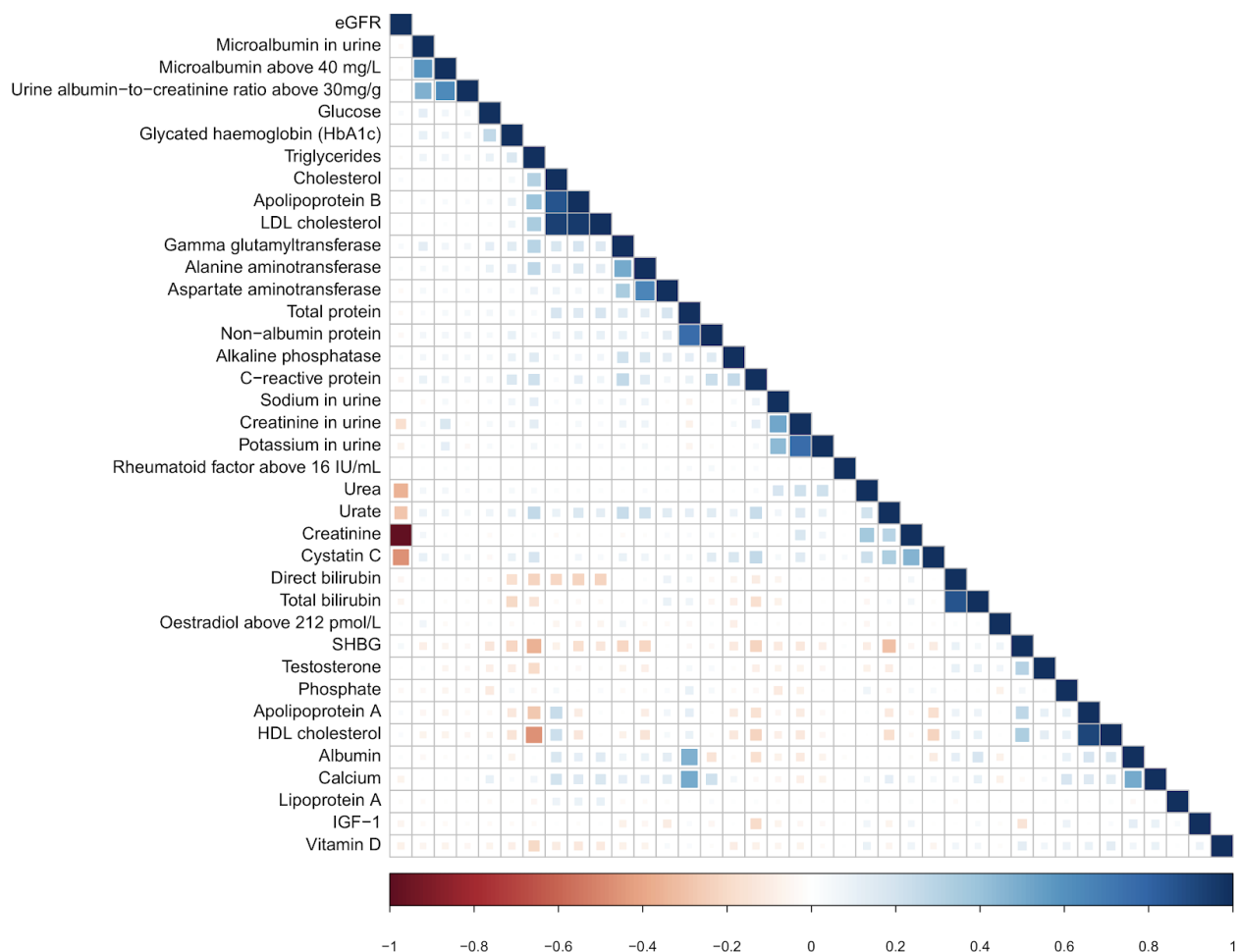


55 **Supplementary Figure 2C. Phenotype distributions of all laboratory tests by age and sex.** (x-axis) Age of individuals within a pentacontile were averaged. (y-axis) The corresponding average value \pm 1 SD of each laboratory test measurement for all individuals with available data in the study. Color indicates the reported sex of the individuals (orange = male, turquoise = female).

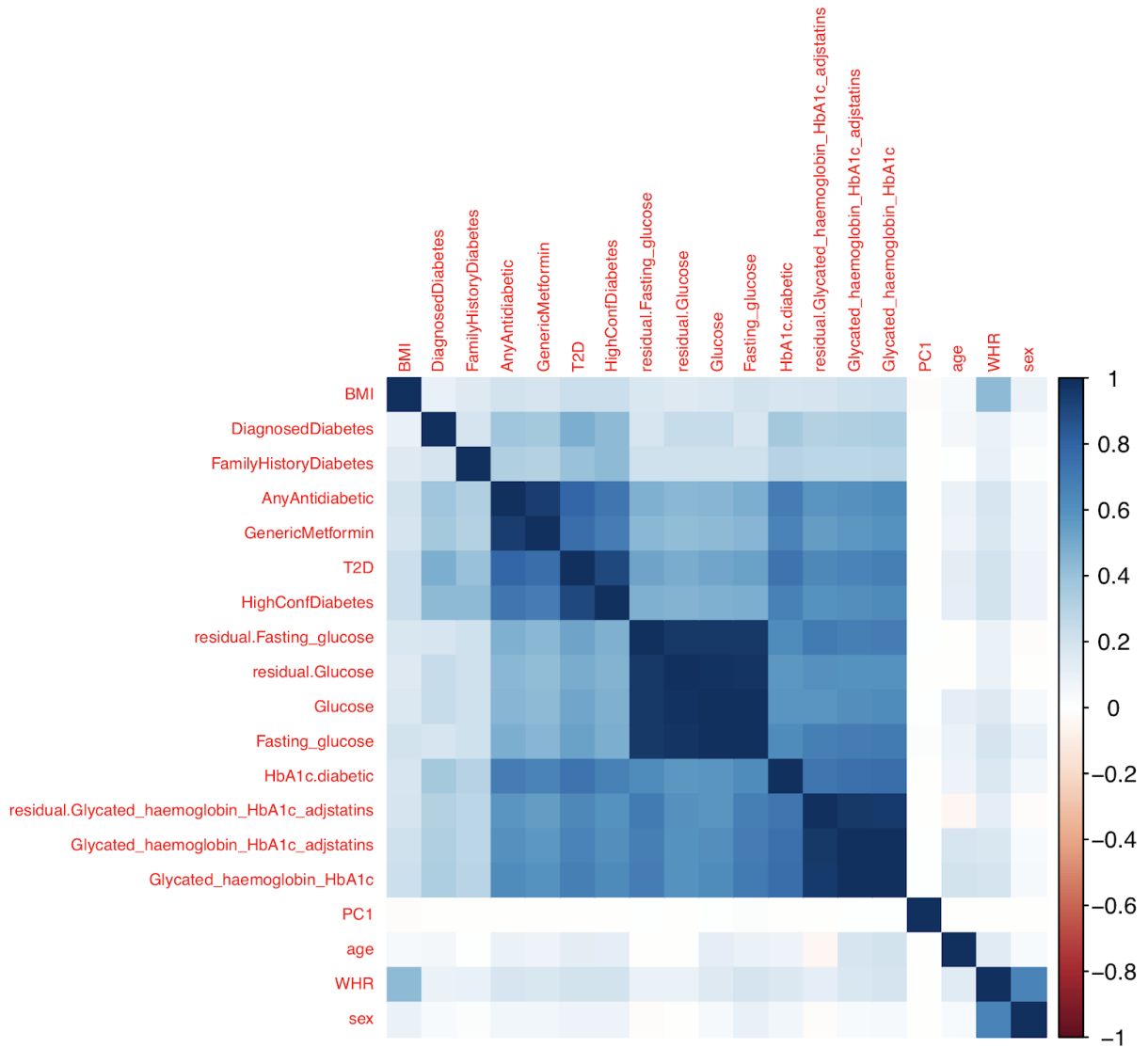
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Supplementary Table 2. Description of 38 measured and derived lab phenotypes. Lab phenotype name, abbreviation, units of measurement, the UK Biobank field ID, Global Biobank Engine phenotype ID, whether the phenotype is defined as binary (B) or quantitative (Q), whether the phenotype is adjusted for statin (Y) or not (N), whether the phenotype is adjusted for covariates (Y) or not (N), and total number of unrelated individuals across the self-identified White British, self-identified non-British White, African, East Asian, South Asian population subset in UK Biobank, the number of loci identified from GWAS (the number of independent loci), the number of imputed variants on 1000 genome phase 3 MAF > 1% variants, number of protein-altering variants, number of PTVs, the number of HLA alleles with posterior probability ≥ 0.8 , the number of single CNVs, and the number of rare aggregate CNVs), and GBE URL.



Supplementary Figure 3. Phenotype correlation among the 38 lab phenotypes. -1 (red) to 1 (blue) correlation of phenotypes (cell size indicates correlation). Only cells with $p < 0.001$ are shown. Results are consistent with previous work, and captures known associations between both testosterone and SHBG with uric acid (urate) levels².



70 **Supplementary Figure 4. Correlogram of different diabetes- and diabetes-related traits.** The similarity of type 2 diabetes
 (following Eastwood et al), high confidence diabetes (examining all available timepoints for an individual and using self-report and
 ICD codes), and prescription of metformin or any oral antidiabetic are compared to the laboratory test measurements of HbA1c and
 glucose. HbA1c was adjusted for statins (see Methods) and residualized (see Methods), while glucose was subset to individuals
 with a fasting time between 8 and 24 hours (see Methods) to ensure effects were not driven by fasting. Diagnosed diabetes was
 75 defined by the UK Biobank during the nurse interview, and family history was defined as having at least one self reported mother,
 father, or sibling (non-adopted) with diabetes. Table of correlations presented below (Supplementary Table 3).

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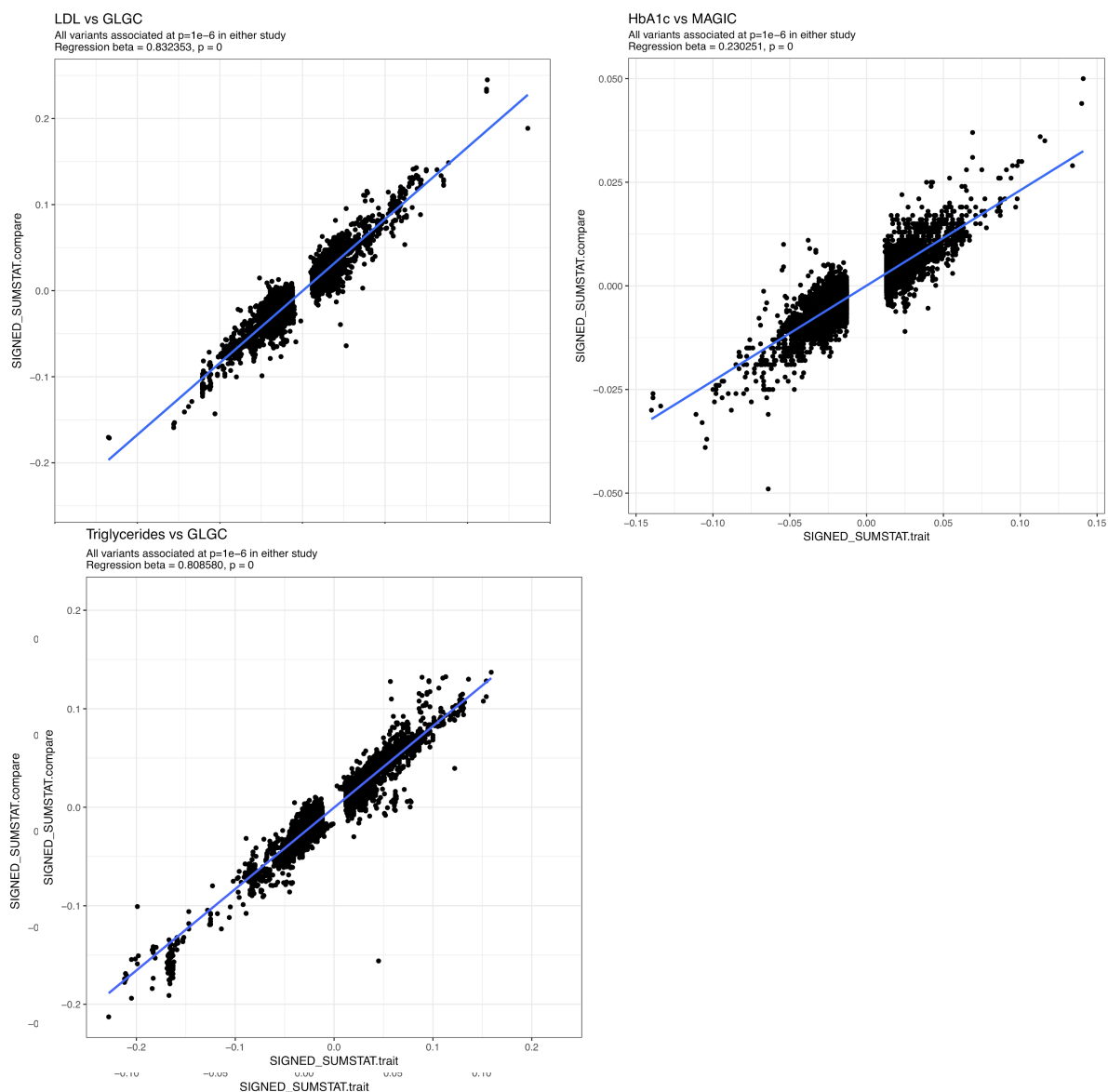
Supplementary Table 3. Diabetes correlation estimates. For each trait pair, the spearman correlation of the traits across all unrelated White British individuals for which the traits were defined is presented. AnyAntidiabetic is defined as any non-insulin drug from the oral antidiabetics and metformin codes presented in Eastwood et al; T2D is the definition of type 2 diabetes presented in Eastwood et al; fasting glucose is the glucose measurement for the individuals with a self-reported fasting time between 8 and 24 hours; HighConfDiabetes is a combination of self report and ICD codes presented in (DeBoever et al. 2018); GenericMetformin is just using Metformin and its generic forms; FamilyHistoryDiabetes is defined as 0 or 1 depending on whether the individual has self reported a father, mother, or sibling with diabetes; and HbA1c.diabetic is defined as a binary indicator of the individual having a measured HbA1c greater than 48.

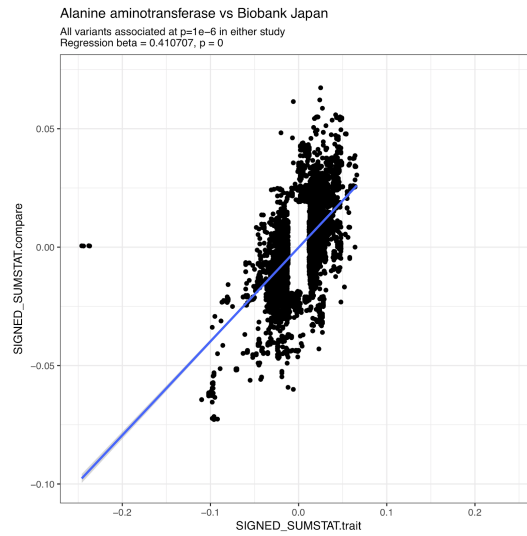
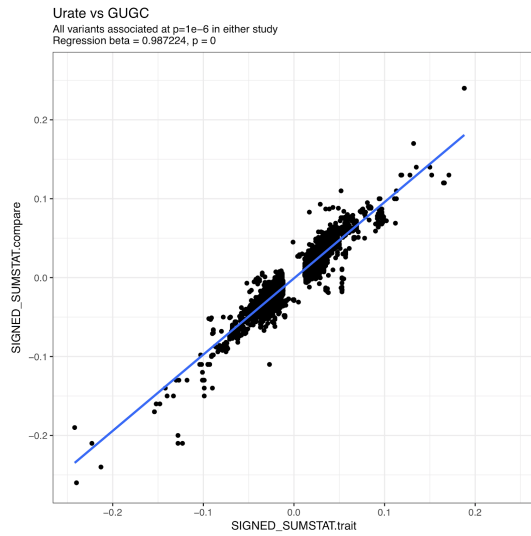
Genetics of laboratory tests

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Comparison of effect sizes with published studies

Supplementary Figure 5. Comparison of estimated effect sizes between UK Biobank and previous GWAS. (x-axis) UK Biobank estimated effect size. (y-axis) Comparative study estimated effect size. All variants associated $p < 1e-6$ in either study are shown.

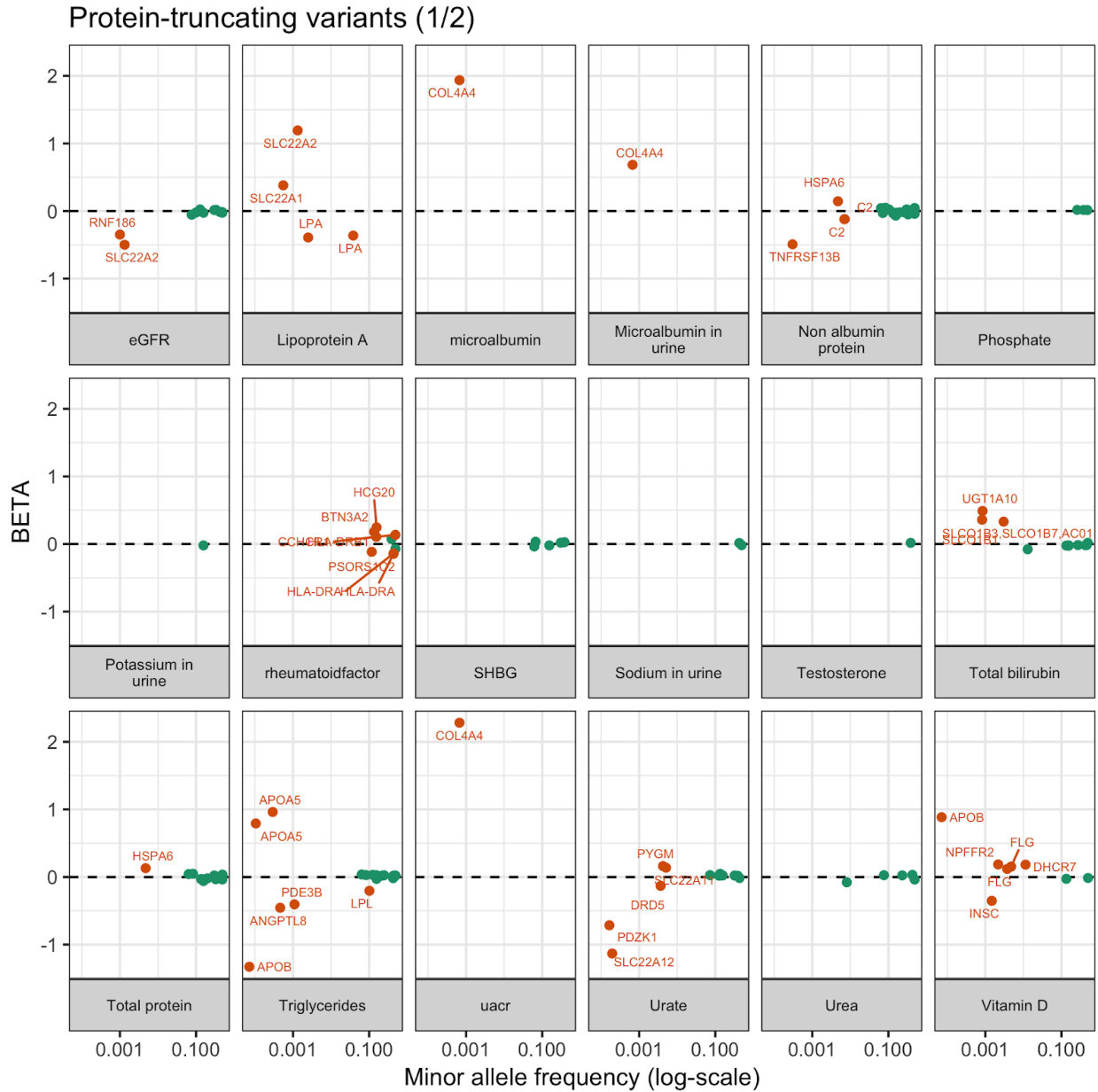




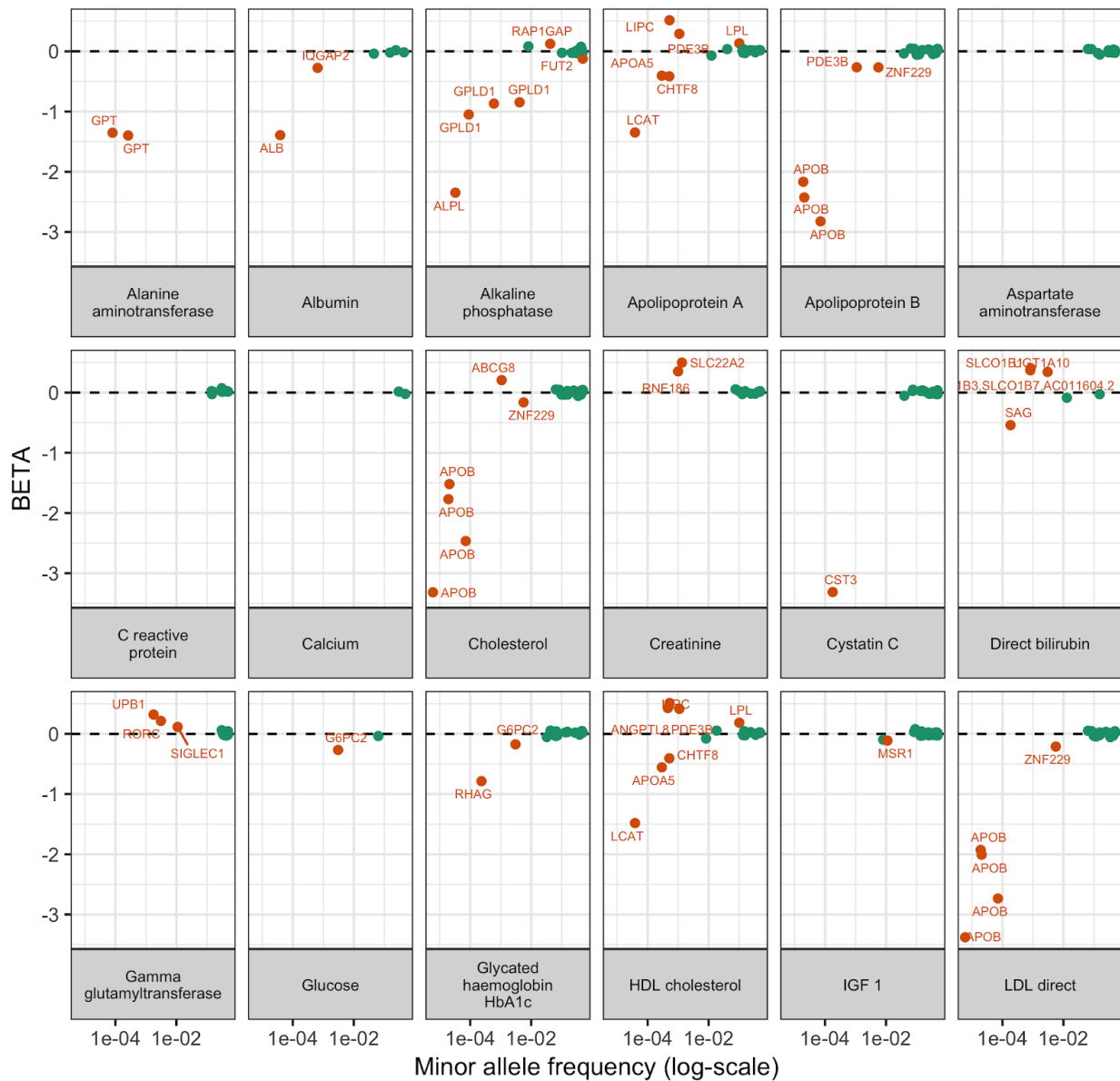
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Supplementary Table 4. Comparison of estimated effect sizes between UK Biobank and other studies. For each comparison, spearman correlations of beta estimates between the exiting study and UK Biobank laboratory measures are compared. Previous studies are taken from a number of existing papers. Comparisons were made to variants present in both studies with both the set of independent hits with $p < 5e-8$ ascertained from our data (Methods, “hits”) as well as the set of all variants with $p < 1e-6$ in either study (“subthreshold”). For each variant set, the overall correlation, as well as the beta and standard error from a linear regression, are reported.

Biomarker associated variants prioritize therapeutic targets

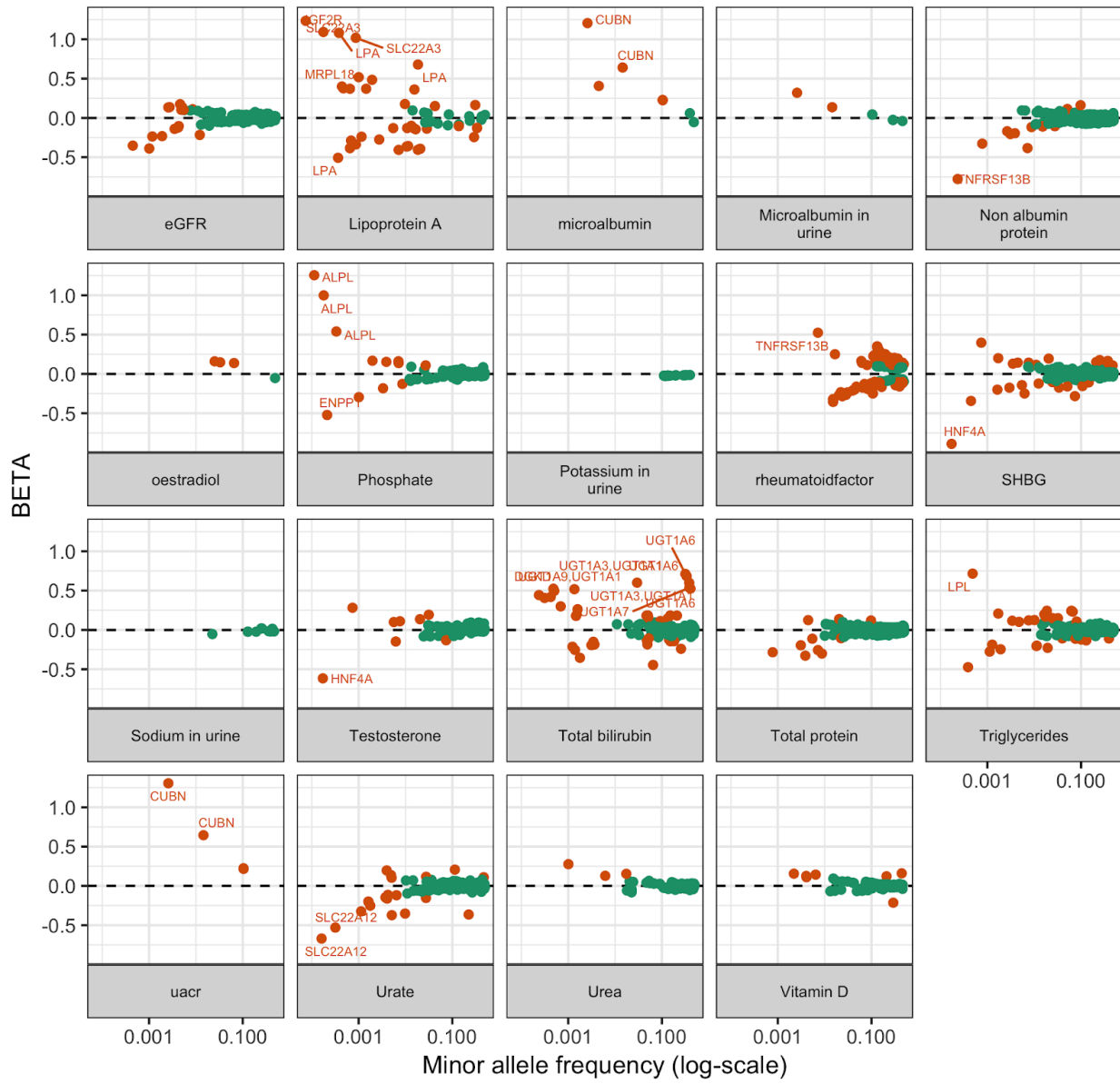


Protein-truncating variants (2/2)

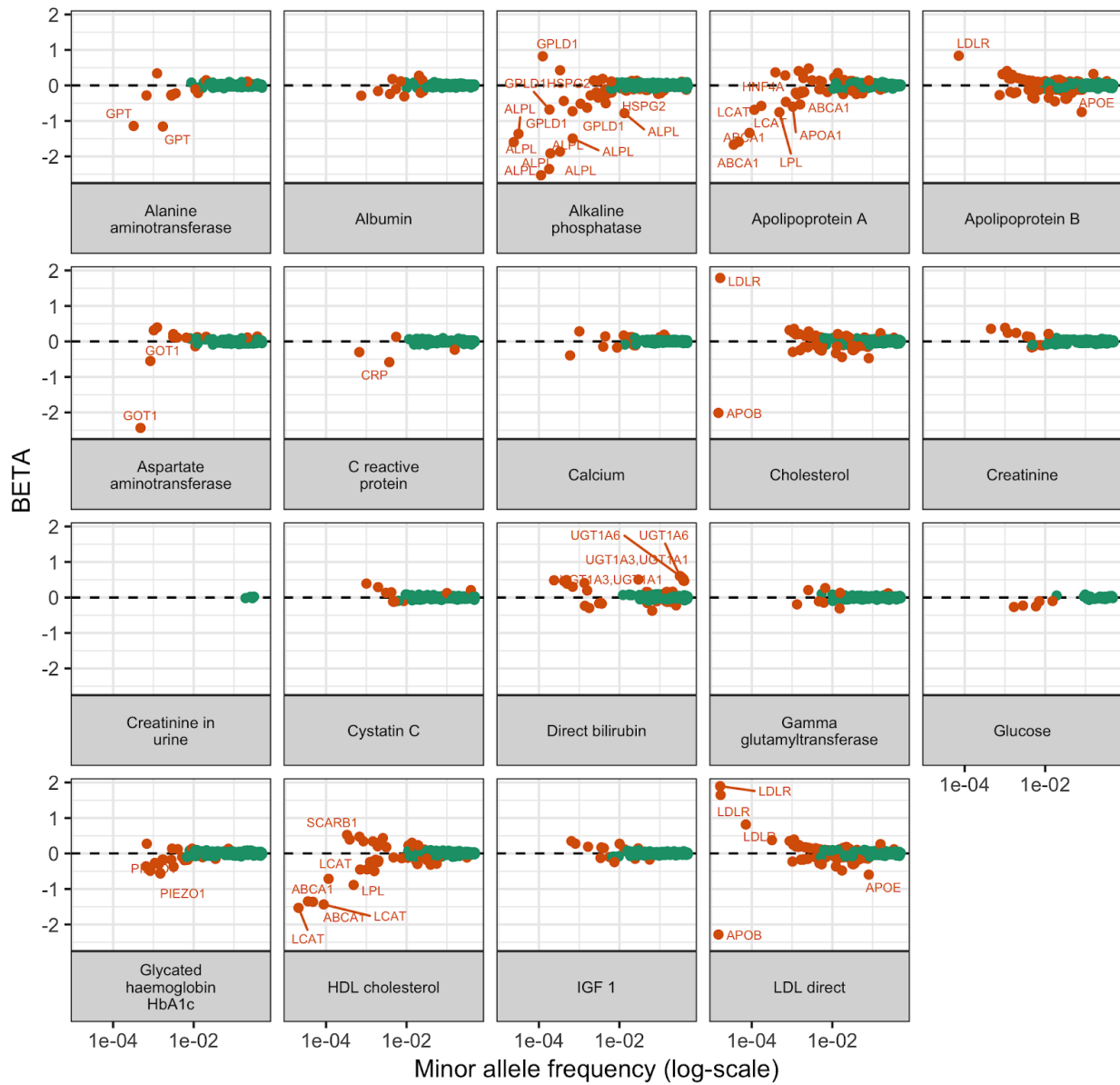


Supplementary Figure 6. Cascade plots for predicted protein-truncating variants across lab phenotypes. (x-axis) Minor allele frequency of genetic variant associated to phenotype ($p < 1e-7$) and (y-axis) BETA univariate regression coefficient estimate. Orange and labelled data points include genes with PTVs whose estimated effect size (BETA) is greater than or equal to .1 or less than or equal to -.1 standard deviation (SD). Two phenotypes (Creatinine in urine and oestradiol) did not have PTV associations with $p < 1e-7$ and excluded from the plot.

Protein-altering variants (1/2)

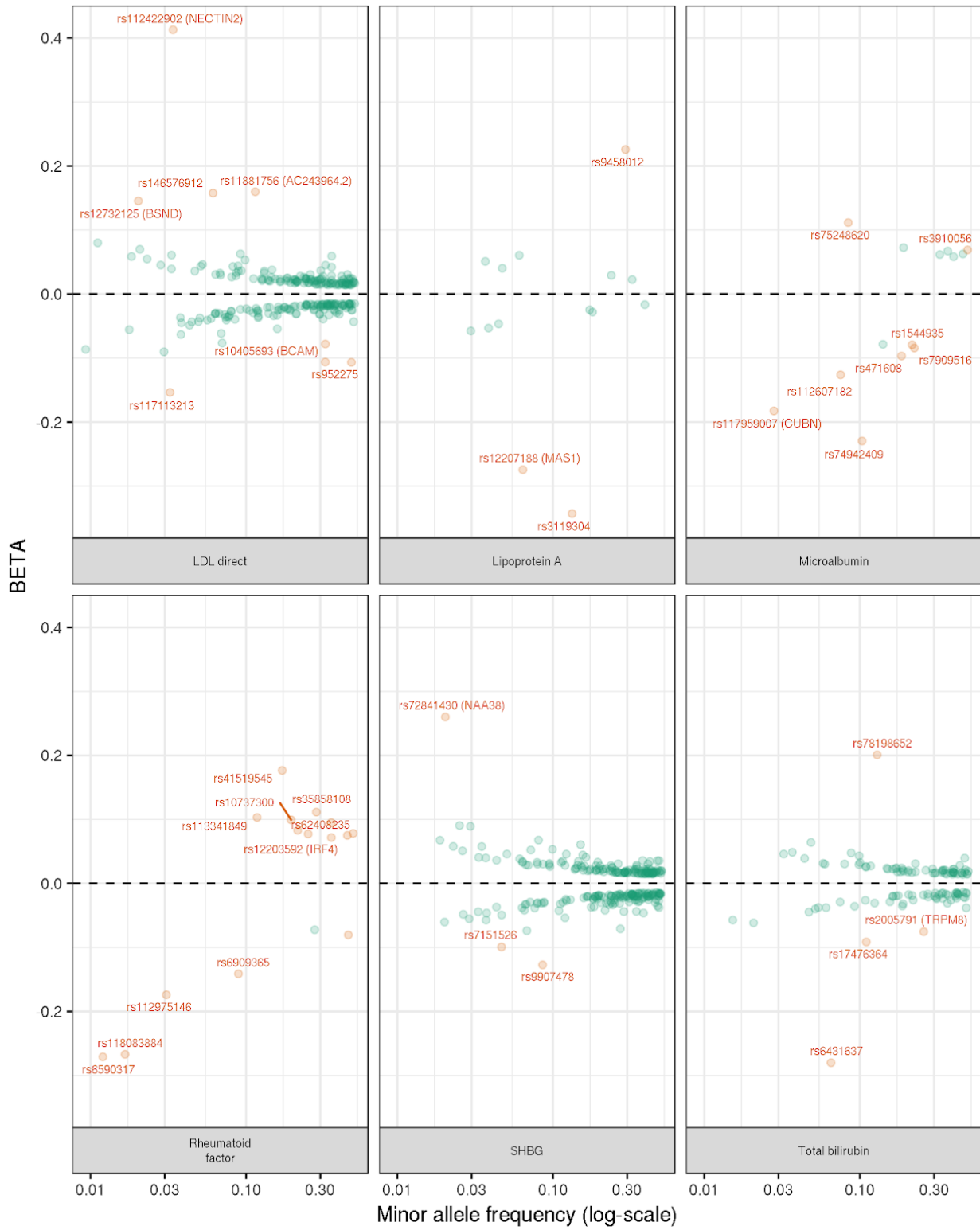


Protein-altering variants (2/2)

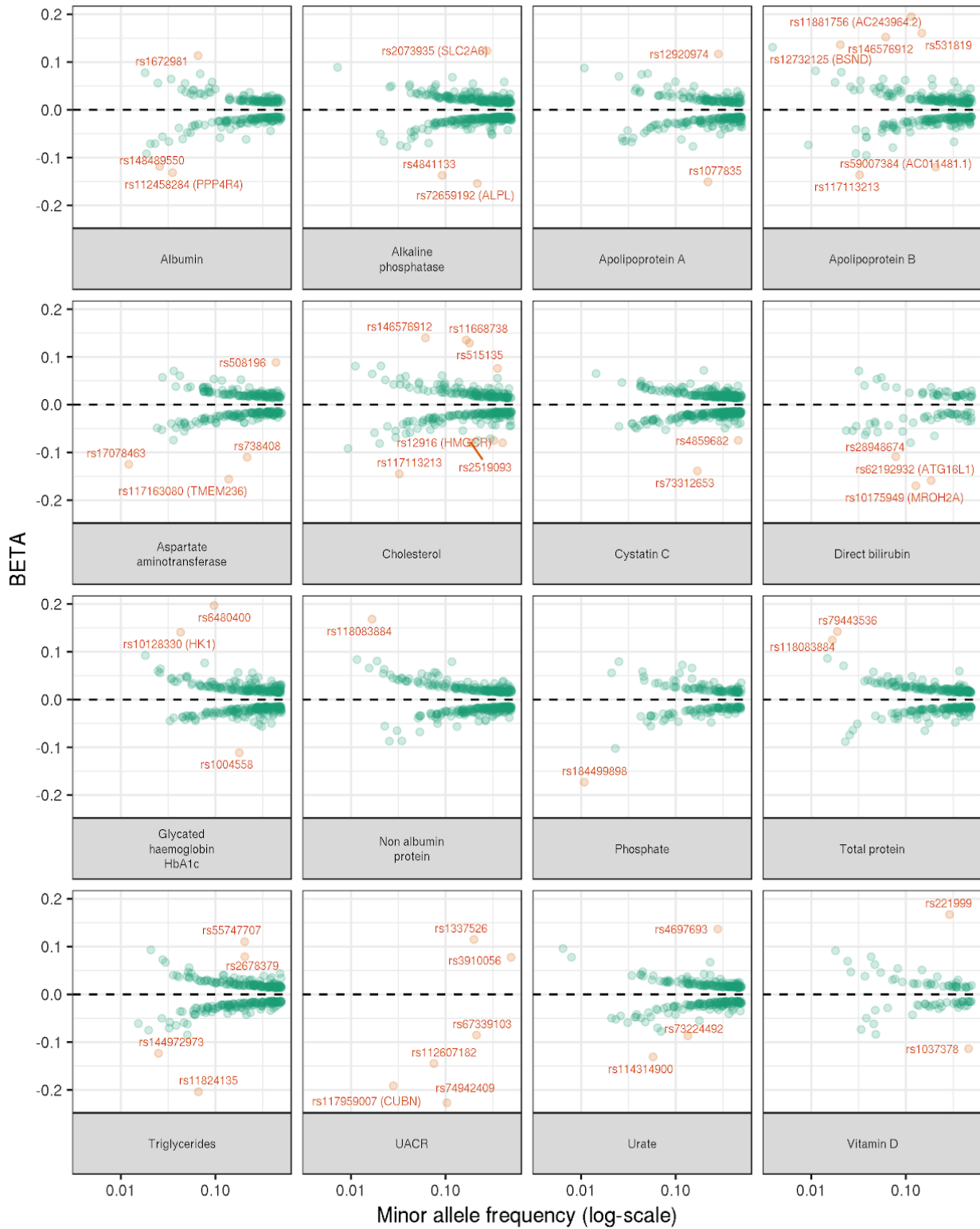


Supplementary Figure 7. Cascade plots for predicted protein-altering variants across lab phenotypes. (x-axis) Minor allele frequency of genetic variant associated to phenotype ($p < 1e-7$) and (y-axis) BETA univariate regression coefficient estimate. Orange and labelled data points include genes with protein-altering variants whose estimated effect size (BETA) is greater than or equal to .1 or less than or equal to -.1.

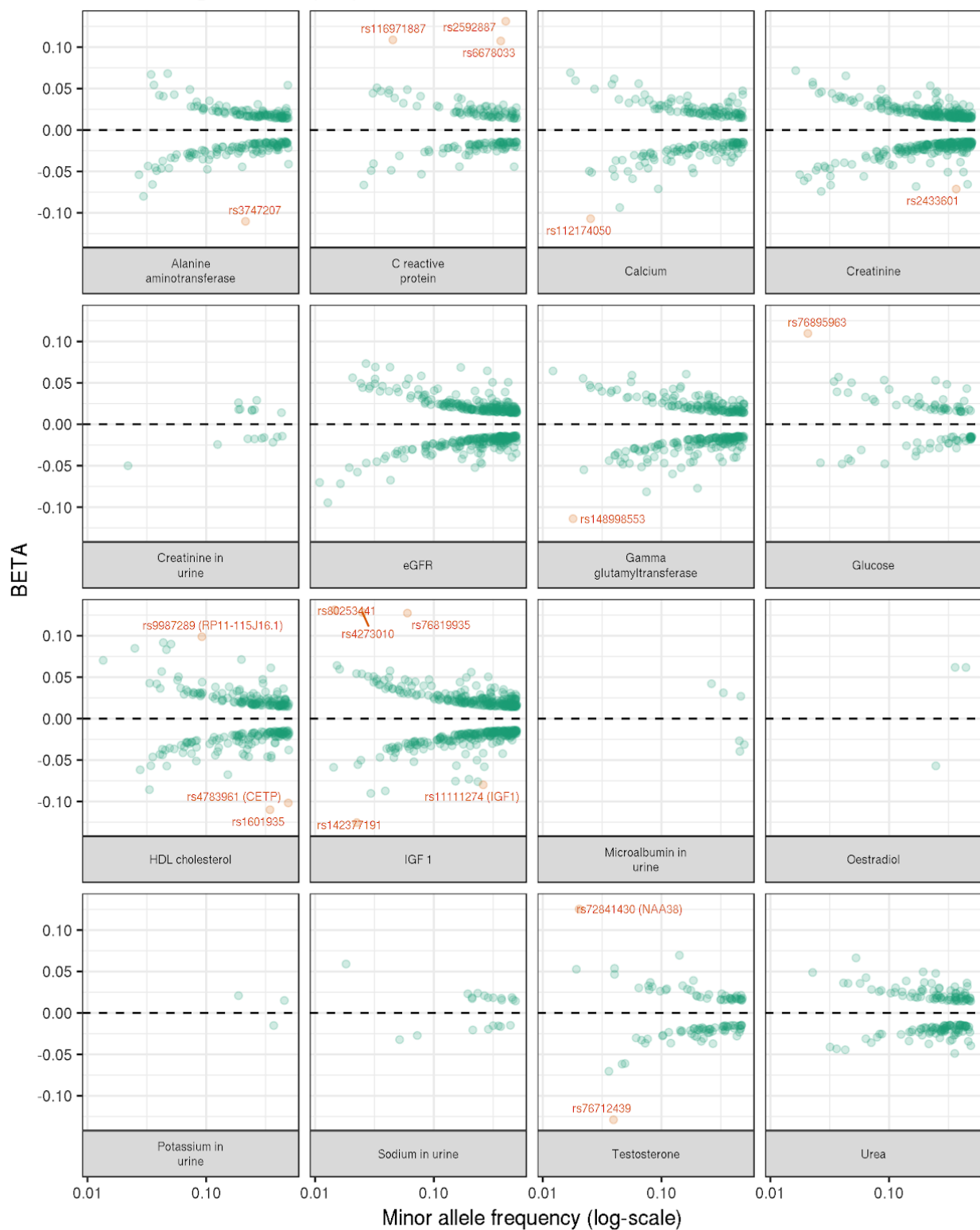
Non-coding variants (1/3)



Non-coding variants (2/3)

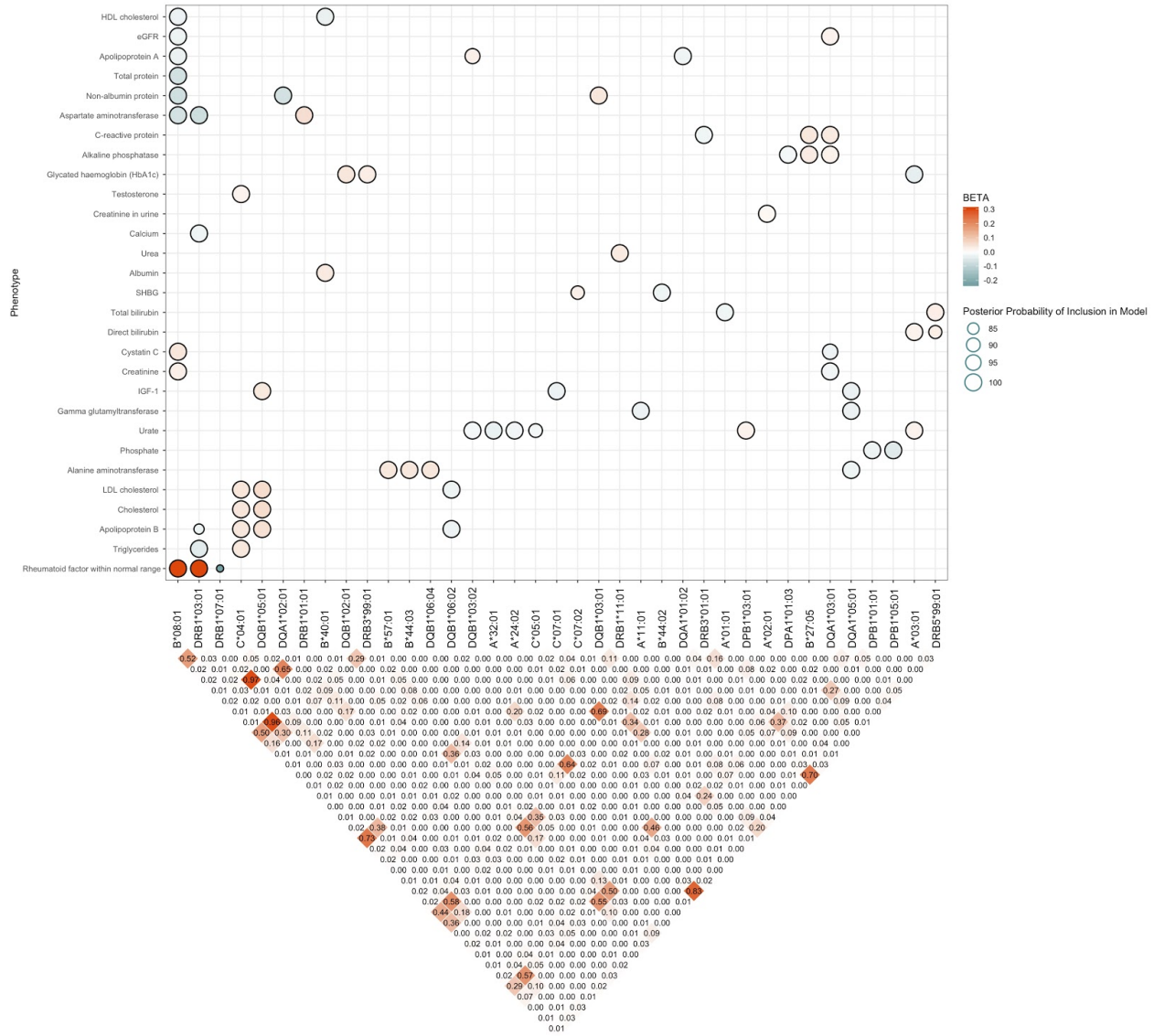


Non-coding variants (3/3)



105 **Supplementary Figure 8. Cascade plots for non-coding variants across lab phenotypes.** (x-axis) Minor allele frequency of non-coding variants characterized on the imputed 1000 Genomes Phase I variant associated to phenotype ($p < 5e-8$) and (y-axis) BETA univariate regression coefficient estimate. Orange and labelled data points include non-coding variants whose estimated

effect size (BETA) is an outlier, i.e. absolute value of estimated effect size deviates from the standard deviation range estimated from linear fit between log minor allele frequency and absolute value of estimated effect size (outlier, see methods for more details). The gene symbols are shown for splicing variants.



Supplementary Figure 9. Posterior effect sizes, probabilities of Bayesian Model Averaging model inclusion, and linkage disequilibrium for HLA alleles on 29 different laboratory test phenotypes. y-axis indicates phenotype, and x-axis indicates allele. Above - the size of each dot corresponds to the posterior probability that the HLA allele is included as a variable across all plausible models as deemed by BIC measures from BMA, and the color of each dot corresponds to the size and direction of the effect of the allele on the phenotype as found by PLINK. Only the top 10 significant PLINK hits per phenotype were considered for the analysis. Below - LD measures (as determined and visualized by the *gaston* package) across HLA allelotypes; the measures displayed are R^2 values.

Supplementary Table 5. Association results for protein-truncating variants across the 38 lab phenotypes ($p < 1e-7$).

Protein-truncating variant annotation (variant, ID) and its association to the lab phenotype (trait). Effect size allele (A1), estimated effect size (BETA), standard error (SE), p-value of association (P), minor allele frequency (MAF), predicted protein-truncating or protein-altering variant (Csq), predicted major consequence (Consequence), the HGVS protein sequence name (HGVS), Gene

Symbol (Gene Symbol), Ensembl Gene ID (Gene), whether the variant is outside of MHC region (is_outside_of_MHC), whether the variant is LD independent based on LD pruning (ld_indep), absolute value of estimated effect size is greater than or equal to .1 (outlier), additional manual comments from authors (Comments).

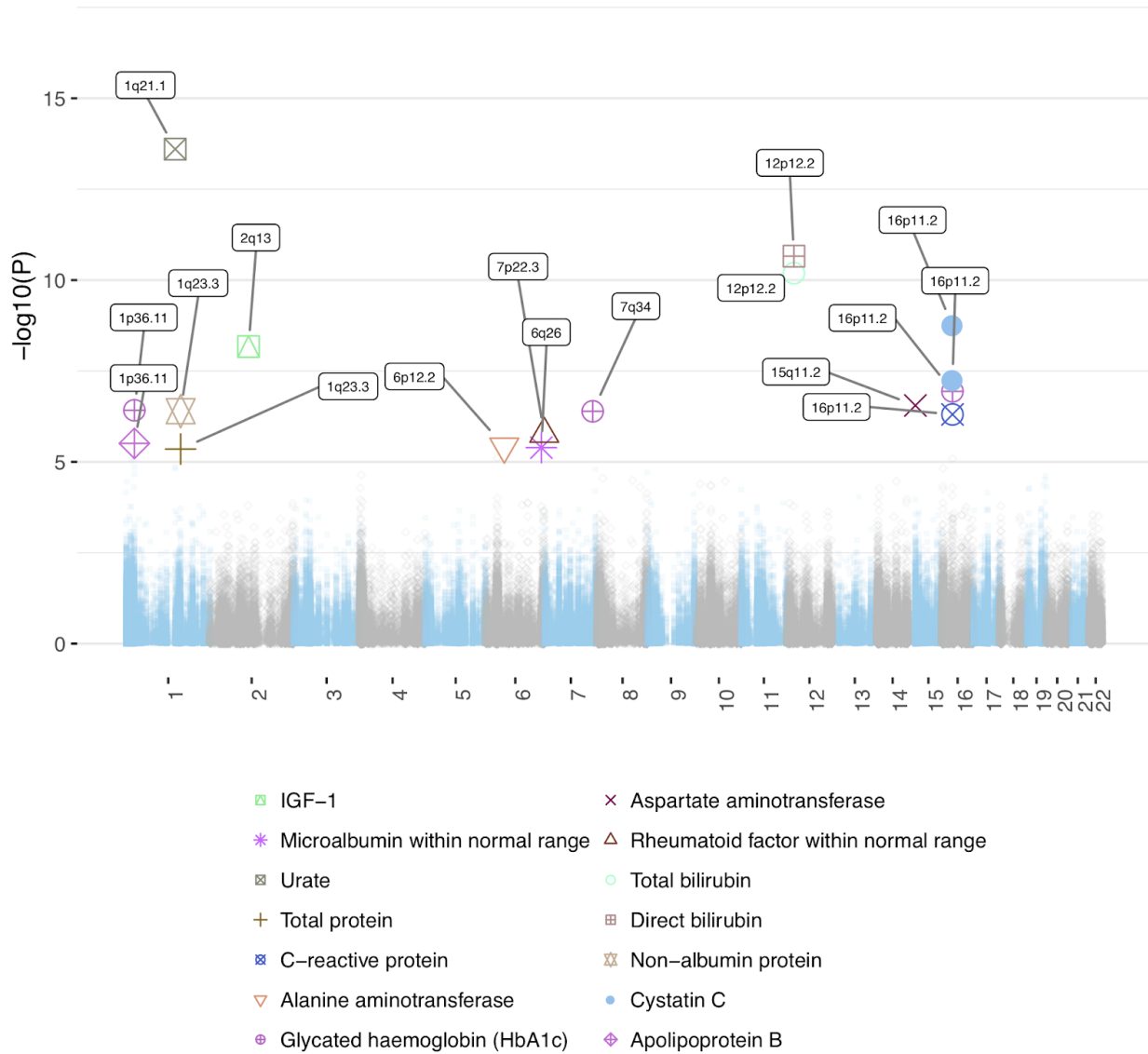
125 **Supplementary Table 6. Association results for protein-altering variants across the 38 lab phenotypes ($p < 1e-7$).**
Protein-altering variant annotation (variant, ID) and its association to the lab phenotype (trait). Effect size allele (A1), estimated effect size (BETA), standard error (SE), p-value of association (P), minor allele frequency (MAF), predicted protein-truncating or protein-altering variant (Csq), predicted major consequence (Consequence), the HGVS protein sequence name (HGVS), Gene Symbol (Gene Symbol), Ensembl Gene ID (Gene), absolute value of estimated effect size is greater than or equal to .1 (outlier),
130 additional manual comments from authors (Comments).

Supplementary Table 7. Association results for non-coding variants across the 38 lab phenotypes ($p < 5e-8$). The non-coding variants characterized on the imputed 1000 Genomes Phase I variants (ID, variant), their positions in centimorgans, (CM) and its association to the lab phenotype (trait). Effect size allele (A1), estimated effect size (BETA), standard error (SE), p-value of association (P), minor allele frequency (MAF), whether the variant is outside of MHC region (is_outside_of_MHC), gene symbol (Gene Symbol), and absolute value of estimated effect size deviates from the standard deviation range estimated from linear fit between log minor allele frequency and absolute value of estimated effect size (outlier, see methods for more details), additional manual comments from authors (Comments).

Supplementary Table 8. (a) HLA alleles found to be associated to the 38 lab phenotypes via both PLINK association tests and Bayesian Model Averaging (BMA). (b) Other, non-lab phenotypes significantly associated (via PLINK and BMA) to the 37 alleles that had significant results in (a). Tables enumerate associations' BETA, SE, T/Z STAT values (depending on the type of test), P values from PLINK, and the same P values that have been Benjamini-Yekutieli adjusted (BY_ADJ_P). The tables also contain probabilities of model inclusion from BMA. The tables only enumerate those associations that were found to have both a PLINK association p-value $\leq 0.05/10000$ and a BMA posterior probability ≥ 0.8 .

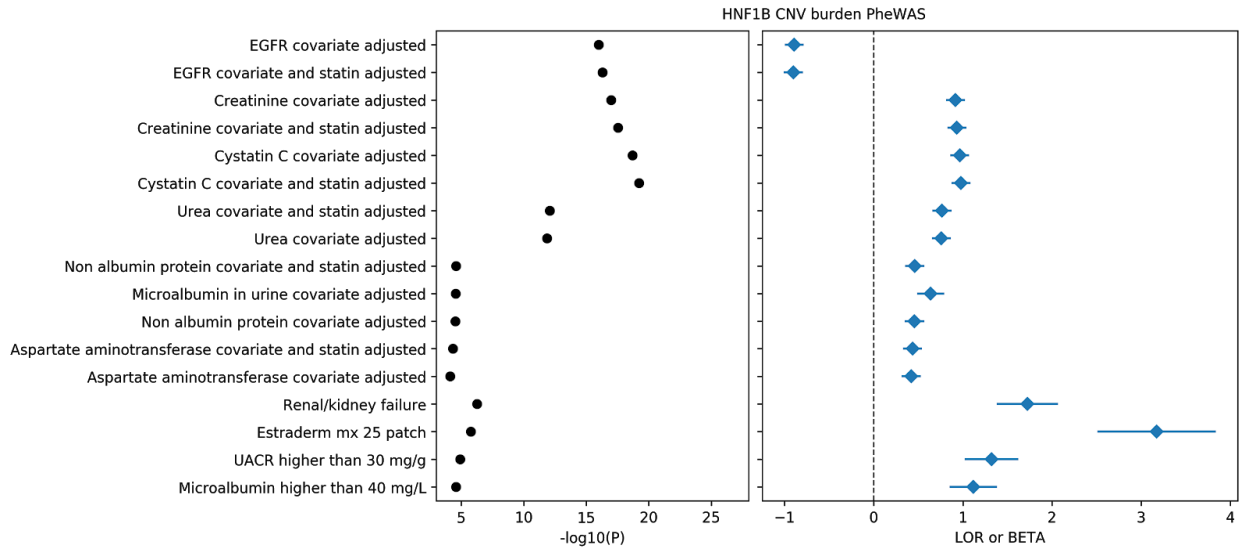
CNVs influencing lab phenotypes

145 **Supplementary Table 9. Copy number variation associated to the 38 lab phenotypes.** Bonferroni $p < 0.05/10000$. Columns in the provided data file correspond to the phenotype, chromosome and centroid position of each CNV tested, CNV ID (formatted as chrom:bp1-bp2_del/dup (del denoted by - and dup by +), reference copy number (always N), alternate CNV (always denoted by +), tested "allele" (usually +), genotype model (ADD is additive), N, estimated beta/log odds ratio, standard error of estimate, t/z-statistic, and p-value.



150 **Supplementary Figure 10A. CNV association analysis across the 38 laboratory tests.** X-axis Genomic coordinate and $-\log_{10}(P)$ for single CNV association. CNV laboratory test associations are highlighted when $p < .05/10000$, with cytogenic band labelled.

155 **Supplementary Table 10. Rare variant CNV test.** Bonferroni $p < .01/25000$. Columns in the provided data file correspond to the phenotype, chromosome and centroid position of each gene tested, gene name, reference copy number (always N), burden of CNV (always denoted by +), tested "allele" (usually +), genotype model (ADD is additive), N, estimated beta/log odds ratio, standard error of estimate, t/z-statistic, and p-value.

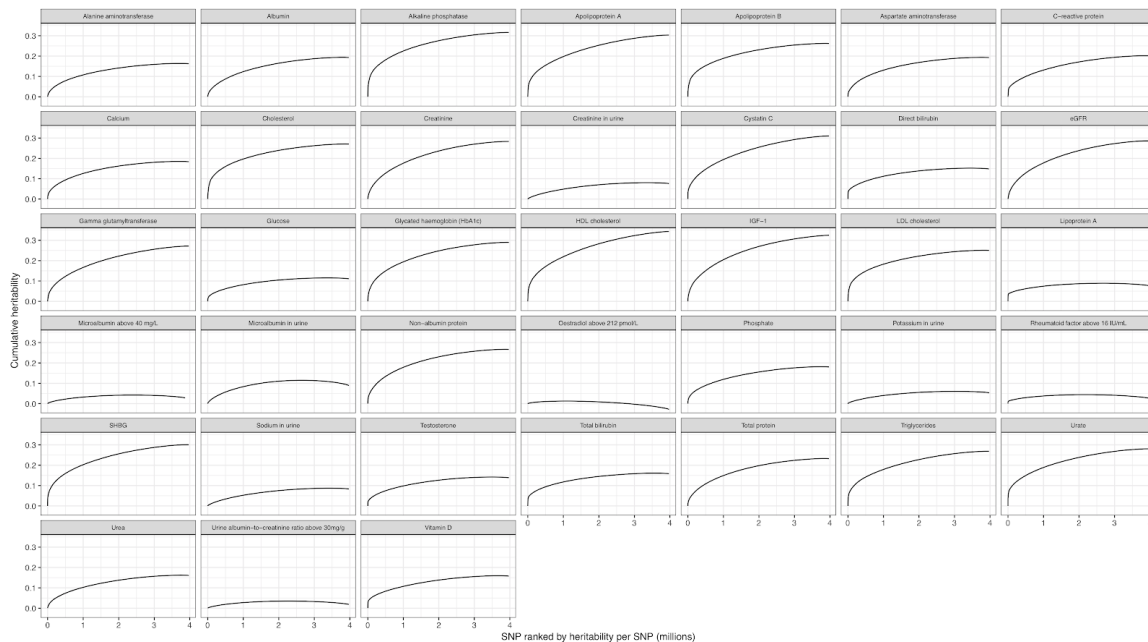


Supplementary Figure 10B. PheWAS of rare CNVs affecting *HNF1B*. X-axis log-odds ratio and $-\log_{10}(P)$ for each trait having association with *HNF1B* CNVs at $p < 1e-4$. Associations for all traits run as in previous analysis³.

Global and local heritability of biomarkers

160 **Supplementary Table 11A. Total SNP heritability.** Total heritability estimates of the 38 laboratory tests with and without adjustment for statins. Estimates are generated using a local SNP heritability model, HESS (Shi et al. 2016).

Supplementary Table 11B. Cumulative heritability. Percent heritability explained by the top 1% of SNPs for each of the 38 lab phenotypes.



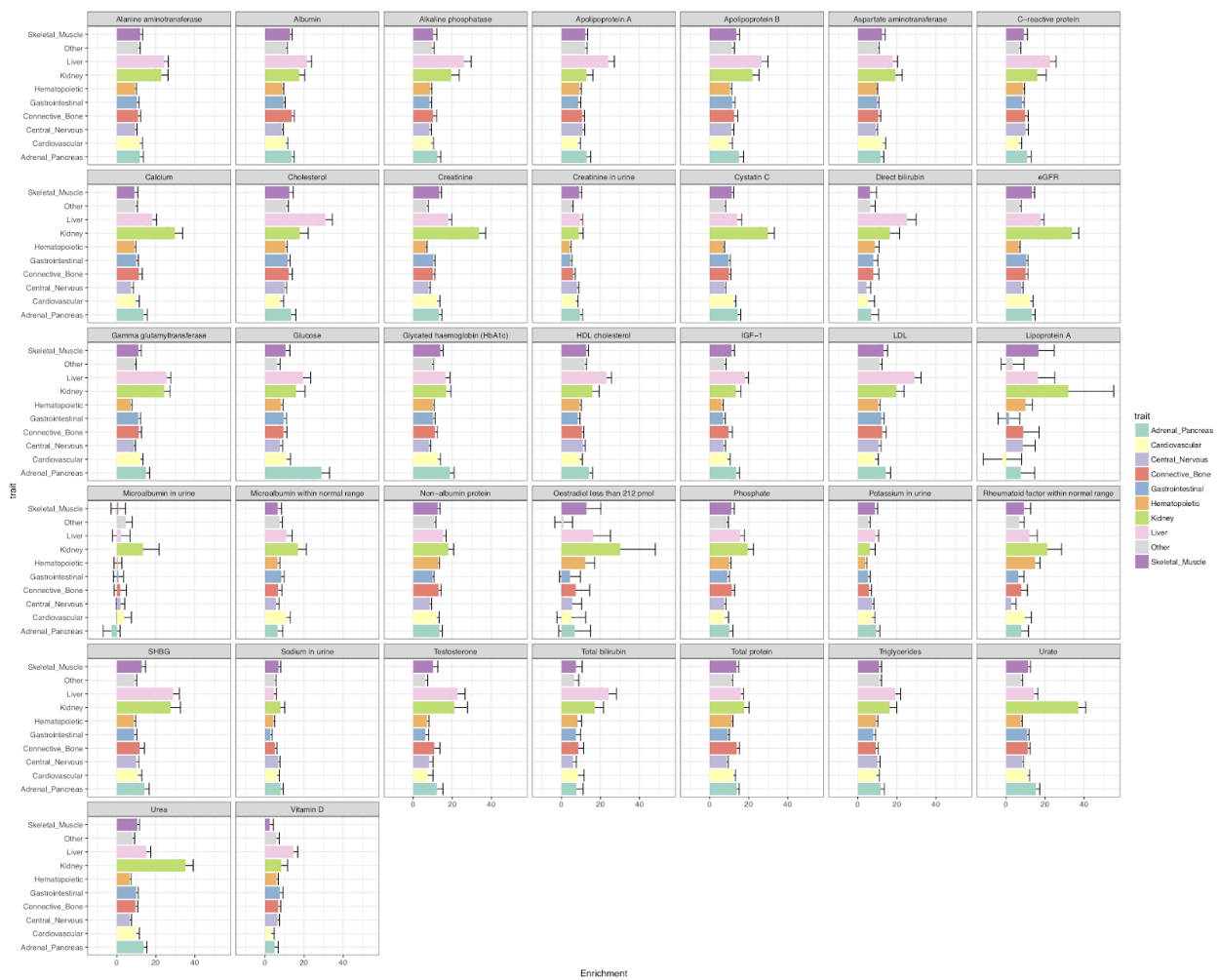
Supplementary Figure 11. Cumulative heritability. x-axis SNP ranked by heritability per SNP (millions) and its corresponding cumulative heritability (y-axis) across the 38 lab phenotypes. Lab phenotype label shown in the title of the subplots.

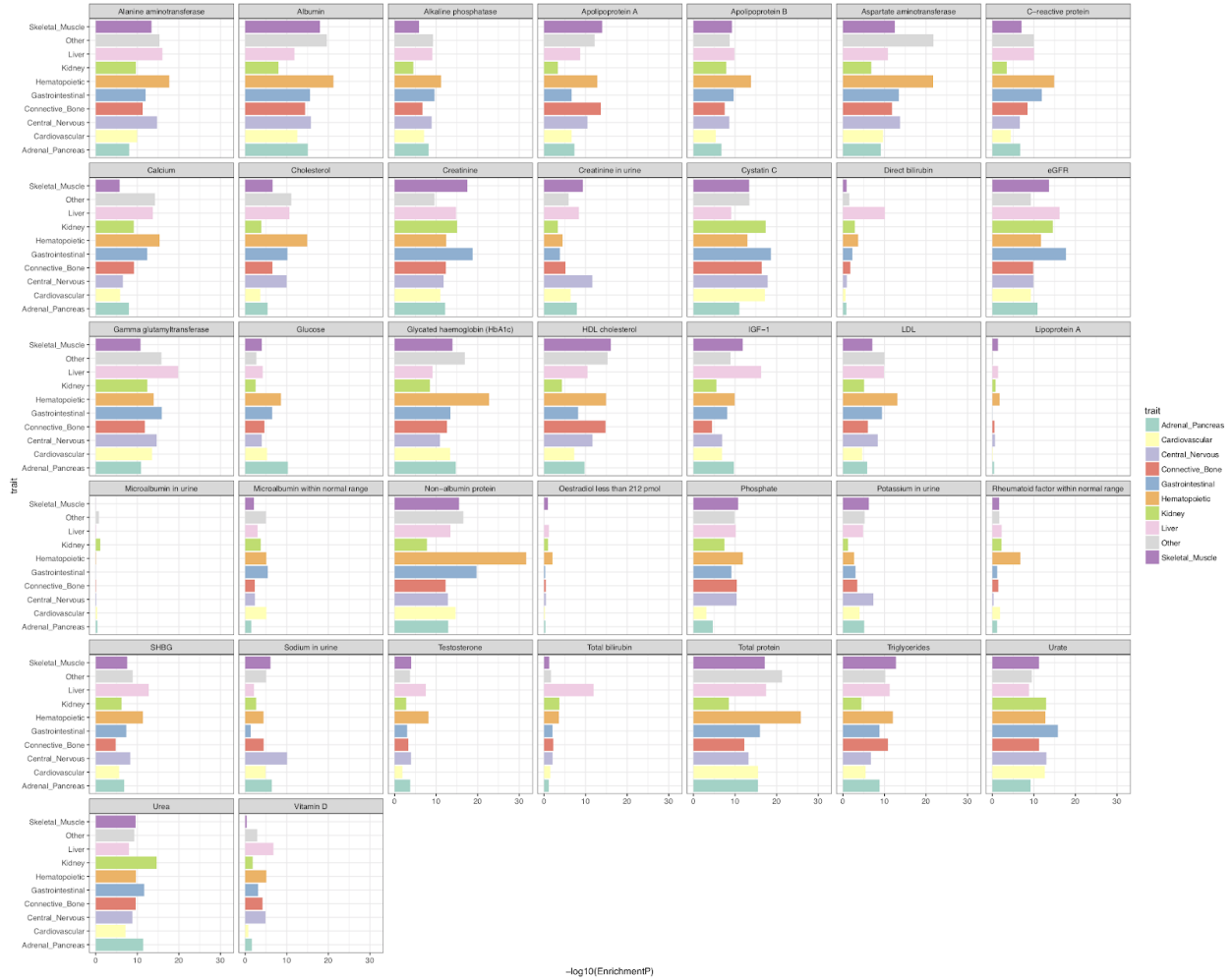
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Cell type decomposition of genetic effects

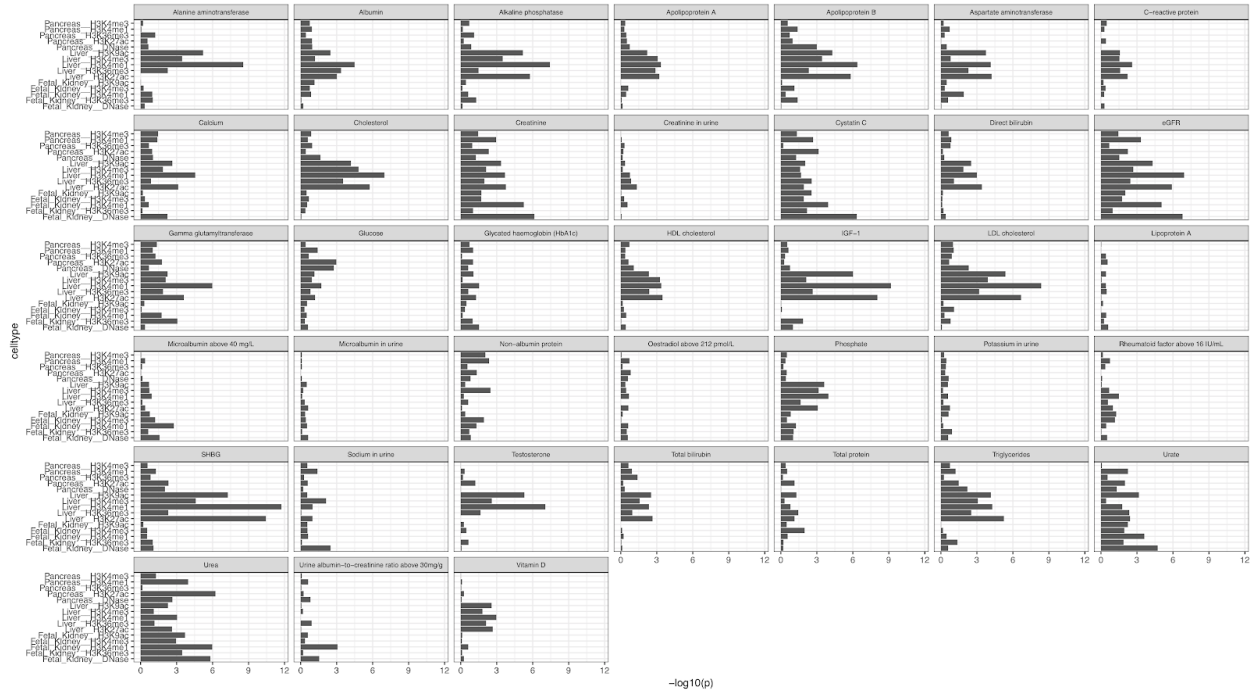
Supplementary Table 11C. Cell type enrichments of SNP heritability. For each of the 10 cell groupings presented previously⁴, estimates of the mean and standard deviation of chromatin enrichment for the given cell group were generated using LD Score regression, adjusted for the 53 baseline annotations and the aggregate of each Roadmap annotation mark across all cell types⁵.

170 **Supplementary Table 11D. Single cell heritability enrichments.** Marker genes from single cell RNA-seq datasets from human liver⁶, mouse adult kidney⁷, human fetal kidney⁸, human adult kidney⁹, and human adult pancreas¹⁰ were tested for enrichment using S-LDSC⁵ with the 53 baseline annotations, Roadmap average annotations, and 10 cell group annotations as controls. Each marker gene set was extended by 100Kb and SNPs the region were annotated as being associated with the cell type.





Supplementary Figure 12. Grouped cell type heritability enrichments across ten tissues. (x-axis, top) Fold enrichment with SE for each lab phenotype across 10 tissues (y-axis). (x-axis, bottom) $-\log_{10}(P)$ value of enrichment or each lab phenotype across 10 tissues (y-axis).

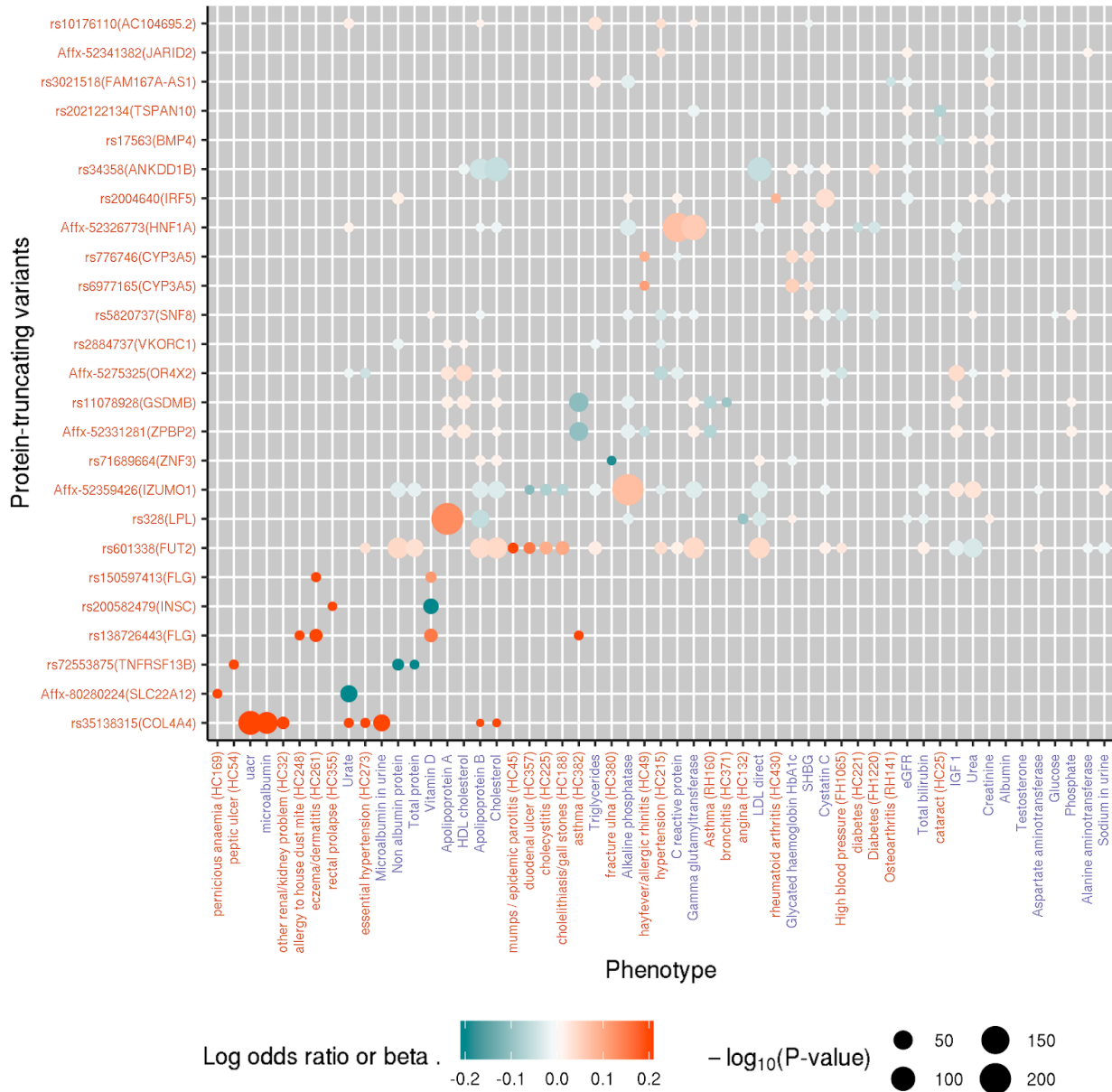


Supplementary Figure 13. Individual annotations for pancreas, liver, and kidney ChIP-seq experiments. $-\log_{10}(P)$ (x-axis) for cell type heritability enrichment across pancreas, liver, and kidney ChIP-seq experiments (y-axis).

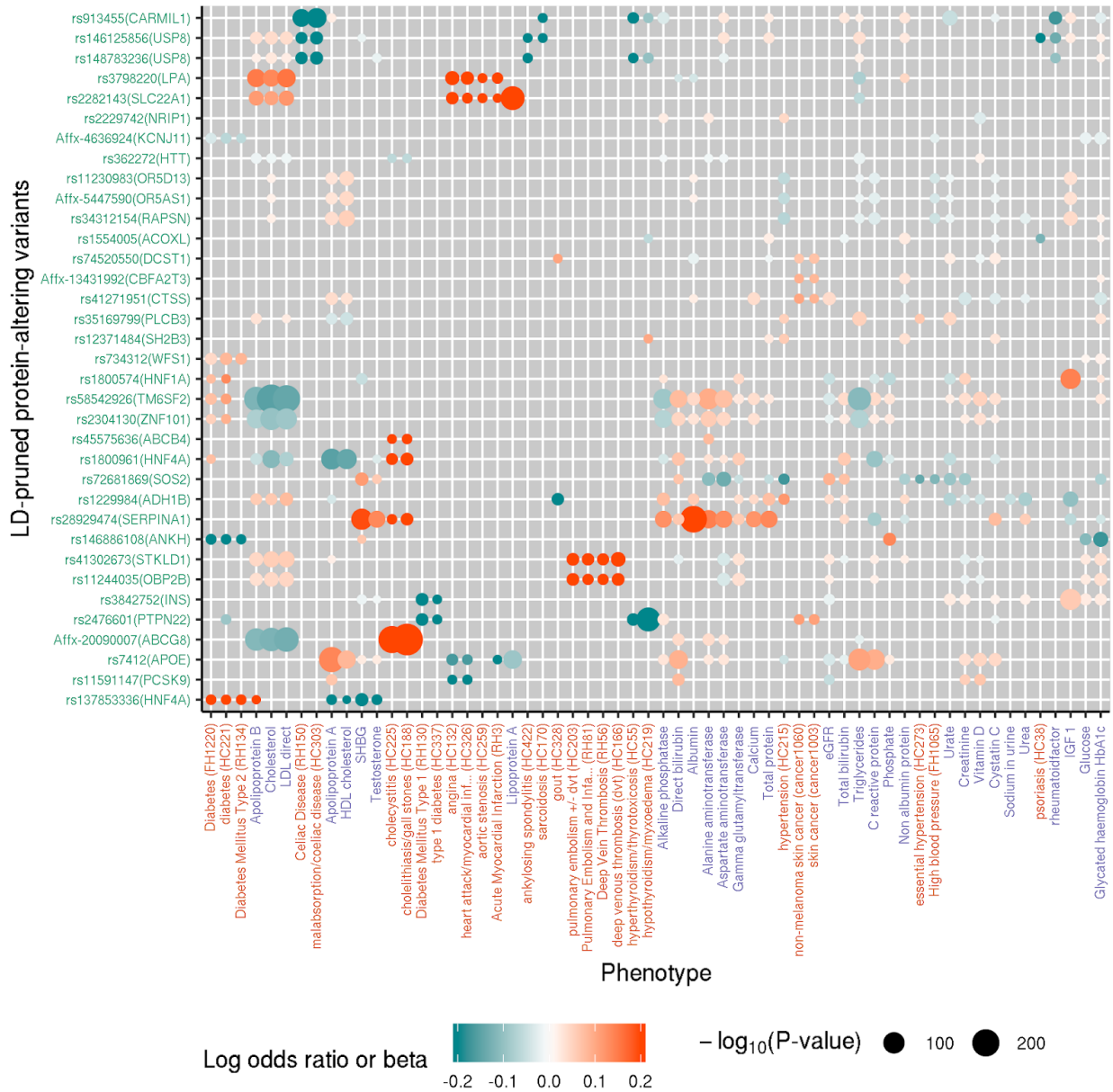
Targeted phenome-wide association study

180 **Supplementary Table 12. Association results for the targeted phenome-wide association study ($p < 1e-5$).** The variant and their ID (Variant, Variant_ID) and its association to disease outcomes (Phenotype) with the corresponding Global Biobank Engine phenotype ID (GBE_ID). The $-\log_{10}$ p-value of association ($\log_{10}P$), estimated effect size (log odds ratio, LOR), standard error of effect size estimate (SE), Gene Symbol (Gene_symbol), predicted protein-truncating or protein-altering variant (Csq), predicted major consequence (Consequence), whether the variant is outside of MHC region (is_outside_of_MHC), whether the variant is LD independent based on LD pruning (ld_indep), and the URLs for the corresponding pages on Global Biobank Engine (GBE_variant_page and GBE_phenotype_page).

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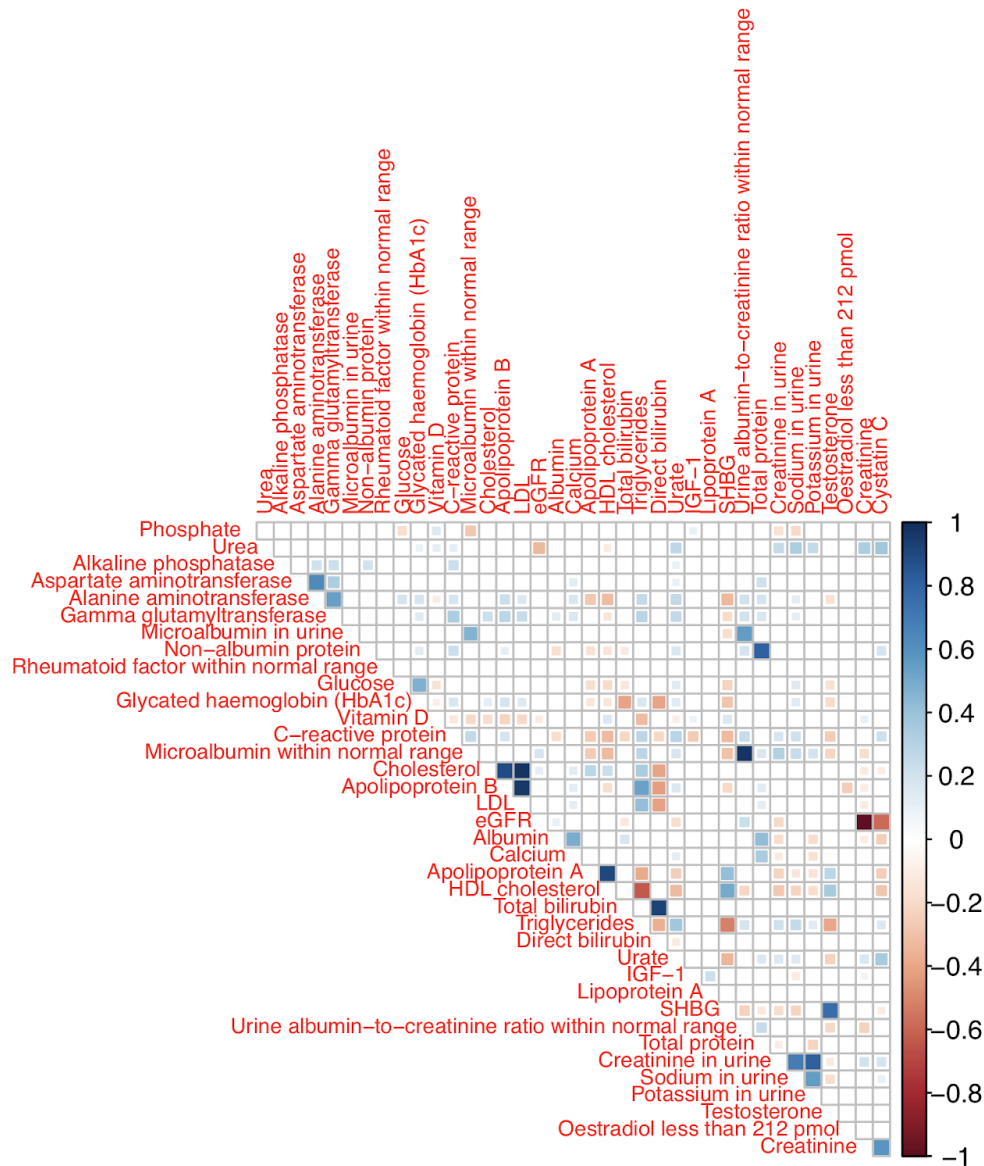


Supplementary Figure 14. Phenome-wide associations across 25 protein-truncating variants and laboratory measurements and 24 disease outcomes in the UK Biobank. Targeted phenome-wide association analysis was performed for PTVs outside of the human MHC region that showed significant genome-wide associations ($p < 1e-7$) with at least one of the laboratory measurement traits. The log odds ratio of the significant PheWAS associations ($p < 1e-5$) are shown across phenotypes (x-axis) and PTVs (y-axis). The 46 significant ($p < 1e-5$) associations across 25 variants and 24 disease outcomes are shown as well as the associations with laboratory measurements. The color of phenotype names indicate binary disease outcomes or family history (red) or laboratory measurements (purple). The color for log odds ratio or beta = 0.2 is used for the associations with > 0.2 log odds ratio or beta.

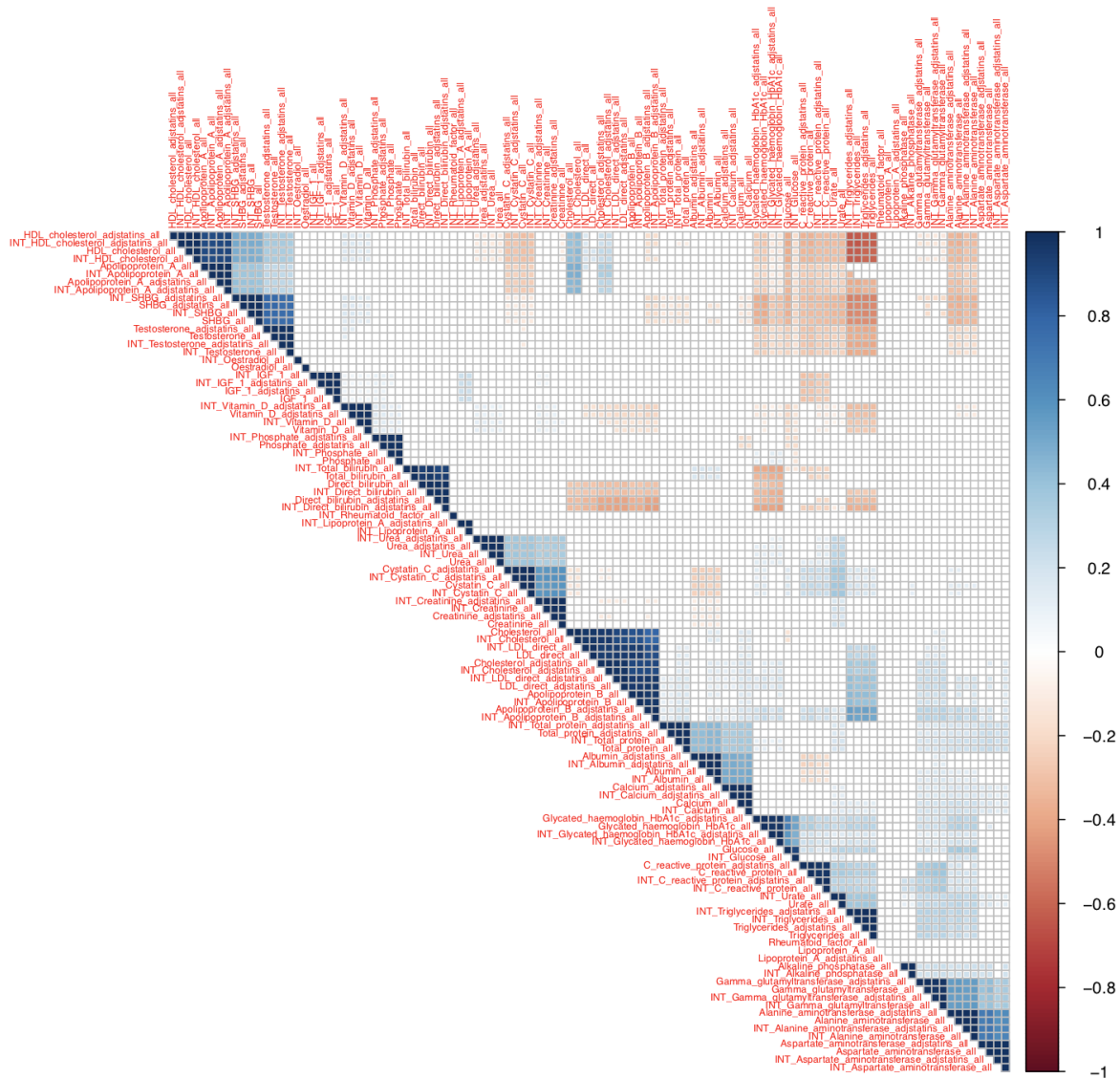


195 **Supplementary Figure 15. Phenome-wide associations across 35 LD-independent protein-altering variants and 28 disease**
outcomes in the UK Biobank. Targeted phenome-wide association analysis was performed for protein-altering variants outside of
the human MHC region that showed significant genome-wide associations ($p < 1e-7$) with at least one of the laboratory
measurements traits. The log odds ratio of the significant PheWAS associations ($p < 1e-5$) are shown across phenotypes (x-axis)
and protein-altering variants (y-axis). Out of 172 significant ($p < 1e-5$) associations across 80 LD-independent protein-altering
200 variants and 75 disease outcomes, 35 variants and 28 disease outcomes with maximal number of significant associations are
chosen for visualization. The associations for those variant-phenotype pairs are shown as well as the associations across laboratory
measurements phenotypes. The color of phenotype names indicate binary disease outcomes or family history (red) and laboratory
measurements (purple). The color for log odds ratio or beta = 0.2 is used for the associations with > 0.2 log odds ratio or beta.

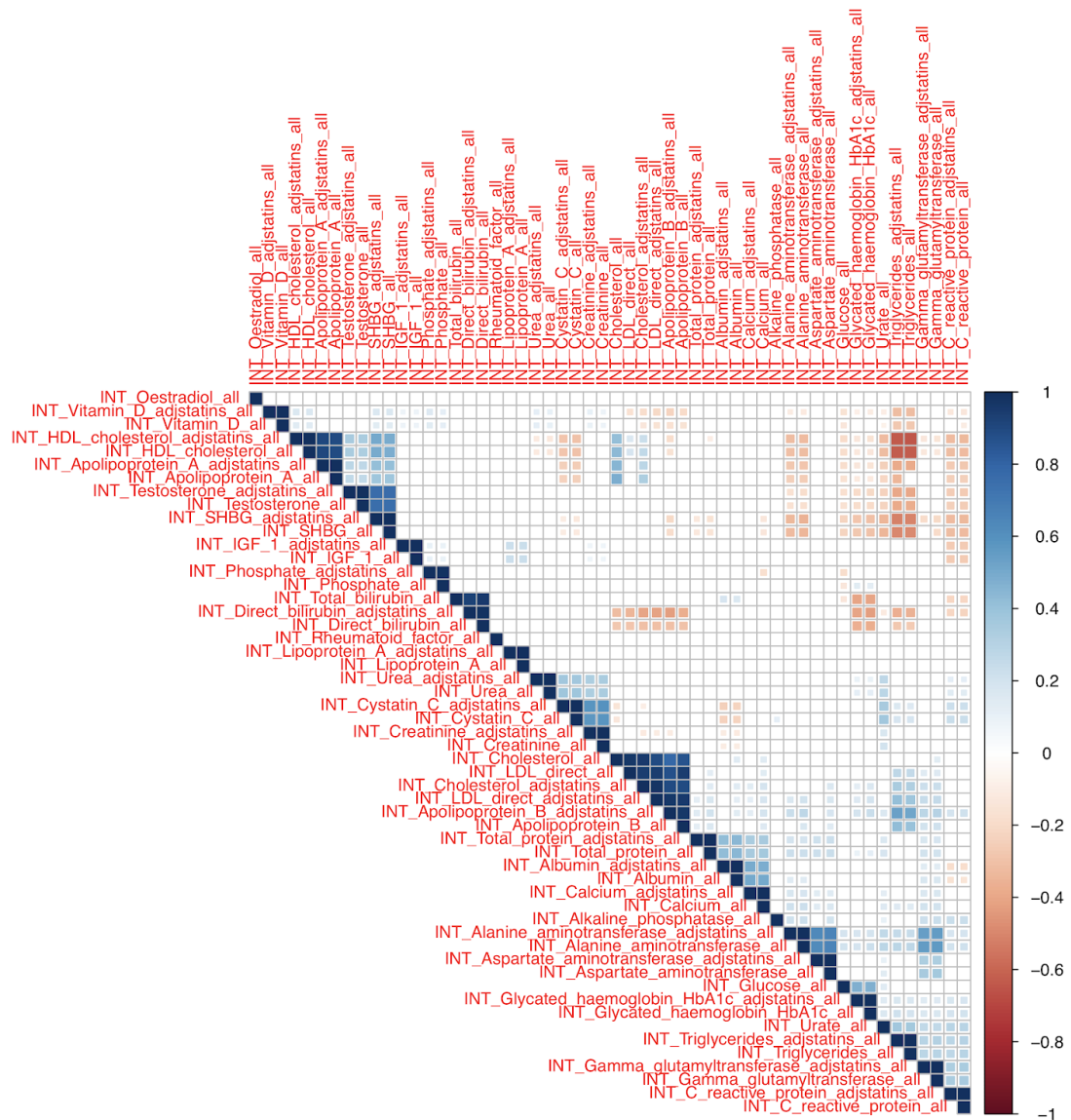
Correlation of genetic effects between laboratory tests, diseases, and medically relevant phenotypes



Supplementary Figure 16. Correlation of genetic effects between laboratory tests. -1 (red) to 1 (blue) scale of correlation of genetic effects estimated using LD-score regression.



Supplementary Figure 17. Correlation of genetic effects between laboratory tests with normalization (“INT”), and with lipid-lowering therapy adjustment (“adjstains”) and without. -1 (red) to 1 (blue) scale of correlation of genetic effects estimated using LD-score regression.



Supplementary Figure 18. Correlation of genetic effects between normalized (“INT”) lab phenotypes with lipid-lowering therapy adjustment (“adjstatis”) and without. -1 (red) to 1 (blue) scale of correlation of genetic effects estimated using LD-score regression.

Supplementary Table 13. Disease and medically relevant phenotypes used for genetic correlation analysis.

Causal inference

Supplementary Table 14. Causal inference results using MR-Egger and LCV. Each row represents a significant exposure-outcome pair by either MR-Egger or LCV (FDR 10%). The edge type marks if the causal link was found by MR-Egger only, LCV only, or both. Estimated causal effects are presented for all pairs.

Mendelian randomization

220 Mendelian randomization methods enable estimation of causal effects between an exposure X and an outcome Y. Given a set of genetic instruments of X (i.e., direct causes of X that are not affected by confounders), the causal effect of X on Y can be extracted by analyzing their associations with both X and Y. Most methods are based on linear models and start with a 2D plot of the association summary statistics. A meta-analysis is then used to estimate if there is a significant correlation between the effects, which then translates into a line whose slope reveals the causal effect. MR-Egger is a powerful method that uses Egger regression for the meta-analysis¹¹. Egger regression was developed originally for correcting publication bias in meta-analyses, but the problem is analogous to adjusting bias from pleiotropy in the MR setting. Thus, Egger-regression provides a way to both estimate and adjust for biases in the 2D plot that originate from pleiotropic effects (under the assumption that the association of each genetic instrument with the exposure is independent of the pleiotropic effect of the variant).

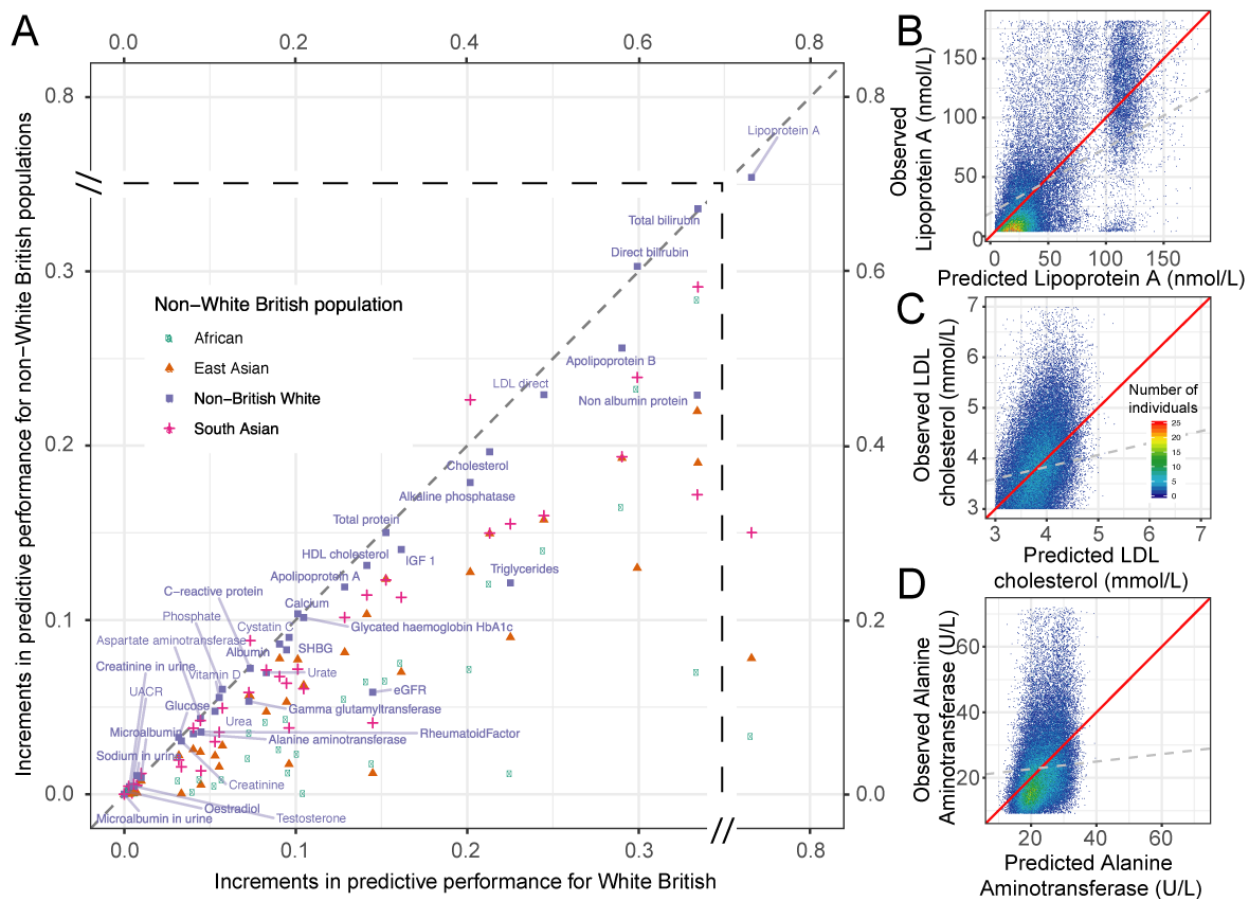
Latent causal variables

LCV is a recent method that makes use of the MR graphical model to evaluate if an observed genetic correlation can be attributed to a causal relationship¹². LCV is based on a 2D analysis of summary statistics as in MR methods, with two notable differences. First, it uses a latent variable to model the mediation of genetic correlation between two traits. This allows for the estimation of the full or partial proportion of genetic causal relation between two traits. Second, it takes as input all summary statistics and does not require a set of independent instruments. On the other hand, unlike MR methods, LCV does not address reverse causality, and it does not estimate causal effect sizes.

Polygenic prediction of biomarkers within and across populations

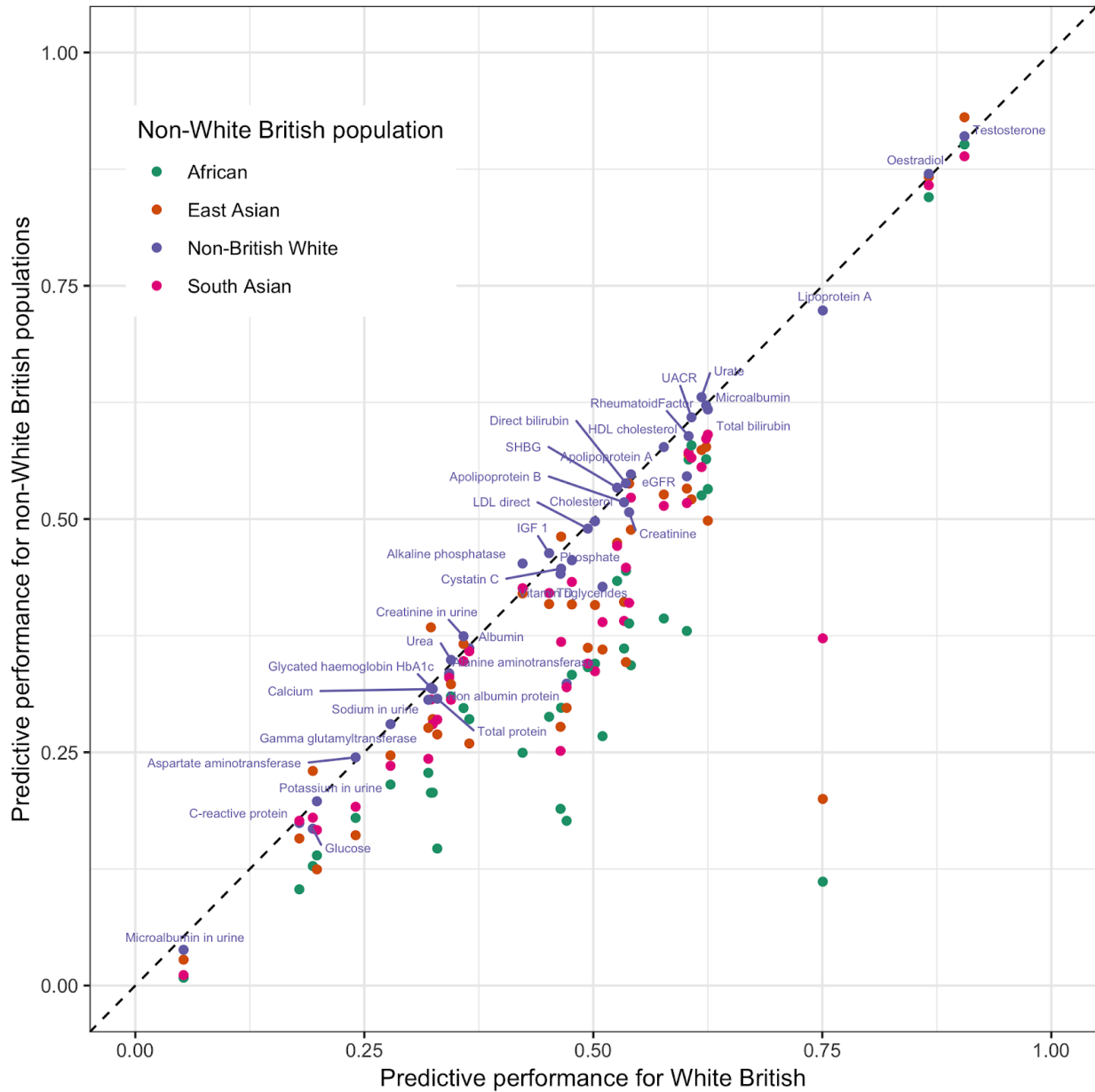
Supplementary Table 15. Predictive performance of lab phenotypes from genetic data within and across populations. The laboratory phenotype (Phenotype), whether the phenotype is binary (bin) or quantitative (qt), evaluated population (population), the increments of predictive performance (AUC for binary traits and R for quantitative traits) from covariate-only model to the model with both covariates and genotypes (delta_R_or_AUC), predictive performance measures of the model with genotype and covariates (Genotype_and_covariates), the model with covariates (Covariates_only), and the model with genotypes (Genotype_only), and their trans-population comparison with respect to self-identified White British population shown in percent (Relative_to_WB_delta_R_or_AUC, Relative_to_WB_Genotype_and_covariates, Relative_to_WB_Covariates_only, and Relative_to_WB_Genotype_only).

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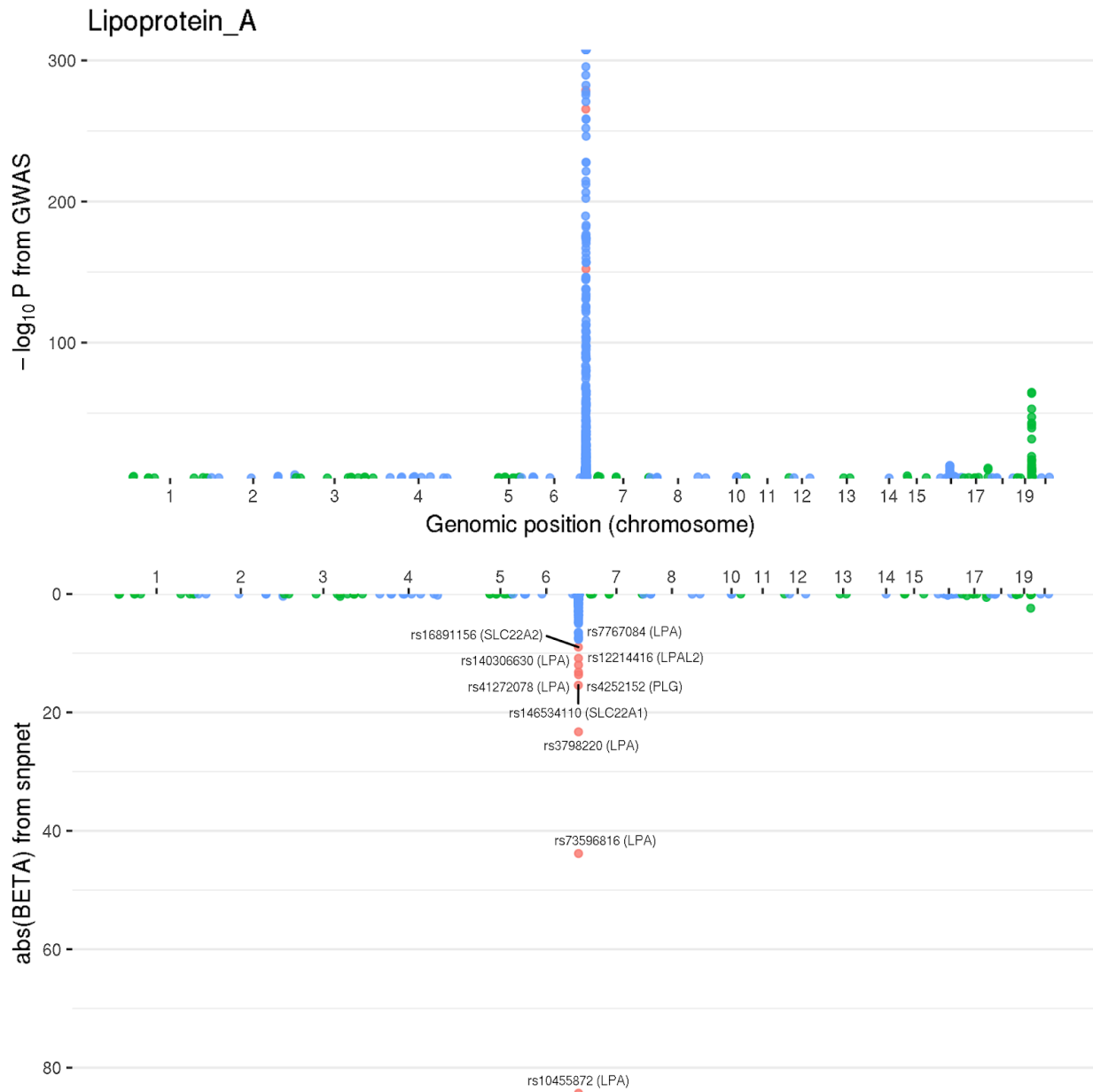


Supplementary Figure 19A-D. Lab phenotype prediction from genetic data within and across populations. (A) Increments in predictive performance with genetic data (change in correlation, R, or ROC-AUC) for self-identified White British (x-axis) and other ethnic groups (y-axis) are shown across the 38 lab phenotypes. (B-D) Predicted vs. observed phenotypes comparison for individuals in the test sets for Lipoprotein A (B), LDL (C), and alanine aminotransferase (D). The red diagonal line indicates $x=y$, whereas the gray dashed line shows the linear regression fit between observed and predicted phenotypes.

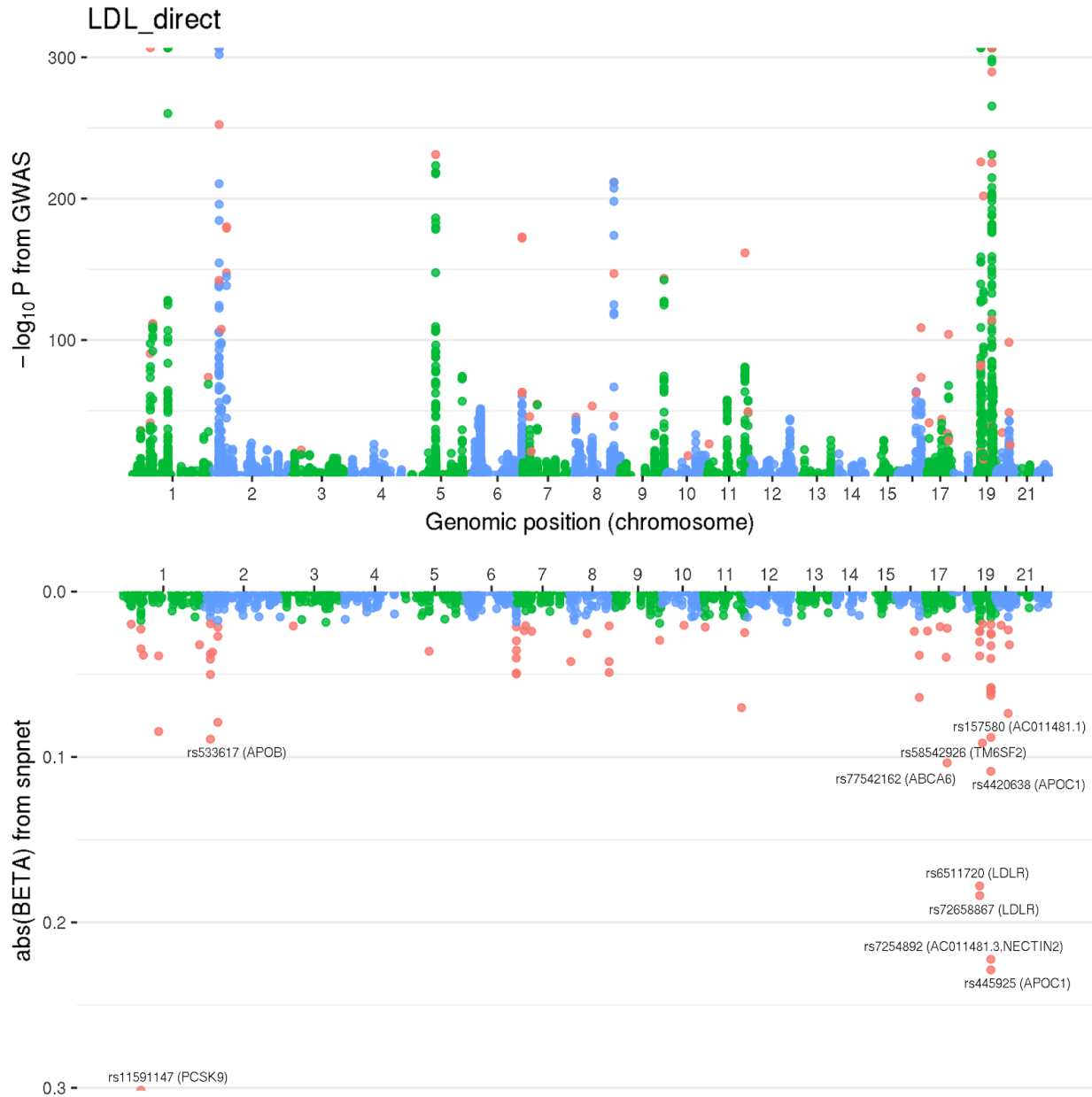
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255 **Supplementary Figure 19E. Lab phenotype prediction from genetic data within and across populations.** The predictive performance with both genetic data and covariates (correlation, R) for self-identified White British (x-axis) and other ethnic groups (y-axis) are shown across the 38 lab phenotypes.

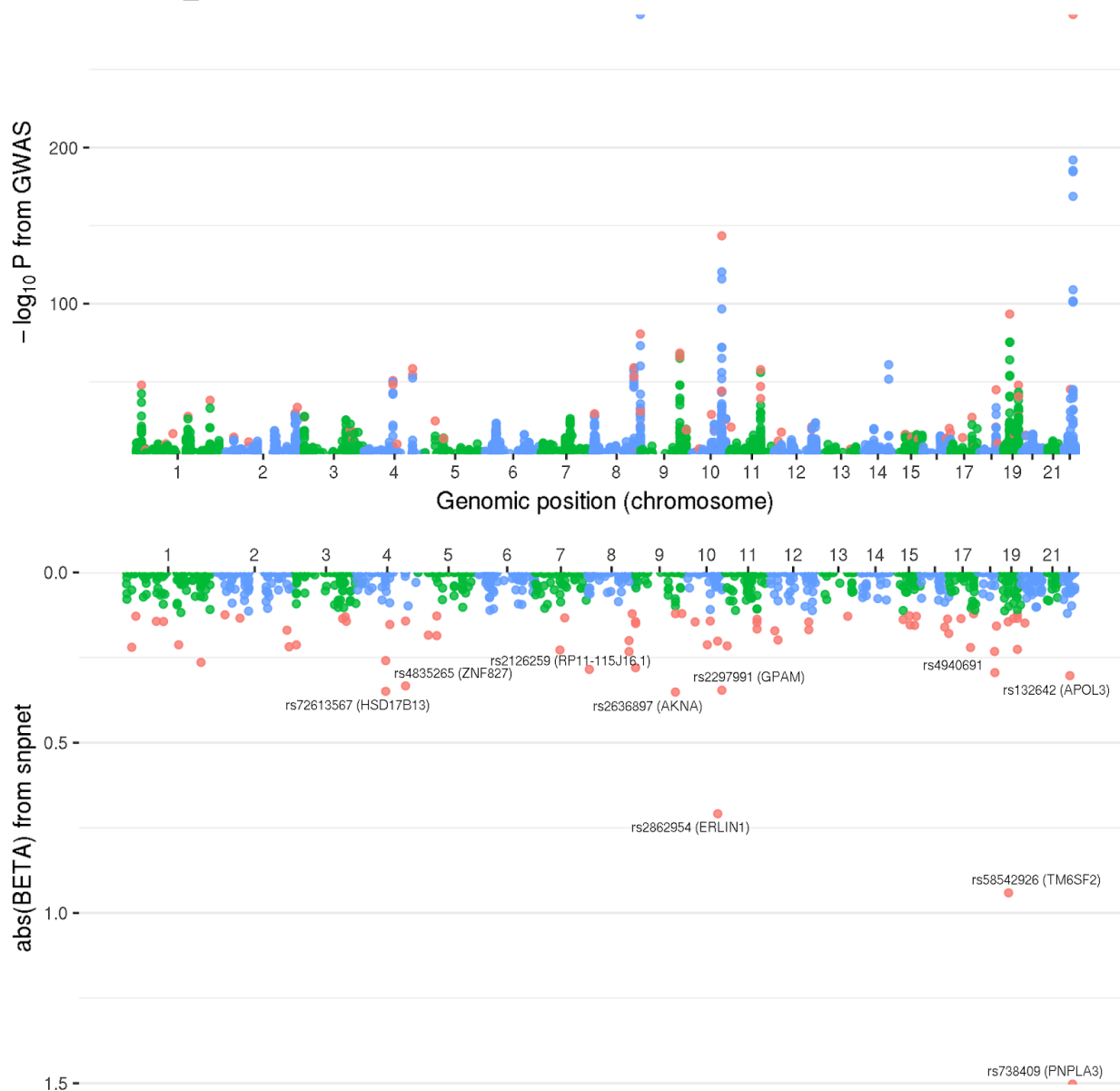


Supplementary Figure 20A. “Lake” plots of GWAS p-value and the magnitude of effect size estimates from snpnet for Lipoprotein A. (x-axis) Genomic coordinates for (top panel) $-\log_{10}(P)$ from GWAS and (bottom panel) absolute value of estimated effect size using snpnet (abs(BETA) from snpnet).



Supplementary Figure 20B. "Lake" plots of GWAS p-value and the magnitude of effect size estimates from snpnet for LDL. (x-axis) Genomic coordinates for (top panel) $-\log_{10}(P)$ from GWAS and (bottom panel) absolute value of estimated effect size using snpnet ($\text{abs}(\text{BETA})$ from snpnet).

Alanine_aminotransferase



265 **Supplementary Figure 20C. “Lake” plots of GWAS p-value and the magnitude of effect size estimates from snpnet for Alanine Aminotransferase.** (x-axis) Genomic coordinates for (top panel) $-\log_{10}(P)$ from GWAS and (bottom panel) absolute value of estimated effect size using snpnet ($\text{abs}(\text{BETA})$ from snpnet).

Supplementary Table 16. Population-specific bias in polygenic prediction of the 38 lab phenotypes. The rank of the increments in predictive performance comparing the PRS model with both genotype and covariates and covariate alone across 5 population groups are summarized. The sum across population for a given rank varies due to the ties in the ranks.

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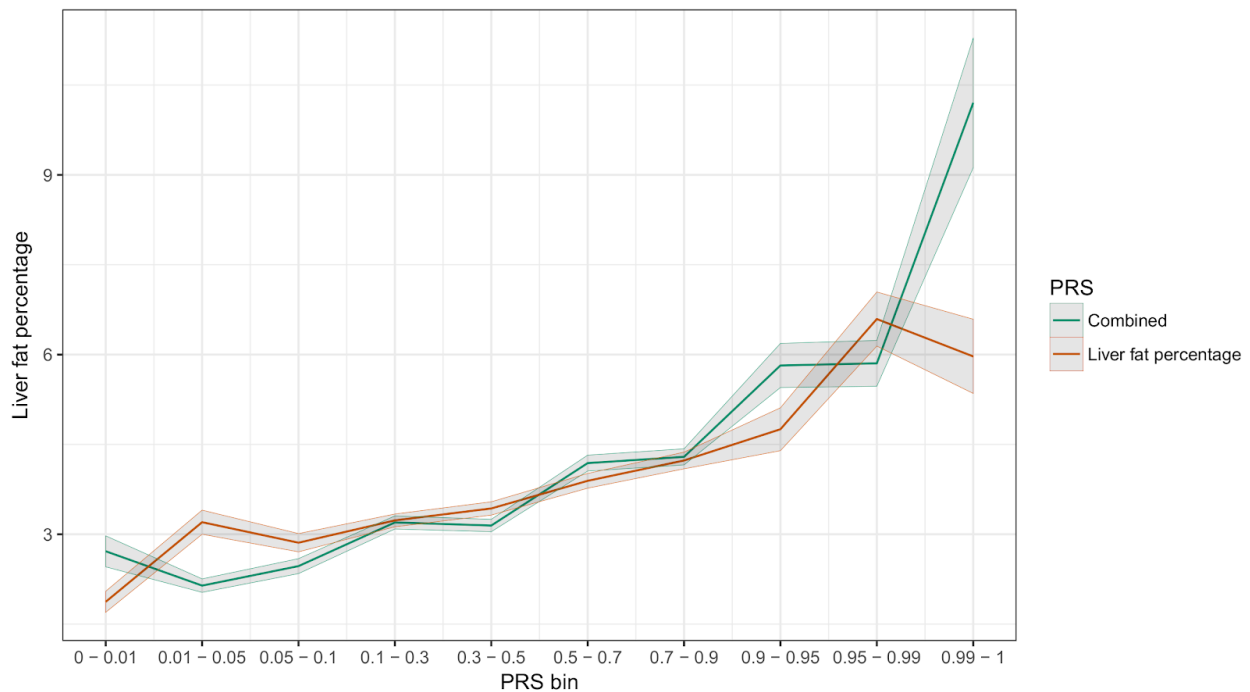
Multiple regression with PRSs for laboratory tests improves prediction of traits and diseases

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Supplementary Table 17. Predictive power of multiple regression of laboratory tests. Each trait is treated independently an a regression model (linear or logistic, determined by outcome) is used. McFadden's adjusted R^2 (for binary outcomes) and Adjusted R^2 (for continuous outcomes) are presented for models which contain just covariates or covariates with the traits of interest. All regressions were run with age, sex, genotyping array, 40 principal components of the genotyping matrix, age squared, townsend deprivation index, and age-sex interaction. Type 2 diabetes additionally had covariates of BMI and Waist to Hip ratio and interactions of each with age and sex, and liver fat percentage has covariates of alcohol and interactions with age and sex.

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Supplementary Table 18. F test for improved predictive performance of liver fat percentage. F statistics for comparison of the explained variance under the covariate only model versus the trait PRS and combination of all laboratory test PRSs, as well as comparisons of each of these with the combined model with all PRSs. We observed a consistent and significant improvement across all model comparisons.



Supplementary Figure 21a. Average liver fat percentages at different polygenic score quantiles. Individual estimates were predicted from existing polygenic scores and the bins of self-identified White British individuals in both the snpnet PRS for liver fat percentage and the multi-PRS are shown. Estimates are averages of the actual percentage of liver fat, determined by MRI.

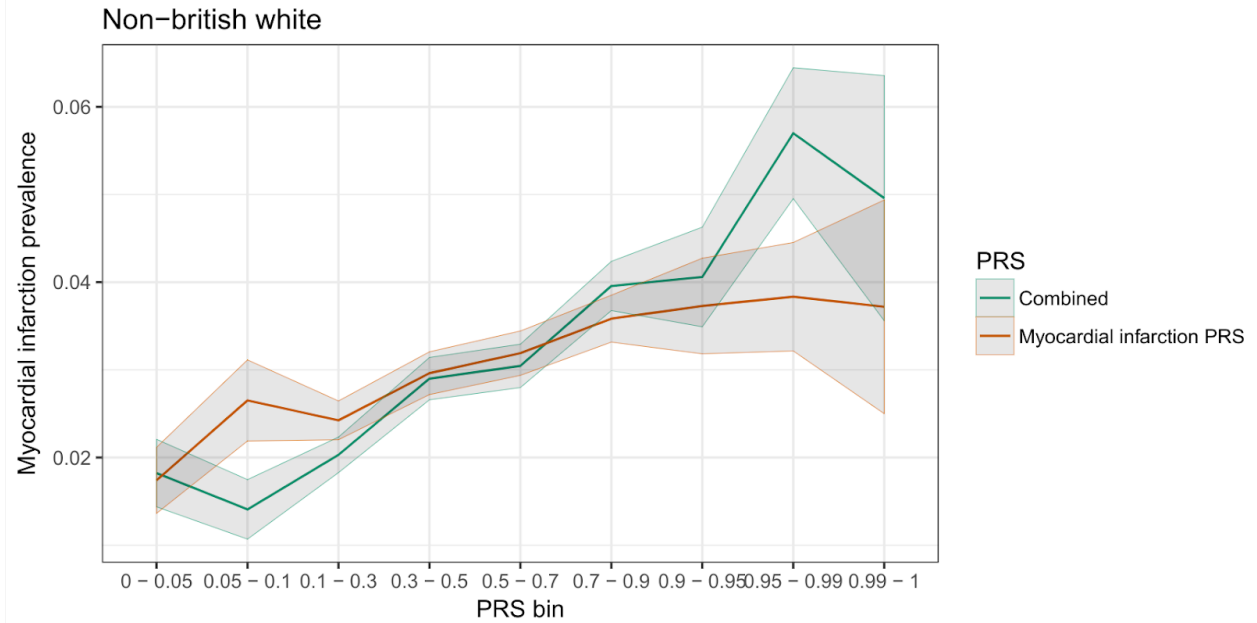
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Supplementary Table 19. Regression coefficients for prediction of liver fat percentage. Regression coefficient terms and their standard errors estimated from individual liver fat percentage. All terms included in the full regression model are present in the table.

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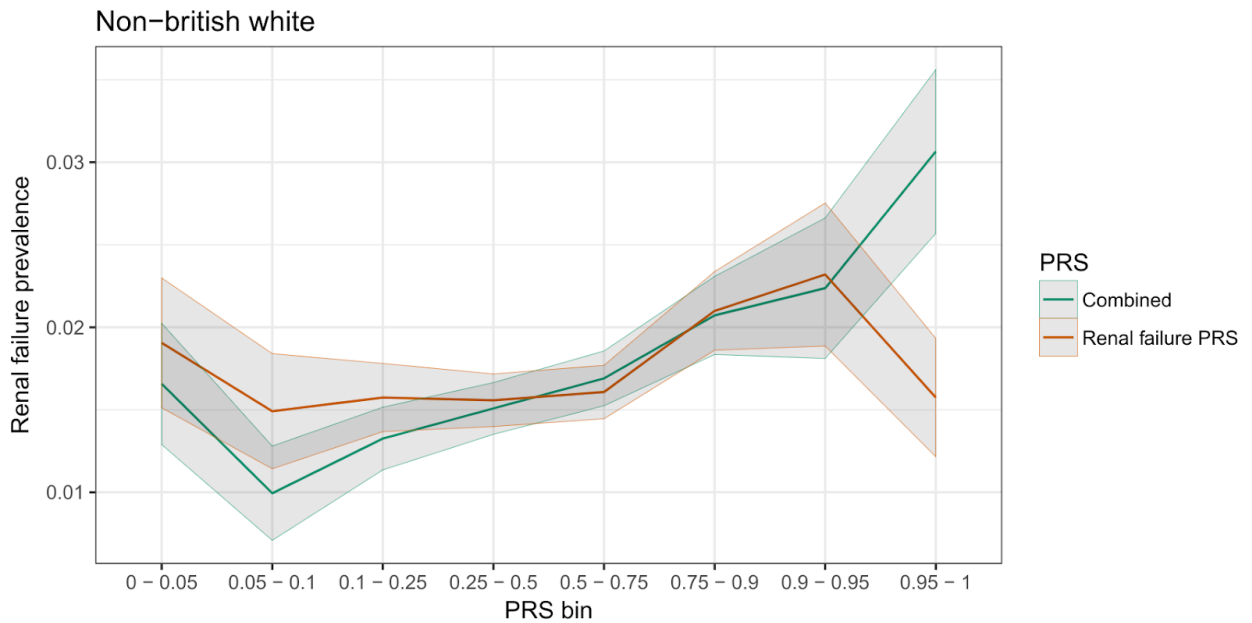
Supplementary Table 20. F test for improved predictive performance of other traits. F statistics for comparison of the explained variance under the covariate only model versus the trait PRS and combination of all laboratory test PRSs, as well as comparisons of each of these with the combined model with all PRSs, for each of kidney and liver cancer, and acute and all myocardial infarction. All results suggest significant improvement of laboratory tests versus trait PRSs alone.

Supplementary Table 21. Prevalence estimates within quantiles of polygenic scores of the multi-PRS. Each quantile is estimated with the number of individuals and corresponding cases in the population indicated.

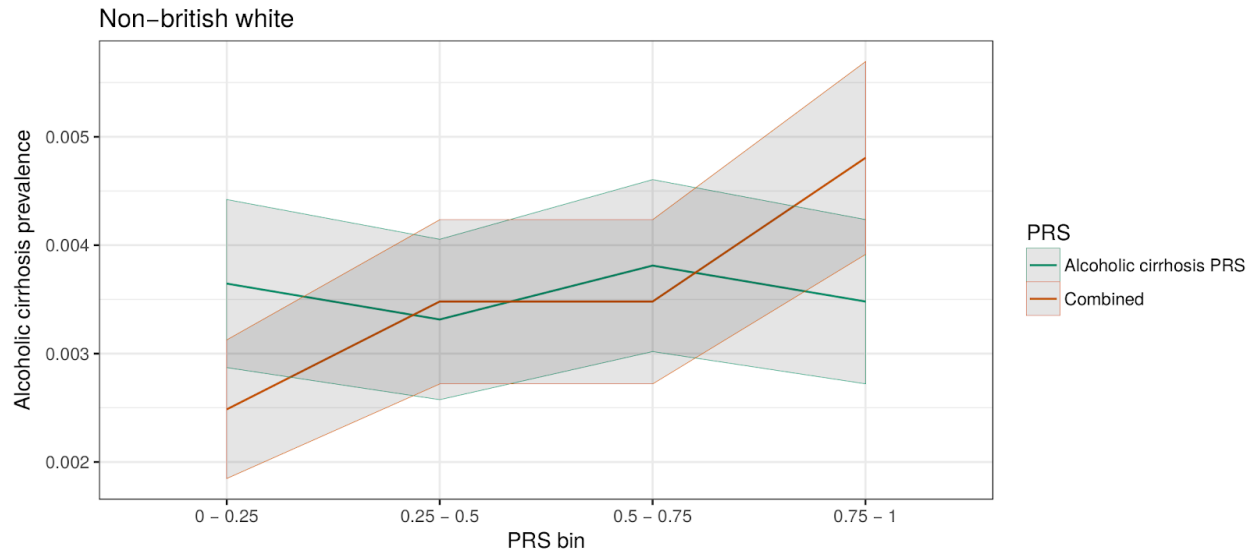


Supplementary Figure 21b. Prevalence of myocardial infarction in quantiles of the self-identified non-British White individuals in UK Biobank. Individual estimates were predicted from existing polygenic scores and the bins of individuals in both the snpnet PRS for myocardial infarction and the multi-PRS are shown. Quantiles were chosen to ensure an adequate number of cases in each quantile bin.

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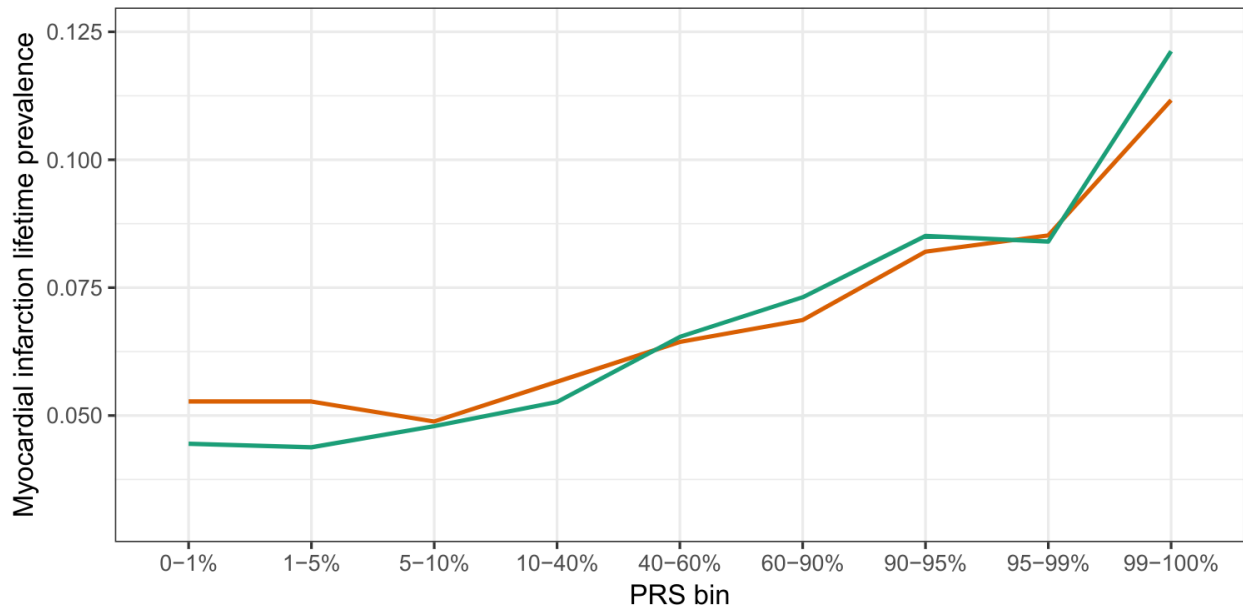
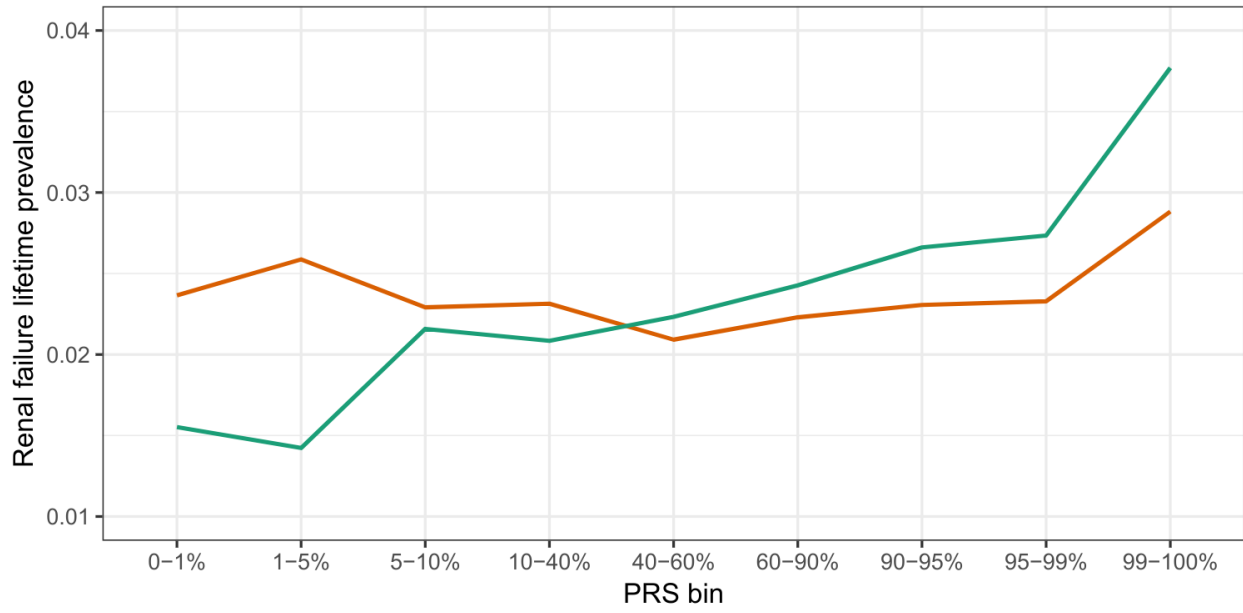


Supplementary Figure 22a. Prevalence of renal failure in quantiles of the self-identified non-British White individuals in UK Biobank. Individual estimates were predicted from existing polygenic scores and the bins of individuals in both the snpnet PRS for renal failure and the multi-PRS are shown. Quantiles were chosen to ensure an adequate number of cases in each quantile bin.

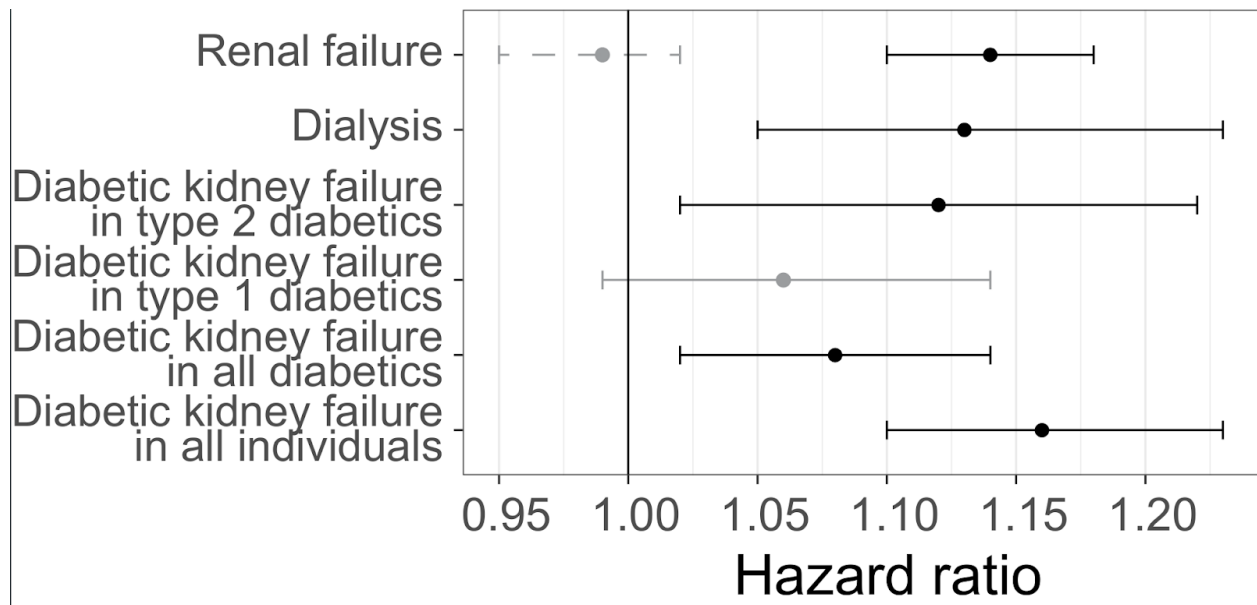


300 **Supplementary Figure 22b. Prevalence of alcoholic cirrhosis in quantiles of the self-identified non-British White individuals in UK Biobank.** Individual estimates were predicted from existing polygenic scores and the bins of individuals in both the snpnet PRS for alcoholic cirrhosis and the multi-PRS are shown. Quantiles were chosen to ensure an adequate number of cases in each quantile bin.

305 **Supplementary Table 22. Description of case definition in FinnGen derived from ICD codes and registry data.** All ICD-8, ICD-9, ICD-10, cause of death, and medical reimbursement codes used to identify cases for each trait are shown.



Supplementary Figure 23. Prevalence of renal failure and myocardial infarction in quantiles of Finnish individuals in FinnGen. Individual estimates were predicted from existing polygenic scores and the bins of individuals in both the snpnet PRS for renal failure and the multi-PRS are shown.



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Supplementary Figure 24. Extended diabetes status predictions of the renal failure multi-PRS. Hazard ratios for incidence of various outcomes using the renal failure PRS (solid lines) or snpnet PRS for renal failure (dashed line). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Number of individuals with each diagnosis, statistical significance, and covariates described in Supplementary Table 23 and Methods.

315

Supplementary Table 23. Estimated predictive ability in incident cases in FinnGen. Estimated hazard ratios on incident cases of each PRS are presented, with the number of individuals shown developing disease during the follow-up period. Results are presented for both the trait PRS (trained with snpnet) or the combined multi-PRS model; the hazard ratio, standard errors, and overall predictive ability represented as a C-index are shown.

Supplementary Table 24. Estimated predictive ability in incident cases in FinnGen at different PRS bins. The number of individuals and cases in each bin, as well as the corresponding hazard ratios, for both the trait PRS and multi-PRS are shown.

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