

1 **Phenome-wide and Genome-wide Analyses of Quality of Life**
2 **in Schizophrenia**

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63 **Abstract**

64 *Background* Schizophrenia negatively impacts quality of life (QoL). A handful of
65 variables from small studies have been reported to influence QoL of
66 schizophrenia patients, but a study comprehensively dissecting the genetic and
67 non-genetic contributing factors to QoL in these patients is currently lacking. We
68 adopted a hypothesis-generating approach to assess the phenotypic and
69 genotypic determinants of QoL in schizophrenia.

70 *Method* The study population consisted of 1,119 patients with a psychotic
71 disorder, 1,979 relatives and 586 healthy controls. Using linear regression, we
72 tested >100 independent demographic, cognitive and clinical phenotypes for
73 their association with QoL in patients. We then performed genome-wide
74 association analyses of QoL and examined the association between polygenic
75 risk scores (PRSs) for schizophrenia, major depressive disorder (MDD), and
76 subjective wellbeing (SW) with QoL.

77 *Results* We found nine phenotypes to be significantly and independently
78 associated with QoL in patients, the most significant ones being negative (Beta=-
79 1.17; SE=0.05, $P=1\times 10^{-83}$; $r^2=53\%$), depressive (Beta=-1.07; SE=0.05; $P=2\times 10^{-79}$;
80 $r^2=51\%$) and emotional distress (Beta=-0.09; SE=0.01; $P=4\times 10^{-59}$, $r^2=38\%$)
81 symptoms. Schizophrenia and subjective wellbeing PRSs using various P-value
82 thresholds were significantly and consistently associated with QoL (lowest
83 association p-value = 6.8×10^{-6}). Several sensitivity analyses confirmed the
84 results.

85 *Conclusions* Various clinical phenotypes of schizophrenia as well as
86 schizophrenia and subjective wellbeing polygenic risk scores are associated with
87 QoL in schizophrenia patients and their relatives. These may be targeted by

- 88 clinicians to more easily identify vulnerable schizophrenia patients for further
- 89 social and clinical interventions to improve their QoL.

90 **Introduction**

91 Schizophrenia (SCZ) patients often experience adverse outcomes such as
92 unemployment, frequent hospital admissions, long-term dependency on health
93 care, and suicide. Premature mortality of patients with SCZ has been reported to
94 be 3.5 times (Olfson et al., 2015) greater than that of adults in the general
95 population. The societal costs of SCZ during a 12-month period have been
96 estimated to be as high as \$890 million in the United States (Evensen et al.,
97 2015). All domains of quality of life (QoL; physical, psychological, and social) are
98 severely decreased in SCZ compared to healthy controls. QoL is also increasingly
99 becoming an important index for effectiveness of treatment in SCZ (Kane et al.,
100 2016). Several variables have been shown to be associated with QoL among SCZ
101 patients, e.g. age, gender, employment status, marital status, duration of illness,
102 body mass index, antipsychotic medication, number of hospitalizations,
103 knowledge level about schizophrenia, schizophrenia symptoms, coping
104 mechanisms, and comorbid depression (Hasan and Tumah, 2019, Hofer et al.,
105 2017, Hou et al., 2016, Karow et al., 2014, Rayan and Obiedate, 2017, Rotstein et
106 al., 2018, Savill et al., 2016, Wang et al., 2017, Yamauchi et al., 2008). However, a
107 comprehensive large-scale study using in-depth phenotyping to investigate
108 factors associated with QoL in SCZ in a hypothesis-generating fashion is lacking.
109 In addition, to the best of our knowledge, the genetic underpinnings of QoL have
110 not been investigated. Recently published genome-wide association studies
111 (GWASs) for SCZ (Ripke et al., 2014) and related traits such as major depressive
112 disorder (MDD) (Wray et al., 2018) and subjective wellbeing (Okbay et al., 2016)
113 provide a timely opportunity to investigate whether genetic mechanisms are at
114 the root of QoL. Knowledge of clinical and genetic contributing factors to QoL in

115 SCZ could inform clinicians to help identify vulnerable patients and optimize
116 secondary preventive care and thus reduce burden of disease. This could be
117 achieved through optimization of treatment regimens (e.g. psychosocial
118 interventions or optimizing psychopharmacological treatments) and targeting
119 clinical variables negatively influencing QoL. On a similar note, insight into
120 genetic factors contributing to QoL could contribute to the early identification of
121 vulnerable patients and in the future improve their outcome.

122 Here, we used a hypothesis-generating approach and investigated over 100
123 phenotypes to investigate factors related to QoL among SCZ patients. We
124 additionally performed genetic risk scoring in patients, relatives and healthy
125 controls to uncover associations between genetic susceptibility to SCZ, MDD and
126 subjective wellbeing on the one hand and QoL on the other.

127

128 **Method**

129 *Subjects and study design*

130 All procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical standards of the
131 relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and
132 with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008. All procedures
133 involving human subjects/patients were approved by the medical-ethical
134 committee of University Medical Center Utrecht (UMCU). All subjects provided
135 written informed consent for the current study. The current study was
136 performed within a cohort of 3,684 individuals including 1,119 SCZ patients,
137 1,059 siblings, 920 parents, and 586 controls (**Supplementary Results, Suppl.**
138 **Figure 1**). We used two main subsets. The first subset included patients only
139 (n=1,119) to test non-genetic contributing factors to QoL among SCZ patients.
140 We chose this subset as we were interested in phenotypic contributing factors to
141 QoL in patients, while other, larger cohort studies may be more appropriate to
142 probe contributing factors to QoL in the general population. The second subset
143 included patients, relatives and controls with genetic data available (n=2,265) to
144 test genetic contributing factors to QoL. We chose this subset to increase
145 statistical power and as intuitively genetic contributing factors to QoL may
146 (partly) overlap between patients, relatives and controls. All participants were
147 included from the Genetic Risk and Outcome of Psychosis (GROUP) study
148 (Korver et al., 2012), a multi-center and large longitudinal study in the
149 Netherlands and Belgium, investigating various psychological and genetic
150 variables among SCZ patients and their relatives. The study population was
151 followed up since 2004 in several mental health care institutions, both in the

152 Netherlands and Belgium. The detailed phenotypic information of GROUP
153 participants offers a unique and enriched database (Korver et al., 2012).
154 Psychosis-related and demographic variables that were included in the analysis
155 are presented in **Appendix 1 (Supplemental Methods)**. These variables may be
156 divided into symptoms and experiences that were assessed with a range of
157 (semi)-structured scales (including drug use); family loading for psychiatric
158 disorders; social cognition; demographic variables; IQ; medication use data; and
159 theory of mind scales. For the purpose of the current study, we only used the
160 baseline assessments of the GROUP study (release 5.00) as we were interested in
161 factors contributing to QoL in SCZ apparent in its early disease stages (the first
162 psychotic episode of the GROUP participating patients had to occur within 10
163 years before this first assessment). **Supplementary Figure 1** shows a
164 breakdown of the study sample.

165 *Quality of Life Assessment*

166 Quality of life was assessed with the World Health Organization WHOQOL-BREF,
167 an abbreviated version of the WHOQOL (World Health Organization Quality of
168 Life scale). The self-report WHOQOL-BREF has been validated for a Dutch
169 speaking population of psychiatric patients (Korver et al., 2012, Trompenaars et
170 al., 2005, Gobbens and van Assen, 2016). Details of the Dutch WHOQOL-BREF are
171 described elsewhere (Gobbens and van Assen, 2016). Details of our method to
172 extract a single principal component derived from this questionnaire that was
173 used for further analysis are described in the supplemental methods.

174 *Phenome-wide analyses*

175 For the agnostic association analysis of QoL with the above explained
176 demographic and clinical phenotypes (**Supplemental methods, Appendix 1**),
177 we used data from patients with complete data on the QoL principal component,
178 age, sex, and study site (N=925; **Supplementary Figure 1**). The number of
179 independent variables was calculated by testing two-by-two correlations
180 between variables using non-parametric Spearman correlation. Variables with
181 correlation estimates > 0.3 and statistically significant correlations (P value<
182 0.05) were considered interdependent variables. This analysis resulted in 105
183 independent variables. Generalized linear models (GLM) adjusted for age, sex,
184 and study site were then used to test the association of QoL with each of the
185 clinical phenotypes. The statistical significance threshold for this association
186 analysis was corrected for multiple testing using the Bonferroni-correction
187 method, i.e. 4.76×10^{-04} (0.05 adjusted for 105 independent tests)(Shaffer, 1995).
188 The variance in QoL explained by the phenotypes was calculated using R square
189 values obtained from GLM. To then identify a set of variables that were
190 associated with QoL independent of one another, we used the phenotypes that
191 were associated with QoL at $P < 4.76 \times 10^{-04}$ and selected the independent
192 variables in a backward stepwise regression model. As a sensitivity analysis, we
193 then regressed the most significantly associated phenotypes with ordinal
194 estimates of QoL as opposed to the first principal component of QoL.

195 *Polygenic risk score analyses of QoL*

196 Details of genotyping and GWAS of QoL can be found in the Supplementary
197 methods. In brief, genotype data for 2,812 GROUP participants was generated on

198 a customized Illumina IPMCN array with 570,038 single nucleotide
199 polymorphisms (SNPs). Quality control procedures were performed using PLINK
200 v1.9(Purcell et al., 2007). In total, 2,505 individuals and 275,021 SNPs passed
201 these abovementioned QC steps. After merging with the phenotype file, 2,265
202 individuals were left for genetic analyses (**Supplemental Results,**
203 **Supplementary Figure 1**).

204 Additional SNPs were imputed on the Michigan server (Das et al., 2016) using
205 the HRC r1.1 2016 reference panel. Although likely underpowered, for the
206 benefit of possible future meta-analyses and as a first exploratory approach we
207 performed linear mixed models (LMM) association testing implemented in
208 BOLT-LMM (v2.3) software(Loh et al., 2015) to assess associations between
209 SNPs and QoL (**Supplemental methods**). BOLT-LMM corrects for confounding
210 from population structure and cryptic relatedness. We used the generally
211 accepted association P-value threshold of $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ for genome-wide
212 significance. We report those findings in the **Supplemental Results (Figures**
213 **7&8)**.

214 We used recent GWASs of SCZ (Ripke et al., 2014), MDD (Wray et al., 2018), and
215 subjective wellbeing (Okbay et al., 2016) for PRS calculations (Choi et al., 2018).
216 We chose the polygenic risk scores of these disorders as they are strongly
217 associated with QoL in the general population (IsHak et al., 2015, Skevington and
218 Böhnke, 2018, Camfield and Skevington, 2008, Domenech et al., 2018). To verify
219 that PRS of other traits were indeed unlikely to be associated with QoL, the
220 genetic correlations between the primary BOLT- LMM GWAS summary statistics
221 and over 700 other disease traits were estimated using LD score regression

222 (<http://ldsc.broadinstitute.org/>) (Zheng et al., 2017). As a quality control for PRS
223 calculation, the SNPs that overlapped between the summary statistics GWASs
224 (training datasets) and our dataset were extracted. Then, insertions or deletions,
225 ambiguous SNPs, SNPs with minor allele frequency (MAF) <0.01 and imputation
226 quality (R^2) < 0.8 in both training and target datasets were excluded. To account
227 for complicated LD structure of SNPs in the genome, these SNPs were clumped in
228 two rounds using PLINK 1.90b3z (Chang et al., 2015) according to previously
229 established methods (McLaughlin et al., 2017b, Schur et al., 2019); round 1 with
230 the default parameters (physical distance threshold 250kb and LD threshold (R^2)
231 0.5); round 2 with a physical distance threshold of 5,000kb and LD threshold
232 (R^2) 0.2. Additionally, we excluded all SNPs in genomic regions with strong or
233 complex LD structures (e.g. the MHC region on chromosome 6; **Supplemental**
234 **Results, Supplementary Table 1**). If only odds ratios (ORs) were reported in
235 the summary statistics, ORs were log-converted to beta values as effect sizes. To
236 prevent possible study population overlap impacting our results, all Dutch and
237 Belgian individuals had been excluded from the SCZ GWAS (Ripke et al., 2014) to
238 allow unbiased PRS computation (McLaughlin et al., 2017a). Sample overlap
239 between GROUP data with MDD and subjective wellbeing GWAS samples is
240 unlikely since all samples belong to different cohorts. To reassure that there was
241 indeed minimal to no sample overlap between GROUP vs. MDD and subjective
242 well-being samples, we checked the intercepts of the genetic covariances from
243 LD score regression analyses between the GROUP GWAS vs. MDD and subjective
244 well-being. Presence of sample overlap modifies this intercepts from zero (Bulik-
245 Sullivan et al., 2015), while in our study all intercepts turned out to be close to
246 zero (**Supplemental Methods & Supplemental Results, Supplementary table**

247 **2).** We constructed PRSs based on SCZ risk alleles weighted by their SCZ
248 increasing effect estimate using the Purcell et al. method (Purcell et al., 2007,
249 Purcell et al., 2009), i.e. using PLINK's score function for 12 GWAS p-value
250 thresholds: 5×10^{-8} , 5×10^{-7} , 5×10^{-6} , 5×10^{-5} , 5×10^{-4} , 5×10^{-3} , 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3,
251 0.4 and 0.5. PRSs were calculated for 2,505 patients, relatives and controls (those
252 remaining after QC). Genetic data and QoL variables were available for patients,
253 relatives, and controls. We thus performed statistical analyses for the association
254 of PRSs with QoL in the whole sample after QC (N=2,265; **Supplemental**
255 **Results, Supplementary Figure 1**) including patients, controls and family
256 members. This approach provided the opportunity to investigate genetic
257 susceptibility of these PRSs on QoL regardless of presence or absence of the
258 disease. To claim significance for association analyses between PRS and QoL, we
259 Bonferroni corrected the P-value for multiple testing ($0.05/3=0.016$).

260

261 *Data availability*

262 All authors have continuous access to the data, both phenotypic and genotypic,
263 collected in this study.

264

265 **Results**

266 **Table 1** shows baseline characteristics of patients, relatives and controls. In the
267 generalized linear model (GLM), 18 distinct variables were associated with QoL
268 at the Bonferroni significance threshold of 4.76×10^{-04} in schizophrenia patients
269 (**Figure 1, Table 2 & Supplemental Results, Supplementary Figure 3**). The
270 statistically most significant phenotypes were negative (Beta=-1.17; SE=0.05,
271 $P=1 \times 10^{-83}$; $r^2_{\text{model}}=53\%$), depressive (Beta=-1.07; SE=0.05; $P=2 \times 10^{-79}$;
272 $r^2_{\text{model}}=51\%$), emotional distress (Beta=-0.09; SE=0.01; $P=4 \times 10^{-59}$, $r^2_{\text{model}}=38\%$),
273 and general psychopathology (Beta=0.81; SE=0.06; $P=3 \times 10^{-40}$; $r^2_{\text{model}}=29\%$)
274 symptoms (**Table 2**). In our regression model including these 18 variables, nine
275 remained independently associated with QoL ($p\text{-value}<0.05$), explaining 58.55%
276 of the variance in QoL. Ordered by decreasing level of significance these are:
277 negative symptoms, global assessment of functioning, emotional distress,
278 depressive symptoms, positive symptoms, remission status, cannabis craving,
279 number of unmet needs, and excitement (**Table 2 & Supplemental Results,**
280 **Supplementary Table 3**). In addition, there was a negative age effect (Beta=-
281 0.01; SE=0.003; $P=3 \times 10^{-3}$) on QoL in the backward stepwise model
282 (**Supplemental Results, Supplementary Table 3**). Association analysis
283 between ordinal estimates of QoL showed similar results (**Supplemental**
284 **Results, Supplementary Figure 4**).

285 The variance in QoL explained by various PRSs (N=2,265) were 1.37% for SCZ,
286 1.37% for subjective wellbeing (**Figure 2**), and 1.40% for MDD (**Supplemental**
287 **Results, Supplementary Figure 5**) when using only genome-wide significant
288 SNPs (P-value threshold (Pt) of 5×10^{-8}). The most significant associations

289 between PRS and QoL were observed for SCZ (Pt_{0.5}; explained variance=1.58%, P
290 = 7×10^{-6} ; **Figure 1**), subjective wellbeing (Pt_{0.4}; explained variance=1.82%,
291 P=0.004; **Figure 1**), and MDD (Pt_{0.005}; explained variance=1.62%, P= 0.01;
292 **Supplemental Results, Supplementary Figure 5**). As a sensitivity analysis, we
293 repeated the SCZ PRS analysis on patients only (N=633) and confirmed the same
294 pattern of association with QoL and the same Pt of 0.5 showing most significant
295 association results (**Supplemental Results, Supplementary Figure 6**). As
296 expected given relatively low statistical power, genetic correlation analysis in LD
297 Hub showed no statistically significant results. Confirming our rationale for
298 investigating the PRSs chosen in the current study, genetic correlations of QoL
299 with SCZ (Ripke et al., 2014) and subjective wellbeing (Okbay et al., 2016) were
300 the strongest, in the expected direction (**Supplemental Results,**
301 **Supplementary Table 2**).

302 SCZ Pt_{0.5} (P = 7×10^{-6}), MDD Pt_{0.005} (P= 0.01), and subjective wellbeing Pt_{0.4}
303 (P=0.004) remained associated with QoL independent of one another. After
304 additional adjustment for positive, negative, and depressive symptoms, SCZ PRS
305 (Pt_{0.5}; P= 0.002) and wellbeing PRS (Pt_{0.4}; P=0.04) remained associated with QoL.
306 Moreover, only SCZ and subjective wellbeing PRSs were consistent with true
307 polygenicity explaining a proportion of the variance in QoL, as may be
308 appreciated by increasing degrees of explained variances and increasing
309 significance levels with relaxing Pts (**Figure 2**).

310 As stated above, all final clinical phenotypes included in our regression model
311 together explained 58.55% of the variability in QoL. By adding SCZ Pt_{0.5}, MDD

312 Pt_{0.005}, and subjective wellbeing Pt_{0.4}, the model explained 59.00% of the
313 variability.

314 **Discussion**

315 We here identified non-genetic factors contributing to QoL among patients
316 suffering from SCZ. Our results show that up to 58% of variance in QoL may be
317 explained using a range of demographic and clinical variables. We additionally
318 demonstrate that genetic predisposition to SCZ and subjective wellbeing explain
319 a (small) proportion of variability in QoL on top of clinical variables. The novelty
320 of our method lies in the use of hypothesis-generating approaches to investigate
321 a vast number of SCZ-associated genetic and non-genetic variables.

322 Most of the previous studies into QoL in SCZ had small to moderate sample
323 sizes (Wang et al., 2017, Cruz et al., 2016, Savill et al., 2016) and have shown the
324 association of particularly negative and positive symptoms with QoL in SCZ. A
325 recent study in 157 SCZ patients showed the effects of excitement (Domenech et
326 al., 2018), positive, negative, and depressive (Domenech et al., 2018) symptoms
327 on QoL. The study by Domenech et al. used only clinical symptoms based on
328 PANSS. We tested clinical symptoms assessed using multiple internationally
329 well-established scales (e.g. CAPE, PANSS, CAN) and assessed a range of other
330 phenotypic variables. Such rich phenotyping together with our large sample size
331 allowed us to firmly establish additional variables associated with QoL in SCZ at
332 increased statistical significance. Moreover, this approach allowed us to weigh
333 the effect of all variables in one model. In line with our findings, a recent meta-
334 analysis also found a substantial association between depressive symptoms and
335 personal recovery, a concept related to quality of life (Van Eck et al., 2018).

336 Several of the variables we found to be associated with QoL in SCZ had to
337 the best of our knowledge not been reported, such as disorganization, obsessive

338 compulsive symptoms, suicidal attempts, unmet needs, acathisia, and cannabis
339 craving. Although the underlying mechanisms of this latter association are still
340 unclear, one may speculate that cannabis craving constitutes a proxy for
341 cannabis abstinence, which in turn may increase anxiety and thus reduce
342 psychological wellbeing. Alternatively, relatively high levels of cannabis
343 dependence may worsen symptoms and thus negatively impact QoL.

344 Genetic predisposition to SCZ captured by PRS showed clear and persistent
345 effects on QoL across all Pts. We also observed moderate effects of polygenic
346 susceptibility to subjective well-being on QoL and no independent effects of
347 genetic predisposition to MDD on QoL in our cohort.

348 The current study benefits from a large sample size of a multicenter prospective
349 cohort study in the Netherlands with comprehensive phenotypic assessments in
350 individuals with SCZ. The large sample size increases precision and reliability of
351 our findings. The combination of a large sample size and rich phenotyping
352 created a unique opportunity for a phenome-wide study to identify contributing
353 factors to QoL in SCZ. In addition, carefully selected participants from several
354 geographical locations restricted the risk of selection bias. On the other hand,
355 several limitations should be borne in mind when interpreting our results. First,
356 interpretation of principal component-driven variables may not be intuitive.
357 Here, we managed to show its feasibility and usefulness. We reduced the number
358 of variables of the four different domains of QoL into one variable and were able
359 to assess the impact of multiple clinical and genetic determinants on this
360 variable. Our results showed consistency in terms of direction and magnitude of
361 the effect estimate when compared with ordinal domains of QoL

362 **(Supplementary Figure 3)**. Second, we are aware of relatively low power for
363 genetic studies on a complex trait such as QoL both in our GWAS and LD score
364 regression analyses. Our GWAS must therefore be regarded as a first exploratory
365 GWAS of QoL in SCZ subjects, their siblings and healthy controls. Similarly, for LD
366 score regression (LDSC), we were underpowered to reveal clear genetic
367 correlations. LDSC analysis was done to explore possible genetic correlations
368 with traits different from the ones we investigated and to investigate whether
369 the trait with most significant genetic correlation results was identical to the
370 trait with most significant PRS results, which indeed turned out to be the case.
371 Third, in the current study population about 97% of participants were
372 Caucasians which hampers generalizability to other ethnicities. Finally, our
373 association analyses preclude us from drawing definite conclusions about
374 causality. Future, well powered, prospective studies are necessary to improve
375 insight into possible causal mechanisms.

376 In conclusion, we highlight multiple clinical and genetic associations with QoL
377 that could be leveraged in daily care of patients with SCZ to improve their QoL.
378 The variables highlighted in the current study could aid health professionals who
379 interact with psychotic patients to more readily recognize the need for additional
380 interventions in patients showing a high burden of such phenotypes. For
381 example, although high levels of positive and negative symptoms are intuitively
382 associated with QoL, disorganization, cannabis craving and obsessive-
383 compulsive symptoms are also important contributors according to our analyses.
384 Genetic risk scoring may furthermore be used to optimize identification of those

385 SCZ patients susceptible to low quality of life, which in turn may advance timely
386 management for these vulnerable patients.

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405 **Conflict of interest statement**

406 All authors declare no conflict of interest.
407

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620

621 **Figure Legends**

622 **Figure 1. Results of the hypothesis-generating association analysis between**
623 **clinical variables and QoL among SCZ patients with explained variance for**
624 **QoL.** Number unmet needs, measured using the CAN, The Camberwell
625 Assessment of Need. Subject in remission: measured using the PANSS subject in
626 remission tool. PAS: Personality Assessment Screener. Suicide attempt: assessed
627 using the composite file (a questionnaire with closed questions designed for the
628 GROUP study). Cannabis thoughts: thoughts about cannabis use, measured using
629 the OC-DUS (obsessive compulsive drug use scale). Deficit syndrome: measured
630 using the SDS (Schedule for the Deficit Syndrome). OC total score: obsessive
631 compulsive symptoms score measured with the Yale-Brown obsessive
632 compulsive scale. Akathisia, measured using the Barnes akathisia rating scale.
633 **Figure 2. Bar plot illustrating explained variance for association of**
634 **polygenic risk scores of SCZ (schizophrenia) and subjective wellbeing with**
635 **QoL (quality of life).** The figure illustrates the results using linear mixed
636 models. Displayed are the number of SNPs (N), the strengths of the association
637 results ($-\log_{10} P$) and explained variances per Pt (p-value threshold).

Table 1- Baseline characteristics for patients, siblings and controls.

Characteristics	Patients (n=1,119)	Controls (n=586)	Siblings (n=1,059)	Parents (n=920)
-Age in years, mean (sd)	27.6(7.9)	30.4(10.6)	27.8(8.3)	54.7(6.7)
-Gender, n (%) women	267(23.9)	317(54.1)	577(54.5)	528(57.4)
-IQ, estimated, mean (sd)	95(16.1)	109.7(15.1)	102.8(15.6)	103(17.0)
-Married/living together, n (%)	97(9.3)	234(41.1)	411(40.2)	153(70.8)
-Years of education , mean (sd)	4 (2.1)	5.4(1.8)	5.1(2.1)	5.1(2.3)
-Nicotine use, mean number of cigarettes daily (sd)	11.7(11)	3(6.5)	4.9(8.4)	4.3(8.8)
-Alcohol use, mean number of drinks per week (sd)	6.6(12.1)	6.1(8.5)	6.4(8.6)	8.1(10.6)
-Current use of Antipsychotics, %	1062(95)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2(0.22)
-Duration of Illness (years), mean (sd)	4.2(4)	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 2- The 18 distinct clinical variables associated with QoL in the generalized linear model (N= 925 schizophrenia patients).

Variable	Scale	Standardized Effect Estimate	Standard Error	Explained Variance	P Value
Negative symptoms, points	CAPE	-1.17	0.05	0.53	1×10⁻⁸³
Depressive symptoms, points	CAPE	-1.07	0.05	0.51	2×10⁻⁷⁹
Emotional distress, points	PANSS	-0.09	0.01	0.38	4×10⁻⁵⁹
General psychopathology symptoms, points	PANSS	-0.81	0.06	0.29	3×10 ⁻⁴⁰
Global assessment of functioning (disabilities), points*	GAF	0.03	0	0.26	2×10⁻³⁴
Positive symptoms, points	CAPE	-0.05	0	0.2	1×10⁻²³
Number of unmet needs, points	CAN	-0.11	0.01	0.19	3×10⁻²³
Remission status, yes	PANSS	-0.56	0.07	0.15	8×10⁻¹⁷
Excitement, points	PANSS	-0.06	0.01	0.13	9×10⁻¹³
PAS total score	PANSS	-0.25	0.04	0.10	5×10 ⁻¹¹
Proportion unmet needs	CAN	-0.69	0.11	0.10	2×10 ⁻⁹
Disorganization, points	PANSS	-0.03	0.01	0.11	3×10 ⁻⁹
Obsessive compulsive symptoms, yes	Y-BOCS	-0.43	0.08	0.09	4×10 ⁻⁸
Suicidal attempts (lifetime), yes	Composite file**	-0.43	0.08	0.09	6×10 ⁻⁸
Cannabis craving, yes	OC-DUS	-0.31	0.06	0.14	1×10⁻⁰⁷
OCT Total score	OC-DUS	-0.28	0.06	0.13	1×10 ⁻⁰⁶
Deficit syndrome	SDS	-0.17	0.04	0.06	7×10 ⁻⁰⁵
Acatheisia	BARS	-0.13	0.04	0.06	3×10 ⁻⁰⁴

CAPE: Community Assessment of Psychic Experiences; PANSS: positive and negative syndrome scale; GAF, Global assessment of functioning; CAN, The Camberwell Assessment of Need; Y-BOCS: Yale-Brown obsessive compulsive scale; OC-DUS: obsessive-compulsive drug use scale; SDS: Schedule for the Deficit Syndrome; BARS: Barnes Akathisia Rating Scale Global, a clinical assessment scale for acathisia * Greater score indicates better functioning. ** This scale contains a range of questions probing health. Note: **the clinical variables in bold were independently associated with QoL in our stepwise regression model.**

Figure 1

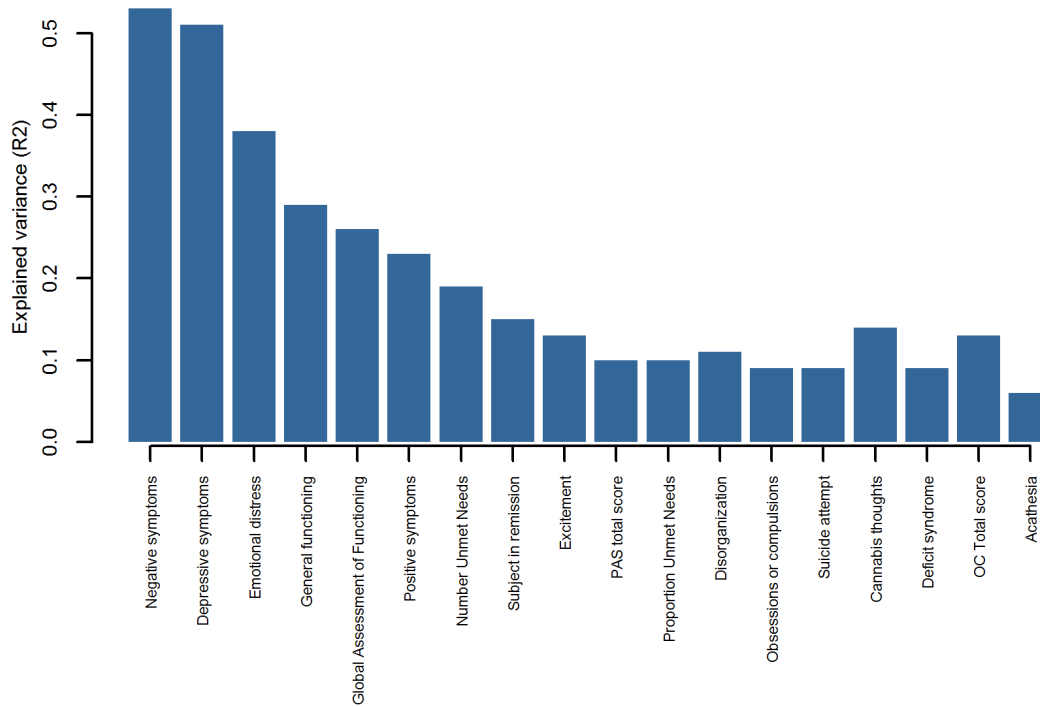


Figure 2

