Genetic structure correlates with ethnolinguistic diversity in eastern and southern Africa

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66 **Summary**

67 African populations are the most diverse in the world yet are sorely underrepresented in medical genetics
68 research. Here, we examine the structure of African populations using genetic and comprehensive
69 multigenerational ethnolinguistic data from the Neuropsychiatric Genetics of African Populations-Psychosis
70 study (NeuroGAP-Psychosis) consisting of 900 individuals from Ethiopia, Kenya, South Africa, and Uganda.
71 We find that self-reported language classifications meaningfully tag underlying genetic variation that would be
72 missed with consideration of geography alone, highlighting the importance of culture in shaping genetic
73 diversity. Leveraging our uniquely rich multi-generational ethnolinguistic metadata, we track language
74 transmission through the pedigree, observing the disappearance of several languages in our cohort as well as
75 notable shifts in frequency over three generations. We further find significantly higher language transmission
76 rates for matrilineal groups as compared to patrilineal. We highlight both the diversity of variation within the
77 African continent, as well as how within-Africa variation can be informative for broader variant interpretation;
78 many variants appearing rare elsewhere are common in parts of Africa. The work presented here improves the
79 understanding of the spectrum of genetic variation in African populations and highlights the enormous and
80 complex genetic and ethnolinguistic diversity within Africa.

81

82 **Keywords**

83 Diverse populations; genotype; population genetics; linguistics; population structure

84

85 **Introduction**

86 Humans originated in Africa, resulting in more genetic variation on the African continent than anywhere else in
87 the world; the average African genome has nearly a million more genetic variants than the average non-African
88 person¹. Africa is also immensely culturally and ethno-linguistically diverse; while the rest of the world
89 averages 3.2 to 4.7 ethnic groups per country, African countries have an average of greater than 8 each and
90 account in total for 43% of the world's ethnic groups². Despite this diversity, African ancestry individuals are
91 sorely underrepresented in genomic studies, making up only about 2% of GWAS participants^{3,4}. Furthermore,
92 the vast majority of African ancestry populations currently represented in genetic studies are African Americans
93 or Afro-Caribbeans (72-93% in the GWAS catalog and $\geq 90\%$ in gnomAD) with primarily West African ancestral
94 origins⁵. These resources thus currently leave out the substantial diversity from regions of Africa that are
95 disproportionately informative for human genetics.

96

97 Populations underrepresented in genetic studies contribute disproportionately to our understanding of
98 biomedical phenotypes relative to European ancestry populations. Despite their paltry representation in
99 GWAS, African ancestry populations contribute 7% of genome-wide significant associations^{5,6}. African
100 population genetic studies are especially informative given their unique evolutionary history, high level of
101 genetic variation, and rapid linkage disequilibrium decay⁷. This Eurocentric bias in current genomics studies
102 and resources also makes African descent individuals less likely to benefit from key genomic findings that do
103 not translate fully across populations, contributing to health disparities⁸. In this study, we better characterize
104 the immense genetic and ethnolinguistic diversity in four countries in eastern and southern Africa, offering
105 insights into population history and structure in diverse African populations. Data are from 900 genotype
106 samples that are part of the Neuropsychiatric Genetics of African Populations-Psychosis study (NeuroGAP-
107 Psychosis), a major research and capacity building initiative in Ethiopia, Kenya, South Africa, and Uganda^{9,10}

108

Genetic variation in Africa has been previously described as following not only isolation-by-distance expectations, but as being influenced by multiple interconnected ecological, historical, environmental, cultural, and linguistic factors^{11–16}. These factors capture distinct variation from that tagged by genetics and can be informative for understanding population substructure. Better characterization of the ethnolinguistic composition of these samples is a key initial step towards running well-calibrated statistical genomics analyses including association studies. If ethnolinguistic variation tags additional structure than that captured by geography, explicit incorporation of relevant cultural information into such analyses tests may be the optimal strategy. In this study, we explore the genetics of Africa and how peoples' cultural affiliations and languages are related to genetic variation on the continent. We also explore ongoing cultural changes and consider the impact they will have on the genetics of Africa.

119

120 Results

121 *Genetic Population Structure and Admixture*

We compared the ancestral composition of our samples relative to global reference data from the 1000 Genomes Project and the African Genome Variation Project (AGVP) to see the full breadth of genetic diversity. Most NeuroGAP-Psychosis samples appear genetically similar to their geographically closest reference samples when compared to global datasets (**Figure 1**). However, large amounts of admixture is visible for some individuals, particularly among South African individuals (*Supplemental Information*). In South Africa, some individuals cluster wholly within the European reference cluster; this is expected based on the demographic composition of Cape Town, where these samples were collected, which is home to a substantial fraction of people of Dutch ancestry (Afrikaners) and individuals of mixed ancestry^{12,15,17–19}.

130

We additionally investigated the degree of admixture within samples and how genetic groups cluster in the data. We ran ADMIXTURE analyses, which partition genetic variation into a given number of distinct genetic clusters. This helps to visualize the groups that are most genetically distinct from one another, as each additional component can be thought of as representing the next most differentiated ancestry component in the

data, akin to principal components analysis (PCA). We identified the best fit k value, using five-fold cross validation, to be 9 using a tailored global reference.

Examining the ancestry composition at the best fit k , we identify several ancestry components unique to areas within continental Africa (**Figure 1C**). Notably, several such components, including those unique to Ethiopia (purple), West Africa (orange), and South Africa (yellow) appear at earlier values of k than that separating South Asians from East Asians and Europeans (brown). While sample sizes affect the ordering of components identified in ADMIXTURE analyses, this suggests a high level of genetic differentiation between areas of the African continent rivaling that between those out-of-Africa continental ancestries, as has been previously demonstrated. We also note that Ethiopian participants have evidence of Eurasian admixture, possibly related to back-migration into the African continent^{17,20–22}.

Figure 1. Genetic and admixture composition of the NeuroGAP-Psychosis samples against a global reference. A) Map showing the geographic location of African populations included, color coded by the ancestry components found to be unique to that region. B) First 2 principal components showing NeuroGAP-Psychosis samples as projected onto global variation of the full 1000 Genomes and AGVP. While most samples fall on a cline, some South African samples exhibit high amounts of admixture and European genetic ancestry. C) ADMIXTURE analysis for $k=2$ through 9 of all African reference and cohort samples as well as three representative non-African populations from the 1000 Genomes Project. GIH are the Gujarati Indian from Houston, Texas, CHB are the Han Chinese in Beijing, China, and the GBR are British in England and Scotland, which were included to capture South Asian, East Asian, and European admixture, respectively. Individuals are represented as bar charts sorted by population, and ancestry components for each person are visualized with different colors. The best supported k value with cross-validation was $k=9$.

Projecting our samples onto PC space generated from only African reference samples, the top two principal components (PCs) separate geography, and more specifically East-West and North-South patterns of variation within Africa (**Figure 2**), mirroring our expectation of isolation by geographic distance in human genetic data. At higher PCs, however, there is fine-scale structure in the data separating different geographically proximal groups within the East African individuals, shown in red. We thus focus our deeper examinations into the East African samples to assess potential drivers of this differentiation (**Supplementary Figure 1**). For a detailed discussion of genetic variation within each country see the *Supplementary Information*.

Figure 2. Genetic composition of subcontinental African structure in the NeuroGAP-Psychosis samples. A-D: PCA biplots for PCs 1-8 with an African reference panel of 1000 Genomes Project AFR populations and the AGVP dataset. A map of collection locations is shown to the left of PCA plots.

175 *Self-reported Population Composition*

176 Across samples with self-reported ethnolinguistic information, we observe 62 primary ethnicities and 107
 177 primary languages in the 960 NeuroGAP-Psychosis samples, including missing data (Figure 3). We also find
 178 that languages have shifted in frequency over time, with English increasing in reporting frequency in the
 179 current generation, and several grandparental languages disappearing in our dataset (**Figure 3**;
 180 **Supplementary Figures 2-5**).

181 **Figure 3.** Primary self-reported language shifts over three generations. A) Individual languages were re-
 182 classified into broader language families for comparable granularity. B) All languages reported with at least 3%
 183 frequency in any generation are shown across the generations. Note the increase in endorsement of English
 184 and drop in Oromiffa/Oromigna in the present generation.

187 *Genetic Variation Partitions with Language*

188 To assess the correlation between the language that an individual reports to be their primary and the genetic
 189 partitioning that we observed, we conducted Procrustes analyses to measure the correlation between genetic,
 190 linguistic, and geographic variation. Procrustes analysis minimizes the distance between two sets of
 191 coordinates, so we can compare genetic variation reduced to two PCs to the location of each population. Using

the phonemes (units of sound) found in the self-reported languages of individuals and their families, along with the first two PCs of autosomal and X chromosome variation, we found consistent correlations between genetic, linguistic, and geographic variation throughout Africa (**Table 1**). Because the autosomes and X chromosomes have considerably different numbers of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), we additionally compared X chromosome variation to that from chromosome 22, which is most similar in SNP count to X (variant counts without/with reference panel: X = 603/1348, chr22 = 705/1455; **Supplementary Figure 6**). To measure linguistic variation, we queried the PHOIBLE 2.0 phonemic database²³, which contains phoneme inventories and phoneme qualities for many languages around the world. The resulting matrices of mean phoneme presences were used in a PCA to create three sets of linguistic PCs: from personally spoken languages of the participant, a combined score from those spoken by matrilineal relatives (mother and maternal grandmother), and a combined score from those of patrilineal relatives (father and paternal grandfather).

The first two PCs of both autosomal and X chromosome variation correlate more closely to geography ($p=0.643$ and 0.625 respectively; $p<5E-5$) than the first two PCs of linguistic variation ($p=0.481$; $p<5E-5$). Genetics are also correlated to linguistic variation to a lesser extent, and autosomal variation is consistently more strongly correlated to this linguistic variation than is X chromosome variation. When considering individuals from the entire dataset—Eastern and South Africa—patrilineal languages are more closely correlated to genetics than are matrilineal languages (by ~15%).

Figure 4. Procrustes analyses indicate that autosomal genetic diversity is better correlated with geography than is X chromosome diversity. Plots represent the first two genetic PCs after a procrustes-transformation. The upper panels use PCs generated using autosomal variation, and the lower panels use X chromosome variation. The left column uses the locations of the study site at which each individual was sampled; the right column uses each individual's self-reported languages and the centroids of these languages to identify a geographic midpoint of that individual's languages. Individuals are colored by primary field site. For each primary field site, the midpoint of individuals' locations (by study site or languages spoken) is represented by a large point.

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221

222 Language Transmission Through Families

223 As we have detailed multi-generational ethnolinguistic information (see STAR *Methods* “*Ethnolinguistic*
224 *Phenotypes*”), we computed overall transmission rates of language families over three generations. We initially
225 examined the raw self-reported information of the participant with respect to the primary, second and third
226 language spoken. We assessed the frequency with which the primary language reported by the participant
227 matched each of their older relatives’ (i.e. maternal and paternal grandparents, mother and father) as well as
228 the frequency with which the participants’ primary reported language matched that of the languages reported
229 for their relative (**Table 2**). We find that transmission rates are similar between family members of the same
230 generation when looking at primary language matching any language whether including or excluding English.

Partitioning East African individuals by the presence of matri- vs patri-lineal transmission in their traditional societies (from Murdock's Ethnographic Atlas, code *EA076*^{24,25}), we see a significantly higher transmission rate from individuals assigned to a matrilineal classification ($p=0.028$).

234

235 *Testing for Evidence of Sex-biased Demography*

To examine if there was evidence for sex-biased gene flow in our samples, we ran more Procrustes analyses comparing genetic and linguistic variation on the X chromosome as compared to the autosomes. We also assessed the similarity of ancestry proportions on the X chromosome versus autosomes. Ancestry fractions were highly correlated across these genomic regions, indicating no evidence for sex-biased demography at this scale (**Supplementary Figure 7**). Similarly, the Procrustes tests showed significant correlation between PCs 1 and 2 of X and autosomal variation ($p = 0.880$ for all of Africa and $p = 0.884$ for East Africa alone). Compared to chr22 instead, results were similar ($p = 0.836$ for all Africa and $p = 0.841$ for East Africa). Wilcoxon signed rank tests comparing the fractions of ancestry on X versus autosomes from ADMIXTURE at $k=4$ did not find a significant difference in the means, nor for PC1 vs PC2 ($p = 0.3754$).

245

246 *Reference Panels Miss Meaningful Allele Frequency Resolution within Africa*

We visualized allele frequencies for functionally important variants across our 5 collection sites as compared to reference data from the 1000 Genomes Project. One example variant, key in beta-thalassemia, dramatically varies in frequency depending on the precise location in Africa (**Supplementary Figure 8**). As this variant has direct consequences on human health, consideration of the difference in frequency across the continent is useful. For another example, rs72629486, a missense coding single nucleotide variant in the gene *ACTRT2*, ranges in minor allele frequency (MAF) in NeuroGAP-Psychosis from 5% in Ethiopia down to 1.3% in Uganda. This is nearly the full range of the frequency distribution for all global populations in the gnomAD database²⁶, which lists the variant in the AFR as 5.5%, missing finer resolution. rs72629486 is predicted to be deleterious and probably damaging by SIFT and PolyPhen, respectively, and has a combined annotation dependent depletion score of 22.9, highlighting that this variant is likely to be highly functionally important²⁷⁻²⁹.

257

258 Discussion

259 Africa is a highly diverse continent, home to immense genetic, linguistic, and cultural diversity. This
 260 ethnolinguistic variation is extremely complex and is meaningful to disentangle prior to statistical genetics
 261 analyses. Here, we measured the correlation between genetic, linguistic, and geographic variation, finding that
 262 genetic and linguistic variation are closely correlated to each other as well as to geography across the African
 263 continent. This is consistent with previous work examining global patterns of diversity as well as the 'Bantu
 264 expansion', one of the largest demographic events in African history^{11,12,16,30–32}. However, we find that in East
 265 Africa, language better separates genetic structure in our dataset than does geography (**Figure 1**,
 266 **Supplementary Figure 1**), a phenomenon that has been noted in Europe and Ethiopia previously^{20,22,33,34}. This
 267 is notable, as most studies currently operate under the expectation of perfect isolation by distance. We find
 268 here that individuals collected from the same geographic location show significant genetic differentiation by
 269 language family, particularly in East Africa where there is immense linguistic diversity. This finding should
 270 influence how population substructure is controlled for in genetic tests, suggesting that a more nuanced
 271 treatment of genetic clusters with incorporation of ethnolinguistic classifications may sometimes be the most
 272 suitable approach. For example, future work exploring the direct incorporation of ethnolinguistic affiliations into
 273 linear mixed models would be useful, e.g. in the context of a kinship matrix equivalent³⁵.

274

275 As there is such immense genetic variation across the African continent^{19,36–39}, we highlight cases where such
 276 variability may be particularly informative. Africa is not simply one monolithic location, as it is sometimes
 277 treated in major genomics resources such as gnomAD allele frequency reports and the TOPMed dataset (data
 278 that include primarily or exclusively African Americans)^{26,40}. Rather, there is an inordinate amount of genetic
 279 variability within it. These examples highlight both the diversity of variation within the African continent, as well
 280 as the fact that within-Africa variation can be informative for broader variant interpretation; many variants
 281 appearing rare elsewhere are common in parts of Africa.

282

283 As part of the NeuroGAP-Psychosis study's recruitment process, multi-generational self-reported
 284 ethnolinguistic data was collected from participants, including individual ethnicity and at least primary, second
 285 and third language from participants for themselves, as well as for each of their parents and grandparents. This
 286 provides us with an unusually rich depth of multigenerational demographic information from participants, a
 287 unique strength of our dataset that affords us the opportunity to investigate language transmission through the
 288 pedigree and shifts in language frequencies over time. First, we examined the overall change in self-reported
 289 language frequencies over three generations. Perhaps most striking is the increase in the reporting frequency
 290 of English by participants as their primary language as compared to their reports for older generations of their
 291 family. We also find that twelve languages reported for earlier generations were not spoken by the participants,
 292 indicating that they have disappeared from our dataset. Khoekhoe, Somali, and Urdu disappeared in the
 293 parental generation, and Amba, Afar, Argobba, Gumuz, Harar, Hindi, Soddo, Soo, and Tamil were no longer
 294 reported languages in the participants' generation. Interestingly, these languages represent a mix of both
 295 historically spoken and imported languages for the countries that enrolled participants in the NeuroGAP-
 296 Psychosis study. While these results are intriguing, we wish to stress that our participants are not necessarily
 297 representative of the local populations from which they come. A further consideration is a potential upwards
 298 bias towards reporting of English and Amharic as a primary language due to a preference towards reporting
 299 the language of consent as primary (consent form languages options increased over time; for example, in
 300 Ethiopia, initially only English and Amharic were offered), as well as towards languages taught in local
 301 educational systems. This additionally highlights the importance of careful consideration of items on self-report
 302 forms to ensure accurate and representative phenotype collection.

303
 304 To take a closer look at language transmission across the pedigree, we calculated frequencies of transmission
 305 between various relatives in our family tree. In these calculations, we ran tests both including as well as
 306 excluding English in the event of such a potential upwards bias, and to get a better sense of transmission of
 307 languages that have been present in the continent for a longer period of time than recently imported
 308 languages. We additionally reclassified groups as being matrilineal or patrilineal using the database
 309 Ethnographic Atlas (EA)²⁴ and recalculated the transmission rates within those two classifications.

310 Matri/patrilineal implies the pattern of inheritance or the tracing of kinship and whether a child generally
 311 identifies more with the social system of the mother's or father's line. Interestingly, though our sample size for
 312 matrilineal groups is quite small (N=105 and 674 for matrilineal and patrilineal respectively), we find that there
 313 is a significantly higher language transmission rate for individuals assigned to matrilineal groups.

314

315 In summary, better understanding the composition of samples is a key first step to calibrating subsequent
 316 statistical genetics analyses. Cultural factors such as language can dramatically impact the structure of cohort
 317 data; we find that self-reported language classifications meaningfully tag underlying genetic variation that
 318 would be missed with consideration of geography alone. The work presented here improves the understanding
 319 of the immense spectrum of genetic and ethnolinguistic variation found across multiple African populations and
 320 sheds light on the shifts in language endorsement over the past three generations in five collection sites.

321

322 Tables

323 **Table 1.** Procrustes correlations between genetics, geography, and language. All $p < 5E-5$. The first two PCs
 324 of autosomal and X chromosome variation were used for comparisons. Linguistic variation was calculated as a
 325 function of mean phoneme presence across all languages reported by the individual across their pedigree.

326

Subset of individuals	PCs 1 & 2: Genetic	Geography	Self	Languages spoken by	
				Mother & Maternal Grandmother	Father & Paternal Grandfather
All individuals	Autosomal	0.6327	0.450	0.3167	0.3764
	X chr.	0.6248	0.423	0.3046	0.3713
East Africa	Autosome	0.7734	0.627	0.5616	0.5648
	X chr.	0.6810	0.585	0.5423	0.5304

327

328 **Table 2.** *Language transmission rates from relatives.*

329 Frequency of a participants' reported primary language matching one of the top three reported languages
330 spoken by relatives. Rates were calculated both with and without excluding English. In East Africa, individuals
331 were additionally partitioned by their affiliation with either a matrilineal vs patrilineal ethnolinguistic group.

332

Family Member	Transmission Rate			
	All	Excl. English	Patrilineal (E. Africa)	Matrilineal (E. Africa)
Father	0.810	0.818	0.837	0.871
Mother	0.802	0.809	0.811	0.800
Paternal grandfathers	0.778	0.775	0.726	0.926
Paternal grandmothers	0.773	0.767	0.738	0.939
Maternal grandfathers	0.762	0.758	0.708	0.903
Maternal grandmothers	0.758	0.753	0.726	0.812

333

334

335 **STAR Methods**

336 *Collection Strategy*

337 As described in more detail in the published protocol⁹, NeuroGAP-Psychosis is a case-control study recruiting
338 participants from more than two dozen hospitals and medical clinics in Ethiopia, Kenya, South Africa, and
339 Uganda. Participants are recruited in languages in which they are fluent, including Acholi, Afrikaans, Amharic,
340 English, Kiswahili, Luganda, Lugbara, Oromiffa/Oromigna, Runyankole, and isiXhosa. After consenting to be in
341 the study, participants give a saliva sample using an Oragene kit (OG-500.005) for DNA extraction. Study staff
342 then ask a range of questions on demographics, mental health, and physical health and take the participants'
343 blood pressure, heart rate, height, and weight. The whole study visit lasts approximately 60-90 minutes.

344

345 *Ethnolinguistic Phenotypes*

346 Multiple phenotypes related to self-reported ethnolinguistic categorizations have been collected as part of the
347 recruitment process. This includes multi-generational data including each participants' primary, secondary and
348 tertiary language and ethnicity, and birth country. All linguistic data were collected from participants both for
349 themselves as well as for each of their parents and grandparents, giving an unusually rich depth of information.
350 The specific phrasing of questions collected are as follows:

351 Primary language: "What primary language do you speak?"

352 2nd language: "What 2nd language do you speak?"

353 3rd language: "What 3rd language do you speak?"

354 Primary ethnicity: "What is your ethnicity or tribe?"

355 2nd ethnicity: "What is your ethnicity or tribe?"

356 3rd ethnicity: "What is your ethnicity or tribe?"

357

358 Reports for other relatives followed similar phrasing. The primary language question for each is listed, with
359 primary swapped for '2nd' or '3rd' for the second and third reported languages for that family member.

360 Mother: "What was the primary language that your biological mother spoke?"

361 Father: "What was the primary language that your biological father spoke?"

362 Maternal grandmother: "What primary language did your biological mother's mother speak?"

363 Maternal grandfather: "What primary language did your biological mother's father speak?"

364 Paternal grandmother: "What primary language did your biological father's mother speak?"

365 Paternal grandfather: "What primary language did your biological father's father speak?"

366

367 *Genetic Data Quality Control*

368 Quality control (QC) procedures for NeuroGAP-Psychosis data were done using the Hail python library
369 (www.hail.is). All of the data was stored on Google Cloud. The QC steps and filters used were adapted from

370 Ricopili⁴¹ and Anderson et al. 2011⁴². The data was genotyped using the Illumina Global Screening Array. For
 371 each of the five NeuroGAP-Psychosis sites, a vcf with genotyping data was stored on Google Cloud. Before
 372 QC, each data vcf contained 192 samples and 687537 variants. When looking at the data pre-QC we
 373 discovered elevated deviations in Hardy Weinberg Equilibrium. We found that the metric which outlined the
 374 individuals causing these deviations was called autocall call rate, Illumina's custom genotype calling algorithm
 375 (See Supplementary Information). The QC filtering steps took place after removing individuals with an autocall
 376 call rate less than .95. 937 of the original 960 individuals remained. These 960 individuals were used for the
 377 linguistic transmission analyses presented here, while for genetic analyses further QC on variants was
 378 conducted.

379
 380 The site vcfs were imported as Hail matrix tables and annotated with appropriated data from the metadata file
 381 before being merged. The resulting matrix table had 937 samples and 687537 variants. Prior to QC, the joint
 382 dataset was split into autosomes, PAR, and nonPAR regions of the X chromosome. QC filtering was
 383 conducted separately for the autosome and X chromosome regions. Pre-QC, the autosomal dataset had 937
 384 samples and 669346 variants. The following is a list of the QC steps and parameters used for autosomal QC.
 385 (1) Removing variants with a call rate less than 95%. After filtering, 638235 variants remained. (2) Removing
 386 individuals with a call rate less than 98%. After filtering, 930 individuals remained. (3) Removing individuals
 387 whose reported sex did not match their genotypic sex. After filtering, 923 individuals remained. (4) Removing
 388 variants with a minor allele frequency less than 0.5%. After filtering, 360,321 variants remained. (5) Removing
 389 variants with a Hardy Weinberg Equilibrium p-value less than 1×10^{-3} . After filtering, 331667 variants
 390 remained. (6) Using PC-Relate with 10 PCs, removing individuals with a kinship coefficient greater than .125.
 391 After filtering, 900 individuals remained. After autosomal QC, 900 individuals and 331667 variants remained.

392
 393 The PAR and nonPAR regions of the X chromosome were subset to the 900 samples which passed autosomal
 394 QC before going through variant QC. The same variant thresholds used for autosomal QC were used to
 395 conduct QC on the PAR region. Pre-QC the PAR region dataset had 900 samples and 518 variants. (1) After
 396 SNP call rate filtering, 515 variants remained. (2) After MAF filtering, 411 variants remained. (3) After HWE

397 filtering, 402 variants remain. Post-QC, the PAR region had 900 samples and 402 variants. For the nonPAR
 398 region, the dataset was split by sex. The female nonPAR dataset had 441 samples and 17673 variants. Variant
 399 QC was carried out on the females using the following metrics. (1) Removing variants with a call rate less than
 400 98%. After filtering, 16261 variants remained. (2) Removing variants with a minor allele frequency less than
 401 1%. After filtering, 11113 variants remained. (3) Removing variants with a Hardy Weinberg Equilibrium p-value
 402 less than 1×10^{-6} . After filtering, 11104 variants remained. After nonPAR QC on the females, the male nonPAR
 403 dataset was merged with the female QC'd nonPAR dataset. The final nonPAR dataset had 900 samples and
 404 11104 variants. After filtering, the three datasets were merged into one matrix table. The final merged, post-QC
 405 dataset contained 900 samples and 343173 variants and was written out to vcf and plink format for further
 406 analyses. The counts of variants/individuals per site after autosomal and X QC can be found in

407 **Supplementary Tables 1-2.**

408

409 After QC, the dataset was merged with two different reference panel datasets, the 1000 Genomes Project
 410 (TGP)⁴³ and the AGVP³⁸. Before merging the datasets, AGVP had 1297 samples and 1778578 variants while
 411 TGP had 2504 samples and 17892192 variants. Before these two datasets were merged the variants in the
 412 AGVP dataset were flipped using the plink command --flip. In addition, indels were removed from the TGP
 413 dataset, and variants with more than 3 alleles were removed from the AGVP dataset. After removing triallelic
 414 sites from the AGVP dataset, there were 1297 samples and 1771279 variants. After removing indels from the
 415 TGP dataset, there were 16101868 variants and 2504 samples. After merging the two reference panels, there
 416 were 3801 samples and 16194904 variants. After the two reference datasets were merged, --geno filter from
 417 plink was run with .05 threshold to remove variants which had missing genotype call rates greater than 95%.
 418 After this filter, 1677440 variants and 3801 samples remained. Lastly, related individuals were removed from
 419 the merged AGVP and 1000 Genome dataset. The final dataset had 3784 samples and 1677440 variants.

420

421 The reference dataset was then merged with the postQC NeuroGAP-Psychosis dataset containing both
 422 autosomal and X chromosome data. Before merging with the reference panel the NeuroGAP-Psychosis
 423 dataset had 900 samples and 343173 variants. Variants with more than 3 alleles were removed from the

NeuroGAP-Psychosis dataset. After this the dataset had 343166 variants. After merging the NeuroGAP-Psychosis dataset with the AGVP+TGP reference panel the dataset contained 4684 samples and 1814839 variants. A --geno filter with .05 was run on the merged dataset. After the filter, 4684 samples and 205767 variants remained. Our processing pipeline is freely available at: <https://github.com/atgu/NeuroGAP/tree/master/PilotDataQC>.

Population Structure and Admixture Analyses

Cohort data from the five NeuroGAP-Psychosis plates were merged with African reference populations from the 1000 Genomes Project⁴³ and the African Genome Variation Project³⁸. These populations provide reasonably comprehensive geographic coverage across the African continent from currently available reference panels and contain populations which are co-located in the same countries as all NeuroGAP-Psychosis samples. PCA was run using flashPCA⁴⁴. Detailed examination of admixture was conducted using the program ADMIXTURE⁴⁵ with five-fold cross validation error to inform the correct number of clusters. Plots from ADMIXTURE output were generated with pong⁴⁶. ADMIXTURE was run using a tailored representation of global genetic data consisting of all continental African populations, the CHB population from China to capture East Asian admixture, the GBR from Britain to capture European admixture, and the GIH from India to capture South Asian ancestry. Fst estimates across populations were generated using smartPCA⁴⁷. Fst heatmaps were generated in R using the package *corrplot*. The relationship between ancestry composition on the autosomes vs X chromosome was examined using Pearson correlation and mantel tests in R with the package *ade4*. Frequency plots of variants across the globe were created with the GGV browser⁴⁸.

Relationship between Genetics and Language

To measure linguistic variation, we made use of the PHOIBLE 2.0 phonemic database²³, which contains phoneme inventories and phoneme qualities for languages around the world. For every individual, we identified all languages spoken—excluding English—which were present in the PHOIBLE database (84.5% of languages spoken by the individuals themselves, and 81.1% of languages spoken by their relatives). Using the phoneme

inventories (including both primary phonemes and their allophones) from PHOIBLE, we found the mean phoneme presence for each individual's or each relative's spoken languages. The resulting matrices (of individuals or their relatives, and mean phoneme presences) were used for PCA conducted in R to create three sets of principal components (PCs): from personally spoken languages, from those spoken by matrilineal relatives (mother and maternal grandmother), and from those of patrilineal relatives (father and patrilineal grandfather).

First, all languages were assigned the highest-level classifications available in Glottolog 4.2.1⁴⁹. These classifications were modified to minimize the number of high-level classifications while maintaining an element of geographic origin. Several classifications were consolidated into Nilo-Saharan (made up of Nilotic, Central Sudanic, Kuliak and Gamuz classifications) and Khoisan (Khoe-Kwadi, Kxa, and Tuu), and Afro-Asiatic was expanded (with Ta-Ne-Omoti and Dizoid). Indo-European was split to account for the recent history of its speakers: Afrikaans and Oorlams were placed into a unique category, the languages of Europe into another, and those of the Indian subcontinent (Hindi and Urdu) into a third. We excluded languages that were unclassified or identified as speech registers.

Every individual was associated with a survey location, meaning the geographic coordinates where the sample was collected, and we used the spoken languages to assign a different, linguistic location. To do this, using all languages an individual spoke, and these languages' locations from Glottolog, we calculated the mean location of each individual's languages.

To compare linguistic, genetic, and geographic variation, we used a set of Procrustes analyses implemented in R⁵⁰. For linguistic and genetic variation, the first two PCs of variation were used. Since Procrustes minimizes the sum of squared euclidean distances, the geographic coordinates of each individual were converted to points on a sphere. To measure the correlation between geographic variation and linguistic or genetic variation, the latter were transformed (via rotation and scaling) to minimize the sum of squared distance

476 between individuals' locations and the transformed genetic or linguistic PCs. The first two PCs of procrustes-
477 transformed linguistic and genetic variation—representing their similarity to geographic variation—were then
478 plotted onto a map.

479

480 *Anthropological variables*

481 To identify relevant anthropological data, we accessed data from the Ethnographic Atlas (EA)²⁴ using D-
482 Place²⁵. We associated each ethnicity reported in the NeuroGAP-Psychosis survey data to a society in the EA
483 (if possible), and used two available variables (*EA012: Marital residence with kin*, and *EA076: Inheritance rule*
484 *for movable property*). For ethnicities with data, individuals whose ethnicities were associated with consistent
485 inheritance rules or marital residence patterns were assigned that rule or pattern. Of the 907 NeuroGAP-
486 Psychosis individuals, 751 were assigned a marital residence pattern (patrilocal, neolocal, or virilocal-like) and
487 779 were assigned an inheritance rule (matrilineal or patrilineal).

488

489

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606

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612

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622

623 **Human Subjects Approval**

624 Ethical clearances to conduct this study have been obtained from all participating sites, including:
625 · Ethiopia: Addis Ababa University College of Health Sciences (#014/17/Psy) and the Ministry of Science and
626 Technology National Research Ethics Review Committee (#3.10/14/2018).
627 · Kenya: Moi University School of Medicine Institutional Research and Ethics Committee (#IREC/2016/145,
628 approval number: IREC 1727), Kenya National Council of Science and Technology
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635

636 **Data and Code Availability Statement**

637 The genetic data generated during this study for NeuroGAP-Psychosis samples will be made available on
 638 dbGAP (in process). Code used to process and analyze data is freely available here:
 639 <https://github.com/atgu/NeuroGAP>.

640

641 **Declaration of Interests**

642 A.R.M. has consulted for 23andMe and Illumina and received speaker fees from Genentech, Pfizer, and
 643 Illumina. B.M.N. is a member of the Deep Genomics Scientific Advisory Board. He also serves as a consultant
 644 for the Camp4 Therapeutics Corporation, Takeda Pharmaceutical and Biogen. M.J.D. is a founder of Maze
 645 Therapeutics. The remaining authors declare no competing interests.

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