

# Identification and analysis of individuals who deviate from their genetically-predicted phenotype

Gareth Hawkes<sup>1</sup>, Loic Yengo<sup>2</sup>, Sailaja Vedantam<sup>3</sup>, Eirini Marouli<sup>4</sup>, Robin N Beaumont<sup>1</sup>, the GIANT Consortium, Jessica Tyrrell<sup>1</sup>, Michael N Weedon<sup>1</sup>, Joel Hirschhorn<sup>5</sup>, Timothy M Frayling<sup>1\*</sup> & Andrew R Wood<sup>1\*</sup>,

**1** Genetics of Complex Traits, College of Medicine and Health, University of Exeter, Exeter, Devon, UK

**2** Institute for Molecular Bioscience, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia

**3** Endocrinology, Boston Children's Hosp, Sharon, MA, USA

**4** William Harvey Research Institute, Barts and The London School of Medicine and Dentistry Queen Mary University of London, London

**5** Boston Children's Hospital/Broad Institute, Boston, MA, USA

\* [T.M.Frayling@exeter.ac.uk](mailto:T.M.Frayling@exeter.ac.uk) and [A.R.Wood@exeter.ac.uk](mailto:A.R.Wood@exeter.ac.uk)

## Abstract

Findings from genome-wide association studies have facilitated the generation of genetic predictors for many common human phenotypes. Stratifying individuals misaligned to a genetic predictor based on common variants may be important for follow-up studies that aim to identify alternative causal factors. Using genome-wide imputed genetic data, we aimed to classify 158,951 unrelated individuals from the UK Biobank as either concordant or deviating from two well-measured phenotypes. We first applied our methods to standing height: our primary analysis classified 244 individuals (0.15%) as misaligned to their genetically predicted height. We show that these individuals are enriched for self-reporting being shorter or taller than average at age 10, diagnosed congenital malformations, and rare loss-of-function variants in genes previously catalogued as causal for growth disorders. Secondly, we apply our methods to LDL cholesterol. We classified 156 (0.12%) individuals as misaligned to their genetically predicted LDL cholesterol and show that these individuals were enriched for both clinically actionable cardiovascular risk factors and rare genetic variants in genes previously shown to be involved in metabolic processes. Individuals whose LDL-C was higher than expected based on the genetic predictor were also at higher risk of developing coronary artery disease and type-two diabetes, even after adjustment for measured LDL-C, BMI and age, suggesting upward deviation from genetically predicted LDL-C is indicative of generally poor health. Our results remained broadly consistent when performing sensitivity analysis based on a variety of parametric and non-parametric methods to define individuals deviating from polygenic expectation. Our analyses demonstrate the potential importance of quantitatively identifying individuals for further follow-up based on deviation from genetic predictions.

## Author Summary

Human genetics is becoming increasingly useful to help predict human traits across a population owing to findings from large-scale genetic association studies and advances in the power of genetic predictors. This provides an opportunity to potentially identify individuals that deviate from genetic predictions for a common phenotype under investigation. For example, an individual may be genetically predicted to be tall, but be shorter than expected. It is potentially important to identify individuals who deviate from genetic predictions as this can facilitate further follow-up to assess likely causes. Using 158,951 unrelated individuals from the UK Biobank, with height and LDL cholesterol, as exemplar traits, we demonstrate that approximately 0.15% & 0.12% of individuals deviate from their genetically predicted phenotypes respectively. We observed these individuals to be enriched for a range of rare clinical diagnoses, as well as rare genetic factors that may be causal. Our analyses also demonstrate several methods for detecting

individuals who deviate from genetic predictions that can be applied to a range of continuous human phenotypes.

## 1 **Introduction**

2 Since 2007 [1], genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified thousands of associations between  
3 common single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and human traits. This has resulted in an increase in the  
4 variance explained and out-of-sample prediction accuracy for common human traits [2–4]. For example, the  
5 largest published GWAS meta-analysis for height identified 12,111 SNP-associations that explained ~40% of  
6 the variance in height among individuals of European genetic ancestry and between 10-20% in other genetic  
7 ancestries [3]. Although the amount of variance explained for common quantitative traits continues to  
8 increase, less is understood of how common genetic variation contributes to phenotypic variation in the  
9 extreme tails of quantitative trait distributions [5], and whether individuals who present relatively extreme  
10 deviation from their expected phenotype given their common SNP-based predictor can be identified.

11 It may be important to identify individuals who deviate from their predicted phenotype based on an  
12 assumed polygenic model of association because they may be more likely to carry rarer and more penetrant  
13 pathogenic mutations or have some other cause to their phenotype. Specific alternative causes of an extreme  
14 phenotype may require targeted clinical investigations for an individual.

15 Using height and LDL cholesterol (LDL-C) as exemplar traits, chosen for their high heritability and clinical  
16 relevance respectively, we aimed to classify individuals who deviate from their genetically predicted  
17 phenotype, using 158,951 unrelated individuals from the UK Biobank with whole exome-sequencing data.  
18 We subsequently aimed to determine if individuals classified as misaligned to their genetically predicted  
19 height were enriched for recall of being relatively short or tall in childhood, disproportionate body stature,  
20 clinical diagnoses of syndromes associated with extreme stature, carriers for rare genetic variation relevant  
21 to height, or environmental factors that may have influenced growth. Secondly, we aimed to determine if  
22 individuals classified as misaligned to their genetically predicted LDL-C were at higher risk of heart disease,  
23 more or less likely to have type 2 diabetes, or were carriers for rare genetic variation relevant to LDL-C.  
24 Finally, we assessed the sensitivity of our results based on four methods, each with two thresholds, that have  
25 the potential to be used to identify individuals whose phenotype deviates from the expectation based on their  
26 polygenic score.

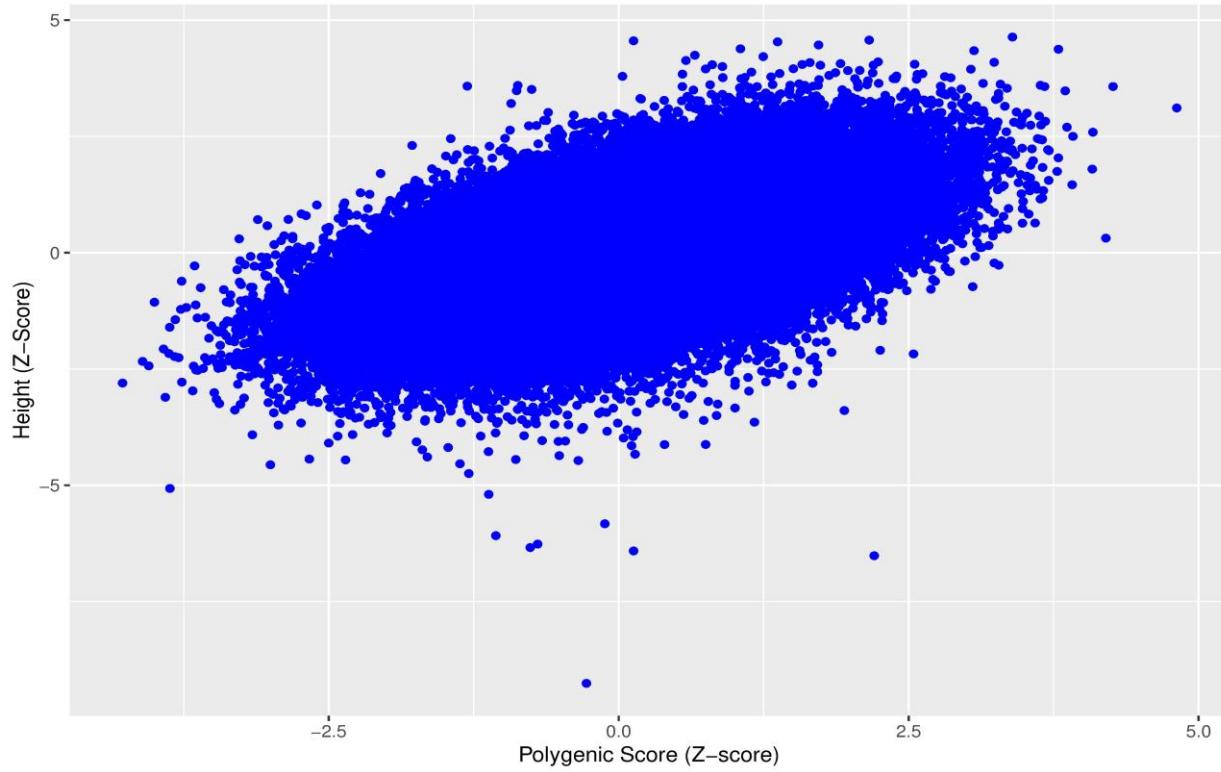
## 27 **Results**

### 28 **Standing Height**

#### 29 **A derived polygenic score for height explains 32% of the variance in the UK Biobank**

30 We derived a polygenic score using conditional effect estimates of 3,198 SNPs reaching  $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$  obtained  
31 from a meta-analysis of 1.2M individuals from European-based studies (excluding the UK Biobank)  
32 contributing to the Genetic Investigation of ANthropometric Traits (GIANT) consortium. The polygenic score  
33 explained 31.6% of the variance in height among 158,951 unrelated individuals of European genetic ancestry  
34 with exome sequencing in the UK Biobank (Fig 1). A 1SD increase in the polygenic score increased  
35 standardized height (adjusted for age, sex and assessment centre and five principal components) by 0.562  
36 SDs ([95% CI 0.558, 0.566],  $P < 1 \times 10^{-128}$ ), equivalent to 5.19cm. Effects were similar in males and females  
37 (0.561 SDs [95% CI 0.555, 0.567] and 0.564 SDs [95% CI 0.558, 0.569], respectively).

38 **Fig 1.** Standardized polygenic scores for height plotted against standardized height for 158,951 unrelated  
39 individuals from the UK Biobank.



40  
41 **We classified 244 individuals as misaligned to genetically predicted height**

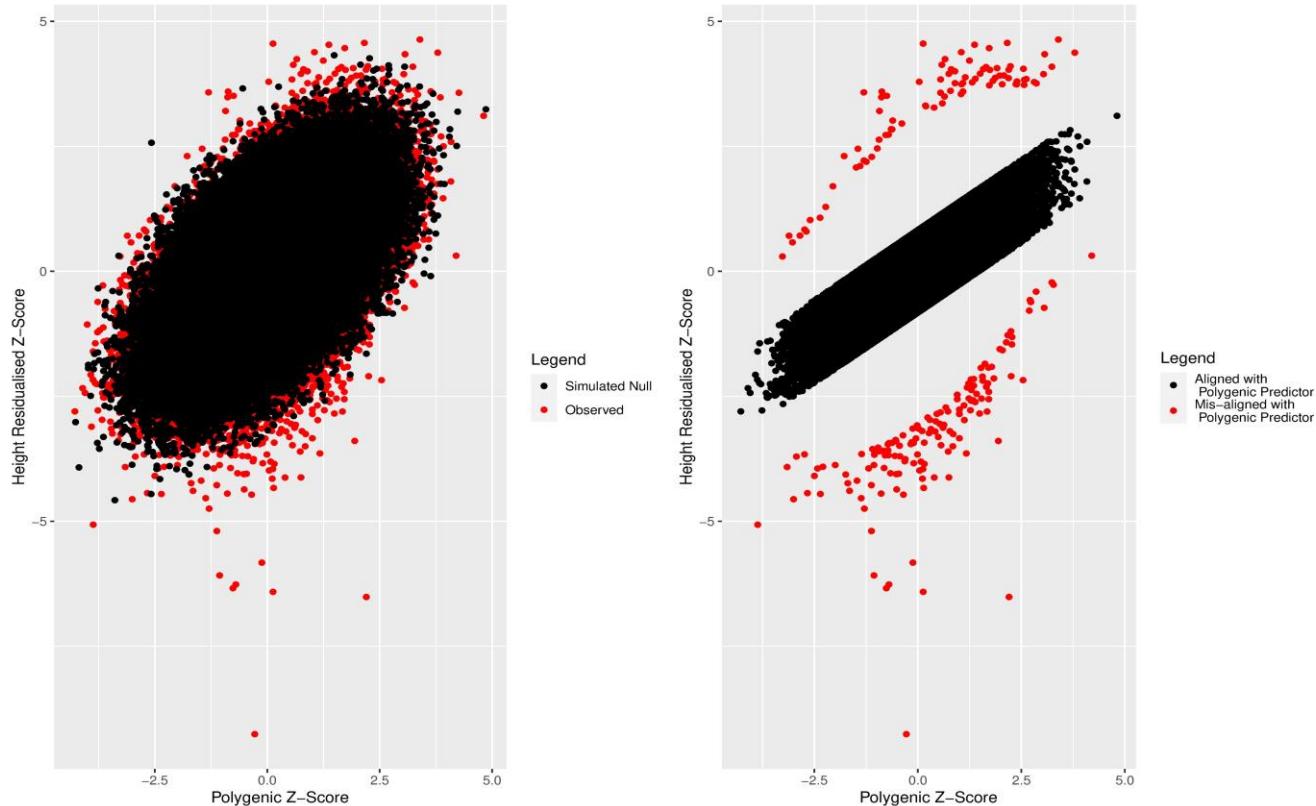
42 Using a simulated dataset of 158,951 individuals and 3,198 SNPs explaining 31.6% of the variance under an  
43 additive model (see methods), we classified 244 individuals of the 158,951 individuals from the UK Biobank  
44 as deviating from the polygenic expectation, using Mahalanobis distances based on means of the  
45 standardized polygenic scores and adjusted height measures, accounting for covariance between the two  
46 variables. Of the individuals deviating from expectation, 150 and 94 individuals were relatively short or tall  
47 for their polygenic score, respectively (Fig 2).

48 **Individuals misaligned to their genetically predicted height are more likely to recall being shorter or  
49 taller than average at age 10**

50 As a validation of our polygenic deviation classification for height, we first tested for enrichment of self-  
51 reporting being shorter or taller than average at age 10 among individuals who were shorter or taller than  
52 genetically predicted, respectively. We observed evidence of enrichment in both the short and tall deviator  
53 groups relative to the group aligned to their genetic score with  $OR = 10.1$  [95% CI 7.19, 14.2],  $P = 2 \times 10^{-42}$   
54 and  $OR = 10.4$  [95% CI 6.52, 16.5],  $P = 4 \times 10^{-27}$ , respectively.

55  
56 **Fig 2. a)** Observed (red) and simulated (black) polygenic scores and standardized height adjusted for age,  
57 sex and assessment centre. **b)** Individuals aligned (black) and misaligned (red) to genetically predicted  
58 height defined using Mahalanobis distance  $P < 0.001$ , and being more than 2 standard deviations away from

59 the mean of the residual distribution generated by regressing the polygenic score against height.



60  
61

62 **Individuals who deviate from their genetically predicted height are enriched for having a**  
63 **disproportionate body stature**

64 As individuals at the extremes of the polygenic score distribution for height are enriched for recalling being  
65 shorter or taller at age 10, we next hypothesised that individuals classified as deviating from their genetically  
66 predicted phenotype are also more likely to have disproportionate body sizes that affect standing height and  
67 have more extreme sitting-to-standing height ratios. We observed individuals who were shorter or taller  
68 than genetically predicted were enriched for extreme values of sitting-to-standing height ratio  
69 (greater than 1SD) with OR = 2.99 [95% CI 2.12, 4.15],  $P = 1.22 \times 10^{-10}$ , OR = 6.39 [95% CI 1.72, 53.4],  $P$   
70 =  $7.85 \times 10^{-4}$ , respectively.

71 **Individuals with shorter stature than genetically predicted are enriched for congenital malformations**  
72 **and deformations of the musculoskeletal system**

73 To identify potential reasons why individuals deviate from polygenic prediction, we first tested for  
74 enrichment of clinical diagnoses of congenital malformations and deformations of the musculoskeletal  
75 system as captured by ICD9 (754-756) and ICD10 (Q75-Q69) codes from Hospital Episode Statistics and  
76 primary care data where an ICD9 or ICD10 code could be extracted. We observed an enrichment within the  
77 group of individuals with shorter stature misaligned to the genetic predictor with an odds ratio of 3.45 [95%  
78 CI 2.11, 5.65],  $P = 2 \times 10^{-5}$ ) of having a diagnosis of congenital malformations and deformations of the  
79 musculoskeletal system but observed a lack of enrichment among the taller group (OR = 1.00 [95% CI 0.999,  
80 1.00],  $P = 0.783$ ).

81  
82 **Individuals who are shorter relative to their genetically predicted height are enriched for loss-of-**  
83 **function variants in genes most commonly associated with monogenic forms of short stature**

84 We next hypothesised that individuals classified as having relatively short or tall stature given their  
85 polygenic score for height would be enriched for rare variants in dominantly inherited genes previously  
86 associated with growth disorders, including overgrowth.

87 Using 238 genes catalogued in OMIM as causally associated with short or tall stature (see methods) with  
88 at least one dominant pattern of inheritance, we first tested whether individuals classified as deviating from  
89 polygenic expectation were enriched for any rare (minor allele frequency < 0.1%) loss-of-function (LoF)  
90 variants in those genes. We did not observe evidence (at  $P < 0.05$ ) for enrichment of rare LoF variants  
91 present in people defined as relatively short for their polygenic prediction (OR = 1.39 [95% CI 1.00, 1.94],  $P =$   
92 0.071). However, we did observe a stronger enrichment for LoF carriers when limiting the analysis to a  
93 subset of 6 genes (*SHOX*, *NPR2*, *ACAN*, *IGF1*, *IGF1R*, and *FGFR3*) in which variants are known to be relatively  
94 common Mendelian causes of short stature (OR = 78.4 [95% CI 40.1, 153.3],  $P = 6.83 \times 10^{-16}$ ) (see methods).

95 Among individuals with relatively tall stature for their genetic prediction, we did not observe evidence for  
96 enrichment of rare LoF variants residing in the 238 genes (OR 1.11 [95% CI 0.699, 1.75]  $P = 0.63$ ). These  
97 results were nominally significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) when limiting our analysis to 3 genes in which variants have  
98 previously been described as causal for some of the most prevalent syndromes associated with tall stature,  
99 specifically Marfan syndrome (*FBN1*) [6–8], Weaver syndrome (*EZH2*) [9], and Sotos syndrome (*NDS1*) [10]  
100 (OR= 43.7 [95% CI 1.06, 271],  $P = 0.024$ ).

### 101 **Individuals misaligned to their genetically predicted height showed no enrichment of inbreeding**

102 Following on from previous research that has suggested an association between inbreeding and reduced  
103 adult height [11], we next tested whether inbreeding could be associated with our definition of deviation  
104 from polygenic expectation. We found no evidence of association between the inbreeding F-statistic when  
105 comparing individuals who were shorter than genetically predicted versus those who were concordant with  
106 their genetically predicted height ( $\beta = -0.0488$  [95% CI -0.207, 0.109],  $P = 0.54$ ). We also observed no  
107 evidence of association in those who were taller than expected ( $\beta = -0.0559$  [95% CI -0.256, 0.144],  $P = 0.58$ ).

### 108 **Individuals who are shorter relative to their genetic predictor for height are enriched for lower 109 socioeconomic status**

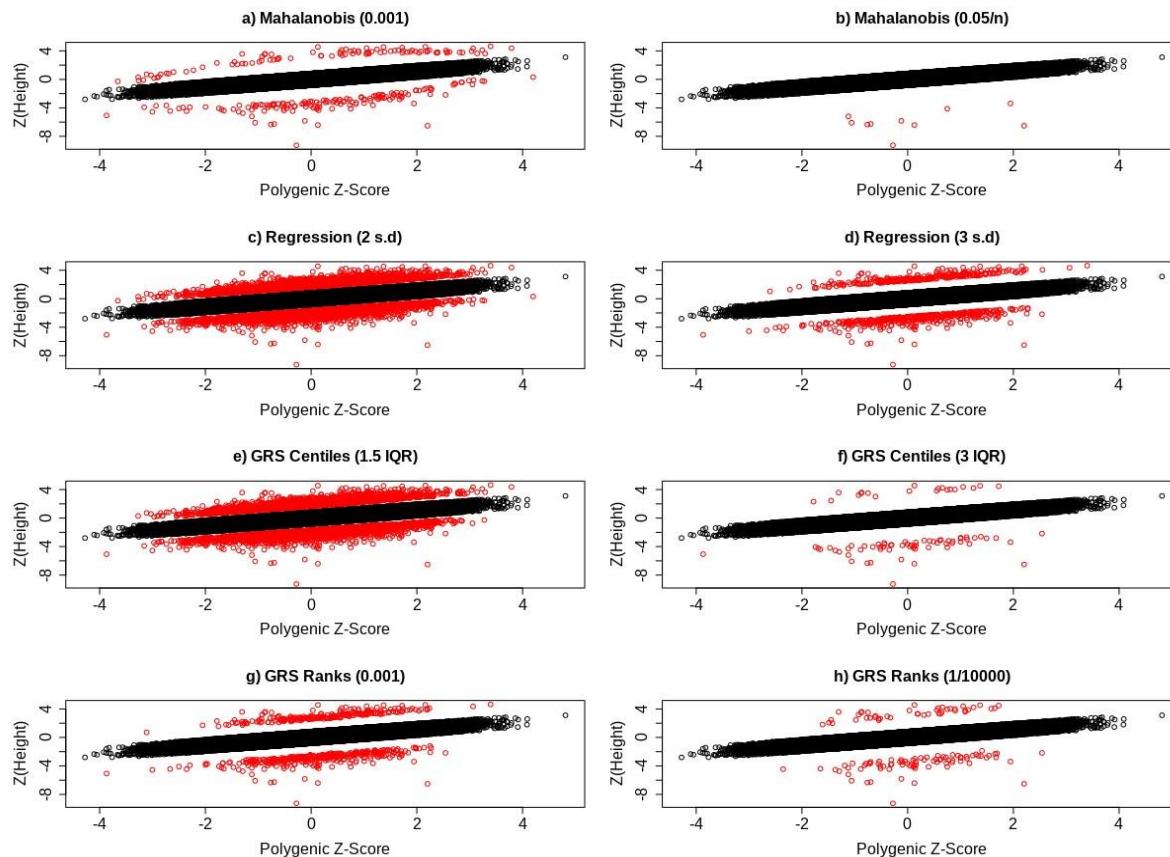
110 Finally, we explored whether non-genetic factors could influence whether an individual was classified as  
111 deviating from their genetically predicted height given their observed height. Specifically, we assessed the  
112 effect of socioeconomic status as represented by the Townsend deprivation index (TDI). We observed an  
113 enrichment of higher TDI (representing lower socioeconomic status) among individuals who were relatively  
114 short given their genetically predicted height (OR = 2.69 [95% CI 1.92, 3.76],  $P = 5.97 \times 10^{-8}$ ). We did not  
115 observe evidence that taller individuals were enriched for lower levels of TDI (OR = 1.122 [95% CI  
116 0.625, 2.02],  $P = 0.64$ ).

### 117 118 **Findings remain consistent after applying alternative methods to define individuals deviating from 119 polygenic predictions**

120 Given our primary analysis was based on using Mahalanobis distances ( $P < 0.001$ ) to define individuals  
121 deviating from polygenic predictions, we performed several sensitivity analyses to determine if our overall  
122 findings would change if different thresholds and methods were applied to define individuals deviating from  
123 polygenic expectation (see methods). Briefly, alternative approaches to define polygenic deviators that  
124 assume trait normality included 1) using Mahalanobis distances with  $P < 0.05/n$ , 2) using absolute  
125 standardised residual values greater than a) 2 or b) 3 after regressing observed polygenic scores against  
126 observed height values, and 3) using empirical P-values based on 10,000 simulations of phenotypes and  
127 polygenic score whereby an observed phenotype at a given rank of polygenic score (PS-rank) is compared  
128 with 10,000 simulated phenotypes at the same simulated PS-rank. In addition, we implemented a non-  
129 parametric centile approach that made no assumptions about the distribution of the quantitative phenotype  
130 under examination. While the number and intersection of individuals grouped into the taller and shorter  
131 groups differed depending on the method and threshold used (Supp Table 2, Supp Table 3, Supp Table 4), our

132 findings were largely unchanged (Supp Table 5, Supp Table 6). Figure 3 shows how the methods for defining  
133 deviator status vary visually.

134 **Fig 3.** Scatter plots showing the distribution of individuals who deviate (red) and do not deviate (black) from  
135 their genetic predictor for height, based on a) Mahalanobis distances with  $P < 0.001$  and b)  $P < 0.05/n$ , c)  
136 regression residuals at the 2SD and d) 3SD threshold, e) GRS centiles with a 1.5 IQR and f) 3 IQR threshold,  
137 and finally g) GRS rank with  $P < 0.001$  and (h)  $P < (1/10000)$ .  
138



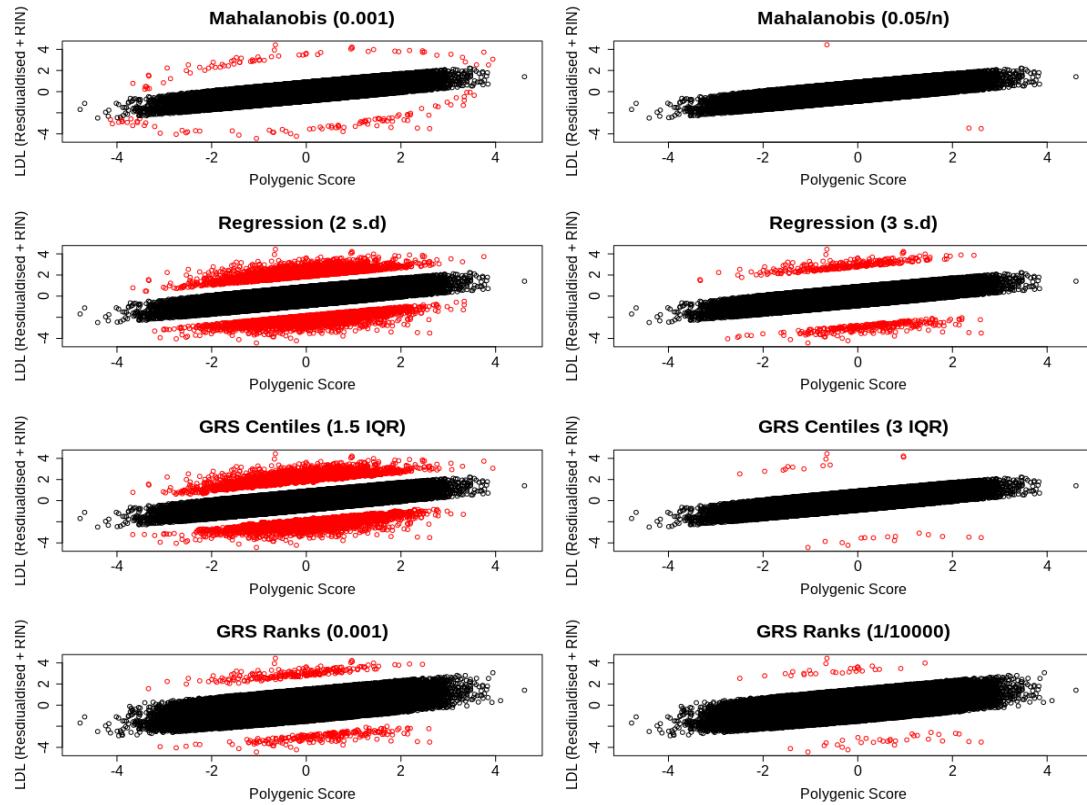
139  
140 **LDL Cholesterol**

141 **A polygenic score for LDL cholesterol explains 16.7% of the variance in the UK Biobank**

142 We derived an LDL-C polygenic score for 134,979 unrelated European individuals with measures of LDL-C  
143 (UKB Field 30780) and exome-sequencing data in the UK Biobank. We used 1,239,184 SNP effect estimates  
144 from the latest meta-analysis of LDL cholesterol (LDL-C) that excluded UK Biobank (REF). The polygenic  
145 score explained 16.7% of the variance in LDL-C.  
146

147 A 1SD increase in the polygenic score increased rank-inverse normalised residualised LDL-C (adjusted for  
148 statin use, age, sex and assessment centre and five genetic principal components) by 0.408 SDs ([95% CI  
149 0.403, 0.413],  $P < 1 \times 10^{-128}$ ), equivalent to 0.866 mmol/l. When repeating this analysis in 61,598 males and  
150 73,377 females separately, the polygenic score explained 16.2% and 18.0% of the variance respectively. A  
151 1SD change in the polygenic score resulted in a 0.402 SD [95% CI 0.395, 0.409] and 0.424 SD [95% CI 0.417,  
152 0.430] change in LDL-C in the males and females, respectively.  
153

154 **Fig 4.** Scatter plots showing the distribution of individuals who deviate (red) and do not deviate (black)  
155 deviate their genetic predictor for LDL cholesterol, based on a) Mahalanobis distances with  $P < 0.001$  and b)  
156  $P < 0.05/n$ , c) regression residuals at the 2SD and d) 3SD threshold, e) GRS centiles with a 1.5 IQR and f) 3 IQR  
157 threshold, and finally g) GRS rank with  $P < 0.001$  and (h)  $P < (1/10000)$ .  
158



159

## 160 **We classified 159 individuals as misaligned to their genetically predicted LDL cholesterol**

161 We again used the Mahalanobis metric to classify individuals who deviated from their polygenic score. Based  
162 on 134,979 individuals and 1,239,184 variants that explained 16.7% of the variance of a normally distributed  
163 outcome, we classified 159 individuals from the UK Biobank as deviating from the polygenic expectation  
164 ( $P < 0.01$ ), and 123,254 individuals as aligned to their polygenic score ( $P > 0.05$ ).

165 Of those 159 individuals classified as misaligned, 91 and 68 had a relatively low or high LDL-C for their  
166 polygenic score, respectively. In a sex stratified analysis, motivated by the static sex-heterogeneous nature of  
167 lipid levels, 53 and 38 males had relatively low or high LDL-C respectively. Additionally, 41 and 44 females  
168 had relatively low or high LDL-C respectively. An additional 17 females were classified as misaligned to their  
169 polygenic score in the sex stratified analysis, 14 (82.4%) of which had a higher LDL-C than expected. The  
170 absolute number of males classified as misaligned to their polygenic score did not change in the sex-stratified  
171 analysis, but the relative number of individuals who had a polygenic score higher than expected increased by  
172 12.1%. Due to these differences, we used the sex-stratified analysis as our primary results. We provide  
173 scatter plots in Fig. 4 showing how these individuals are distributed as compared to controls, as well as  
174 scatter plots showing how this distribution changes for the different methods that we have introduced to  
175 classify polygenic misalignment. Counts of polygenic deviators for each method are also given in STable 7.

176 **Individuals who deviate from their genetically predicted LDL-cholesterol had differing levels of**  
177 **common cardiovascular risk factors**

178 Compared to individuals classified as not deviating from their genetically predicted LDL-C levels, males with  
179 high LDL-C relative to their polygenic score had higher triglyceride levels ( $\beta = 0.695$  [95% CI 0.403, 0.985],  $P = 2.87 \times 10^{-6}$ ) and nominally higher HDL levels ( $\beta = 0.247$  [95% CI -0.017, 0.510],  $P = 0.0667$ ). All effect sizes  
180 are in sex-specific SD units. Based on the same comparison in females, individuals with a high LDL-C for their  
181 polygenic score had higher triglyceride levels ( $\beta = 0.877$  [95% CI 0.635, 1.12],  $P = 1.29 \times 10^{-12}$ ), higher BMI ( $\beta = 0.636$  [95% CI 0.321, 0.950],  $P = 7.35 \times 10^{-5}$ ) and higher cigarette use ( $\beta = 0.303$  [95% CI 0.0838, 0.523],  $P = 6.76 \times 10^{-3}$ ).

182  
183  
184  
185 Compared to individuals labelled as aligned to the genetically predicted LDL-C, males whose LDL-C was  
186 low for their polygenic score had lower triglyceride levels ( $\beta = -0.885$  [95% CI -1.13, -0.638],  $P = 2.00 \times 10^{-12}$ ), lower HDL levels ( $\beta = -0.632$  [95% CI -0.855, -0.405],  $P = 3.00 \times 10^{-8}$ ) and nominally lower diastolic  
187 blood pressure ( $\beta = -0.271$  [95% CI [-0.507, -0.03],  $P = 0.0246$ ]). In females, individuals with a low LDL-C for  
188 their polygenic score had lower triglyceride levels ( $\beta = -0.983$  [95% CI -1.23, -0.732],  $P = 1.64 \times 10^{-14}$ ) and  
189 were nominally older ( $\beta = 0.353$  [95% CI [0.0531, 0.652],  $P = 0.0210$ ) - see Figure 5 and Supp Tables 8 & 9 for  
190 all Q-risk factors that were assessed.

191  
192

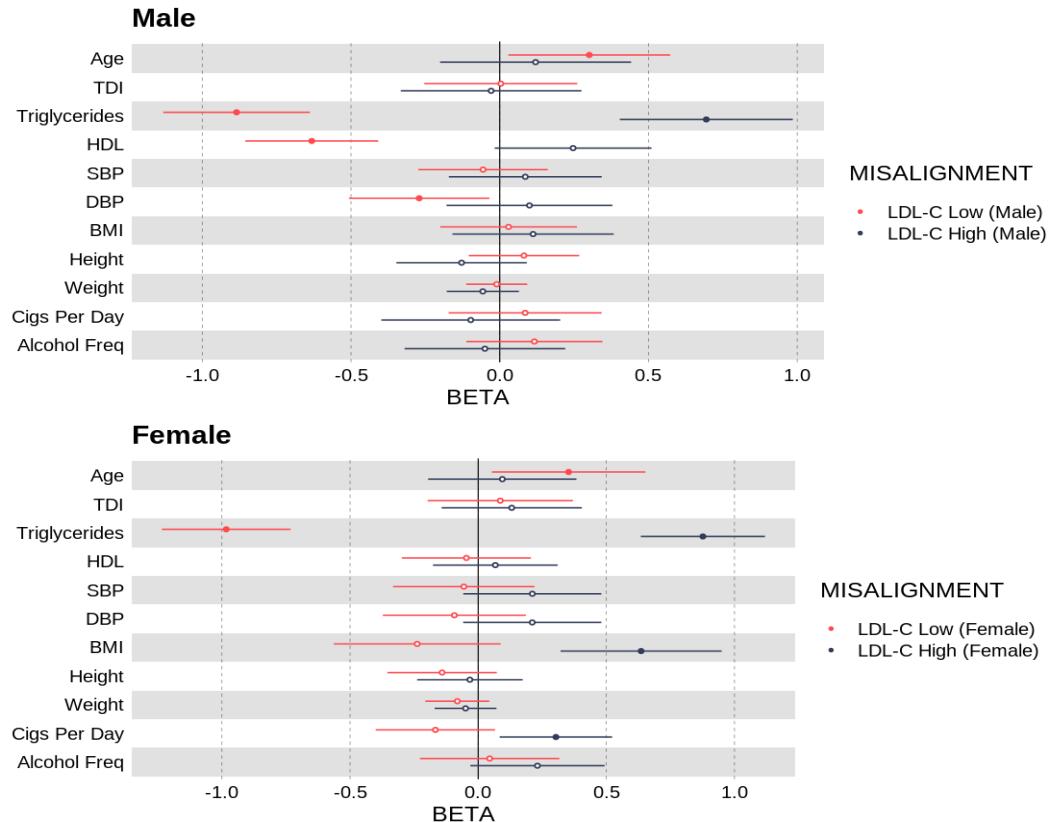
193 **Deviation from genetically predicted LDL-C increases the risk of having coronary artery disease and**  
194 **diabetes, even after adjusting for the effects of LDL-C, BMI and age**

195 Compared to individuals labelled as aligned to genetically predicted LDL-C levels, females whose LDL-C was  
196 high for their polygenic score had a nominally increased risk of T2D (OR = 7.07, [95% CI 1.38, 36.2],  $P = 0.019$ ), even after adjusting for the effects of measured LDL-C, age and BMI. We did not observe an  
197 association between of higher risk of T2D in males labelled as deviating from genetically predicted LDL.

198  
199 Among males classified as misaligned to their LDL-C genetic predictor and whose LDL-C was lower than  
200 expected, we observed an enrichment for coronary artery disease (OR = 4.82, [95% CI 2.57, 9.02],  $P = 8.87 \times 10^{-7}$ ) and nominally higher risk of type-two diabetes (OR = 2.32, [95% CI 1.10, 4.90],  $P = 0.0278$ ). In females,  
201 individuals with a low LDL-C for their polygenic score showed no evidence of enrichment for T2D or CAD.  
202 Refer to Fig. 6 and Supp Table 10 for all results.

203  
204

205 **Fig 5.** Odds ratio per standard deviation increase in Q-Risk exposure phenotypes with respect to being  
206 classified as a deviating for a polygenic score for LDL cholesterol.



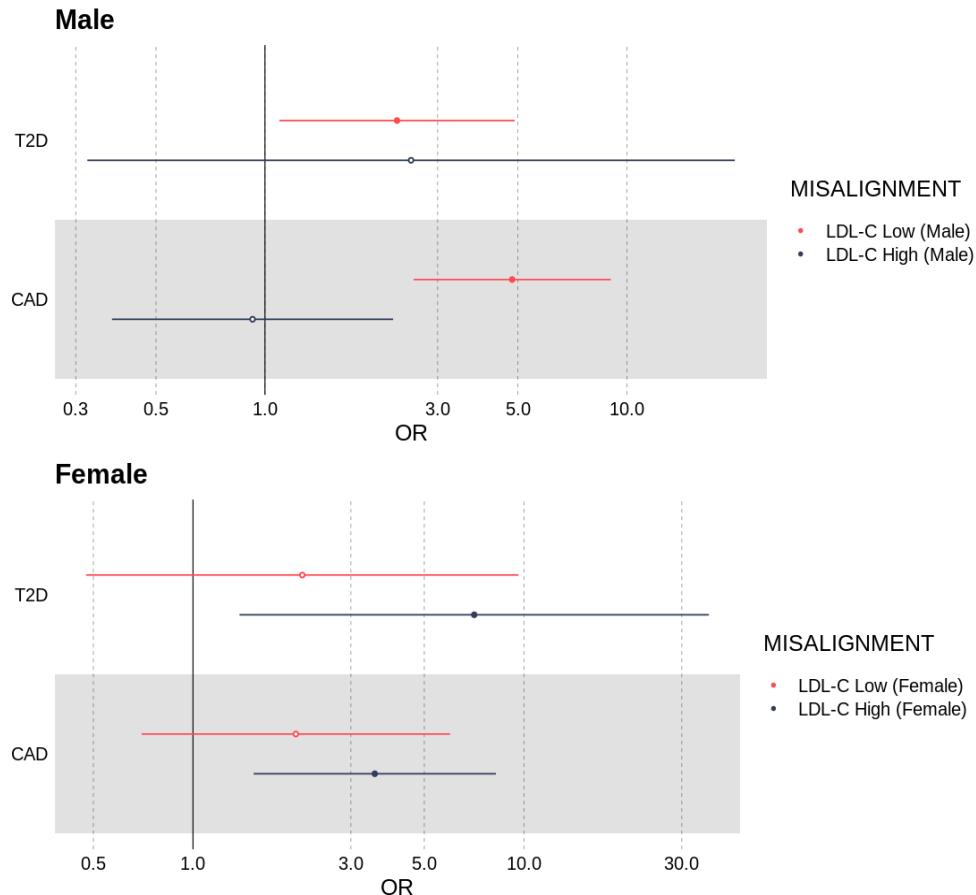
207  
208 **Individuals who deviate from their genetically predicted LDL-cholesterol were more likely to be**  
209 **carriers of damaging exome-sequenced loss-of-function variants in *LDLR*, *APOB* and *PCSK9***

210 Males and females whose LDL-C was high for their LDL-C polygenic score showed evidence of enrichment for  
211 rare (< 0.1%) loss-of-function variants in the *LDLR* gene (males: OR = 4.28 [95% CI 2.28, 8.02],  $P = 5.96 \times 10^{-6}$ ; females: OR = 4.02 [95% CI 2.17, 7.44],  $P = 1.02 \times 10^{-5}$ ).

212  
213 Males and females whose LDL-C was low for their LDL-C polygenic score showed evidence of enrichment for  
214 rare loss-of-function variants in *APOB* (males: OR = 5.49 [95% CI 4.30, 7.02],  $P = 4.12 \times 10^{-42}$ ; females: OR =  
215 5.29 [95% CI 4.11, 6.84],  $P = 1.34 \times 10^{-37}$ ), and for males in *PCSK9* (males: OR = 4.99 [95% CI 3.48, 7.17],  $P = 2.54 \times 10^{-18}$ ).

216  
217  
218 Refer to Fig. 7 and Supp Table 10 for all exome-sequencing derived enrichment results.

219  
220 **Fig 6.** Odds ratios for an individual having either type two diabetes (T2D) or coronary artery disease if they  
221 classified as misaligned to their LDL-C polygenic score, adjusted for BMI, age and LDL-C.



223 **Using the GRS-ranking method classifies more individuals as deviating from their polygenic LDL-C  
224 score, with similar features and some stronger statistical associations**

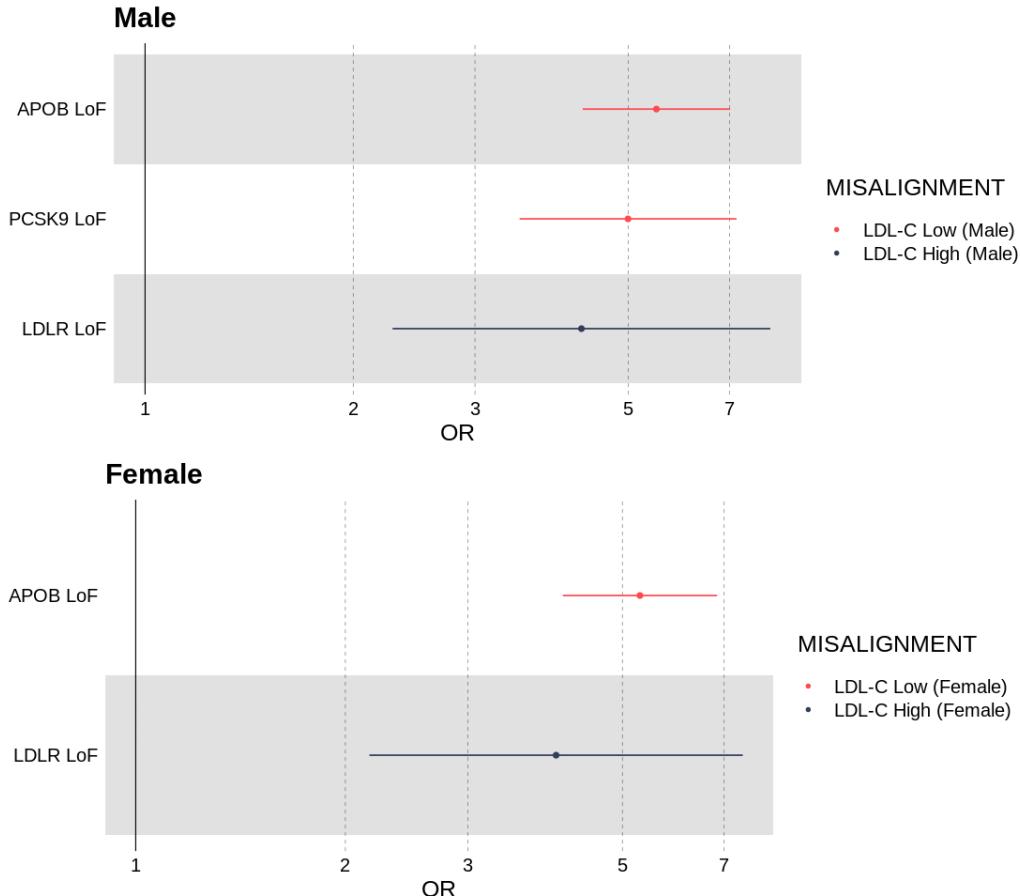
225 We additionally classified individuals who were misaligned to their polygenic score for LDL-C using the GRS  
226 ranking method, and based on interquartile ranges and the residual of regression of LDL-C on the polygenic  
227 score. Of the four methods, classifying deviation from a polygenic score using the results of which can be  
228 found in Supp Tables 7 & 8. Although the number of individuals who were classified as deviating from their  
229 polygenic score was 176.1% higher using the GRS-ranking method, the features of those individuals was  
230 similar, with the same sign of effect in 73.5% of all analyses. Additionally, with the higher number of  
231 individuals classified as deviating, the strength of the statistical association was stronger for some key  
232 analyses. For example, even after adjusting for BMI, age and measured LDL-C, individuals whose LDL-C was  
233 higher than expected based on the GRS-ranking method were much more likely to suffer from type-two  
234 diabetes (males: OR = 10.3 [95% CI 3.93, 26.9],  $P = 2.09 \times 10^{-6}$ ). We present all GRS-ranking method results  
235 in STables 7&8 alongside those derived from the Mahalanobis method.

236 **Discussion**

237 We have established novel, robust methods for identifying individuals whose phenotype is misaligned to  
238 their polygenic prediction, which we referred to as deviating from a polygenic score, applied to two well-  
239 known phenotypes: height, chosen for its high heritability and strongly predictive polygenic score, and LDL-  
240 C, chosen for being clinically actionable into adulthood, with a range of associated co-morbidities.  
241

242  
243  
244  
245

**Fig 7.** Odds ratio of an individual being a carrier of a loss-of-function variant in one of three genes known to affect LDL-C levels: (*LDLR*, *APOB* and *PCSK9*) if they were classified as misaligned to their LDL-C polygenic score.



246  
247  
248  
249

Our results were broadly consistent across the methods tested and are thus likely to be applicable to a range of phenotypes. With ever-increasing sample sizes, we suspect more traits will have highly powered polygenic risk scores that increase the efficacy of this method.

250 Several lines of evidence indicate that our approach is effective. First, we found, for both standing human  
251 height and LDL-C, individuals who deviated from their expected genetic score were enriched for rare genetic  
252 mutations in several genes known to be associated with extreme stature and LDL-C. These mutations were  
253 discovered using the whole exome sequence data in UK Biobank, and occurred in established genes, such as  
254 *ACAN* and *SHOX* for height and *LDLR* and *PCSK9* for LDL-C. Second, individuals who deviated were also  
255 enriched for other factors known to be associated with differences in phenotype, such as differences in BMI,  
256 smoking, and socio-economic position for LDL-C. For LDL-C, these differences were also reflected in different  
257 risks of heart disease and type 2 diabetes.

258 The number of individuals identified as deviators from their expected phenotype given their polygenic  
259 risk varied by method and statistical threshold used. For example, based on the less stringent statistical  
260 thresholds (fig 2a,c,e,g for height) the four methods identified between 244 and 7,316 individuals for height  
261 and between 158 and 6,402 individuals for LDL-C. Using the more stringent thresholds (fig 2b,d,f,h for  
262 height) the four methods identified between 10 and 702 individuals for height and between 3 and 577  
263 individuals for LDL-C. Across all Q-risk outcomes, as compared to individuals who had either a lower or  
264 higher LDL-C than expected classified using Mahalanobis distance at the weaker threshold ( $P < 0.001$ ), the  
265 statistical evidence for association with Q-risk criteria was stronger ( $p < 0.05$ ) when individuals were

266 classified by either the IQR (1.5IQR) or GRS residual (2SD) methods: the two methods which classified the  
267 largest number of individuals as misaligned to their polygenic score.

268 Given both height and the genetic predictor are normally distributed, we were able to use both  
269 parametric and non-parametric methods to define individuals who are phenotypically misaligned to their  
270 genetic prediction based on the additive model of inheritance. However, phenotypes such as body-mass-  
271 index (BMI) are known to be skewed [12] and therefore the non-parametric approaches discussed in this  
272 study are more likely to be suitable for other phenotypes analysed on the raw scale and are recommended if  
273 rank-based normalisation of the phenotype, for example, is not implemented.

274 There are some limitations of this study. First, while the primary method is suited for normally  
275 distributed phenotypes and genetic scores, as observed for height, no optimal Mahalanobis distance  
276 threshold is known. We have attempted to overcome this by demonstrating the efficacy of our method on  
277 LDL-C, a skewed phenotype. We have also shown that our results remain largely consistent when changing  
278 statistical thresholds that guide inclusion of individuals to follow-up who are deviating from polygenic  
279 expectation. Second, the UK Biobank is healthier than the general population [13], which may have affected  
280 our ability to identify people with rare genetic or non-genetic causes to their phenotype. Third, because the  
281 methods rely on a strong polygenic risk score, the utility to under-represented populations in GWAS studies  
282 is, currently, likely to be more limited. Finally, we note that analysis of socioeconomic status during  
283 adulthood may not necessarily serve as a good proxy for socioeconomic status at childhood during the key  
284 stages of growth and development when the living environment has the potential to act adversely on growth.  
285 In addition, we note that genetics can determine socioeconomic status [14] and is not strictly a measure of  
286 the effect of an individual's environment.

287 In conclusion, our results support the hypothesis that individuals who deviate from their genetically  
288 predicted phenotype, as defined by common variants and using a suite of statistical methods, are of clinical  
289 interest. These individuals are more likely to carry rare genetic variation, or be at greater risk of co-  
290 morbidities, and should be considered in future discovery studies.

## 291 **Methods**

### 292 **Ethics Statement**

293 The UK Biobank was granted ethical approval by the North West Multi-centre Research Ethics Committee  
294 (MREC) to collect and distribute data and samples from the participants  
295 <http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/ethics/> and covers the work in this study, which was performed under UK  
296 Biobank application numbers 9072. All participants included in these analyses gave written consent to  
297 participate.

### 298 **Study population**

299 We analysed 158,951 unrelated individuals from the UK Biobank with inferred  
300 European genetic ancestry as previously described [15]. All individuals had measurements for height, genetic  
301 data derived from genome-wide array-based imputation, and whole-exome sequence data, as described in  
302 [16]. Of those 158,951 individuals, 134,979 also had measure of LDL cholesterol from blood biochemistry.

### 303 **Phenotypic Derivation**

304 Height (cm) was derived from the UK Biobank (field 50) and converted to standardized residuals, after  
305 adjustment for age, sex and UK Biobank assessment centre. We subsequently defined short/tall stature as a  
306 residualised height > 2 standard deviations from the mean.

307 LDL cholesterol (mmol/l) was derived from the UK Biobank (field 30780) and converted to rank-inverse  
308 normalised residuals, after adjustment for medication, age, sex and UK Biobank assessment centre.

## 309 **Derivation of a polygenic predictor for height**

310 We created a genetic predictor for height (Eq (1)) for each of the unrelated 158,951 individuals using  
311 conditional effect estimates of 3,198 SNPs reaching  $P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$  from an interim meta-analysis of height  
312 performed by the Genetic Investigation of Anthropometric Traits (GIANT) consortium in up to 1,400,860  
313 individuals (mean  $N=1,148,694$ ) that excluded the UK Biobank.

314 We created a genetic predictor for LDL-C (Eq (1)) for each of the unrelated 134,979 individuals using PRS-  
315 Cs [17] applied to GWAS summary statistics of 1,239,184 SNPs from [4], based on an interim analysis that  
316 excluded UK Biobank.

317 We calculated the genetic predictors using the following formula:

$$318 PS_i = X\beta_n \times G_{n,i} \quad (1)$$

319 where  $PS_i$  refers to the  $i^{th}$  individual's polygenic score, summed over  $n$  genetic variants each with an effect  
320 size  $\beta_n$ , multiplied by an individual's genotype  $G_{n,i}$ . The genetic predictors were subsequently corrected for  
321 the first five principal components, calculated within a broader set of unrelated European individuals from  
322 the UK Biobank [18]. Finally, the distribution of the genetic predictors adjusted for genetic ancestry were  
323 standardized with  $\mu=0$  and  $\sigma=1$ .

## 324 **Identifying individuals who deviate from their expected phenotype**

325 For our primary analysis on standing height, we defined two statistical criteria for labelling individuals as  
326 deviating from their expected height given their genetic height score. First, we estimated the variance  
327 explained by the genetic predictor in the 158,951 individuals from the UK Biobank. Next, we simulated  
328 158,951 individuals and 3,198 SNPs under the additive polygenic model whereby the phenotypic variance  
329 explained by the simulated SNP effects approximated those observed in the UK Biobank. We subsequently  
330 calculated a polygenic score for each simulated individual (Eq (1)) prior to deriving the covariance matrix of  
331 the standardized simulated phenotypes and standardized polygenic scores. Next, we calculated Mahalanobis  
332 distances for the standardized observed height measures and polygenic scores using the covariance matrix  
333 from the simulated dataset. All Mahalanobis distances were subsequently converted to P-values based on a  $\chi^2$   
334 distribution with 2 degrees of freedom to represent the probability of a data point being an outlier relative to  
335 the correlation between the genetic predictor and observed phenotype. We used P-value thresholds of  $< 0.001$   
336 to define individuals deviating from their expected phenotype.

337 Second, to account for the possibility of outlying Mahalanobis distances being associated with individuals  
338 with both an extreme polygenic score and height measurement, consistent with the additive polygenic model,  
339 we regressed the observed standardized polygenic scores against the observed standardized heights and  
340 retained individuals reaching our P-value threshold if  $|z| > 2$ , where  $z$  represents the z-score of the  
341 normalised residuals of the regression model. Individuals with  $|z| < 1$  were defined as being consistent with  
342 the additive polygenic model.

343 Individuals classified as deviating from their expected phenotype were subsequently split into two groups  
344 dependent on whether their standardized height was below the mean (shorter) or above the mean (taller)  
345 for follow-up analyses.

## 346 **Testing for enrichment of characteristics among individuals deviating from 347 genetically predicted height**

348 We performed separate enrichment analysis of several characteristics in the shorter and taller than predicted  
349 for their genetically predicted phenotype individuals defined above.

## 350 **Self-reporting of being shorter or taller than average at age 10 and sitting to Standing Height Ratio**

351 We tested whether individuals who were classified as deviating from the polygenic risk score were enriched  
352 for physical observations we may expect. This included self-reporting of being shorter or taller at age 10 (UK

353 Biobank field 1697), and extreme values of the ratio of their sitting-to-standing height ratio (UK Biobank data  
354 fields 20015 and 50) adjusted for age, sex and centre.

355 **Congenital malformations and deformations of the musculoskeletal system defined using ICD9&10  
356 codes**

357 To identify individuals previously clinically diagnosed as having congenital malformations affecting the  
358 musculoskeletal system we used ICD9 and ICD10 codes available from Hospital Episode Statistics (HES), and  
359 primary care data where read codes could be converted to ICD9 or ICD10 codes. We selected ICD9 codes 754-  
360 756 (UK Biobank data fields 41203, 41205) and ICD10 codes Q65-Q79 (UK Biobank data fields 41202,  
361 41204) (and the sub-classifications of these codes).

362 **Rare variants in genes with dominant inheritance catalogued in OMIM as associated with stature  
363 phenotypes**

364 Using whole-exome sequence data available in the UK Biobank, we tested for enrichment of rare (MAF <  
365 0.001) loss-of-function variants residing in a curated list of genes related to short and tall stature from OMIM  
366 (Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man) [19]. This list was generated from all genes published in [20] (curated  
367 from OMIM queries for short stature, tall stature, overgrowth, brachydactyly, or skeletal dysplasia), plus  
368 curated genes from the union of the list in [21] with OMIM queries for short stature in 2019 and 2020, as well  
369 as OMIM queries for tall stature, overgrowth, brachydactyly or skeletal dysplasia in 2020, and Endotext  
370 skeletal disorders. Specific skeletal phenotypes can be found in the Supplementary Information. From this  
371 query, we restricted analysis to a list of 238 genes for which OMIM had catalogued as having at least one  
372 dominant inheritance pattern (Supp Table 1). Based on the canonical transcripts of the 238 genes, we used  
373 VEP [22] and the LOFTEE plugin [23] to annotate variants as loss-of-function with high confidence. We also  
374 separately assessed a subset of 6 genes (*SHOX*, *NPR2*, *ACAN*, *IGF1*, *IGF1R*, and *FGFR3*) [24] and 3 genes (*FBN1*,  
375 *EZH2* and *NSD1*) [6-10] established as common Mendelian causes of short and tall stature, respectively.  
376

377 **Inbreeding Coefficients**

378 It has previously been shown that enhanced inbreeding can lead to lower height [25].  
379 We thus assessed whether the F-statistic for inbreeding was significantly different for those individuals  
380 classified as deviating. The F-statistic for inbreeding was calculated using PLINK (v1.9) [26].

381 **A proxy measure of socioeconomic status**

382 We tested for enrichment of socio-economic status using townsend deprivation index (UK Biobank data field  
383 189), to determine whether individuals who were short/tall had a depleted/enriched socio-economic status  
384 respectively.

385 **Sensitivity analyses**

386 To determine whether our findings for standing height were based on our primary definition of deviation  
387 from polygenic expectation would be generalisable to other definitions, we repeated our analysis using  
388 additional statistical thresholds and methods. These included a more stringent Mahalanobis distance  
389 threshold of  $P < 0.05/n$ , where  $n$  is the number of individuals in the analysis. As a second approach, we  
390 generated standardized residuals for height by regressing the polygenic score for height on height measures  
391 and subsequently labelling individuals as deviating from genetic predictions if their  $\|z\text{-score}\|$  was  $>2$  or  $>3$   
392 ('Regression' - STable 2). A third approach combined observed data with simulated data. First, each  
393 individual was ranked according to their height PS and the corresponding phenotypic values stored. Next, we  
394 simulated 158,951 individuals and 3,198 genetic variants matched on the observed allele frequencies and  
395 variances explained. Subsequently, a PS was generated for each simulated individual, ranked, and their  
396 corresponding phenotype stored. This was repeated 10,000 times. Finally, at each PS rank based on the  
397 observed data, we compared the observed phenotype associated with the PS rank with the 10,000 simulated

398 phenotypic values associated with the simulated PS rankings. An empirical p-value was calculated as  $(r +$   
399  $1)/10001$ , where  $r$  represented the number of simulated phenotypes that were as extreme as that observed  
400 at the given PS rank. ('GRS Ranks' - STable 2). Finally, we used a non-parametric approach that made no  
401 assumption about the distributions of the phenotype or polygenic scores. Specifically, within each centile of  
402 the polygenic score, we defined phenotypic outliers as those outside 1)  $Q1 - 1.5 \times IQR$  to  $Q3 + 1.5 \times IQR$  (Inter  
403 Quartile Range) and 2)  $Q1 - 3 \times IQR$  to  $Q3 + 3 \times IQR$  of the standardized height measure, where  $Q1$  and  $Q3$  are the  
404 25th and 75th centiles of the observed height distribution within the GRS centile ('GRS Centiles' - STable 2).

#### 405 **Identifying individuals who deviate from their expected LDL-C**

406 We next identified individuals whose LDL-C was higher or lower than predicted by a polygenic score, again  
407 using the Mahalanobis distance as a measure of deviation from polygenic score. The distribution of LDL-C is  
408 right-skewed, and as such we applied the GRS-ranking method as a sensitivity analysis because of its less  
409 restrictive parameterisation assumptions. We additionally performed a stratified analysis of males and  
410 females separately for LDL-C due it being a static measure influenced by sex-heterogenous effects, and the  
411 associated differing downstream risk of related outcomes such as coronary artery disease. To maximise the  
412 normality of the distributions considered, we rank-inverse normalised LDL-C distributions for each sex  
413 independently.

414

#### 415 **Testing for enrichment of characteristics among individuals deviating from 416 genetically predicted LDL-C**

417 We performed separate enrichment analysis of several characteristics in the higher LDL-C and lower LDL-C  
418 than predicted for their genetically predicted phenotype individuals defined above.

#### 419 **Cardiovascular Q-Risk Phenotypes and Disease**

420 Individuals in the U.K. who are thought to be at risk of cardiovascular complications in the UK are measured  
421 on a QRISK scale [27]. The QRISK model accounts for phenotypes such as sex, ethnicity, ancestry, economic  
422 deprivation etc. We tested whether individuals who deviated from their polygenic score for LDL-C had  
423 higher/lower (as appropriate) QRISK factors. For a complete list of Q-risk factors tested, and the UKB fields  
424 from which they were derived, see Supp Table 8. For each QRISK factor in Supp Table X, we performed a  
425 linear regression with the LDL-C misalignment (higher or lower) as an exposure, corrected for sex, UKB  
426 assessment centre, age and BMI, excluding when those factors were outcomes. The QRISK outcomes were  
427 additionally rank inverse normalised so that effect sizes were scaled by the standard deviation. For  
428 downstream risk factors (diabetes, type 2 diabetes and coronary artery disease), we performed a logistic  
429 regression where LDL-C misalignment was a risk factor to one of the three outcomes.

#### 430 **Rare variants in genes with established associations with LDL-C**

431 Using whole-exome sequence data available in the UK Biobank, we tested for enrichment of rare ( $MAF <$   
432  $0.001$ ) loss-of-function variants in one of three genes known to affect levels of LDL-C: *LDLR*, *APOB* and *PCSK9*,  
433 as in [28]. As for height, based on the canonical transcripts of the 3 genes, the LOFTEE plugin to annotate  
434 variants as loss-of-function with high confidence within VEP.

## Acknowledgements

This manuscript is part of the Stratification of Obesity Phenotypes to Optimize Future Obesity Therapy (SOPHIA) project. SOPHIA has received funding from the Innovative Medicines Initiative 2 Joint Undertaking under grant agreement No. 875534. This Joint Undertaking support from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation program and EFPIA and T1D Exchange, JDRF, and Obesity Action Coalition [www.imisophia.eu](http://www.imisophia.eu). GH has received funding from the Innovative Medicines Initiative 2 Joint Undertaking under grant agreement No 875534. JT is supported by an Academy of Medical Sciences (AMS) Springboard award, which is supported by the AMS, the Wellcome Trust, GCRF, the Government Department of Business, Energy and Industrial strategy, the British Heart Foundation and Diabetes UK [SBF004\1079]. ARW is supported by the Academy of Medical Sciences / the Wellcome Trust / the Government Department of Business, Energy and Industrial Strategy / the British Heart Foundation / Diabetes UK Springboard Award [SBF006134]. The research utilised data from the UK Biobank resource carried out under UK Biobank application number 9072. UK Biobank protocols were approved by the National Research Ethics Service Committee. The authors would like to acknowledge the Exeter Sequencing service in carrying out the RNA-Sequencing. The equipment utilised is funded by the Wellcome Trust Institutional Strategic Support Fund (WT097835MF), Wellcome Trust Multi User Equipment Award (WT101650MA) and BBSRC LOLA award (BB/K003240/1). TMF is supported by MRC awards MR/W014548/1 and MR/T002239/1. LY is supported the Australian Research Council (DE200100425). JNH and SV are supported by R01 DK075787. The authors would like to acknowledge the use of the University of Exeter High-Performance Computing (HPC) facility in carrying out this work. We acknowledge use of high-performance computing funded by an MRC Clinical Research Infrastructure award (MRC Grant: MR/M008924/1).

## References

1. Burton PR, Clayton DG, Cardon LR, Craddock N, Deloukas P, Duncanson A, et al. Genome-wide association study of 14,000 cases of seven common diseases and 3,000 shared controls. *Nature*. 2007;447(7145):661–678. doi:10.1038/nature05911.
2. Khera AV, Chaffin M, Aragam KG, Haas ME, Roselli C, Choi SH, et al. Genome-wide polygenic scores for common diseases identify individuals with risk equivalent to monogenic mutations. *Nature Genetics*. 2018;50(9):1219–1224. doi:10.1038/s41588-018-0183-z.
3. Yengo, L. et al. A saturated map of common genetic variants associated with human height. *Nature* 610, (2022). Doi:10.1038/s41586-022-05275-y
4. Graham SE, Clarke SL, Wu KHH, Kanoni S, Zajac GJM, Ramdas S, et al. The power of genetic diversity in genome-wide association studies of lipids. *Nature*. 2021;600(7890):675–679. doi:10.1038/s41586-021-04064-3.
5. Chan Y, Holmen OL, Dauber A, Vatten L, Havulinna AS, Skorpen F, et al. Common variants show predicted polygenic effects on height in the tails of the distribution, except in extremely short individuals. *PLoS Genetics*. 2011;7(12). doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1002439.
6. Dietz HC, Cutting GR, Pyeritz RE, Maslen CL, Sakai LY, Corson GM, et al. Marfan syndrome caused by a recurrent de novo missense mutation in the fibrillin gene. *Nature*. 1991;352(6333):337–9. doi:10.1038/352337a0.
7. Lee B, Godfrey M, Vitale E, Hori H, Mattei MG, Sarfarazi M, et al. Linkage of Marfan syndrome and a phenotypically related disorder to two different fibrillin genes. *Nature*. 1991;352(6333):330–334. doi:10.1038/352330a0.

8. Maslen CL, Corson GM, Maddox BK, Glanville RW, Sakai LY. Partial sequence of a candidate gene for the Marfan syndrome. *Nature*. 1991;352(6333):334–337. doi:10.1038/352334a0.
9. Gibson WT, Hood RL, Zhan SH, Bulman DE, Fejes AP, Moore R, et al. Mutations in EZH2 cause weaver syndrome. *American Journal of Human Genetics*. 2012;90(1):110–118. doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2011.11.018.
10. Kurotaki N, Imaizumi K, Harada N, Masuno M, Kondoh T, Nagai T, et al. Haploinsufficiency of NSD1 causes Sotos syndrome. *Nature Genetics*. 2002;30(4):365–366. doi:10.1038/ng863.
11. Joshi PK, Esko T, Mattsson H, Eklund N, Gandin I, Nutile T, et al. Directional dominance on stature and cognition in diverse human populations. *Nature*. 2015;523(7561):459–462. doi:10.1038/nature14618.
12. Muthén B, Asparouhov T. Growth mixture modeling with non-normal distributions. *Statistics in Medicine*. 2015;34(6):1041–1058. doi:10.1002/sim.6388.
13. Fry A, Littlejohns TJ, Sudlow C, Doherty N, Adamska L, Sprosen T, et al. Comparison of Sociodemographic and Health-Related Characteristics of UK Biobank Participants with Those of the General Population. *American Journal of Epidemiology*. 2017;186(9):1026–1034. doi:10.1093/aje/kwx246.
14. Hill WD, Hagenaars SP, Marioni RE, Harris SE, Liewald DCM, Davies G, et al. Molecular Genetic Contributions to Social Deprivation and Household Income in UK Biobank. *Current Biology*. 2016;26(22):3083–3089. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2016.09.035.
15. O'Loughlin J, Casanova F, Jones SE, Hagenaars SP, Beaumont RN, Freathy RM, et al. Using Mendelian Randomisation methods to understand whether diurnal preference is causally related to mental health. *Molecular Psychiatry*. 2021;doi:10.1038/s41380-021-01157-3.
16. Szustakowski JD, Balasubramanian S, Sasson A, Khalid S, Paola G, Kvikstad E, et al. Advancing Human Genetics Research and Drug Discovery through Exome Sequencing of the UK Biobank. *medRxiv*. 2020;doi:<https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.11.02.20222232>.
17. Ge T, Chen CY, Ni Y, Feng YCA, Smoller JW. Polygenic prediction via Bayesian regression and continuous shrinkage priors. *Nature Communications*. 2019;10(1):1–10. doi:10.1038/s41467-019-09718-5.
18. Bycroft C, Freeman C, Petkova D, Band G, Elliott LT, Sharp K, et al. The UK Biobank resource with deep phenotyping and genomic data. *Nature*. 2018;562(7726):203–209. doi:10.1038/s41586-018-0579-z.
19. Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man: <https://omim.org/>.
20. Allen HL, Estrada K, Lettre G, Berndt SI, Weedon MN, Rivadeneira F, et al. Hundreds of variants clustered in genomic loci and biological pathways affect human height. *Nature*. 2010;467(7317):832–838. doi:10.1038/nature09410.
21. Wood AR, Esko T, Yang J, Vedantam S, Pers TH, Gustafsson S, et al. Defining the role of common variation in the genomic and biological architecture of adult human height. *Nature Genetics*. 2014;46(11):1173–1186. doi:10.1038/ng.3097.
22. Yates AD, Achuthan P, Akanni W, Allen J, Allen J, Alvarez-Jarreta J, et al. Ensembl 2020. *Nucleic Acids Research*. 2020;48(D1):D682–D688. doi:10.1093/nar/gkz966.

23. Karczewski KJ, Francioli LC, Tiao G, Cummings BB, Alf'oldi J, Wang Q, et al. The mutational constraint spectrum quantified from variation in 141,456 humans. *Nature*. 2020;581(7809):434–443. doi:10.1038/s41586-020-2308-7.
24. Jee YH, Andrade AC, Baron J, Nilsson O. Genetics of Short Stature. *Endocrinology and Metabolism Clinics of North America*. 2017;46(2):259–281. doi:10.1016/j.ecl.2017.01.001.
25. Field Y, Boyle EA, Telis N, Gao Z, Gaulton KJ, Golan D, et al. Detection of human adaptation during the past 2000 years. *Science*. 2016;354(6313):760–764. doi:10.1126/science.aag0776.
26. Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, Thomas L, Ferreira MAR, Bender D, et al. PLINK: A tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. *American Journal of Human Genetics*. 2007;81(3):559–575. doi:10.1086/519795.
27. Hippisley-Cox J, Coupland C, Vinogradova Y, Robson J, Minhas R, Sheikh A, et al. Predicting cardiovascular risk in England and Wales: Prospective derivation and validation of QRISK2. *Bmj*. 2008;336(7659):1475–1482. doi:10.1136/bmj.39609.449676.25.
28. Fahed AC, Wang M, Homburger JR, Patel AP, Bick AG, Neben CL, et al. Polygenic background modifies penetrance of monogenic variants for tier 1 genomic conditions. *Nature Communications*. 2020;11(1):1–9. doi:10.1038/s41467-020-17374-3.

## Disclaimer

This communication reflects the author's view: neither IMI nor the European Union, EFPIA, or any Associated Partners are responsible for any use that may be made of the information contained therein.

## Data Availability

Data cannot be shared publicly because of data availability and data return policies of the UK Biobank. Data are available from the UK Biobank for researchers who meet the criteria for access to datasets to UK Biobank (<http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk>).

## Supporting Information Legends

**Supp Info 1** Phenotypic criteria for filtering genes catalogued in OMIM and described as causal for syndromes associated with stature

**STable 1** 238 Genes with prior evidence for a causal association with height, filtered on those with evidence of a dominant inheritance relationship

**STable 2** Number of individuals, and percentage of population, identified as deviating from their polygenic score for height according to each methodology.

**STable 3** % of overlap between the methods used to determine shorter than expected deviators for height

**STable 4** % of overlap between the methods used to determine taller than expected deviators for height

**STable 5** Empirical P-values for enrichment in individuals who are short relative to their genetically predicted height across all deviator definitions. SS = Short Stature

Specific; LoF = Loss of Function; SSHR = Sitting Standing Height Ratio

**STable 6** Empirical P-values for enrichment in individuals who are tall relative to their genetically predicted height across all deviator definitions. TS = Tall Stature Specific; TDI = Townsend Deprivation Index; SSHR = Sitting Standing Height Ratio

**STable 7** Number of individuals, and percentage of population, identified as deviating from their polygenic score according to each methodology.

**STable 8** UKB Fields used for Q-Risk Factor definition

**STable 9** Continuous Q-risk outcome regression results for LDL-C polygenic deviators, for all methods

**STable 10** Binary outcome regression results for LDL-C polygenic deviators, for all methods. Analyses where the logistic regression model did not converge are labelled with “NA”.