

**RUNNING TITLE:** EA polygenic score, SES, and depression.

## **Educational Attainment Polygenic Score is Associated with Depressive Symptoms via Socioeconomic Status: A Gene-Environment-Trait Correlation**

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## Abstract

Previous research has found evidence to support low educational attainment (EA) as a risk factor for depression and shown that EA and depression are genetically correlated. However, the nature of the genetic link between EA and depression remains unknown. Recently, the environment has been suggested as a mediator of genetic influences in a process termed Gene-Environment-Trait correlations (rGET). As socioeconomic status (SES) is closely related to EA and has been associated with depression, an rGET in which SES mediates an association between the genetic influences on EA and depression is possible. Summary statistics from a recent genome-wide association study of EA were used to calculate EA polygenic scores and test whether they predict depressive symptoms through SES. Two independent samples were used for the analyses: 522 non-Hispanic Caucasian university students from the Duke Neurogenetics Study (277 women, mean age  $19.78 \pm 1.24$  years) and 5,243 white British volunteers (2,669 women, mean age  $62.30 \pm 7.41$  years) from the UK biobank (UKB). Results indicated a significant mediation in the DNS (indirect effect=-.12, bootstrapped SE=.06, bootstrapped 95% CI: -.26 to -.02), wherein higher EA polygenic scores predicted higher SES, which in turn predicted lower depressive symptoms. This mediation was replicated in the UKB (indirect effect=-.07, bootstrapped SE=.01, bootstrapped 95% CI: -.091 to -.051). These findings suggest that the genetic correlates of depression may be environment-dependent and that public policy that aims to reduce socioeconomic inequalities and the adverse correlates of low SES may relieve the individual and societal burden of depression.

**Keywords:** Depression; Socioeconomic status (SES); Educational attainment (EA); Gene-environment-trait correlation (rGET); Gene-environment-correlation (rGE).

2 Depression is a major cause of disability. With a global prevalence of around 4.7%  
3 (Ferrari et al., 2013), it is predicted to become one of the three leading causes of  
4 illness by 2030 (Mathers and Loncar, 2006). Educational attainment (EA), which is  
5 often viewed as a proxy for cognitive ability and intelligence, has been linked to  
6 depression, so that the probability of experiencing depression decreases for  
7 additional years of education (Crespo et al., 2014). A recent study (Wray et al., 2018)  
8 further showed that the link between EA and depression is partly due to shared  
9 genetic influences, and by employing a genetically informed analysis (bidirectional  
10 Mendelian randomization) found evidence to support low EA as a risk factor for  
11 depression. Notably, how the genetic link between EA and depression is mediated  
12 has not been established.

13 Recently, I hypothesized that the environment may mediate genetic  
14 correlations between two phenotypes in a process termed gene-environment-trait  
15 correlation (Avinun, in press). This hypothesis stems from accumulating research  
16 showing passive, active, and evocative processes that lead to correlations between  
17 genetic variations and environmental measures, such as parenting and stressful life  
18 events (Avinun and Knafo, 2014; Kendler and Baker, 2007). These passive, active, and  
19 evocative processes, known as gene-environment correlations (Plomin et al., 1977;  
20 Scarr and McCartney, 1983), occur due to genetically influenced characteristics that  
21 shape the individual's environment. As the environment can in turn substantially  
22 affect various outcomes, it may act as a mediator of genetic effects and contribute to  
23 the widespread genetic correlations observed between numerous phenotypes  
24 (Bulik-Sullivan et al., 2015), including EA and depression (Wray et al., 2018).

25 Identifying gene-environment-depression correlations can provide modifiable targets  
26 for public policy and also demonstrate the importance of context in the discovery of  
27 the genetic variants that influence depression.

28 Socioeconomic status (SES), which can be defined as an individual's or group's  
29 position within a social hierarchy that is determined by factors such as education,  
30 occupation, income, and wealth (Calixto and Anaya, 2014), has been shown to be  
31 genetically influenced (Hill et al., 2016; Marioni et al., 2014). In other words,  
32 genetically influenced traits affect an individual's SES. One of these traits, as has  
33 been found in a meta-analysis of longitudinal studies, is intelligence (Strenze, 2007),  
34 which is highly heritable (Plomin and Deary, 2015) and highly genetically correlated  
35 with EA (a single nucleotide polymorphism-based genetic correlation of .95; Marioni  
36 et al., 2014). Because SES has been associated with various physiological and mental  
37 disorders (e.g., Calixto and Anaya, 2014; Galobardes et al., 2004; Werner et al.,  
38 2007), including depression (Everson et al., 2002), and a genetic correlation between  
39 SES and depression has been also observed (Hill et al., 2016), a gene-environment-  
40 trait correlation in which SES mediates the genetic correlation between EA and  
41 depression, is possible.

42 A recent genome wide association study (GWAS) of EA (Lee et al., 2018)  
43 included about 1.1 million European-descent participants, making it one of the most  
44 powerful, and consequently prevalently used, GWASs in psychology. A polygenic  
45 score based on the summary statistics from this GWAS explained about 11% of the  
46 variance in EA. In the current study, I tested whether a polygenic score derived from  
47 the latter EA GWAS will be associated with an individual's SES, which in turn will be

48 associated with their depressive symptoms. Two independent samples were used: a  
49 discovery sample of 522 non-Hispanic Caucasian university students from the Duke  
50 Neurogenetics Study and a replication sample of 5,243 adult white British volunteers  
51 from the UK Biobank (UKB). As the GWAS included data from the UKB and this may  
52 bias the results, in the analyses of the UKB data I also used EA polygenic scores that  
53 were based on summary statistics from a GWAS that did not include the UKB as a  
54 discovery sample (obtained from Dr. Aysu Okbay, who is one of the authors of the  
55 original GWAS).

56

## 57 **Materials and Methods**

### 58 *Participants*

59 The discovery sample consisted of 522 self-reported non-Hispanic Caucasian  
60 participants (277 women, mean age  $19.78 \pm 1.24$  years) from the Duke  
61 Neurogenetics Study (DNS) who were not related and for whom there was complete  
62 data on genotypes, SES, depressive symptoms, and all covariates. Participants were  
63 recruited through posted flyers on the Duke University campus and through a Duke  
64 University listserv. All procedures were approved by the Institutional Review Board  
65 of the Duke University Medical Center, and participants provided informed consent  
66 before study initiation. All participants were free of the following study exclusions: 1)  
67 medical diagnoses of cancer, stroke, diabetes requiring insulin treatment, chronic  
68 kidney or liver disease, or lifetime history of psychotic symptoms; 2) use of  
69 psychotropic, glucocorticoid, or hypolipidemic medication; and 3) conditions  
70 affecting cerebral blood flow and metabolism (e.g., hypertension).

71        The replication sample consisted of 5,243 white British volunteers (2,669  
72        women, mean age  $62.30 \pm 7.41$  years), who participated in the UKB's first assessment  
73        and the imaging wave, completed an online mental health questionnaire (Davis et  
74        al., 2018), and had complete genotype, SES, depressive symptoms and covariate  
75        data. The UKB ([www.ukbiobank.ac.uk](http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk); Sudlow et al., 2015) includes over 500,000  
76        participants, between the ages of 40 and 69 years, who were recruited within the UK  
77        between 2006 and 2010. The UKB study has been approved by the National Health  
78        Service Research Ethics Service (reference: 11/NW/0382), and current analyses were  
79        conducted under UKB application 28174.

80

81        *Race/Ethnicity*

82        Because self-reported race and ethnicity are not always an accurate reflection of  
83        genetic ancestry, an analysis of identity by state of whole-genome SNPs in the DNS  
84        was performed in PLINK (Purcell et al., 2007). Before running the multidimensional  
85        scaling components analysis, SNPs were pruned for high LD ( $r^2 > 0.1$ ), and the  
86        following were removed: C/G and A/T SNPs, SNPs with a missing rate  $> 0.05$  or a minor  
87        allele frequency  $< 0.01$ , SNPs that did not pass the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium test  
88        ( $p < 1e-6$ ), sex chromosomes, and regions with long range LD (the MHC and 23  
89        additional regions; Price et al., 2008). The first two multidimensional scaling  
90        components computed for the non-Hispanic Caucasian subgroup, as determined by  
91        both self-reports and the multidimensional scaling components of the entire mixed  
92        race/ethnicity DNS sample, were used as covariates in analyses of data from the  
93        DNS. The decision to use only the first two components was based on an  
94        examination of a scree plot of the variance explained by each component. For

95 analyses of data from the UKB, only those who were 'white British' based on both  
96 self-identification and a genetic principal components analysis were included.  
97 Additionally, the first 10 multidimensional scaling components received from the  
98 UKB's data repository (unique data identifiers: 22009-0.1-22009-0.10) were included  
99 as covariates as previously done (e.g., Avinun and Hariri, 2019; Whalley et al., 2016).  
100 Further details on the computation of the multidimensional scaling components can  
101 be found elsewhere ([http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/wp-  
102 content/uploads/2014/04/UKBiobank\\_genotyping\\_QC\\_documentation-web.pdf](http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/UKBiobank_genotyping_QC_documentation-web.pdf)).

103

104 *Socioeconomic status*

105 In the DNS, SES was assessed using the "social ladder" instrument (Adler et al., 2000),  
106 which asks participants to rank themselves relative to other people in the United  
107 States (or their origin country) on a scale from 0–10, with people who are best off in  
108 terms of money, education, and respected jobs, at the top (10) and people who are  
109 worst off at the bottom (0). In the UKB, SES was assessed based on the report of  
110 average household income before tax, coded as: 1 - Less than 18,000; 2 - 18,000 to  
111 31,000; 3 - 31,000 to 52,000; 4 - 52,000 to 100,000; and 5 - Greater than 100,000.  
112 The reports made during the first assessment (i.e., before the evaluation of  
113 depressive symptoms), between 2006 and 2010, were used.

114

115 *Depressive symptoms*

116 In the DNS, the 20-item Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D)  
117 was used to asses depressive symptoms in the past week (Radloff, 1977). All items

118 were summed to create a total depressive symptoms score. In the UKB, the Patient  
119 Health Questionnaire 9-question version (PHQ-9) was used to asses depressive  
120 symptoms in the past 2 weeks (Kroenke et al., 2001). The participants answered  
121 these questions during a follow-up between 2016 and 2017. All items were summed  
122 to create a total depressive symptoms score.

123

124 *Genotyping*

125 In the DNS, DNA was isolated from saliva using Oragene DNA self-collection kits (DNA  
126 Genotek) customized for 23andMe ([www.23andme.com](http://www.23andme.com)). DNA extraction and  
127 genotyping were performed through 23andMe by the National Genetics Institute  
128 (NGI), a CLIA-certified clinical laboratory and subsidiary of Laboratory Corporation of  
129 America. One of two different Illumina arrays with custom content was used to  
130 provide genome-wide SNP data, the HumanOmniExpress (N=328) or  
131 HumanOmniExpress-24 (N=194; Do et al., 2011; Eriksson et al., 2010; Tung et al.,  
132 2011). In the UKB, samples were genotyped using either the UK BiLEVE (N=501) or  
133 the UKB axiom (N=4,742) array. Details regarding the UKB's quality control can be  
134 found elsewhere (Bycroft et al., 2017).

135

136 *Quality control and polygenic scoring*

137 For genetic data from both the DNS and UKB, PLINK v1.90 (Purcell et al., 2007) was  
138 used to apply quality control cutoffs and exclude SNPs or individuals based on the  
139 following criteria: missing genotype rate per individual >.10, missing rate per SNP  
140 >.10, minor allele frequency <.01, and Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium  $p < 1e-6$ .  
141 Additionally, in the UKB, quality control variables that were provided with the

142 dataset were used to exclude participants based on a sex mismatch (genetic sex  
143 different from reported sex), a genetic relationship to another participant, outliers  
144 for heterozygosity or missingness (unique Data Identifier 22010-0.0), and UKBiLEVE  
145 genotype quality control for samples (unique Data Identifiers 22050-0.0-22052-0.0).

146 Polygenic scores were calculated using PLINK's (Purcell et al., 2007) "--score"  
147 command based on published SNP-level summary statistics from the most recent EA  
148 GWAS (Lee et al., 2018). Published summary statistics do not include the data from  
149 23andMe per the requirements of this company. SNPs from the GWAS of EA were  
150 matched with SNPs from the DNS and the UKB. For each SNP the number of the  
151 alleles (0, 1, or 2) associated with EA was multiplied by the effect estimated in the  
152 GWAS. The polygenic score for each individual was an average of weighted EA-  
153 associated alleles. All SNPs matched with SNPs from the DNS and UKB were used  
154 regardless of effect size and significance in the original GWAS, as previously  
155 recommended and shown to be effective (Dudbridge, 2013; Ware et al., 2017).

156

157 *Statistical analysis*

158 The PROCESS SPSS macro, version 3.1 (Hayes, 2017), was used to conduct the  
159 mediation analyses in SPSS version 26. Participants' sex (coded as 0=males,  
160 1=females), age, and genetic principal components (two for the DNS and 10 for the  
161 UK biobank) were entered as covariates in all analyses. In the mediation analyses,  
162 bias-corrected bootstrapping (set to 5,000) was used to allow for non-symmetric  
163 95% confidence intervals (CIs). Specifically, indirect effects are likely to have a non-  
164 normal distribution, and consequently the use of non-symmetric CIs for the  
165 determination of significance is recommended (MacKinnon et al., 2004). However,

166 bias-corrected bootstrapping also has its faults (Hayes and Scharkow, 2013) and,  
167 consequently, as supportive evidence for the indirect effect, I also present the test of  
168 joint significance, which examines whether the *a path* (EA polygenic scores to SES)  
169 and the *b path* (SES to depressive symptoms, while controlling for the EA polygenic  
170 scores) are significant. The EA polygenic scores were standardized (i.e.,  $M=0$ ,  $SD=1$ )  
171 in SPSS to make interpretability easier. The mediation was first tested in the DNS,  
172 and then a replication was tested in the UKB. As a validation of the indirect effect in  
173 the UKB, it was also tested with EA polygenic scores that were not based on a GWAS  
174 that included the UKB. Notably, as these polygenic scores are based on a smaller  
175 sample GWAS, they are weaker predictors of EA. Additionally, to further test the  
176 robustness of the effect, in the UKB it was possible to analyze the longitudinal data  
177 while excluding those who reported on ever seeing a general physician ( $N=1,843$ ) or  
178 a psychiatrist ( $N=501$ ) "for nerves, anxiety, tension or depression", at the first  
179 assessment.

180

## 181 **Results**

### 182 *Descriptive statistics*

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

187

### 188 *EA polygenic scores and SES (a path) in the DNS*

189 The EA polygenic scores were significantly associated with SES ( $b=.20$ ,  $SE=.06$ ,  
190  $p=.0016$ ;  $R^2=0.018$ ), so that higher scores predicted higher SES. Of the covariates, age  
191 and sex were significantly associated with SES, so that older participants ( $b=.13$ ,  
192  $SE=.05$ ,  $p=.008$ ) and men ( $b=-.45$ ,  $SE=.12$ ,  $p=.0003$ ) were characterized by higher SES.

193

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

195 With the EA polygenic scores in the model, SES significantly and negatively predicted  
196 depressive symptoms ( $b=-.61$ ,  $SE=.22$ ,  $p=.007$ ;  $R^2=0.014$ ), such that higher SES  
197 predicted lower depressive symptoms. Of the covariates, age was significantly  
198 associated with depressive symptoms, so that being younger was associated with  
199 higher depressive symptoms ( $b=-.53$ ,  $SE=.25$ ,  $p=.037$ ).

200

201 *EA polygenic scores and depressive symptoms in the DNS*

202 The EA polygenic scores did not significantly predict depressive symptoms ( $b=-.11$ ,  
203  $SE=.32$ ,  $p=.74$ ). Notably, however, the significance of a direct path from X (EA  
204 polygenic scores) to Y (depressive symptoms) or the 'total effect' (the 'c' path), is not  
205 a prerequisite for the testing of a mediation/indirect effect (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon  
206 et al., 2000; Rucker et al., 2011), which was the main interest of the current study.

207

208 *Indirect Effects in the DNS*

209 The indirect path ( $a*b$ ), EA polygenic scores to depressive symptoms via SES was  
210 significant as indicated by the bias corrected bootstrapped 95% CI not including zero  
211 (Figure 1a; indirect effect=-.12, bootstrapped  $SE=.06$ , bootstrapped 95% CI: -.26 to -  
212 .02).

213

214 *Indirect Effects in the UKB*

215 The *a path*, from the EA polygenic scores to SES, and the *b path*, from SES to  
216 depressive symptoms while controlling for EA polygenic scores, were significant (*a*  
217 *path*:  $b=.17$ ,  $SE=.01$ ,  $p<.0001$ ,  $R^2=0.022$ ; *b path*:  $b=-.42$ ,  $SE=.04$ ,  $p<.0001$ ,  $R^2=0.016$ ).  
218 The indirect path also replicated (Figure 1b; indirect effect=-.07, bootstrapped  
219  $SE=.01$ , bootstrapped 95% CI: -.091 to -.051). Similar results were obtained with the  
220 EA polygenic scores that were based on a GWAS that did not include the UKB as a  
221 discovery sample (*a path*:  $b=.10$ ,  $SE=.01$ ,  $p<.0001$ ,  $R^2=0.008$ ; *b path*:  $b=-.43$ ,  $SE=.04$ ,  
222  $p<.0001$ ,  $R^2=0.017$ ; indirect effect=-.04, bootstrapped  $SE=.008$ , bootstrapped 95% CI:  
223 -.06 to -.03). An analysis that excluded participants who, at the first assessment,  
224 reported on ever seeing a professional for nerves or depression (leaving 3,447  
225 participants), and that relied on the EA polygenic scores that were based on a GWAS  
226 that excluded the UKB, further supported a causal mediation, in which higher EA  
227 polygenic scores predicted higher SES, which in turn predicted lower depressive  
228 symptoms (*a path*:  $b=.08$ ,  $SE=.02$ ,  $p<.0001$ ,  $R^2=0.005$ ; *b path*:  $b=-.15$ ,  $SE=.04$ ,  
229  $p=.0003$ ,  $R^2=0.004$ ; indirect effect=-.012, bootstrapped  $SE=.004$ , bootstrapped 95%  
230 CI: -.022 to -.005).

231

232 **Discussion**

233 The results of the current study show that EA polygenic scores are associated with  
234 depressive symptoms partly through SES, such that individuals with higher EA  
235 polygenic scores, are more likely to be of higher SES, and in turn less likely to  
236 experience depressive symptoms. This indirect effect was found in two independent

237 samples with different characteristics and measures, demonstrating the robustness  
238 of the associations. Notably, in the UKB the indirect effect was tested longitudinally,  
239 with data on SES that was collected about 6 years before the assessment of  
240 depressive symptoms. A supplementary analysis that excluded participants who  
241 reported ever seeing a professional for nerves or depression at time point 1, was  
242 also significant, further supporting a causal mediation.

243 The found mediation supports the gene-environment-trait correlations  
244 hypothesis (rGET; Avinun, in press), which suggests that certain genetic correlations  
245 may be mediated, at least in part, by the environment, i.e., an environmentally  
246 mediated pleiotropy. The found EA polygenic scores → SES → depressive symptoms  
247 mediation stresses the importance of context in genetic studies of depression. In  
248 other words, the current results suggest that, for example, a GWAS of depression  
249 that relies mostly on participants with a higher SES, may miss the genetic influences  
250 that contribute to depression through lower SES. Consequently, polygenic scores  
251 that will be based on such a GWAS will be weaker predictors of depression in low SES  
252 samples. Furthermore, the current results imply that social policies aimed at  
253 reducing socioeconomic inequalities and the negative factors that correlate with low  
254 SES may weaken the genetic effects on depression.

255 Low SES may lead to depression by adding stress to one's life. Stress that stems  
256 from having to make ends meet and from living in a disadvantaged neighborhood,  
257 which is associated with higher crime and fewer resources (Santiago et al., 2011).  
258 Low SES has also been associated with poorer access to green spaces (Dai, 2011),  
259 and with health damaging behaviors, such as physical inactivity, higher alcohol  
260 consumption, and poor nutrition (Nandi et al., 2014; Pampel et al., 2010), which are

261 thought to affect mental health (e.g., Avinun and Hariri, 2019; Beyer et al., 2014;  
262 Boden and Fergusson, 2011). All of these risk factors can be possible targets for  
263 policy makers.

264 The strengths of the current study include the use of two independent  
265 samples with markedly different measures and characteristics (e.g., young university  
266 students versus older community volunteers) and a GWAS-derived polygenic score,  
267 but it is also limited in ways that can be addressed in future studies. First, the  
268 findings are limited to populations of European descent and to the Western culture.  
269 Second, both samples consisted of volunteers and consequently do not fully  
270 represent the general population. However, it may be speculated that the observed  
271 associations would strengthen with the inclusion of more individuals from low SES  
272 backgrounds, which are usually characterized by higher levels of depression (Lorant  
273 et al., 2003). Third, the mediation model should be replicated within longitudinal  
274 designs in which measures of SES and depressive symptoms are available at multiple  
275 time points.

276 In conclusion, the current results shed light on the genetic associations that  
277 have been observed between EA and depression (Wray et al., 2018), and suggest  
278 that a part of this association may be mediated by SES. The mediation by SES is  
279 important because it suggests that the genetic influences on depression may be  
280 moderated by public policy. In addition, the current findings suggest that the genetic  
281 composition of depression is likely to depend on the social context in which it is  
282 examined.

283

284

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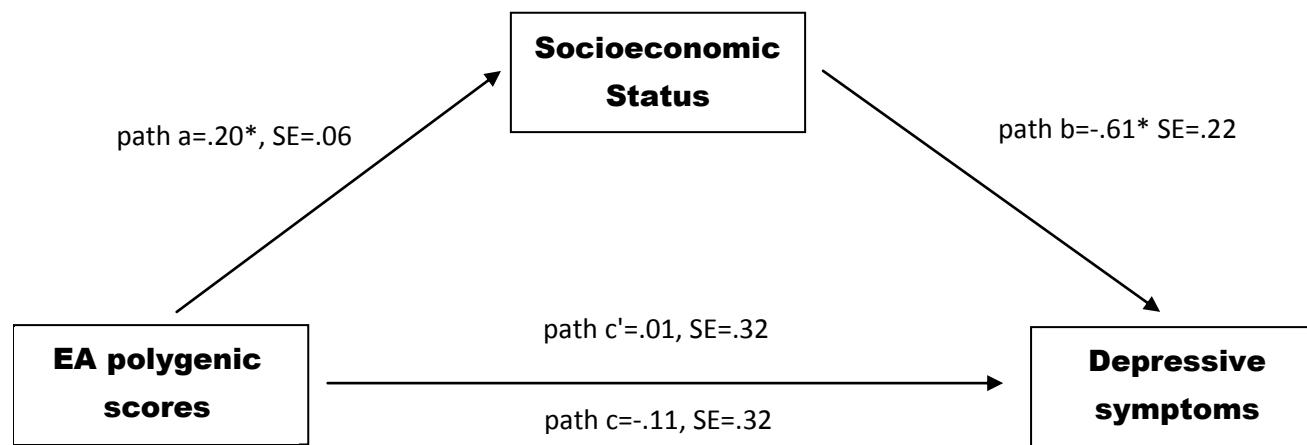
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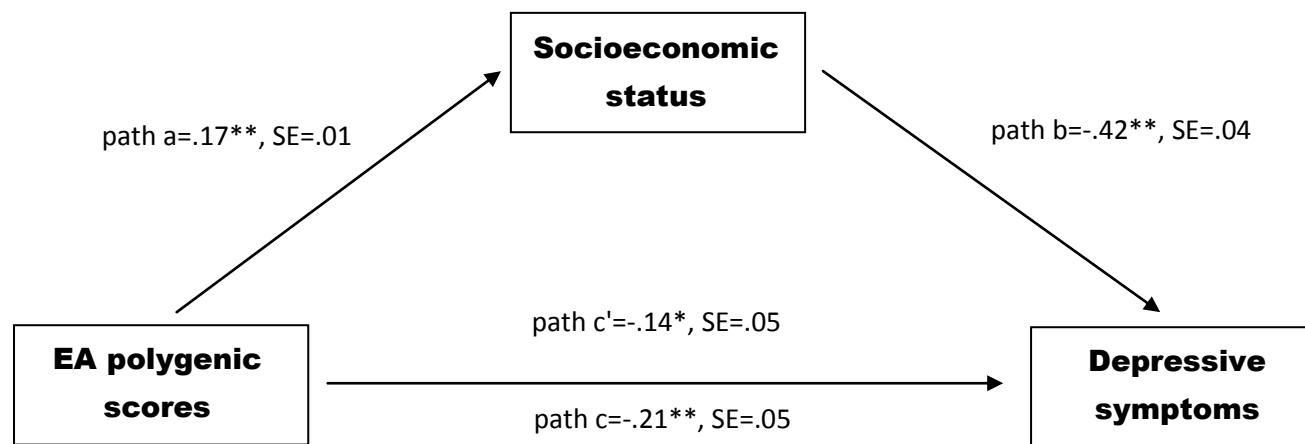
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**Figure 1.** Mediation model linking genetic influences on EA to depressive symptoms, via socioeconomic status

**1a.** Duke Neurogenetics Study: Discovery sample



**1b. UK Biobank: Replication sample**

Note. \* $p<.01$ , \*\* $p<.0001$ . c- the total effect of the EA polygenic scores on depressive symptoms; c'-the effect of EA polygenic scores on depressive symptoms, while controlling for SES.